Demographic history explains mitochondrial genome capture and mitonuclear discordance

among South American collared *Tropidurus* lizards

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Abstract

Mitonuclear discordance—evolutionary discrepancies between mitochondrial and nuclear DNA phylogenies—can arise from various factors, including introgression, incomplete lineage sorting, recent or ancient demographic fluctuations, sex-biased dispersal asymmetries, among others. Understanding this phenomenon is crucial for accurately reconstructing evolutionary histories, as failing to account for discordance can lead to misinterpretations of species boundaries, phylogenetic relationships, and historical biogeographic patterns. In this study, we investigate the evolutionary drivers of mitonuclear discordance in the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group, which contains nine species of lizards inhabiting open tropical and subtropical environments in South America. Using a combination of population genetic and phylogenomic approaches, applied to mitochondrial and nuclear data, we identified different instances of gene flow that occurred in ancestral lineages of extant species. Our results point to a complex evolutionary history marked by prolonged isolation between species, demographic fluctuations, and potential episodes of secondary contact with genetic admixture. These conditions likely facilitated mitochondrial genome capture while diluting signals of nuclear introgression. Furthermore, we found no strong evidence supporting incomplete lineage sorting or natural selection as primary drivers of the observed mitonuclear discordance. Therefore, the unveiled patterns are most consistent with neutral demographic processes, coupled with ancient mitochondrial introgression, as the main factors underlying the mismatch between nuclear and mitochondrial phylogenies in this system. Future research could further explore the role of other demographic processes, such as asymmetric sex-biased dispersal, in shaping these complex evolutionary patterns.

Key words: Mitogenome; Molecular Evolution; Phylogenomics; Squamata; Tropiduridae.

Significance

Mitochondrial and nuclear genomes evolve independently, through distinct processes, often leading to conflicting genetic patterns—a phenomenon known as mitonuclear discordance. While widely documented, the underlying causes of such discordant patterns are not always clear. In this study, we investigated the drivers of mitonuclear discordance using a lizard group (the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group) as a model system. Our findings suggest that changes in population size and historical isolation, possibly followed by secondary contact, were key drivers of ancient introgression among species, especially affecting the mitochondrial genome. These results provide valuable insights into how natural population dynamics shape the evolutionary processes behind mitonuclear discordance.

Introduction

Mitochondrial and nuclear genomes evolve independently, through distinct processes, often leading to conflicting genetic patterns—a phenomenon known as mitonuclear discordance. Cases of mitonuclear discordance are increasingly reported across a wide range of animal species. Recent examples can be found among mammals (Good et al. 2015; Phuong et al. 2016; Seixas et al. 2018; Fedorov et al. 2022), birds (Andersen et al. 2021; DeRaad et al. 2023), reptiles (Firneno et al. 2021), amphibians (Zieliński et al. 2013; Dufresnes et al. 2020; Rancilhac et al. 2021), and insects (Hinojosa et al. 2019; Dong et al., 2023). Generally, conflicting patterns between nuDNA and mtDNA arise from processes such as introgression, demographic fluctuations, sex-biased dispersal asymmetries, incomplete lineage sorting (ILS), human introductions, or *Wolbachia* infection in insects (see reviews by Toews and Brelsford 2012; Bonnet et al. 2017; Deprés 2019). Determining whether mitonuclear discordance is driven by any of these factors requires a clear understanding of the genealogies among

different loci, the demographic history of populations, and their historical

introgression/migration patterns and rates. Notably, these complexities often present

significant empirical challenges in resolving the underlying causes of discordance.

Most cases of discordance are attributed to mtDNA introgression (Toews and Brelsford

2012) and are generally associated with processes such as gene flow across hybrid zones

(Zieliński et al. 2013; Good et al. 2015; Dufresnes et al. 2020; Mao and Rossiter 2020) and

mitochondrial capture (Andersen et al. 2021). The latter refers specifically to a form of

complete introgression, where the mitochondrial genome of one species is entirely replaced

by another's (Zieliński et al. 2013). Mitochondrial capture can occur at various stages of the

speciation process and between distantly related species (Rancilhac et al. 2021). Additionally,

mitochondrial introgression can take place with minimal or not accompanying nuDNA

introgression (Zieliński et al. 2013; Good et al. 2015; Andersen et al. 2021; Rancilhac et al.

2021; Fedorov et al. 2022), making it challenging to detect introgressed nuclear and

mitochondrial markers simultaneously (Bonnet et al. 2017; Seixas et al. 2018). Therefore, ILS

is another phenomenon that cannot be overlooked in discussion of mitonuclear discordance,

given the challenges in distinguishing it from introgression (Andersen et al. 2021; DeRaad et

al. 2023). While some studies have identified ILS as a primary driver of mitonuclear

discordance, these remain relatively rare (e.g., Firneno et al. 2021).

Demographic factors, such as fluctuation in population sizes, particularly at the

periphery of a species' geographic range, can also contribute to mitonuclear discordance

(Phuong et al. 2016; Dufresnes et al. 2020; Fedorov et al. 2022). In this scenario, neutral

processes such as genetic drift can help in the fixation of mtDNA haplotypes at range edges of

expanding populations (Bonnet et al. 2017). Even in situations where introgression involves

both mtDNA and nuclear loci, mtDNA is expected to reach fixation faster, since it has a smaller

effective population size and is non-recombining (Moore 1995). Following demographic

expansions and secondary contact, nuclear genomes can fully recombine, thereby diluting

historical introgression signals, whereas divergent, non-recombining mitochondrial

haplotypes may persist.

Finally, selection can also play a role in generating mitonuclear discordance (Toews and

Brelsford 2012). If a beneficial mitochondrial mutation arises but is initially incompatible with

the nuclear genetic background of a population, selection may favor nuclear variants that

restore mitonuclear compatibility. This compensatory selection could lead to a scenario where

the advantageous mitochondrial mutation spreads widely, while the nuclear DNA follows a

different evolutionary trajectory. Empirical evidence robustly demonstrates that natural

selection can drive mtDNA introgression between populations through hybridization, even in

the absence of corresponding nuDNA introgression, provided there is even a minor selective

advantage (Excoffier et al. 2009; Zieliński et al. 2013; Good et al. 2015; Phuong et al. 2016). As

a result, the mitochondrial genome with the highest fitness may introgress into another

species, regardless of whether it originates from the resident or the invading population.

Here, we investigate the drivers of mitonuclear discordance in a biological system with

known occurrences of this phenomenon, the lizard family Tropiduridae (e.g., *Microlophus*:

Benavides et al. 2007; 2009; *Tropidurus*: Carvalho et al. 2016). Specifically, we explored the

evolutionary history of nine lineages within the *T. spinulosus* group using a multi-locus

genomic approach. This diverse group of lizards is distributed across open-vegetation tropical

and subtropical environments in South America and predominantly inhabit rocky and arboreal

habitats (Frost et al. 1998; Carvalho 2013, 2016; Carvalho et al. 2013). Although the taxonomy

of the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group has been relatively stable, new species continue to be

described (e.g., Carvalho 2016). Additionally, our research includes all taxa presently admitted

for the group plus one undescribed species, which is currently undergoing formal description

(Carvalho et al. in prep) and is referred to as *Tropidurus sp. nov.* in this study.

We integrated mitochondrial genomes, nuclear ultraconserved elements (UCEs), and

single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) derived from UCEs to assess whether the

mitochondrial genealogy corresponded to reciprocally monophyletic nuclear lineages. To

determine the potential sources of the mitonuclear discordance, we examine the relative

contributions of neutral and selective processes. Specifically, we first compared mtDNA and

nuclear phylogenies to identify conflicts and potential introgression patterns, using methods

that either account for ILS or do not. In a scenario where these approaches yield largely

congruent results, this would suggest that ILS may not play a major role in the observed

mitonuclear discordance. Second, we evaluated whether mtDNA introgression was

accompanied by detectable levels of nuDNA introgression, as most cases of discordance are

attributed to processes such as gene flow across hybrid zones. We also assessed signals of

positive selection on mtDNA to evaluate potential adaptive processes in shaping mitonuclear

discordance. Finally, as demographic processes can contribute to emerging phylogenetic

discordant patterns as well, we examined historical changes in population size to assess their

role in shaping the observed discordance, as this would align with expectations under a non-

adaptive scenario.

Results

UCE and mtDNA phylogenomic datasets

After processing our data using the Phyluce pipeline (Faircloth 2016), we obtained a

final dataset including 820 UCE loci for 43 individuals of nine lineages of the *Tropidurus*

spinulosus species group. Our complete matrix comprised alignments with 725,505 bp after

internal-trimming. Matrices with 75% and 95% of completeness were also generated, which,

after internal-trimming, generated alignments with 2,269 and 1,613 loci, 1.98M and 1.40M

bp, respectively. Nuclear phylogenetic analyses using both a partitioned approach in the IQ-

TREE software (Minh et al. 2020), based on complete and incomplete matrices

(Supplementary Figures S1-S3), and a species tree approach based on BPP (Figure 1; Flouri et

al. 2018), indicated that our samples can be grouped into three main clades: (*T. sp. nov. + T.*

xanthochilus), (T. lagunablanca + T. tarara), (T. guarani + T. spinulosus + T. teyumirim), in

addition to *T. callathelys* and *T. melanopleurus* as external lineages to the clade comprising

the remaining species. The trees inferred using ASTRAL (Zhang et al. 2018), which account for

ILS, produced similar patterns (Supplementary Figures S4-S6). Compared to the UCE dataset,

the mtDNA dataset (alignment with 40 samples, 15 genes, and 13,578 bp) produced markedly

different results regarding topology, indicating a clear case of mitonuclear discordance (Figure

1; Supplementary Figure S7-S8). Notably different from the nuclear trees, our mitochondrial

genealogy shows that while most *T. xanthochilus* samples were grouped as sister to the clade

containing *T. spinulosus* and *T. guarani*, two *T. xanthochilus* samples, the *T. sp. nov.* and the *T.*

teyumirim samples, were all recovered within the *T. tarara + T. lagunablanca* clade. Besides,

despite *T. xanthochilus* and *T. sp. nov.* forming a clade based on nuclear data, they do not

appear closely related in the mitochondrial dataset. Similarly, most groups observed in these

two phylogenetic trees are reflected in the haplotype network inferred for the *T. spinulosus*

group, showing the same pattern of discordance compared to the nuclear data

(Supplementary Figure S9).

Fig. 1. Comparison between the nuclear species tree and the mitochondrial gene tree for the group *Tropidurus spinulosus*. The left panel shows the species tree inferred from multilocus nuclear data using BPP, with branch support values indicated next to nodes (posterior probabilities). The right panel displays the mitochondrial gene tree inferred through IQ-TREE, with branch support shown as bootstrap values (in this case, we only show values above 70). Colored clades correspond to the same taxa in both trees. Collapsed branches in the mitochondrial tree represent intraspecific variation (for the fully detailed tree, see the Supplementary Material). *All nuclear gene trees recovered *T. lagunablanca* nested within *T. tarara* samples, indicating that these lineages likely represent a single evolutionary unit. Accordingly, the *T. lagunablanca* sample was assigned to *T. tarara* in the BPP analysis, so that they represent a single branch in the estimated species tree. However, for a clearer comparison with the mitochondrial genealogy, in this figure we present the two lineages as separate branches within the same clade.

Divergence dating with nuclear data indicates that the initial split within the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group occurred between 20 and 15 million years ago (Ma), separating *T. melanopleurus* from the other lineages. The split involving *T. callathely*s occurred approximately 10 Ma ago, and most subsequent divergence events among the remaining species of the group took place between 7.5 and 2.5 Ma (Figure 2; Supplementary Figure S10). In most cases, the divergence times estimated using RelTime (Tamura et al. 2018) fall within the same 95% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals provided by MCMCTree (dos Reis and Yang 2019), but some differences can be noticed (Supplementary Figure S10-11).

Phylogenetic networks and gene flow

We evaluated the potential for reticulate evolution in our dataset using five different approaches: (i) the phylogenetic networks applying quartets (SNaQ) method implemented in PhyloNetworks (Solís-Lemus and Ané 2016; Solís-Lemus et al. 2017); (ii) the maximum pseudolikelihood estimate (MPL) method implemented in PhyloNet (Wen et al. 2018); (iii) the extension of the typical tree-based model to general networks, assuming no ILS and independent loci, available in the NetRAX program (Lutteropp et al. 2022); (iv) ABBA-BABA tests for detecting gene flow between pairs of species, through the D-suite program (Malinsky et al., 2021); and (v) the MSC-M model implemented in BPP v.4.6 (Flouri et al. 2018; 2023) to estimate migration rate between pair of species that showed signals of mitonuclear discordance. The first four methods serve as exploratory tools to identify potential reticulations or gene flow events, while the BPP-based approach directly quantifies migration rates.

Analyses of the UCE dataset using PhyloNetworks revealed that models incorporating up to three reticulation events provided a better fit to our data compared to strictly bifurcating

trees, where gene tree discordance is attributed solely to ILS. However, these events are

mostly intraspecific and do not involve the species with discordant relationships, thus

Phylonetworks does not indicate that reticulation is the main source of mitonuclear

discordance (Supplementary Figures S12-S15; Table S1). Analyses using the other

phylogenetic network approaches corroborated the pattern of minimal reticulations between

species observed in our UCE data (Supplementary Figures S16-S18), and D-suite tests

(Malinsky et al., 2021) for detecting gene flow also do not indicate significant nuclear

admixture within the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group (Supplementary Table S2). Please

refer to the Supplementary Material, section "*Details on Phylogenetic Networks methodology*

and results," for a detailed explanation on all reticulation tests.

Analyses in BPP under the MSC-M model with nuclear data—100 UCE loci (93,246 bp)

selected for clock-likeness using SortaDate (Smith et al. 2018)—indicates minimal or no gene

flow among extant species, but inclusion of ancestral populations yields higher migration rate

estimates (Figure 3; Supplementary Tables S3-S4), particularly those associated with the

observed phylogenetic discordance. This pattern is robust to the choice of different guide

trees: whether constrained by the mitochondrial topology or by the partitioned nuclear

topology, although the first produces relatively higher migration rate values. Notably, both

guide tree inferences implicate *Tropidurus xanthochilus*, or its ancestors, in these ancient gene

flow events, suggesting that historical mitochondrial capture involving this lineage may

underlie the main observed discordances between nuclear and mitochondrial phylogenies.

Also, when combining the nuclear dataset alongside the complete mitochondrial genome (100

UCE loci, 93,246 bp + 1 mitochondrial partition, 13,578 bp), higher rate estimates were

generally produced than those obtained using the nuclear dataset only. In this case, migration

rates using the combined dataset (with mitochondrial and nuclear partitions) were higher

than the estimates using solely the nuclear data (Table S4). In summary, across all migration scenarios evaluated, including information derived from the mitochondrial data (whether based on topology or mitogenome alignments) consistently resulted in higher inferred migration rates compared to nuclear-only analyses, demonstrating that the inclusion of mtDNA in the analysis strengthens the detection of historical gene flow in this system.

Fig. 3. Migration (MSC-M) model for *Tropidurus spinulosus* species, displaying only the scenarios with the highest estimated migration rates. For a complete list of all tested migration scenarios and their corresponding rate values, please refer to the Supplementary Material. Population size (theta, θ) values for each species or ancestral node involved in gene flow events are shown above the branches, with the remaining theta values also provided in the Supplementary Material. The upper panel presents the analysis using the mitochondrial topology as the guide tree, whereas the lower panel shows the same analysis based on the nuclear topology, in this case using both nuclear and mitochondrial data as input. In both trees, the circled letters below the nodes denote the ancestral lineages included in the migration tests.

Estimates of population size (θ) for both current species and ancestral populations

further support the previously described scenario (Figure 3; Supplementary Tables S5-S6), for

instance indicating a directional gene flow event in which the larger ancestral population of

the *T. guarani* + *T. spinulosus* clade might have captured *T. xanthochilus* mitochondrial

genomes.

Selection

Regarding the mtDNA dataset, our analyses indicate minimal evidence of positive

selection acting on the mitogenomes of *Tropidurus spinulosus* lineages. Codon-based tests

detected limited signatures of episodic positive or diversifying selection: MEME (Mixed Effects

Model of Evolution; Murrell et al. 2012) identified nine sites (two in ATP6, one in ATP8, one in

COX1, two in COX2, and one in COX3) with p-values ≤ 0.05, while FUBAR (Fast, Unconstrained,

Bayesian AppRoximation; Murrel et al. 2013) detected two sites (one in COX1 and one in

COX2) with posterior probabilities ≥ 0.95. In contrast, both BUSTED (Branch-Site Unrestricted

Statistical Test for Episodic Diversification; Murrel et al. 2015) and aBSREL (adaptive Branch-

Site Random Effects Likelihood; Smith et al. 2015) analyses did not reveal significant episodic

selection along any branches in the mitogenomic phylogeny, even after formal testing of 36

branches with correction for multiple comparisons. Furthermore, we did not observe any

species with extreme nucleotide diversity (π) values, which could indicate selection on

mitochondrial lineages; instead, the diversity values were nearly identical across all

populations (Supplementary Table S7). Notably, the significantly negative Tajima's D (p ≤ 0.05,

Supplementary Table S8) indicates an excess of rare variants, a pattern that can arise from

both demographic expansion and selection. Subsequent analyses support a scenario of recent

expansion for the main populations, suggesting that this signal is evidence of historical

demographic changes rather than selection acting on the mitogenomes.

Demographic history

As previously demonstrated, BPP estimates of population size reveal differences

among ancestral populations likely involved in the ancient introgression events underlying the

observed discordance; these differences also support the inferred direction of gene flow

(please refer to the *Migration tests in BPP* section of the Supplementary Material as well).

Furthermore, our results indicate that demographic fluctuations (particularly rapid population

expansions) may have facilitated the fixation of mitochondrial haplotypes through neutral

processes such as genetic drift. These demographic shifts could also have diluted signatures

of introgression in the nuclear genome, even if such events occurred prior to the observed

population size changes detailed below.

Specifically, our Extended Bayesian Skyline Plots (EBSP; Heled and Drummond 2008)

revealed a pronounced increase in effective population size for all populations, particularly in

the last 100.000 years (Figure 4). Given that *Tropidurus tarara* was recovered in two distinct

clusters within the mitochondrial tree, we highlight that independent analyses were

conducted for each group. As results were identical across both groups, we present the EBSP

for only one cluster, which we consider representative of the species as a whole. For the

nuclear dataset, Stairway Plot analyses (Liu and Fu 2020) for *T. xanthochilus*, *T. tarara*, *T.*

spinulosus, and *T. guarani* revealed a consistent pattern across species, characterized by

population expansion mainly beginning 60,000 years ago, followed by relatively stable

population sizes thereafter (Figure 5). It is important to note that, since *T. guarani* was

recovered as paraphyletic in the nuclear phylogenetic analyses, we only considered samples

that consistently formed a clade, regardless of the analytical approach employed (see the

Methods section for details).

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Fig. 4. EBSP results showing changes in effective population size through time for lineages in the *Tropidurus*
spinulosus species group, based on three mitochondrial partitions (from left to right: cytb, 12 + 16s, and COX1, 2
and 3). Y-axis shows the effective population size with respective mean (dashed lines) and 95% HPD limits (the
surrounding colored area delimited by the continuous lines). Assuming a generation time of 1 year, the current
effective population size estimated at 1 would be equivalent to around 1 million. While this number appears
large, it serves only as an illustration. Actual values will vary depending on the chosen mutation rate and
generation time. The x-axis shows time in Ma as time goes backwards from left to right.

Fig. 5. Stairway Plot demographic inferences of four lineages within the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group. The red line shows the median estimate of the effective population size (Ne). The gray lines indicate the 75% (dark) and 95% (light) confidence intervals.

Discussion

Our genomic analysis of the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group reveals a complex evolutionary history characterized by: (a) significant discordance between nuclear and mitochondrial phylogenetic groupings, with very low levels of nuclear introgression; (b) at least two major mitochondrial capture events, specifically involving ancient *T. xanthochilus* populations and non-sister groups such as the *T. spinulosus* + *T. guarani* clade and *T. tarara*; (c) no signs of strong positive selection acting on mtDNA; and (d) demographic evidence of recent population expansions in both nuclear and mitochondrial genomes across various species in the group, along with differences in the sizes of ancestral populations that may have reinforced introgression events directionality. Given these findings, we suggest that the mitonuclear discordance observed in this study likely originated from admixture among ancient populations of the *T. spinulosus* species group that experienced long-term isolation, followed by secondary contact.

Methodological challenges in investigating introgression as a cause of mitonuclear

discordance

Some caution is warranted when interpreting our results, especially given the nature of our dataset. UCEs, by definition, represent highly conserved genomic regions shared across evolutionarily distant taxa (Faircloth et al. 2012). While this might suggest that such data are primarily suited for addressing 'deep' phylogenetic questions, multiple studies have demonstrated their utility at the population and individual levels (Smith et al. 2014; Raposo do Amaral et al. 2018). Additionally, the introgression and gene flow tests we used are able to capture events on different time scales. For instance, the ABBA-BABA test assumes that multiple substitutions at a given site are rare, as an excess of substitutions can distort patterns of site discordance. This assumption tends to break down in deeply divergent taxa (Hibbins and Hahn 2022), making the ABBA-BABA test more suitable for detecting recent introgression events. In our study, only one significant case of interspecific gene flow was detected (both in the case of the PhyloNetworks analysis and the ABBA-BABA tests), though it warrants caution (as discussed below). Conversely, phylogenetic networks, which analyze discordance between gene trees and other concordant factors, are less impacted by multiple substitutions at individual sites, which makes them better suited for detecting older introgression events (Hibbins and Hahn 2022).

Therefore, as we used different methodologies capable of detecting signals across distinct time scales, our results cannot be considered totally dependent on the nature of the used markers—even considering that the accuracy of phylogenetic network methods may also depend on the number of gene trees used. In this regard, previous studies have shown that a similar number of gene trees compared to our dataset is sufficient to reliably recover an accurate network topology, although the exact direction of reticulation events may remain

uncertain depending on the evolutionary scenario (Solís-Lemus and Ané 2016). Moreover, the

consistency of recovered topologies across multiple analyses, with varying levels of data

completeness, suggests that the majority of our UCE gene trees are not either unresolved or

phylogenetically uninformative. Therefore, although other genomic markers may offer

greater sensitivity for detecting introgression, the consistency of our results across multiple

analytical frameworks—each suited to detecting gene flow over different temporal scales—

supports the conclusion of minimal or no nuclear introgression within the *Tropidurus*

spinulosus group. In any case, future comparative studies are warranted to evaluate how the

choice of genomic markers may influence the detection of complex evolutionary processes

such as introgression.

Decoupled histories: mitonuclear discordance with minimal nuclear introgression

Reports of mitonuclear discordance are not unexpected, given that mitochondrial and

nuclear genomes evolve semi-independently. In this context, while previous studies have

documented nuclear introgression associated with mitonuclear discordance (e.g., Zieliński et

al. 2013; Myers et al. 2022), our findings suggest a different pattern. For instance, while we

identified   one   significant   nuclear   reticulation   event   involving   *Tropidurus*

callathelys (Supplementary Figure S14) and one significant D-statistic result involving *T.*

teyumirim (Supplementary Table S2), these findings require cautious interpretation. First,

there is no evidence suggesting contemporary hybridization within the *T. spinulosus* group.

The known biology and distribution of these specific lineages do not suggest the occurrence

of hybridization events between them (Carvalho et al. 2013; Carvalho 2013; 2016), although

this may reflect a distinction between contemporary gene flow and the ability of our methods

to detect introgression over evolutionary timescales. Second, the extreme sampling disparity

(n=1 for both *T. teyumirim* and *T. callathelys* versus larger samples for other taxa) could have

contributed to false positives in ABBA-BABA tests, which have reduced sensitivity at low

admixture levels (Durand et al. 2011), and PhyloNetworks analyses due to stochastic effects.

ILS is another phenomenon that can contribute to mitonuclear discordance, and its

signals can easily be mistaken for those caused by introgression (Andersen et al. 2021; DeRaad

et al. 2023). In our case, if some samples of a species coalesced deep in the tree, before this

lineage diverged from its common ancestor, a significant portion should have coalesced if ILS

were the predominant factor driving the discordance with mitochondrial data. However, even

our phylogenetic network analyses explicitly accounting for ILS (particularly PhyloNetworks

and PhyloNet) did not detect substantial nuclear introgression events. Moreover, the

agreement between partitioned (based on IQ-TREE) and ASTRAL analyses of nuclear markers

also suggests that ILS has a limited impact on the phylogenetic signal (Supplementary Figures

S1-S6), as ASTRAL is designed to recover the correct topology even under high levels of ILS

(Zhang et al. 2018).

Finally, it is important to acknowledge the lack of methods specifically designed to

detect mitochondrial genome introgression with the same level of precision available for

nuclear markers. The approach adopted in this study—particularly the BPP-based framework

using both mitochondrial and nuclear topologies as guide trees and integrating the

mitochondrial partition with multiple nuclear loci (Figure 3)—was designed to illustrate how

gene flow may differ between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes due to their distinct

inheritance patterns and evolutionary dynamics. Furthermore, we also aimed at emphasizing

the value of a genome-wide analytical perspective for understanding the role of introgressive

hybridization in animal speciation—an approach still lacking in many biological systems (Good

et al. 2015).

By doing that, we discovered that while our nuclear data largely dismiss the occurrence

of prominent introgression within the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group, the mitochondrial genome

presents a contrasting picture. Migration rate estimates increase when mitochondrial DNA is

included—either as an additional partition or by using the mitochondrial topology as the guide

tree (Tables S3-S4). Specifically, while BPP analyses of 100 UCE loci produced minimal

migration rate estimates (under the nuclear-guided topology), incorporating the mitogenome

into the dataset increased the estimated values despite the much larger size of the nuclear

dataset. Importantly, higher migration rate estimates appeared only in scenarios involving

ancestral populations (regardless of whether the nuclear or mitochondrial topology was used

as the guide tree), producing more realistic values (Figure 3). These findings not only

underscore the analytical value of including mitochondrial data in gene flow estimates but

also support the conclusion that the nuclear phylogenies more accurately reflect species

history in the *T. spinulosus* system.

Proximate explanations of mitonuclear discordance in the Tropidurus spinulosus species group

Evidence supporting a demography-related hypothesis regarding introgression

typically falls into three main categories (e.g., Hinojosa et al. 2019; Palacios et al. 2023; Shen

et al. 2025): (i) prolonged periods of isolation; (ii) population growth leading to secondary

contact; and (iii) a biogeographic signal related to the discordance. Below, we discuss how our

findings align with this framework, as the primary cause of the mitonuclear discordance

reported in this study is mitochondrial capture associated with the demography of the

lineages within the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group. Specifically, our results indicate ancient gene

flow events occurring in populations that were likely isolated for extended periods before

undergoing secondary contact, although we detected limited evidence of nuclear

introgression. Additionally, both nuclear and mitochondrial datasets reveal widespread

historical fluctuations in population size (Figures 4 and 5). Similar cases have been

documented in lizards (e.g., Myers et al. 2022), where geographic isolation, followed by range

and demographic expansions, led to secondary contact and gene flow between previously

diverged groups.

First, our divergence time estimates support a gradual and prolonged separation

among species in the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group, with divergence events between species

occurring from 20 Ma onward. Specifically, the initial split occurred between 20 and 15 Ma,

with *T. melanopleurus* diverging first. Around 10 Ma, *T. callathelys* separated from the

remaining taxa, while most subsequent speciation events took place between 8 and 2.5 Ma

(Figure 2). Related to that, it is important to note that the evolutionary history of South

America's dry diagonal has been shaped by multiple Neogene (23 Ma onward) geological and

climatic processes, with individual taxa responding uniquely to local conditions (Guillory et al.

2024). Deep divergences among Squamates, including those within the *T. spinulosus* group,

likely stem from Miocene events such as the uplift of the Central Brazilian Plateau and marine

incursions in the southern dry diagonal (Guillory et al., 2024; Bezerra et al., 2025).

If such geological events led to prolonged geographic isolation of lineages, their

gradual cessation would have increased opportunities for secondary contact and potential

introgression, particularly when coupled with demographic and range expansions. In such a

scenario, periods of secondary contact may have led to the formation of hybrid zones with

varying levels of interbreeding, followed by contrasting patterns of gene flow between the

nuclear and mitochondrial genomes. During periods of geographic and/or demographic

expansion, nuclear genomes—subject to recombination and meiotic segregation—undergo

widespread admixture and tend to homogenize over time, diluting distinct traces of past

isolation and secondary contact. In contrast, divergent mitochondrial haplotypes, which are non-recombining and inherited solely from the females, may persist due to genetic drift, particularly if introgression occurred early in the population expansion or when the population sizes were relatively low.

The directionality of gene flow events is another factor that could have played a crucial role in facilitating neutral mitochondrial capture. Because genetic drift is more pronounced in small populations, neutral mutations in mitogenomes are more likely to become fixed (Moore 1995; Després, 2019). Consequently, unidirectional introgression from a larger, resident population into a smaller, invading one would be more probable during the early stages of contact. If the ancestral populations of any of *Tropidurus spinulosus* species were more restricted in distribution at that point, such conditions would further facilitate the fixation of captured mitochondrial variants through drift. The repeated instances of discordance involving *T. xanthochilus*, due to ancient introgression, may suggest that this lineage had a smaller population size compared to others. Our ancestral population size estimates are consistent with this scenario. For instance, in the model where migration rates are higher (in this case, using the mitochondrial topology as the guide tree; Supplementary Tables S3-S4), Θ estimates of *T. xanthochilus* are considerably lower than those of the ancestor involved in the gene flow event—in this case M (*T. xanthochilus* → ancestor (*T. guarani*, *T. spinulosus*)) = 0.3629, with Θ values of 0.0006258 and 0.02017, respectively (Supplementary Table S5). A similar pattern was observed when the nuclear topology was used as the guide tree, with the ancestors of the *T. tarara* + *T. spinulosus* + *T. guarani* clade exhibiting higher Θ values than those of the ancestral *T. xanthochilus* populations (Supplementary Table S6). Under this scenario, it would be plausible to suggest that the mitogenomes of some *T. xanthochilus*

individuals could have been incorporated by the larger ancestral populations of the *T. guarani*

+ *T. spinulosus* clade, and also by ancestral populations of *T. tarara*.

It is also noteworthy that our main demographic analyses (EBSP and Stairway Plot)

might have captured a shorter time scale than that over which the gene flow events occurred.

Even so, relatively recent demographic shifts, during the Pleistocene (2.5 Ma − 12 kya), may

have contributed to the discordance pattern as well, either by facilitating the fixation of

mitochondrial variants or reducing detectable signals of nuclear introgression. Population

expansion events, in particular, appear to have occurred from at least 100 kya onward (Figures

4 and 5), supporting this interpretation. Similar patterns of demographic fluctuation shaping

phylogeographic histories have been reported for other squamates as well (Guillory et al.

2024). Moreover, the observed differences in temporal estimates of species demography

between those two approaches (Figures 4 and 5) are likely attributable to the distinct

mutation rates we applied to the mitochondrial and nuclear datasets. As with many non-

model organisms, species-specific substitution rate estimates for *Tropidurus* are unavailable,

adding uncertainty to time-based inferences.

The two particular instances of mtDNA capture involving *Tropidurus xanthochilus* are

also associated with biogeographic signals: one possibly occurring to the west of *T.*

xanthochilus' distribution, involving ancestral populations of the *T. spinulosus + T. guarani*

clade, and another to the south, involving *T. tarara*. Broadly speaking, *T. spinulosus* is found

west of the Paraguay River, primarily within the Chaco region (Carvalho 2013). Specifically, its

distribution spans from north-central Argentina and northwestern Paraguay to southeastern

and central Bolivia, covering both the Chaco and dry forest zones (Frost et al. 1998; Carvalho

2013). Although distributional data remain limited, the known ranges of *T. spinulosus* and *T.*

xanthochilus are allopatric. The nearest known populations of *T. spinulosus* are located at least

350 km south of the type locality of *T. xanthochilus,* near to the '*Serranía de Huanchaca*'

(Harvey and Gutberlet, 1998). Even so, Harvey and Gutberlet (1998) proposed that *T.*

xanthochilus and *T. spinulosus* might be parapatric in the area where the forests of the Tarvo

and Paraguá Rivers merge with the semideciduous *'Chiquitania'* dry forest. On the other hand,

T. tarara is currently documented from locations in the northern portion of Eastern Paraguay,

east of the Paraguay River, and its range extends into the Brazilian state of Mato Grosso do

Sul (near the southern limit of the distribution of *T. xanthochilus*).

In this context, future studies—whether empirical or based on modelling scenarios—

will be crucial to assess the potential overlap (past or present) in the distributions of *T.*

xanthochilus with *T. spinulosus* + *T. guarani* clade, and *T. tarara* as well. Such overlap would

provide additional biogeographical evidence for mitochondrial capture among these lineages.

Environmental changes can increase opportunities for hybridization and introgression through

neutral demographic processes (Excoffier et al. 2009; Phuong et al. 2016), with mitonuclear

discordance of this nature often linked to climatic instability and its effects on demographic

dynamics (Phuong et al. 2016). Phylogenetic niche modeling, which combines past and

present climate data with occurrence records and time-calibrated phylogenies to reconstruct

historical geographic ranges (e.g., Guillory and Brown, 2021), may be particularly useful for

testing these hypotheses in the future.

Finally, our findings suggest that mitochondrial capture in the *Tropidurus spinulosus*

group likely occurred during a period when the current lineages were not yet fully

differentiated and still overlapped in both space and time. This interpretation is supported by

our migration rate results, which show that the highest estimated values were associated with

scenarios involving ancestral populations (Figure 3). Particularly, this aligns with the "gray

zone of speciation" concept—a transitional phase where populations shift from widespread

admixture to complete genetic isolation (Roux et al. 2016; Burbrink et al. 2021), facilitated by

pre and/or post-zygotic barriers (Stankowski and Ravinet, 2021).

Mitonuclear discordance beyond neutral processes: a case for natural selection?

Our analyses did not reveal strong evidence of positive selection acting on the

mitochondrial genome of the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group. Site-model tests across the

phylogeny identified only a few individual codons under selection, indicating that these

methods captured limited signals of episodic or pervasive positive selection acting on the

mitogenome. However, it is important to note that these approaches are designed to detect

selection at the level of specific codons or phylogenetic branches, rather than to assess the

rapid fixation of mitochondrial haplotypes following introgression (see the HyPhy

documentation for a detailed explanation). In such a scenario, an entire haplotype could be

fixed in a new species, a process that might not be directly detectable by the methods adopted

here.

Nonetheless, complementary analyses, including nucleotide diversity estimates and

Tajima's D test results, do not provide support for natural selection either. First, comparable

π levels across the lineages involved in the discordance (Table S7) are not indicative of

selective forces strongly acting on the mitogenomes of *Tropidurus spinulosus* species.

Similarly, the negative Tajima's D values (Table S8), while theoretically compatible with both

selection and population expansion, are here interpreted as indicative of historical

demographic changes in light of the additional evidence previously discussed. Furthermore,

in lizards—where mitochondrial function is less constrained by high metabolic demands

compared to endotherms (Chung and Schulte 2020)—the selective pressure for rapid fixation

of an introgressed mitogenome is likely lower. Nonetheless, while selective factors are unlikely

to be the primary drivers of mitonuclear discordance in *T. spinulosus* lineages, adaptive

explanations may be still underrepresented in the literature (e.g., Mao and Rossiter 2020),

which may partly reflect the inherent challenges in reliably detecting selection on mtDNA

(Bonnet et al. 2017).

Sex-biased dispersal in Tropiduridae and its potential role in mitonuclear discordance

Finally, future investigations could look further into the role of mitonuclear

incompatibilities and mating systems in explaining contrasting signals between nuDNA and

mtDNA. Asymmetries between sexes in mating behavior, offspring production, and dispersal

are well-known demographic factors contributing to mitonuclear discordance (Dessi et al.

2022). For example, in species where males exhibit greater dispersal, nuDNA is expected to

show higher genetic homogeneity across distant populations, as male-mediated gene flow

facilitates the spreading and mixing of their genetic material. Conversely, if females are more

philopatric (i.e., remain near their birthplace), mtDNA may display greater population

structure, preserving historical patterns of isolation. As a result, while nuDNA may indicate a

single, cohesive population over a broad geographic range, mtDNA could reveal distinct

subpopulations shaped by limited female dispersal. This process can lead to geographically

structured mitochondrial lineages that persist despite widespread nuclear gene flow (see

reviews in Toews and Brelsford 2012; Bonnet et al. 2017). Currently, empirical data on the

dispersal behavior of *Tropidurus* species are lacking. However, research on certain groups

closely related to Tropiduridae (e.g., Phrynosomatidae) suggest that females exhibit strong

philopatry and possibly territoriality, while males may disperse further from contact zones,

facilitating nuclear gene flow but limiting mitochondrial inheritance (Qi et al. 2013). Although

limited studies have been conducted on squamate reptiles, some evidence indicates that sex-

biased differences in behavior and fitness can influence dispersal patterns. Therefore, we

recommend future research to investigate whether sex-related dispersal contributes to the

mitonuclear discordance observed in *Tropidurus*.

Conclusion

The growing number of reports documenting deep mitochondrial lineages without

corresponding nuclear differentiation highlights the need for comprehensive molecular

analyses, ideally employing phylogenomic approaches that incorporate both mitochondrial

and nuclear markers. This is especially relevant for large genomic datasets, which can provide

robust branch support, while also obscuring discordance among individual markers. Thus,

integrative approaches are crucial for disentangling complex evolutionary processes that

cause mitonuclear discordance, such as introgression, and for highlighting the unique role of

mtDNA in detecting gene flow events that may be overlooked in nuclear data.

In this study, we explored a biological system where mitochondrial capture events

were detected, offering insights and a foundation for future research into the evolutionary

mechanisms underlying these patterns in Neotropical squamates. By analyzing different types

of genetic markers, we provided a thorough investigation that contributes to the

understanding of the complex evolutionary history of the *Tropidurus spinulosus* species group.

Beyond mapping a clear case of mitonuclear discordance, we suggest that certain

mitochondrial genomes within this group have undergone ancestral introgression, likely

followed by complete capture during secondary contact events. These events left minimal

traces in the nuclear genome, due to the species' historical demography. Accurately

quantifying these patterns and understanding their underlying mechanisms are crucial for a

deeper comprehension of speciation processes.

Methods

Sampling and Lab work

The phylogenomic approaches used in this study were based on anchored sequencing

methods, specifically Ultraconserved Elements (UCE) as described by Faircloth et al. (2012).

We sequenced a total of 43 individuals (Supplementary Material, Table S9), representing all

species of the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group. RAPiD Genomics LLC (Gainesville, FL) was tasked

with sample library preparation and target enrichment of UCEs using the tetrapod 5k probe

set (Faircloth et al. 2012), followed by multiplexed paired-end (PE) sequencing (2 × 100 bp) of

UCEs on an Illumina HiSeq 3000 PE100 platform. Our samples are mainly distributed around

the Pantanal Basin, with some extending to dry environments of Paraguay and Argentina

(Figure 6).

Fig. 6. Sample distribution with species assignments based on our concatenated phylogenetic analysis. The map
at a larger scale shows the distribution of samples across various South American biomes, according to the
classification of "Terrestrial Ecoregions of the World" adopted by the World Wildlife Fund. For a detailed review
of the resolution and delimitation differences in these ecoregions, see Olson et al. (2001). The smaller-scale map
highlights the specific region where the analyzed samples are distributed. Phylogenetically identified groups are
marked with three distinct dashed line patterns, emphasizing their allopatric distribution: (1) the *T. spinulosus* +
T. guarani + *T. teyumirim clade* (multi-species), (2) the *T. tarara clade* (with *T. lagunablanca* tentatively
considered a synonym of *T. tarara*), and (3) the *T. xanthochilus* + *T. sp. nov.* clade. The map on the smaller box
also shows part of the course of the Paraguay River (light blue), which separates the *T. spinulosus* lineages to the
west from *T. guarani* and *T. tarara* to the east.

UCEs and mtDNA pipeline

We assembled the reads using the Phyluce v1.7.1 pipeline (Faircloth 2016).

Demultiplexed reads were cleaned to remove low quality bases and adapter sequences in

Trimmomatic (Bolger et al. 2014), using the wrapper program illumiprocessor in Phyluce. To

accelerate assembly and render difficult datasets tractable, we normalized read depth at a

minimum of 5 using the script bbnorm.sh available in the BBTools suite (Bushnell 2018).

Trimmed and normalized reads were inspected for quality and adapter contamination using

FastQC v0.11.9 (Andrews 2010), and then assembled into contigs with SPAdes v3.15.5

(Bankevich et al. 2012). We used Phyluce to align assembled contigs back to their associated

UCE loci, remove duplicate matches, create a taxon-specific database of contig-to-UCE

matches and extract UCE loci for all individuals. Specifically, contigs matching UCE loci were

identified and extracted using the program LastZ v1.0 (Harris 2007) within Phyluce, both in

incomplete and complete (75% and 95% of completeness) matrices (see Faircloth 2016). After

probes and UCEs were matched, we aligned UCE contigs with MAFFT v7.471 (Katoh and

Standley 2013) using specific customized settings (-globalpair, --maxiterate 1000, --

adjustdirection), and trimmed the resulting alignments using the internal-trimming algorithm

(Gblocks: Castresana 2000). As a final step, AMAS (Borowiec 2016) was used to compute final

summary statistics for all alignments.

Due to the high abundance of mtDNA in samples and the less-than-perfect efficiency

of target enrichment methods, mitochondrial data, including entire mitogenomes are often

generated as a byproduct of the UCE sequencing process (Allio et al. 2020). Thus, we extracted

mtDNA from our contig assembly produced through Phyluce using MitoFinder (Allio et al.

2020), which can find and extract multiple mitochondrial genes or even entire mitogenomes

from assembled sets of bulk sequences. In general terms, the same alignment process

described above for UCEs was adopted for mitochondrial data.

SNP calling workflow

We selected the sample with the largest number of UCE loci among all individuals

('MTR 29586', with 4800 loci) retrieved during the extraction step described above as the main

reference during the process of calling single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), as

recommended in the Zarza et. al. (2016) pipeline to extract SNPs from UCE reads. Then, we

followed the sequence capture data from population-level samples workflow developed by

Harvey et al. (2016). The first step involves BWA, which was used to map raw reads from

individuals to contigs (Li et al. 2009; Li 2013). Thus, SAM files were converted to BAM with

SAMtools (Li et al. 2009). Alignments were checked for BAM format violations, read group

header information was added, and PCR duplicates were marked for each individual using

Picard (v. 1.106). The resulting BAM files for each individual in a lineage were merged into a

single file with Picard, which was then indexed with SAMtools. The Genome Analysis Toolkit

(GATK; v. 3.4-0; McKenna et al. 2010) was used to locate and realign around indels, which was

followed by calling SNPs using the 'UnifiedGenotyper' tool in GATK. SNPs and indels were then

annotated and indels were masked. Finally, we used GATK to restrict our datasets to high-

quality SNPs (Q30 filter) and performed read-backed phasing. After that, we used the R

packages SNPfiltR (DeRaad 2022) and vcfR (Knaus and Grunwald 2017) to visual and iteratively

filter our SNP dataset based on specific quality and completeness metrics. For analyses

requiring unlinked SNPs, a linkage disequilibrium-based filtering approach was applied using

PLINK (Purcell et al. 2007) with fixed parameters (--indep-pairwise 50 10 0.5). At the end of

this process, two datasets were generated. The first, referred to as the '*unlinked SNP dataset*

I', included 42 samples and excluded the *Tropidurus melanopleurus* sample, retaining only one

sample external to the largest clade within the group, namely *T. callathelys* (used in D-suite

analysis; 40,265 SNPs, 25.34% missing data). The second one, '*unlinked SNP dataset II',* with

37 samples, excluding the *T. melanopleurus, T. callathelys, T. teyumirim* and *T. sp. nov.*

samples, and assigning the *T. lagunablanca* sample as *T. tarara* (used in Stairway Plot analysis;

27,454 SNPs, 24.71 % missing data).

Gene and species tree analysis

Gene trees for all UCE loci and the mtDNA locus were inferred using IQ-TREE v2.2.6

(Minh et al. 2020), and support was inferred using 1000 ultrafast bootstraps (≥ 95 considered

as strong support). For partitioned ML analyses, ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017),

part of the IQ-TREE package, was used to select the best fit model for each partition followed

by tree reconstruction (-m TESTNEWMERGE option), allowing partitions to have different

evolutionary rates (-spp option). Support was inferred using 1000 ultrafast bootstraps.

Additionally, species trees were inferred for the UCE dataset using ASTRAL v5.15.4 (Zhang et

al. 2018), which does this from gene trees and provides internal branch lengths in coalescent

units of gene tree discordance, as well as branch support values in the form of local posterior

probabilities (LPPs). In our ASTRAL analyses, we used the topology resulting from the

partitioned approach produced through IQ-TREE as a reference. Finally, we used BPP v.4.6

(Flouri et al., 2018) to estimate a species tree for the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group, based on

the full dataset of 820 UCE loci.

In the case of mitochondrial data, besides partitioning by gene, the alignment was also

partitioned by third codon positions (in the case of coding sequences), and we did an

additional analysis including two outgroup species to evaluate the monophyly of the

Tropidurus spinulosus group — *Plica plica* and *T. torquatus* (Supplementary Figure S6;

GenBank accession numbers: AB218961 for *P. plica*, and KU245273, KU245300, KU245090 and

KU245062 for *T. torquatus*). We present only the trees (both based on nuDNA and mtDNA)

featuring species from the *T. spinulosus* group (our in-group) in the results section. In all cases,

trees were manually rooted in *T. melanopleurus* using FigTree (Rambaut 2014), following the

topology obtained in the previously described analysis.

Divergence time estimation

A time-tree was inferred using two different approaches. The first one was the

RelTime-Branch Lengths method (Tamura et al. 2018), available in MEGA11 (Tamura et al.

2021), which uses a phylogenetic tree previously estimated branch lengths to infer divergence

dates. In this case, the time-tree was computed using the UCE-based phylogenetic tree

(complete matrix) with one calibration constraint, namely the node separating *Tropidurus*

callathelys from all the other species in the group (and using *T. melanopleurus* as the

outgroup). We used 10.74 Ma as the reference value for this constraint following the

estimates obtained by Zheng and Wiens (2016) regarding the node separating *T. callathelys*

and the rest of the species in our ingroup. The method described in Tao et al. (2020) was used

to estimate confidence intervals and set a normal distribution on the node for which

calibration densities were provided, and a normal distribution was used with the mean

centered on 10.74 and standard deviation = 0.5.

Alternatively, divergence time estimates were also estimated using the MCMCTree

v4.10 program (dos Reis and Yang 2019), which uses an approximate likelihood calculation

approach. In this case, the 100 most clocklike UCE loci within our dataset were selected,

particularly the loci with the least root-to-tip variance. Clock-likeness was assessed using the

program SortaDate (Smith et al. 2018), which measures root-to-tip variance within gene trees

and then sorts them from highest to lowest variance. The calibration in this case was

performed by constraining the age of the same node described above by > 10 and < 11 Ma,

using a fixed topology. Molecular clock estimates were obtained using the independent rates

model and we used the HKY85 model. The gamma prior on the mean substitution rate for partitions (rgene_gamma) was set to G (7, 9.75), which means a substitution rate of approximately 0.00717 substitutions/site/Ma (value available for the phylogenetically closest species to *Tropidurus* in the germline mutation rate study of Bergeron et al. 2023). The gamma rate variance (sigma2_gamma) was specified with G (1, 10). Two independent runs were performed, each consisting of 550.000 MCMC iterations, with 10.000 as burn-in, 'nsample' = 100.000, and 'sampfreq' = 5. The ESS of the MCMCTree runs were examined in Tracer v.1.7 (Rambaut et al. 2018) to determine convergence, and values > 200 were retained.

Gene flow and phylogenetic network estimation

Failing to consider the potential influence of gene flow and introgressive hybridization among species can negatively impact phylogenetic inference (e.g. Solís-Lemus and Ané 2016; Solís-Lemus et al. 2016). Therefore, given the mitonuclear discordance observed in the *Tropidurus spinulosus* clade, we evaluated reticulate evolution using five approaches: three phylogenetic network methods, ABBA-BABA tests, and migration rate estimates.

Regarding the network approaches, we first used the PhyloNetworks program (Solís-Lemus et al. 2017), in which the inference of phylogenetic networks is done with maximum pseudolikelihood from gene trees or multi-locus sequences (SNaQ; Solís-Lemus and Ané 2016). We supplied SNaQ with unrooted gene trees from 820 UCE loci containing representatives for 32 focal samples; tests were also carried out with 23 and 30 samples, in order to verify the possible influence of the number of tips on the estimation of reticulation events. In all of these alternative tests, we did not use all 43 samples from the UCEs dataset in order to lighten the computational load of the analyses. As results were similar in all configurations, here we only report the estimates with 32 and 30 samples (Supplementary

Figures S13 and S14). Observed concordance factors (CFs) were calculated from the final 820 gene trees dataset (complete matrix, see previous section) and used to infer phylogenetic networks with different maximum numbers of reticulation events (*hmax* up to 12, using 5 independent runs per h-value) and the proportion (γ) of genomic ancestry in the hybrid lineage contributed by each parental species/lineage. As the default setting for SNaQ considers that each allele in a gene tree corresponds to a specific tip in the network, we also estimated a species-level network, in which each allele/individual was mapped to a particular species, with the assignment done according to the patterns identified through IQ-TREE's partitioned approach. In both cases, we performed a goodness-of-fit test to check whether a given network could explain the quartet concordance factor data adequately (Cai and Ane 2021).

For the PhyloNet analysis (Wen et al. 2018), we applied the MPL algorithm to infer the network assigning the maximum number of reticulations from 0 to 5, with 10 runs for each reticulation value. We used the '-a taxa map' option to associate taxa with species in the species tree, also following the patterns identified through IQ-TREE's partitioned approach. In this case all individuals present the 820 UCE loci dataset were included in the analysis, but using rooted gene trees (using *Tropidurus melanopleurus* as the outgroup). In both PhyloNetworks and PhyloNet analyses, support for each value of *h* (number of hybridization events) was evaluated using the graphical slope heuristic, which involves plotting the pseudolikelihood scores against *h* (referred to as *hmax*), following the framework proposed by Solís-Lemus et al. (2017). Finally, the same dataset used for PhyloNetworks was also used in the NetRAX program (Lutteropp et al. 2022), but the input of NetRAX is the partitioned alignment itself, not the gene trees.

We used D-suite (Malinsky et al. 2021) as a complementary analysis to get gene flow

estimates obtained from Patterson's D and f-4 ratio analyses between populations/species. In

this approach, ABBA-BABA proportions were obtained with the Dtrios' program for all samples

in the *unlinked SNP dataset I,* and applying different assignment configurations of samples to

populations/species (Table S10). This program fixes the outgroup and then estimates ABBA-

BABA in all possible combinations of three populations. For example, in a tree with four

branches plus a fixed outgroup, Dtrios estimates four independent ABBA-BABA by excluding

one of the populations at a time, and assigning the remaining three populations as P1, P2, and

P3. Moreover, regarding ABBA-BABA positions, in D-suite P1 and P2 are ordered so that nABBA

≥ nBABA and the resultant D statistic is always positive. Therefore, all the results, including

the f4-ratio and other statistics reflect evidence of excess allele sharing between P3 and P2

for each trio. Additionally, when testing for introgression among highly divergent species or

for ancient introgression events, the D-statistic might indicate false signals of introgression

due to substitution rate variation among branches. To address this issue, we used the '--

ABBAclustering' option available in the D-suite program, where greater clustering of sites

would indicate a real gene flow event rather than a false positive caused by homoplasy.

As a final approach to assess how gene flow differentially impacted nuclear and

mitochondrial genomes, we used the migration model (MSC-M) available in BPP v.4.6 (Flouri

et al. 2018; 2023). This allowed us to estimate the number of migrants per generation and the

direction of gene flow for species showing the strongest mitonuclear discordance in our

phylogenetic trees. This was done in two stages, either using the nuclear species tree or the

mitochondrial genealogy as the guide tree. In the first case, we used only a portion of the

nuDNA dataset—specifically, the 100 most clocklike UCEs (as previously described). A second

migration analysis was performed using that same dataset, but this time incorporating

mitochondrial data alongside nuclear data. In other words, two analyses were conducted

using the nuclear topology as the guide tree: one using nuclear markers only (100 UCE loci,

93,246 bp) and another combining nuclear data with mitochondrial data (100 UCE loci, 93,246

bp + 1 mitochondrial partition, 13,578 bp).

In both cases we tested bidirectional migration scenarios with the following species:

Tropidurus xantochilus ↔ *T. guarani*, *T. xanthochilus* ↔ *T. spinulosus,* and *T. xanthochilus* ↔ *T.*

tarara. Scenarios involving ancestral populations or species of the following groups were also

tested. For analyses using the mitochondrial genealogy as the guide tree, these included: (A)

T. tarara and one *T. xanthochilus* group; (B) *T. guarani* and *T. spinulosus*; (C) *T. guarani, T.*

spinulosus and another *T. xanthochilus* group. When using the nuclear topology as the guide

tree, the same scenarios with current species mentioned above were tested, while also

considering the following scenarios involving ancestral nodes: (B) *T. guarani* and *T. spinulosus*;

(D) *T. sp. nov.* and *T. xanthochilus*; (E) *T. tarara, T. guarani*, *T. spinulosus* and *T. teyumirim*; (F)

T. guarani, *T. spinulosus* and *T. teyumirim.* Population sizes (θ) were also estimated and

recorded for each species and ancestral node involved in the migration pairs. In all cases, we

used an inverse gamma prior of G(3, 0.04) for the Θ parameter and G(3, 0.2) for the τ

parameter, fixing the species model prior on the topologies described above. The gamma

migration prior used was 0.1 (α = 1, β = 10). We ran analyses for 4×10^5 MCMC generations,

taking samples every five and using 5×10^3 burn-in generations. To check for consistency of

results, we conducted two independent runs for each analysis.

Furthermore, we also used POPART v. 1.7 (Leigh et al. 2015) to generate a TCS

haplotype network (Clement et al. 2002), based on 3 mitochondrial genes - cytochrome c

oxidase I, II, and III (COX1, COX2, and COX3).

Tests for positive selection and demographic changes through time

To detect significant deviations from the hypothesis of neutral evolution in the mtDNA

dataset, we tested for the evidence of positive selection using MEME (Mixed Effects Model of

Evolution; Murrell et al. 2012), BUSTED (Branch-Site Unrestricted Statistical Test for Episodic

Diversification; Murrell et al. 2015), aBSREL (adaptive Branch-Site Random Effects Likelihood;

Smith et al. 2015), and FUBAR (Fast, Unconstrained, Bayesian Approximation; Murrell et al.

2013). MEME is designed to identify sites underlying episodic selection, BUSTED provides a

gene-wide (not site-specific) test for positive selection by asking whether a gene has

experienced positive selection at least one site on at least one branch, aBSREL focuses on tree

branches and can be used to test if positive selection has occurred on a proportion of

branches, while FUBAR uses a Bayesian approach to infer nonsynonymous (dN) and

synonymous (dS) substitution rates on a per-site basis for a given coding alignment and

corresponding phylogeny. All of these tests were performed utilizing the HYPHY package

through the [DataMonkey server](), using default parameters, and the threshold of $p < 0.05$ for

all four analyses. The same alignment of mitochondrial genes used for the phylogenetic

analyses was utilized here, with the particularity that in order to perform the selection

analyses, stop codons of each coding gene were removed, manually. Besides, Tajima's D was

calculated to evaluate evidence of natural selection and population size changes in the

mitogenome using the R function 'tajima.test', from the 'pegas' package (Paradis 2010).

Mitochondrial nucleotide diversity was estimated for populations of *T. guarani*, *T. spinulosus*,

T. tarara, and *T. xanthochilus* using the 'nuc.div' function, also from the 'pegas' package.

Because selection tests indicated neutrality in the mtDNA dataset (see results), we

then performed the multilocus coalescent-based EBSP (Heled and Drummond 2008)

implemented in BEAST v2.7.6 (Bouckaert et al. 2019) to estimate changes in effective

population sizes over time. Four phylogenetic groups were used in this analysis, namely:

Tropidurus guarani, *T. spinulosus*, one *T. tarara* clade and *T. xanthochilus*. Regarding this, we

highlight that demographic analyses typically assume that each analyzed group is

monophyletic and below the species level. While *T. guarani* is consistently recovered as

paraphyletic in our nuclear phylogenies, it forms a monophyletic clade sister to *T. spinulosus*

in mitochondrial analyses. Therefore, for the EBSP analysis, which was performed exclusively

with mitochondrial data, *T. guarani* was treated as a single lineage. A similar issue arises with

T. tarara, which appears as two distinct mitochondrial groups. In this case, analyses were

conducted separately for each cluster, but since the results were identical, only one is

presented in the text, as it effectively represents both *T. tarara* groupings. In the remaining

cases, samples were divided according to the clades recovered in the mtDNA partitioned

approaches previously described.

To reduce computational burden and facilitate convergence, we conducted separate

analyses on three sets of mitochondrial genes rather than using the entire mitochondrial

genome. These sets included: 1) cytochrome b (cytb); 2) COX1, COX2, and COX3; 3) 12S and

16S ribosomal RNAs. For coding gene analyses, alignments were partitioned by gene and

codon position, with tree and clock models linked across all partitions. Site models were

treated independently, with BEAST Model Test performed separately for each partition to

estimate mutation rates, and restricting potential models to the "namedExtended" set.

Regarding substitution rates, we set 1.0×10^{-2} as the mean for the COX partition, 6.339×10^{-3}

for the 12s + 16s partition, and 1.94×10^{-2} for the cytb partition, all reference values already

used in previous studies which used similar approaches when dealing with *Tropidurus'* mtDNA

in BEAST (e.g., Werneck et al. 2015; Camurugi et al. 2022; Carvalho et al. 2024). An

uncorrelated relaxed molecular clock was adopted in all three cases (with a normal

distribution for the 'ucldMean'; Sigma = 0.0025). Because the default of the hyper-prior of the

mean of the population size distribution ("populationMean.alltrees") is a sensitive option and

takes a long time to converge (requiring longer runs), we modified the prior to a Normal

distribution centered on 1.0 (Mean) with a standard deviation of 0.1 (Sigma) to improve

convergence. Initial tests were carried out to determine the optimum number of MCMC

simulations required for each of the populations. In most tests, we ran 500,000,000 MCMC

simulations, sampled every 50,000 chains. In all cases, three independent runs were carried

out and we checked for convergence using Tracer 1.7 (Rambaut et al. 2018) by visually

checking effective sample size (ESS > 200). In specific cases where convergence was not

achieved with this number of simulations, we combined logs with LogCombiner (Rambaut and

Drummond 2014) and used those files to generate EBSP plots.

To infer the demographic history using the nuDNA dataset, we first generated a folded

SFS file for the SNP dataset with easySFS (Gutenkunst et al. 2009). We then used Stairway Plot

v. 2.18 (Liu and Fu 2020) to estimate historical effective population size changes of *Tropidurus*

xanthochilus, *T. tarara*, *T. spinulosus* and *T. guarani*. For this last group, only the 4 samples

that form a clade in the partitioned phylogenetic analyses described above were used

(Supplementary Figures S1-S6). The parameters for the Stairway Plot analysis were as follows:

67% for the training sites, and one year was assumed as generation time (A. Carvalho, pers.

commun.). The nuclear mutation rate was assumed to be 7.17×10^{-9}

substitutions/site/generation, which is the value available for the phylogenetically closest

species to *Tropidurus* in the germline mutation rate study of Bergeron et al. (2023).

Table 1 provides a summary of all analyses conducted in this study, along with their

respective objectives and main results.

Table 1. Overview of the analytical workflow used in this study, detailing the rationale behind each step. SNP = single nucleotide polymorphism; MSA = multiple sequence alignment; nuc = nuclear; mt = mitochondrial.

Method	Data	Analysis	Objectives	Main results
IQ-TREE	MSA-nuc (100, 95 and 75% UCE matrices) MSA-mt (coding + non-coding regions)	Individual-level phylogenies	What are the phylogenetic relationships of sampled individuals? Do nuc and mt topologies agree?	nuc: Three main clades detected: (*Tropidurus xanthochilus + T. sp. nov.*), (*T. tarara + T. lagunablanca*), (*T. teyumirim + T. guarani + T. spinulosus*), in addition to *T. melanopleurus* and *T. callathelys* as external lineages to the clade comprising all those species. mt: Strong disagreement between mitochondrial and nuclear-based phylogenies.
ASTRAL	MSA-nuc (100, 95 and 75% UCE matrices)	Species-level phylogenies	Does the species tree agree with the relationships inferred in the individual-level phylogenies?	Overall, it agrees with the IQ-TREE nuclear phylogenies.
BPP	MSA-nuc (100% matrix)	Species tree		
RelTime-Branch Lengths	Nuclear phylogenetic tree (100% UCE complete matrix)	Divergence times	When did the diversification of the *T. spinulosus* group occur? Could this temporal pattern be linked to the species' demographic history, or might it help explain gene flow events throughout their evolution?	Major divergence events occurring from 20 Ma onward. The initial split occurred between 20 and 15 Ma, with *T. melanopleurus* diverging first. Around 10 Ma, *T. callathelys* separated from the remaining taxa, while most subsequent speciation events took place between 7.5 and 2.5 Ma.
MCMCTree	MSA-nuc (100 most clocklike UCE loci selected through SortaDate)			
PhyloNetworks (SNaQ)	Unrooted nuclear gene trees (100% UCE complete matrix) + concordance factors	Phylogenetic Network	Can we detect introgression in the nuclear genome? Is evolutionary history better explained by networks or bifurcating trees in this case?	All phylogenetic network results suggest minimal or no introgression within the *T. spinulosus* species group.
PhyloNet	Rooted nuclear gene trees (100% UCE complete matrix)			
NetRAX	Unrooted nuclear gene trees (100% UCE complete matrix)			
POPART (TCS haplotype network)	Three mtDNA coding genes (COX1, COX2, and COX3)	Population structure	How is mtDNA structured in the group's lineages?	The clusters align with the groupings in the mt-phylogenetic tree, exhibiting the same pattern of discordance with the nuclear data.
D-suite (ABBA-BABA tests)	SNP	Gene flow	Is gene flow occurring between species within the *Tropidurus spinulosus* group?	Minimal interspecific nuclear admixture, suggesting that introgressive hybridization has had limited impact on the nuclear genomes of these species.
BPP (MSC-M model)	MSA-nuc (100 most clocklike UCE loci selected through SortaDate) + MSA-mt (coding + non-coding regions)	Multiple parameter estimation (mainly ancestral population sizes)	Assess how gene flow differentially impacted nuclear and mitochondrial genomes	Which phylogenetic reconstruction more accurately reflects the true history of population divergence: the nuclear species tree or the mitochondrial genealogy? In

			and migration rates)	other words, is the mitochondrial genealogy a reliable representation of species history, with the nuclear tree being discordant due to factors such as incomplete lineage sorting or other processes? Or, conversely, does the nuclear tree capture the actual species relationships, while the mitochondrial genealogy is discordant due to processes like introgression or historical gene flow?
HYPHY	MSA-mt (coding regions)	Selection tests	Is there evidence of positive selection in the mitogenomes of *Tropidurus spinulosus* lineages, supporting an adaptive-based process leading to mitonuclear discordance?	Overall, there is no strong evidence of adaptive processes influencing mtDNA, with positive selection detected at only a few sites in the mitogenome.
Skyline Plot (BEAST)	MSA-mt (three partitions, comprehending six genes)	Demography tests	Estimate changes in effective population sizes over time	Demographic expansions in all analyzed species, particularly from 70 kya onward.
Stairway Plot	SNP			

Acknowledgments

We thank all the institutions that provided technical, material, and structural support during the sampling phase of this study, namely the Herpetological Collection of the University of Brasília (CHUNB), the Amphibians and Reptiles Collection of the National Institute of Amazonian Research (INPA-H), the Biosciences Institute of the University of São Paulo (IB-USP), the American Museum of Natural History (AMNH), the Museo Nacional de Historia Natural del Paraguay (MNHNP), the Mato Grosso Federal University (UFMT), Museo de Historia Natural Alcide d'Orbigny, and the Universidade Nacional de Salta (UNSa). We extend our gratitude to our esteemed colleagues Eliana Lizarraga, Felipe F. Curcio (UFMT), Karina Atkinson and Jean-Paul Brouard (Fundación Para La Tierra, Paraguay), Johanna López, Nestor Romero (and family) (Estancia Cerrados del Tagatiya), Pastor Enmanuel Pérez-Estigarribia (and family), Ricardo Céspedes, Rodrigo Ayala, and Rolando Rivas for crucial assistance or support during fieldwork. We thank Angela Coda for allowing access to the Reserva Natural Cerrados

del Tagatiya and Malvina Duarte for allowing access to the Reserva Natural Laguna Blanca. We

also thank Junior Nadaline and Carlos Daniel Rivadeneira for their invaluable assistance with

genetic sample processing and DNA sequencing. MTR also thanks all members of his lab for

help in the field. Finally, we extend our gratitude to Prof. Renato Pires Machado (UFPR) for his

valuable contributions throughout the corresponding author's PhD project.

Author contributions

Matheus Salles: study design, analyses, lead writing. Fabricius Domingos and André Carvalho:

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and infrastructure. Márcio Pie, André Olivotto, Erik Choueri, Adam Leache: lab work, genome

sequencing. All authors read, commented and approved the final draft of the manuscript.

Funding

This work was funded by the Brazilian National Council for Scientific and Technological

Development [CNPq #200798/2010-3], the São Paulo Research Foundation [FAPESP

#2011/50146-6, #2016/08249-6, #2017/20235-3, #2011/50146-6], the U.S. National Science

Foundation [NSF grant #1855845], the Explorers Club, the Andrew Sabin Family Foundation,

the American Museum of Natural History (Richard Gilder Graduate School), and the Brazilian

funding agency 'Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior' (CAPES),

which provided a PhD scholarship to the correspondent author. FPW thanks CNPq for a

productivity fellowship [#307695/2023-9].

Data availability

The data underlying this article, including phylogenetic datasets, corresponding trees, input and output files for all analyses, and any other relevant supplementary files are available in Zenodo, at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15284000.

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