

27 **Abstract**

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29 Hybridization and introgression are common processes among numerous plant species that
30 present both challenges and opportunities for studies of species delimitation, phylogenetics,
31 taxonomy, and adaptation. *Rhus integrifolia* and *R. ovata* are two ecologically important shrubs
32 native to the southwestern USA and Mexico, and are known to hybridize frequently, but the
33 morphological, genetic, and ecological implications of hybridization in these species are poorly
34 studied on a broad geographic scale. Analyses were conducted using leaf morphology, genetic
35 variation of plastid and nuclear loci, and species distribution models for both species and their
36 putative hybrid introgressants across 19 localities in California and Arizona, USA. These
37 analyses revealed evidence for morphological and genetic distinction among localities
38 comprising putative parental species, but a high degree of morpho-genetic intermediacy among
39 localities with putative hybrids. Comparison of morphological and genetic population structure
40 among localities revealed evidence for putative local adaptation or widespread phenotypic
41 plasticity. Multiple regression models identified a weak but statistically significant negative
42 association between leaf area and precipitation. Finally, species distribution modeling inferred
43 northward range shifts over time, with both species predicted to occupy more coastal regions in
44 the future, possibly increasing the frequency of hybridization among them. These findings
45 underscore the importance of integrative assessment of multiple data sources in the study of
46 hybridizing species and highlight the *Rhus integrifolia-ovata* complex as a powerful model for
47 investigating the adaptive implications of hybridization.

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50 **Keywords:** Hybridization, introgression, California, Arizona, species distribution modeling

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54 1 | INTRODUCTION

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56 Hybridization is a hallmark of many plant species complexes, often blurring species boundaries
57 (Stebbins, 1969; Rieseberg and Soltis, 1991; Petit and Excoffier, 2009). The interplay between
58 divergent selection among parental species in terms of maximizing reproductive success in a
59 particular niche vs. the frequency and extent of gene flow remains a key issue in evolutionary
60 biology (Slatkin, 1987; Burke et al., 1998; Rieseberg et al., 1999; Saccheri and Hanski, 2006;
61 Sork et al., 2016). The potential outcomes of hybrid introgression are diverse and context-
62 dependent, including: 1) lower fitness among hybrid offspring reinforcing species boundaries
63 among distinct parental species (e.g. Rieseberg et al., 1999; Hoskin et al., 2005); 2) higher fitness
64 among offspring in novel or intermediate environments relative to parental species allowing
65 invasion of marginal or novel niches, ultimately leading to ecological specialization and eventual
66 speciation (e.g. Rieseberg et al., 1995; Ellstrand, 2003; Mavarez et al., 2006; Soltis and Soltis,
67 2009; Abbott et al., 2013); 3) little to no fitness consequences among offspring, with
68 introgression simply serving as a vehicle for ‘neutral’ genetic exchange among parental species
69 (e.g. Gavrillets and Cruzan, 1998); 4) the exchange of novel, adaptive genetic variation via gene
70 flow between parental species through introgressants (Ellstrand and Schierenbeck, 2000; Arnold,
71 2004; Hegarty and Hiscock, 2004).

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73 A ‘classic’ example of hybrid introgression is that of *R. integrifolia* (Nutt.) Benth. & Hook. f. ex
74 Rothr. and *Rhus ovata* S. Watson, two ecologically important shrubs native to southwestern
75 North America (Barkley, 1937; Young, 1974). Both are major structural components of coastal
76 scrub and chaparral ecosystems, respectively, and are important in erosion control, as native
77 ornamental shrubs/trees, and as a source of food and shelter for wildlife. *Rhus integrifolia*
78 occupies coastal scrub habitats in California (USA), Baja California (Mexico), and outlying
79 islands. *Rhus ovata* occurs in coastal mountains in the chaparral regions of California and
80 northwestern Mexico and is also disjunct to interior chaparral habitats of central Arizona (USA),
81 separated from Californian conspecifics by the Sonoran and Mojave deserts (Montalvo et al.,
82 2017). Both species are gynodioecious, with hermaphroditic and male-sterile individuals
83 frequently occurring in the same populations. This reproductive strategy has evolved numerous
84 times in plants and is hypothesized to promote outcrossing and thereby reduce the deleterious
85 effects of inbreeding depression (Barkley, 1937; Munz and Keck, 1959; Young, 1972; 1974;
86 Freeman et al., 1997; Barrett, 2002).

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88 *Rhus integrifolia* has relatively small, flat, often toothed, obovate-obelliptic leaves (3-6 cm in
89 length). *Rhus ovata* has broad, waxy, ovate-deltoid leaves that fold along the midrib of the
90 abaxial surface into a characteristic “taco” shape, which is likely an adaptation to hot, arid
91 summers in mid-lower montane chaparral zones (leaves 4-11 cm in length). These morphologies
92 may represent extremes on an environmental continuum based on proximity to the Pacific
93 Ocean, moisture, and temperature fluctuations in a diverse, heterogeneous range from coastal
94 California and Baja California to interior Arizona (Young, 1974; Montalvo et al., 2017).
95 Californian populations of these two species show varying degrees of morphological
96 intermediacy due to introgression at intermediate elevations (Figs. 1; S1), where they are often
97 sympatric; i.e. in regions where the mountains abruptly meet the coast (Barkley, 1937; Young,
98 1974). Arizonan populations of *R. ovata*, on the other hand, are allopatrically separated from *R.*

99 *integrifolia* or any putatively introgressant populations of *R. ovata*, and thus may represent a
100 “pure” form of *R. ovata*.

101
102 The two species are estimated to have diverged ca. 3 million years ago (mya) +/- 1.6 mya (Miller
103 et al., 2001, Yi et al., 2004). Fossils attributed to both species have been found at inland sites in
104 Nevada, farther north than the current distribution of either species, dating back to the Miocene
105 and even Pliocene (Young, 1974). Thus, these two species may have undergone several periods
106 of contracting and expanding distributions, being both allopatric and sympatric over hundreds of
107 thousands to a few million years, e.g. spanning several of the Pleistocene glaciations.

108
109 Young (1972; 1974) conducted meticulous studies of the breeding systems and patterns of
110 introgressive hybridization in these two species, based on samples from two “pure” localities of
111 each species and one sympatric locality, demonstrating intermediacy in leaf and floral traits in
112 the sympatric population. However, Young (1974) conceded that the two “pure” populations of
113 *R. ovata* displayed some intermediate features akin to *R. integrifolia*, and could not rule out that
114 these populations may be the result of either ‘ancient’ introgression, or introgression in the
115 immediate past followed by backcrossing with more ‘pure’ forms of *R. ovata*. Further, Young
116 (1974) found limited evidence for clinal variation in leaf length and width associated with
117 latitude within *R. ovata*, with shorter, more narrow leaves in the southernmost population
118 compared to larger, broader leaves in the northern population, though this finding is based on
119 comparison of only two populations.

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121 Despite these earlier studies, a quantitative assessment of range-wide variation in morphology,
122 genetic diversity, and abiotic niche requirements is lacking for these two ecologically important
123 species. Here we use plastid and nuclear DNA sequences, leaf morphometrics, and species
124 distribution models to characterize patterns of differentiation and hybrid introgression in the
125 *Rhus integrifolia-ovata* complex, addressing the following questions: 1) What is the extent of leaf
126 morphological variation across the geographic ranges of *R. ovata* and *R. integrifolia*, and within
127 introgressed populations, and how to these relate to environmental variation? 2) Do plastid and
128 nuclear DNA show distinct patterns of population structuring across the allopatric and sympatric
129 portions of their ranges, and what is the extent of genetic evidence for introgression?
130 Specifically, are the disjunct Californian and Arizonan populations genetically distinct or do they
131 display evidence of current or historical introgression (shared haplotypes) with populations in the
132 sympatric range? 3) How do the inferred environmental niches of *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata*
133 differ in the present, past, and future, and what is their degree of niche overlap?

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2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Sampling

Leaf material and voucher specimens were sampled from 19 localities across California and Arizona (Table 1). Localities correspond to putatively “pure” populations of *R. ovata* (n = 12), *R. integrifolia* (n = 4), or of ‘mixed’ populations with signs of morphological intermediacy (*R. integrifolia* × *ovata*; n = 3; Fig. 1). No populations were included from the Channel Islands or Baja California due to logistical challenges of collecting material.

2.2 | Morphology

Leaves were collected from the basal-most position along a branch, in order to reduce the effect of intra-individual morphological heterogeneity. We were unable to include floral/fruit characters for every locality and instead focused on leaf characters exclusively, which have been shown to be useful indicators of introgression between *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* (Young, 1974). Pressed leaves were scanned at 1200 DPI on a Brother TN630 scanner along with a flat 6cm ruler (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). The software ImageJ2 (Rueden et al., 2017) was used to measure five continuous characters: lamina length, lamina width at widest point, lamina width at 1/4 distance from apex, lamina width at 1/4 distance from base, and petiole length. We scored two meristic characters: number of secondary veins along the adaxial lamina surface on the left side, and the total number of teeth along the lamina margin. We scored seven discrete characters: teeth (present/absent); acute lamina apex (present/absent); base of lamina (acute/truncate/cordate); lamina folding (folded/flat/wavy); red lamina margin (present/absent); basal lamina lobing (present/absent); and lamina shape (ovate-deltoid/oval-elliptic/obovate-obelliptic).

We conducted Principal Components Analysis (PCA) using a correlation matrix in PAST v.3 (Hammer et al., 2001) on all characters and used the ‘biplot’ function to investigate the relative contributions of each character to each resulting PC axis. We used the scree plot and ‘broken stick’ method in PAST to assess the number of PC axes contributing significantly to total variation. We plotted the density of individual scores along PC1 in R using the violin and jitter plot functions in the R package ‘ggplot2’ (Wickham, 2016). We interpreted scores and density of individuals along PC1 as a proxy of a morphological hybrid index among four a priori groupings of taxa/localities: coastal and interior Californian *Rhus ovata*; coastal Californian *R. integrifolia*; interior Arizonan *R. ovata*, and localities with *R. ovata*, *R. integrifolia*, and their introgressants (*R. integrifolia* × *ovata*). We conducted a two-way nonparametric multivariate analysis of variance with Gower transformation for ‘mixed’ data (NP-MANOVA) to evaluate statistically significant multivariate differences in leaf morphology among groupings in PAST v.3, partitioning among two levels: grouping and locality within grouping.

2.3 | Leaf area and environmental variation

We constructed multiple regression models in order to investigate the relationship of leaf area to environmental variation. We analyzed the log₁₀ of leaf area, quantified using ImageJ2, in association with four composite environmental predictor variables. We did not calculate specific leaf area (i.e. leaf area/leaf dry mass) because we were unable to dry the leaves simultaneously under identical conditions, which could have been a source of bias. Nineteen BIOCLIM

183 environmental variables were downloaded for each sampling locality at 2.5 arc-minute resolution
184 from <https://www.worldclim.org> using the R package ‘raster’ (Hijmans, 2019). Then, PCA was
185 conducted on the nineteen BIOCLIM variables using a correlation matrix in PASTv.3.
186 Temperature and precipitation-related variables were analyzed separately in order to investigate
187 their effects individually. A broken-stick analysis was conducted as above. The first two PCs for
188 temperature and precipitation were retained for downstream regression analyses. In addition, a
189 binary grouping variable was included each for localities containing *R. ovata* (CA), *R. ovata*
190 (AZ), *R. integrifolia* (CA) and *R. integrifolia* × *ovata* (CA) (n = 4 groups), to account for
191 variation in leaf area among groups.

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193 We included all combinations of PC1 (temperature), PC2 (temperature), PC1 (precipitation),
194 PC2 (precipitation), and ‘group’ in the models. Relative importance of each term (environmental
195 PCs, group, and interaction terms) was assessed via significance in the models. The full model
196 was specified as: \log_{10} leaf area ~ PC1_{temp} + PC2_{temp} + PC1_{precip} + PC2_{precip} + group + interaction
197 terms + error. Interaction terms included all pairwise combinations of temperature × precipitation
198 PCs, and of each PC × group. Loadings scores for each BIOCLIM variable with coefficients
199 above a threshold of 0.25 were interpreted as the variables most strongly associated with each
200 PC. We ran eight nested models, dropping the *R. integrifolia* (CA) grouping variable for those
201 models that included a group effect. All analyses were conducted in R using the ‘lm’ function.
202 Tables were summarized with ‘jtools’ (Long, 2019) and ‘huxtable’ (Hugh-Jones, 2018) in R,
203 reporting R² and R²-adjusted values for each model, as well as regression coefficients, standard
204 errors, and significance for each predictor and interaction term.

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206 **2.4 | Plastid and nuclear ITS variation**

207 Approximately 1 cm² of leaf material was removed from the center of each leaf adjacent to the
208 midrib prior to pressing as not to obscure morphological features of the leaf, and DNA was
209 extracted following a modified CTAB protocol (Doyle and Doyle, 1987), at 1/5 volume. Total
210 genomic DNA was subjected to PCR amplification of one nuclear and two plastid regions. We
211 amplified the nuclear internal transcribed spacer (ITS) with primers ITS1 and ITS4 (White et al.,
212 1990), the plastid *ndhC-trnV^{UAC}* spacer with primers rhus-ndhC-F (5’
213 AGCAGAAACATAGACGAACCTCTCC 3’) and rhus-trnV-R (5’
214 GTCTACGGTTCGAGTCCGTATAGC 3’), and the plastid *rpl16-rps3* intergenic spacer with
215 primers rhus-rpl16-F (5’ GGTTCCATCGTTCCCATGCTTCT 3’) and rhus-rps3-R (5’
216 TGTAGCCGCAGAATAATAAGACT 3’). These regions were chosen based on a previous
217 assessment of high-variation plastid markers based on complete plastid genomes of *R.*
218 *integrifolia* and *R. ovata* (NCBI GenBank accession numbers MT024991-MT024993; Barrett, in
219 review). Reactions were carried out in 25µl volumes, with 12.5µl Apex PCR Master Mix
220 (Genesee Scientific, San Diego, California, USA), nine µl pure water, 0.2µM of each primer,
221 0.5µl 5M Betaine, and 20-100ng template DNA in one µl Tris-EDTA Buffer (pH = 8.0). PCR
222 conditions for ITS consisted of 95°C for 3 min, 30 cycles of 95°C (30 sec), 55°C (45 sec), and
223 72°C (90 sec), with a final extension of 72°C for 10 min. Conditions for plastid loci differed only
224 by the annealing step (60°C for 30 sec). PCR products were visualized on 1% agarose gels and
225 cleaned with 1.8x volume of AxyPrep FragmentSelect magnetic beads (Corning-Axygen,
226 Corning, New York, USA), followed by two washes with 80% ethanol. PCR products were
227 cleaned with Sephadex G-50 fine medium (70g/L; GE Healthcare, Chicago, Illinois, USA),
228 centrifuged through a 96-well filter plate (Phenix Research, Accident, Maryland, USA),

229 quantified via NanoDrop spectrophotometry (ThermoFisher), and diluted to 30ng/μl. PCR
230 products were sequenced on both strands using the same primers as for amplification, following
231 manufacturer protocols (Applied Biosystems BigDye v.3.1 cycle sequencing kit, Life
232 Technologies, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) on an ABI 3130XL Genetic Analyzer at the West
233 Virginia University Genomics Core Facility.

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235 Resulting chromatograms were edited in Geneious R10 (<http://www.geneious.com>) and
236 consensus sequences were aligned with MAFFT v.7 (Kato and Standley, 2013) under default
237 parameters (gap opening penalty = 2.0, offset value = 0.5). For ITS electropherograms, all bi-
238 allelic, heterozygous sites were manually checked in Geneious and scored using IUPAC
239 ambiguity codes. Alignments for each locus were conducted with MAFFT (gap opening = 3,
240 offset = 0.5), adjusted manually at the margins in Geneious, and trimmed to remove ambiguous
241 calls near the priming sites. SeqPhase (Flot, 2010) and PHASE (Stephens et al., 2001) were used
242 to determine ITS alleles, with a 90% posterior probability per heterozygous site, using sampled
243 homozygous sequences as prior information. A variable minisatellite repeat in the *ndhC-trnV*
244 spacer was coded as a single, multistate character (ATT TTT TT[K] ATT ATT AAT TAT T).
245 Plastid loci were concatenated and analyzed as a single alignment. Sequences are deposited in
246 NCBI GenBank (Accession numbers: XXXXXXXX-XXXXXXX), and alignment/morphological
247 data deposited in Dryad (XXXXXX).

248
249 Haplotype networks were constructed in PopART v.1.7 (Leigh and Bryant, 2015), using the
250 ‘TCS network’ option (Clement et al., 2002) with a 95% connection limit. Locality codes and
251 GPS information (decimal degrees) were then added to a NEXUS file of the plastid and ITS
252 alignments to map haplotype frequencies using PopART and edited in Adobe Illustrator v. 24.1.1
253 (Adobe Inc., 2019).

254
255 **2.5 | Population genetics**
256 Population genetic analyses were carried out in ARELQUIN v.3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer, 2010)
257 for both plastid and nuclear datasets. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA; Excoffier et al.,
258 1992) was conducted for each dataset and partitioned by locality and grouping (as in Table 1) to
259 quantify the proportion of variation at different hierarchical levels, and to assess the degree of
260 population structuring across the range of this complex. Pairwise comparisons of Φ_{ST} and their
261 significance were further conducted among localities in ARLEQUIN. The values N_{ST} and G_{ST}
262 were compared in SPADS v.1.0 (Dellicour and Mardulyn, 2014) in order to further test
263 significance of population genetic structure among localities. Population structure was deemed to
264 be statistically significant if N_{ST} , which accounts for nucleotide sequence divergence, was
265 significantly greater than G_{ST} , which treats alleles as discrete units.

266
267 We conducted an overall comparison of the relative degrees of morphological and genetic
268 variation among localities using the ‘Pstat’ package in R (da Silva and da Silva, 2018). This
269 package calculates ‘ P_{ST} ’, an analog of ‘ Q_{ST} ’, which may serve as a proxy for genetically
270 determined morphological variation over a range of levels of additive genetic variation and
271 narrow-sense heritability. We used individual scores along Reist-transformed (Reist, 1985)
272 morphological PCs 1 and 2 as metrics of multivariate morphological variation (see above), and
273 global estimates of Φ_{ST} from plastid and nuclear ITS data, respectively. Without information
274 from common garden and reciprocal transplant experiments (which would have been infeasible

275 for the current study), $P_{ST} > \Phi_{ST}$ may indicate localized adaptive evolution via divergent
276 selection among populations but may also reflect plastic responses to environmental variation
277 (Brommer, 2011). Given the lack of studies on genetically determined morphological variation in
278 both species of *Rhus* and their introgressant populations, we used this as an exploratory tool to
279 distinguish a situation in which measures of the degree of morphological variation (P_{ST}) outrank
280 the degree of neutral genetic differentiation (Φ_{ST}) without distinguishing between genetic and
281 environmental factors, but instead tested this relationship over a range of potential heritability.
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283 **2.6 | Species distribution modeling**

284 Occurrence data were downloaded from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF)
285 using the ‘rgbif’ package for R. The R package ‘CoordinateCleaner’ (Zizka et al., 2018) was
286 used to filter occurrence data on several criteria, including latitude (below 35°N, corresponding
287 to the northern limits the native ranges of both species), preserved specimens only, year (post-
288 1930), occurrences missing coordinates, coordinate uncertainty, and range outliers.
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290 We used the R packages ‘raster’ (Hijmans et al., 2019) and ‘sp’ (Pebesma and Bivand, 2005) to
291 procure 19 BIOCLIM variables from the WorldClim database (Fick and Hijmans, 2017),
292 corresponding to the cleaned *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* datasets based on their GPS coordinates
293 (10 km resolution), with the addition of the 19 sampled localities from this study. We \log_{10} -
294 transformed the BIOCLIM data after adjusting negative and zero values (by adding 100 to these
295 variables). We subjected the dataset to Principal Components analysis via a correlation matrix in
296 PAST v.3, and plotted *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* occurrence data with the addition of new
297 collections. We further used NP-MANOVA to test for significant multivariate differences in
298 environmental variables between *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* in PAST.
299

300 Species distribution models (SDM) were inferred using MaxEnt (version 3.4.1; Phillips et al.,
301 2006; 2017) via the R package Dismo. Last Glacial Maximum (~22 kya), mid-Holocene (~6
302 kya), contemporary, and future (IPPC5 2070) bioclimatic predictor variable layers were obtained
303 via WorldClim (worldclim.org) at 2.5 arc-minute resolution. Last Glacial Maximum and mid-
304 Holocene predictor layers were generated using the fourth release of the Community Climate
305 System Model (Gent et al., 2010). We assessed the impact of future climate change on species
306 distributions by inferring future habitable ranges using both the 2.6 and 8.5 greenhouse gas
307 representative concentration pathway (RCP) scenarios. Climate layer inclusion was filtered using
308 Pearson correlation thresholds of 0.85 and -0.85. Analyses of niche equivalency were conducted
309 per Barrett et al. (2019).
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312 **3 | RESULTS**

313

314 **3.1 | Morphology**

315 Principal Components Analysis of 14 morphological characters revealed clear separation among
316 individuals from localities hypothesized to represent “pure” forms of *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata*
317 in CA and AZ, as indicated by non-overlapping 95% CIs of PC axes 1 and 2 (Fig. 2A).

318 Individuals from localities with hypothesized introgression between the two species overlapped
319 broadly in multivariate space with both species. Among localities with *R. ovata*-type
320 morphologies only, the CA and AZ individuals showed overlap, but the AZ populations only
321 occupied a relatively small region of multivariate space, with AZ individuals contained within
322 the 95% CI of the CA individuals. PC1 explained 48.99% of the total variation in morphological
323 features, while PC2 explained 10.63% (Table 2; S3). PC1 was largely determined by lamina
324 length/width characters, petiole length, the number of secondary veins, lamina apex shape, leaf
325 folding pattern, and overall leaf shape (Figs. 2B; S3). PC2 was largely determined leaf shape
326 characters (overall shape, folding, basal lamina shape), and the pattern of teeth on the lamina
327 margin.

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329 Morphological variation is further illustrated by a violin plot of PC1 for *R. integrifolia* vs. *R.*
330 *ovata* (both CA and AZ localities), which showed clear separation among species, with
331 individuals from introgressant populations covering nearly the entire PC1-ranges of both (Fig.
332 2C). A two-way NP-MANOVA of Gower-transformed data suggested that the groupings from
333 Fig. 2A differed significantly in multivariate leaf morphological space (Table S4., $F = 9.897$, $p =$
334 0.0001), and also that individuals from different sampling localities differed significantly within
335 each grouping ($F = 3.511$, $p = 0.0001$), with no significant interaction among grouping and
336 locality factors ($F = -11.970$, $p = 1.0$).

337

338 **3.2 | Leaf area and environmental variation**

339 Principal components analyses of 11 BIOCLIM temperature variables and eight precipitation
340 variables indicated that the first two temperature and precipitation PCs were significant, based on
341 a broken stick analysis (Fig. S5). Based on loading scores from the PCA: PC1_{temp} reflected
342 overall temperature magnitude (60.6% of total variance); PC2_{temp} reflected temperature variation
343 (31.1% of total variance, e.g. isothermality, mean diurnal range, annual temperature range);
344 PC1_{precip} reflected overall precipitation magnitude (62.7% of total variance); and PC2_{temp}
345 reflected variation in precipitation (24.3% of total variance, e.g. precipitation seasonality) (Fig.
346 S5).

347

348 Multiple regression models for log₁₀ leaf area and environmental variables are summarized in
349 Table 3. Model 1 included only the four environmental PCs and indicated a significant negative
350 relationship between PC1_{precip} and leaf area (coefficient = -0.04, standard error = 0.01, $p < 0.01$;
351 reported hereafter as ‘coef’, ‘se, and ‘p,’ respectively). Model 2 included only the binary
352 grouping variables and indicated that the ‘groups’ each captured a significant amount of
353 variation in leaf area (coef = 0.20, se = 0.03; coef = 0.30, se = 0.04; coef = 0.33, se = 0.05; $p <$
354 0.001 for all). Model 3 included environmental PCs and group, further indicating that groups
355 captured most of the variation in leaf area. Model 4 included environmental PCs and all pairwise
356 interaction terms between temperature and precipitation PCs, and indicated a significant negative
357 association between leaf area and PC1_{temp} (coef = -0.10, se = 0.02, $p < 0.001$); a significant

358 positive association with PC2_{temp} (coef = 0.18, se = 0.04, p < 0.001), and a significant negative
359 relationship with PC1_{precip}. (coef = -0.06; se = 0.02, p < 0.01). This model also indicated a
360 significant interaction among PC1_{precip} and both temperature PCs (coef = -0.03, se = 0.01, p <
361 0.001 for PC1_{temp}; and coef = 0.02, se = 0.00, p < 0.001 for PC2_{temp}, respectively).

362
363 Model 5 included all environmental variables, group, and interactions among environmental
364 variables. In this model, two of the groups, *R. integrifolia* × *ovata* and Californian *R. ovata*,
365 showed a significantly positive relationship with leaf area (coef = 0.13, se = 0.04, p < 0.01; coef
366 = 0.22, se = 0.07, p < 0.01, respectively), while the same two interactions were significant as in
367 Model 4. Model 6 included all environmental PCs, group, and all group × temperature PC
368 interactions. Here, PC1_{precip} had a significant negative association with leaf area (coef = -0.08; se
369 = 0.03, p < 0.05), while no other terms were significant. Model 7 was identical to model 6 but
370 instead included all group × precipitation PC interactions; none of the terms were significant, as
371 was the case with Model 8 (the ‘full’ model), which included all interactions among group ×
372 environmental PCs. Thus, there was no further explanatory power by including all interaction
373 terms.

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376 3.3 | Population genetics

377 Fig. 3 reveals a total of 42 phased nuclear ITS haplotypes and 13 plastid haplotypes (combined
378 *ndhC-trnV* and *rpl16-rps3*). Immediately evident from Fig. 3 is that several ITS haplotypes are
379 shared among individuals containing *R. integrifolia*, *R. ovata*, and localities with putatively
380 introgressed individuals. A single ITS haplotype is shared by most individuals of *R. integrifolia*,
381 with several closely related haplotypes (Fig. 3; 4). A similar pattern of sharing was observed for
382 plastid DNA (Figs. 3; 4), with greater evidence of structuring among localities than for ITS. Five
383 plastid DNA haplotypes are present among individuals sampled from *R. integrifolia* localities,
384 while ten are present among individuals from *R. ovata* from California. A single plastid
385 haplotype is shared by all AZ individuals of *R. ovata*, while six haplotypes spanning most of the
386 network are shared among individuals from localities containing *R. integrifolia* × *ovata*.

387 Overall, ITS and plastid haplotype richness is highest for *R. integrifolia* × *ovata* localities (Table
388 4), followed by *R. ovata* (CA), *R. integrifolia*, and *R. ovata* (AZ), respectively. Nucleotide
389 diversity is generally the highest in Californian *R. ovata* (π_{plastid} range = 0.000-0.700; π_{ITS} range =
390 0.234-0.780) and *R. ovata* × *integrifolia* localities (π_{plastid} range = 0.385-0.660; π_{ITS} range =
391 0.576-0.771), and lowest in AZ localities of *R. ovata* (π_{plastid} = 0.000; π_{ITS} range = 0.000-0.439).

392 AMOVA revealed significant structure among the four groupings for ITS (Table 5; Φ_{CT} = 0.369,
393 % variation = 55.837, p < 0.001) and plastid DNA (Φ_{CT} = 0.364, % variation = 31.644, p <
394 0.001). Both ITS and plastid DNA showed significant structure among localities within
395 groupings, with plastid DNA having higher levels of structuring among localities than nuclear
396 ITS (Table 4; for plastid DNA Φ_{SC} = 0.557, % variation = 57.023, p < 0.001; for ITS Φ_{SC} =
397 0.123, % variation = 7.251, p < 0.001). This pattern is further illustrated by pairwise Φ_{ST}
398 comparisons among localities (Fig. 5). Pairwise Φ_{ST} values are generally significant and
399 relatively high when comparing *R. integrifolia* with *R. ovata* from CA and AZ localities, but
400 lower compared to *R. integrifolia* × *ovata* localities. A similar overall pattern is observed for
401 ITS, but in general pairwise Φ_{ST} values are lower, reflecting the results from AMOVA of weaker

402 overall structure among localities relative to plastid DNA. N_{ST} and G_{ST} values were 0.786 and
403 0.696 for plastid DNA, and 0.431 and 0.377 for ITS, respectively. For both plastid DNA and ITS
404 the differences between N_{ST} and G_{ST} were significant (0.090, $p < 0.001$; 0.054, $p < 0.001$,
405 respectively).

406
407 P_{ST} - Φ_{ST} comparisons reveal differentiation in leaf morphology among localities, using the first
408 two Principal Components as composite proxies (Fig. 6). P_{ST} was estimated for a range of values
409 of c/h^2 , which corresponds to the ratio of additive genetic variation in morphology among
410 localities (c) to that among individuals (h^2 , i.e. narrow-sense heritability). Using the estimated
411 global Φ_{ST} values of 0.441 for ITS and 0.684 for plastid DNA, the thresholds for c/h^2 that
412 correspond to $P_{ST} > \Phi_{ST}$ are approximately 0.1/0.4 for PC1, and 0.2/0.5 for PC2 (for plastid DNA
413 and ITS, respectively).

414 415 **3.4 | Species distribution modeling**

416 Filtering of occurrence data with CoordinateCleaner retained 503 of 1,209 occurrence points for
417 *R. integrifolia* and 852 of 1,523 occurrence points for *R. ovata*. PCA of all 19 environmental
418 variables revealed that the localities sampled only represent a subset of the total multivariate
419 environmental niche space represented by a larger collection of herbarium records from GBIF
420 (Fig. S6). PC1 explains 46.3% of the total variation in environmental variables, and is positively
421 associated with mean diurnal range, temperature seasonality, and temperature/precipitation in the
422 driest/warmest quarters; PC1 is negatively associated with precipitation seasonality,
423 isothermality, and temperature during the coldest month/quarter (Table S7). PC2 is positively
424 associated precipitation (annual, wettest month/quarter, and coldest quarter), and negatively
425 associated with temperature during the warmest/wettest quarters. Sampling localities for *R.*
426 *integrifolia* \times *ovata* fall at intermediate positions between those for *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata*
427 from California, while Arizonan *R. ovata* occupy a more distinct portion of multivariate space
428 associated with warmer, more seasonal habitats (Fig. S6).

429
430 Pearson analysis detected autocorrelation between many bioclimatic predictor variables. The
431 following variables passed this autocorrelation filter and were used to infer SDMs: annual mean
432 temperature (1), mean diurnal range (2), isothermality (3), mean temperature of warmest quarter
433 (8), mean temperature of driest quarter (9), annual precipitation (12), precipitation of driest
434 month (14), precipitation seasonality (15), precipitation of warmest quarter (18), and
435 precipitation of coldest quarter (19). MaxEnt inference of species distribution models for both *R.*
436 *integrifolia* and *ovata* accurately recapitulated their present ranges and showed that the historical
437 range of *R. ovata* has been highly influenced by climate change over the past ~22,000 years (Fig.
438 7). The average training AUC for the ten replicate MaxEnt runs using contemporary climatic
439 variables was 0.988 and 0.977 for *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata*, respectively. Standard deviation
440 for training AUC was less than 0.001 for each replicate.

441
442 During the LGM, areas projected to be most habitable for *R. integrifolia* were nearly restricted to
443 Baja California (Fig. 7). Contrastingly, most of the habitable range of *R. ovata* during the Last
444 Glacial Maximum was inferred to exist in a relatively narrow band extending from present day
445 Arizona south to Durango, Mexico. However, the reconstructed SDM for *R. ovata* under a Mid-

446 Holocene climate reflects a pronounced range shift, with most of the habitable area overlapping
447 that of *R. integrifolia* in Baja California. *Rhus integrifolia* was inferred to gradually shift
448 northward over time, from Baja California to the central Californian coast. *Rhus ovata*
449 populations were inferred to have a decreasing probability of occurrence over time in Arizona,
450 with increasing probability in coastal habitats. Perhaps most interestingly, the area including
451 present day Arizonan populations of *R. ovata* was inferred to be habitable since the LGM,
452 suggesting that these populations may have become isolated from the remainder of the range
453 sometime between 22 and 8 kya. RTR-MO analyses failed to reject niche equivalency of present
454 ranges ($p = 0.49$). Our SDM projections suggest that the overlap in habitable range for these two
455 species is likely to increase through 2070, regardless of RCP scenario, as the range of *R.*
456 *integrifolia* tracks northward along the California coast, and the projected habitability of interior
457 regions declines for *R. ovata*.
458

459

460 **4 | DISCUSSION**

461

462 Here we present a broad geographic analysis of two ecologically important, hybridizing species,
463 *Rhus integrifolia* and *R. ovata*. We present morphological and molecular evidence for
464 distinctness among the two species, but with clear intermediacy in morphology and haplotype
465 sharing for several localities where they are sympatric. We found population structure in
466 morphology that outranks neutral genetic structure, which may be driven by either environmental
467 plasticity or local adaptation. There is weak evidence for a negative association between overall
468 precipitation and leaf area, but this association is amplified with increasing overall temperature,
469 and offset by increasing temperature variation. Lastly, we infer that range shifts over the last
470 ~20,000 years likely reflect periods of both sympatry and allopatry, and that future climate
471 conditions will favor increased range overlap among the two species in coastal regions and a
472 decreased probability of *R. ovata* occurrence in Arizona.
473

474

474 **4.1 | Morphology**

475 There is a clear difference among *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* based on extensive sampling of
476 leaf morphological characters, and localities containing both parental species display
477 intermediate features based on multivariate analyses of morphology (Fig. 2). This intermediacy
478 is likely to be indicative of the degree to which the genome of each individual is introgressed, i.e.
479 how much of the genome is represented by each parental species. Based on our sampling,
480 introgressant populations occur at mid-elevation localities, between approximately 300–400 m
481 above sea level (Fig. S1). The observed patterns of morphological intermediacy reflect those in
482 other systems including hybrid introgression in California (e.g. Dorado et al., 1991; Albert et al.,
483 1997; Dodd and Afzal-Rafii, 2004).
484

485

486 It is unclear what, if any, positive or negative fitness consequences there may be for introgressive
487 hybridization in this species complex. It remains to be tested whether selection against alleles
488 from the other species may limit the spread of these alleles between parental species in the
489 allopatric portion of their ranges, or if intermediate hybrid populations serve as a bridge for the
490 exchange of adaptive variation among the two species (Barton and Hewitt, 1985; Rieseberg and
491 Burke, 2001). While we found morphological differentiation (P_{ST}) to outrank neutral genetic

491 differentiation (Φ_{ST}) above a certain heritability threshold (i.e. $c^2/h = 0.2$ and 0.4 for ITS and
492 plastid DNA, respectively; Fig. 6), it remains unclear whether this is caused by extensive
493 phenotypic plasticity or adaptive genetic variation.

494

495 **4.2 | Leaf area and environmental variation**

496 Leaf area has long been recognized as an important functional trait at the inter- and intraspecific
497 levels (e.g. Osnas et al., 2013; 2018). Young (1974) noted a possible relationship between
498 latitude and leaf size in *R. ovata*, based on limited sampling of three localities. We have
499 explicitly tested this pattern in the context of abiotic environmental variation, which represents a
500 more accurate approach than using latitude, longitude, and elevation as proxies for
501 environmental variation. Our analysis of 19 sampling localities highlights differences among
502 groupings (e.g. *R. ovata*, *R. integrifolia*, and introgressant populations) as the primary
503 determinants of leaf area (as corroborated by Fig. 2), but also suggests an association between
504 overall precipitation ($PC1_{precip}$) and leaf area (Table 3). Although weak, this association is
505 negative, with smaller leaves at localities with higher overall precipitation. However, there is
506 interaction between overall temperature + overall precipitation, suggesting these two factors
507 together may at least partially influence leaf area. This association is offset by temperature
508 variation; i.e., warmer, wetter areas tend to harbor populations with smaller leaves, but local
509 climates with more drastic temperature swings show an opposite trend (Table 3).

510

511 Given that that species in xeric regions tend to have leaves that are small (e.g. Givnish et al.,
512 1979), succulent, dissected, or even absent (e.g. cacti, euphorbias), it seems counterintuitive that
513 leaf area would decrease with increasing precipitation in this species complex. In fact, we found
514 the opposite of what has been observed across many other species, as larger leaves are thought to
515 shed heat more slowly due to a larger boundary layer in hot, arid environments, thus posing a
516 risk for overheating and extensive evaporative water loss (Schuepp, 1993). *Rhus ovata* has thick,
517 waxy leaves that fold adaxially along the midrib during the hottest, driest months, which likely
518 represents an adaptation to seasonally extreme heat and aridity in chaparral habitats (e.g. Herbert
519 and Larsen, 1985). However, *R. ovata* experiences temperatures below freezing, especially at
520 high-elevation inland localities (Boorse et al., 1998; Montalvo, 2017), and thus the relationship
521 observed between leaf area, precipitation, and temperature may reflect a complex tradeoff
522 between climatic extremes. Other factors not included in our analysis, such as soil fertility,
523 grazing pressure, and density-dependence may interact with abiotic climatic factors, and provide
524 a clearer picture of the determinants of leaf area in *Rhus*. There are some localities at which *R.*
525 *integrifolia*, *R. ovata*, and their hybrids occur within close proximity, with steep elevational
526 gradients (e.g. in the Santa Monica Mountains of California). These areas provide the ideal
527 grounds for ‘natural experiments’ to study the dynamics of leaf area as it relates to putative
528 adaptations to temperature, precipitation, and hybridization.

529

530 **4.3 | Population genetics**

531 Nuclear ITS and two plastid markers display clear patterns of allele sharing at localities with
532 hypothesized introgression, reflecting a congruent pattern to that of morphological intermediacy
533 (Figs. 2-4). However, these shared haplotypes are not restricted to localities in which plants
534 display intermediate morphologies; indeed, the two most common ITS and plastid haplotypes are
535 widespread, being shared at localities corresponding to either morphologically distinct *R.*
536 *integrifolia* or Californian *R. ovata*. Within *R. ovata*, which is disjunct from California to

537 Arizona, four of six Californian localities contain multiple plastid haplotypes, whereas all
538 Arizonan populations contain a single, identical haplotype. Three of five Arizonan localities
539 contain a single, common ITS haplotype. This finding suggests a potential bottleneck, or that
540 smaller effective population sizes in Arizona may be prone to the effects of genetic drift,
541 resulting in overall lower genetic diversity there. Even so, ITS reveals that some haplotypes are
542 shared widely across the network, differing somewhat from the pattern based on plastid DNA.
543 For example, the most common ITS haplotype among *R. integrifolia* localities is also found in
544 CA and AZ localities of *R. ovata*. Likewise, the most common ITS haplotype in AZ localities is
545 also found in Californian *R. ovata* localities, and even in *R. integrifolia*.

546
547 Overall, weaker population structure for ITS than for plastid DNA could be driven by two
548 factors: larger effective population sizes and unsorted ancestral polymorphism for nuclear DNA
549 than for organellar DNA (Palumbi and Baker, 1994; McCauley, 1995; Avise, 2000; Hare, 2001;
550 Palumbi et al., 2001), or greater interpopulation dispersal range for pollen vs. seeds (e.g. Ennos,
551 1994; Hamilton, 1999; Kartzinel et al., 2013). Both *Rhus* species are predominantly pollinated by
552 bees (Young, 1972; Moldenke and Neff, 1974), while seeds are dispersed by mammals and birds
553 (Lloret and Zedler, 1991; Rowe and Blazich, 2008). Our findings are congruent with a
554 hypothesis in which barriers to pollen dispersal are low among populations of both species and
555 between them, albeit with decreased fecundity for ‘hybrid’ individuals, as observed in previous
556 experimental crosses (Young, 1972). Negative fecundity barriers may be overcome if pollen flow
557 occurs frequently enough over long enough distances. Seed dispersal, on the other hand, may be
558 limited by successful recruitment (e.g. Dunne and Parker, 1999; Arrieta and Suarez, 2006),
559 which may be amplified if avian or mammalian vectors travel long distances dispersing seeds at
560 unfavorable localities with different local environmental conditions. This is especially pertinent
561 if local conditions (soil, temperature, moisture, fire regime, frost formation) vary enough across
562 sites such that environmental differences between source and sink sites suppress successful
563 colonization by immigrant propagules, which may not be able to compete in new localities.
564 Boorse et al. (1998) conducted the only study documenting putative evidence for local adaptation
565 in *R. ovata*: plants from a site with lower minimum winter temperatures were significantly less
566 susceptible to freezing damage than plants from a warmer site in the same region of coastal
567 California. Furthermore, leaves of seedlings were much more susceptible to freezing than those
568 from adult plants, possibly representing a barrier to successful establishment by propagules from
569 nearby warmer habitats. Reciprocal transplants using seeds of *R. integrifolia*, *R. ovata*, and their
570 hybrids could yield useful data on whether recruitment is limited by local adaptation, and
571 whether this has implications for population structure as it relates to seed dispersal and
572 successful establishment.

573
574 Unsorted ancestral polymorphism would seem unlikely in this case to be the sole explanation for
575 widely shared ITS haplotypes, given the previously estimated divergence time of ~3.1 mya
576 between *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* (Yi et al., 2004). Widespread pollen flow (both historical
577 and contemporary), potential environmental barriers to external propagule recruitment in
578 established populations, and differences in plastid vs. nuclear DNA effective population sizes
579 may all contribute to the discrepancy in population structure among localities. Genome-scale
580 data would allow several hypotheses to be tested regarding demographic history, patterns of gene
581 flow between the two species and their introgressants, and the adaptive value (if any) of
582 introgression. For example, a comparison of which regions of the genome have experienced

583 higher or lower rates of introgression would be particularly insightful, especially in the context
584 of putatively adaptive or maladaptive introgression (e.g. Grant and Grant, 1998; Rieseberg and
585 Burke, 2001). Furthermore, these data would provide the level of resolution needed for the
586 construction of historical demographic models under ancestral and contemporary gene flow vs.
587 retained ancestral polymorphism.

588

589 **4.4. | Species distribution modeling**

590 Our species distribution models accurately capture the ranges of both species despite the lack of
591 significant niche differentiation between them. The lack of niche differences between our
592 MAXENT distribution models based on the RTR-MO test likely reflects the existence of
593 hybrid/introgressed populations of *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* and their high degree of niche
594 similarity in coastal regions (Fig. 7). Hybrid populations present a problem for species
595 distribution models; specimens from GBIF are identified either as *R. integrifolia* or *R. ovata* but
596 do not include information on hybrid status. A meticulous analysis of morphology, and perhaps
597 even genetic variation from herbarium specimens might improve resolution of future species
598 distribution models in the *R. integrifolia-ovata* complex, by allowing populations with evidence
599 of hybrid introgressants to be treated as a separate category. However, even this approach may
600 be an oversimplification, because the degree to which each population is introgressed is likely to
601 vary across regions of overlap among the parental species (Arnold, 1997), and thus the
602 application of a hybrid index on a continuous scale may be more appropriate (e.g. Cullingham et
603 al., 2012).

604

605 Based on our models, we infer a northward shift in the distribution of *R. integrifolia*, as well as a
606 higher concentration of occurrence immediately along Californian coast forecasted for 2070, for
607 both the best- and worst-case projections of future atmospheric CO₂ levels (Fig. 7). Thus, the
608 distribution of *R. integrifolia* is likely to be forced by climate change to shift into one of the most
609 densely populated regions in North America, where human development continues to
610 compromise coastal habitats. For *R. ovata* we infer a similar northward shift for interior
611 populations in Arizona, and a gradually decreasing occurrence probability in that region. Our
612 models also infer an increased occurrence probability along the Californian coast and in northern
613 Baja California for *R. ovata*. Riordan et al. (2018) used species distribution modeling in several
614 southern Californian chaparral plant species and predicted that suitable habitat would generally
615 remain stable in the future for *R. ovata*. However, they also predicted that habitat gains in low-
616 elevation areas for *R. ovata* will likely coincide with future human development, and that
617 population fragmentation is predicted to increase, with implications for gene flow and local
618 adaptation.

619

620 Taken together, our 2070 forecast indicates that both species will be forced into a higher degree
621 of sympatry, possibly increasing the occurrence of introgression. A worst-case scenario would
622 include decreasing occurrence probability in the allopatric part of the range for *R. ovata* (i.e.
623 Arizona), coupled with the prediction that *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata* will be pushed into coastal
624 regions. Though it is impossible to predict exactly what will happen in the future, global climate
625 change may contribute to the erosion of locally adapted variants and possibly species boundaries
626 by increasing the frequency of hybridization among these two species. This finding highlights
627 the need for investigation of the importance of local adaptation within each species, and the
628 adaptive consequences of potentially increased levels of hybridization among them, e.g. via

629 common garden experiments, reciprocal transplants with experimental crosses, and genomic
630 analysis.

631

632 **4.5 | Taxonomic implications**

633 Hybridization has long presented challenges for species delimitation, especially as it relates to
634 the Biological Species Concept (e.g. Mallet, 2005). While *R. ovata* and *R. integrifolia* are clearly
635 distinct in regions of allopatry, the same cannot be said within regions of sympatry. The two
636 species become nearly indistinguishable in the latter, forming a continuous gradation in
637 morphology, genetic variation, and niche overlap. The evidence presented here does not warrant
638 specific taxonomic changes, but it does suggest that hybrid status should be considered when
639 depositing new collections in herbaria or other specimen databases. Furthermore, popular
640 instruments for the ‘crowdsourcing’ of species occurrence data could be used to help distinguish
641 among more “pure” forms of each species and their hybrid introgressants, at least for
642 contemporary observation records. For example, using the application iNaturalist
643 (<https://www.inaturalist.org/>), there are 170 records of *R. integrifolia* × *ovata* (most likely an
644 underestimate of their actual abundance), 5,715 of *R. integrifolia*, and 3,591 of *R. ovata* (last
645 accessed April 14, 2020). While these types of observations have obvious biases (i.e. they tend to
646 be clustered near population centers or in public lands; e.g. Dickinson et al., 2012), if properly
647 verified either visually by an expert or via machine learning (e.g. Priya et al., 2012; Wilf et al.,
648 2016; Kaur and Kaur, 2019) they may ultimately improve distribution models for hybridizing
649 species, including *R. integrifolia* and *R. ovata*.

650

651 The acquisition of genome scale variation is now feasible for many researchers and should prove
652 to be particularly informative in determining patterns of gene flow among these two species
653 (Taylor and Larsen, 2019). Such data will allow the detection of adaptive variants, and regions of
654 the genome that experience higher or lower levels of gene flow than regions under neutral
655 expectations (Whitney et al., 2010). Ultimately this type of genomic information could be used
656 to infer the relative importance of selection in maintaining species boundaries in the face of
657 frequent gene flow (Rieseberg and Burke, 2001; Feder et al., 2012; Suarez Gonzalez et al.,
658 2018).

659

660 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

661 We investigated morphological, genetic, and environmental variation in two ecologically
662 important, hybridizing species of *Rhus* in the southwestern USA. Our findings revealed morpho-
663 genetic distinctness among parental species but intermediacy at localities where hybridization is
664 hypothesized to occur. We further found morphological differences among plants from different
665 localities that outrank genetic differentiation, suggesting local adaptation or widespread
666 phenotypic plasticity, and a weak negative relationship between leaf area and overall
667 precipitation. Species distribution models predicted range shifts northward and into coastal
668 habitats for both species, possibly with implications for increased future levels of hybridization.
669 Our study highlights the importance of sampling broadly and integrating morphological, genetic,
670 and ecological niche data, further underscoring the challenges associated with species
671 distribution modeling of hybridizing species. Additional studies using reciprocal transplants of
672 both parental species and their hybrid introgressants, along with genome-wide surveys of
673 variation will help elucidate the relative impacts of gene flow and selection on the maintenance
674 of species boundaries.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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TABLE 1. Collection locality information for *R. integrifolia*, *R. ovata*, and *R. integrifolia* × *ovata*. US state codes: CA = California, AZ = Arizona.

Species present	Locality Code	Locality	County, US state	Latitude, Longitude	Elevation (m)
<i>R. ovata</i>	GIAZ-GL	Globe, Route 77/60, Tonto National Forest	Gila, AZ	33.552416, -110.677328	1330
<i>R. ovata</i>	GIAZ-6S	Six-shooter Canyon, Tonto National Forest	Gila, AZ	33.339374, -110.784457	1218
<i>R. ovata</i>	GIAZ-KC	Kellner Canyon Road, Tonto National Forest	Gila, AZ	33.334900, -110.830900	1343
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	LACA-PV	Palos Verdes Peninsula	Los Angeles, CA	33.743931, -118.411408	47
<i>R. ovata</i>	LACA-CF	Chantry Flat, Angeles National Forest	Los Angeles, CA	34.190420, -118.022213	605
<i>R. ovata</i>	LACA-LH	Lake Hughes, Angeles National Forest	Los Angeles, CA	34.560400, -118.491109	551
<i>R. ovata</i>	SDCA-BG	Banner Grade, Route 78	San Diego, CA	33.084277, -116.563568	307
<i>R. integrifolia</i> × <i>ovata</i>	SDCA-SC	Sycamore Canyon Road	San Diego, CA	32.942893, -116.985358	289
<i>R. ovata</i>	SDCA-PM	Palomar Mountain, South Grade, Cleveland National Forest	San Diego, CA	33.305918, -116.871002	1401
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	SDCA-EF	Elfin Forest Road	San Diego, CA	33.086753, -117.147970	150
<i>R. ovata</i>	SDCA-RG	Rainbow Glen Road	San Diego, CA	33.415497, -117.174885	402
<i>R. ovata</i>	SBCA-CS	Cold Spring Trail, Los Padres National Forest	Santa Barbara, CA	34.458688, -119.648858	394
<i>R. ovata</i>	SBCA-ST	Snyder Trail, Los Padres National Forest	Santa Barbara, CA	34.536375, -119.789871	520
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	SBCA-EC	El Capitan State Beach	Santa Barbara, CA	34.461526, -120.012142	12
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	VECA-BB	Beach to Backcountry Trail, Gaviota State Park	Santa Barbara, CA	34.482077, -120.236825	133
<i>R. integrifolia</i> × <i>ovata</i>	SBCA-BG	Los Padres National Forest, near Santa Barbara Botanical Garden	Santa Barbara, CA	34.467932, -119.708093	227
<i>R. integrifolia</i> × <i>ovata</i>	VECA-LJ	La Jolla Canyon, Los Padres National Forest	Ventura, CA	34.092930, -119.039087	206
<i>R. ovata</i>	YAAZ-PR	Route 89, Prescott National Forest, near Prescott	Yavapai, AZ	34.423816, -112.553975	1680
<i>R. ovata</i>	YAAZ-BA	Route 96, Baghdad, AZ	Yavapai, AZ	34.557514, -113.160571	1064

TABLE 2. Morphological character definitions and PCA loadings (PCs 1-2) based on a correlation matrix in PASTv.3.

	Character type	PC 1 (48.99%)	PC 2 (10.63%)
Lamina length	Continuous	0.315	0.316
Lamina width - widest point	Continuous	0.354	0.172
Lamina width - apical half-way point	Continuous	0.325	0.243
Lamina width - basal half-way point	Continuous	0.354	0.157
Petiole length	Continuous	0.302	-0.174
Number of secondary veins (left side, adaxial surface)	Meristic	0.266	0.229
Number of teeth	Meristic	0.064	0.291
Teeth – present/absent	Binary	-0.107	0.613
Leaf apex (acute/round)	Binary	0.247	-0.161
Base of lamina (acute, truncate, cordate)	Nominal	0.223	-0.298
Folding (folded, flat, wavy)	Nominal	0.312	-0.271
Red margin (present/absent)	Binary	-0.257	-0.022
Basal lobing (present/absent)	Binary	0.054	-0.036
Lamina shape (ovate-deltoid/oval-elliptic/obovate-obelliptic)	Nominal	0.299	-0.232

TABLE 3. Multiple regression model summary for leaf area vs. PCs 1 and 2 (temperature) and PCs 1 and 2 (precipitation). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. See text for further explanation of the models. Model 8 is not shown, as none of the terms were significant (including all terms and their interactions).

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE
(Intercept)	5.91 ***	0.01	5.74 ***	0.02	5.75 ***	0.04	6.00 ***	0.04	5.84 ***	0.06	5.47 ***	0.56	5.14 ***	0.44
PC1.temp	0.00	0.01			-0.01	0.01	-0.10 ***	0.02	-0.06	0.03	0.18	0.32	-0.01	0.02
PC2.temp	-0.02	0.01			-0.00	0.02	0.18 ***	0.04	0.09	0.05	-0.39	0.58	-0.03	0.03
PC1.precip	-0.04 **	0.01			-0.00	0.02	-0.06 **	0.02	-0.02	0.03	-0.08 *	0.03	0.42	0.32
PC2.precip	0.01	0.01			-0.02	0.01	-0.05	0.03	-0.04	0.04	-0.04	0.02	-0.36	0.21
group [2] <i>R. integ.</i> × <i>ovata</i>			0.20 ***	0.03	0.20 ***	0.03			0.13 **	0.04	0.65	0.58	0.78	0.43
group [3] <i>R. ovata</i> (CA)			0.30 ***	0.04	0.32 ***	0.06			0.22 **	0.07	0.50	0.56	0.84	0.44
group [4] <i>R. ovata</i> (AZ)			0.33 ***	0.05	0.25	0.25			0.50	0.28	-0.13	0.60	1.43 *	0.65
PC1.temp * PC1.precip							-0.03 ***	0.01	-0.02 *	0.01				
PC1.temp * PC2.precip							-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01				
PC2.temp * PC1.precip							0.02 ***	0.00	0.01 **	0.01				
PC2.temp * PC2.precip							-0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.01				
PC1.temp * group [2]											-0.31	0.34		
PC1.temp * group [3]											-0.17	0.32		
PC1.temp * group [4]											-0.23	0.32		
PC2.temp * group [2]											0.70	0.64		
PC2.temp * group [3]											0.36	0.59		
PC2.temp * group [4]											0.38	0.59		
PC1.precip * group [2]													-0.39	0.32
PC1.precip * group [3]													-0.52	0.32
PC1.precip * group [4]													-0.36	0.33
PC2.precip * group [2]													0.33	0.21
PC2.precip * group [3]													0.30	0.21
PC2.precip * group [4]													0.42	0.22
Model R ² / R ² adjusted	0.113 / 0.095		0.292 / 0.281		0.305 / 0.280		0.290 / 0.261		0.335 / 0.296		0.332 / 0.285		0.358 / 0.314	

TABLE 4. Nucleotide and haplotype diversity among sampling localities. π -pt = pairwise nucleotide diversity for plastid DNA; A-pt = the number of plastid haplotypes; n-pt = sample size for plastid DNA; π -ITS = pairwise nucleotide diversity for ITS; A-ITS = the number of ITS haplotypes; n-ITS = sample size for ITS.

Species present	Locality code	π -pt	A-pt	n-pt	π -ITS	A-ITS	n-ITS
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	LACA-PV	0.000	1	7	0.593	5	14
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	SBCA-EC	0.467	2	10	0.233	2	16
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	SDCA-EF	0.286	2	7	0.700	5	16
<i>R. integrifolia</i>	VECA-BB	0.000	1	19	0.225	4	34
<i>R. integrifolia</i> × <i>ovata</i>	SBCA-BG	0.660	4	18	0.771	10	48
<i>R. integrifolia</i> × <i>ovata</i>	VECA-LJ	0.385	2	13	0.576	6	40
<i>R. integrifolia</i> × <i>ovata</i>	SDCA-SC	0.561	3	23	0.691	12	58
<i>R. ovata</i>	SBCA-CS	0.700	3	5	0.234	2	14
<i>R. ovata</i>	SBCA-ST	0.650	1	5	0.511	3	10
<i>R. ovata</i>	SDCA-BG	0.800	2	5	0.533	4	10
<i>R. ovata</i>	LACA-CF	0.500	2	5	0.846	7	10
<i>R. ovata</i>	LACA-LH	1.000	3	3	0.857	5	8
<i>R. ovata</i>	YAAZ-PR	0.000	1	5	0.000	1	10
<i>R. ovata</i>	YAAZ-BA	0.000	1	5	0.000	1	10
<i>R. ovata</i>	GIAZ-GL	0.000	1	7	0.384	3	14
<i>R. ovata</i>	GIAZ-6S	0.000	1	6	0.439	3	12
<i>R. ovata</i>	GIAZ-KC	0.000	1	5	0.000	1	10
<i>R. ovata</i>	SDCA-PM	0.000	1	5	0.545	2	12
<i>R. ovata</i>	SDCA-RG	0.000	1	7	0.78	4	14

TABLE 5. Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA, in Arlequin). ‘df’ = degrees of freedom, ‘SS’ = sum of squares, ‘SD’ = standard deviation, ‘% variation’ = percent of total variation explained, ‘ Φ ’ refers to the analog of inbreeding coefficients (F-statistics) for haploid data, and ‘p’ = significance of differentiation at each hierarchical level.

Plastid	df	SS	SD	% variation	Φ	p
Within localities (Φ_{ST})	2	120.701	0.473	11.332	0.719	< 0.001
Among localities within groupings (Φ_{SC})	16	331.470	2.382	57.023	0.557	< 0.001
Among groupings (Φ_{CT})	152	200.881	1.322	31.644	0.364	< 0.001
Total	170	653.053	4.176	n/a		n/a
ITS						
Within localities (Φ_{ST})	2	284.812	1.142	36.875	0.391	< 0.001
Among localities within groupings (Φ_{SC})	16	90.333	0.225	7.251	0.123	< 0.001
Among groupings (Φ_{CT})	345	596.835	1.730	55.873	0.305	< 0.001
Total	363	972.000	3.0	n/a		n/a











