

1 ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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Phylogenomics, biogeography, and evolution in the American palm genus *Brahea*

Craig F. Barrett^{1,*}, Brandon T. Sinn¹, Loren T. King¹, Jesus C. Medina², Christine D. Bacon^{3,4}, Sean C. Lahmeyer⁵, and Donald R. Hodel⁶

¹Department of Biology, West Virginia University, 53 Campus Dr., Morgantown, West Virginia, USA 26506

²Department of Biological Sciences, California State University, 5151 State University Dr., Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California, USA 90032

³Department of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Carl Skottsbergs gata 22B, P.O. Box 461, SE 405 30, Göteborg, Sweden

⁴Gothenburg Global Biodiversity Centre, Box 461, SE-405 30, Göteborg, Sweden

⁵The Huntington Library, Art Collections, and Botanical Gardens, 1151 Oxford Road, San Marino, California, USA 91108

⁶University of California Cooperative Extension, 700 West Main Street, Alhambra, California USA 91801

*Corresponding author. Email: cfb0001@mail.wvu.edu, phone: 1 (304) 293-7506

20 ABSTRACT

- 21 • **Background and Aims:** Slow rates of molecular evolution at low taxonomic levels
22 hamper studies of relationships among species, and subsequent biogeographic and
23 evolutionary analyses. An example is the genus *Brahea*, which is among the most poorly
24 understood lineages of American palms and is characterized by a wide variety of growth
25 forms and intermediate morphological features.
- 26 • **Methods:** We generated approximately 400 kb of genome-scale data from all three
27 genomes for the 11 currently described species of *Brahea* to infer phylogenetic
28 relationships, reconstruct ancestral growth form, estimate ancestral geographic ranges,
29 and test for niche equivalency among closely related species with geographic overlap.
- 30 • **Key Results:** Relationships receive strong support, and conform to previous subgeneric
31 assignments, except for placement of the dwarf species *B. moorei* within subgenus
32 *Erythea*. Our robust phylogenetic hypothesis reveals trends in growth form including an
33 overall increase in height in the *B. armata* clade, and independent evolution of dwarf
34 forms from taller ancestors in the *B. pimo* and *B. dulcis* clades. Ancestral range
35 estimation reveals roles of dispersal (e.g. *B. edulis* on Guadalupe Island) and sympatric
36 speciation in some cases (e.g. in the *B. armata* clade), but is equivocal in others (e.g. in
37 the *B. pimo* clade). We find evidence of niche non-equivalency among species within the
38 *B. armata* clade in northwestern Mexico, and some evidence of niche non-equivalency
39 between *B. berlandieri* and *B. dulcis*, the former of which is synonymized under *B.*
40 *dulcis*.
- 41 • **Conclusions:** Our findings have implications for the complex biogeographic history in
42 Central America and Mexico, suggesting that sympatric speciation and dispersal are the
43 predominant processes of species diversification. Future studies should include
44 population-level sampling across the genus, along with morphological and ecological
45 information, to assess distinctness among species and, particularly, levels of gene flow, in
46 an integrative fashion.

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KEY WORDS

49 Central America, diversification, growth forms, Mexico, niche, phylogeny, Arecaceae

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INTRODUCTION

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The palms (family Arecaceae) are globally emblematic components of tropical and subtropical ecosystems (Uhl and Dransfield, 1987; Dransfield, Uhl, *et al.*, 2008; Asmussen *et al.*, 2006; Baker *et al.*, 2009; Baker and Dransfield, 2016; Balslev *et al.*, 2016). Palms are notorious for having slow substitution rates among the monocot angiosperms, likely resulting from their large size and associated consequences for the inheritance of new mutations (Gaut *et al.*, 1992; Lanfear *et al.*, 2013; Barrett *et al.*, 2016a). Slow mutation rates equate to fewer informative molecular characters for phylogenetic analysis, and thus hamper our understanding of interspecific relationships in many clades. Resolved, strongly supported phylogenetic hypotheses form an essential basis for taxonomic research and subsequent inference of character evolution, biogeography, and niche evolution. Genome-scale datasets provide a solution, having become feasible to obtain with the widespread availability of high-throughput sequencing methods. Not surprisingly, palm systematists have begun to embrace phylogenomic approaches (Comer *et al.*, 2015; Barrett *et al.*, 2016a; Comer *et al.*, 2016; Barrett *et al.*, 2016b; Heyduk *et al.*, 2016; Bacon *et al.* in review).

The fan palm genus *Brahea* Endl. *ex* Mart. exemplifies the situation described above, and is among the most taxonomically problematic and poorly understood clades of American palms (subfamily Coryphoideae, tribe Trachycarpeae, within which the placement of *Brahea* is uncertain; Quero and Yáñez, 2000; Quero, 2000; Hodel, 2006; Dransfield *et al.*, 2008; Bacon *et al.*, 2012; Barrett *et al.*, 2015; Baker and Dransfield, 2016). The genus comprises 11 currently recognized species (Hodel, 2006; Govaerts *et al.*, 2018), that grow in dry, often calcareous soils in the coastal and lower montane regions of Mexico and Central America extending to Nicaragua. *Brahea* sometimes occurs with *Sabal* and *Washingtonia*, two other fan palm genera. The costapalmate leaf blades (i.e. extension of petiole into the blade) distinguish *Sabal* from *Brahea*. *Washingtonia*, which occurs natively in Baja California and Sonora, Mexico and in isolated oases in California and Arizona (and perhaps Nevada?), USA, has a similar overall appearance to some *Brahea* species, but differs in its bright to dull green leaves, whereas co-occurring *Brahea* (*B. armata*, *B. brandegeei*) have blue-green or gray leaves. Florally *Brahea* has three carpels connate only in the styles while *Sabal* has three carpels connate throughout. *Brahea* has tubular inflorescence rachis bracts while those of *Washingtonia* split on one side, become pendulous and are sword shaped.

Endlicher (1837) first informally used the genus name *Brahea*, honoring the Danish astronomer Tycho Brahe, and Martius (1838) validly published it a year later. Watson (1880) subsequently described the genus *Erythea*, which contains some species currently recognized in *Brahea*. *Brahea* was originally distinguished as having unarmed petioles, relatively small fruits, and solitary flowers, whereas *Erythea* was distinguished by having armed petioles, larger fruits, and clustered flowers at the base of the inflorescence. Moore (1973) and Uhl and Dransfield (1987) recognized these genera as a single genus, *Brahea*, with two subgenera—*Brahea* and *Erythea*. More recently, Quero and Yáñez (2000), and subsequently Hodel (2006) have refined

91 various names associated with *Brahea* into 12 and 11 species, respectively, based on
92 morphological and ecological observations. While other treatments recognize nine species (e.g.
93 Henderson et al. 1995), here we follow Hodel (2006, see also Hodel 2018) and Govaerts et al.
94 (2018) the most recent and comprehensive treatments of the genus.

95 Subgenus *Erythea*, as currently circumscribed, contains seven species. *Brahea aculeata*,
96 *B. armata*, and *B. brandegeei* are found in the arid, desert scrub regions of northwestern Mexico
97 and Baja California, and are distinguished by having distinctly armed petioles. *Brahea edulis* is
98 endemic to Guadalupe Island, located approximately 240 km west of Baja California, and is
99 IUCN red-listed as endangered in the wild (EN, C1; Johnson, 1998). This species is
100 distinguished by unarmed petioles and large fruit size (> 25 mm in diameter). *Brahea pimo*
101 occurs in the western pine-oak sierras of Mexico, and *B. salvadorensis* is restricted to El
102 Salvador and Guatemala. These two species have distinctive hairy scales on the petioles and
103 adaxial leaf surfaces and hairy-tomentose flowers, differing mainly in the degree of the latter.

104 Subgenus *Brahea* contains the widespread and highly variable *B. dulcis* and *B. calcarea*
105 from Mexico into Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua. The subgenus is distinguished mainly
106 by absence or reduction of petiolar teeth. *Brahea dulcis* has small teeth at the base of the petiole,
107 and inflorescences usually shorter than the leaves, whereas *B. calcarea* has unarmed petioles and
108 inflorescences exceeding the length of the leaves. *Brahea berlandieri*, which is currently
109 synonymized with *B. dulcis* (Govaerts and Dransfield, 2005; Hodel 2006; Govaerts et al., 2018;
110 Hodel, 2018), occurs in northeastern Mexico, and was originally distinguished by having shorter
111 rachillae than *B. dulcis* by Quero and Yáñez (2000). Though synonymized, it is unclear whether
112 *B. berlandieri* is distinct from *B. dulcis* or whether it is a local form of the latter in northeastern
113 Mexico. The two dwarf species *B. decumbens* (montane, limestone soils in open, rocky sites) and
114 *B. moorei* (limestone soils in montane oak forest understory) differ in that *B. decumbens* has
115 blue-gray leaves and a branching, creeping trunk, whereas *B. moorei* has leaves green adaxially
116 and chalky white abaxially, is solitary, and appears trunkless. Quero (2000) subsequently
117 described *Brahea sarukhanii* from a narrow region of Nayarit and Jalisco in central-western
118 Mexico, but this species is of uncertain affinity in that it displays characteristics of both
119 subgenera, including small teeth near the base of the petiole and relatively smaller fruits. Hodel
120 (2006) distinguishes this species from the widespread and co-occurring *B. dulcis* by the
121 persistence of old leaf bases along the entire length of the trunk as opposed to only along the
122 upper third of the trunk (*B. dulcis*).

123 Despite recent taxonomic progress, there has been no explicit phylogenetic analysis of
124 relationships in *Brahea*. Furthermore, the existence of morphological intermediacy,
125 environmental and local variation, and hybridization/introgression (e.g. Ramirez-Rodríguez *et*
126 *al.*, 2011) have likely precluded a definitive understanding of taxonomy in this genus. *Brahea*
127 presents striking variation in growth form, with some species being trees of tall-to-medium
128 stature at one extreme, some of variable or intermediate height (e.g. *B. pimo*, *B. aculeata*), and
129 some having small, acaulescent, creeping, shrub-like, or caespitose growth forms (e.g. *B.*
130 *decumbens*, *B. moorei*). The two dwarf species, *B. decumbens* and *B. moorei*, grow in sympatry

131 in northeastern Mexico, calling into question whether these species are closely related, or if they
132 represent convergent growth forms within the genus. Thus *Brahea* represents a highly
133 appropriate system in which to test the hypothesis that height and DNA substitution rates are
134 negatively correlated (sensu Lanfear et al., 2013).

135 Species of *Brahea* occupy a wide variety of environmental conditions across the
136 geographic range of the genus, from northern Mexico to Nicaragua, where they often represent
137 major ecosystem structural components, especially in desert and other xeric habitats (Uhl &
138 Dransfield, 1987; Henderson et al., 1995; Quero, 2000; Hodel, 2006; Dransfield, Uhl, et al.,
139 2008; Wehncke et al., 2013). However, the biogeographic history of this clade is unknown, and
140 likely complex, potentially having been shaped by vicariance, dispersal, and sympatric speciation
141 across a geologically dynamic landscape (e.g. Sedlock et al., 1993). The geological history of
142 Mexico is also complex, with several major events having occurred over the last few tens of
143 millions of years that could have potentially shaped distributions and species divergence in
144 *Brahea*. These include the formation of: (1) the Mexican Transvolcanic Belt ca. 15 million years
145 ago (mya), bisecting mainland Mexico to the north and south; (2) the opening of the Gulf of
146 California, separating Baja California from western mainland Mexico ca. 7.2 mya; and (3) the
147 formation of Guadalupe Island via volcanic activity also around 7.2 mya (Ferrari et al., 2012;
148 Bennett and Oskin, 2014; Dolby et al., 2015). It is currently unknown if or how these processes
149 influenced diversification and dispersal in *Brahea*.

150 In addition to the potential allopatric influence of geological processes in diversification,
151 several species of *Brahea* have contemporary, overlapping ranges, and may exemplify cases of
152 sympatric niche differentiation and speciation. For example, *B. armata* overlaps with *B. aculeata*
153 and *B. brandegeei* in northwestern Mexico, while *B. dulcis* overlaps with *B. calcarea*, *B. pimo*,
154 *B. moorei*, *B. sarukhanii*, *B. decumbens*, and the synonymous “*B. berlandieri*” on mainland
155 Mexico. Species distribution models (SDMs) allow us to test for ecological scenarios potentially
156 underlying species diversification (Nunes and Pearson, 2017). We can test for phylogenetic niche
157 diversification vs. conservatism (Harvey and Pagel, 1991; reviewed in Pyron et al., 2015) by
158 assessing the equivalence of inferred niche space between species pairs relative to niche
159 differences due to random chance. We expect to find closely-related species that occupy distinct
160 niche spaces, often with overlapping ranges or in close proximity.

161 Here we use a combination of genome skimming (plastid and mitochondrial genomes,
162 ribosomal DNA cistrons) and Sanger sequencing of single-copy nuclear introns to generate a
163 phylogenomic dataset of approximately 400 kb. Our specific objectives are to: (1) provide
164 resolution and support for species-level phylogenetic relationships within *Brahea* and to test the
165 current subgeneric circumscription; (2) test the putative association between plant height and
166 substitution rate in a phylogenetic context via ancestral state reconstruction; (3) infer divergence
167 times and biogeographic history; and (4) test for niche differentiation among closely related,
168 geographically overlapping species. This study has implications for Central American
169 biogeography (more prominent roles for dispersal and sympatric speciation than for allopatric
170 speciation via vicariance), patterns of ecologically driven species diversification (sympatric

171 niche differentiation), growth form evolution, horticulture, and conservation of these
172 ecologically important palms.
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175 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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177 **Phylogenetic analyses**

178 **Taxon sampling and DNA sequencing.** We sampled all 11 species currently recognized
179 in *Brahea* (Table 1, including *Washingtonia robusta* and *Chamaerops humilis* as outgroups;
180 Hodel, 2006; Govaerts et al., 2018), extracted DNAs using the CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle,
181 1987), and used standard procedures for Illumina library preparation and sequencing
182 [Supplementary Information, Methods]. We amplified nuclear intron regions, corresponding to
183 the Malate Synthase (*MS*) gene; Serine/Threonine Protein Kinase genes *CISP4* and *CISP5*; and
184 DNA-directed RNA Polymerase Subunit Beta gene (*RPB2*) [Supplementary Information,
185 Methods].

186 **DNA assembly, alignment and phylogenetic analyses.** We assembled plastid,
187 mitochondrial, and rDNA contigs de novo in NOVOPlasty (version 2.6.3; Dierckxsens *et al.*,
188 2016), and extended contigs in GENEIOUS v.11 (Biomatters Ltd., New Zealand). We aligned
189 plastomes in MAFFT v.1.33 (Katoh and Standley, 2013), and MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004), and
190 removed positions containing gaps. We subjected both separate and concatenated alignments to
191 phylogenetic analysis under Parsimony, Maximum Likelihood, Bayesian, and quartet-based
192 methods. We conducted: Parsimony searches in TNT with 2,000 jackknife replicates (Goloboff
193 *et al.*, 2008); Maximum Likelihood (ML) searches in RAxML v.8 under a GTRGAMMA model
194 with 1,000 standard bootstrap replicates (Stamatakis, 2014); Bayesian analyses in MrBayes
195 v.3.2.6 (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) for 10^7 generations (GTR+Gamma+I model) and with the first
196 25% as burn-in; and quartet-based methods in SVDquartets using both concatenated and
197 coalescent models, each with 1,000 bootstrap replicates (Chifman and Kubatko, 2014; 2015)
198 [details of these analyses can be found in Supplementary Information, Methods]. We quantified
199 congruence and conflict among ML topologies based on plastid, mitochondrial, nuclear rDNA,
200 and nuclear introns using Robinson-Foulds (RF) tree distances (Robinson and Foulds, 1979) in
201 PAUP v.4.0 (Swofford, 2002).

202

203 **Growth form evolution**

204 We reconstructed the evolution of growth form among species of *Brahea* by using
205 maximum plant height following values in Henderson *et al.* (1995), Quero (2000), and Quero
206 and Yáñez (2000). We used the R (R Core Development Team, 2014) packages ‘ape’ (Paradis,
207 2004) and ‘phytools’ (Revell, 2012) to infer ancestral values for height under a Maximum
208 Likelihood Brownian Motion model, based on the combined, total evidence tree with branch
209 lengths converted to ultrametric via non-parametric rate smoothing (Sanderson, 1997) in R. We
210 computed root-to-tip GTR distances using the ‘vcv.phylo’ function on the non-smoothed
211 phylogram from above, and regressed these on maximum height values using standard and
212 phylogenetic regression via Independent Contrasts (Felsenstein, 1980; Garland *et al.*, 1992) in
213 the R package ‘ape’. We tested for phylogenetic signal in both maximum height and GTR-based
214 branch lengths from the combined RAxML tree using Pagel’s λ .

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216 **Biogeographic analyses**

217 **Divergence time estimation.** We estimated divergence times among species of *Brahea* in
218 BEAST2 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014) under a Lognormal Relaxed Clock (Drummond *et al.*, 2006)
219 and a GTR+Gamma+I substitution model with parameters estimated from the data. We added
220 data from all *Brahea* species to the dataset of Couvreur *et al.* (2011), for a total of nine loci [see
221 Supplementary Information, Methods for additional details]. We chose four calibration points
222 with exponential priors, to be consistent with the analysis of Couvreur *et al.* (2011): *Sabalites*
223 (Berry, 1914), to calibrate the stem node of Coryphoideae at [minimum age offset = 85.8 million
224 years ago (mya), mean = 1.0]; *Mauritiidites* (Schrank, 1994) to calibrate Mauritiinae (minimum
225 age offset = 65.0 mya, mean = 1.5); a *Cocos*-like fossil to calibrate subtribe Attaleinae
226 (minimum age offset = 54.8 mya, mean = 2.0); and *Hyphaenae kapelmanii* (Pan *et al.*, 2006) to
227 calibrate the stem node of Hyphaeninae (minimum age offset = 27.0 mya, mean = 0.5). We also
228 constrained the stem node of palms (i.e. palms + Dasypogonaceae) to have arisen between 110-
229 120 mya (these dates were used as the 95% prior on a normal distribution with a mean of 115
230 mya). We ran BEAST2 for 2×10^8 generations of the MCMC, sampling every 5×10^4 generations,
231 discarding the first 30% of samples as burn-in after a pre-burn-in period of 10^5 samples. We
232 verified stationarity via effective samples sizes >200 for each parameter in TRACER (Rambaut
233 *et al.*, 2014), and also verified convergence of parameter values by combining results of three
234 independent runs of BEAST2 from random starting seeds.

235 **Ancestral range reconstruction.** We used the chronogram from BEAST2 to infer
236 ancestral ranges of *Brahea* species in BioGeoBEARS (Matzke, 2014). We chose six areas,
237 corresponding to major physiographic regions of Mexico and Central America (e.g. Thayer,
238 1916; Riddle *et al.*, 2000; Bennett and Oskin, 2014): A) the Baja Californian Peninsula; B)
239 northwestern mainland Mexico, containing the Sierra Madre Occidental, Sonoran Basin-and-
240 Range, and Pacific Coastal Plain; C) northeastern Mexico, containing the Sierra Madre
241 Occidental, the Great Plain, and the Northern Gulf Coast Plain; D) central/southern Mexico,
242 containing the Mexican Transvolcanic Belt and the Southern Sierra Madre; E) southeastern
243 Mexico and Central America; and F) Guadalupe Island. We used a time-stratified approach, with
244 two time intervals (25.7-7.2 mya, and 7.199-0 mya), corresponding to the formation of
245 Guadalupe Island and the Gulf of California (i.e. the separation of Baja California from mainland
246 Mexico) approximately 7.2 million years ago (Bennett and Oskin, 2014). We used no constraints
247 between directly adjacent areas (i.e. dispersal probabilities of 1.0), a dispersal probability of 0.5
248 for non-adjacent areas, and a probability of 0.1 for dispersal probability between Baja California
249 and southeastern Mexico/Central America. For the first interval (25.7-7.2 mya), dispersal
250 probability between Guadalupe Island and all other areas was set to zero, and then to 0.01 for the
251 second interval (7.199-0 mya). Also in the second interval, we set dispersal probability at 0.1
252 between Baja California and northwestern mainland Mexico. We used the BayAreaLike+j model
253 in BioGeoBEARS (Matzke *et al.*, 2014).

254 **Species distribution modeling and ecological niche differentiation.** We inferred species
255 distribution models (SDM) to: (1) determine if the contemporary ranges of *Brahea* species can
256 be modeled using available bioclimatic predictor variables; (2) test signal of niche divergence for
257 selected pairs of *Brahea* species with overlapping ranges; (3) assess the degree to which SDMs
258 can inform taxonomic boundaries in the group. We obtained occurrence data for all species
259 included in this study via the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF.org, accessed 16
260 January 2018), followed by filtering both manually and using the ‘trim.occ’ R function of Nunes
261 and Pearson (2017).

262 We produced SDMs using MaxEnt (version 3.4.1; Phillips *et al.*, 2017) through the R
263 package Dismo (version 1.1-4; Hijmans *et al.*, 2017). Two environmental datasets were used for
264 SDMs: the entire WorldClim dataset (version 2.0; Fick and Hijmans, 2017), and a Pearson
265 correlation-filtered version, both at ten-minute resolution [see Supplementary Information,
266 Methods for additional details]. We tested pairs of species in the *B. armata* clade, and between
267 “*B. berlandieri*” and *B. dulcis* for niche equivalency (Warren *et al.*, 2008) and phylogenetic
268 niche conservatism (Harvey and Pagel, 1991; see Pyron *et al.*, 2015). We used the R function
269 ‘nicheEquivalency’ in the Dismo package to conduct Warren’s Identity test; and the ‘Random
270 Translocation and Rotation’ (RTR) and the modified niche overlap (MO) metric of Nunes and
271 Pearson (2017) to test for Phylogenetic Niche Conservatism (RTR and MO are hereafter
272 collectively referred to as the RTR-MO). We adjusted our alpha level for comparisons made of
273 species in the *B. armata* clade using Bonferroni correction ($\alpha_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.016$).

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RESULTS

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Datasets. Features of all molecular datasets included in this study are summarized in Table 2. The complete plastome alignment of 11 *Brahea* and two outgroup taxa (*Chamaerops*, *Washingtonia*) is 132,870 bp in length. Removal of all sites with gaps/missing data and ambiguity codes produced an alignment of 121,301 bp with 333 parsimony-informative sites. Four contiguous regions of the mitochondrial genome were included here (approximately 67, 91, 52, and 25 kb, respectively), totaling 261,650 bp when concatenated. After removing gaps and ambiguities as above, the total aligned length was 212,874 bp with 304 Parsimony-informative sites. Amplicons for *CISP5* showed clear evidence of double banding, and so this locus was excluded from further analysis. The total, combined dataset was 342,142 bp in length, with 756 PIC. Data are deposited under GenBank accession numbers ~~XXXXXXXX-XXXXXX~~.

Phylogenetic analyses

Plastomes. Parsimony, Maximum Likelihood, and Bayesian analyses of whole aligned plastomes, with one copy of the IR removed, yield highly resolved and strongly supported relationships [Fig. 1A; Supplementary Information, Fig. S1]. *Brahea* is supported as monophyletic (Parsimony Jackknife = 100, ML Bootstrap = 100, Bayesian Posterior Probability = 1.0; denoted as ‘100, 100, 1.0’ hereafter), within which there are two strongly supported principal clades. The first of these (100, 100, 1.0) contains *B. decumbens*, *B. calcarea*, *B. dulcis*, and *B. berlanderi* (hereafter referred to as the ‘*B. dulcis* clade’). The latter two accessions share a close relationship (89, 94, 1.0), but relationships among *B. decumbens*, *B. calcarea*, and the clade of (*B. berlanderi*, *B. dulcis*) are unresolved. The next clade contains all remaining *Brahea* (100, 98, 1.0), and is further divided into two clades within which all relationships are strongly supported (≥ 97 , 1.0). The dwarf species *Brahea moorei* is sister to *B. sarukhanii* (100, 100, 1.0), while *B. pimo* is sister to *B. salvadorensis* (100, 100, 1.0), and these two clades are sister to one another (100, 100, 1.0; hereafter referred to as the *B. pimo* clade). Sister to this is a clade composed of (*B. armata*, *B. aculeata*; 90, 93, 1.0), successively sister to *B. brandegeei* (98, 97, 1.0), and *B. edulis* (100, 100, 1.0), hereafter referred to as the ‘*B. armata* clade.’

Mitochondrial DNA. Relationships overall are less strongly supported for mtDNA than for plastomes (Fig. 1B). The three primary clades recovered from the plastome data are also recovered for mtDNA. A notable difference is the placement of the *B. dulcis* clade as sister to the *B. pimo* clade, collectively sister to the *B. armata* clade, but this relationship is weakly supported (54, 78, 0.99). Many sister relationships are identical to those from the plastome and are well supported (e.g. *aculeata*+*armata*; *moorei*+*sarukhanii*; *pimo*+*salvadorensis*), while remaining sister relationships among species that differ from those of the plastome receive weak support.

Nuclear DNA. Relationships based on nuclear ribosomal DNA (rDNA) are highly identical to those based on plastomes, albeit with lower support overall, and differing only in the placement of *B. decumbens* [Supplementary Information, Fig. S1]. Both Malate Synthase (*MS*) and *CISP4* recover the same ‘deep’ tree structure among the three principal clades, but with

320 weak support individually [Supplementary Information, Fig. S1]. *RPB2* displays several
321 relationships not observed for any other locus, but most have weak support; e.g., *B. moorei* and
322 *B. brandegeei* group in a clade of *B. dulcis*, *B. berlandieri*, and *B. calcarea* [Supplementary
323 Information, Fig. S1].

324 **Combined analyses.** Combined nuclear data (rDNA, *MS*, *CISP4*, and *RPB2*) yield a
325 highly supported topology similar to that based on plastomes, differing only in the placement of
326 *B. decumbens* (Fig. 1C). Analysis of the concatenated dataset from all three genomes recovers a
327 highly supported tree (Fig. 1D; all support values >94). These relationships differ from those of
328 the plastome only in the placement of *B. decumbens* as sister to (*B. calcarea*, (*B. dulcis*, *B.*
329 *berlandieri*)). Analysis in SVDquartets (specifying one tree for all sites) yields an identical
330 topology to those based on Parsimony, Maximum Likelihood, and Bayesian Analysis
331 [Supplementary Information, Fig. S2]. In this SVDquartets analysis, a topology of (*B. edulis*, (*B.*
332 *brandegeei*, (*B. armata*, *B. aculeata*))) is recovered with 100% Bootstrap support for all
333 relationships; by contrast, a topology of (*B. brandegeei*, (*B. edulis*, (*B. armata*, *B. aculeata*))) is
334 recovered under the multispecies coalescent model, with only 39% Bootstrap support for the
335 placement of *B. edulis* as sister to (*B. armata*, *B. aculeata*). A second coalescent-model analysis
336 in SVDquartets, specifying the ‘Erik+2’ parameter, places *B. edulis* as sister to *B. brandegeei*
337 with low support (Bootstrap = 54), and these are sister to (*B. armata*, *B. aculeata*). Thus, there is
338 little support in coalescent analyses for the relative placement of *B. edulis* and *B. brandegeei*
339 within the *B. armata* clade.

340 Robinson-Foulds tree distances on average were greatest between the *CISP4* topology
341 and all other topologies [Supplementary Information, Table S1]. Out of the three largest single-
342 genome alignments (i.e. combined nrDNA, mtDNA, and plastomes), the combined nuclear tree
343 had the lowest RF distance to the total combined tree ($2\times RF = 0$), followed by the plastome tree
344 ($2\times RF = 2$), and the mtDNA tree ($2\times RF = 6$).

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346 **Growth form evolution**

347 Maximum height in *Brahea* ranges from 0.4 m in *B. moorei* to 15 m in *B. armata*. The
348 tallest species occupy the *B. armata* clade [ancestral value = 10.63 ± 2.08 m (i.e. \pm one standard
349 deviation)], while the shortest species occupy the *B. pimo* clade (ancestral value = 5.32 ± 2.31 m)
350 (Fig. 4). Both of these clades comprise subgenus *Erythea* sensu Quero and Yáñez (2000)
351 (ancestral value = 6.95 ± 2.63 m). The ancestor of subgenus *Brahea* is estimated to have had a
352 maximum height of 6.37 ± 1.85 m. Maximum height shows a strong relationship with root-to-tip
353 branch lengths, which range from 0.000469 substitutions \cdot site $^{-1}$ (s \cdot s $^{-1}$) in *B. dulcis* to 0.000803 s \cdot s $^{-1}$
354 $^{-1}$ in *B. moorei* ($F = 32.94$, $df = 11$, $p = 0.00013$). However, this relationship is non-significant
355 when correcting for phylogenetic relationships via Independent Contrasts ($F_{pic} = 0.002$, $df = 10$,
356 $p = 0.96$), suggesting that any relationship between these traits is better explained by shared
357 ancestry. Pagel’s λ , a measure of phylogenetic signal, was significantly different than a model of
358 $\lambda = 0$ for root-to-tip branch lengths ($\lambda = 1.06$, $P = 0.0009$), but not for maximum height ($\lambda = 0.61$,
359 $P = 0.15$). The two shortest species likely evolved from taller ancestors: maximum height in *B.*

360 *decumbens* is 2.5 m vs. the ancestral value of 6.37 ± 1.85 m for the *B. dulcis* clade, while in *B.*
361 *moorei* maximum height is 0.4 m vs. the ancestral values of 5.14 ± 2.17 m for (*B. moorei*, *B.*
362 *sarukhanii*).

363 **Biogeographic analyses**

364 **Divergence time estimation.** The estimated stem-node age of *Brahea* is 25.6 million
365 years ago (mya), with a 95% highest posterior density (HPD) of 14.8-35.5 mya, while the crown
366 age of *Brahea* is estimated to be 15.6 mya (9.1-22.2) (Fig. 2). Estimates of the crown radiations
367 of the three principal clades of *Brahea* are: 5.5 mya (2.1-9.8) for the *B. armata* clade; 7.6 mya
368 (3.3-12.0) for the *B. pimo* clade; and 6.2 mya (2.2-11.1) for the *B. dulcis* clade. *Brahea armata*
369 and *B. aculeata* likely diverged relatively recently (1.36 mya, 0.05-2.6), as did *B. dulcis* and *B.*
370 *berlandieri* (0.5, 0.00-1.4).

371 **Ancestral range reconstruction.** We inferred an ancestral range of AB for the *B. armata*
372 clade (Fig. 3; Baja California + northwestern mainland Mexico), and all nodes within this clade
373 are estimated to share the same ancestral range, all with high likelihood percentages for the
374 BayAreaLike+j model ($L_{\%} > 0.95$). However, $L_{\%}$ is substantially lower when the 'j' parameter is
375 excluded. *Brahea edulis* shows a high $L_{\%}$ of having arisen via founder event speciation on
376 Guadalupe Island when including the 'j' parameter (jump dispersal). Ancestral ranges are more
377 ambiguous in the *B. pimo* clade (Fig. 3), with estimates of C (northeastern Mexico) or D
378 (central/southern Mexico) for the ancestral ranges of *B. moorei* and *B. sarukhanii*, and D or E
379 (southeastern Mexico/Central America) as the ancestral range of *B. pimo* and *B. salvadorensis*.
380 An ancestral range of BDE or BCDE (northwestern mainland Mexico, central/southern Mexico,
381 southeastern Mexico/Central America) is inferred for the common ancestor of the *B. dulcis* clade
382 ($L_{\%} = 0.60$ including 'j'; $L_{\%} = 0.10$ excluding 'j'). The ancestral range of *Brahea* as a genus is
383 equivocal based on the current analysis (BDE $L_{\%} = 0.18$ including the 'j' parameter; ABCD $L_{\%} =$
384 0.04 excluding 'j').

385 **Species distribution modeling and ecological niche differentiation.** We rejected
386 equivalency of SDMs for all comparisons between species pairs of interest (Table 3). RTR-MO
387 tests identified signal of niche divergence between *B. brandegeei* and *B. aculeata* ($P = 0.00983$,
388 Supplementary Information, Fig. S3], as well as between *B. aculeata* and *B. armata* [$P =$
389 0.00031 , Supplementary Information, Fig. S3). Niche space overlap between *B. brandegeei* and
390 *armata* falls below the established 5% CI of the null distribution, but is not significantly different
391 from the null post-Bonferroni correction ($P = 0.0374$; α_{adjusted} critical value = 0.016). The RTR-
392 MO test also failed to reject that the observed overlap between *B. berlandieri* and *dulcis*
393 significantly differed from the null distribution ($P = 0.216$).

394 We ultimately excluded approximately half of the GBIF localities, after manually and
395 ecologically filtering outliers resulting from: taxonomic uncertainty, obvious cultivation out of
396 the native range, or a lack of georeferencing/coordinate certainty [Supplementary Information,
397 Table S2]. We identified no major differences between published species ranges and the extents
398 of our filtered localities or replicated SDMs, with the exceptions of *B. calcarea* and *B.*
399 *decumbens*, based on visual cross-validation using range maps of Henderson *et al.* (1995).

400 Analyses using our Pearson-filtered predictor dataset conservatively resulted in more
401 overestimation of SDM extent, relative to those using the entire Worldclim dataset. The SDMs
402 and associated downstream tests we report were based on the Pearson-filtered dataset
403 [Supplementary Information, Table S2], in order to minimize false positives (which can be
404 attributed to uncertainties associated with the use of publicly available data), and model
405 overfitting.

406 MaxEnt analyses accurately predict the present-day extent of *Brahea* species using
407 Bioclim variables [Supplementary Information, Table S3]. Models did not appreciably vary
408 between MaxEnt replicates, and the predictor variables that contributed the most to each SDM
409 were found to be both suitable and stable, as judged by marginal and SDM-specific response
410 curves [see Supplementary Information, Link 1]. Area under the curve of the receiver operator
411 characteristic, and the percent contributions of predictor variables to each SDM is reported in
412 Supplementary Information, Table S4. The majority of variation observed between SDM extents
413 was attributable to over-prediction of areas of low occurrence probability (< 0.4). Unique
414 combinations of environmental predictor variables influenced the SDM of each species
415 [Supplementary Information, Table S4], but some clade-specific predictor variable influences are
416 evident. Over-prediction of occurrence and coarser resolution of predictor variables here result in
417 more conservative results (though this may seem counterintuitive), since each measures observed
418 overlap of estimated niche space. The extent of SDMs for *B. nitida* and *B. decumbens* were
419 strongly over-predicted relative to published ranges, including many points outside of the
420 predicted range, and a small area of occurrence, respectively. We thus chose not to include these
421 two species in tests of niche equivalency or phylogenetic niche conservatism in the *B. dulcis*
422 clade, considering the perceived low quality of SDMs inferred for *B. nitida* and *B. decumbens*.

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DISCUSSION

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Palm systematics has been a challenge due to a combination of morphological homoplasy and extremely slow plastid DNA substitution rates (Uhl and Dransfield, 1987; Uhl *et al.*, 1995; Gaut *et al.*, 1992; Barrett *et al.*, 2016a). Because of this, palm systematists have turned to genome-scale datasets, as these greatly increase the number of informative characters available for phylogenetic analyses (Barrett *et al.*, 2016a; Comer *et al.*, 2015; 2016; Barrett *et al.*, 2016b; Heyduk *et al.*, 2016). Here we have sequenced over 400 kb of DNA from all three plant genomes, largely resolving and providing support for relationships among currently known species of *Brahea*. Furthermore, this study is the first to estimate divergence times, ancestral ranges, ancestral growth forms, and ecological niche space for this highly variable, taxonomically complex, and ecologically/economically important (e.g. Pulido and Coronel-Ortega, 2015) group of American palms.

Phylogenetic Analyses

Despite the large amount of data generated per species of *Brahea*, we recovered fewer than 1,000 total informative positions from three genomes for our combined analysis. Yet, this number was sufficient to provide highly supported relationships among species of *Brahea*. Information content varies from an average of 1.2 informative sites/1,000 bp in mtDNA to 33.1 sites/1,000 bp in nuclear *CISP4* (Table 2), underscoring the importance and power of including nuclear DNA in phylogenetic analyses of palms (e.g. Heyduk *et al.*, 2016).

Concatenated analyses yield high support for a single set of relationships, but coalescent based analyses in SVDquartets differ in the placement of *B. edulis*/*B. brandegeei* of the *B. armata* clade, with little to no support [Fig. 1; Supplementary information, Fig. S1 and S2]. Differing relationships based on coalescent methods indicate potential conflict among datasets, suggesting that incomplete lineage sorting, gene flow, or both may influence the recovered relationships in *Brahea*. This finding underscores the need to include many nuclear loci and multiple representatives of each putative species, such that scenarios of ILS and gene flow can be modeled and explicitly differentiated. Ways to accomplish this include examining the distribution of gene trees via concordance factors (e.g. Ané, 2007; Crawl *et al.*, 2017), or using methods that specifically incorporate gene flow (e.g. Jackson *et al.*, 2017; Morales *et al.*, 2017).

The two principal clades recovered here correspond closely to the subgenera *Brahea* and *Erythea* recognized by Moore (1973), Uhl and Dransfield (1987), Quero and Yáñez (2000), and Hodel (2006). *Brahea moorei*, a dwarf species from northeastern Mexico, is strongly supported as being a member of subgenus *Erythea*, in contrast to its placement in subgenus *Brahea* by Quero and Yáñez (2000). The more recently described *Brahea sarukhanii* (Quero, 2000), hitherto unplaced among other species of *Brahea*, shows a highly supported sister relationship to *B. moorei*, despite its caulescent habit and restricted distribution in Jalisco/Nayarit of western central Mexico.

464 Only two other studies to date have included multiple representatives of *Brahea*. Bacon *et*
465 *al.* (2012) addressed biogeographic questions in the diverse fan palm tribe Trachycarpeae, which
466 includes *Brahea*. Their analysis included four species of *Brahea*; three accessions of *B. dulcis*
467 were sister to a clade of (*B. aculeata*, (*B. armata*, *B. brandegeei*)). Though sampling is limited in
468 that study for *Brahea*, there is some agreement with the current study in that *B. dulcis* is
469 separated from the *B. armata* clade. In that study, *B. brandegeei* is sister to *B. armata*, as
470 opposed to *B. aculeata* being sister to *B. armata* in the current study, though this relationship is
471 only moderately supported in the former. Klimova *et al.* (2017) used population-level sampling
472 to address biogeographic questions in *Washingtonia robusta*, *W. filifera*, *Brahea armata*, *B.*
473 *brandegeei*, and *B. edulis* in Baja California and Guadalupe Island; they also included a single
474 specimen identified by the authors as '*B. elegans*' (synonymized with *B. armata*) from eastern
475 Sonora. Sequencing over 2 kb of plastid DNA yielded no variation among *B. armata*, *B.*
476 *brandegeei*, and *B. edulis*, but their sample identified as *B. elegans* differed by five plastid
477 substitutions, suggesting this sample might be more closely allied with another species of *Brahea*
478 (Klimova *et al.*, 2017). Nuclear DNA sequencing yielded evidence of haplotype sharing among
479 *B. armata*, *B. brandegeei*, and *B. elegans*, but a distinct haplotype for *B. edulis* from Guadalupe
480 Island. Their findings further suggest a complex evolutionary history of *Brahea* in the region,
481 and highlight the possibility of gene flow within the *B. armata* complex, though this cannot be
482 distinguished from incomplete lineage sorting based on their data. Future sampling efforts should
483 include numerous high-variation nuclear markers, complete or nearly complete organellar
484 genomes, and a comprehensive sampling of multiple individuals from all currently recognized
485 species of *Brahea* across their respective geographic ranges.

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487 **Growth form evolution**

488 Maximum Likelihood reconstruction of plant height suggests that the ancestor of *Brahea*
489 was a medium-statured tree (6.85 ± 3.04 m). Estimated ancestral heights change little moving
490 from the root ancestor in Fig. 4 to the ancestors of the *B. pimo* and *B. dulcis* clades, but increase
491 dramatically in the ancestor of the *B. armata* clade, which contains all of the tallest species of
492 *Brahea*. Interestingly, the two shortest species, *B. moorei* and *B. decumbens*, each likely evolved
493 from medium-statured, caulescent ancestors, from which they diverged ca. 5.1 and 6.2 mya,
494 respectively. The latter findings are likely responsible for the non-significance of phylogenetic
495 signal in maximum plant height based on Pagel's λ . Dwarf or small-statured palm species are
496 often closely related to medium or tall-statured species (e.g. the dwarf species *Sabal minor* and *S.*
497 *etonia*; Zona, 1990; Henderson *et al.*, 1995; Heyduk *et al.*, 2016), suggesting evolution in height
498 differences can be rapid, as is the case between *B. moorei* and *B. sarukhanii*, and *B. decumbens*
499 and taller members of the *B. dulcis* clade. *Brahea moorei* and *B. decumbens* are often referred to
500 as dwarf species, yet they differ in some key ways. First, *B. moorei* has a short, solitary,
501 rhizomatous, subterranean trunk (more rarely, the trunk can be aboveground), giving the plant a
502 low-growing, shrub-like appearance (Henderson *et al.*, 1995; Hodel, 2006). *Brahea decumbens*,
503 on the other hand, has a short, clustered, above-ground trunk, and often assumes a creeping habit

504 (hence the species name ‘*decumbens*’), but is sometimes erect. In fact, as Hodel (2006) observed,
505 there are many intermediate forms between *B. decumbens* and the widespread *B. dulcis*,
506 suggesting environmental or local variation, and quite possibly gene flow among these species.

507 A recent study across flowering plants demonstrated a large-scale relationship between
508 plant height and substitution rates, when controlling for other factors such as species richness
509 and latitude (Lanfear *et al.*, 2013), in which taller plants tend to have slower rates of substitution.
510 This situation is pronounced in palms, which display some of the lowest substitution rates among
511 monocots, and are unequivocally the tallest of the monocots (Barrett *et al.*, 2016a). Here,
512 although these patterns exist at broad taxonomic scales (e.g. across angiosperm orders and
513 families), it is unknown whether they also exist at finer taxonomic scales. Thus, we used *Brahea*
514 as a case to address whether this pattern holds at finer taxonomic levels. Though there is an
515 apparent negative correlation between substitution rate and height, this relationship is better
516 explained by common ancestry, as indicated by Phylogenetically Independent Contrasts and
517 significant phylogenetic signal in branch lengths based on Pagel’s λ . The relationship between
518 substitution rates and height in plants has been explained by the ‘rate of mitosis’ hypothesis
519 (Lanfear *et al.*, 2013), in which taller plants typically experience a slow-down of mitosis as they
520 reach maximum height, and thus fewer potential mutations are passed on via reproductive tissues
521 relative to the situation in shorter species. However, both *B. moorei* and *B. decumbens*, the two
522 shortest *Brahea* species, are also extremely slow-growing (Hodel, 2006; S. Lahmeyer, personal
523 observation), which may obscure any potential effect of plant height on heritable substitution
524 rates in the genus, if such a relationship exists. Alternatively, the relationship may not exist at
525 such low taxonomic levels, in which tall vs. short forms have recently evolved, and differences
526 in substitution rates may potentially be determined by a number of factors differing on a taxon-
527 by-taxon basis, as suggested by Barrett *et al.* (2016a).

528

529 **Biogeographic analyses**

530 ***Divergence time estimates and ancestral range reconstruction.*** The stem and crown age
531 estimates of *Brahea* (approximately 25.7 and 15.6 mya, respectively; Fig. 2) correspond closely
532 with those in a previous study that included some accessions of *Brahea* (Bacon *et al.*, 2012). Our
533 estimates suggest that ancestral forms of *Brahea* were present during some of the major
534 geological events in Mexico, including the formation of the Transvolcanic Belt in Central
535 Mexico (starting in the mid-Miocene, ca. 15 mya; Ferrari *et al.*, 2012), the Gulf of California (ca.
536 7.2 mya; Bennett and Oskin, 2014), and Guadalupe Island (also 7.2 mya), all around the same
537 time (Dolby *et al.*, 2105).

538 The earliest divergence in *Brahea* corresponds approximately with the onset of formation
539 of the Transvolcanic Belt in Mexico ca. 15 mya, though the estimated ancestral range of the
540 common ancestor of all *Brahea* is equivocal based on our analysis in BioGeoBears (Fig. 3). Thus
541 it is unclear if this geological process may have influenced diversification in *Brahea*. The most
542 likely ancestral range for subgenus *Erythea* is Baja California and northwestern Mexico, but with
543 low confidence. Even so, it is clear that geography has played a role in diversification in *Brahea*,

544 with the *B. armata* clade concentrated in the northwest, members of the *B. pimo* clade occupying
545 central, northeastern, and southeastern Mexico/Central America, and the *B. dulcis* clade
546 occupying all areas but Baja California and Guadalupe Island.

547 The radiation of the *B. armata* clade began an estimated 5.51 mya (HPD = 2.13-9.84),
548 which overlaps with the formation of Guadalupe Island and the Gulf of California (Bennett and
549 Oskin, 2014). Jump dispersal (i.e. founder event speciation) can be attributed to the origin of *B.*
550 *edulis* on Guadalupe Island. Based on Fig. 3, it is likely that the ancestor of *B. edulis* colonized
551 Guadalupe Island soon after its formation (ca. 7.2 mya), and has since existed in isolation. The
552 exact position of *B. edulis* varies among analyses here, either as sister to the remaining members
553 of the *B. armata* clade, or as sister to (*B. armata*, *B. aculeata*) (Figs. 2, 3). Thus, it is unknown
554 whether dispersal of the ancestral form of the *B. armata* clade occurred before or after the
555 evolution of *B. brandegeei* in Baja California.

556 The ancestral range for the *B. armata* clade (Baja California and Northwestern Mexico)
557 suggests the following sequence of biogeographic events were possible based on interpretation of
558 Fig. 3: (1) sympatric range-copying in the ancestor of *B. brandegeei* and the remaining members
559 of the *B. armata* clade; (2) founder event speciation as a result of jump dispersal of the ancestor
560 of *B. edulis* to Guadalupe Island; and (3) subset/sympatric speciation of *B. aculeata*
561 (northwestern Mexico) and *B. armata* (Baja California and northwestern Mexico). These
562 findings contrast with those in other studies suggesting that the formation of the Gulf of
563 California represents a major driver of allopatric speciation via vicariance (e.g. Riddle *et al.*,
564 2000). Instead, most speciation events in this clade likely occurred after the separation of Baja
565 California from western mainland Mexico, suggesting roles for sympatric speciation or dispersal,
566 especially in the case of *B. edulis*.

567 It is more difficult to interpret the estimated biogeographic history of the *B. pimo* clade,
568 due to the equivocal likelihood percentage of its ancestral range in both models (Fig. 3).
569 However, all speciation events in this clade potentially overlap with the ongoing formation of the
570 Transvolcanic Belt in central Mexico, and thus it is unknown whether the later stages of volcanic
571 uplift would have contributed to, for example, the divergence of *B. moorei* in northeastern
572 Mexico and *B. sarukhanii* in central/western Mexico. Our results suggest a larger role for
573 dispersal to neighboring areas than for vicariance and allopatric speciation due the formation of
574 the Transvolcanic Belt (Fig. 3).

575 DEC-like models, and especially those carrying the 'j' parameter have been criticized
576 recently, in that they fail to properly model cladogenetic events by preferentially biasing analyses
577 towards cladogenesis (as opposed to anagenetic processes), and artificially inflating conclusions
578 of jump dispersal/founder event speciation (Ree and Sanmartín, 2018). Therefore, we interpret
579 our findings cautiously, and conclude that our proposed ancestral ranges for the species of
580 *Brahea* are largely equivocal. The biogeographic history of Mexico and Central America is
581 complex, and our ability to reconstruct the history of *Brahea* is limited in this case. Additional
582 sampling within species, improved taxonomic delimitations, and more appropriate models
583 including anagenetic and cladogenetic change in a time-dependent fashion while incorporating

584 phylogenetic uncertainty (e.g. ClaSSE-type models; Fitzjohn, 2012) may help improve estimates
585 of ancestral ranges in *Brahea*.

586 ***Species distribution models and ecological niche differentiation.*** Here we tested for
587 signal of ecological diversification among selected species pairs within the *B. armata* and *B.*
588 *dulcis* clades. These clades contain the youngest nodes in our chronogram, display overlapping
589 species ranges in some cases, and contain taxonomic boundaries that remain somewhat uncertain
590 (e.g. in the *B. dulcis* clade). The recent origin of *Brahea aculeata* and *armata* may be the result
591 of sympatric ecological diversification in novel habitats. The respective SDMs of *Brahea*
592 *aculeata* and *armata* are unique, even though their geographic ranges overlap. *Brahea*
593 *brandegeei* and *armata* are distributed in Baja California and northwestern mainland Mexico,
594 while *B. aculeata* is found only in northwestern mainland Mexico (Henderson *et al.*, 1995;
595 Hodel, 2006). However, filtered GBIF records did not include *B. brandegeei* localities from
596 northwestern mainland Mexico, an area listed by Henderson *et al.* (1995) to be part of this
597 species' range. Our inferences of SDMs and phylogenetic relationships between these three
598 species suggest that the northern range and possibly the taller height of *B. armata*, and an eastern
599 range extent and preference for more upland habitats by *B. aculeata*, may be evidence of
600 relatively recent niche divergence. These results provide an additional line of evidence
601 supporting our findings of sympatric speciation in the diversification of the *B. armata* clade in
602 northwestern Mexico.

603 Recent taxonomic treatments place *B. "berlandieri"* as a synonym of the widespread and
604 variable *B. dulcis* (e.g. Henderson *et al.*, 1995; Hodel, 2006). Our inferred SDMs provide some
605 evidence for the recognition of northeastern populations of *B. dulcis* corresponding to *B.*
606 *berlandieri* (currently known as the former) as a distinct entity, raising the possibility that *B.*
607 *berlandieri* could in fact be a separate species. Despite their estimated recent divergence time,
608 their respective SDMs are significantly non-equivalent ($0.18, P = 7.09 \times 10^{-64}$). However, the
609 failure to distinguish this difference from a null distribution argues against niche divergence as
610 the force underlying any potential difference among these entities. These results coincide well
611 with an earlier caveat provided by Warren *et al.* (2014), that SDM non-equivalency is not always
612 indicative of ecological speciation, and that is likely over-prescribed in the literature. Regardless,
613 the putative distinctness of *B. berlandieri* warrants further investigation genetically,
614 morphologically, and ecologically.

615 A greater number of high-resolution, georeferenced, taxonomically-vetted specimen
616 records from across species ranges would allow us to infer higher quality estimates of occupied
617 niche space. Reducing the assumed georeferencing and taxonomic errors in publically available
618 locality datasets would allow use of higher resolution predictor variables, for which many more
619 datasets exist, e.g. Harmonized Soils, which may prove to be important in *Brahea*, given the
620 preference of some species for calcareous soils. These improved models would allow us to
621 include more *Brahea* species, such as *B. calcarea* and *decumbens*, and furthermore to extend
622 these analyses back in time to ancestral nodes.

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CONCLUSIONS

We have conducted an explicit phylogenetic study of one of the most poorly understood, yet ecologically important groups of American palms, providing strong resolution and support for phylogenetic relationships in the genus, based on nearly 400 kb of sequence data from all three genomes. We further provide a phylogenetic test of subgeneric species assignments, largely corroborating earlier work based on diagnostic morphological characters. The exception is *B. moorei*, which is strongly supported as being a member of subgenus *Erythea*, but was previously placed in subgenus *Brahea* based on morphological characters including a lack of petiolar spines. We demonstrate the evolution of dwarf forms from taller, tree-like ancestors in *B. moorei* and *B. decumbens*. We provide the first comprehensive estimates of the timing of speciation events across the genus, reveal roles for sympatric speciation and dispersal in the biogeographic history of *Brahea*, and provide evidence of ecological niche divergence among closely related species in the *B. armata* and *B. dulcis* species complexes. The findings are relevant in elucidating complex patterns of biogeographic history in Central America and Mexico. Most importantly, we provide a framework for future studies to be conducted including integrative species delimitation within the genus, estimation of gene flow, phylogeographic history, and more fine-scale investigation of environmental/ecological factors driving evolution in this clade.

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- 820

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822 **Table 1.** Voucher information and characteristics of high-throughput sequence datasets. HBG =
 823 Huntington Botanical Garden live collection; HNT = Huntington Botanical Garden Herbarium;
 824 CSLA = California State University, Los Angeles Herbarium; UCBG = UC, Berkeley Botanical
 825 Garden live collection; UC = UC, Berkeley & Jepson Herbaria; ‘Plastid,’ ‘rDNA,’ and ‘mt’ =
 826 mean coverage depth of the plastome, partial rDNA cistron (18S-ITS-26S), and mitochondrial
 827 genomes, respectively. ^aRecognized as a synonym of *B. dulcis* (Hodel, 2006; Govaerts et al.,
 828 2018).
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Species	Voucher	Total # reads	Plastid	rDNA	mt	Sequencing
<i>Chamaerops humilis</i> L.	HBG 2073; HNT 10471	8,677,266	96.6	508.8	10.7	HiSeq2000
<i>Washingtonia robusta</i> H.Wendl.	CSLA Barrett 310 CSLA	37,162,404	1,128.0	2,096.3	176	HiSeq2000
<i>Brahea aculeata</i> (Brandege) H.E.Moore	HBG 16448; HNT 13042	5,529,618	175.2	2,716.6	18	MiSeq
<i>Brahea armata</i> S.Watson	HBG 23437; HNT 13222	7,273,550	301.3	3,848.1	19.6	MiSeq
<i>Brahea “berlandieri”</i> Bartlett ^a	HBG 28812; HNT 1745	5,051,496	100.6	529.6	29.8	MiSeq
<i>Brahea brandegeei</i> (Purpus) H.E.Moore	HBG 89871; HNT 13043	9,873,046	281.2	4,185.6	16.5	HiSeq2000
<i>Brahea decumbens</i> Rzed.	HBG 35650; HNT 13038	4,013,662	36.2	276.2	9.5	MiSeq
<i>Brahea dulcis</i> (Kunth) Mart.	HBG 23220; HNT 13044	15,361,806	638.2	1,772.7	66.1	NextSeq500
<i>Brahea edulis</i> H.Wendl. ex S.Watson	UCBG 2003.0149; 1869963, UC 1971077	18,933,406	554.7	3,626.7	42.1	HiSeq2500
<i>Brahea moorei</i> L.H.Bailey ex H.E.Moore	UCBG 88.0345; UC 197077	3,103,380	59.3	1,160.6	9.3	MiSeq
<i>Brahea calcarea</i> Liebm. (syn. <i>B. nitida</i> André)	HBG 27970; HNT 10472	12,865,552	494.2	871.2	30.1	NextSeq500
<i>Brahea pimo</i> Becc.	HBG 52194; HNT 13045	6,518,544	42.8	615.3	11.4	MiSeq
<i>Brahea salvadorensis</i> H.Wendl. ex Becc.	HBG 35754; HNT 1029	4,917,552	142.8	439.2	20.8	MiSeq
<i>Brahea sarukhanii</i> H.J.Quero	HBG 25151; HNT 10470	15,333,496	279.8	1,617.1	29	NextSeq500

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831 **Table 2.** Characteristics of the nuclear, mitochondrial, and plastid datasets for *Brahea*. ‘Total L’
 832 = total length of each alignment; ‘post-filter L’ = length of each alignment after filtering; ‘# P-inf
 833 sites’ = the number of parsimony informative sites; ‘P-inf/1000bp’ = the number of parsimony
 834 informative sites per 1,000 bp of alignment; ‘#MPT, L’ = the number of most parsimonious trees
 835 and their length in steps (i.e. number of nucleotide changes); ‘model’ = the best fit model for
 836 each alignment based on the corrected Akaike Information Criterion.’

Locus	total L	post-filter L	# P-inf sites	P-inf/1000bp	#MPT; L	837 model
<i>MS</i>	601	n/a	18	30.0	9, 41	T92+G
<i>CISP4</i>	664	n/a	22	33.1	3, 60	GTR+G
<i>RPB2</i>	701	n/a	19	27.1	1, 47	HKY+G
rDNA	6,180	n/a	60	9.7	3, 218	TN93+G
Total nrDNA	8,146	7,967	119	14.6	1, 384	TN93+G
mtDNA	261,650	212,874	304	1.2	1, 1,164	GTR+G+I
Plastome	132,870	121,301	333	2.5	1, 938	HKY+G+I
Combined	402,666	342,142	756	2.2	1, 2,490	GTR+G+I

838 **Table 3.** Results of Warren’s Identity Test (*I*) run for 1,000 replicates using both the WorldClim
839 and Pearson-Filtered data sets ($\alpha \leq 0.0166$ for the *B. armata* clade, post-Bonferroni correction).

Species Comparison	<i>I</i> statistic	P-Value
<i>B. armata</i> vs. <i>aculeata</i>	0.249853356	1.44×10^{-45}
<i>B. armata</i> vs. <i>brandegeei</i>	0.264126907	5.00×10^{-23}
<i>B. aculeata</i> vs. <i>brandegeei</i>	0.126009409	6.02×10^{-15}
<i>B. dulcis</i> vs. “berlandieri”	0.179367929	7.09×10^{-64}

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SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

843 Supplementary Link 1 contains MaxEnt outputs of replicated SDMs for *Brahea aculeata*, *B.*
844 *armata*, *B. berlandieri*, *B. brandegeei*, and *B. dulcis*. Each folder contains an HTML document
845 named ‘maxent.html,’ which details all results generated by MaxEnt for each species. Link:
846 <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1o0Gp-9y7rk2Ou3xVQ7IUelGBafhZxjb/view?usp=sharing>.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

850

851 We thank the staff at the Huntington Library, Art Collections and Botanical Gardens and
852 the University of California Botanical Garden (Holly Forbes) for assistance in collecting material
853 and voucher information. We thank the staff at Global Biologics, LLC. (Sean Blake), Laragen,
854 Inc. (Jinliang Li, Lindy Him), the WVU Genomics Core Facility (Sandy Simon, Ryan
855 Percifield), and the WVU-Marshall Shared Sequencing Facility (Don Primerano, Jun Fan) for
856 sequencing assistance. Financial support was provided by the California State University
857 Program for Education & Research in Biotechnology, and the WVU Program to Stimulate
858 Competitive Research. We thank two anonymous reviewers for their comments improving the
859 manuscript.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

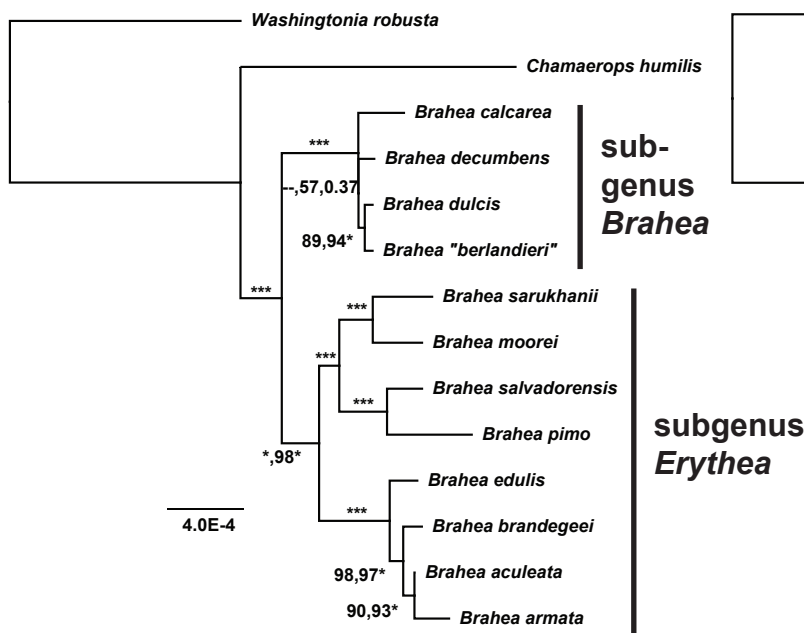
Fig. 1. Maximum Likelihood trees based on plastid (A), mitochondrial (B), nuclear (C), and combined (D) data. Numbers adjacent to branches are Parsimony Jackknife, Maximum Likelihood Bootstrap, and Bayesian posterior probabilities. ‘*’ = 100% support (or posterior probability = 1 for Bayesian Analysis). ‘--’ = differing topology from ML tree for Parsimony or Bayesian Analysis. Scale bar = substitutions/site.

Fig. 2. Divergence time estimates for *Brahea* based on four fossil calibrations. Scale bar = millions of years before present. Gray bars on nodes = 95% highest posterior density of divergence time estimates; numbers at nodes are mean divergence time estimates. “*” indicates that *B. moorei* is placed in subgenus *Erythea* based on our phylogenetic results, and not in subgenus *Brahea* as in previous treatments.

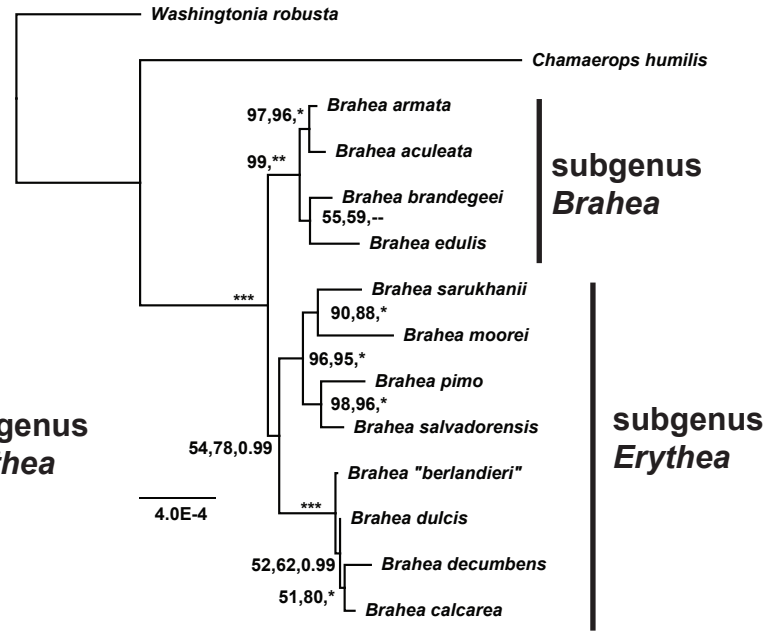
Fig. 3. Biogeographic reconstruction of ancestral ranges for *Brahea* under BayAreaLike and BayAreaLike+j models in BioGeoBEARS. **A.** Chronogram with most likely ancestral ranges. Numbers adjacent to pie charts indicate the likelihood of the most likely ancestral range (top BayAreaLike, bottom, BayAreaLike+j). Dotted line indicates the approximate dates of origin of Guadalupe Island and the formation of the Gulf of California (7.2 mya). **B.** *Brahea armata* (Santa Barbara, California, USA). **C.** *Brahea dulcis* (Fairchild Tropical Botanical Gardens, Coral Gables, Florida, USA). **D.** *Brahea sarukhanii* (Montgomery Botanical Center, Coral Gables, Florida, USA). Photos: C. Barrett. **E.** Map of Mexico and Central America displaying the six different areas chosen to represent of the range of *Brahea*: A. Baja California; B. Northwestern Mainland Mexico; C. Northeastern Mexico; D. Central/Southern Mexico; E. Southeastern Mexico/Central America; F. Guadalupe Island. Geological events (circles): “I.” Formation of the Mexican Transvolcanic Belt (15 mya onward); “II.” Opening of the Gulf of California (7.2 mya onward); “III.” Formation of Guadalupe Island (7.2 mya).

Fig. 4. ML ancestral state reconstruction of maximum height among species of *Brahea*, based on a Brownian Motion model in the R packages ‘APE’ and ‘PhyTools.’ Numbers at tips are maximum height values (in meters), and at nodes these are ancestral estimates of maximum height, with one standard error in parentheses. “*” indicates the two dwarf forms.

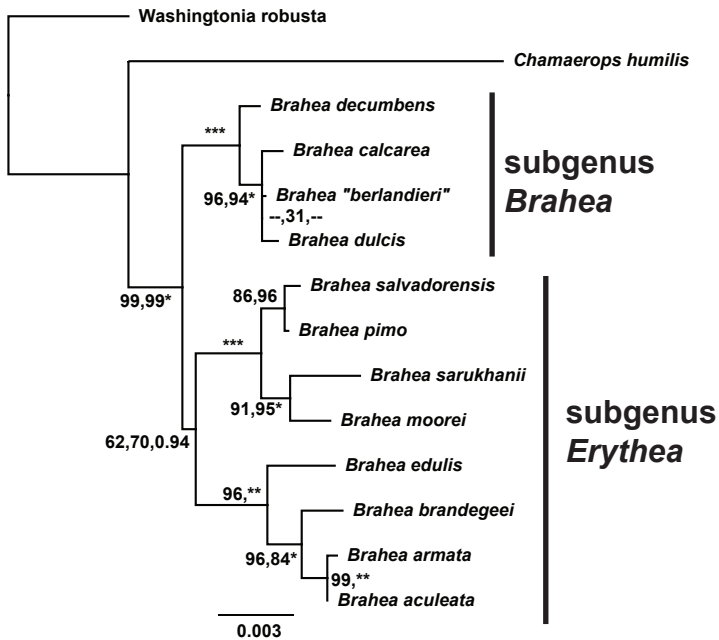
A. Complete Plastome



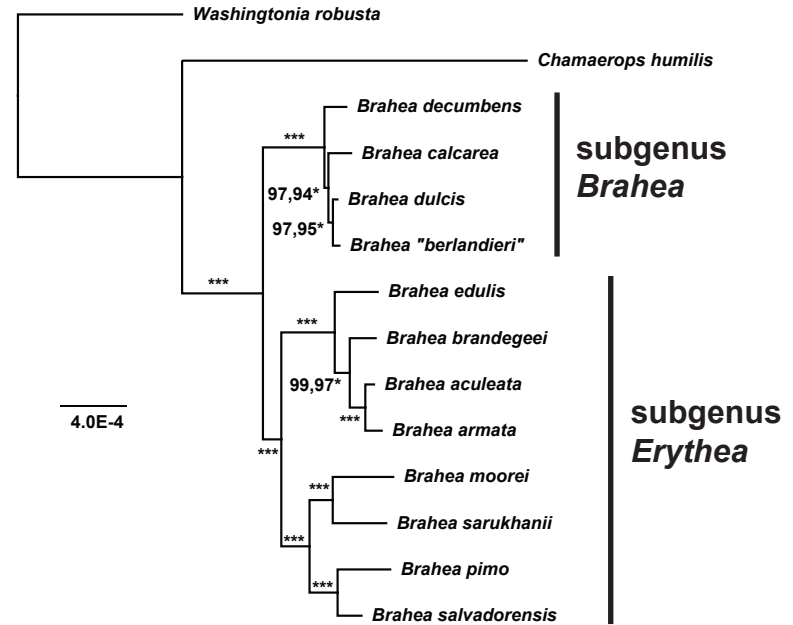
B. Mitochondrial DNA

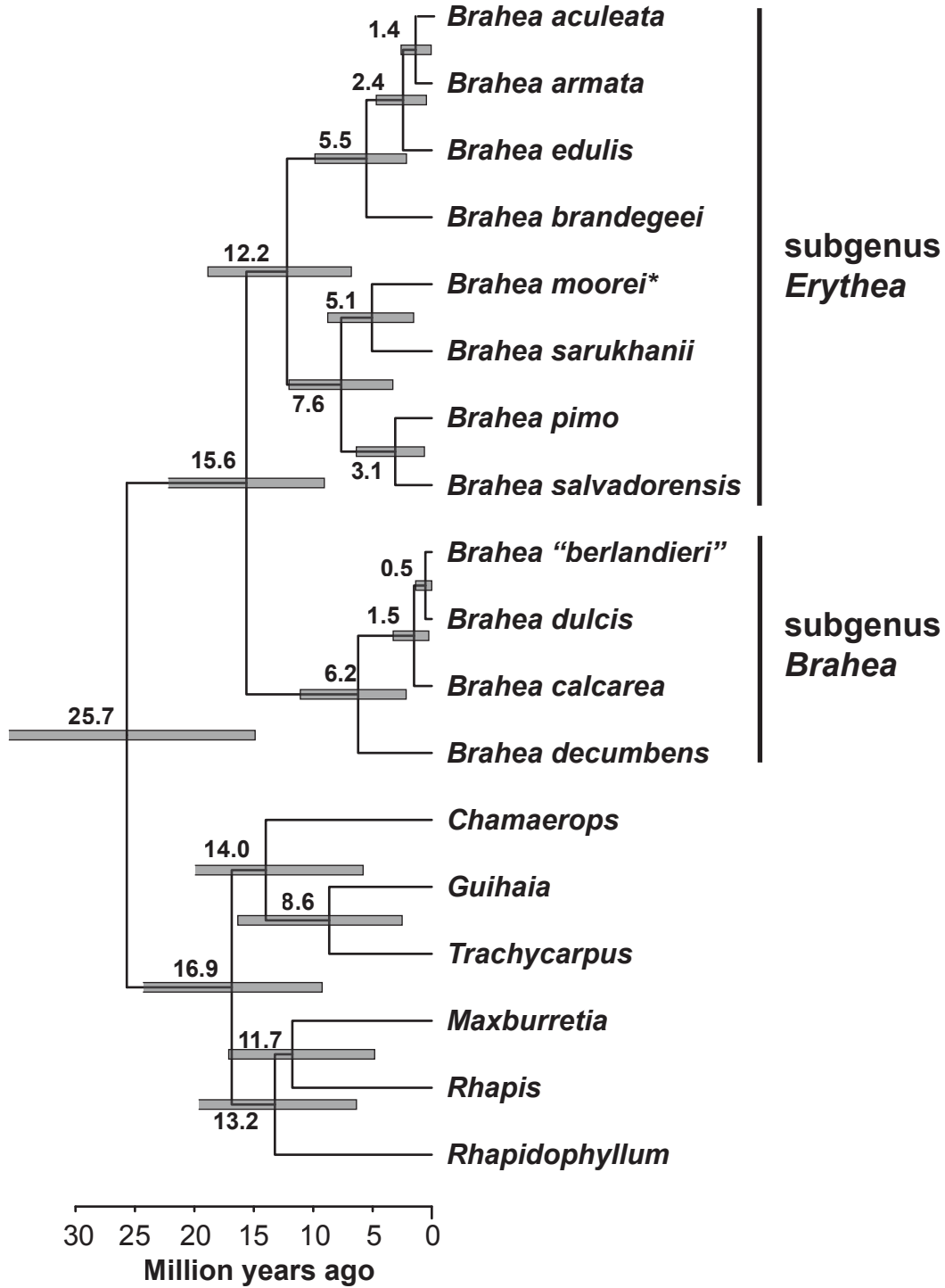


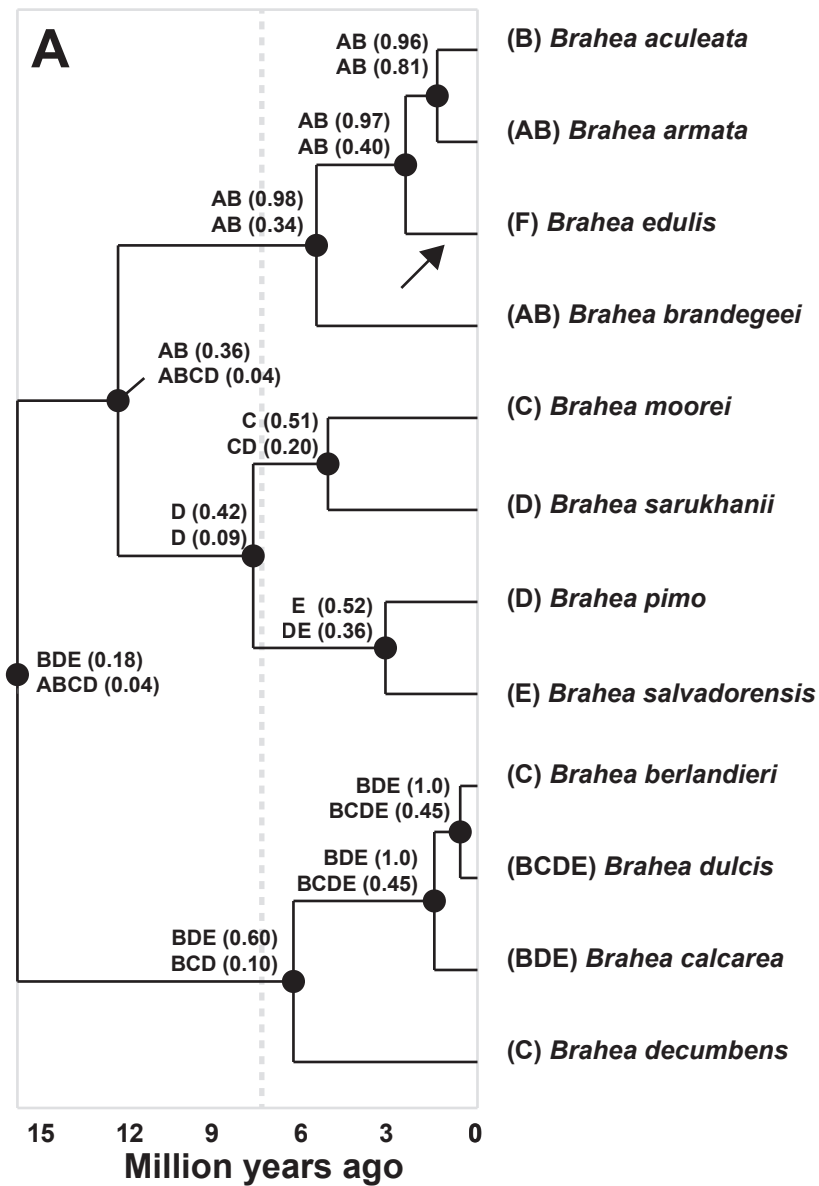
C. Combined Nuclear DNA



D. All Data Combined







subgenus
Erythea

subgenus
Brahea

