

# **Phylogenomic Systematics of Lichenized Fungi at Multiple Taxonomic Levels**

BY

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## CONTRIBUTION OF AUTHORS

### **Chapter 2. Multiple historical processes obscure phylogenetic relationships in a taxonomically difficult group (Lobariaceae, Ascomycota)**

T.W. wrote the manuscript, prepared and sequenced the target capture samples, conducted phylogenetic analyses, and generated the figures and tables. T.W. collected some of the specimens in Australia, New Zealand, Chile, and the United States. F.G., J.H., R.L., B.G., R.M., and H.T.L. aided with research design and writing the paper. F.G. provided bioinformatic guidance for bait design and dataset assembly. B.G. provided funding for baits. J.M. and B.M. provided specimens for the study. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

### **Chapter 3. Oligocene origin and drivers of diversification in the genus *Sticta* (Lobariaceae, Ascomycota)**

T.W. wrote the manuscript, performed laboratory work, conducted molecular analyses, and generated figures and tables. T.W. collected some of the specimens in Australia and the United States. J.M. provided specimens from the Caribbean. B.M. provided specimens from South America. E.S. provided specimens from Macronesia. J.H., R.L., B.G., R.M., and H.T.L. helped with research design and writing the paper. N.C. provided assistance with statistical analyses. All authors reviewed the manuscript. F.B. and M.A. assisted with molecular laboratory work. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

### **Chapter 4. Using RADseq to understand the circum-Antarctic distribution of the lichenized fungus *Pseudocyphellaria glabra* (Ascomycota, Peltigeraceae)**

T.W., F.G., J.H., and H.T.L. planned and designed the research. T.W., F.G., and H.T.L. collected the specimens in Australia, New Zealand, and Chile. T.W. performed laboratory work and molecular analyses, and generated figures and tables. T.W. wrote the manuscript with help from R.M. and H.T.L. K.R. performed RADseq data assemblies at the University of Illinois at Chicago. All authors reviewed the manuscript.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIC	Akaike information criterion
AICc	Akaike information criterion corrected for small sample sizes
ASTRAL	Accurate Species TRee ALgorithm
BAMM	Bayesian Analysis of Macroevolutionary Mixtures
BEAST	Bayesian evolutionary analysis sampling trees
BI	Bayesian inference
BIC	Bayesian information criterion
BiSSE	Binary state speciation and extinction
BLAST	Basic local alignment search tool
BP&P	Bayesian Phylogenetics and Phylogeography
BPP	Bayesian posterior probability
BS	Bootstrap support
CAM	Campbell Island, New Zealand
CHI	Chile
CTR	Cretaceous Terrestrial Revolution
DA	Discriminant analysis
DAPC	Discriminant analysis of principal components
DEC	Dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	Deoxyribose nucleoside triphosphate
ESS	Effective sampling size
F	Field Museum Herbarium
GLC	General lineage concept
<i>GPD</i>	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate-dehydrogenase
GTRGAMMA	General time reversible nucleotide substitution model with gamma distributed rate variation among sites

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (continued)

GT	Horizontal gene transfer
IGS	Intergenic spacer
ILS	Incomplete lineage sorting
ITS	Internal transcribed spacer
JGI	Joint Genome Institute
K	Number of subpopulations
K-Pg	Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary
LDD	Long-distance dispersal
MAF	Minor allele frequency
MAFFT	Multiple alignment using fast Fourier transform
<i>MCM7</i>	DNA replication licensing factor
MCMC	Markov chain Monte Carlo
MDS	Multidimensional scaling
ML	Maximum likelihood
MMCO	Mid-Miocene climatic optimum
MPL	Maximum pseudo-likelihood
MSC	Multispecies coalescent
mtSSU	Mitochondrial small subunit
MUSCLE	MUltiple Sequence Comparison by Log-Expectation
Mya	Million years ago
NGS	Next-generation sequencing
nuLSU	Nuclear large subunit
NZN	New Zealand, North Island
NZS	New Zealand, South Island

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (continued)

OMA	University of Nebraska at Omaha Herbarium
OTA	University of Otago Herbarium
PCA	Principal components analysis
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PHO	<i>Pseudocyphellaria homoeophylla</i>
PP	Posterior probability
RADseq	Restriction site-associated DNA sequencing
RAxML	Randomized Axelerated Maximum Likelihood
<i>RPB1</i>	RNA polymerase beta subunit one
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
TAS	Tasmania, Australia
TLC	Thin-layer chromatography
<i>Tsr1</i>	Ribosome biogenesis protein
VIC	Victoria, Australia
WAG	Whelan And Goldman amino acid replacement model
q	Character state transition
$\mu$	Extinction
$\lambda$	Speciation

## SUMMARY

The past few decades has seen a surge in molecular data used to understand the evolution of lichenized fungi. Studies have been conducted to understand the taxonomic placement of lichenized fungi in the fungal kingdom, the diversification of higher-level taxonomic groups, the delimitation of species, and the genetic structure of populations. As in many other groups, the taxonomic value of morphological and chemical phenotypic characters for lichenized fungi are difficult to assess without other independent sources of data. Therefore, molecular data have provided a new line of evidence to critically evaluate the usefulness of phenotypic characters. Today lichenologists are using molecular data to test traditional hypotheses of homology based on phenotypic data. Generally, the findings are that many traditional systematic concepts are incongruent with molecular concepts, but a deeper understanding of the evolutionary history is gained. The first chapter in this dissertation introduces the evolution, taxonomy, and biogeography of lichenized fungi. The remaining chapters all use molecular data to understand the evolutionary relationships of lichenized fungi at different levels of taxonomy. Two chapters focus on the diversification of taxonomic groups above the species level, the next chapter focuses on population genetics, and the final chapter focuses on the delimitation of species boundaries.

Three chapters in this dissertation focus on the lobarioid clade in the family Peltigeraceae which until the past 10 years was not well studied. The lobarioid clade was once the family Lobariaceae, but it was recently synonymized with Peltigeraceae using a temporal banding approach. Temporal-banding is becoming a trend in higher-level classification of lichenized fungi and uses time-calibrated phylogenies to identify and define temporal bands for comparable ranks above the species level and aims for a more consistent taxonomic ranking system.

## SUMMARY (continued)

Chapter two, “Multiple historical processes obscure phylogenetic relationships in a taxonomically difficult group” is the first study in lichenized fungi to use target-capturing. Nearly 400 single-copy nuclear loci were sequenced to reconstruct the first time-calibrated phylogeny of the lobarioid clade of Peltigeraceae. The first molecular phylogeny reconstructed for this clade used three genetic loci, but could not resolve the nodes along the backbone, leaving the relationships of genera unresolved. Using two orders of magnitude more loci, this study aimed to resolve these relationships. The stem age of the lobarioid clade was like other families found in previous research and the generic relationships became clearer, but the backbone was still resistant to resolution. Further investigation found evidence that this was can be explained by historic processes, including ancient hybridizations and rapid diversification that occurred near the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary. Hundreds of individual gene trees had massive gene-tree discordance and evidence for ancient reticulate evolution. Due to these evolutionary processes, even with 400 loci, the generic relationships remain somewhat unresolved, but a clearer understanding of the processes influencing the evolution of the group was gained.

Chapter three, “Oligocene origin and drivers of diversification in the genus *Sticta*” used a five-locus time-calibrated phylogeny to understand the timing of diversification of the genus. This study was the first to reconstruct a time-calibrated, multi-locus phylogeny for the genus *Sticta*. Other genus-level studies in lichenized fungi that estimated divergence times among species at worldwide to regional scales found that most lichenized genera diversified within the last 40 Mya and in *Sticta*, the timing of diversification was similar. This dissertation chapter also used ancestral state reconstructions to understand the how photobiont association and Andean uplift influenced the diversification of the genus. An ancestral range reconstruction was also conducted to estimate where *Sticta* could have originated.

## SUMMARY (continued)

Chapter four is the final chapter on lobarioid species, “Using RADseq to understand the circum-Antarctic distribution of the lichenized fungus *Pseudocyphellaria glabra*” uses restriction-site-associated DNA sequencing (RADseq) to understand the biogeography and population genetics of a single species with a disjunct range, separated by oceans and seas, occurring in Australia, Chile, and New Zealand. The use of RADseq is challenging in lichenized fungi because isolation of DNA from a lichen thallus results in a metagenome composed mostly of the mycobiont DNA, but it also contains DNA of the photobiont and the microbiome. In this chapter, a reference genome was generated so *P. glabra* mycobiont RAD loci could be used to estimate patterns of genetic differentiation among populations collected in Australia, Chile, and New Zealand and to infer how major physical barriers such as the Pacific Ocean limit genetic exchange among populations.

Chapter five, “Picking holes in traditional species delimitations: an integrative taxonomic reassessment of the *Parmotrema perforatum* group” focuses on a species complex in another family, Parmeliaceae. This species delimitation study required the collection of population samples from eastern Texas and western Louisiana, where all six species live in sympatry. The aim was to use a seven-locus dataset and the integration of a variety of analytical methods determine if the genetic lineages inferred correlated with the traditional species circumscriptions based on secondary chemistry and mode of reproduction. Integrative taxonomy is increasingly used in lichenized fungi to assess species boundaries that were established using phenotypic characters and most studies find that traditional phenotype-based species delimitation vastly underestimated the number of species observed with the “general lineage concept” (GLC) of species. The GLC encourages the use of multiple sources of data to serve as independent lines of evidence in order to generate a robust hypothesis of species boundaries. In this final dissertation

## **SUMMARY (continued)**

chapter, multiple lines of evidence were used including concatenated maximum likelihood phylogeny reconstruction, Bayesian STRUCTURE analysis, multispecies coalescent species tree estimations, and the morphology conidia to determine species boundaries. The main result was that genetic lineages did not correspond directly with the traditional six-species delimitation based solely on secondary chemistry and reproductive mode. The genetic data discovered three lineages with a more complicated evolutionary history than traditionally assumed.

This dissertation outlines the work that was a training program on the latest research techniques in the field of lichenology. The research conducted encompassed most aspects that a professional systematist will encounter in a career. This includes planning field collection trips in the USA and foreign countries, which required obtaining grants and collection permits, preparation of logistical aspects, such as rental cars and accommodations, finding appropriate habitats, collecting and identifying specimens in the field, and finally, getting the specimens back safely so the research could be conducted. Once back in Chicago, the specimens were processed for deposition in the herbarium of the Field Museum, prepared for DNA isolation and sequencing, and analyzed on high performance servers. But the most challenging aspect was interpreting the results of the analyses, finding what was learned, and then framing the ideas in the context of what is already known, not just in the field of lichenology, but in the broader disciplines of systematics and evolutionary biology. The Biological Sciences PhD program at UIC and the collections and laboratories at the Field Museum provided excellent training for me to transform myself from an amateur lichen enthusiast, to a scientist that understands lichens in a much broader perspective.



## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1 General Biology of Lichenized Fungi**

Lichens are an example of mutualistic symbiosis between fungi and photosynthetic green algae or cyanobacteria. The photosynthetic symbiont (photobiont) provides the fungal partner (mycobiont) with carbohydrates, whereas the mycobiont protects the photobiont in the thallus – the physical form of the lichen. Lichenized fungi are ubiquitous and have a stunning diversity with nearly 20,000 described species (Jaklitsch et al. 2016; Lücking, Hodkinson, and Leavitt 2016). For over 200 years, beginning with Linnaeus, lichen taxonomists have been describing and classifying new species. Species were delineated by observing unique sets of fixed characteristics. Over this time span, major breakthroughs were made that increased understanding about lichens, including their symbiotic nature that was not fully recognized in classification until the 1950s (Santesson 1953). New knowledge influenced the classification of lichens and the taxonomy has been constantly shaped by new discoveries, advances in technology, and the use of new sets of characters, such as secondary metabolites (Hawksworth 1976; Lumbsch 1998).

Despite the accumulated knowledge and evolving classification, the taxonomy of lichenized fungi remains challenging. This is mostly due to a persistence of traditional classification that does not always correspond to species inferred with molecular data. Molecular approaches have been increasingly used to understand the phylogenetic relationships of lichenized fungi over the past three decades. Many molecular studies confirmed traditionally delimited species. However, many molecular studies find that the traditional characters are not always correlated with genetic clusters. This chapter introduces (1) the nature and evolution of

the lichen symbiosis, (2) the history of lichen taxonomy, (3) the traditional characters used to delimit lichen species, and (4) the biogeography of lichens.

### **1.1.1 The nature and evolution of the lichen symbiosis**

The lichen symbiosis is one of many fungal associations with photoautotrophic organisms. Other fungal/photoautotrophic symbioses include mycorrhizal fungi that associate with plant roots and endophytic fungi that are found in the leaves of plants. Lichenization is a major lifestyle in the fungal kingdom where the fungal symbiont associates with microscopic green algae or cyanobacteria. Lichenized fungi make up nearly 20% of all described fungal species (Lumbsch and Rikkinen 2017). This nutritional strategy is not confined to a single monophyletic group. Rather, it and has evolved independently multiple times in the evolutionary history of fungi. Some lichenized groups can be closely related to non-lichenized fungi (Gargas et al. 1995; Schoch et al. 2009).

All terrestrial ecosystems have lichenized fungi. In harsh ecosystems such as alpine and arctic tundra and in the sub-Antarctic islands, lichens are dominant. Lichens are poikilohydric and this feature allows them to completely dry out and go dormant for extended periods of time (Lange and Tenhunen 1982). Upon rehydration, metabolic activity resumes. Poikilohydry is one explanation for this dominance in extreme habitats (Werth 2011). For example, there are hundreds of species of lichenized fungi in Antarctica compared to only two species of vascular plants (Øvstedal and Smith 2001). Lichens are also major components of biocrusts. These communities are also composed of cyanobacteria, bacteria, fungi, and bryophytes. All live together and form a crust that covers the soil in arid habitats (Belnap, Weber, and Büdel 2016).

Lichens form a persistent structure called a thallus that is mainly composed of mycobiont hyphae with a photobiont layer positioned below the upper cortex (Nash 2008). The photobiont

cells produce carbohydrates that the fungus consumes for metabolic processes. Mycobiont hyphae are in close contact with the photobiont and many lichens produce specific structures called haustoria that can penetrate the photobiont cell or invaginate the cell wall without penetration (the latter often referred to as appressoria) (Ahmadjian 1993; Honegger 1986). Photobionts can be a chlorophyte green alga or cyanobacterium (mostly *Nostoc* spp.) or both. When isolated and grown in pure culture, the mycobiont does not form a thallus as in the lichen symbiosis but has the appearance like a mold, while isolated photobionts are observed as green microbial colonies (Ahmadjian 1993). However, there is a growing body of evidence that lichens might not be as simple as a two or three partner symbiosis. Recent studies have found many species of bacteria and archaea present in lichen thalli (Bates, Garcia-Pichel, and Nash III 2010; Cardinale et al. 2012; Printzen et al. 2012), as well as lichenicolous fungi (Hawksworth 1994; Lawrey and Diederich 2003), and endolichenic fungi (Arnold et al. 2009; Spribille et al. 2016; U'Ren et al. 2010). Currently, it is unclear how these prokaryotic organisms and additional fungal taxa interact with the main fungal and photosynthetic partners in the lichen thallus, but it is hypothesized that they play a role in the symbiosis (Hodkinson and Lutzoni 2009).

### **1.1.2 Taxonomy of lichenized fungi**

Lichen taxonomy has been constantly modified when new discoveries were made. In the 1860s, Schwendener recognized the dual nature of the lichen symbiosis (Honegger 2009). His discovery, that lichens were composed of fungal hyphae and algae was a breakthrough that took decades to catch on and was disputed among lichenologists at the time (Mitchell 2002). Before that and sometime after, lichens were classified as a separate group within cryptogams. This artificial taxonomic grouping also included bryophytes, ferns and algae, basically all plant and fungus-like organisms that are not seed plants. Linnaeus considered all lichens congeneric and

placed them all in the genus *Lichen* (Jørgensen 1991). Today, there are over 19,400 described species of lichenized fungi. Ninety-eight percent belong to the phylum Ascomycota, whereas the remaining two percent belong to Basidiomycota (Jaklitsch et al. 2016; Lücking, Hodkinson, and Leavitt 2016). Within Ascomycota, the largest class is Lecanoromycetes which includes around 15,000 species (Jaklitsch et al. 2016; Lücking, Hodkinson, and Leavitt 2016; Wijayawardene et al. 2018). In contrast to the large diversity of mycobiont species, the number of photobiont species is estimated to only be in the hundreds, although recent studies have indicated that numerous distinct lineages remain undescribed (Leavitt et al. 2015). This implies that many species of lichenized fungi share the same photobiont species. However, the taxonomy of symbiotic algae is still poorly known.

### **1.1.3 The morphological variation in lichenized fungi**

Lichen thalli have a large diversity of forms and sizes used for classification (Nash 2008). Lichen thalli can be divided into three major growth forms. Crustose lichens are tightly appressed to their substrate. They have no lower surface and must be collected with the substrate. Foliose lichens are leaf-like and have a distinct upper and lower surface. Fruticose lichens are shrub-like and three-dimensional. All these major growth forms are found on all types of substrates, including tree bark, rocks, and soil. The photobiont influences the growth form of a lichen thallus. When both symbionts are grown in axenic cultures (pure cultures, free of other organisms), they both look nothing like they do when they are in symbiotic association. Another striking example is the photosymbiodemes in the genus *Sticta*, where a mycobiont species has two growth forms depending on the type of photobiont; the “chloromorph” as a foliose thallus and the “cyanomorph” as a fruticose thallus (James and Henssen 1976). In traditional taxonomy, these two growth forms of the same species were considered different genera but after thorough

morphological studies by James and Henssen (1976) and molecular data Armaleo and Clerc (1991) these morphotypes are regarded as one species. In addition to growth form, there are other vegetative characters of the thallus that are important for classification of lichenized fungi. Features of the upper cortex, the color of the lower surface, the presence of rhizines, root-like attachment structures, and their shape are additionally used to delimit species.

#### **1.1.4 Reproduction in lichenized fungi**

Reproductive structures have been used for classification of fungi since its beginning and lichenized fungi are no exception (Nash 2008). Lichenized fungi exhibit both sexual and asexual reproductive strategies. Most lichenized fungi are strictly sexual or mixed, while some are strictly asexual. Lichenized fungi produce either meiotic ascospores or basidiospores in ascomata or basidiomata, respectively. These meiospores usually do not carry photobiont cells when dispersed. Consequently, when a spore lands on a substrate and germinates, it must find an appropriate photosynthetic partner to associate with. The fact that asexual reproduction is common in lichens indicates that this is an issue. The most common types of asexual propagules in lichens are soredia and isidia. Soredia are algal cells wrapped in fungal hyphae and resemble a powder-like mass. Isidia are finger-like projections from the upper surface containing the photosynthetic layer. These asexual structures disperse both symbionts. In some cases, there are two morphologically identical species that differ in reproductive strategy. One is sexual and the other asexual forming a group often referred to as a “species pair” (Mattsson and Lumbsch 1989; Poelt 1972, 1970). The evolution and classification of species pairs have been studied and debated to this day. Some claim them to be separately evolving groups while others view them as conspecific (Buschbom and Mueller 2006; Robinson 1975; Tehler 1982; Mattsson and Lumbsch 1989; Poelt 1970).

The nature of sexual reproduction is poorly understood in lichenized fungi. Lichen fungi produce microscopic conidia. The morphology of conidia (= fungal mitospores) has been used for taxonomy in some groups. Conidia are the result of mitotic cell division and are hypothesized to act as spermatia or asexual spores (Vobis and Hawksworth 1981; Vobis 1980, 1977). When a conidium comes into contact with a hyphal receptory organ, the trichogyne, which is part of the female oogonium (=ascogonium), they fuse and form dikaryotic hyphae that grow in ascomata and form meiosporangia (Ahmadjian 1993; Letrouit-Galinou, Parguey-Leduc, and Janex-Favre 1994). Fusion requires the appropriate mating type. Some lichens are homothallic being able to fuse with the same mating type. This is like plants that can self-fertilize. Other lichens are heterothallic requiring a different mating type to fuse with. This is like self-incompatible plants. Lichenologists are just beginning to understand the genetic loci that regulate mating systems. Both types of mating systems, homothallic and heterothallic, have been observed in lichenized fungi (Honegger and Zippler 2007; Murtagh, Dyer, and Crittenden 2000; Scherrer, Zippler, and Honegger 2005).

### **1.1.5 Secondary chemistry in lichenized fungi**

Fungi use several metabolic pathways to produce secondary metabolites. These compounds are used for classification, especially in lichenized fungi that often contain large amounts of substances, which allowed for characterization of the products even when analytical techniques were less sophisticated (Lumbsch 1998). There is a large diversity of secondary metabolites that are only found in lichen thalli and in total around 1000 substances have been isolated from lichens (Huneck and Yoshimura 1996). The importance of these products for the lichens is currently not well understood but several hypotheses have been formulated and there is evidence supporting a major role of cortical pigments in screening of UV light (McEvoy,

Solhaug, and Gauslaa 2007; McEvoy et al. 2006, 2004). These pigments include the yellow-green usnic acid or brilliant orange anthraquinones. Medullary compounds have been associated with controlling water saturation of the photobiont (Huneck 2002), or have been shown to have antimicrobial and antiherbivory properties (Nash 2008). The first use of secondary metabolites for taxonomy in lichens was by William Nylander who observed color changes when spotting calcium hypochlorite and potassium hydroxide on different parts of lichen thalli (Nylander 1866). The spot test could be used to sort lichens by the color reaction. Later, the use of chromatographic methods, including thin-layer chromatography (TLC) led to the discovery of more substances and patterns of occurrence of secondary metabolites. These observations led to a description of many new chemotypes or “chemospecies”. Currently, most lichenologists agree that a fixed chemical difference needs to be correlated with other fixed characters to warrant recognition at the species level (Egan 1986). In some studies using molecular markers, chemical differences are diagnostic, fixed characters that correspond with the genetic data, while in others chemistry is variable within a population (Leavitt, Moreau, and Lumbsch 2015; Lumbsch 2007; Printzen 2010).

### **1.1.6 Ecology and biogeography of lichenized fungi**

Lichenized fungi have a variety of distributional patterns at micro and macro levels (Galloway 2008). Most lichen thalli are sessile, being firmly attached to their substrate. They must disperse by means of their reproductive structures. Lichens are known to disperse over long distances and are among the first groups of organisms to colonize recently exposed land, such as volcanic islands (Brock 1973). Ascospores are microscopic and much smaller than asexual propagules, such as soredia and isidia. Being much smaller, they probably disperse over longer distances. Some studies suggest intercontinental dispersal facilitated by ascospores (Amo de Paz

et al. 2012; Buschbom 2007; Otálora et al. 2010; Ronnås et al. 2017). Asexual propagules have been shown to disperse at local distances. For example, in *Lobaria pulmonaria*, the mean dispersal for soredia is 200 m (Werth et al. 2006).

Lichenized fungi tend to have larger distributional ranges than seed plants (Leavitt and Lumbsch 2016; Werth 2011). Species with large distributional ranges are hypothesized to disperse over long distances and be ecological generalists. Many lichens show ecological affinities to particular macroclimates. For example, many dominant arctic lichens can be found at high elevation in alpine sites of lower latitudes (Poelt 1987). Furthermore, studies on species range distributions of different species of lichenized fungi have shown that species distributions are determined by ecological factors (Otte, Esslinger, and Litterski 2002, 2005). Widespread morphologically identical species can be composed of potentially isolated populations. The common occurrence of cryptic species is one of the major problems in lichen taxonomy (Lumbsch and Leavitt 2011; Crespo and Lumbsch 2010; Crespo and Pérez-Ortega 2009). Delimitation and classification these groups have proven challenging.

Some lichenized fungi have endemic distributions, i.e. they are only found in a restricted geographic range. These species are hypothesized to have dispersal limitations. Endemic lichen species are usually found in areas that also have endemic vascular plants, such as European (Otte, Esslinger, and Litterski 2002) and North American (Moberg and Nash 1999; Nash 2002) Mediterranean regions, Macaronesia (Simon et al. 2018; Sérusiaux et al. 2011), and the Galapagos Islands (Aptroot and Bungartz 2007). Besides restricted dispersal, there are other explanations for endemic distributions. Some mycobionts may be highly specialized to an endemic photobiont, restricting the range of the mycobiont. Also, some lichenized fungi may have strict microclimatic requirements that are only met in restricted microhabitats. In addition,



some species may have only recently come into existence – some genera of lichenized fungi have been shown to have a burst of diversification during the Pliocene and Pleistocene (Altermann et al. 2014; Lumbsch 2016). These lichens may have not had enough time to disperse and expand their range, exhibiting an endemic range.

Other lichens have disjunct ranges (Culberson 1972). Examples include bipolar species only or predominantly found at the polar regions of the planet (Du Rietz and Skottsberg 1940; Galloway and Aptroot 1995). Others are present on multiple continents and islands that surround Antarctica. Some species are disjunct throughout Fennoscandia, Newfoundland, and the Pacific Northwest. Intercontinental distributions bring up questions about the history of the species being examined. Was this species once widespread and now only fragments of the range exist today (vicariance), or is long-distance dispersal (LDD) the explanation for the disjunct distribution? Generally, vicariance is observed at higher levels of classification (Lücking 2003), such as species of the same genera or family. At the level of species, intercontinental distributions are usually interpreted as a result of LDD. Both processes play a role in the distributional patterns observed in lichenized fungi. In the southern Hemisphere, close to Antarctica, both are observed. Among major landmasses, lichen communities associated with temperate rainforests have the same genera. Typically, species are unique to each continent. However, the strong and sustained wind pattern that circles Antarctica is hypothesized to be responsible for the disjunct ranges of many lichen species that currently occur in Australia, New Zealand, and southern South America (Galloway 1988; Galloway 1979).

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## **2. Multiple historical processes obscure phylogenetic relationships in a taxonomically difficult group (Lobariaceae, Ascomycota)**

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### **2.1 Introduction**

With the advent of next-generation sequencing (NGS) technology, the evolutionary relationships of many groups on the tree of life are increasingly resolved and our understanding of the diversification of these groups has been significantly improved (Rokas et al. 2003; Gee 2003; Hipp et al. 2014). However, in many groups, despite the use of NGS data, certain nodes have resisted unambiguous resolution. Conflicting topologies have been inferred from independent NGS data throughout the tree of life. For example, the placement of ctenophores and sponges has proven difficult as some studies place either sponges or ctenophores as sister to all other animals (Dunn et al. 2008; Simion et al. 2017). Phylogenomic reconstructions of birds also yielded conflicting relationships for the earliest divergence within Neoaves (Reddy et al. 2017), perhaps due to inferences from unequal data and taxon sampling: 42 Mbp from 48 bird genomes in Jarvis et al. (Jarvis et al. 2014) versus, 0.4 Mbp from 259 loci sampled from 198 species, in Prum et al. (Prum et al. 2015). In the plant kingdom, inferences from NGS datasets resolve *Amborella* either sister to all other angiosperms (Drew et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2012) or sister to water lilies (Goremykin et al. 2015; Xi et al. 2014). Similarly, the Gnetales may be sister to pines, all conifers, or all seed plants (Burleigh and Mathews 2004).

Several reasons have been invoked to explain gene-tree discordance (Som 2015). Gene

duplication can cause problems in phylogenetic reconstruction if paralogous loci with different histories are not distinguished within taxa and erroneously analyzed as homologs between taxa (Maddison 1997; Martin and Burg 2002). Rapid diversifications may lead to the fixation of fewer substitutions and hence to difficulties in resolving phylogenetic relationships. When too many speciation events occur in a relatively short period of time, gene genealogies are not expected to be fully sorted among evolutionary lineages leading to incomplete lineage sorting (ILS). Species tree methods can be used to mitigate the effects of ILS, but computational constraints prohibit fully parameterized methods such as \*BEAST (Bouckaert et al. 2014) to estimate a species tree directly from hundreds of loci. Instead, species trees for large datasets are estimated from reconstructed gene trees, which can underestimate the support of relationships since these methods use summary statistics or pseudolikelihood (Liu et al. 2015). Moreover, reticulate evolution, in the form of hybridization or horizontal gene transfer (HGT), can lead to incongruence among gene trees and obscure phylogenetic relationships (Xu 2000). Reticulations are not modeled in the commonly used species tree and concatenation approaches and hence specific, computationally intensive programs are needed to examine whether relationships of organisms are more complex than bifurcation (Nakhleh et al. 2005).

Reconstructing phylogenies can be done with either nucleotide and amino acid data and these sources of data can yield incongruent phylogenies (Liu et al. 2014). Nucleotide data can suffer from substitutional saturation at particular sites in a genome (Delsuc, Brinkmann, and Philippe 2005). Such homoplasy is difficult to model in tree reconstruction methods and hence result in phylogenetic signatures being erased (Philippe et al. 2011). In case of ancient divergences, amino acid sequences may be preferable, since they are less prone to saturation.

Fungi of Lobariaceae (recently also treated as a subfamily within Peltigeraceae (Kraichak

et al. 2018)) develop conspicuous foliose macrolichens. Nearly 400 species are currently accepted (Kirk et al. 2008), but the diversity is predicted to reach 800 species (Moncada and Lücking 2012). Inferences from variation in three loci failed to resolved either of the three traditional genera (i.e., *Lobaria*, *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta*) as monophyletic, and were consequently broken up into several genera (e.g. *Crocodia*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina* and *Yarrumia* ) (Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013). Despite the discovery of highly-supported, genus-level clades, the relationships among these new genera remain partially unresolved. None of the phenotypic traits, essential to traditional generic concepts in Lobariaceae, i.e., the presence and type of pores in the lower cortex, defined a clade wherein all descendants exhibit the particular traits: Pseudocyphellae and cyphellae no longer define a monophyletic *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta* respectively. These pores have been shown to facilitate gas diffusion into the thallus (Nash 1996; Lange, Green, and Ziegler 1988; Green and Lange 2007) and may provide an adaptive advantage in temperate environments (Hale 1981). Cyphellae likely arose independently in *Dendriscosticta*, which is consistently resolved within the *Lobaria s.lat.* clade composed of genera lacking pores (Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013). Phenotypic characters of the lichen association have been repeatedly shown to be poor phylogenetic predictors for the associated mycobiont (Lumbsch and Leavitt 2011; Printzen 2010; Jaklitsch et al. 2016), and the newly described genera, *Crocodia*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina*, and *Yarrumia*, represent morphological/ecological chimeric forms between *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta*.

No study has yet critically estimated divergence times in Lobariaceae, but one study (Gaya et al. 2015) included three specimens from *Sticta*, *Lobaria* and *Pseudocyphellaria* in a fossil calibrated tree of eukaryotes. These samples were monophyletic and split from *Peltigera*

roughly 150 million years ago (Mya) and had a stem age of around 70 Mya. However, another study reported much earlier estimates, with the split from Peltigeraceae around 90 Mya and a stem age of nearly 50 Mya (Simon et al. 2018). Furthermore, two additional studies have estimated divergence times in *Lobaria* and *Sticta*, both reporting a stem age of nearly 30 Mya for each of the genera (Cornejo and Scheidegger 2018; Widhelm et al. 2018 – Chapter 3 in this dissertation).

We have reassessed phylogenetic relationships in Lobariaceae using 400 target captured nuclear protein coding loci, and a variety tree inference method to reconstruct relationships among genera. We sought to assess how historical processes may confound phylogenetic reconstructions and obscure relationships of major lineages within the family. Specifically, we addressed the effect of (1) data type (nucleotides and amino acids), (2) phylogeny reconstruction method (concatenation and species tree approaches), and (3) missing data. Furthermore, we examined our dataset for evidence of historical processes, such as (1) rapid diversification, and (2) reticulate evolution. Finally, we produced a fossil-calibrated phylogeny to estimate the timing of historical events during the diversification of Lobariaceae.

## **2.2 Methods**

### **2.2.1 Taxon sampling**

We sampled representatives of all the current and tentative genera in Lobariaceae. Our dataset includes representatives of the three major classic genera *Lobaria*, *Pseudocyphellaria*, *Sticta*, along with representative samples of the later segregated genera (*Anomolobaria*, *Crocodia*, *Dendriscosticta*, *Lobariella*, *Lobarina*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina*, *Ricasolia*, *Yarrumia*, and *Yoshimuriella* (Table I).

TABLE I. SAMPLES SEQUENCED USING TARGET CAPTURE IN THE CURRENT STUDY WITH VOUCHER DATA AND GENBANK ACCESSION NUMBERS.

DNA #	Genus	Species	Collector	Voucher	Herbarium	Country	Genbank
4005	<i>Ricasolia</i>	<i>amplissima</i>	Tønsberg	44719	F	Norway	SAMN10602979
9930	<i>Lobaria</i>	<i>pulmonaria</i>	Widhelm	TW4	F	U.S. A	SAMN10602980
10048	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>aff. fuliginosa</i>	McCune	35727	F	U.S. A	SAMN10602981
10049	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>aff. limbata</i>	McCune	35726	F	U.S. A	SAMN10602982
14492	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>beauvoisii</i>	Taylor Quedensely	<i>TQ16699</i>	F	U.S. A	SAMN10602983
14493	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>carolinensis</i>	Taylor Quedensely	<i>TQ16700</i>	F	U.S. A	SAMN10602984
14532	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>weigeli</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2284	F	Puerto Rico	SAMN10602985
14538	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>scabrosa</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2287	F	Puerto Rico	SAMN10602986
14657	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>aff.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2378	F	Puerto Rico	SAMN10602987
14665	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>densiphyllidata</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2389	F	Puerto Rico	SAMN10602988
14681	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>glabra</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2046 A	F	Australia	SAMN10602989
14829	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>dissimilis</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2173	F	Australia	SAMN10602990
14830	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>carpoloma</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2074 D	F	Australia	SAMN10602991
14835	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>crocata</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2145	F	Australia	SAMN10602992
14840	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>neglecta</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2031	F	Australia	SAMN10602993
14845	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>granulata</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2469	F	Australia	SAMN10602994
14850	<i>Yarrumia</i>	<i>coronata</i>	Lumbsch, Widhelm & Grewe	2042	F	Australia	SAMN10602995
15144	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>homoeophylla</i>	de Lange, Lucking & Moncada	???	F	New Zealand	SAMN10602996
15155	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Coca	43	F	Colombia	SAMN10602997
15156	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Coca	47	F	Colombia	SAMN10602998
15253	<i>Dendrocosticta</i>	<i>platyphylla</i>	Goffinet	13475	CONN	Taiwan	SAMN10602999
15254	<i>Lobaria</i>	<i>linita</i>	Simon	147	CONN	Canada	SAMN10603000
15256	<i>Lobaria</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Goffinet	13511	CONN	Taiwan	SAMN10603001
15257	<i>Lobaria</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Goffinet	13563	CONN	Taiwan	SAMN10603002
15258	<i>Nephroma</i>	<i>antarcticum</i>	Goffinet	13963	CONN	Chile	SAMN10603003
15261	<i>Ricasolia</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Goffinet	13062	CONN	Taiwan	SAMN10603004
15271	<i>Anomalobaria</i>	<i>anomala</i>	Simon	150	CONN	Canada	SAMN10603005
15272	<i>Dendrocosticta</i>	<i>aff. wrightii</i>	Goffinet	13227	CONN	Taiwan	SAMN10603006
15273	<i>Nephroma</i>	<i>plumbeum</i>	Goffinet	12673	CONN	Chile	SAMN10603007
15274	<i>Lobaria</i>	<i>oregana</i>	Simon	143	CONN	Canada	SAMN10603008
15275	<i>Lobariella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Lucking	41013a	BGBM	Colombia	SAMN10603009
15276	<i>Lobariella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Lucking	41042	BGBM	Colombia	SAMN10603010



TABLE I, CONTINUED

DNA #	Genus	Species	Collector	Voucher	Herbarium	Country	Genbank
15277	<i>Lobariella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Lucking	41025	BGBM	Colombia	SAMN10603011
15278	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>subdissecta</i>	Moncada	5369	BGBM	Colombia	SAMN10603012
15279	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>peltigera</i>	Moncada	5389	BGBM	Colombia	SAMN10603013
15280	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>peltigera</i>	Moncada	5322	BGBM	Colombia	SAMN10603014
15313	<i>Crocodia</i>	<i>poculifera</i>	de Lange, Lucking & Moncada	39102	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603015
15316	<i>Yarrumia</i>	<i>colensoi</i>	de Lange, Lucking & Moncada	38741	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603016
15317	<i>Yarrumia</i>	<i>coronata</i>	de Lange, Lucking & Moncada	38974	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603017
15678	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2955	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603018
15679	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3072i	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603019
15680	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3067b	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603020
15681	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3133b	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603021
15682	<i>Ricasolia</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2939	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603022
15683	<i>Ricasolia</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3031	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603023
15684	<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	2991a	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603024
15685	<i>Ricasolia</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3038c	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603025
15686	<i>Lobariella</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3063a	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603026
15687	<i>Nephroma</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3122f	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603027
15688	<i>Nephroma</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Joel Mercado-Diaz	3104	F	Dominican Republic	SAMN10603028
15841	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>granulata</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4117	F	Chile	SAMN10603029
15842	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>lecheri</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4118	F	Chile	SAMN10603030
15843	<i>Parmostictina</i>	<i>obvoluta</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4119	F	Chile	SAMN10603031
15844	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>crocata</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4121	F	Chile	SAMN10603032
15845	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>crocata</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4122	F	Chile	SAMN10603033
15847	<i>Podostictina</i>	<i>berberina</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4124	F	Chile	SAMN10603034
15848	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>freycinetii</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4125	F	Chile	SAMN10603035
15849	<i>Podostictina</i>	<i>flavicans</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4389	F	Chile	SAMN10603036
15850	<i>Yarrumia</i>	<i>coronata</i>	de Lange, Lucking & Moncada	38675	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603037
15851	<i>Yarrumia</i>	<i>colensoi</i>	de Lange, Lucking & Moncada	38836	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603038
15868	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>coriifolia</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4319	F	Chile	SAMN10603039
15869	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>intricata</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4353	F	Chile	SAMN10603040
15870	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>hypochroa</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4354	F	Chile	SAMN10603041
15871	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>caulescens</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4357	F	Chile	SAMN10603042
15872	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4358	F	Chile	SAMN10603043

TABLE I, CONTINUED

DNA #	Genus	Species	Collector	Voucher	Herbarium	Country	Genbank
15873	<i>Podostictina</i>	<i>encoensis</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4401	F	Chile	SAMN10603044
15874	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>haywardiosum</i>	Peter de Lange	12586	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603045
15875	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>haywardiosum</i>	Peter de Lange	12587	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603046
15876	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>cinnamomea</i>	Mark Moorhouse		F	New Zealand	SAMN10603047
15877	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>lividofusa</i>	Peter de Lange	13259	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603048
15878	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>pubescens</i>	Mark Moorhouse		F	New Zealand	SAMN10603049
15879	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>latifrons</i>		CH2534	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603050
15880	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>		CH2547	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603051
15881	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	Peter de Lange	13163	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603052
15882	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>cinereoglauca</i>		CH2547	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603053
15884	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4405	F	Chile	SAMN10603054
15885	<i>Parmostictina</i>	<i>hirsuta</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4417	F	Chile	SAMN10603055
15886	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>sp.</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4440	F	Chile	SAMN10603056
15887	<i>Podostictina</i>	<i>vaccina</i>	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4443	F	Chile	SAMN10603057
15888	<i>Crocodia</i>	<i>aurata</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3496	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603058
15889	<i>Nephroma</i>	<i>australe</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3516	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603059
15890	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>carpoloma</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3192	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603060
15891	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>carpoloma</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3617	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603061
15892	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>chloroluca</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3044	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603062
15893	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>corbettii</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3190	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603063
15894	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>crocata</i>	Allison Knight	69193a	OTA	New Zealand	SAMN10603064
15895	<i>Podostictina</i>	<i>degelii</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3594	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603065
15896	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>disimilis</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3019	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603066
15897	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>episticta</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3498	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603067
15898	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>montagnei</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3507	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603068
15899	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>rufovirescens</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3219	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603069
15900	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>filix</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3074	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603070
15901	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>latifrons</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3274	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603071
15902	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>lacera</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3255	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603072
15903	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<i>corbettii</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3105	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603073
15904	<i>Sticta</i>	<i>subcaperata</i>	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3310	F	New Zealand	SAMN10603074

### **2.2.2 Bait design**

We designed baits for target capture using Markerminer (Chamala et al. 2015), a bioinformatics pipeline that finds single copy loci in the genome using genome and transcriptome data as inputs. Markerminer is designed for use with angiosperms, and has databases for 15 angiosperm genomes, but other genome databases can be added for customized use of the program. We used the *Lobaria pulmonaria* genome and the gene annotation file (Lobpull1\_AssemblyScaffolds\_Repeatmasked.fasta and Lobpull1\_GeneCatalog\_20170213.gff3) from JGI (<https://jgi.doe.gov/>) to develop a custom database. The result is a simplified reference genome that only contains gene regions and the introns are hard-masked as “N”s in the sequence. We assembled transcriptome data (published in Meiser et al. 2017) from *Evernia prunastri*, *Pseudevernia furfuracea* and *Lasallia pustulata* using Trinity (Grabherr et al. 2011). The resulting transcriptomes and the custom *L. pulmonaria* database were used to identify clusters of single-copy gene transcripts present in the transcriptome assemblies. Next, these were aligned and filtered against the *L. pulmonaria* reference proteome from JGI (Lobpull1\_GeneCatalog\_proteins\_20170213.aa.fasta) using BLAST. These single-copy genes were re-aligned to the intron hard-masked genome and intron-exon boundaries were identified. Markerminer identified and aligned 1,714 single-copy genes to the hard-masked *L. pulmonaria* reference genome. We selected loci that had at least one exon of at least 500 bp and indicated clear intron-exon boundaries on the hard-masked alignment. The designed baits were collected as 800 separate fasta DNA sequence files from the *L. pulmonaria* and *E. prunastri* (400 each). These sequences were provided to Arbor Biosciences (Ann Arbor, MI, USA) for MYbaits bait design. These filtered baits covered 92% of the desired target positions with at least one bait, therefore all 800 target sequences are represented with at least one bait. One hundred nucleotide-

long baits were designed with two times tiling density resulting in 18,139 raw unfiltered baits. Following Arbor Biosciences recommended filtering process (baits passing “Moderate” BLAST filtering), 17,941 baits were retained for target-capturing.

### **2.2.3 Library preparation**

DNA was obtained using the ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA MiniPrep™ (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) or by a cetyl trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) extraction protocol. The concentration of all DNA isolates was quantified with the Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Two hundred ng of meta-genomic DNA was normalized to a final volume of 52.5 µL in resuspension buffer. Fragments of DNA around 500 bp were generated with M220 Focused-ultrasonicator™ (Woburn, MA, USA) and then 50 µL was cleaned up with 80 µL SeraPure beads which are an inexpensive alternative to commercially purchased magnetic beads (Glenn et al. 2016). The Adapterama dual-indexing system (Glenn et al. 2016) was used to uniquely barcode all samples using the KAPA Hyper Prep Kit (KAPABiosystems, Wilmington, MA, USA). Twenty-five µL of the sheared, cleaned bead elution was used in a 30 µL end-repair and A-tailing reaction followed by a 55 µL ligation to attach the Adapterama stubby y-yolk adapter. The ligation products were subjected to bead-based size selection with SeraPure bead to enrich for fragments of around 550 bp which was eluted in 22 µL of RSB. Twenty µL of the elution was used in a limited-cycle (9-11 cycles) polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to attach the barcoded iTru5 and iTru7 Adapterama primers. Subsequently, the PCR products were cleaned with 1X SeraPure beads and eluted in 43 µL of nuclease-free, PCR-grade water. DNA concentrations of all samples were quantified with a Qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and a subset were checked for proper size distribution of fragments on the Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA).

Samples were pooled by phylogenetic relatedness, corresponding to major clades of the previous Lobariaceae three-locus phylogeny (Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuae 2013), for hybridization with RNA baits. For each sample, 100-200 ng of DNA was mixed with all samples of each of the five pools and then concentrated in a heated vacuum centrifuge. Pools were hybridized with reagents provided with the baits from Arbor Biosciences for ~20 h at 65°C. After incubation, the baits were attached to streptavidin beads and then washed according to the Arbor Biosciences protocol followed by a post-wash enrichment PCR cycle with KAPA Hifi Hotstart ReadyMix. Each pool went through 11 cycles of PCR except for the outgroup (*Nephroma* samples), which was subjected to 14 cycles. These were cleaned with 1X SeraPure beads and the DNA concentration was quantified on the Qubit and size of distribution of the DNA fragments in the pools were observed on the Bioanalyzer. These pools were mixed together to have 3 ng of DNA per sample in the final 96-sample pool which was used for sequencing at the Field Museum's Pritzker Laboratory with a single 300-cycle v2 MiSeq reagent kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

#### **2.2.4 Data processing**

The MiSeq run (300 cycles using V2 chemistry) produced 15,835,491 150-bp paired-end reads, which were demultiplexed and adapter-trimmed by Illumina BaseSpace. The raw reads were downloaded to the Field Museum server and quality trimmed with Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse, and Usadel 2014) using a quality cutoff of 15 in a 4-bp sliding window, discarding any reads under 35 bp. Only paired, trimmed reads were used in downstream analyses, which is an average of 158,443 reads per sample remaining after trimming with a range from 7929 to 317,874 reads (Table XVIII, Appendix A). These sequences were used for the read files using the program HybPiper (Johnson et al. 2016) which assembles gene regions and extracts exon

sequences for each sample. We generated a target file from the *L. pulmonaria* transcriptome on JGI (Lobpul1\_GeneCatalog\_proteins\_20170213.aa.fasta) that has the complete amino acid sequences of each of the 400 target genes that were used for bait design. The sorted, trimmed reads of each sample were mapped to the targets using the default BLASTX (Camacho et al. 2009) option, which we found recovered much more data (a more complete dataset), especially for the outgroup (*Nephroma* taxa) than the BWA option that uses a nucleotide target file. Upon completion of the HybPiper assembly, the 399 gene sequences (one gene did not produce any sequences) were extracted using `retrieve_sequences.py` and then batch aligned using MAFFT (Kato and Standley 2013).

HybPiper will flag a gene if it identifies multiple sequences spanning at least 85% of the gene length (Johnson et al. 2016). When this occurs at a specific gene, HybPiper will choose only one of the sequences, first by selecting the sequence with the highest depth of sequencing and then, if all sequences are similar in coverage, it uses the closest match to the specified target sequence file. For the paralog warning genes, all the copies were extracted (`paralog_retriever.py`), aligned and phylogenetically analyzed to check the patterns of paralogy for each of these flagged genes. However, paralogous sequences could be present in some datasets that did not have a warning. For example, if one or more taxa yield only one sequence that is paralogous to the others. Furthermore, multiple copies could be alleles or a duplication that postdates a bifurcation which HybPiper would flag, but this case would not cause problems with phylogenetic inference. Future studies will need to use more thorough analyses to have a detailed understanding of how paralogs are influencing phylogenetic reconstructions.

### **2.2.5 Concatenation of datasets**

Multiple nucleotide alignments of single genes were concatenated with FASconCAT-G

(Kück and Longo 2014). One alignment contained 376 loci and 96 tips (376x96nuc) and had 438,036 nucleotide positions with 13.75% gaps and undetermined characters. Only genes that had at least 48 sequences (50% sample representation) were used. Another reduced dataset (297x17nuc) with only 17 taxa, representing all Lobariaceae genera and the well supported subclades in *Sticta* and *Pseudocyphellaria* was generated in HybPiper. With this dataset 297 of the genes had all 17 sequences and these alignments were used to generated gene trees and a concatenated alignment with 338,019 nucleotide positions and 4.04% gaps and undetermined characters. We also generated the same concatenated datasets with amino acid sequences using FASconCAT-G. The dataset with 376 loci and 96 tips (376x96aa) and had 145,467 amino acid positions with 6.34% missing data and 7.26% indels. Finally, the reduced dataset (297x17aa) of 297 loci and 17 tips had 112,265 amino acid positions with no missing data, but it did contain 3.89% indels. A summary of all datasets can be found in table II.

TABLE II. SUMMARY OF DATASETS ANALYZED IN THE CURRENT STUDY.

	Dataset	# loci	# tips	Positions	missing data
<i>nucleotide data</i>					
50% sample representation	397x96nuc	397	96	438036	13.75%
Complete, simplified	297x17nuc	297	17	338019	0.00%
<i>amino acid data</i>					
50% sample representation	397x96aa	397	96	145467	6.34%
Complete, simplified	297x17aa	297	17	112265	0.00%

### **2.2.6 Maximum likelihood and species tree analyses**

For all full and reduced datasets, concatenated phylogenies and all single gene trees were estimated using the RAxML (Stamatakis 2014) rapid hill climbing algorithm and performing 100 bootstrap replicates. All single gene alignments and all partitions of each concatenated dataset had substitution model selection using either the GTRGAMMA or PROTGAMMA -AUTO models for nucleotide and amino acid models of sequences respectively. Since concatenated datasets can be prone to false positive topologies (Heled and Drummond 2010; Kubatko and Degnan 2007), we also analyzed our datasets with the multi-species coalescent model the program Accurate Species Tree Algorithm (ASTRAL 5.6.1) (Mirarab and Warnow 2015). For the ASTRAL analyses, we inferred species trees from single, fully resolved, and unrooted gene trees mentioned above. Branch support was reported as local posterior probabilities (i.e., the support for a quadripartition).

### **2.2.7 Analysis of gene-tree discordance and tree space**

Regardless of the data type or tree building approach, all of the datasets produced backbones with short internal branches. During rapid diversification, speciation and gene flow occur simultaneously in a relatively short period of time, which can lead to high levels of gene-tree discordance. Discordance among gene-trees can be the result of incomplete lineage sorting (ILS), reticulate evolution, and homoplasy. The coalescent model implemented in ASTRAL, accounts for ILS, but this approach was still unable to completely resolve the deep divergences in the backbone of the amino acid and nucleotide datasets. Although this does not completely rule out ILS as a source of gene-tree discordance, it does suggest that other historical processes, such as homoplasy or reticulate evolution, which are not accounted for in ASTRAL, were potentially contributing to the poorly resolved backbones in our reconstructions. To conduct



analyses on and visualize the gene-tree discordance the best trees from the RAxML analyses for each gene were converted to ultrametric trees using the `chronos()` function in the R package APE (Paradis, Claude, and Strimmer 2004) with a  $\lambda = 1$ . This was done using the program SumTrees (Sukumaran and Holder 2015) implemented in DendroPy 4.0.0 (Sukumaran and Holder 2010) to find if there was a common tree topology among the reduced (297x17) amino acid and nucleotide datasets. DensiTree 2.2.5 (Bouckaert 2010) was used to visualize the discordance of gene-tree topologies.

Tree space of the reduced datasets (297x17nuc and 297x17aa) were described using multidimensional scaling (MDS) in R using the customized `topclustMDS` function described elsewhere. These datasets were used because complete trees (all having 17 tips) were required. Gene trees were loaded into R using the APE package (Paradis, Claude, and Strimmer 2004), then MDS scaling and functions in the cluster package (Maechler 2018) were used to identify the most appropriate number of clusters and the identity of loci comprising each cluster.

### **2.2.8 Tests for reticulate evolution**

Another known source of poor backbone node support in phylogenies is reticulate evolution. This process is not modeled in the most used phylogenomic inference programs such as RAxML or ASTRAL as the output can only be bifurcating. A current program, PhyloNet (Than, Ruths, and Nakhleh 2008), does model this process, and we used it to investigate whether parts of the relationships in the Lobariaceae phylogeny are better supported with a model of reticulate evolution rather than a strictly bifurcating tree. PhyloNet identifies reticulation events using a multi-species network coalescent model that accounts for ILS and reticulate evolution. We first used the maximum pseudo-likelihood approach (InferNetwork\_MPL option) on the 297x17nuc dataset, specifying the `-po` option which optimizes the branch lengths and inheritance

probabilities under full likelihood for the returned species networks. We conducted six analyses with reticulation scenarios ranging from zero to five and then ten with each analysis conducting ten runs and inferring five networks. The zero-reticulation scenario served as a null model and we then increased the reticulation events step-wise to five reticulations to see how each increase fit to the data by calculating AIC for each network. Finally, we conducted a ten-reticulation analysis to see if more than five reticulations could be recovered from our dataset.

Although the MPL approach is computationally fast, under certain conditions, the true reticulation history may not be identifiable (Yu and Nakhleh 2015). Thus, using the `drop.tip()` function in the R package APE (Paradis, Claude, and Strimmer 2004), we produce a five-tip dataset that contain only *Crocodia*, *Podostictina*, *Pseudocyphellaria*, *Sticta*, and *Yarrumia* (the genera that were usually involved in the reticulations of the MPL analyses), so that we could apply a fully parameterized ML approach (InferNetwork\_ML). Due to the taxing computational demands of the fully parameterized ML option of PhyloNet, we only tested zero to three reticulations (using the `-po` option described above), because the best fitting scenarios in the MPL analyses included three reticulations (see results). Each analysis conducted five runs and produced one network and the total log probabilities were used to calculate AIC to assess model fit.

### **2.2.9 Dated phylogeny of Lobariaceae**

The program MCMCTree 1.2 (Yang 2007; Yang and Rannala 2005) was used to infer divergence times in Lobariaceae. The ML tree (376x96aa), inferred with amino acids and congruent with the one inferred in ASTRAL was used for the dating analyses and the concatenated amino acid matrix. We used CODEML to generate the Hessian matrix using an empirical rate matrix with gamma rates among sites (WAG+Gamma). Using this matrix, we ran

MCMCTree with appropriate rates under the approximate method. Settings were set as follows: independent-rates model, time unit at 100 Ma, sampling fraction at  $\rho=0.1$ , and the birth and death rates at  $\lambda=\mu=1$ . We ran the analyses with gaps and ambiguities removed (cleandata = 0). The gamma prior for the substitution model was set at six transitions to two transversions rate ratio. The gamma shape parameter for variable rates among sites was set as  $\alpha = 1$ . The Dirichlet-gamma prior was set to  $\alpha = 2$  and  $\beta = 20$  for a diffuse prior. The MCMC was run for 40,000 iterations, with samples taken every other iteration, after a 5% burnin. Two runs were conducted to check for consistency.

We calibrated the phylogeny with the only known fossil from the family, obtained from a 12-24 Myr-old Miocene deposit from northern California. The fossil is an impression that resembles the genus *Lobaria*. A recent study by Cornejo and Scheidegger (Cornejo and Scheidegger 2018), used a molecular clock-calibrated phylogeny of *Lobaria*, to estimate the age of the fossil impression and found that it fits into the time frame of *Lobaria* diversification and placed it near the crown of the genus. Based on that, we calibrated the 376x96aa concatenated phylogeny with the impression fossil, by placing it on the branch between *L. linita* and the remaining *Lobaria* species, with a range of 12 to 24 million years.

## **2.3 Results**

### **2.3.1 Efficiency of sequencing data recovery and assembly of datasets**

Following the read assembly via HybPiper (Johnson et al. 2016) we recovered 390.65 of the 400 target genes per sample (337.67 with 75% coverage). Most coverage (all 400 genes mapped and 398 having 75% coverage) was achieved for *Lobaria pulmonaria* which was used as the reference in HybPiper and for the bait design. The lowest coverage was in *Sticta cinereoglauc* and *Pseudocyphellaria crocata* for which only 386 and 387 targets were

recovered and only with partial coverage to the extent that at 75% coverage only 32 and 0 genes were recovered (Table XVIII, Appendix A, [hybpiper blastx stats]). This is probably due to the DNA extract quality reducing the hybridization of these sample to the baits. Of the 400 loci sequenced in this study, 138 generated a paralog warning (an average of 14.125 paralogs per sample) involving between one and 95 samples (average 11 taxa with multiple sequences at a given locus). The trees produced after running the HybPiper script `paralog_retriever.py` to obtain all paralogous sequences for all flagged loci exhibited two patterns: (1) the two sequences retrieved would cluster and form a clade or (2) the two sequences would be resolved in two very different clades, separated by a long branch, which is indicative of an ancestral gene duplication event (data not shown). In all 138 cases, HybPiper selected only one sequence that was most like the target sequence.

### **2.3.2 Topological patterns among data types and phylogeny reconstruction methods**

Initially we generated a nucleotide dataset (376x96nuc; Figure 1A) where all included loci had at least 50% specimen representation (at least 48 sequences regardless of recovered length in HybPiper), which was the case for 376 of the 400 loci. All Lobariaceae formed a well-supported (100% bootstrap support) clade and the tree had a well-supported backbone with the lowest nodes having a bootstrap support value of 73% (Figure 1A). The earliest diverging clade included samples of *Podostictina* forming a sister-group relationship to the remaining Lobariaceae. The next split reflects the divergence of *Lobaria* and its closely related genera (*Anomolobaria*, *Dendriscosticta*, *Lobariella*, *Lobarina*, *Ricasolia*, and *Yoshimuriella*). The following split gives rise to the clade composed of two sister genera, *Sticta* and *Yarrumia*. The most derived split among genera yields *Crocodia* sister to *Pseudocyphellaria* (Figure 1A).

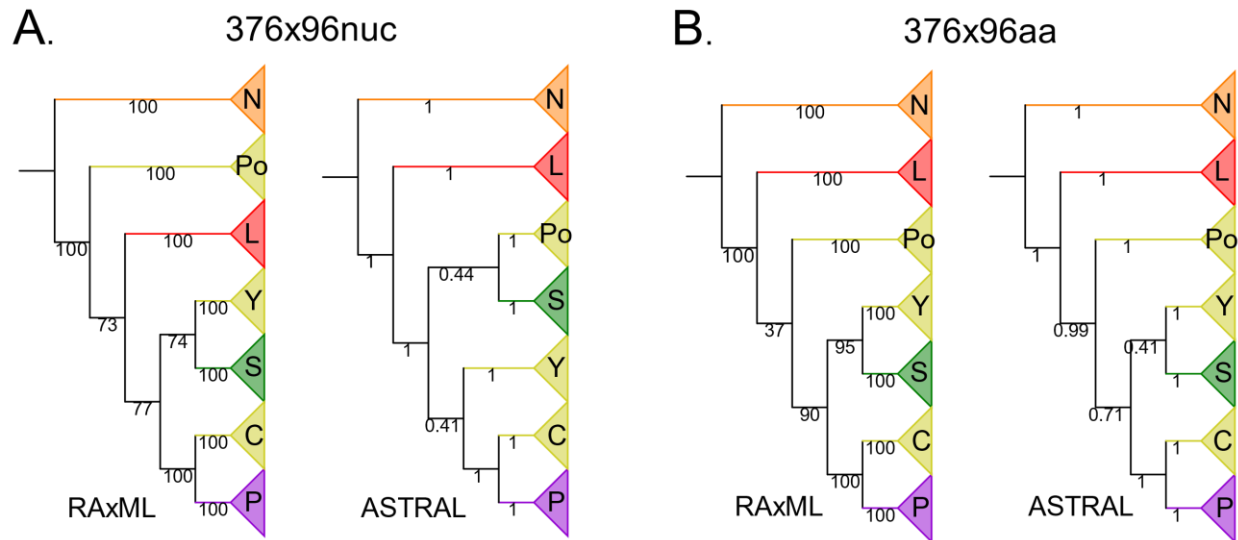


Figure 1 Tree topologies estimated with nucleotide (A) and amino acid (B) data and different tree reconstruction methods (RAxML concatenated vs. ASTRAL species tree). Nodal support, either as bootstrap (RAxML) or local posterior probability (ASTRAL) is depicted under the branches. Abbreviations are as follows: N = *Nephroma* (outgroup); L = *Lobaria s. lat.* clade (also including *Anomolobaria*, *Dendroscosticta*, *Lobariella*, *Lobarina*, *Ricasolia*, and *Yoshimuriella*); Po = Podostictina; S = *Sticta*; Y = *Yarrumia*; C = *Crocodia*; P = *Pseudocyphellaria*.

Subsequently, we analyzed amino acid sequences from the same dataset (376x96aa; Figures. 1B and 2). Again, the calculated tree supported Lobariaceae as a well-supported monophyletic clade, but the tree resulted in even lower backbone support (37%) for the unique ancestry to the *Podostictina* clade, and the clade including *Sticta*, *Yarrumia*, *Crocodia* and *Pseudocyphellaria*. (Figures. 1B and 2).

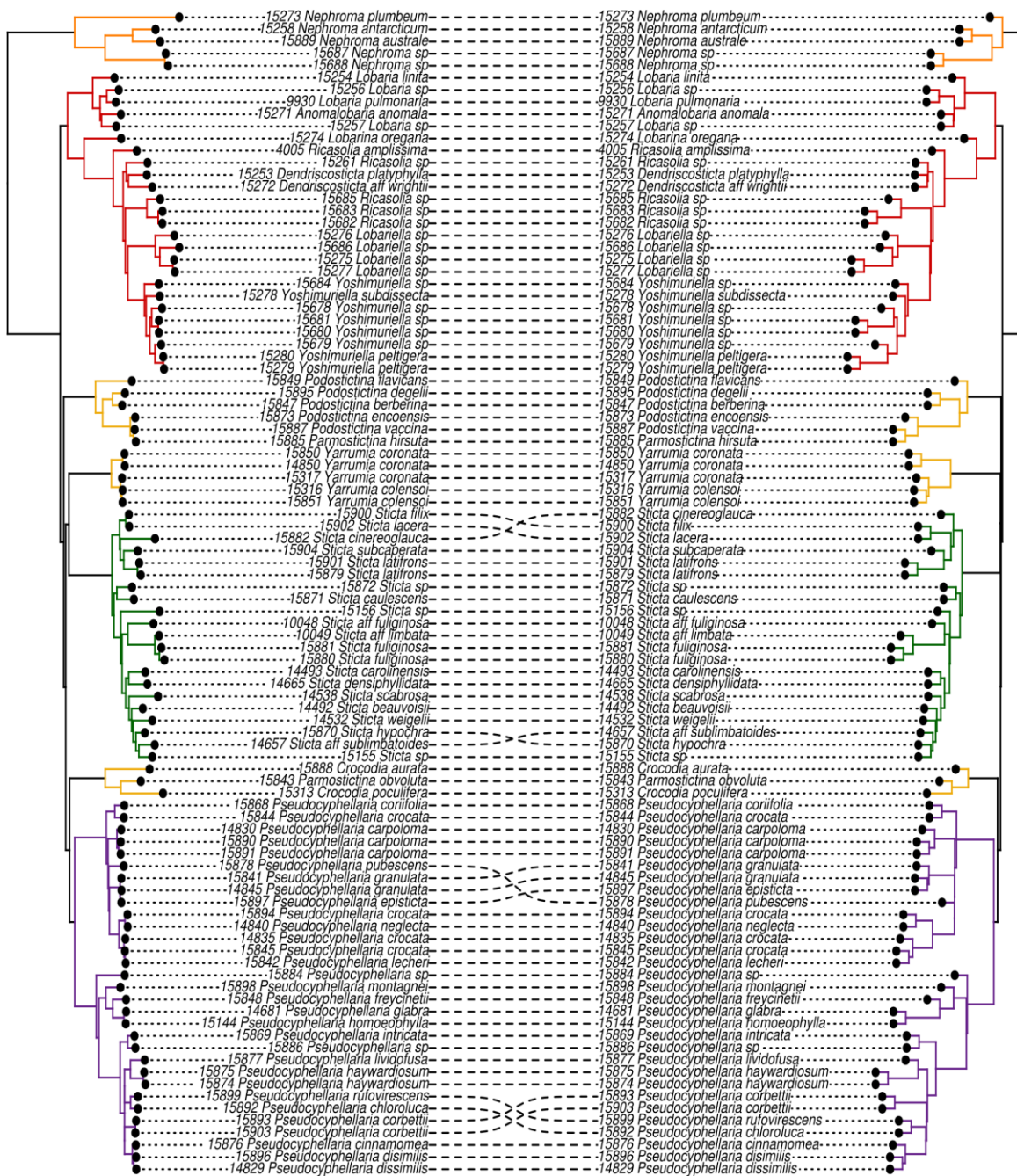


Figure 2. Congruence of topologies inferred with concatenation (A: RAxML) and species tree approaches (B: ASTRAL) from dataset composed of 376 amino acid sequences. Nodal support for the backbone is depicted in Figure 2B. The colors of branches are assigned to clades as follows: Orange: *Nephroma* (outgroup); Red: *Anomolobaria*, *Dendroscosticta*, *Lobaria*, *Lobariella*, *Lobarina*, *Ricasolia*, *Yoshimuriella*; Yellow: *Crocodia*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina*, and *Yarrumia* (not monophyletic); Green: *Sticta*; Purple: *Pseudocyphellaria*.



The species tree inferred in ASTRAL with nucleotide sequences conflicted with the same dataset reconstructed from concatenated data in RAxML (376x96nuc; Figure 1A), while the amino acid species tree produced in ASTRAL-II had the same backbone topology as the concatenated amino acid tree (376x96aa; Figures. 1B and 2B). However, in the amino acid tree reconstruction from ASTRAL, two nodes were poorly supported; one associated with the splitting of *Podostictina* (0.71 local posterior probability) and another associated with the branching of *Sticta* and *Yarrumia*, both still forming a monophyletic clade (0.41 local posterior probability). The nucleotide species tree had a similar topology as the amino acid species tree, except that *Yarrumia* was sister to *Crocodia* and *Pseudocyphellaria* with poor support (0.41 local posterior probability). *Podostictina* and *Sticta* formed a poorly supported clade (0.44 local posterior probability) (Figure 1A).

### **2.3.3 Evidence for rapid diversification and gene-tree discordance**

The short backbone branches leading to *Crocodia*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina*, *Pseudocyphellaria*, *Sticta*, and *Yarrumia* occurred within a 5-million-year period, which is suggestive of a rapid diversification. To investigate the cause for inconsistent phylogenetic tree results based on potential rapid diversification and gene-tree discordance, we created a pruned dataset (Figure 3) (297x17). This created a complete matrix without missing data which was analyzed with RAxML and ASTRAL based on nuclear and amino acid translations. All four trees differed in their backbone branching patterns (Figure 3A), with incongruent clades receiving strong support. *Podostictina* and *Yarrumia* were the major sources of incongruence, as they were recovered in different relationships depending on the data type and analysis.

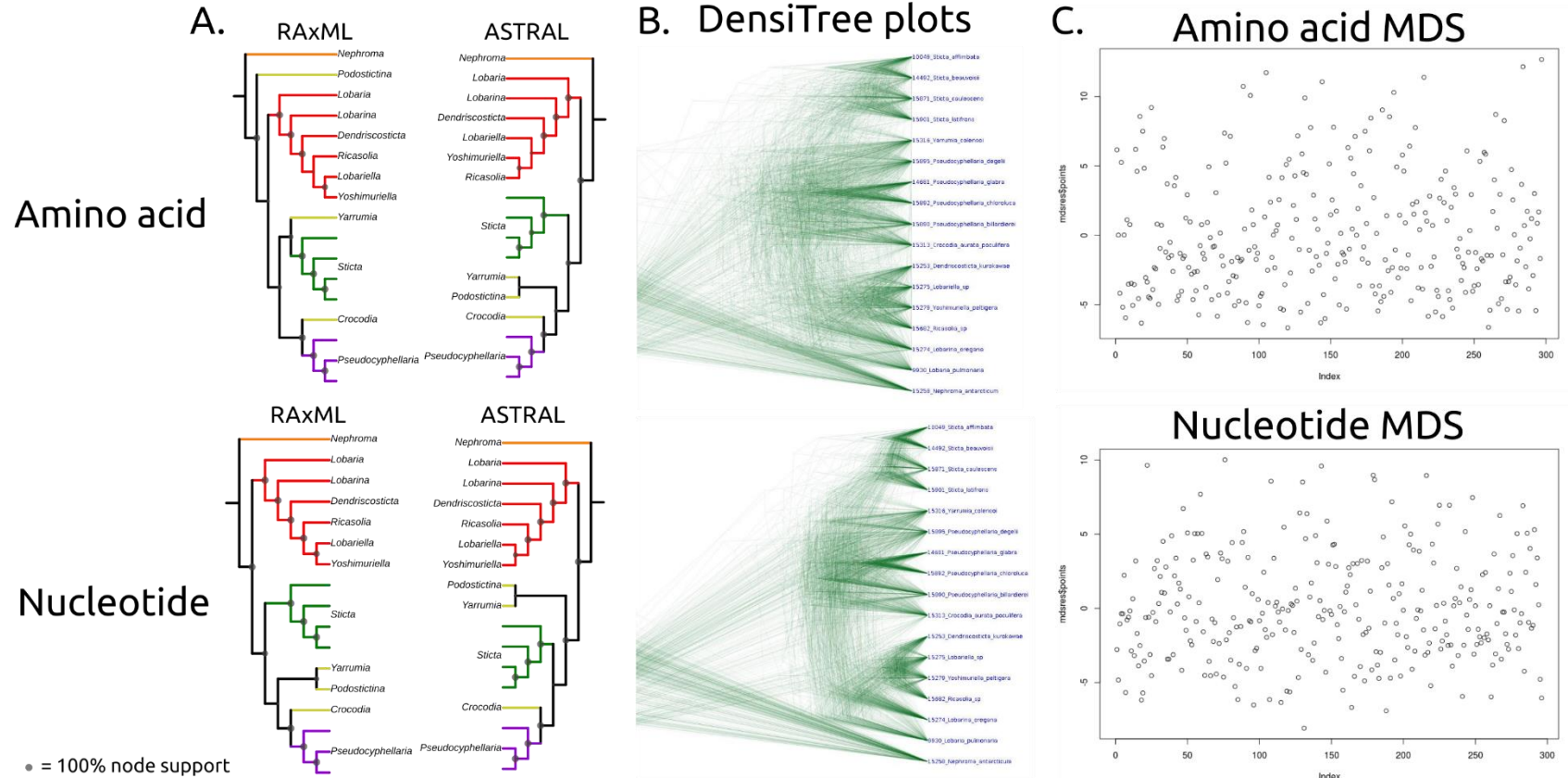


Figure 3. Poor support, incongruence of relationships of genera and gene tree discordance in Lobariaceae with (A.) different methods (RAxML vs. ASTRAL) and different datatypes (amino acid vs. nucleotide) of the reduced dataset of 297 loci and 17 tips with no missing data. Nodal support is depicted by the size of the gray circles in the nodes, with larger circles being higher supported. (B.) DensiTree plots of the gene trees used to produce the 297x17 datasets. (C.) Dimension one of multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) plots of one-to-one Robinson Foulds distances of 297 trees produced from amino acid and nucleotide sequences.



Removing these genera from the dataset, especially *Podostictina*, increased congruence and node support among all trimmed datasets (Figure 21, Appendix A). To find the most common topology we used SumTrees, which recovered 297 unique topologies of each tree reconstruction from the pruned nucleotide and amino acid datasets (Figure 21 & Figure 22, Appendix A). We visualized this gene-tree discordance by using DensiTree, which creates a figure by overlaying all 297 gene trees. Although both datasets recovered clear groupings representing well supported clades, the backbone is depicted as a diffuse cloud of branches (Figure 3B). Using the pairwise Robinson-Foulds distances (topological distances) of gene-trees and MDS, we found that clustering of topologies was not significant and that both the amino acid and nucleotide datasets exhibited a diffuse pattern in all dimensions (Figure 3C). This suggests that the gene-trees in both datasets have no dominant topology.

#### **2.3.4 Evidence for reticulate evolution in Lobariaceae**

We used the same pruned 297x17nuc dataset to infer evidence of reticulate evolution in Lobariaceae by using PhyloNet. Although, the maximum pseudo-likelihood (MPL) option (InferNetwork\_MPL) in PhyloNet indicated that a three-reticulation model had the best fit to our data, none of the networks produced by PhyloNet had three reticulations (Table III). At most, two reticulations were inferred (Figure 4). The reticulations reconstructed in the networks generally originated in the ancestral nodes or branches of samples from *Crocodia*, *Podostictina*, *Pseudocyphellaria*, *Sticta* and *Yarrumia*. Using a full likelihood approach (InferNetwork\_ML) on 17 taxa is too computationally heavy for most servers so we produced a dataset with only *Crocodia*, *Podostictina*, *Pseudocyphellaria*, *Sticta*, and *Yarrumia*. As with the MPL approach, the three-reticulation scenario had the best fit to the data in the ML analysis (Table IV and Figure 21, Figure 22, Appendix A).

TABLE III. LIKELIHOOD AND AIC SCORES FOR ALL RETICULATION SCENARIOS USING THE MPL APPROACH.

Reticulations	k	Total log probability	AIC	
<b>0</b>	<b>32</b>	-4,772.61	9,609.22	
		-4,772.93	9,545.87	
		-4,773.10	9,546.21	
		-4,774.06	9,548.11	
		-4,774.08	9,548.16	
		<b>-4,773.36</b>	<b>9,546.71</b>	Average
<b>1</b>	<b>33</b>	-4,757.90	9,581.80	
		-4,766.82	9,533.64	
		-4,770.67	9,541.33	
		-4,773.04	9,546.08	
		-4,774.05	9,548.10	
		<b>-4,768.50</b>	<b>9,536.99</b>	Average
<b>2</b>	<b>34</b>	-4,749.11	9,566.22	
		-4,771.13	9,542.27	
		-4,771.34	9,542.68	
		-4,772.93	9,545.87	
		-4,774.05	9,548.11	
		<b>-4,767.71</b>	<b>9,535.43</b>	Average
<b>3</b>	<b>35</b>	-4,687.22	9,444.44	
		-4,743.86	9,487.72	
		-4,760.41	9,520.82	
		-4,772.93	9,545.87	
		-4,773.04	9,546.07	
		<b>-4,747.49</b>	<b>9,494.98</b>	Average
<b>4</b>	<b>36</b>	-4,769.16	9,610.31	
		-4,770.96	9,541.91	
		-4,771.03	9,542.07	
		-4,771.78	9,543.57	
		-4,772.94	9,545.87	
		<b>-4,771.17</b>	<b>9,542.35</b>	Average

TABLE III, CONTINUED

Reticulations	k	Total log probability	AIC	
<b>5</b>	<b>37</b>	-4,770.67	9,615.33	
		-4,772.11	9,544.21	
		-4,773.10	9,546.21	
		-4,774.05	9,548.11	
		-4,774.07	9,548.15	
		<b>-4,772.80</b>	<b>9,545.60</b>	Average
<b>10</b>	<b>42</b>	-4,770.66	9,625.33	
		-4,770.96	9,541.92	
		-4,772.93	9,545.87	
		-4,773.04	9,546.07	
		-4,773.32	9,546.63	
		<b>-4,772.18</b>	<b>9,544.36</b>	Average

TABLE IV. LIKELIHOOD AND AIC SCORES FOR ALL RETICULATION SCENARIOS USING THE ML APPROACH.

Reticulations	k	Total log probability	AIC
0	7	-1435.24	2870.48
1	8	-1366.30	2734.60
2	9	-1335.74	2675.48
3	10	-1328.20	2662.40

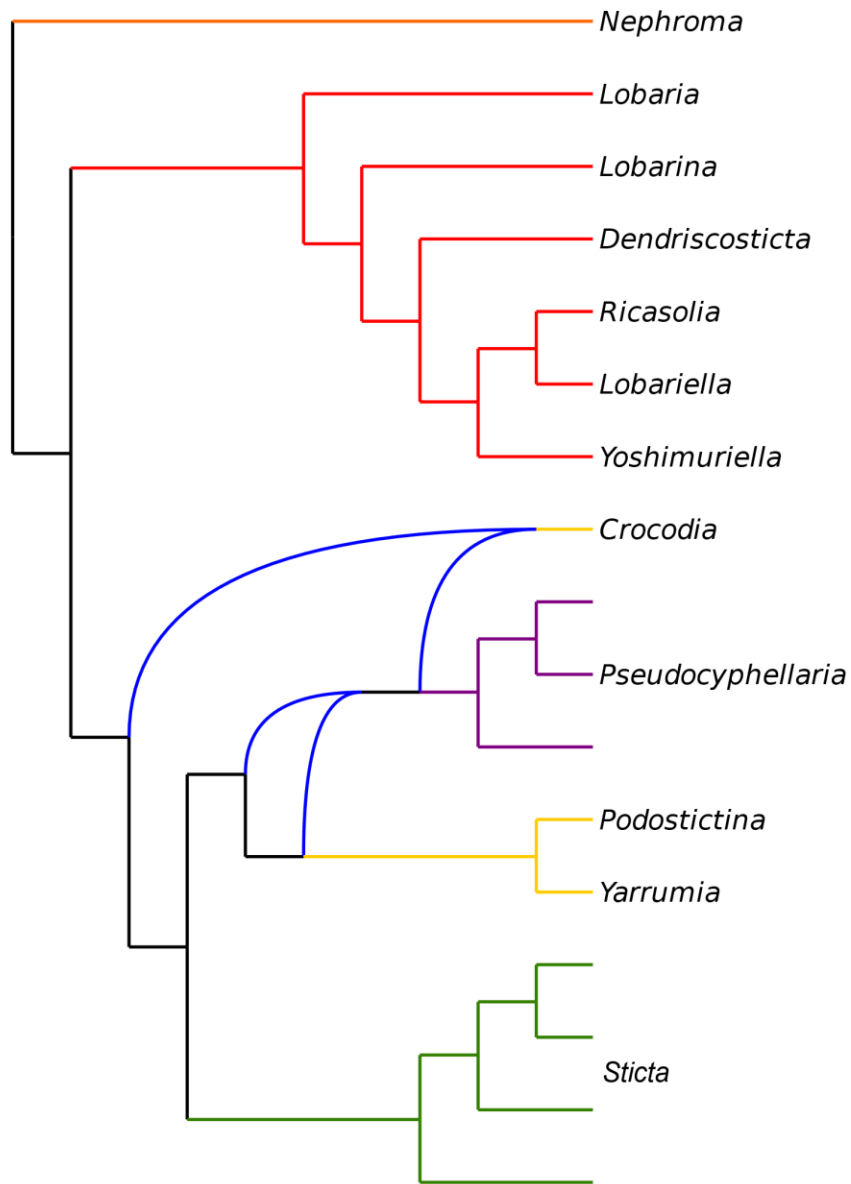


Figure 4. PhyloNet network showing one of the most likely reticulation scenarios.

### **2.3.5 Timing of divergence in Lobariaceae**

Both runs of MCMCTree converged on similar estimations. The average stem age of Lobariaceae was estimated to be 64.4 Mya (91.9-43.4 Mya). Crown divergences of the major clades in Lobariaceae are as follows: *Lobaria s. lat* clade (which also includes *Anomolobaria*, *Dendriscosticta*, *Lobariella*, *Lobarina*, *Ricasolia*, and *Yoshimuriella*), 57.6 Mya (84.0-38.1 Mya); *Podostictina*, 29.5 Mya (53.0-14.2 Mya); *Yarrumia*, 12.4 Mya (21.2-5.9 Mya); *Sticta*, 25.2 Mya (39.9-15.2 Mya); *Crocodia*, 33.4 Mya (56.0-16.7 Mya); and *Pseudocyphellaria*, 54.1 Mya (78.7-35.2 Mya). The results of one of the runs is depicted in Figure 5 and detailed output of the analysis is in Figure 23, Appendix A.

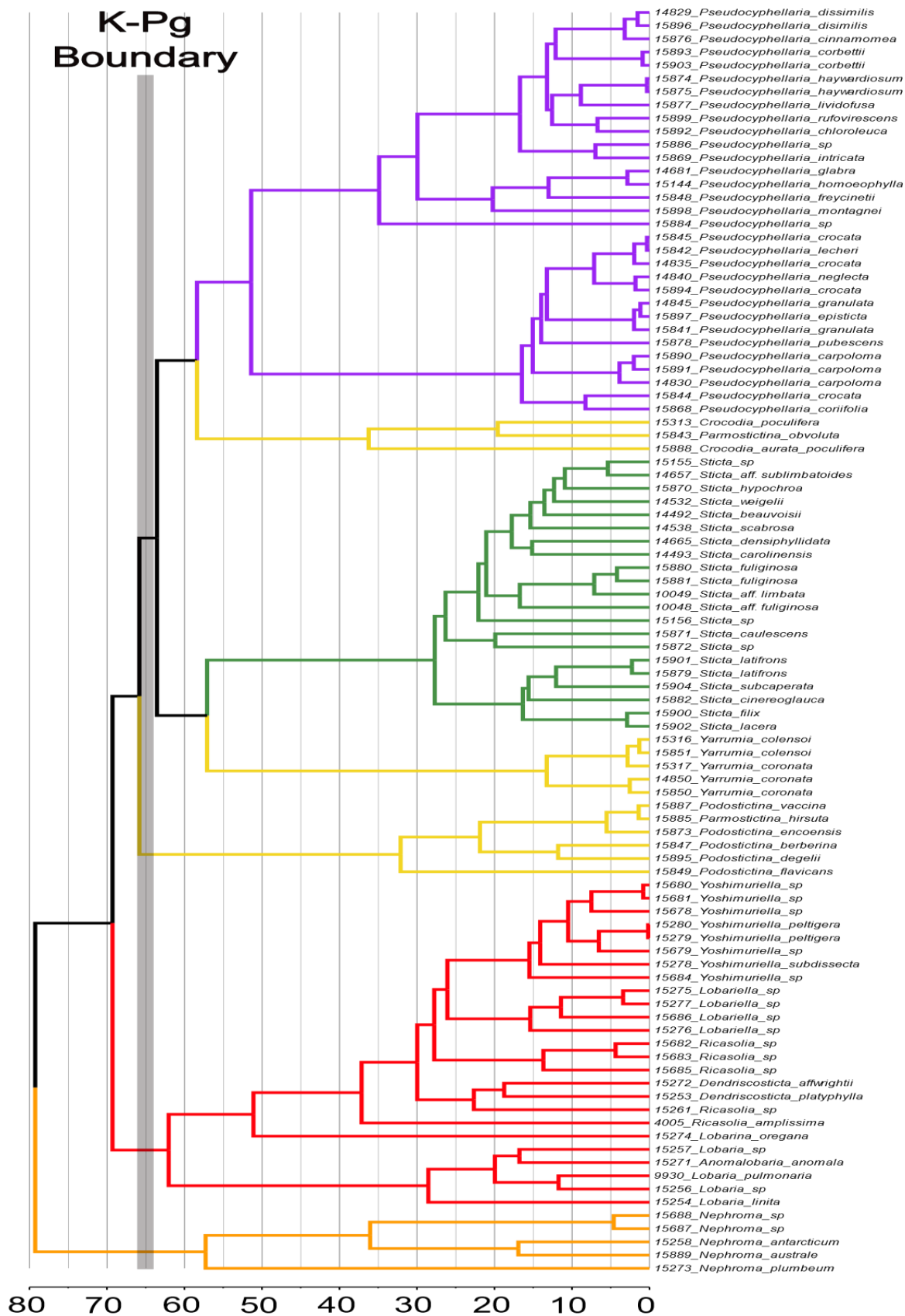


Figure 5. A chronogram estimated by Bayesian relaxed molecular clock implemented in MCMCTree. The ML tree inferred with concatenated amino acid sequences (376x96aa - congruent with the ASTRAL species tree) was used as a scaffold for the dating analysis. The grey vertical bar depicts the K-Pg boundary. The timescale is in units of millions of years. Colors of clades: Orange: *Nephroma* (outgroup); Red: *Anomolobaria*, *Dendriscosticta*, *Lobaria*, *Lobariella*, *Lobarina*, *Ricasolia*, *Yoshimuriella*; Yellow: *Crocodia*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina*, and *Yarrumia* (not monophyletic); Green: *Sticta*; Purple: *Pseudocyphellaria*.

TABLE V. NODE AGES ESTIMATED IN MCMCTREE WITH MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM STANDARD DEVIATIONS IN MILLIONS OF YEARS.

Clades	Run 1			Run 2			Averaged runs		
	age	minimum	max	age	minimum	max	age	minimum	max
Lobariaceae	<b>69.3</b>	53.4	89	<b>59.4</b>	33.4	94.7	<b>64.4</b>	43.4	91.9
<i>Nephroma</i>	<b>57.3</b>	36.6	86	<b>53.9</b>	31.2	84.6	<b>55.6</b>	33.9	85.3
" <i>Lobaria</i> clade"	<b>62</b>	46.7	81.6	<b>53.2</b>	29.5	86.4	<b>57.6</b>	38.1	84.0
<i>Lobaria</i>	<b>28.5</b>	20	42.5	<b>25.2</b>	14.7	41.1	<b>26.9</b>	17.4	41.8
<i>Dendriscosticta</i>	<b>22.7</b>	13.9	35.2	<b>19.2</b>	9.6	37.4	<b>21.0</b>	11.8	36.3
<i>Ricasolia</i>	<b>13.7</b>	7.7	21.1	<b>11.4</b>	5	20.4	<b>12.6</b>	6.4	20.8
<i>Lobariella</i>	<b>15.4</b>	9.4	22.2	<b>12.9</b>	6.1	21.8	<b>14.2</b>	7.8	22.0
<i>Yoshimuriella</i>	<b>15.5</b>	10.2	21.6	<b>13.1</b>	6.6	21.7	<b>14.3</b>	8.4	21.7
<i>Podostictina</i>	<b>32.1</b>	16.8	54.6	<b>26.8</b>	11.5	51.3	<b>29.5</b>	14.2	53.0
<i>Yarrumia</i>	<b>13.3</b>	6.8	21.7	<b>11.5</b>	5	20.6	<b>12.4</b>	5.9	21.2
<i>Sticta</i>	<b>27.7</b>	18.5	43.2	<b>22.6</b>	11.8	36.6	<b>25.2</b>	15.2	39.9
<i>Crocodia</i>	<b>36.2</b>	20	56.3	<b>30.6</b>	13.4	55.6	<b>33.4</b>	16.7	56.0
<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i>	<b>58.4</b>	43.2	76.2	<b>49.8</b>	27.2	81.1	<b>54.1</b>	35.2	78.7

## 2.4 Discussion

We produced the first target enrichment dataset of a lineage of lichenized fungi with a goal of resolving the higher-level relationships in Lobariaceae and found that the evolutionary history exhibited rapid diversification and that we could not confidently reconstruct the relationships assuming a strictly bifurcating tree. The phylogenetic positions in which certain lineages are resolved differs when using (1) number of loci or (2) different tree reconstruction methods (Figure 1). However, more slowly-evolving amino acid sequence data yielded more consistent results, especially with the 376-locus dataset, where the RAxML and ASTRAL backbone branching patterns were identical (Figure 2). This topology was highly supported in ASTRAL, but the node leading to *Podostictina* clade in RAxML was poorly supported (Figure 1B). An increasing number of studies are producing datasets of hundreds, even thousands of loci, and are finding that certain nodes in the tree of life that are still very challenging to resolve with our current inference methods (Reddy et al. 2017; Prum et al. 2015; Jarvis et al. 2014; Xi et al. 2014; Goremykin et al. 2015; Dunn et al. 2008; Simion et al. 2017; Burleigh and Mathews 2004). We found no exception in Lobariaceae. However, even though phylogenetic relationship among genera remained uncertain (c.f., Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013), we were able to further study the factors that are preventing resolution. As a result, our study is the first on lichenized fungi to investigate the underlying mechanisms – namely rapid diversification and reticulations – that may lead to poorly-resolved relationships.

Regardless of the dataset or analysis, the genera were separated by short branches, suggesting a rapid diversification resulting in the genera that were previously placed within *Pseudocyphellaria* (including *Crocodia*, *Podostictina*, and *Yarrumia*) and *Sticta* (i.e., *Dendriscosticta*). Short branches can be difficult to resolve with confidence, even with large



subgenomic datasets (Wiens et al. 2008). Rapid diversifications can also lead to conflicting topologies among individual gene trees (Maddison 1997). This is consistent with our study, even in our reduced dataset (297x17) with 297 unique rooted topologies (Figure 3). The multi-species coalescent-based species tree approach can account for ILS (Liu and Edwards 2009). However, species trees with short, deep branches, such as those recovered in this study, can result in uninformative gene-trees, and the gene trees may result in erroneous species tree reconstruction (Huang et al. 2010). The inconsistency in phylogenetic reconstruction and low support for certain branching patterns revealed in our study suggest that the short branches in our trees confound species tree approaches in this case. The only time we found a consensus between the two methods was when we used the largest amino acid data set (376x96aa), but node support, was low for some of these relationships (Figures. 1B and 2).

Concatenation of genetic loci has a long history in phylogenetics, but it has also been known to produce highly supported yet conflicting results, especially in the area of tree space known as the “anomaly zone” (Kubatko and Degnan 2007) (when most gene trees in the genome do not reflect the true speciation history). Furthermore, concatenated analyses cannot account for the different evolutionary histories at different loci, which can also produce misleading topologies (Degnan and Rosenberg 2006). They can also be extremely sensitive to outlier loci (Lacey et al. 2018). The probability of sampling an outlier locus increases as the amount of data increases, and it is therefore expected that the effect of such loci will be stronger in larger subgenomic data set (Lacey et al. 2018).

Models that incorporate reticulations always had better fit to the data than models assuming a strictly bifurcating tree (Figure 4, Tables III and IV). Furthermore, in most phylogenetic networks generated, the taxa with labile topological positions (*Podostictina*, *Sticta*

and *Yarrumia*) were usually associated with the reticulations in the network. Reticulation events can confound both concatenated ML and coalescent-based species tree approaches, causing incongruence and poorly supported relationships (Som 2015; Nakhleh et al. 2005). This could also contribute to the inconsistency among phylogenetic reconstructions and poor nodal supports found in our study. Additionally, the effects of reticulation and rapid diversification may not be independent. Reticulations have been hypothesized to promote subsequent rapid diversification events in cichlids (Meier et al. 2017), yeasts (Leducq et al. 2016), and fungal pathogens (Stukenbrock 2016). Reticulate evolution is most likely to induce rapid diversification when parental lineages occupy highly dissimilar ecological niches but are only moderately genetically differentiated (Kagawa and Takimoto 2018). Recombination among distinct yet compatible evolutionary lineages may generate novel phenotypes to exploit new niches. Although we have shown that reticulate models have a better fit, it is unclear whether they led to a rapid diversification (suggested by the short and poorly supported nodes) in Lobariaceae as the two are not mutually exclusive. Rapid radiations could also increase the chances of reticulate evolution, because so many closely related taxa may not have had the chance to develop effective reproductive barriers before secondary contact occurred in nature. Reticulate evolution may characterize the evolution of a number of lichenized fungi. Hybridization has been invoked to account for patterns in secondary chemistry in *Hypotrachyna* (Culberson and Hale 1973), and among gene-tree incongruence in *Cladonia* (Jana et al. 2013) and *Lobaria* (Cornejo, Chabanenko, and Scheidegger 2018) were seen as compatible with reticulation. In *Letharia* a reticulate evolutionary history was proposed based on patterns of recombination in nuclear DNA markers (Kroken and Taylor 2001). The other form of reticulate evolution, horizontal gene transfer (HGT), has been discovered with fungal genes being found in the *Trebouxia* photobionts

(Beck et al. 2015), and with polyketide synthases of actinobacterial origin being found in lichenized fungi (Schmitt and Lumbsch 2009), but HGT has not yet been reported among lichenized fungi and is not hypothesized in this study.

Our topology (376x96aa data sets in Figure 1B and 2) was similar to that of Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuase (2013) with the main exceptions being the relationships of *Sticta* and of genera previously segregated from *Pseudocyphellaria* (e.g. *Crocodia*, *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina*, and *Yarrumia*). In the previous study (Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013), *Parmostictina*, *Podostictina* and *Crocodia* formed a well-supported clade (*Yarrumia* was not included in their analysis) sister to *Pseudocyphellaria*. In our analyses, the *Crocodia* and *Pseudocyphellaria* still formed a sister-group relationship in all datasets, but the relationships of *Parmostictina* and *Podostictina* were poorly supported and differed depending on data type and method of inference: it could be placed sister to either all Lobariaceae, to (*Crocodia* + *Pseudocyphellaria* + *Sticta* + *Yarrumia*), to *Yarrumia*, or only to *Sticta* (Figures. 1, 2, and 3). The erratic placement of *Parmostictina* and *Podostictina*, when using different data types and inference methods, exhibits patterns found in other unrelated groups of organisms with unresolved phylogenetic relationships, such as the deep, poorly supported nodes leading to ctenophores and sponges (Dunn et al. 2008; Simion et al. 2017), *Amborella* (Xi et al. 2014; Goremykin et al. 2015; Drew et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2012), and Gnetales (Mathews 2009; Burleigh and Mathews 2004). Another relationship that was often but not always recovered was the *Sticta* and *Yarrumia* sister relationship.

Our time-calibrated phylogeny recovered a nearly 70 Mya stem age of Lobariaceae which is in agreement with the estimate of Gaya et al. (Gaya et al. 2015) but not with Simon et al. (Simon et al. 2018) where a 50 Mya stem age was reported. Furthermore, our crown age

estimates agree with other dated phylogenies generated for the genera *Sticta* (Widhelm et al. 2018 – Chapter 3 in this dissertation) and *Lobaria* (Cornejo and Scheidegger 2018), both of which have crown ages around 30 Mya. The timing of the rapid and reticulate Lobariaceae divergence is near the end of the Cretaceous around 70–60 Mya. The Cretaceous Terrestrial Revolution (Vermeij 2011; Benton 2010) (CTR) occurred between 100 and 70 Mya and is associated with the massive diversification event that gave rise to the angiosperms (Lidgard and Crane 1988, 1990). The increase in angiosperm diversity in the late Cretaceous created new ecological opportunities (Schuettpehlz and Pryer 2009; Schneider et al. 2004) and these may have triggered bursts of diversification in spore-dispersing plants (Schuettpehlz and Pryer 2009; Schneider et al. 2004; Feldberg et al. 2014; Laenen et al. 2014) mammals (Meredith et al. 2011), and ants (Moreau et al. 2006). Secondary diversification pulses following the CTR and rise of angiosperms are especially linked to the evolution of epiphytism and has been demonstrated in leafy liverworts (Feldberg et al. 2014) and ferns (Schuettpehlz and Pryer 2009; Schneider et al. 2004). Most Lobariaceae species are epiphytic and the rapid diversification event seen in our study could be another example of a subsequent pulse in divergence linked to the CTR. The rapid diversification of Lobariaceae was also associated with the Cretaceous-Paleogene (K-Pg) boundary around 66 Mya. Mass extinctions associated with K-Pg boundary may have reduced competition and provided an opportunity for surviving lineages to radiate (Renne et al. 2013). The macrolichen growth form is associated with multiple diversification rate increases following the K-Pg boundary (Huang et al. 2018). Lobariaceae, a lineage composed solely of macrolichens, may have also experienced a similar diversification rate increase as in other clades of lichenized fungi.

Since the application of genetic data to reconstructing the evolutionary relationships of lichenized fungi, our understanding of the diversification of most lineages has significantly improved. Single and multiple locus phylogenies have discovered many relationships that were obscured by homoplasy in phenotypic characters. With the advent of next-generation sequencing (NGS) technology, only a handful of studies have been conducted on groups of lichenized fungi to resolve phylogenetic relationships (Leavitt et al. 2016; Grewe et al. 2017). In traditional phylogenetic studies, fungal-specific primers got around the issue of mixed genomes in DNA isolations, but with genomic studies, the only way to get purely fungal DNA is to culture the fungal symbiont. The ability of lichenized fungi to be cultured varies among groups and it has not been successful in many. Regardless, over ten genomes have been sequenced and are available for study. Recently, studies using purely fungal reference genomes from cultured lichenized fungi have gotten around the issue of using metagenomic DNA isolations, by applying a mapping step that pulls out the fungal reads for use in phylogenomic analyses (Grewe et al. 2017).

## **2.5 Conclusion**

This study is the first to apply the target capturing approach in lichenized fungi to investigate historical processes influencing the evolution of major clades in Lobariaceae. Although we were not able to confidently resolve certain relationships, we were able to investigate why certain nodes remained unresolved, and we have a more thorough understanding of the evolutionary history of the group. We provide evidence for rapid diversification and reticulate evolution in our data set, which would not be possible to infer with only a few loci. However, it is still not clear what the relative effects of rapid diversification and reticulations are on gene tree discordance and difficulties in species tree reconstruction. We encourage the

phylogenetic study of taxonomic groups with uncertain phylogenetic relationships so, as a scientific community, we can understand how historical processes are most likely to obscure relationships in the tree of life. Resolution of some nodes in the tree of life may not always be possible with increasing datasets, but a detailed understanding of the evolutionary events that confound the history of a group are the next best steps to take to make informed decisions about their taxonomic classification.

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### **3. Oligocene origin and drivers of diversification in the genus *Sticta* (Lobariaceae, Ascomycota)**

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#### **3.1 Introduction**

One of the main challenges evolutionary biologists face is identifying the mechanisms that influence the distribution of biodiversity through time and space. As molecular data have become widely available and models for molecular evolution have been well developed, many studies have placed estimates on the timing of diversification through relaxed molecular clock methods (Rutschmann 2006). These time trees have been used for downstream analyses, such as lineage through time plots, and indicated changes in diversification rates across the branches and through time. Furthermore, these time trees have also been used to study different drivers of diversification (Morlon 2014; Ng and Smith 2014; Vamosi and Vamosi 2011; van der Niet and

Johnson 2012). Intrinsic factors, in the form of symbiont associations can give groups the ability to exploit new habitats and resources, allowing them to radiate into new niches (Janson et al. 2008; Stanley 1981). Extrinsic factors, such as tectonic activity, can cause habitat fragmentation and barriers between populations, letting genetic drift and differential selection act on isolated populations (Badgley et al. 2017). Sometimes associated with tectonic activity, climatic changes can increase diversification by promoting range shifts, which can place unique selective pressures on new immigrant populations, allowing divergent selection to affect speciation (Badgley et al. 2017; Hoorn et al. 2010). In most groups, many factors play a role, but it is not clear which exert greater influence in shaping biodiversity. Some drivers of diversification might play a larger role in some groups, while different drivers could be more important in others. In most cases, drivers of diversification are in a dynamic balance (Vamosi and Vamosi 2011). With sampling throughout the entire range of a group of organisms, it may be possible to tease apart the contribution of all drivers and determine the contribution of each to the evolution of organisms on a case-by-case basis (Vamosi and Vamosi 2011; van der Niet and Johnson 2012).

Recent studies have utilized molecular methods and the few available fossils to gain a better understanding of the diversification of groups of lichenized fungi (Amo de Paz et al. 2012, 2011; Blanco et al. 2004; Del-Prado et al. 2016, 2013, Divakar et al. 2012, 2015; Leavitt, Esslinger, and Lumbsch 2012; Leavitt, Moreau, and Lumbsch 2015; Leavitt, Lumbsch, et al. 2013; Leavitt et al. 2012; Magain et al. 2016; Molina et al. 2017). Lichens are a form of symbiotic mutualism where fungi (mycobionts: mostly ascomycetes) form a close association with photosynthetic green algae or cyanobacteria (photobionts). Most of these studies have focused on the family Parmeliaceae, while other families have received less attention (Gaya et al. 2015; Leavitt, Lumbsch, et al. 2013; Leavitt, Esslinger, and Lumbsch 2012; Otálora et al. 2010;

Prieto and Wedin 2013; Sérusiaux et al. 2011). Lobariaceae is a large family of lichenized fungi where phylogenetic relationships are just beginning to be understood. (Moncada, Coca, and Lücking 2013; Moncada, Lücking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013; Moncada, Lücking, and Coca 2013) investigated relationships in Lobariaceae, and showed that the classification at the genus level did not accurately explain the branching patterns observed when using molecular data and new genera were segregated within the family. The genus *Sticta* was found to include two unrelated lineages; viz. *Sticta sensu stricto* and the *S. wrightii* group, which was reclassified as *Dendriscosticta*. *Sticta sensu stricto* is one of the largest genera in Lobariaceae, but the species diversity is only beginning to be understood. (Kirk et al. 2008) listed 114 species for *Sticta*, but (Moncada, Lücking, and Suárez 2014) after extensive sampling in the Colombian Andes, suggested that the actual global diversity might be four to five times higher. With so much diversity recently revealed, we began to investigate which drivers of diversification played a major role in shaping the diversity of *Sticta* through time and over the landscape.

Long-distance dispersal has been documented in many groups of lichens (Amo de Paz et al. 2012; Buschbom 2007; Del-Prado et al. 2013; Leavitt, Moreau, and Lumbsch 2015; Otálora et al. 2010) and collection records indicate that *Sticta* has colonized oceanic islands throughout the world, suggesting a high dispersal rate in the genus. A recent study (Simon et al. 2018) found evidence for a rapid radiation of *Sticta* in the Western Indian Ocean Islands (Madagascar, Reunion, and Mauritius), but little work has been done on islands in the Pacific, such as Hawaii, where it is unclear whether the species are derived from a single colonization followed by a radiation, or from multiple colonizations of unrelated species on the archipelago. Recent collections in Hawaii allowed us to test which scenario is more likely and where colonizers originated.

Species in *Sticta* associate with two types of photobionts, cyanobacteria and green algae, which makes the genus a unique study system where biotic interactions can be tested for effects on diversification. In the case of photosymbiodemes, one species of mycobiont can form associations with both photobiont types. The two types, chloro-morphs (containing green algae) and cyano-morphs (containing cyanobacteria, usually *Nostoc* spp.), can be so different morphologically, that specimens of the same mycobiont species were previously classified as different genera (e.g., *Dendrisocaulon* spp.) until morphological and molecular data confirmed that one taxon associates with both types of photobiont (Armaleo and Clerc 1991; James and Henssen 1976; Ranft et al. 2018). While photosymbiodemes are often found on separate thalli, there are records of both morphs attached on the same thallus (Dughi 1944, 1936; James and Henssen 1976; F. Moreau 1956). The photosymbiodemic state is thought to be limited to only a few taxa in *Sticta* and it is hypothesized that most species are primarily found in association with only one type of photobiont (either cyanobacteria or green-algal photobionts). Many more species in *Sticta* associate with cyanobacteria compared to green-algae, which invokes the question: Does the cyanobacterial association increase the net diversification rate compared to green-algal associations?

External factors may also be influencing diversification in *Sticta*. A majority of the known *Sticta* species are found in South America (Moncada, Lücking, and Suárez 2014). The Andes has been the site of major radiations in many groups of organisms (Hoorn et al. 2010; Lagomarsino et al. 2016; Madriñán, Cortés, and Richardson 2013; Nürk et al. 2015). Furthermore, a recent study by Magain et al. (Magain et al. 2016) found a recent radiation in the lichen genus *Peltigera* in the Andes. The uplift of the Andes began between 66 and 33 million years ago, with a rapid increase in elevation during the late Miocene and early Pliocene (10-4

Mya). The uplift of mountains influences local and regional climate, creates fragmented habitats, and facilitates immigration of some species, promoting diversification of many groups simultaneously (Badgley et al. 2017; Hoorn et al. 2010). The pattern of high Andean diversity invokes another question of the study: Could the mountain building processes in the Andes have increased the diversification of *Sticta* species in this region relative to others?

With sampling throughout most of the known ranges of *Sticta* and a five gene dataset we produced the first robust time-calibrated phylogeny for the genus. We used this phylogeny to carry out the following aims: (1) estimate the age and ancestral range of *Sticta*, (2) infer the colonization history of Hawaii (3) determine if primary photobiont (green-algal and cyanobacterial) associations affect diversification, and (4) investigate if tectonic activity in the Andes has affected diversification. Note that the two hypothesized mechanisms that may affect the changes in biodiversity patterns through time and space in *Sticta* - i.e., (1) the effect of association with different photobionts and (2) the effect of recent Andean uplifting — are not mutually exclusive. Different mechanisms could have functioned contemporaneously or at different times in the past. Our study investigates some of the mechanisms that are likely to have a significant effect on shaping the biodiversity of *Sticta*.

## **3.2. Materials and Methods**

### **3.2.1 Taxon sampling**

Sampling was conducted in Africa, Madagascar, Europe, Canary Islands, Azores, Australasia, North America, the Colombian Andes, Ecuador, Brazil, Central America, the Caribbean, and Hawaii (Galloway 1997; Magain and Sérusiaux 2015; Moncada, Reidy, and Lücking 2014; Moncada, Coca, and Lücking 2013; Moncada, Lücking, and Coca 2013; Moncada and Lücking 2012; Simon et al. 2018). We selected 222 *Sticta* specimens from the major clades

of the ITS phylogeny of (Moncada, Lücking, and Suárez 2014) representing 132 species-level lineages that were identified by phylogenetic binning approach that allows for type specimens lacking DNA sequence data, to be assigned to clades on a molecular phylogeny via a phenotype data matrix of morphological, anatomical, and chemical characters (Berger, Stamatakis, and Lücking 2011; Parnmen, Lücking, and Lumbsch 2012) (Table VI). This level of sampling has more lineages than listed in the latest official count on species in *Sticta* (Kirk et al. 2008), but it is likely a subset of the global diversity, as areas of Africa, Asia, and Indonesia have not been thoroughly sampled yet. There are nearly 120 described species in *Sticta* (Kirk et al. 2008), but, recent studies (Magain and Sérusiaux 2015; Moncada, Lücking, and Suárez 2014; Moncada, Coca, and Lücking 2013; Moncada, Lücking, and Coca 2013; Moncada and Lücking 2012; Simon et al. 2018) have demonstrated that the diversity of the genus is underestimated and that there may be 400 to 500 species-level lineages in the genus. With the knowledge of this recently observed diversity, great care has been taken to properly determine species and some samples in this study have been challenging to assign. Those have been marked with a *cf.*, *aff.* or just *S. sp* in their name since they are most likely new to science. For assignment of character states in downstream analyses, we assumed these to be new species and used the distribution and photobiont data from the collected material for these specimens.

TABLE VI. SPECIMEN SAMPLING AND GENBANK ACCESSION NUMBERS.

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
DNA9930	<i>Lobaria pulmonaria</i>	U.S.A.	MG367435	MF984336	MG754091	MG063078	MG754080
LG0688	<i>Pseudocyphellaria citrina</i>	Canary Islands	JQ735976	-	JQ736009	JQ735993	KT281770
DNA5022	<i>Sticta aff. cordillerana</i>	Colombia	KC732553	MF984252	MG754120	MG062963	-
DNA7246	<i>Sticta aff. andreana</i>	Costa Rica	MG367402	MF984284	-	MG063062	-
DNA10048	<i>Sticta aff. fuliginosa</i>	U.S.A.	MG367377	MF984203	-	-	MG754081
DNA14466	<i>Sticta aff. fuliginosa 1</i>	Australia	MG754192	MF984305	MG754180	MG062943	-
DNA7382	<i>Sticta aff. granatensis</i>	Ecuador	MG367416	-	MG754117	MG062990	-
DNA7226	<i>Sticta aff. laciniosa</i>	Costa Rica	MG367401	MF984240	-	MG062988	-
JM110	<i>Sticta aff. laminobeauposii</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367370	MF984332	-	MG062978	-
DNA10049	<i>Sticta aff. limbata</i>	U.S.A.	MG367378	MF984292	-	-	-
DNA13781	<i>Sticta aff. martinii</i>	New Zealand	MG367383	MF984270	MG754172	MG063018	-
DNA13814	<i>Sticta aff. martinii 1</i>	New Zealand	MG367384	MF984227	MG754171	MG063019	-
DNA14262	<i>Sticta aff. martinii 2</i>	New Zealand	MG754193	MF984223	MG754187	MG063021	-
DNA7259	<i>Sticta aff. orinoquensis</i>	Costa Rica	-	MF984264	MG754121	MG063077	-
DNA7345	<i>Sticta aff. peltigerella</i>	Colombia	MG367410	MF984216	MG754158	MG063049	-
DNA4932	<i>Sticta aff. phyllidiata</i>	Colombia	KC732476	MF984295	-	-	-
JM111	<i>Sticta aff. sinuosa</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367371	MF984330	-	-	-
DNA5541	<i>Sticta aff. subscrobiculata</i>	Colombia	KC732639	-	MG754096	MG062985	-
DNA6288	<i>Sticta aff. subtomentella</i>	Colombia	KC732730	MF984259	-	MG063059	-
DNA7260	<i>Sticta aff. tomentosa</i>	Costa Rica	MG367406	MF984315	MG754157	MG063051	-
DNA5467	<i>Sticta aff. weigeli</i>	Colombia	MG367390	MF984299	MG754103	MG062983	-
DNA6227	<i>Sticta aff. weigeli 1</i>	Colombia	KC732710	MF984320	MG754165	MG062980	-
DNA7224	<i>Sticta aff. zahlbruckneri</i>	Costa Rica	MG367400	MF984318	-	MG062991	-
DNA5030	<i>Sticta albocyphellata</i>	Colombia	KC732557	-	MG754114	MG062937	-



TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
DNA8197	<i>Sticta albohypoarbuscula</i>	Hawaii	MG367434	MF984210	MG754094	MG062923	-
LG0992	<i>Sticta ambavillaria</i>	Reunion	JQ735978	-	JQ736011	JQ735995	-
DNA7373	<i>Sticta andensis</i>	Colombia	KC732548	MF984317	MG754134	MG062956	-
DNA4985	<i>Sticta arachnofuliginosa</i>	Colombia	KC732524	MF984306	-	MG062946	-
DNA5443	<i>Sticta arachnosylvatica</i>	Colombia	KC732580	MF984309	MG754154	MG062948	-
DNA5599	<i>Sticta arbuscula</i>	Colombia	KC732682	-	-	MG063046	-
DNA7253	<i>Sticta arbusculofuliginosa</i>	Costa Rica	MG367404	MF984218	MG754156	MG063050	-
DNA5424	<i>Sticta arbusculotomentosa 1</i>	Colombia	KC732572	MF984220	-	MG063041	-
LG3747	<i>Sticta atlantica</i>	Ireland	KT281734	-	KT281690	KT281645	-
LG3858	<i>Sticta atlantica 1</i>	Azores	KT281737	-	KT281693	KT281648	KT281784
DNA4999	<i>Sticta atroandensis</i>	Colombia	KC732533	MF984310	-	MG062952	MG754082
DNA14282	<i>Sticta babingtonii</i>	New Zealand	MF373808	MF984256	MG754167	MG063012	-
DNA14493	<i>Sticta beauvoisii 2</i>	U.S.A	MG754194	MF984244	-	MG062957	-
LG3303	<i>Sticta beauvoisii</i>	U.S.A.	KT281725	-	KT281681	KT281636	KT281787
DNA6211	<i>Sticta beauvoisii 1</i>	Colombia	KC732707	MF984328	-	MG062958	-
DNA6357	<i>Sticta borinquensis</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367397	MF984263	-	MG062976	-
DNA4914	<i>Sticta brevior</i>	Colombia	MG367386	-	MG754108	MG062929	-
DNA13507	<i>Sticta caliginosa</i>	New Zealand	MF373760	MF984229	MG754135	MG063035	-
DNA13782	<i>Sticta caliginosa 1</i>	New Zealand	MF373767	-	MG754136	MG063036	-
LG3741	<i>Sticta canariensis</i>	Ireland	KT281733	-	KT281689	KT281644	KT281779
LG1333	<i>Sticta canariensis (cyanomorph)</i>	Canary Islands	KT281700	-	KT281658	KT281612	KT281752
LG0962	<i>Sticta caperata</i>	Reunion	JQ735979	-	JQ736012	JQ735996	KT281745
DNA14494	<i>Sticta carolinensis 1</i>	U.S.A	-	MF984234	MG754116	MG063074	-
LG3302	<i>Sticta carolinensis</i>	U.S.A.	KT281724	-	KT281680	KT281635	KT281786

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
DNA6237	<i>Sticta cf. lhermineri</i>	Colombia	MG367393	MF984331	-	MG063009	-
DNA5560	<i>Sticta cf. ocaniensis</i>	Colombia	KC732654	-	-	MG062997	-
DNA5027	<i>Sticta cf. sinuosa</i>	Colombia	KC732554	MF984296	-	MG062977	-
JM112	<i>Sticta ciliata</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367375	MF984323	-	MG063038	-
LG1605	<i>Sticta ciliata 1</i>	Rwanda	KT281717	-	KT281673	KT281629	KT281763
LG2751	<i>Sticta ciliata 2</i>	Canary Islands	KT281712	-	KT281668	KT281624	-
LG3099	<i>Sticta ciliata 3</i>	Azores	KT281715	-	KT281671	KT281627	KT281762
LG3406	<i>Sticta ciliata 4</i>	Canary Islands	KT281713	-	KT281669	KT281625	KT281780
LG3539	<i>Sticta ciliata 5</i>	France	KT281718	-	KT281674	KT281630	KT281774
LG3542	<i>Sticta ciliata 6</i>	France	KT281714	-	KT281670	KT281626	KT281772
LG3781	<i>Sticta ciliata 7</i>	Ireland	KT281716	-	KT281672	KT281628	KT281773
LG3830	<i>Sticta ciliata 8</i>	Canary Islands	KT281719	-	KT281675	KT281631	KT281775
DNA6336	<i>Sticta ciliosylvatica</i>	Colombia	MG367395	MF984205	-	MG063060	-
DNA12977	<i>Sticta cinereoglauca</i>	New Zealand	MG367380	MF984224	-	MG063027	-
DNA13835	<i>Sticta cinereoglauca 1</i>	New Zealand	MF373794	MF984242	MG754139	MG063028	-
DNA13863	<i>Sticta cinereoglauca 2</i>	New Zealand	MF373798	MF984241	MG754140	MG063029	-
DNA5526	<i>Sticta cometia</i>	Colombia	KC732626	MF984222	MG754178	MG062927	-
DNA4977	<i>Sticta cometiella</i>	Colombia	KC732517	MF984221	MG754177	MG062926	-
DNA6179	<i>Sticta delicatula</i>	Colombia	MG367391	MF984237	MG754119	MG062998	-
DNA13506	<i>Sticta dendroides</i> (cyanomorph)	New Zealand	-	MF984233	-	MG063073	-
DNA13875	<i>Sticta dendroides</i> (cyanomorph) 1	New Zealand	MF373799	MF984272	MG754188	MG063025	-
DNA13881	<i>Sticta dendroides</i> (cyanomorph) 2	New Zealand	MF373805	MF984253	-	MG063026	-
DNA6358	<i>Sticta densiphyllidiata</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367398	MF984239	-	MG062987	-
LG0945	<i>Sticta dichotoma</i>	Reunion	JQ735981	-	JQ736014	JQ735998	KT281743

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
LG0984	<i>Sticta dichotoma</i> 2	Reunion	JQ735982	-	JQ736015	JQ735999	KT281746
DNA5550	<i>Sticta dilatata</i>	Colombia	KC732647	-	MG754125	MG063057	-
DNA4945	<i>Sticta dioica</i>	Colombia	KC732486	-	-	MG062973	-
DNA5015	<i>Sticta dioica</i> 1	Colombia	KC732546	MF984246	MG754105	MG062974	MG754083
LG1040	<i>Sticta duplolibata</i>	Reunion	JQ735984	-	JQ736001	JQ736017	KT281751
LG0919	<i>Sticta duplolibata</i> 2	Rwanda	KT281696	-	KT281654	KT281651	KT281741
DNA12973	<i>Sticta filix</i>	New Zealand	MG367379	MF984228	-	MG063010	-
DNA13779	<i>Sticta filix</i> 1	New Zealand	MF373766	-	-	MG063011	-
DNA4907	<i>Sticta fuliginoides</i> 4	Wales	KC732454	MF984215	-	MG063047	-
LG1421	<i>Sticta fuliginoides</i>	France	KT281701	-	KT281659	KT281613	KT281753
LG3012	<i>Sticta fuliginoides</i> 1	Canary Islands	KT281722	-	KT281678	KT281634	KT281765
LG3551	<i>Sticta fuliginoides</i> 2	France	KT281729	-	KT281685	KT281640	KT281777
LG3733	<i>Sticta fuliginoides</i> 3	Ireland	KT281732	-	KT281688	KT281643	KT281781
LGS4	<i>Sticta fuliginoides</i> 5	Wales	KT281738	-	KT281694	KT281649	KT281785
DNA6226	<i>Sticta</i> Sp. 3	Colombia	KC732709	MF984304	-	MG063048	-
DNA7395	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 9	Brazil	MG367419	MF984303	MG754184	MG062939	-
DNA8112	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 10	Hawaii	MG367426	-	MG754185	MG062941	-
DNA8114	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 11	Hawaii	MG367427	MF984300	MG754186	MG062944	-
DNA8162	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 12	Hawaii	MG367432	MF984301	MG754182	MG062942	-
LG1611	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 2	Rwanda	KT281702	-	KT281660	KT281614	KT281754
LG1952	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 3	South Africa	KT281703	-	KT281661	KT281615	KT281755
LG3010	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 4	Canary Islands	KT281721	-	KT281677	KT281633	KT281776
LG3100	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 5	Azores	KT281704	-	KT281662	KT281616	KT281756
LG3537	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 6	France	KT281727	-	KT281683	KT281638	KT281766
LG3729	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 7	Ireland	KT281731	-	KT281687	KT281642	KT281768
LG795	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i>	Madagascar	KT281695	-	KT281653	KT281609	KT281740
LGS9	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 8	Wales	KT281739	-	-	KT281650	KT281769

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
LG0989	<i>Sticta fuliginosa</i> 1	Reunion	KT281698	-	KT281656	KT281610	KT281747
DNA5568	<i>Sticta fuscotomentosa</i>	Colombia	KC732661	MF984280	MG754126	MG063070	-
DNA4959	<i>Sticta gallowayana</i>	Colombia	KC732496	MF984285	-	MG062934	MG754087
DNA5475	<i>Sticta globulifuliginosa</i>	Colombia	KC732608	-	-	MG062924	-
DNA5444	<i>Sticta guascensis</i>	Colombia	KC732581	MF984289	MG754150	MG062928	-
DNA5457	<i>Sticta gyalocarpa</i>	Colombia	KC732594	MF984327	MG754111	MG063043	MG754089
DNA7250	<i>Sticta gyalocarpoides</i>	Costa Rica	MG367403	MF984326	-	MG063044	-
DNA5477	<i>Sticta hirsutofuliginosa</i>	Colombia	KC732610	MF984311	MG754152	MG062950	-
DNA6199	<i>Sticta humboldtii</i>	Colombia	KC732702	MF984312	MG754118	MG062951	-
DNA5586	<i>Sticta hypoglabra</i>	Colombia	KC732667	MF984322	MG754104	MG063001	-
DNA5549	<i>Sticta impressula</i>	Colombia	KC732646	MF984287	MG754110	MG062931	-
DNA7291	<i>Sticta inversa</i>	Colombia	MG367407	MF984213	-	-	-
DNA6339	<i>Sticta isidioimpressula</i>	Colombia	KC732761	MF984219	-	MG062936	-
DNA4982	<i>Sticta isidiokunthii</i>	Colombia	KC732522	MF984288	MG754189	MG062930	MG754088
DNA8081	<i>Sticta isidiopedunculata</i>	Hawaii	MG367425	MF984211	MG754137	MG063037	-
DNA5607	<i>Sticta jaguirreana</i>	Colombia	MG754195	-	MG754162	MG062999	-
DNA7223	<i>Sticta laciniata</i>	Costa Rica	MG367399	-	MG754179	MG062984	-
DNA7301	<i>Sticta laevis</i>	Colombia	MG367409	MF984206	-	MG063052	-
DNA5589	<i>Sticta laselvae</i>	Colombia	KC732673	MF984269	MG754145	MG063008	-
DNA13538	<i>Sticta latifrons</i>	New Zealand	MF373763	MF984230	MG754173	MG063015	-
DNA13876	<i>Sticta latifrons</i> (cyanomorph)	New Zealand	MF373800	-	-	MG063016	-
DNA5460	<i>Sticta leucoblepharis</i>	Colombia	KC732597	MF984276	-	MG063063	-
DNA8131	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 6	Hawaii	MG367428	MF984298	MG754181	MG062940	-
LG2230	<i>Sticta limbata</i>	Canary Islands	KT281706	-	KT281664	KT281618	KT281758
LG2690	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 1	Scotland	KT281707	-	KT281665	KT281619	KT281759
LG2749	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 2	Canary Islands	KT281708	-	KT281666	KT281620	KT281760

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
LG3105	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 3	Azores	KT281709	-	KT281667	KT281621	-
LG3170	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 7	Canada	KT281710	-	-	KT281622	-
LG3544	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 4	France	KT281728	-	KT281684	KT281639	KT281767
LG3868	<i>Sticta limbata</i> 5	Azores	KT281711	-	-	KT281623	KT281761
DNA5028	<i>Sticta lobarioides</i>	Colombia	KC732555	MF984238	MG754113	MG062992	-
DNA4939	<i>Sticta lobulata</i>	Colombia	KC732482	MF984271	MG754098	MG062960	-
DNA6279	<i>Sticta lobulata</i> 1	Colombia	KC732727	-	-	MG062961	-
DNA5436	<i>Sticta lumbschii</i>	Colombia	KC732575	MF984212	MG754124	MG063055	-
DNA5569	<i>Sticta macrocyphellata</i>	Colombia	KC732662	MF984313	-	MG063056	-
DNA5511	<i>Sticta macrogyalocarpa</i>	Colombia	KC732619	-	MG754092	MG063045	MG754090
LG0946	<i>Sticta macrophylla</i>	Reunion	JQ735985	-	JQ736018	JQ736002	KT281744
DNA5539	<i>Sticta macrothallina</i>	Colombia	KC732629	MF984208	MG754122	MG063034	-
DNA5562	<i>Sticta macrothallina</i> 1	Colombia	KC732637	-	MG754107	MG063033	-
DNA5529	<i>Sticta macrothallina</i> (cyanomorph)	Colombia	KC732655	MF984314	MG754106	MG063032	-
DNA4975	<i>Sticta maculofuliginosa</i>	Colombia	KC732514	MF984235	-	-	-
DNA8052	<i>Sticta</i> <i>maculohyposcrobiculata</i>	Hawaii	MG367423	MF984302	MG754093	MG062922	-
LG1023	<i>Sticta marginalis</i>	Reunion	JQ735980	-	JQ736013	JQ735997	KT281748
DNA7378	<i>Sticta marilandia</i>	Ecuador	MG367415	MF984251	MG754160	MG062971	-
DNA13522	<i>Sticta menziesii</i>	New Zealand	MF373761	MF984225	MG754191	MG063013	-
DNA13829	<i>Sticta menziesii</i> 1	New Zealand	MF373788	MF984254	-	MG063014	-
DNA13430	<i>Sticta menziesii</i> (cyanomorph)	New Zealand	-	MF984255	-	MG063075	-
DNA13883	<i>Sticta menziesii</i> (cyanomorph) 1	New Zealand	-	MF984257	-	MG063076	-
DNA5474	<i>Sticta microisidiata</i>	Colombia	KC732607	MF984324	MG754144	MG063039	-

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
DNA6186	<i>Sticta microisidiata 1</i>	Colombia	KC732699	MF984325	-	MG063040	-
DNA5446	<i>Sticta minutula</i>	Colombia	KC732583	MF984297	-	MG063042	-
DNA5003	<i>Sticta montana</i>	Colombia	KC732537	MF984248	MG754099	MG062967	MG754084
DNA5010	<i>Sticta montana 1</i>	Colombia	MG367388	MF984249	MG754100	MG062970	MG754086
DNA5017	<i>Sticta montana 2</i>	Colombia	KC732548	MF984247	MG754101	MG062966	-
DNA5605	<i>Sticta montana 3</i>	Colombia	KC732688	MF984321	MG754161	MG062969	-
DNA6229	<i>Sticta montana 4</i>	Colombia	KC732712	-	-	MG062975	-
DNA6326	<i>Sticta montana 5</i>	Colombia	KC732753	MF984250	MG754159	MG062972	MG754085
DNA6327	<i>Sticta montana 6</i>	Colombia	MG367394	MF984245	MG754163	MG062968	-
DNA5524	<i>Sticta neopulmonarioides</i>	Colombia	KC732625	MF984204	MG754115	-	-
DNA5528	<i>Sticta neopulmonarioides1</i>	Colombia	KC732628	-	-	MG062989	-
DNA5537	<i>Sticta neopulmonarioides (cyanomorph)</i>	Colombia	KC732636	MF984236	-	MG062993	-
DNA5557	<i>Sticta neopulmonarioides (cyanomorph) 1</i>	Colombia	KC732651	-	-	MG062994	-
DNA5558	<i>Sticta neopulmonarioides (cyanomorph) 2</i>	Colombia	KC732652	-	-	MG062995	-
DNA5021	<i>Sticta papillata</i>	Colombia	KC732552	MF984232	MG754123	MG063053	-
DNA7371	<i>Sticta papillata 1</i>	Colombia	MG367414	MF984283	MG754133	MG063054	-
DNA5019	<i>Sticta parahumboldtii</i>	Colombia	KC732550	MF984308	MG754151	MG062949	-
DNA4921	<i>Sticta paralimbata</i>	Colombia	KC732466	-	-	MG062959	-
DNA4958	<i>Sticta phyllidiofuliginosa</i>	Colombia	KC732495	MF984329	-	-	-
DNA5456	<i>Sticta phyllidiokunthii</i>	Colombia	KC732593	MF984291	MG754112	MG062932	-
DNA5540	<i>Sticta phyllidiokunthii (chloromorph)</i>	Colombia	KC732638	MF984286	MG754109	MG062933	-
DNA6346	<i>Sticta plumbeociliata</i>	Colombia	KC732767	MF984290	-	MG062935	-

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
DNA4934	<i>Sticta pseudobeauvoisii</i>	Colombia	KC732478	MF984265	MG754143	MG063007	-
DNA7254	<i>Sticta pseudodilatata</i>	Costa Rica	MG367405	MF984214	MG754127	MG063058	-
DNA6299	<i>Sticta pseudohumboldtii</i>	Colombia	KC732736	MF984307	-	MG062947	-
DNA4922	<i>Sticta pseudolimbata</i>	Colombia	KC732467	MF984316	MG754142	MG062955	-
DNA5556	<i>Sticta pseudolobaria</i>	Colombia	KC732650	-	-	MG062996	-
DNA6276	<i>Sticta pseudosylvatica</i>	Colombia	KC732724	MF984335	-	MG062953	-
DNA6198	<i>Sticta puracensis</i>	Colombia	KC732701	MF984243	MG754175	-	-
DNA4953	<i>Sticta rhizinata</i>	Colombia	KC732491	-	MG754097	MG062962	-
DNA7357	<i>Sticta roseocyphellata</i>	Colombia	MG367412	MF984207	MG754176	MG062938	-
JM121	<i>Sticta scabrosa</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367374	MF984334	-	MG063002	-
DNA4948	<i>Sticta scabrosa 1</i>	Colombia	MG367387	MF984258	-	-	-
DNA8042	<i>Sticta scabrosa/hawaiiensis</i>	Hawaii	MG367422	-	MG754148	MG063003	-
DNA8150	<i>Sticta scabrosa/hawaiiensis 1</i>	Hawaii	MG367429	MF984266	MG754147	MG063004	-
DNA8152	<i>Sticta scabrosa/hawaiiensis 2</i>	Hawaii	MG367431	MF984267	MG754149	MG063005	-
DNA8195	<i>Sticta scabrosa/hawaiiensis 3</i>	Hawaii	MG367430	MF984268	MG754146	MG063006	-
JM114	<i>Sticta schizophylliza</i>	Puerto Rico	MG367376	MF984281	-	MG063071	-
DNA6356	<i>Sticta schizophylliza 1</i>	Puerto Rico	KC732774	MF984282	MG754190	MG063072	-
DNA5405	<i>Sticta sp.</i>	Brazil	KC732568	MF984319	-	MG062954	-
DNA7297	<i>Sticta sp.1</i>	Colombia	MG367408	MF984209	MG754174	MG063061	-
DNA7351	<i>Sticta sp.</i>	Colombia	MG367411	-	MG754153	-	-
DNA7384	<i>Sticta sp.</i>	Brazil	MG367417	-	-	MG063000	-
DNA7389	<i>Sticta sp. 2</i>	Brazil	MG367418	MF984294	MG754183	MG062945	-
DNA8047	<i>Sticta sp.</i>	Hawaii	MG754196	-	MG754095	MG062921	-

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	MCM7	mtSSU	nuLSU	RPB1
LG2229	<i>Sticta</i> sp.	Canary Islands	KT281705	-	KT281663	KT281617	KT281757
LG2752	<i>Sticta</i> sp.	Canary Islands	KT281720	-	KT281676	KT281632	KT281764
LG3173	<i>Sticta</i> sp.	Canada	KT281723	-	KT281679	-	-
JM130	<i>Sticta</i> sp. nov.	Puerto Rico	MG367373	MF984275	-	MG062986	-
DNA13526	<i>Sticta squamata</i>	New Zealand	MG367381	MF984260	MG754138	MG063030	-
DNA13528	<i>Sticta squamata</i>	New Zealand	MG367382	MF984226	MG754168	MG063031	-
DNA4925	<i>Sticta squamifera</i>	Colombia	KC732470	MF984217	-	MG062965	-
DNA14462	<i>Sticta stipitata</i>	Australia	MG754197	MF984274	MG754141	MG063024	-
DNA13537	<i>Sticta subcaperata</i>	New Zealand	MG754198	MF984231	MG754169	MG063017	-
DNA13860	<i>Sticta subcaperata 1</i>	New Zealand	MG754199	-	MG754170	MG063023	-
DNA13861	<i>Sticta subcaperata 2</i>	New Zealand	MG754200	MF984273	-	MG063022	-
DNA13864	<i>Sticta subcaperata 3</i>	New Zealand	MG367385	MF984261	-	MG063020	-
DNA5579	<i>Sticta subfilicinella</i>	Colombia	KT354937	-	-	MG063064	-
LG1038	<i>Sticta sublimbata 1</i>	Reunion	KT281699	-	KT281657	KT281611	KT281750
LG0885	<i>Sticta sublimbata</i>	DR Congo	JQ735986	-	JQ736019	JQ736003	KT281771
DNA6292	<i>Sticta sublimbatoides</i>	Colombia	KC732732	MF984333	-	MG062964	-
LG3536	<i>Sticta sylvatica</i>	France	KT281726	-	KT281682	KT281637	KT281788
LG3723	<i>Sticta sylvatica 1</i>	Great Britain	KT281730	-	KT281686	KT281641	KT281778
LG3780	<i>Sticta sylvatica 2</i>	Ireland	KT281735	-	KT281691	KT281646	KT281782
LG3837	<i>Sticta sylvatica 3</i>	France	KT281736	-	KT281692	KT281647	KT281783
DNA5608	<i>Sticta tomentosa</i>	Colombia	KC732690	MF984279	MG754128	MG063065	-
DNA8041	<i>Sticta tomentosa/hawaiiensis</i>	Hawaii	MG367420	-	MG754130	MG063066	-
DNA8078	<i>Sticta tomentosa/hawaiiensis 1</i>	Hawaii	MG367424	MF984278	MG754131	MG063069	-
DNA8079	<i>Sticta tomentosa/hawaiiensis 2</i>	Hawaii	MG367421	MF984277	MG754132	MG063067	-



TABLE VI, CONTINUED

ID	Taxon	Country of collection	ITS	<i>MCM7</i>	mtSSU	nuLSU	<i>RPB1</i>
DNA8184	<i>Sticta</i> <i>tomentosa/hawaiiensis 3</i>	Hawaii	MG367433	-	MG754129	MG063068	-
LG0925	<i>Sticta umbilicariaeformis</i>	Rwanda	KT281697	-	KT281655	KT281652	KT281742
LG1037	<i>Sticta variabilis</i>	Reunion	JQ735987	-	JQ736020	JQ736004	KT281749
DNA5593	<i>Sticta viviana</i>	Colombia	KC732680	-	MG754155	MG062925	-
DNA4940	<i>Sticta weigelii</i>	Colombia	KC732483	MF984262	MG754102	MG062982	-
DNA6187	<i>Sticta weigelii 1</i>	Colombia	MG367392	MF984293	MG754166	MG062979	-
DNA7358	<i>Sticta weigelii 2</i>	Colombia	MG367413	-	MG754164	MG062981	-

### **3.2.2 DNA isolation, polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification, and sequencing**

DNA was isolated from small portions of thallus using the ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA MiniPrep<sup>®</sup> (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA). The internal transcribed spacer (ITS ~ 550 bp, N = 219), ribosomal DNA from the mitochondrial small subunit (mtSSU ~ 800 bp, N = 153) and the nuclear large subunit (nuLSU ~ 550 bp, N = 212) were amplified, along with two low-copy nuclear protein coding genes: DNA replication licensing factor (*MCM7* ~ 600 bp, N = 134) and RNA polymerase beta subunit one (RPBI ~ 1000 bp, N = 60). All PCR amplifications were carried out using MyTaq<sup>™</sup> Red DNA Polymerase (Bioline, Taunton, MA, USA). Primers and PCR conditions are summarized in Table VII. Due to poor sequencing results using previously described primers (Mangold et al. 2008; Vilgalys and Hester 1990; Zoller, Scheidegger, and Sperisen 1999), new *Sticta*-specific primers were developed for these loci (Table VII) which increased amplification success. Products that produced high quality PCR bands in agarose gel

electrophoresis were cleaned with ExoSAP-IT (USB, Cleveland, OH, USA), following the manufacturer's instructions. Cycle sequencing reactions were carried out using BigDye v3.1 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and products were cleaned using an alcohol precipitation method. Sequencing of amplified products was conducted with an ABI 3730 automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems) at the Field Museum in Chicago, IL, USA.

TABLE VII. Polymerase chain reaction primers and annealing temperatures used in this study.

Marker	Primer Name	Forward Primer Sequence	Annealing Temperature (C)	Reference
ITS	ITS1F	CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA	48	Zoller et al. (1999)
	ITS4	TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC		
ITS	ITS_ <i>Sticta</i> _F	GATTTTGTGGGTGGTGGTGC	53	This study
	ITS_ <i>Sticta</i> _R	TTAACCTCGCGTTCGGTTCA		
mtSSU	mrSSU1	AGCAGTGAGGAATATTGGTC	50	Zoller et al. (1999)
	mrSSU3	ATGTGGCACGTCTATAGCCC		
mtSSU	mtSSU_ <i>Sticta</i> _F	CTTGAGGAATGAAAAGCAATAGC	43	This study
	mtSSU_ <i>Sticta</i> _R	TGATGACTTGTCATGTTCCCTCT		
nuLSU	AL2R	GCGAGTGAAGCGGCAACAGCTC	55	Mangold et al. (2008)
	LR3	GGTCCGTGTTTCAAGAC		Vilgalys & Hester (1990)
nuLSU	nuLSU_ <i>Sticta</i> _F	CCAACAGGGATTGCCTCAGT	53	This study
	nuLSU_ <i>Sticta</i> _R	ATTACGCCAGCATCCTAGCC		
MCM7	MCM7_ <i>Sticta</i> _F	AAGCCATCGGTGCAGGTAAA	65	This study
	MCM7_ <i>Sticta</i> _R	CGATTAGCCACACCAGGGT		

### **3.2.3 Sequence alignment**

Sequences were assembled and edited using Geneious 8.1.7 (Kearse et al. 2012). All sequences were confirmed as being *Sticta* using Genbank's BLASTn suite (Benson et al. 2013). Multiple sequence alignment was conducted using the MAFFT 7.017 (Katoh and Standley 2013) plugin in Geneious 8.1.7 under default settings. Alignments of ITS and mtSSU were reduced by deleting ambiguously aligned regions using the Gblocks 0.91b server (Castresana 2000), selecting all options for less stringent selection (allowing for smaller final blocks, gap positions within the final blocks, and less strict flanking positions). Each single locus alignment was

analyzed using the RaxML 8.2.11 (Stamatakis 2014) plugin in Geneious, each with 100 bootstrap replicates to check for any well-supported conflict among the single locus trees. Four separate concatenated alignments were produced to see how missing data and number of tips affect the estimation of divergence times in *Sticta*. Three alignments were concatenated in Geneious with five loci (ITS, *MCM7*, mtSSU, nuLSU, and *RPB1*) having 224, 196, and 118 samples and decreasing amounts of missing loci respectively (Table VIII). A three-locus concatenated dataset containing sequences of ITS, mtSSU and nuLSU of 147 samples was assembled, producing a dataset with no missing loci. The software JModelTest 2.1.10 (Darriba et al. 2012) was used to determine the best-fit nucleotide substitution models for each locus in each of the four alignments (Table VIII).

TABLE VIII. ALIGNMENT INFORMATION AND NUCLEOTIDE EVOLUTION MODELS USED FOR ANALYSES.

# of specimens	missing loci	Locus	Aligned length	# in matrix	jModelTest AIC model selection
<b>224</b>	30.54%	ITS	450	218	TIM1+I+G
		<i>MCM7</i>	616	133	TrN+I+G
		mtSSU	673	155	TPM1uf+I+G
		nuLSU	558	211	GTR+I+G
		<i>RPB1</i>	1111	61	TIM3+G
		<b>Total</b>	<b>3408</b>	<b>778</b>	
<b>196</b>	26.22%	ITS	452	194	TIM1+I+G
		<i>MCM7</i>	616	123	TrNef+I+G
		mtSSU	673	153	TIM3+I+G
		nuLSU	558	192	TIM2+I+G
		<i>RPB1</i>	1111	61	TrN+G
		<b>Total</b>	<b>3410</b>	<b>723</b>	
<b>118</b>	26.95%	ITS	452	116	TIM1+I+G
		<i>MCM7</i>	616	86	TVMef+I+G
		mtSSU	673	87	TIM3+I+G
		nuLSU	558	115	TIM2+I+G
		<i>RPB1</i>	1111	27	TrN+G
		<b>Total</b>	<b>3410</b>	<b>431</b>	
<b>147</b>	0.00%	ITS	450	147	GTR+G
		mtSSU	673	147	TPM3uf+I+G
		nuLSU	558	147	TIM2+I+G
		<b>Total</b>	<b>1681</b>	<b>441</b>	

### **3.2.4 Phylogenetic analyses, molecular dating and calibrations**

Divergence time estimates were estimated in BEAST 2.1 (Bouckaert et al. 2014) using the four concatenated matrices described above (Table VIII). We used secondary calibrations from (Gaya et al. 2015) who estimated a chronogram of Eukaryotes using five loci; the tree was calibrated using eight fossils, two molecular-based calibrations, and forced monophyly at some nodes. The chronogram has representative specimens from the Lobariaceae, with *Lobaria scrobiculata* diverging from *Pseudocyphellaria anomala* and *Sticta beauvoisii* nearly  $62.5 \pm 20$  Mya and *Sticta* diverged from *Pseudocyphellaria* nearly  $40 \pm 20$  Mya. These estimates were used to calibrate the four alignments at the out-group nodes of *Lobaria pulmonaria* and *Pseudocyphellaria crinita*.

Input files were prepared in BEAUti (Bouckaert et al. 2014). For each analysis, clock models and trees were linked for the five loci and the model of DNA evolution, inferred in JModelTest (Table VIII) were strictly used (transitions were not estimated) for site models while nucleotide frequencies were estimated for each locus. In each analysis, a relaxed lognormal molecular clock was applied, and each run began with a random starting tree.

Different priors (yule, calibrated yule and birth/death) were initially tested in exploratory analyses with the 118-specimen dataset to examine their effect on the estimation of divergence times. For comparison of the four alignments we only used a yule prior, which assumes a constant speciation rate per lineage. *Sticta* was monophyletic in exploratory Bayesian and ML analyses, thus *Sticta* was forced to be monophyletic and the node calibration was set to a lognormal distribution at 40 Mya (M parameter = 3.69; S parameter = 0.4). Another calibration forced the monophyly of *Pseudocyphellaria crinita* plus all *Sticta* specimens and was set under a lognormal distribution to 62.5 Mya (M parameter = 4.135; S parameter = 0.4). Each analysis was

run in triplicate for 100,000,000 generations with log and tree samples saved every 10,000th generation. We used Tracer 1.6 (Rambaut et al. 2014) to estimate run convergence, determine the burn-in cutoff (10% for each analysis), and to obtain effective sampling sizes (ESS) of the estimated parameters (an ESS > 200 was considered appropriate for use in this study). Posterior probabilities of the nodes were calculated with the sampled trees after the burn-in. If all replicates converged, one of the runs was used to produce a maximum-clade-credibility tree in TreeAnnotator 2 (Rambaut and Drummond 2013).

In addition to using secondary calibrations from (Gaya et al. 2015), we analyzed the 118-specimen dataset using a molecular evolution rate of  $2.43 \times 10^9$  substitution/site/year (s/s/y) for the ITS locus that were established by (Leavitt et al. 2012) for the Parmeliaceae. Although the Parmeliaceae is distantly related to the Lobariaceae, we assumed that the rates were comparable, as similar rates of molecular evolution ( $2.52 \times 10^9$  sys/y) have been reported in the distantly related powdery-mildews by (Takamatsu and Matsuda 2004). Analyses were run in triplicate as described above on the 118-specimen dataset.

### **3.2.5 Biogeographic analyses and ancestral area reconstruction**

We used character mapping on the 118-tip time-calibrated phylogeny to investigate major radiations and major dispersal events of *Sticta*. Species were coded as present or absent from four broad geographic regions (New World, Old World, Australasian, and Hawaii). The data for this geographic character coding was determined by searching for geographic ranges in species descriptions in the literature (Brodo, Sharnoff, and Sharnoff 2001; Galloway 2007, 2006, 1998, 1997, 1994; Galloway, Stenroos, and Ferraro 1995; Galloway and Thomas 2001; Magain and Srusiaux 2015; McDonald, Miadlikowska, and Lutzoni 2003; Moncada, Lcking, and Surez 2014; Moncada, Coca, and Lcking 2013; Moncada, Lcking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013;

Moncada and Lücking 2012; Nash et al. 2004; Simon et al. 2018; Smith et al. 2009; Suarez and Lücking 2013). To reconstruct the ancestral ranges for the major clades, we used a dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis (DEC) model implemented in Lagrange (Ree and Smith 2008) using the same four-region character coding. In the continuous-time DEC model, range expansion is achieved through dispersal while range contraction is caused by extinction. Due to the highly dispersive nature of lichens and the cosmopolitan distribution of some species (*S. fuliginosa*, *S. limbata*, and *S. tomentosa*), max range sizes and dispersal were unconstrained. The most probable ancestral range of each major clade was mapped onto the phylogeny.

### **3.2.6 Diversification Analyses**

We investigated diversification dynamics with the software Bayesian Analysis of Macroevolutionary Mixtures (BAMM; (Rabosky 2014)). BAMM can detect heterogeneity in speciation and extinction rates along the branches of a time-calibrated phylogeny using reversible MCMC, which explores all possible rate shift configurations and returns the posterior distribution. We used the 118-tip time-calibrated phylogeny as input and adjusted for incomplete sampling at the clade level using the “SamplesProbsFilename” argument in the control file (Clades I, II, and III, 75%; Clade IV, 50%; Clade V, 12.5%; *Pseudocyphellaria*, 0.5%; *Lobaria* 1%; see result section for the clade I, II, III, and IV). We also ran the analysis without the outgroup, removed with the `drop.tips()` function in the R package APE (Paradis, Claude, and Strimmer 2004) and obtained similar results. The BAMMtools v. 2.1.5 package in R (Rabosky et al. 2014) was used to determine the priors for the tree with the `setBAMMPriors()` command. We ran two parallel chains of 10,000,000 generations, sampling every 5000th tree. Further analyses of the BAMM output files (“mcmcout” and “eventdata”) were examined in the BAMMtools v. 2.1.5 package in R. Twenty percent of trees were discarded as burnin and ESS values were



estimated using the coda v. 0.18-1 package in R using the “mcmcout” file as an input. The “eventdata” file was used to visualize phylorate plots which depict diversification rates along the branches. Net diversification rate through time plots were generated using the `plotRateThroughTime()` function.

### **3.2.7 Binary state speciation and extinction (BiSSE) analyses**

#### **3.2.7.1 Primary photobiont association**

To investigate how primary photobiont association affects diversification in *Sticta*, we performed a BiSSE analysis (Maddison, Midford, and Otto 2007), implemented in the R package *diversitree* (FitzJohn 2012). Primary photobiont, the photobiont (green algal or cyanobacterial) that is most frequently found to associate with a species, was determined by a literature search of species descriptions (Brodo, Sharnoff, and Sharnoff 2001; Galloway 2007, 2006, 1998, 1997, 1994; Galloway, Stenroos, and Ferraro 1995; D J Galloway and Thomas 2001; Magain and Srusiaux 2015; McDonald, Miadlikowska, and Lutzoni 2003; Moncada, Reidy, and Lcking 2014; Moncada, Coca, and Lcking 2013; Moncada, Lcking, and Betancourt-Macuase 2013; Moncada and Lcking 2012; Nash et al. 2004; Smith et al. 2009; Suarez and Lucking 2013). In the case of species that are yet to be described, the authors were contacted in order to determine primary photobiont (Robert Lcking, personal communication). Although some species form photosymbiodemes, each of these species are mostly in association with one photobiont or another and these were scored accordingly in the BiSSE analyses. The BiSSE model estimates state-specific rates of character transition ( $q_{01}$  and  $q_{10}$ ), speciation ( $\lambda$ ) and extinction ( $\mu$ ). Species primarily associated with cyanobacteria were assigned “0” and species with green algal associations were assigned “1”. Since this dataset has a large asymmetry in character state (93 cyanobacterial species to 25 green algal species) and less than 300 tips, there is a potential that

there is not enough power in the data to accurately estimate differences in parameters in BiSSE (Davis, Midford, and Maddison 2013). To see how sensitive the results are to changes in the data, we randomized the character state assignment on the phylogeny, keeping the same ratio (See section on measuring Type I error below). Initial runs were conducted with no adjustment for sampling, but since the estimated amount of species in *Sticta* is conservatively estimated to be nearly 400 species (Robert Lücking, personal communication), we adjusted for incomplete sampling by entering a fraction of 30% and 29% sampled species for cyanobacterial and green algal species respectively.

We estimated parameters on an unconstrained model, where all parameters ( $q_{01}$ ,  $q_{10}$ ,  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$ ) were allowed to take any value and a fully constrained model, where all parameters were equal ( $q_{01} = q_{10}$ ,  $\lambda_0 = \lambda_1$ , and  $\mu_0 = \mu_1$ ). To test for irreversible transition between primary photobiont, we set speciation and extinction rates to take on any value for both states and then compared models where transitions were allowed in only one direction ( $q_{01} = 0$  and  $q_{10} = 0$ ) to models that had transitions equal ( $q_{01} = q_{10}$ ) and the full model where transitions take on any value. Equilibrium frequencies of speciation, extinction and transition rates were estimated using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling using the full model described above. We conducted the estimation with a ten-percent burnin (10,000 MCMC steps) and then 1,000,000 step-process to estimate posterior distributions.

### **3.2.7.2 Andean tectonic influence on diversification**

To gain a better understanding of the large New World radiation of *Sticta* (mostly in Clades I, II, and III), for which we suspected that Andean tectonic activity played a major role, we assigned Andean species “1” and extra-Andean taxa “0”. As above, model testing was

conducted and exploratory analyses were performed with and without sampling adjustment, each having similar outcomes.

### **3.2.7.3 Measuring type I error in datasets**

BiSSE analyses can be biased by small sample sizes and asymmetry in character states (Davis, Midford, and Maddison 2013), and is prone to high Type I error rates (Rabosky and Goldberg 2015). To test the sensitivity of our results to both sample size and tip imbalance, we permuted the data 500 times to generate simulated data sets. To each of these simulated data sets we estimated the fit of a model where speciation rates were allowed to vary between states to a model where they were constrained to be equal. We compared to the fit of the two models using likelihood ratio tests. We defined Type I error rate as the proportion of simulated data sets where the free-speciation model was estimated to better explain the data.

## **3.3 Results**

### **3.3.1 Molecular data**

A total of 497 sequences were generated for this study and the other 281 sequences were used in previous studies. Details on number of taxa, unambiguously aligned sites, missing data and JModelTest AIC model selections are summarized in Table VIII. Gblocks removed 233 and 413 ambiguously aligned sites from the ITS and mtSSU datasets respectively. All alignments (individual and combined) are deposited in Treebase (S21378).

### **3.3.2 Phylogenetic analyses**

There was no well-supported conflict among the single-locus trees using RAxML, and concatenated datasets were produced for further analyses. The five-locus datasets analyzed with a Bayesian approach (118, 196, 224-tips) recovered congruent topologies (Figure 6). *Sticta* is a well-supported monophyletic clade in relation to the outgroup species *Pseudocyphellaria crinita*

and *Lobaria pulmonaria*. Within *Sticta*, five well-supported, major clades were recovered. Clades I, II, and III cluster in a well-supported clade sister to clade IV, which contains most of the accessions from Australia and New Zealand. Clade V is sister to the rest of *Sticta*. Backbone support for these five-locus datasets are poor, so phylogenetic relationships among clades should be interpreted with caution. The three-locus data set (147 tips) had different relationships among the major clades where clades IV and V are merged and monophyletic with clades I and III. Clade II is sister to the rest of the specimens. As with the five-locus datasets, backbone support of the three-locus tree was poor. The placement of *Sticta macrothaliana* is ambiguous, but both ML and Bayesian analyses of all datasets suggest that this species forms a distinct lineage.

### **3.3.3 Divergence time analyses**

To see how different priors influence the estimation of divergence times using secondary calibrations, we used the 118-tip dataset to compare the models in BEAST 2.0 (Table IX). Both the yule and births/death models estimated similar divergence times for the calibrated nodes (~30.85 mya for *Sticta* and 46.5 mya for *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta*). The calibrated yule model estimated a similar origin for *Sticta* (30.2 mya), but it recovered an earlier divergence of *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta* from *Lobaria* (65.2 mya). The ITS rate calibrated analysis ( $2.43 \times 10^9$  s/s/y) had similar estimates for the origin of *Sticta* (32.3 mya), but similar to the calibrated yule analysis, the ITS rate estimated the divergence of *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta* to be 63.3 mya.

TABLE IX. DIVERGENCE TIMES ESTIMATED WITH THE 118-TIP DATASET USING RATE CALIBRATED YULE AND SECONDARY CALIBRATIONS WITH YULE, CALIBRATED YULE, AND BIRTH/DEATH PRIORS SET IN BEAST.

Analysis	<i>Sticta</i> (Mya)	<i>Pseudocyphellaria</i> and <i>Sticta</i> (Mya)
ITS rate calibrated (Yule)	32.3	63.3
<b>Analyses using secondary calibrations</b>		
Yule prior	30.8	46.6
Calibrated Yule prior	30.2	65.2
Birth/Death prior	30.9	46.7

Effective sample sizes (ESS), estimated in Tracer, were all well over 200 for all parameters in both the yule and calibrated yule analyses, but in the birth/death and rate calibrated runs, some of the tree likelihoods for individual loci and the combined tree likelihood and posterior were lower than 200. Since a yule prior is a more appropriate model of recent diversification among species level lineages (Drummond et al. 2006), and ESS values were all higher than 200, this prior was used for comparing the four datasets with different amounts of missing data and tips.

All four datasets are compared in Table X. The average origin of *Sticta* is estimated to be 30.0 mya and the origin of *Pseudocyphellaria* and *Sticta* 45.2 mya. All datasets suggest a Miocene dominated diversification of the five major clades in *Sticta* (Table X, Figure 6), but the larger datasets (196 and 224 tips) show diversification throughout and after the Miocene.

TABLE X. DIVERGENCE TIME ESTIMATIONS FROM FOUR DIFFERENT  
CONCATENATED ALIGNMENTS

Dataset	Max loci	Min loci	# Tips	<i>Sticta</i> only (Mya)	<i>Sticta</i> + <i>Pseudocypbellaria</i> (Mya)
Gappy	5	2	224	32.1	44.5
Less gappy	5	3	196	30.2	44.4
Nonredundant	5	3	118	30.8	46.6
Complete	3	3	147	26.8	-

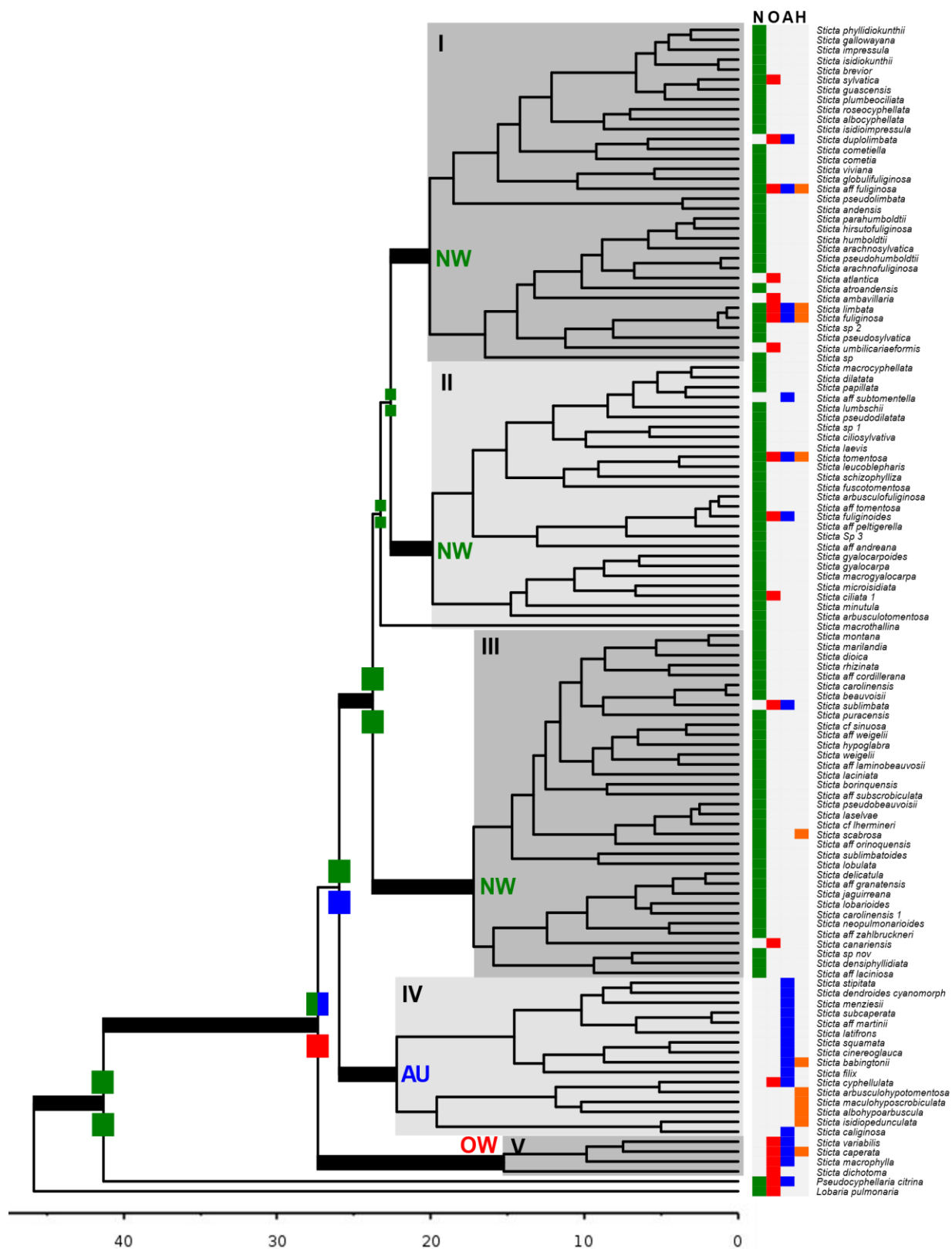


Figure 6. Time-calibrated chronogram of the phylogeny of the genus *Sticta* including 118 tips. Grey boxes circumscribe the major clades I, II, III, IV, and V. Highly supported branches (bootstrap support > 70 and posterior probability > 90) are depicted as thick branches. Four columns of character states for occurrence are coded at the tips of the phylogeny (NW = New World, OW = Old World, AU = Australasian, HA = Hawaii). Ancestral ranges, estimated with the DEC model in Lagrange, are mapped onto the branches indicating species range divergence at the nodes.

### **3.3.4 Biogeographic Analysis**

The 118-tip dataset was used for biogeographic and diversification analyses because it is pruned to have only one individual per species and always had ESS values higher than 200 for all estimated parameters in the BEAST analysis. Geographic character states are mapped onto the 118-tip phylogeny in Figure 6. Geographic structure can be observed; Clades I, II, and III are dominated by New World taxa, suggesting a major radiation in the New World. Similarly, an Australasian radiation of lesser scale, is found in Clade IV. Old World species mostly are found in Clade V, but there seems to be numerous dispersal event from the New World to the Old World. A striking pattern of long-distance dispersal is observed in Hawaiian species, which are represented in every major clade, demonstrating the remarkable dispersal ability of the genus.

Ancestral range reconstructions estimated with the DEC model are mapped onto the phylogeny in Figure 6. Clades I, II and III have ancestral ranges in the New World, Clade IV in Australasia, and Clade V in the Old World. The reconstruction suggests a New World origin for *Sticta*, but this should be interpreted with caution, as backbone support was poor for certain nodes.



### **3.3.5 Diversification analysis**

The ESS obtained from two parallel runs in BAMM were similar and well over 200 and indicated that both runs converged. In the time-calibrated phylogeny of *Sticta*, there were no distinct rate shifts, with the posterior distribution of the number of shifts suggesting zero shifts with a frequency of 0.97. Exploratory analyses run without adjustment for incomplete sampling detected rate shifts in the tree on the ancestral node of *Sticta*. The mean phylorate plot (Figure 7) shows a pattern of decreasing speciation rates through time, but this decrease in rate is low, starting at just below 0.2 lineages per million years and only decreasing slightly through time. On the other hand, extinction rates remained close to zero throughout time.

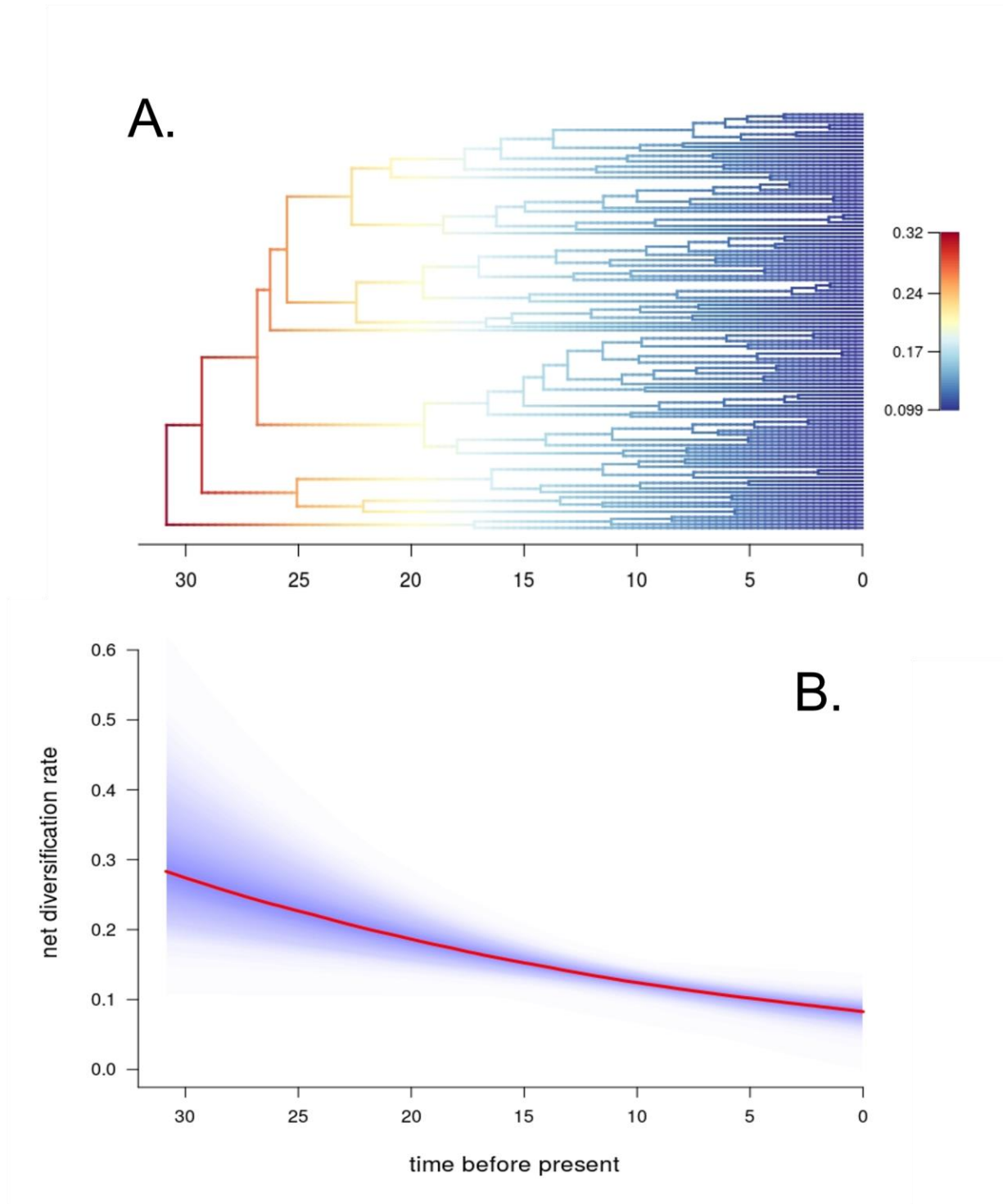


Figure 7. BAMM mean phylorate plot on (A) unrooted *Sticta* phylogeny of 116 tips and (B) a net diversification through time plot.

### **3.3.6 Binary state speciation and extinction (BiSSE) analyses**

#### **3.3.6.1 Primary photobiont association**

Model testing results, including estimated speciation, extinction and transition parameters, for analyses adjusted for sampling and unadjusted are listed in Table XI. Sampling adjustment had no effect on the model selection, but the diversification parameters are different. The distribution of character states on the 118-tip tree is visualized in Figure 8A. All the major clades contain both green algal and cyanobacterial species. Clades I and II are composed mostly of primarily cyanobacterial species, but each major clade has one green algal species. Clade III is the largest and it contains nine green algal species. Clades IV and V are composed mostly of green algal taxa, but they both contain cyanobacterial species too.

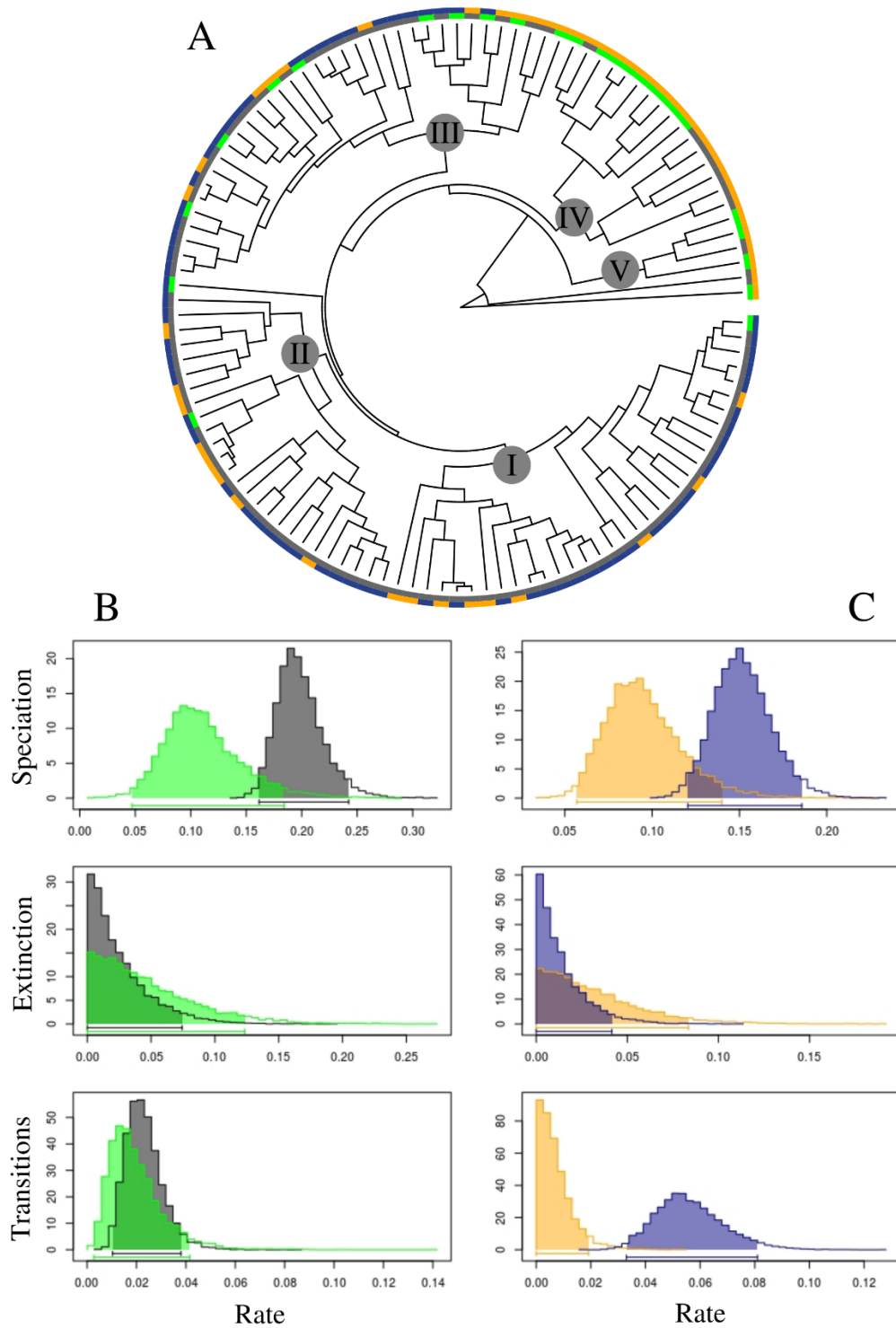


Figure 8. (A) Distribution of character states for photobiont association and Andean tectonic influence mapped onto the tips of the 118-tip phylogeny with the five well-supported major clades labeled at the nodes. Photobiont: Green-algal associations shown in green; cyanobacterial associations shown in grey. Andean tectonic influence: Andean species shown in blue and non-

Andean species shown in orange. (B) Posterior distributions (95%) from a BiSSE MCMC analysis of photobiont associations. The plots are as follows; top = speciation rate, middle = extinction rates, and bottom = transitions. Cyanobacterial associations (“1”) are depicted in grey and green-algal associations (“0”) are in green. (C) Posterior distributions (95%) from a BiSSE MCMC analysis of Andean tectonic associations. The plots are as follows; top = speciation rate, middle = extinction rates, and bottom = transitions. Andean species (“1”) are depicted in blue and non-Andean species (“0”) are in orange.

Regardless of the sampling setting in diversitree, adjusted and unadjusted analyses were congruent (Table XI). Speciation rates were higher for the cyanobacterial state (0) than the green algal state (1), suggesting that cyanobacterial species have a higher speciation rate than green algal species, but there was slight overlap of the posterior distributions (Figure 8B). Both extinction and transition rates were mostly overlapping, indicating that extinction and transitions between primary photobiont are similar regardless of the primary photobiont association.

The “no extinction” and “free-speciation” models had similar likelihoods and AIC scores and fit the tree and state assignments with the highest likelihoods (Table XI). Additionally, these two models produced the same estimates for diversification parameters. Even though it has the best fit, the no extinction model, when testing for Type I error (the inability to determine whether speciation rates are different between photobiont associations), would freeze and all iterations could not be completed, therefore we chose to use the free-speciation model, which only allows for the speciation rates to vary.

TABLE XI. BISSE MODEL TESTING FOR PHOTOBIONT ASSOCIATION WITH ESTIMATIONS OF SPECIATION, EXTINCTION, AND TRANSITION RATES FOR EACH MODEL (CYANOBACTERIAL = '0', GREEN-ALGAL = '1').

No sampling adjustment				speciation		extinction		transitions	
Model	Df	lnLik	AIC	$\lambda_0$	$\lambda_1$	$\mu_0$	$\mu_1$	q01	q10
No extinction ( $\mu_0=0$ , $\mu_1=0$ )	4	-447.38	902.77	0.10	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Free speciation ( $\lambda_0$ and $\lambda_1$ take on any value)	4	-447.47	902.95	0.10	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Equal transition rates (q01=q10)	5	-447.47	904.95	0.10	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Full BiSSE ( $\lambda_0$ , $\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0$ , $\mu_1$ , q01, q10 take on any value)	6	-447.39	906.77	0.10	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Fully constrained ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ , q01=q10)	3	-451.31	908.62	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Mk2 ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ )	4	-451.17	910.33	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.03
unidirectional, green to cyano, (q10=0)	5	-451.11	912.22	0.10	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.00
unidirectional, cyano to green, (q01=0)	5	-460.64	931.28	0.07	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06
Sampling adjustment (cyano 30%, green 29%)				speciation		extinction		transitions	
Model	Df	lnLik	AIC	$\lambda_0$	$\lambda_1$	$\mu_0$	$\mu_1$	q01	q10
No extinction ( $\mu_0=0$ , $\mu_1=0$ )	4	-437.64	883.28	0.18	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Free speciation ( $\lambda_0$ and $\lambda_1$ take on any value)	4	-437.68	883.37	0.18	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Equal transition rates (q01=q10)	5	-437.68	885.35	0.18	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Full BiSSE ( $\lambda_0$ , $\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0$ , $\mu_1$ , q01, q10 take on any value)	6	-437.54	887.09	0.18	0.10	0.00	0.03	0.02	0.01
Fully constrained ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ , q01=q10)	3	-444.16	894.31	0.16	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02
Mk2 ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ )	4	-444.03	896.07	0.16	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.03
unidirectional, green to cyano, (q10=0)	5	-443.29	896.57	0.18	0.08	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.00
unidirectional, cyano to green, (q01=0)	5	-454.00	918.00	0.20	0.17	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.08

In each of the 500 iterations of randomized tip state assignments, the free-speciation model was compared to the fully constrained model using a likelihood ratio test and no matter how the states were distributed, the free-speciation model was better. Therefore, given the phylogeny and the state assignments, our results appear to be driven by Type I error (Table XIX, Appendix B).

### **3.3.6.2 Andean tectonic influence on diversification**

Clades I, II, and III contain mostly New World species, of which, most were collected in the Andes which was tectonically active during the diversification of *Sticta* (Hoorn et al. 2010). We coded the specimens that were collected in the tectonically active region as “1” and those outside as “0”. Model testing results are summarized in Table XII. Adjusting for incomplete sampling did not change which models had the best fit [No extinction ( $p_0 = 0$ ,  $p_l = 0$ ) and Unidirectional, Andean to extra-Andean ( $q_{l0} = 0$ )], but speciation and  $q_{l0}$  parameters increased with the adjustment. In the adjusted analysis, which we used to test for Type I error, speciation and transitions are identical in the three most likely models [No extinction ( $p_0 = 0$ ,  $p_t = 0$ ); Unidirectional, Unidirectional, Andean to extra-Andean, ( $q_{01} = 0$ ); and Full BiSSE (TO, Al,  $p_0$ ,  $q_1$ ,  $q_{0l}$ ,  $q_{l0}$  take on any value)]. As mentioned above, the “No extinction” model is not likely, so we used the “Unidirectional, Andean to extra-Andean, ( $q_{01} = 0$ )” model for testing Type I error. The distribution of Andean species is depicted in Figure 8A. Clades I, II and III contain all of the 67 Andean taxa plus six extra-Andean species. The other 51 extra-Andean taxa are found in clades IV and V and evenly distributed throughout the other three clades. Posterior distributions (95%) found Andean taxa to have a higher speciation rate and a tendency for transitions from Andean to extra-Andean state (Figure 8C). As in the photobiont association analysis, the “no extinction” model had the highest likelihood, but when using it to iterate through random

arrangements of state assignments, it would freeze as some arrangements were to computationally problematic. This was the same for the full model as well. The Unidirectional (q01) model did not have this problem and could successfully iterate through 500 arrangements of tip assignments, having a two percent Type I error rate (Table XX, Appendix B).



TABLE XII. BISSE MODEL TESTING FOR ANDEAN ASSOCIATION WITH ESTIMATIONS OF SPECIATION, EXTINCTION, AND TRANSITION RATES FOR EACH MODEL (NON-ANDEAN = '0', ANDEAN = '1').

No sampling adjustment				speciation		extinction		transitions	
Model	Df	lnLik	AIC	$\lambda_0$	$\lambda_1$	$\mu_0$	$\mu_1$	q01	q10
No extinction ( $\mu_0=0$ , $\mu_1=0$ )	4	-461.4112	930.8224	0.04	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Unidirectional, Andean to extra-Andean, (q01=0)	5	-461.4115	932.8229	0.04	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Full BiSSE ( $\lambda_0$ , $\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0$ , $\mu_1$ , q01, q10 take on any value)	6	-461.4112	934.8225	0.04	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Free speciation ( $\lambda_0$ and $\lambda_1$ take on any value)	4	-466.3794	940.7589	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.03
Equal transition rates (q01=q10)	5	-466.3797	942.7594	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.03
Mk2 ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ )	4	-469.4712	946.9425	0.05	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.03
Fully constrained ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ , q01=q10)	3	-471.6897	949.3795	0.05	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.03
Unidirectional, extra-Andean to Andean, (q10=0)	5	-488.693	987.3861	0.10	0.08	0.00	0.07	0.06	0.00

Sampling adjustment (extra-Andean 43%, Andean 75%)				speciation		extinction		transitions	
Model	Df	lnLik	AIC	$\lambda_0$	$\lambda_1$	$\mu_0$	$\mu_1$	q01	q10
No extinction ( $\mu_0=0$ , $\mu_1=0$ )	4	-460.1327	928.2653	0.08	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05
Unidirectional, Andean to extra-Andean, (q01=0)	5	-460.1022	930.2044	0.08	0.14	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.05
Full BiSSE ( $\lambda_0$ , $\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0$ , $\mu_1$ , q01, q10 take on any value)	6	-460.1025	932.205	0.08	0.14	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.05
Mk2 ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ )	4	-464.3601	936.7201	0.12	0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Fully constrained ( $\lambda_0=\lambda_1$ , $\mu_0=\mu_1$ , q01=q10)	3	-469.1124	944.2247	0.12	0.12	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.04
Free speciation ( $\lambda_0$ and $\lambda_1$ take on any value)	4	-468.5143	945.0287	0.10	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.04
Equal transition rates (q01=q10)	5	-468.4796	946.9591	0.10	0.14	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.04
Unidirectional, extra-Andean to Andean, (q10=0)	5	-479.3274	968.6548	0.15	0.11	0.00	0.13	0.06	0.00

### 3.4 Discussion

We investigated the diversification history of *Sticta* by sampling throughout most of the global range of the genus and constructed a time-calibrated phylogeny. The results suggest an Oligocene origin of *Sticta* and a pattern of relatively higher diversification followed by a slowdown in the present. Collections from Hawaii suggest a high long-distance dispersal rate of the *Sticta*. We also investigated the effects of photobiont association and found that the significant association between speciation rate and cyanobacterial photobionts may result from Type I Error. Additionally, we looked into the effect of Andean uplifting and found that speciation rate is higher among *Sticta* species associated with the Andes. The significant results here are robust even when the effect of sampling bias is considered. In the following sections, we will discuss the timing and geographic location of diversification in *Sticta* and then discuss how intrinsic and extrinsic factors affect diversification.

#### **3.4.1 Oligocene origin, Miocene diversification, and frequent long-distance dispersal in**

##### ***Sticta***

The time tree (Figure 6) shows that *Sticta* originated in the late Oligocene and radiated into five major clades during the Miocene. The Miocene diversification is parallel with other groups of lichens (Amo de Paz et al. 2012; Leavitt et al. 2012; Leavitt, Esslinger, and Lumbsch 2012) and for diversification of many other groups of organisms (Finarelli and Badgley 2010; Nürk et al. 2015; Shaw et al. 2010). In the early Miocene, global temperatures increased until the MMCO (Flower and Kennett 1994). During this time of elevated temperature, ranges for many tropical and sub-tropical organisms expanded towards the poles and into higher elevations. After the MMCO, these tropical ranges retracted back to the equator and into lower elevations, opening up new habitats and niche space for more temperate organisms. Most species of *Sticta*

inhabit temperate rain forests and higher elevations (cooler temperatures) in tropical regions (Moncada, Lücking, and Suárez 2014). These new temperate spaces may have been the ranges where the major lineages of *Sticta* diversified during the Miocene.

*Sticta* species inhabit all continents, except Antarctica, and occur on many oceanic islands. Our results suggested that *Sticta* originated in the New World, but this should be interpreted with caution, as our sampling on the 118-tip phylogeny is not complete and adding more taxa to the tree could influence the result. Additionally, the branch support for the backbone is not resolved on some of the nodes (Figure 6). Also, exploratory analyses that divided up ranges into eight ranges, produced ambiguous results on the origin of the genus, but suggested that either South America, Australia or Madagascar to be potential ancestral ranges (data not shown).

Clade IV is composed of all New Zealand and Australian specimens. This suggests that shortly after the continental separation of Australia, Antarctica and South America, before they assumed their current positions, a lineage of *Sticta* became isolated in the Australasian region. Species of this lineage tend to inhabit temperate rain forest ecosystems of New Zealand, and South Eastern Australia and Tasmania. One member of Clade IV was found in Hawaii, which is interesting since prevailing winds are not in favor of Australasian to Hawaii dispersal and could potentially be a case of avian or ocean current mediated dispersal (Gillespie et al. 2012).

#### **3.4.2 High long-distance dispersal rate of *Sticta***

Hawaiian *Sticta* species in Figure 6, represent up to five independent colonization events. Each colonization of Hawaii originated from one of the five major clades, indicating a high long-distance dispersal ability for species of this genus. Microscopic ascospores and asexual propagules can be carried on the wind during storms and on the feathers and feet of migratory

birds, and even on floating vegetation rafts that become dislodged from land, carrying lichens on ocean currents to other landmasses (Gillespie et al. 2012). Similar to the results in *Sticta*, a previous research on Hawaiian *Pseudocyphellaria* (Moncada, Reidy, and Lücking 2014) also found multiple colonization events (some of which are suspected to be anthropogenic). Furthermore, a study of *Porpidia flavicunda* in North Eastern Canada, Greenland, and Scandinavia suggested frequent and recurrent dispersal across the northern Atlantic (Buschbom 2007) and a study on the *Xanthoparmelia pulla* group (Amo de Paz et al. 2012) found evidence for multiple long-distance dispersal events and subsequent radiation on different continents. Other studies on lichens, however, have found radiations after a single colonization. For example, a study of *Lobariella* found a radiation after from a single colonization in the Hawaiian archipelago (Lücking, Moncada, and Smith 2017) and another found a radiation in Madagascar and the Mascarenes (Simon et al. 2018). It is still unclear why some groups of lichens seem to have high dispersal rates while other do not and our current understanding of distributional ranges in lichens and the factors shaping those are still in its infancy (Leavitt and Lumbsch 2016; Lumbsch 2016). Further investigation into the traits associated with long-distance dispersal would be an interesting line of research for future studies.

### **3.4.3 Decrease in net diversification over time**

BAMM analysis revealed higher diversification rates on the backbone branches of the phylogeny, with rates decreasing towards the present (Figure 7). There were no distinct rate shifts detected by BAMM, only a trend of cooling diversification rates toward present time in every clade, suggesting that all clades diversify at the same rate in *Sticta*. With such high dispersal rates, *Sticta* may have quickly spread throughout the world, filling all available niche space with species and has reached its carrying capacity, but this is a difficult claim to confirm as

thorough sampling has not been conducted in all parts of the world. Another explanation for a slowing of net diversification rates is the changing climate during the Miocene. Diversification rates for *Sticta* were relatively high leading up to the MMCO (~ 18-14 mya) and then they began to decrease after this warmer period. This may indicate that the climatic changes during the Miocene influenced *Sticta* by continuously and gradually slowing down net diversification. However, as Figure 6 shows that *Sticta* diversified mostly during the Miocene, which is a similar scenario observed in the lichen genus *Melanohalea*, that is thought to have increased diversification rates caused by a drier climate and changes in vegetation patterns that occurred during the Miocene (Leavitt et al. 2012; Leavitt, Esslinger, and Lumbsch 2012). Our BAMM result may be misleading due to incomplete sampling. Even though we adjusted for incomplete sampling at the lineage level, this adjustment does not capture the complexity of branching that may be found in under-sampled lineages. Increasing the sampling on the phylogeny may tell a more accurate story and find rate shifts associated with undiscovered radiations.

### **3.4.4 Binary state speciation and extinction (BiSSE) analyses**

#### **3.4.4.1 Primary photobiont association**

Species interactions play a large role in evolution, potentially through increasing the diversification of each partner in the group (Janson et al. 2008; Moran 2007; Stanley 1981). In *Sticta*, cyanobacterial species tend to be found in wetter conditions while green-algal mycobionts of *Sticta* tend to be found in relatively dryer micro climates (James and Henssen 1976). On the phylogeny, there are many more cyanobacterial species than green-algal (93:25 ratio, Figure 8A). Adjusting for incomplete sampling was challenging since BiSSE can only be adjusted by assuming one fraction for the entire tree, or by state (cyanobacterial vs green-algal photobiont). Exploratory analyses of different adjustments were compared to the unadjusted and there was no

large difference between them. The trend was that cyanobacterial associations have a higher, but not significantly higher speciation rate; there was no difference in extinction and transitions (Figure 8B). Moreover, when we randomized the tip assignments of “1” and “0”, keeping the same ratio (93 cyanobacterial to 25 green-algal), the free-speciation model always out competed the fully-constrained model in 500 iterations, indicating that the high tip-ratio bias makes it unable to determine if photobiont association is responsible for higher diversification rates in cyanobacterial species. It is expected that some distributions of tip assignments will support the fully constrained model instead of a model where values of speciation are allowed to take on any value. Therefore, the statistical results obtained from the dataset for photobiont association are driven by Type I error.

The presence of photosymbiodemes in *Sticta*, where a single taxon can associate with both cyanobacterial or green-algal photobionts, may explain why we were unable to detect an effect on diversification rate. The ability to form photosymbiodemes is present throughout the phylogeny, and it is hypothesized that many species are photosymbiodemic and we have just missed the other morph (Moncada, Coca, and Lücking 2013). Another reason photobiont associations do not have an effect is that lichen fungi appear to be flexible in their association with particular photobiont genotypes that are geographically or ecologically adapted, allowing the fungus to inhabit multiple habitats by switching to a locally adapted photobiont population (Fernandez-Mendoza et al. 2011; Nelsen and Gargas 2009; Werth and Sork 2014). It is still unclear if primary photobiont association has any effect in influencing diversification of species in *Sticta* and if this can explain the dominance of cyanobacterial species in the genus. Increased taxon sampling and a closer look for undiscovered photosymbiodemes will help to elucidate this in the future.

#### **3.4.4.2 Andean tectonic influence on diversification**

Three of the five major clades recovered in *Sticta* are composed mostly of species that occur in the tectonically active Andes and it has been hypothesized that a major radiation occurred there (Moncada, Lücking, and Suárez 2014). In our study, we hypothesized that Andean species have a higher diversification rates than species occurring outside of the Andes. Our result from BiSSE analysis (Figure 8, Table XII) found that speciation rates are higher (not significantly) in Andean species and found a pattern of transitions from the Andean (tectonically active region) to extra-Andean state (tectonically passive region). Randomization of tip character state assignments while maintaining the same ratio (67 Andean to 51 extra-Andean) found that the fully constrained model would out compete the full model in 11% of the iterations, demonstrating that some configurations will select a much different model of diversification, which implies that the results here were less likely due to Type I error. Our result is congruent with a similar study using BiSSE (Lagomarsino et al. 2016) that found Andean bellflowers (Campanulaceae) to have higher speciation rates than their lowland counterparts. Many other studies have attributed Andean uplift to diversifications in many groups (for a review see: (Hoorn et al. 2010)). Furthermore, a study of the lichen genus *Peltigera* found a recent and rapid radiation that was associated with the Andes (Magain et al. 2016).

If *Sticta* species were present during Andean uplift periods, coupled with high dispersal rates, a significant diversification event could have been triggered by increasing the carrying capacity of the Andes, allowing for more species of *Sticta* in the region. While the uplift was occurring, many new microhabitats were produced, and the dispersal ability of *Sticta* could have allowed for colonization of many unique habitats in a relatively short span of evolutionary time. Moreover, species associate with both green-algae and cyanobacteria in the Andes region and

photobiont shifts, due to different ecological requirements of the symbiont could have caused divergence.

### 3.5. Conclusions

We used molecular markers and Bayesian time-calibrated trees to determine that *Sticta* originated in the New World during the Oligocene and diversified throughout the Miocene epoch. Furthermore, we provide evidence that *Sticta* has a high dispersal rate with Hawaiian collections that show multiple independent colonizations of the islands. We also attempted to tease apart the individual contribution of drivers of *Sticta* diversification.

Species interactions have been found to influence diversification in plant-pollinator systems, phytophagous insects, and reef building corals (Janson et al. 2008; Stanley 1981; van der Niet and Johnson 2012) , but there are still many gaps in our knowledge in other groups. In *Sticta*, the diversification process did not seem to be influenced by photobiont associations and it is still unclear why there are so many more species that associate with cyanobacteria than green-algae. Further sampling may be able to uncover how photobionts affect diversification of the mycobionts in *Sticta*. However, more sampling may also discover that more species form photosymbiodemes that we currently know.

Researchers, uncertain in the effect of intrinsic factors on diversification have invoked geographical and climatic explanations to explain heterogeneity in biodiversity. *Sticta* is undergoing a slowdown in diversification, which might be associated with cooling climate, but it is unclear whether climate-induced range shifts occurred and if this decrease in net diversification is due to limits on global carrying capacity.

Our results do suggest that Andean tectonic activity, does influence diversification of species in *Sticta* by increasing the speciation rate which is congruent with the growing body of



evidence that the Andes is a hotspot for diversification, not only in lichens, but in almost all groups studied there. This could be explained by the fragmentation and turnover of habitats during the uplift of the Andes, coupled with the incredible dispersal ability of the *Sticta*, which creates the perfect conditions for founder events leading to many isolated populations being selected by different factors on an ever-changing landscape.

Our study adds to the small but growing base of knowledge of the timing and placement of diversification in groups of lichenized fungi by investigating the genus *Sticta*. Furthermore, we investigated the effect of drivers of diversification in *Sticta*, which is relatively rare in the study of lichen evolution and adds not only to the knowledge of lichens, but to the overall knowledge of evolution in the tree of life.

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## 4. Using RADseq to understand the circum-Antarctic distribution of the lichenized fungus

### *Pseudocyphellaria glabra* (Ascomycota, Peltigeraceae)

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#### 4.1 Introduction

Disjunct distributions across vast physical barriers have intrigued scientists because there are clear geographic constraints which physically divide a species into multiple populations. Furthermore, these populations do not always comprise a single randomly mating unit, but are subdivided into smaller entities which can be arranged spatially, temporally, or ecologically (Excoffier 2004). Therefore, a major goal of population genomics is to estimate patterns of genetic structure in natural populations to infer the underlying ecological and evolutionary processes such as migration, extinction, and speciation, that contribute to the observed genetic diversity. Advances in population genomics have generated new ways to approach this study question (Davey and Blaxter 2010). Population genetic structure is characterized by the number of subpopulations within a population, the frequencies of genetic variants in each subpopulation, and the degree of genetic isolation of the subpopulations (Chakraborty 1993). Understanding the genetic structure of a species' populations can uncover whether some have been isolated for long periods of time and the spatial scale at which populations are differentiated (Werth 2010). A better understanding of population genetic structure can also have important implications for the conservation of threatened species and the spread of invasive species.

Many species of lichenized fungi have large distributional ranges and some can be distributed across multiple continents being isolated by large bodies of water. The floras of major landmasses in the Southern Hemisphere, such as New Zealand, Southern South America, and

Eastern Australia share many taxonomic groups. This pattern is seen in flowering plants (Winkworth et al. 2002, 2015), ferns (Parris 2001), bryophytes (Miller 1982), and lichens (Galloway 1991). Almost 100 species of lichens are shared between Australia and New Zealand and over 40 species are shared among Australia, New Zealand and southern South America (Galloway 1991; Nash 2008). These Southern Hemisphere disjunct distributions could be the result of two possible processes, vicariance (the breakup of Gondwanaland that separated and isolated ancestral biotas) or long-distance, transoceanic dispersal.

The breakup of Gondwanaland occurred between 155-80 Mya (Stevens 1980) and predates the ages of most species-level lineages, but at the genus and family level, vicariance could explain the many shared groups among southern landmasses (Galloway 1988; Moncalvo and Buchanan 2008). Molecular data suggest that many southern hemisphere plant distributions have arisen only within the last 10 million years (Winkworth et al. 2002). Studies have shown the importance of dispersal for species that have intercontinental distributions (Sanmartín and Ronquist 2004; McGlone 2005; Moreira-Muñoz 2007). The West Wind Drift is a meteorological phenomenon causing cyclonic weather systems to move eastward in a clockwise motion around Antarctica. This pattern was initiated during the Miocene when Australia and South America separated from Antarctica and the eastward flow intensified during the Tertiary and was probably the strongest during the Pleistocene glacial periods (2 mya – 14,000 ya) and to this day it is a dominant weather pattern (Winkworth et al. 2002). These winds are four times as strong as their counterparts in the Northern Hemisphere and play an important role in dispersal (Raven 1973). The floristic similarities of southern landmasses have been shown to be direction-dependent and driven by this wind pattern (Muñoz et al. 2004). Given these strong wind patterns, many scientists assume that dispersal explains the current distribution patterns of species more than the

vicariance hypothesis.

Lichens are symbiotic organisms consisting of a fungus and a photosynthetic green algae or cyanobacteria or both simultaneously. In austral lichen taxa, Galloway (2008) describes two types of mycobiotas, namely the paleoaustral lichens, primitive Gondwanan groups that have poor dispersal abilities, and neoaustral lichens that dispersed after the breakup of Gondwanaland, producing large quantities of vegetative propagules that allow for long-distance dispersal via birds, ocean currents, or the West Wind Drift. *Pseudocyphellaria glabra* has a disjunct range (Figure 9), occurring in Southeastern Australia, New Zealand, Chile, Argentina, and subantarctic islands and is considered a neoaustral lichen species (Galloway 2008). In New Zealand, *P. glabra* has the widest range and ecological tolerance of all *Pseudocyphellaria* species (Galloway 2007). It can be found in all forest types, but is most abundant in the wettest of temperate rain forests. It is a large foliose species that is mostly epiphytic, but is also found on moss covered rocks (Figure 10). The species has been hypothesized to be neoaustral and have dispersed after fragmentation of Gondwanaland between the Oligocene and the present (Galloway 1991). The species reproduces sexually with microscopic ascospores and vegetatively with phyllidia which can be present in copious quantities. Both reproductive strategies could be the mode of dispersal via West Wind Drift, birds, and ocean currents.



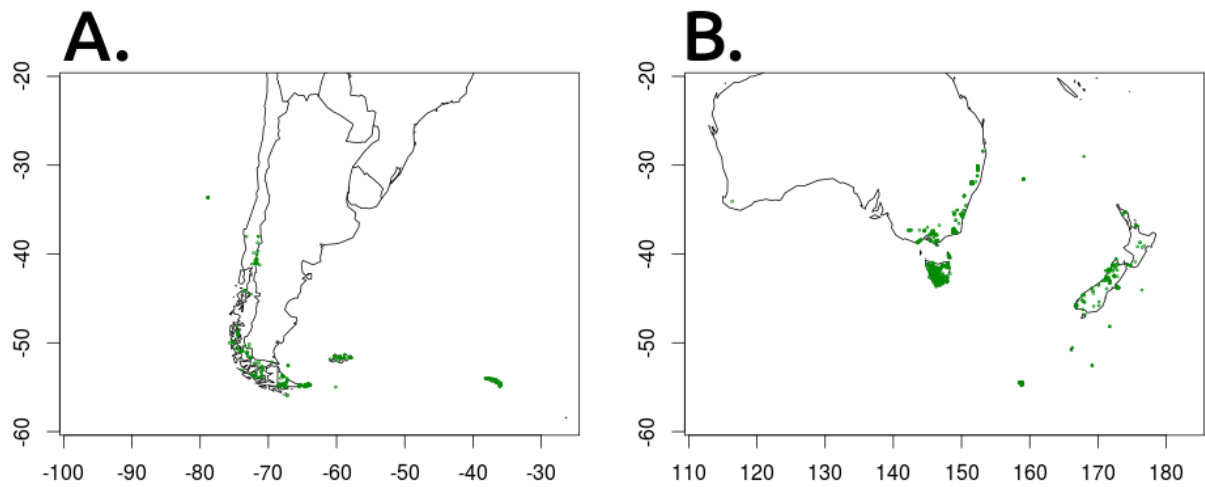


Figure 9. Global distribution of *P. glabra* in (A) southern South America and (B) Australia and New Zealand from GBIF collection records. Degrees longitude are displayed on the X-axes and latitude on the Y-axes.

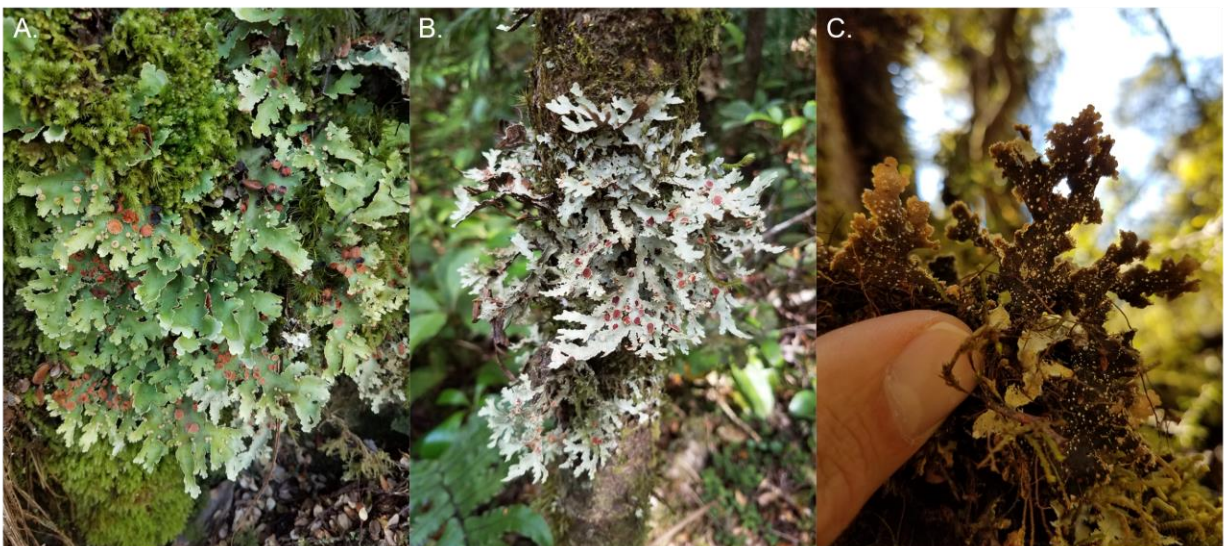


Figure 10. Natural habit of *P. glabra* (A) when hydrated, (B), in dry conditions, and (C) the lower cortex.

The disjunct distribution of *P. glabra* (Figure 9) makes it an excellent study system for understanding the pattern of genetic differentiation among populations sampled from different landmasses, and how major physical barriers (Pacific Ocean, Tasman Sea, Bass Strait, and Cook Strait) limit genetic exchange among populations. We specifically set out to test two hypotheses: (1) if large bodies of water isolate populations of *P. glabra*, then these populations will be genetically distinct, and (2) given the strong wind patterns in southern hemisphere, *P. glabra* populations on different landmasses will be connected by frequent and ongoing long-distance dispersal (i.e. gene-flow). To address this issue, we collected 286 samples from southeast Australia, North and South Islands of New Zealand, and Chile. We used restriction site-associated DNA sequencing data (RADseq) for phylogeographic and population genetic analyses in order to understand how the genetic variation of *P. glabra* is distributed across Australia, New Zealand, and Chile and to understand if large bodies of water correspond to major breaks in gene flow.

## **4.2 Materials and methods**

### **4.2.1 Sampling**

Fresh population samples of *P. glabra* were collected in the Australian states of Tasmania and Victoria (TAS and VIC), throughout the North and South Islands of New Zealand (NZN and NZS), and in Chile (CHI) during three field trips from 2015 to 2017 (See Figure 3B for collection locality maps). Additional samples were obtained from historical museum collections including one sample from Campbell Island (CAM) south of New Zealand. The sister species *P. homoeophylla* was also collected in New Zealand. A total of 286 specimens were sampled. At each site, if possible, at least 20 individual thalli were collected on separate trees. All specimens were vouchered in FMNH. (TABLE XXI, Appendix C).

#### **4.2.2 DNA isolation and quality assessment**

Genomic DNA was extracted from a roughly one cm<sup>2</sup> portion of vegetative tissue. The tissues were disrupted using liquid nitrogen and a mortar and pestle and then the DNAs were isolated using ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA MiniPrep™ kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) following manufacturer's directions except that macerated tissues were incubated at 65°C for one hour in lysis buffer before proceeding to the isolation steps. The concentration of isolated DNA was determined using the AccuBlue (Biotium, Inc., Fremont, CA, USA) kit and the Tecan plate reader (Tecan Group Ltd., Männedorf, Switzerland). The quality of isolated DNA was assessed by gel electrophoresis.

#### **4.2.3 Metagenomic DNA sequencing and mycobiont reference genome assembly**

Metagenomic DNA from sample VIC 2287A (DNA# 14816) was sequenced at the University of Illinois at Chicago Sequencing Core on an Illumina (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA, USA) NextSeq500 platform. Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse, and Usadel 2014) was used to remove poor quality reads and adapter sequences. Bases were trimmed when the average quality of 4-base sliding windows was below 15 and bases at the start and end of reads had a quality below 10. All trimmed reads shorter than 25 bp were filtered out (LEADING:10 TRAILING:10 SLIDING-WINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:25). After quality filtering, a total of 14 gigabases (Gb) of trimmed paired-end reads resulted. The trimmed reads were assembled using SPAdes 3.5.0 (Bankevich et al. 2012) with default parameter settings. The assembled metagenome was used as an input for MetaWatt Binner version 3.5.3 (Strous et al. 2012) which was used to cluster contigs that originated from the mycobiont population of DNA data. The MetaWatt binning procedure uses multivariate statistics of tetranucleotide frequencies combined with the use of interpolated Markov models. Because MetaWatt was originally designed only for prokaryotic organisms, we

produced a custom database of 10 axenically cultured lichen-forming fungal genomes available on NCBI to identify contigs of Lecanoromycetes origin. To create the custom database, we performed gene prediction using AUGUSTUS version 2.5.5 (Stanke and Morgenstern 2005) on all 10 genomes. Amino acid sequences of the generated gene models were used by MetaWatt for the identification of bins. Only reads identified as Lecanoromycetes were selected from the metagenomic contigs resulting in 1,149 contigs ranging from 9,960 bp to 84,423 bp in length. Finally, we created a Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) database from the selected scaffolds for the mapping approach to filter for mycobiont RAD loci.

#### **4.2.4 RADseq library prep and Illumina sequencing**

Restriction site associated DNA libraries were prepared and sequenced from whole DNA isolations at the University of Wisconsin-Madison Biotechnology Center. DNA concentration was verified using the Quant-iT™ PicoGreen® dsDNA kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). Libraries were prepared as in Elshire et al (2011) with minimal modification; in short, 50 ng of DNA was digested using the 5-bp cutter ApeKI (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) after which barcoded adapters amenable to Illumina sequencing were added by ligation with T4 ligase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA). 192 adapter-ligated samples were pooled and amplified to provide library quantities amenable for sequencing, and adapter dimers were removed by SPRI bead purification. Quality and quantity of the finished libraries were assessed using the Agilent Bioanalyzer High Sensitivity Chip (Agilent Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA) and Qubit® dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY), respectively. Libraries were standardized to 2nM. Cluster generation was performed using HiSeq SR Cluster Kit v3 cBot kits (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA, USA). Flowcells were sequenced using single read, 100bp sequencing and HiSeq SBS Kit v4 (50 Cycle) (Illumina Inc.) on a HiSeq2500 sequencer. Images

were analyzed using the standard Illumina Pipeline, version 1.8.2.

#### **4.2.5 RADseq data assembly**

The raw reads of *P. glabra* and *P. homoeophylla* from the HiSeq2500 sequencing were processed and assembled as described earlier for metagenomic datasets of lichens (Grewe et al. 2017). This process used ipyRAD (Eaton and Overcast 2016) to demultiplex raw reads and pyRAD (Eaton and Ree 2013) for the remaining steps. An additional mapping step is conducted after the generation of consensus sequences (pyRAD step 5) that used Bowtie2 to filter for mycobiont loci with a reference sequence. Raw Illumina RAD sequences are referred to as ‘read’ and the clustered reads per individual sample as ‘loci’; the final matrices are alignments of homologous loci from multiple samples with nucleotide substitutions referred to as ‘SNP’. In pyRAD, we set the datatype to genotype-by-sequencing (gbs), ploidy to haploid (1), a similarity threshold for the clustering of reads within and between individuals to 90% (.90) and a minimum coverage of four samples per locus (4). For the reference-based filtering of RAD loci, we used Bowtie2 with adjusted parameters to allow one permitted mismatch ( $-N\ 1$ ), a seed length of 20 ( $-L\ 20$ ), up to 20 seed extension attempts ( $-D\ 20$ ) and a maximum “re-seeding” of 3 ( $-R\ 3$ ). Following an initial round with all sequenced samples, we re-ran step 7 of pyRAD and excluded 70 samples with less than 1000 recovered loci (1000min\_full dataset). A reduced dataset was generated for population genetic analyses without the 13 *P. homoeophylla* samples with minimum of four samples per locus (1000min\_no\_PHO). We used the filtered pyRAD output files from these datasets, such as `unlinked_snps`, `alleles` and `vcf`, for further phylogenetic and population genomic analyses as described earlier for lichen RADseq datasets (Grewe et al. 2018).

#### **4.2.6 Phylogenetic analysis**

A maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic analysis was conducted in RAxML version

8.1.16 (Stamatakis 2014) using the concatenated unlinked SNPs files for the 1000min\_full dataset generated by pyRAD which contained all *P. glabra* and *P. homoeophylla* samples with at least 1000 loci (216 samples total). We used the GTRGAMMA model approximation for the ML tree search with 100 bootstrap replicates using the rapid bootstrapping algorithm. The resulting phylogenetic tree was rooted with the *P. homoeophylla* clade and drawn to scale with the online interface of Interactive Tree Of Life (<https://itol.embl.de/>).

#### **4.2.7 Identification of panmictic clusters**

The differences in the population structure of *P. glabra* samples between different landmass populations (1000min\_no\_PHO; TAS, VIC, NZN, NZS, and CHI; 202 samples total) was calculated by creating a reduced dataset that included all sites with a minor allele frequency larger than 0.05 and greater than 50% coverage using vcftools version 0.1.15 (Danecek et al. 2011). We converted the reduced file to a genind object using the adegenet version 2.0.2 R package. The genind object was further modified to account for haploid genomes and the population membership for samples based on landmass were assigned. This modified genind object was used for population genetic analyses in R.

We estimated  $G_{st}$  (Nei 1973),  $G'_{st}$  (Hedrick 2005) and Jost's  $D$  (Jost 2008) using the R package mmod version 1.3.3 (Winter 2012) to ascertain the degree of population subdivision among landmass populations.  $G_{st}$  measures gene diversity within and between subpopulations and is useful when mutation rate is low compared to the migration rate.  $G'_{st}$  and Jost's  $D$ , on the other hand, are important when mutation rate is higher than or equal to migration rate (Whitlock 2011). All measures were used to quantify genomic differentiation. The average per site indices were calculated pairwise among landmass populations and inferred genetic clusters.

We used the Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) to estimate the

genetic structure of 202 *P. glabra* samples (1000min\_no\_PHO genind datasets) from different landmasses. The DAPC was implemented in the adegenet version 2.1.1 R package (Jombart, Devillard, and Balloux 2010). Initially, data were transformed using a principal components analysis (PCA) and then components of PCA were submitted to a discriminant analysis (DA). We used the function a.score in the adegenet R package using the smart procedure as a criterion for choosing the optimal number of PCs in the PCA step of DAPC. The smart procedure selects an evenly distributed number of PCs in a pre-defined range and computes the a-score for each. Next, the a-score results are interpolated using splines to predict an approximate optimal number of PCs. For the DAPC we used the first six PCs and all four DA-eigenvalues. The results of the analyses were visualized in two ways; one showing genetic variation in genomic space and the other in a STRUCTURE-like plot that shows the predicted group membership.

#### **4.2.8 Estimation of shared ancestry**

With the 1000min\_no\_PHO dataset (202 samples, not including *P. homoeophylla*) we inferred population structure based on nearest neighbor haplotype co-ancestry using the programs RADpainter and fineRADstructure (Malinsky et al. 2018). The fineRADstructure package uses the program RADpainter (Malinsky et al. 2018) to infer a co-ancestry matrix from RADseq data and the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) clustering algorithm fineSTRUCTURE (Lawson et al. 2012). The alleles output file from pyRAD was converted with the python script finerad\_input.py (<https://github.com/edgardomortiz/fineRADstructure-tools>; last accessed December 3, 2018) with a minimum number of 101 samples (50%) in a locus. The output of the analyses was visualized with the R script fineRADstructurePlot.R provided by the fineRADstructure package.



## 4.3 Results

### **4.3.1 Reference genome assembly and RADseq results**

We assembled a draft reference genome of *P. glabra* to filter for mycobiont RAD loci. The Illumina NextSeq sequencing of the whole *P. glabra* (2287A VIC) thallus resulted in 42,803,904 metagenomic paired-end reads. First, we trimmed these raw data which reduced the paired-end reads to 40,247,418 (94% of raw data). The trimmed read pairs were then assembled into 1,038,157 scaffolds (N50 = 189,136 bp; L50 count of 513 Kb) with a total size of 494 Mbp (including 1,866 scaffolds of sizes larger than 10 Kb). Further metagenomic binning identified 30.65 Mbp of the assembly as mycobiont derived from which we selected 1,142 scaffolds (N50 = 401 bp; L50 count of 17.123 KB) with sizes larger than 10 kb. The sorted draft genome of *P. glabra* had a total size of 19.36 Mbp.

We included 286 specimens of *P. glabra* from 3 RADseq libraries. The sequence read number of each sample varied from 6,901 for sample 15528\_CHI to 3,286,909 for sample 15953\_NZN with an average sequence read number of 994,295.95 (sd = 535,452.64). The number of loci (within sample clusters) that pyRAD generated from these sequences directly correlated with the initial number of sequences ( $R^2 = 0.75$ , TABLE XXII, Appendix C). An average of 16.92% (sd = 7.51%) of all loci mapped to the mycobiont reference genome and, of these, an average of 96.58% (sd = 2.88%) were included into the final pyRAD dataset. The numbers of loci before and after the mapping were directly correlated ( $R^2 = 0.83$ , TABLE XXII, Appendix C). In addition, the number of mapped loci were strongly correlated to the number of loci included in the final dataset ( $R^2 = 0.99$ , Table XXII, Appendix C). Seventy samples of *P. glabra* had less than 1,000 loci in the final dataset and were removed from the analysis. All remaining 216 samples in the final dataset had on average of 5073.16 (sd = 3263.88) loci



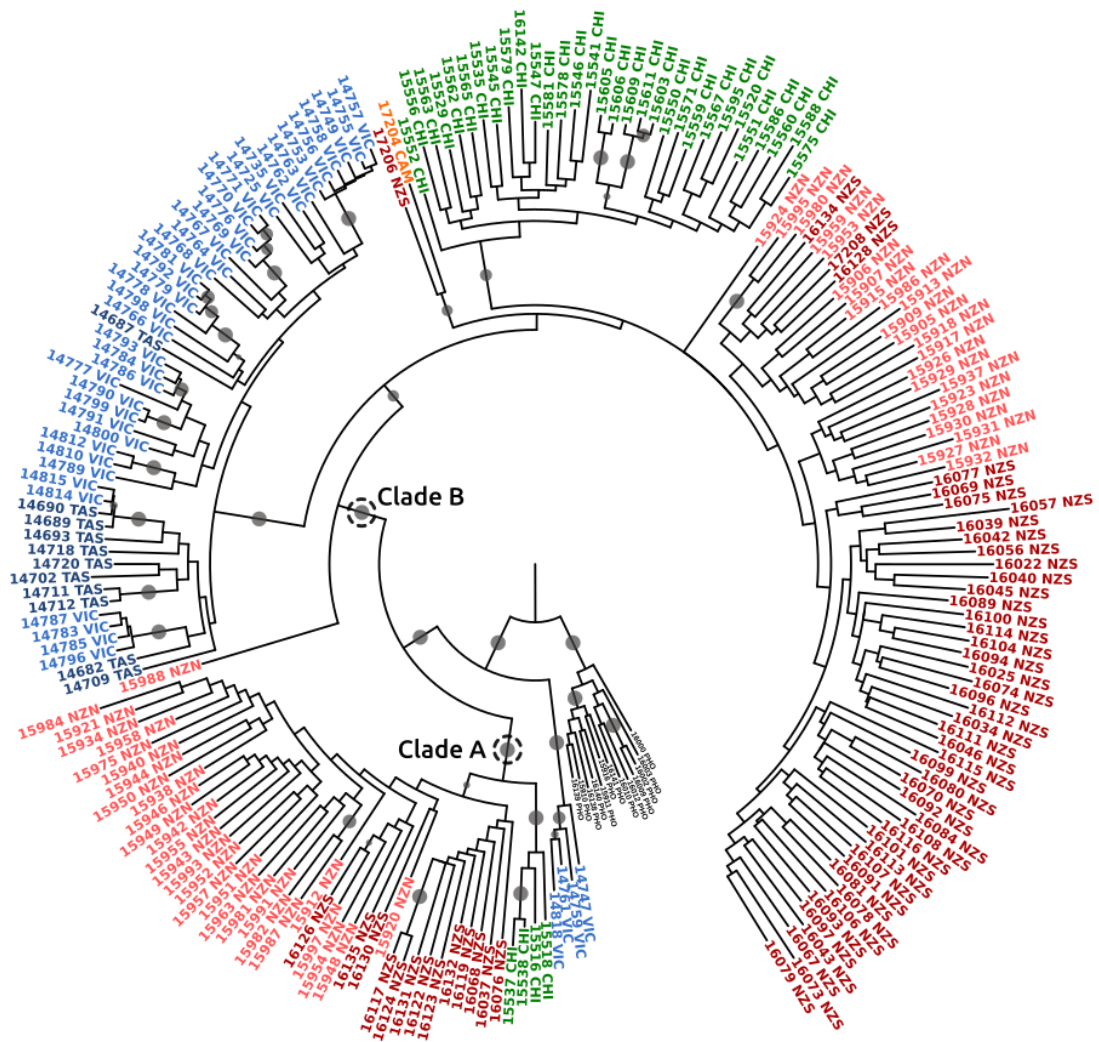
(TABLE XXII, Appendix C).

#### **4.3.2 Phylogenetic analysis**

The ML tree (Figure 11A) was estimated from the 1000min\_full RADseq matrix with 21,937 distinct alignment patterns and 79.48% missing data. The phylogenetic analyses recovered a well-supported clade containing all *P. glabra* samples sister to the *P. homoeophylla* clade. Four samples of *P. glabra* from Victoria are early divergent and form a well-supported clade. The remaining samples from all landmasses are recovered in two well-supported (100% bootstrap support) clades (Clades A and B) that also contained other well-supported subclades. Clade A contains *P. glabra* individuals from both Islands of New Zealand and Chile (NZN, NZS, and CHI). Samples from Chile in Clade 2 form their own well-supported (100% bootstrap support) clade that is sister to the New Zealand clade (75% bootstrap support). Clade B contains *P. glabra* individuals from every major landmass (TAS, VIC, NZN, NZS, CAM, and CHI). Australian samples in Clade B (TAS and VIC) form a well-supported subclade (100% bootstrap support). Similarly, Chilean samples (CHI) in Clade B also form a well-supported (91% bootstrap support) monophyletic clade. The New Zealand (NZN and NZS) samples in Clade 1 are polyphyletic, forming three lineages with no well-supported geographic clusters corresponding to the North or South Islands. The one individual from Campbell Island is in a well-supported (88% bootstrap support) clade with one individual from the South Island of New Zealand.

**A.**

Tree scale: 0.1



**B.**

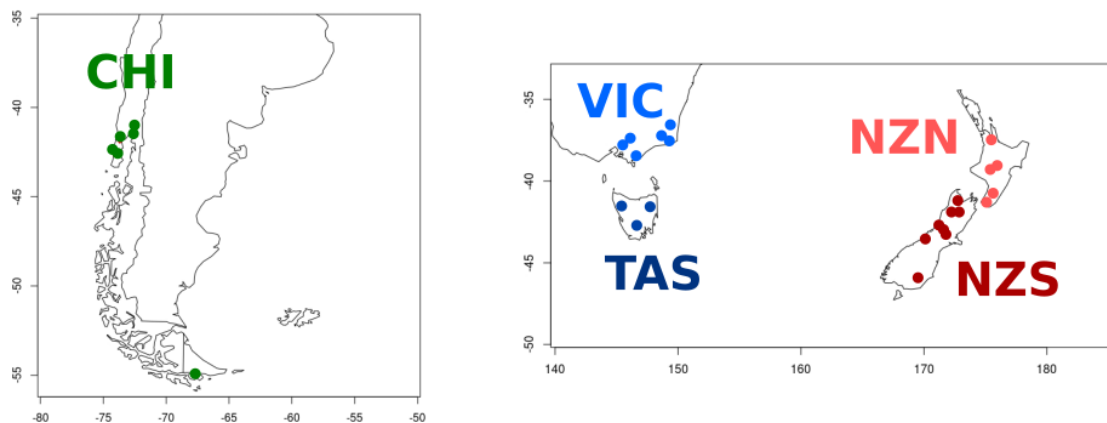


Figure 11. Phylogenetic tree (A) inferred from *P. glabra*, and *P. homoeophylla* RADseq data. The population collection sites from all major land masses are shown on the maps (B) and

represented by colors on the tips (TAS=dark blue, VIC=light blue, CHI=green, NZN=dark red, NZS=light red, CAM=orange, PHO & PFR=black). Bootstrap values between 70-100% are indicated at the nodes by the size of the grey circles. The unit of branch length is substitutions per site.

#### **4.3.3 Population subdivision analyses**

We determined the degree to which populations from different landmasses (TAS, VIC, NZN, NZS, and CHI) are subdivided by  $G_{st}$ ,  $G'_{st}$  and  $D$  measurements. For these analyses, we included only SNPs with a MAF greater than 0.05 and more than 50% coverage. This reduced the RADseq dataset to a total of 2,255 SNPs. The average pairwise values of  $G_{st}$ ,  $G'_{st}$  and  $D$  measures for each population are reported in Table XIII. Average values for  $G_{st}$ ,  $G'_{st}$  and  $D$  that approach 1 indicate that genomes from different populations are completely isolated, but the highest values recovered were slightly above 0.5 for Hendricks  $G'_{st}$  for TAS and CHI. Hendrick's  $G'_{st}$  reported higher values among populations in general, while Nei's  $G_{st}$  and Jost's  $D$  were lower in comparison. All measure indicated that no population was completely isolated from any other population.

TABLE XIII. MEAN PAIRWISE MEASURES OF POPULATION SUBDIVISION FOR THE FIVE MAJOR POPULATIONS OF *P. GLABRA*.

Pairwise Nei's $G_{ST}$				
	CHI	NZN	NZS	TAS
NZN	0.14616298			
NZS	0.11546406	0.06814561		
TAS	0.27533185	0.21892748	0.19753898	
VIC	0.23198384	0.17710142	0.1544978	0.06126183
Pairwise Hendrick's $G'_{ST}$				
	CHI	NZN	NZS	TAS
NZN	0.3309072			
NZS	0.2644481	0.1701334		
TAS	0.5198048	0.4508762	0.4077721	
VIC	0.4638908	0.3863554	0.3384012	0.137628
Pairwise Jost's $D$				
	CHI	NZN	NZS	TAS
NZN	0.10183161			
NZS	0.07241562	0.04875867		
TAS	0.15491221	0.14304747	0.11619887	
VIC	0.1400209	0.12222243	0.09661457	0.0250716

#### **4.3.4 Discriminant analysis of principal components**

The same 2,255 SNPs dataset used in the population subdivision analyses was also used to differentiate the genomes by their variation in a non-parametric approach with a DAPC (Figure 12). The DAPC combines a PCA with a DA for a separation of genomes based on their variance

between groups rather than the total variance of the sample. We used sampling location to designate populations (landmass populations), three clusters representing Chile, New Zealand and Australia were clearly separated in genomic space, but subclusters representing TAS and VIC were overlapping as were subclusters representing NZN and NZS (Figure 12A). Furthermore, there is evidence for admixture between Chile and New Zealand and between Australia and New Zealand, but not between Chile and Australia (Figure 12B).

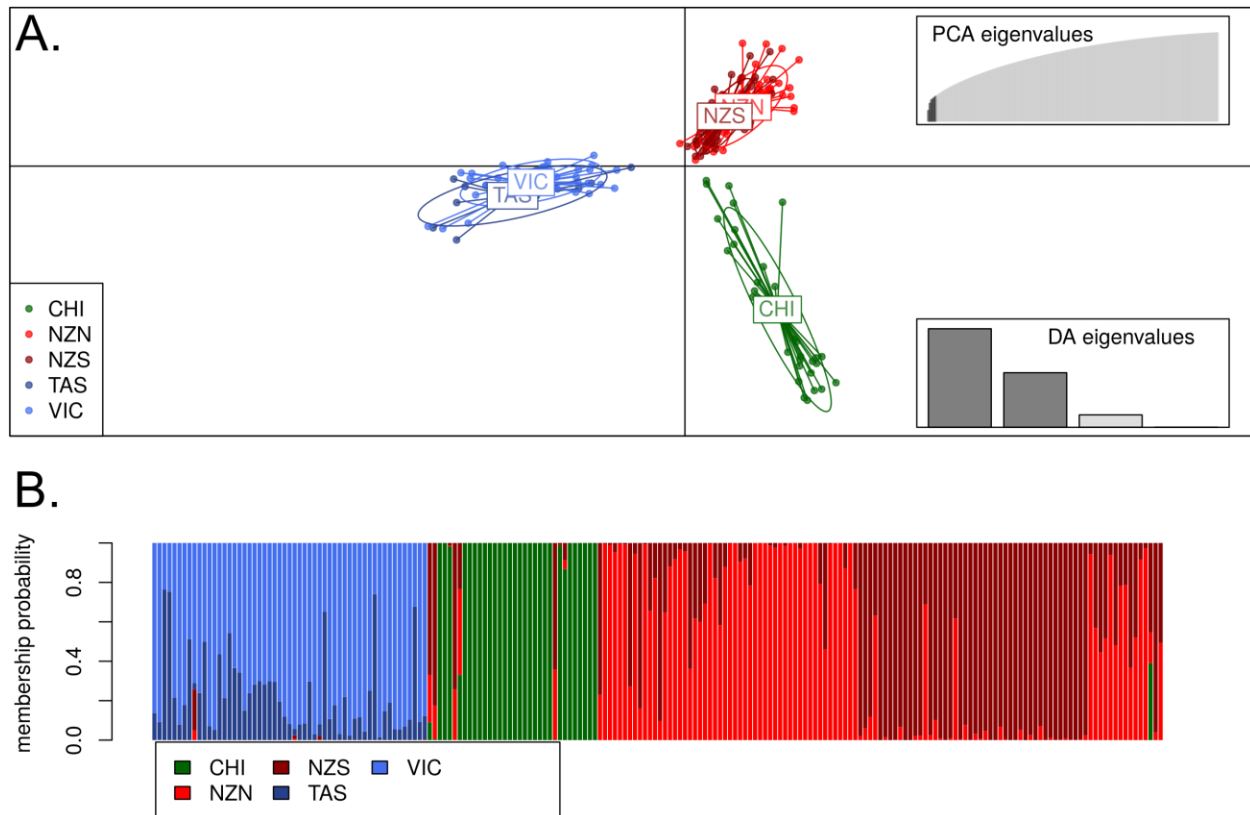


Figure 12. Genomic variation by non-parametric DAPC. (A) DAPC scatter plot of the densities of the populations of *P. glabra* (TAS=dark blue, VIC=light blue, CHI=green, NZN=dark red, NZS=light red) estimated with six PCA and four DA eigenvalues (B) Bar plot of group membership probabilities.

#### **4.3.5 Estimation of co-ancestry**

The population genetic structure of *P. glabra* samples was assessed using a Bayesian model-based approach with the program fineRADstructure. By converting the pyRAD allele output for fineRADstructure, we reduced the dataset to 1,618 unlinked SNPs with a minimum coverage of 101 samples per locus (50% samples per locus). Results from co-ancestry analysis in Figure 13 provided additional information about ancestry between individuals and revealed patterns consistent with the ML phylogenetic analysis in Figure 11A and the DAPC in Figure 12 but also showed finer-scale differences as well. In particular, five major blocks stood out corresponding to (1, lower-left) the individuals from New Zealand and Chile that clustered in Clade A of the ML phylogeny (2, middle-left) a block containing Australian individuals corresponding to the well-supported clade from Clade B of the ML phylogeny, (3, middle-right) a block containing New Zealand samples from Clade B of the ML phylogeny, (4) four individuals from Victoria, Australia which were early divergent in the ML phylogeny, and (5, upper-right) the Chilean individuals from Clade B in the ML phylogeny. In general, the resulting clustered co-ancestry matrix showed that *P. glabra* samples from Australia (TAS and VIC), Chile (CHI) and New Zealand (NZN and NZS) shared more co-ancestry within each other than between countries. As in the phylogenetic tree (Figure 11A) samples collected in New Zealand formed two clusters with samples found in Clade B sharing less co-ancestry than those from Clade A. The New Zealand and Chile clusters in the upper-right of the matrix have shared co-ancestry which reflects the clustering in the ML phylogeny. Some samples showed the highest degrees of co-ancestry (dark blue and red subblocks) demonstrating very close relatedness, such as sister or clonal relationships. These results agreed with the ML inference (Figure 11A) in which the same specimens were close sister taxa.



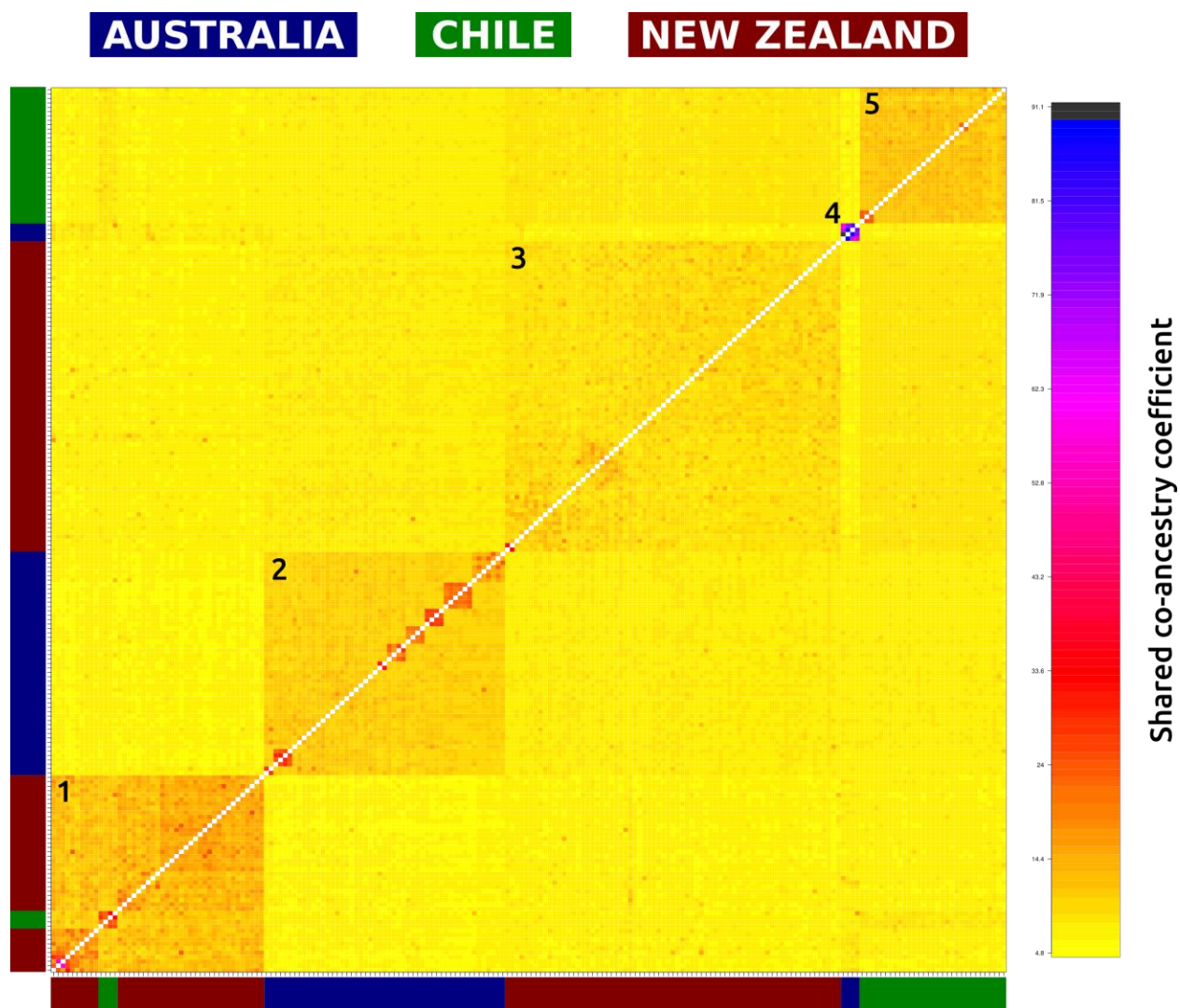


Figure 13. Clustered fineRADstructure co-ancestry matrix estimated from the 1000min\_no\_PHO dataset including 216 *P. glabra* samples. The heatmap shows pairwise co-ancestry between individuals, with black, blue and purple representing the highest levels, red and orange indicating intermediate levels, and yellow representing the lowest levels of shared coancestry.

#### 4.4 Discussion

Our study results implied that the vast water bodies separating continents of the Southern Hemisphere do not form a disruptive barrier to gene flow among populations of the lichenized fungus *P. glabra* where geographically distant individuals may share more recent ancestry than geographically proximate ones, although statistically detectable genetic structure does exist (based on DAPC). This study corroborated the biology of the species, where lichenized fungi with small-size and a large-quantity of reproductive propagules tend to disperse well and the disjunct distribution of *P. glabra* can be explained by recent dispersal events (Galloway 2008, 2008, 1991).

Our ML results (Figure 11A) recovered *P. glabra* as a distinct clade sister to the 13 outgroup *P. homoeophylla* samples. The two species have been suggested to be a species pair (Galloway and James 1980) and our RADseq results are consistent with them being distinct lineages. Species pairs are common in lichens and consist of one sexual and one asexual species (Tehler 1982; Mattsson and Lumbsch 1989; Poelt 1972). The asexual species form structures that propagate the fungal and photosynthetic partner simultaneously. Otherwise, species in species pairs are morphologically identical, but were traditionally regarded as distinct species due to their different reproductive modes (Poelt 1972). Each species forms distinct groupings in both ML and population genomic analyses (Figure 3A and Figure 23, Appendix C). Samples of *P. glabra* formed multiple distinct lineages and did not show clear geographic structure. Individuals of *P. glabra* from all major landmasses were polyphyletic, but most samples from Chile and Australia formed well-supported clades. New Zealand samples are polyphyletic suggesting a greater genetic variability in New Zealand. This could be due to a longer residency on New Zealand and more ancestral polymorphism. Our own collection experience (Widhelm personal observation)



also suggests that the New Zealand population can grow in more forest types and on many different substrates that were not observed in any other populations.

Our population genomic results from the RADseq dataset clearly delimited *P. glabra* into three populations (Figures 12 and 13). This confirms that populations separated by large bodies of water, such as the Tasman Sea and Pacific Ocean are genetically differentiated. Relatively smaller bodies of water, such as the Bass Strait (separating TAS and VIC) and Cook Strait (separating NZN and NZS), are not sufficiently large enough to isolate populations and dispersal is homogenizing the populations. Alternatively, it could be that the Bass and Cook Straits were land bridges during the last glacial maximum (Lambeck and Chappell 2001; Proctor and Carter 1989) and not enough time has passed for populations on each side to become genetically differentiated. The sister species *P. homoeophylla* is genetically isolated from *P. glabra*, even though the two species live in sympatry on both islands of New Zealand (Figure 23, Appendix C). Admixture between New Zealand and Chile was detected in the STRUCTURE-like plot of the DAPC analysis (Figure 12B). Seven samples from Chile were assigned to the genetic cluster containing the New Zealand specimens which could be caused by relatively recent long-distance dispersal. This result agrees with the ML phylogeny, where samples from each country clustered together in well-supported clades and with the co-ancestry matrix, where samples from Chile and New Zealand had relatively high levels of co-ancestry. There was slightly less admixture between New Zealand and Australia samples. Only three Australian samples were assigned to the New Zealand genetic cluster. This could possibly be due to east-to-west dispersal across the Tasman Sea. Some cyclonic weather systems are able to disperse east-to-west. Although the prevailing wind pattern is west-to-east at high altitudes, lower altitudes provide opportunities for east-to-west dispersal, and birds are also capable of carrying spores against the dominant wind

patterns (Wardle 1978).

The co-ancestry matrix in Figure 13 indicated that samples originating from a particular landmass shared more co-ancestry than they did with samples from other landmasses. However, based on the fineRADstructure analysis, there was more shared ancestry among samples originating from New Zealand and Chile than between New Zealand and Australia, which is surprising because of the proximity of Australia to New Zealand. The patterns found in the co-ancestry matrix, which are similar to the ML phylogeny, show that multiple independent lineages of *P. glabra* are found in all landmass, suggesting that all lineages have been or are still undergoing long-distance dispersal.

The biogeography of the Southern Hemisphere has intrigued scientists for hundreds of years. When Joseph Hooker visited these areas during an Antarctic Expedition between 1839 and 1843 he was impelled to write Charles Darwin to explain the biological similarities of Australia, New Zealand, and Southern South America (Skottsberg and Pantin 1960). Hooker became convinced that these affinities were only partly explained by dispersal and more so by a fragmented great Southern Continent (Galloway 1988). This idea was supported later by Wegener's theory of continental drift (Wegener 1966) and later by plate tectonics. The breakup of Gondwana did indeed isolate many groups of organisms, including lichens and these ideas dominated the views and explanations of disjunct distributions of species by biogeographers for many years (Swenson, Hill, and McLoughlin 2001; Raven and Axelrod 1972; Brundin 1966). Today, however, dispersal is seen as the primary mechanism for the disjunct distribution at the species level (Sanmartín and Ronquist 2004; McGlone 2005; Moreira-Muñoz 2007). The first sources of data that suggested long-distance dispersal was an important force in the southern hemisphere were palynological where temporal differences in the first appearance of shared taxa

(i.e. Australia first, New Zealand second, etc.) were observed. The pollen fossil record suggests that transoceanic dispersal occurred throughout the Tertiary (Macphail 1997; M. Pole 1994; M. S. Pole 2001; Mildenhall 1980). Once molecular methods were developed, studies on plant taxa with eastward dispersal were determined by phylogeny: (Table 1 in Winkworth et al., 2002) and as shown in many previous molecular-based studies, our results showed that dispersal rather than vicariance better explained the genetic pattern of currently disjunct distributed *P. glabra*.

We recently (Widhelm et al. – Chapter 2 in this dissertation) estimated divergence times in the former family Lobariaceae. The family is now considered the lobarioid clade of Peltigeraceae based on a temporal banding approach that reclassified higher-level taxonomic groups in the Lecanoromycetes (Kraichak et al. 2018). The time-tree estimated a crown age for this clade around 70 Mya (Widhelm et al. – Chapter 2 in this dissertation). This time-tree included one sample each of the closely related species *P. glabra*, *P. homoeophylla*, and *P. freycinetii*. The divergence estimates were around 13 Mya for the branching of *P. freycinetii* and around 3 Mya for *P. glabra* from *P. homoeophylla*. If the estimates are accurate, the entire lobarioid clade diversified rapidly at the end and after the breakup of Gondwana (155-80 Mya, Stevens, 1980) and *P. glabra*, *P. homoeophylla*, and *P. freycinetii* evolved relatively recently when the continents were very close to their present configuration. The result from the study by (Widhelm et al – Chapter 2 in this dissertation) is in line with the dispersal hypotheses proposed by previous literature (Sanmartín and Ronquist 2004; McGlone 2005; Moreira-Muñoz 2007). The dominant wind patterns that form a West-to-East directional flow (i.e. West Wind Drift) are probably facilitating the migrations of wind dispersing organisms (Muñoz et al. 2004; Galloway 1991). Similarly, birds such as the migratory albatross and shearwaters could be other possible vectors that carry propagules and spores in both directions (Gillespie et al. 2012).

## 4.5 Conclusion

Populations of *P. glabra* occur in Australia, Chile, and New Zealand and are genetically structured. They also show that samples of *P. glabra* from all landmasses form a lineage that is distinct from the *P. homoeophylla* lineage that only occurs in New Zealand. Although the origin of *P. glabra* remains unclear, long-distance dispersal, via the dominant wind patterns and possibly by migratory birds has established populations on landmasses between -20S and -60S degrees latitude around Antarctica. The relatively wide ecological tolerance and ability to occur in a variety of habitats and substrates (Galloway 2007) may allow *P. glabra* to be more successful at long-distance dispersal than closely related *Pseudocyphellaria* species, such as *P. homoeophylla* and *P. freycinetii* which are only found in New Zealand and Chile respectively. This study is the first to utilize the power of RADseq to understand the intercontinental distribution of a lichenized fungus at this level and the results suggest that wind patterns and possibly migratory birds can keep populations connected enough to maintain a single species that is divided by large barriers like the Pacific Ocean and the Tasman Sea.

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## **5. Picking holes in traditional species delimitations: an integrative taxonomic reassessment of the *Parmotrema perforatum* group (Parmeliaceae, Ascomycota)**

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### **5.1 Introduction**

Species delimitation is the process of discovering species boundaries and new species and the recognition of species figures prominently into biodiversity assessments and conservation programs (Mace 2004), and ecological and biogeographical studies frequently use species as basic units. Furthermore, delimiting species is important in the context of understanding many evolutionary mechanisms and processes (Sites and Marshall 2003). Inaccurate species delimitation can lead to erroneous inferences and confound our understanding of nature (Bickford et al. 2007).

A number of species concepts have been proposed, but it is generally accepted that

species can be more accurately delimited if their origins are better understood (Padial et al. 2010). The commonly employed general lineage concept (GLC) recognizes that species are metapopulations that represent distinct evolutionary lineages that can be delimited using any of several criteria associated with lineage formation (Sites and Marshall 2003; Mayden 1997; Knowles and Carstens 2007; de Queiroz 2007; Lumbsch and Leavitt 2011). However, deciding on operational criteria can be daunting (de Queiroz 2007). The application of multiple species delimitation methods all too often leads to incongruent species boundaries, rendering researchers unable to decide how many species they are working with (Sites and Marshall 2003, 2004; Rannala 2015; Mishler, Donoghue, and Farris 1982). Additionally, taxonomic uncertainty can result if researchers are inconsistent in their application of operational species concepts (Agapow et al. 2004). On the other hand, some scientists suggest using all available methods and only delimiting species if congruence is observed in most approaches (Carstens et al. 2013). With the large variety of methods and differences in operational protocols, the development of a uniting integrative approach to species delimitation that combines morphological, chemical, ecological, geographic and phylogenetic data to recognize species level lineages is of utmost importance for future taxonomic studies (Padial et al. 2010; Dayrat 2005) .

During the past decade, there has been an increased interest in integrative species delimitation that combines multiple lines of evidence (Sites and Marshall 2003; Padial et al. 2010). However, integrating traditional morphological data with molecular data can be challenging due to a number of issues such as the presence of cryptic species (Bickford et al. 2007; Leavitt et al. 2011; Singh et al. 2015) and effects of adaptive radiations (Shaffer and Thomson 2007; Maddison 1997). Traditional phenotype-based methods may fail to detect species boundaries in cryptic lineages resulting in an underestimate of the true number of species

relative to other kinds of data (Bickford et al. 2007). In the case of adaptive radiations, incomplete lineage sorting and hybridization confound genetic inferences and can lead to incorrect interpretations of species boundaries (Maddison 1997; Nosil, Harmon, and Seehausen 2009). Additionally, single-locus barcoding efforts can be useful for initially establishing operational taxonomic units which require further validation with an integrative taxonomic approach (Kekkonen et al. 2015).

With recent advances in DNA sequencing technology, the ability to gather data from multiple unlinked genetic loci has become the standard approach and coalescent-based analytical methods now account for incomplete lineage sorting (Balding, Bishop, and Cannings 2008). Coalescent theory is now being widely applied to empirically delimit species, and many methods are available (Fujita et al. 2012). In lichenized fungi the use of coalescent-based methods has been widely used to delimit species (Singh et al. 2015; Parmen et al. 2012; Leavitt, Esslinger, et al. 2013; Leavitt et al. 2015; Saag et al. 2014; Kraichak et al. 2015).

Lichens are assemblages of fungi, photosynthetic green alga or cyanobacteria, and many non-photosynthetic bacteria. Therefore, lichens can be considered the symbiotic phenotype of miniature ecological systems rather than individual organisms. Despite their complexity, the taxonomy of lichens has traditionally focused on the fungal partner, and current estimates of 13,500 to 28,000 species of lichen-forming fungi have been proposed (Hawksworth 2001; Feuerer and Hawksworth 2007). With the wide range of species estimates in lichenized fungi, it is clear that there is a need for a standard species delimitation protocol (Lumbsch and Leavitt 2011). Parmeliaceae is the largest family of lichenized fungi (Jaklitsch et al. 2016) and has been the focus of many ecological, geographical, and taxonomic studies (Leavitt et al. 2015; Saag et al. 2014; Thell et al. 2004; Crespo et al. 2010; Amo de Paz et al. 2011, 2012; Del-Prado et al.

2013). One of the largest genera in the Parmeliaceae, *Parmotrema* A. Massal. includes over 350 species distributed primarily in tropical to subtropical regions worldwide. These loosely-attached, large-lobed, foliose lichens display a wide variety of chemical variation and reproductive strategies (Blanco et al. 2005).

The *Parmotrema perforatum* group is a complex of species that serves as an excellent model for two controversial topics in species delimitation in lichenized fungi. The first is the species pairs concept, where pairs of taxa that are morphologically and chemically identical differ in their predominant reproductive modes: one taxon is assumed to reproduce sexually (producing apothecia), the other asexually (producing thalloid fragments called lobules, isidia, or soredia) (Mattsson and Lumbsch 1989). The other is the chemospecies concept, where different chemotypes of morphologically identical individuals are classified as distinct species if the chemical differences are correlated with geographical, or ecological differences (Egan 1986).

The *Parmotrema perforatum* group has been extensively studied and delimitation of species in this group has been highly debated (Culberson 1973; Robinson 1975; Culberson and Culberson 1973; Lendemer, Allen, and Noell 2015). The most recent classification recognizes six species in North America (Esslinger n.d.) based on the hypothesis of Culberson & Culberson (1973) who proposed three evolutionary species pairs in the North American group (Figure 14), each with its own distinct chemical profile and biogeography. Each pair has the same secondary lichen chemistry and two reproductive forms, one sexually reproducing form with apothecia (referred to as the primary species) and the other asexually reproducing with soredia (secondary species). He interpreted the three chemically distinct apotheciate species to be sibling species, reproductively isolated but still morphologically identical. He hypothesized that each apotheciate species gave rise, by parallel evolution, to a chemically identical sorediate species.

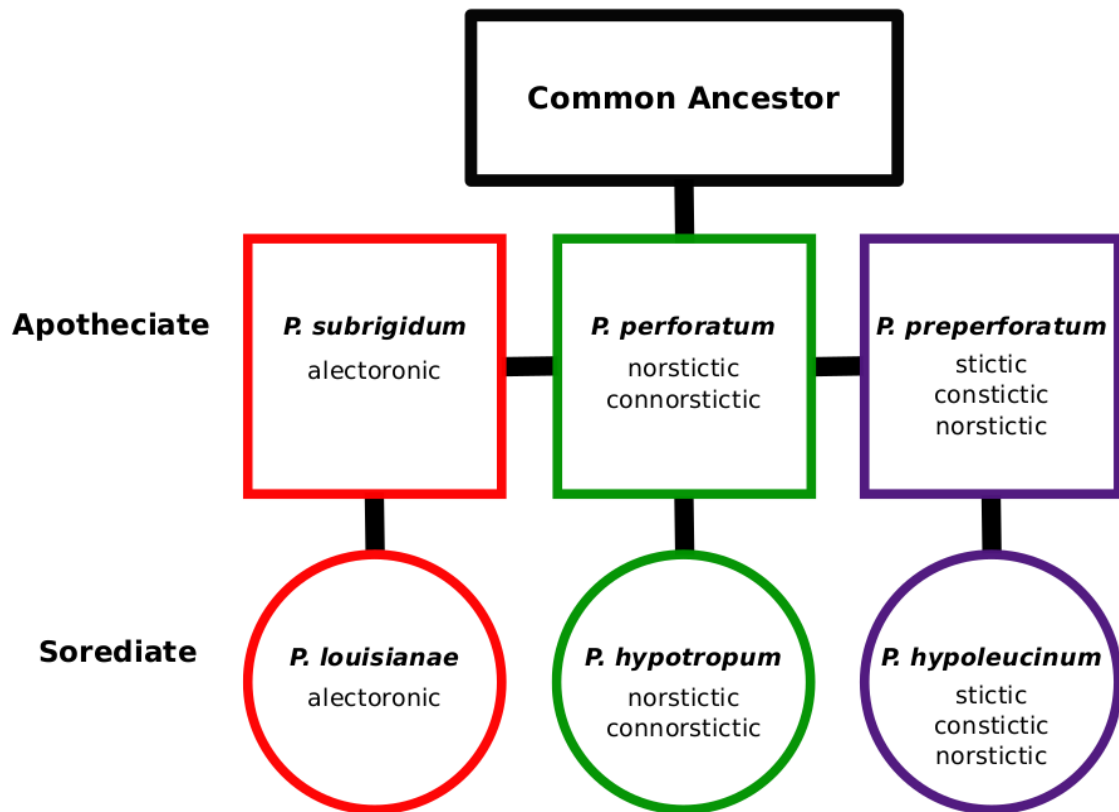


Figure 14. Species delimitation and evolutionary relationships in the *Parmotrema perforatum* group as hypothesized by W. L. Culberson (1973). Each sorediate species (circles) is descended from an apotheciate species (squares) with the same secondary chemistry. Diagnostic secondary lichen acid composition is represented by color (green = norstictic acid only, red = alectoronic acid, purple = norstictic+stictic acid).

We investigated species boundaries in the North American *Parmotrema perforatum* group using population level sampling in Eastern Texas and Western Louisiana where all six currently accepted species occur in sympatry. Using an integrative species delimitation approach, we combined DNA sequence data from seven nuclear loci, differences in reproductive strategies, secondary metabolite variation, and newly discovered variation in conidial morphology to



delimit species in the *Parmotrema perforatum* group. We used a suite of empirical approaches to test the traditional hypotheses of species boundaries, including maximum likelihood, Bayesian, and coalescent-based species tree phylogenetic reconstruction approaches, along with a multi-species coalescent model to estimate speciation probabilities.

## **5.2 Materials and methods**

### **5.2.1 Taxon sampling**

All six members of the North American *Parmotrema perforatum* group occur in the southeastern United States, and our sampling focused on 25 sites in Oklahoma, Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas (Figure 15). At each site, *Parmotrema* specimens were indiscriminately collected during the summer of 2006. At each site, small #2 paper bags were filled with available thalli, providing a site-specific perspective of species diversity and relative abundance. The substrate tree was recorded as “conifer” or “hardwood”. Mass collections from two sites in Texas (Lake Limestone, 17 thalli; Fort Parker, 9 thalli) and two sites in Louisiana (Pelican, 10 thalli; Vivian, 8 thalli) are included in the present study (Figures 14 and 15, Table XIV). These four sites were selected because they had the highest species diversity among the 25 sites sampled. Two closely related samples of *P. hypoleucinum* from Spain were also included to test for geographic differentiation of disjunct populations.

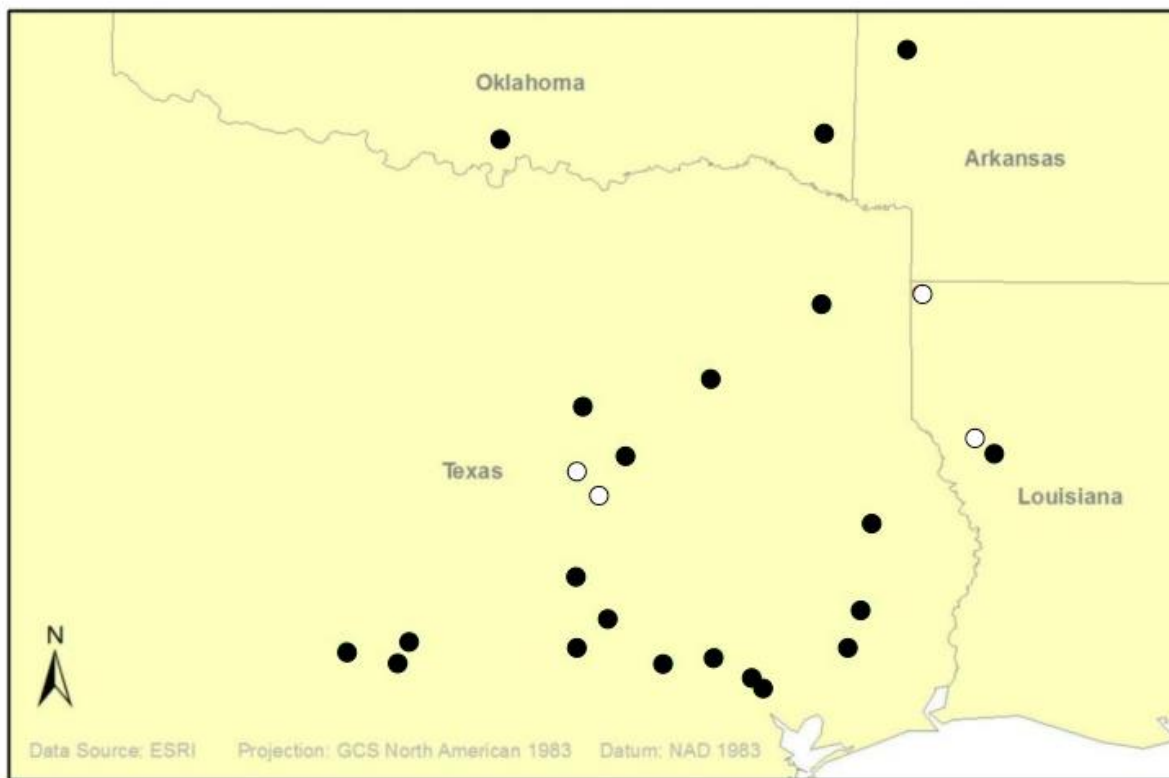


Figure 15. Twenty-five sites sampled in 2006. White dots indicate samples selected for this study.

TABLE XIV. SITES AND POPULATIONS SAMPLED IN THIS STUDY, LIST OF THE SPECIES COLLECTED AT EACH LOCATION, AND VOUCHER SPECIMENS. ALL VOUCHERS ARE DEPOSITED AT OMA. TAXA MARKED WITH AN ASTERISK WERE PRESENT, BUT SPECIMENS DID NOT YIELD A PCR PRODUCT. MULTIPLE THALLI SEQUENCED FROM A SINGLE COLLECTION ARE INDICATED WITH, E.G. “-A, B, C”, AFTER THE COLLECTION NUMBER.

Site	Taxa present	Specimen voucher
	<i>P. perforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 606
Texas, Limestone County: Ft. Parker State Park on the east side of Springfield Lake; 9.7 Kilometers N of Groesbeck; 31°35.831' N, 96°32.143' W. 19-July-06 [Populations 1 and 2]	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 607-A, B, C, D, E
	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 609
	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i> *	Widhelm & Egan 608-A, B
	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	
Texas, Limestone County: west of Lake Limestone; 17.7 Kilometers SE of Groesbeck; 31°25.733' N, 96°22.550' W. 19-July-06 [Populations 3 and 4]		Widhelm & Egan 611-A, B
		Widhelm & Egan 615-A, B
	<i>P. perforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 612
	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 616
	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 614-A, B, C
	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 618-A, B, C
	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 619
		Widhelm & Egan 613-A, B, C
		Widhelm & Egan 617
Louisiana, Desoto Parish: 5.6 Kilometers SE of Pelican on Route 175; 31°51.647' N, 93°33.335' W. 21-July-06 [Populations 5 and 6]	<i>P. perforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 653-A, B
	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 655
	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 656
	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i> *	Widhelm & Egan 654a
	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 654-AA, C, D
	<i>P. louisianae</i>	Widhelm & Egan 657
		Widhelm & Egan 661
Louisiana, Caddo Parish: 9.7 Kilometers NNE of Vivian along Route 769 on Black Bayou Lake; edge of a cypress swamp; 32°55.928' N, 93°58.240' W. 21-July-06 [Populations 7 and 8]	<i>P. perforatum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 663-A, B, C
	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 664
	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	Widhelm & Egan 666-A, B
	<i>P. louisianae</i>	Widhelm & Egan 665-A, B
Spain	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	Crespo
	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	Crespo

Presence of secondary metabolites in each individual thallus was determined with thin layer chromatography (TLC) in solvent A (Culberson 1972). Each thallus was scored for presence or absence of norstictic acid, stictic acid, alectoronic acid, soredia, and apothecia. Constictic and connorstictic acids were not scored because they are difficult to distinguish from each other using our TLC method. Based on these five characters, each thallus was identified to one of the six currently accepted species in this complex (Culberson 1973). Herbarium packets were filled with one to many conspecific thalli from each location and assigned a collection number. All voucher specimens are deposited at OMA (Table XIV).

From these collections, a total of forty-four thalli representing the six species of the *Parmotrema perforatum* group in North America north of Mexico were selected for the phylogenetic component of this study: *P. perforatum* (Jacq.) A. Massal (11 specimens), *P. hypotropum* (Nyl.) Hale (9), *P. preperforatum* (Culb.) Hale (8), *P. hypoleucinum* (Steiner) Hale (3), *P. subrigidum* Egan (10) and *P. louisianae* (Hale) Hale (3) (Tables XIV and XV). Mass collections from two sites in Texas (Lake Limestone, 17 thalli; Fort Parker, 9 thalli) and two sites in Louisiana (Pelican, 10 thalli; Vivian, 8 thalli) are included in the present study (Figures 14 and 15, Table XIV). These four sites were selected because they had the highest species diversity among the 25 sites sampled. Two samples of *P. hypoleucinum* from Spain were also included to determine if geographic isolation has been long enough for differentiation to occur. Sequences from *Parmotrema fistulatum*, *P. reticulatum*, *P. cetratum*, *P. perlatum*, *P. pilosum*, *P. haitiense* and *P. crinitum* were used as out-groups to root the allele tree (Genbank accession numbers in Tables XV and XVI).

TABLE XV. COLLECTION NUMBERS WITH CORRESPONDING ALLELE NUMBER AND GENBANK ACCESSION NUMBER OF ALL INGROUP SPECIMENS INCLUDED IN THE ANALYSIS.

Collection data	F.M. DNA #	Species	GPD	IGS	ITS	MS456 (Mcm7)	nuLSU	RPB1	MS277 (Tsr1)
Widhelm & Egan 606	2965	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665274	KX246410	KX246569	KX246605	KX246449	KX246490	KX246530
Widhelm & Egan 607-A	2966	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665270	KX246411	KX246570	KX246606	—	KX246491	KX246531
Widhelm & Egan 607-B	2967	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665271	KX246412	KX246571	KX246607	KX246450	KX246492	KX246532
Widhelm & Egan 607-C	2968	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665272	KX246413	KX246572	—	KX246451	KX246493	KX246533
Widhelm & Egan 607-D	2969	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665273	KX246414	KX246573	KX246608	KX246452	KX246494	KX246534
Widhelm & Egan 607-E	2970	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665299	KX246415	KX246574	KX246609	KX246453	KX246495	KX246535
Widhelm & Egan 608-A	2971	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665300	KX246416	KX246575	KX246610	KX246454	KX246496	KX246536
Widhelm & Egan 608-B	2972	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665269	KX246417	KX246576	KX246611	KX246455	KX246497	KX246537
Widhelm & Egan 609	2973	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665275	KX246418	KX246577	KX246612	KX246456	KX246498	KX246538
Widhelm & Egan 611-B	2974	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665279	KX246419	KX246578	KX246613	KX246457	KX246499	KX246539
Widhelm & Egan 611-C	2975	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665280	KX246420	KX246579	KX246614	KX246458	KX246500	KX246540
Widhelm & Egan 612	2976	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665278	KX246421	KX246580	KX246615	KX246459	KX246501	—
Widhelm & Egan 613-A	2977	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665303	KX246422	KX246581	KX246616	KX246460	KX246502	KX246541
Widhelm & Egan 613-B	2978	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665288	KX246423	KX246582	KX246617	KX246461	KX246503	KX246542
Widhelm & Egan 613-C	2979	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665304	KX246424	KX246583	KX246618	KX246462	KX246504	—
Widhelm & Egan 614-A	2980	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665283	KX246425	KX246584	KX246619	KX246463	KX246505	KX246543
Widhelm & Egan 614-B	2981	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665284	KX246426	—	KX246620	KX246464	KX246506	KX246544
Widhelm & Egan 614-C	2982	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665285	KX246427	KX246585	KX246621	KX246465	—	KX246545
Widhelm & Egan 615-A	2983	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665281	KX246428	—	KX246622	KX246466	KX246507	—
Widhelm & Egan 615-B	2984	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665282	KX246429	KX246586	KX246623	KX246467	KX246508	KX246546
Widhelm & Egan 616	2985	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665301	KX246430	—	KX246624	KX246468	KX246509	KX246547
Widhelm & Egan 617	2986	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665276	KX246431	KX246587	—	KX246469	KX246510	—
Widhelm & Egan 618-A	2987	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665286	—	KX246588	KX246625	KX246470	KX246511	KX246548
Widhelm & Egan 618-B	2988	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665287	KX246432	KX246589	KX246626	KX246471	KX246512	KX246549
Widhelm & Egan 618-C	2989	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665302	KX246433	KX246590	KX246627	KX246472	KX246513	KX246550
Widhelm & Egan 619	2990	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	EU665277	KX246434	—	KX246628	KX246473	KX246514	KX246551
Widhelm & Egan 653-B	2991	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665258	—	—	KX246629	—	—	KX246552
Widhelm & Egan 653-C	2992	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665305	—	—	—	KX246474	KX246515	—

Table XV, CONTINUED

Collection data	F.M. DNA #	Species	GPD	IGS	ITS	MS456 (Mcm7)	nuLSU	RPB1	MS277 (Tsr1)
Widhelm & Egan 654-AA	2993	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665261	KX246435	KX246591	KX246630	KX246475	KX246516	KX246553
Widhelm & Egan 654-C	2994	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665306	KX246436	KX246592	KX246631	—	KX246517	KX246554
Widhelm & Egan 654-D	2995	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665307	KX246437	KX246593	KX246632	—	KX246518	KX246555
Widhelm & Egan 654a	2996	<i>P. preperforatum</i>	EU665260	—	KX246594	—	KX246476	KX246519	KX246556
Widhelm & Egan 655	2997	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665259	—	KX246595	KX246633	KX246477	KX246520	KX246557
Widhelm & Egan 656	2998	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665257	KX246438	KX246596	KX246634	KX246478	KX246521	KX246558
Widhelm & Egan 657	2999	<i>P. subrigidum</i>	EU665268	KX246439	KX246597	KX246635	KX246479	KX246522	KX246559
Widhelm & Egan 661	3000	<i>P. louisianae</i>	EU665256	KX246440	KX246598	KX246636	KX246480	KX246523	KX246560
Widhelm & Egan 663-A	3001	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665308	KX246441	KX246599	KX246637	KX246481	—	KX246561
Widhelm & Egan 663-B	3002	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665265	KX246442	KX246600	KX246638	KX246482	KX246524	KX246562
Widhelm & Egan 663-C	3003	<i>P. perforatum</i>	EU665266	—	KX246601	KX246639	KX246483	—	KX246563
Widhelm & Egan 664	3004	<i>P. hypotropum</i>	EU665262	KX246443	KX246602	—	KX246484	—	KX246564
Widhelm & Egan 665-A	3005	<i>P. louisianae</i>	EU665263	KX246444	—	—	KX246485	KX246525	KX246565
Widhelm & Egan 665-B	3006	<i>P. louisianae</i>	EU665264	—	KX246603	KX246640	KX246486	KX246526	KX246566
Widhelm & Egan 666-B	3007	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	EU665290	KX246445	—	KX246641	—	KX246527	KX246567
Widhelm & Egan 666-C	3008	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	EU665289	KX246446	KX246604	—	KX246487	KX246528	KX246568
Crespo & Sergio 4a	3311	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	—	KX246447	—	—	KX246488	—	—
Crespo & Sergio 4b	3312	<i>P. hypoleucinum</i>	—	KX246448	—	—	KX246489	KX246529	—

TABLE XVI. SAMPLE IDENTIFICATION AND GENBANK ACCESSION NUMBERS FOR LOCI FROM OUTGROUP TAXA.

Species	Sample ID	ITS	nuLSU	RPBI	Mcm7	Tsr1	GPD
<i>Parmotrema cetratum</i>	Uruguay: Maldonado, Osorio 9424 (MVM, MAF-Lich 7649)	AY586576	AY584847	EF092143	KR995649	—	—
<i>Parmotrema crinitum</i>	Portugal: Lisboa, Crespo s.n. (MAF-Lich 6061)	AY586565	AY584837	GU994723	KR995650	—	—
<i>Parmotrema crinitum</i>	Spain: Tenerife, Crespo & Divakar s.n. (MAF-Lich 16119)	—	—	—	—	KP888272	—
<i>Parmotrema fistulatum</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	AY249621
<i>Parmotrema fistulatum</i>	Uruguay: Maldonado, Geymonat, 9423 (MVM, MAF-Lich 7655)	AY581057	AY578920	GU994724	KR995651	KP888273	—
<i>Parmotrema haitiense</i>	Australia: Australian Capital Territory, Lowhoff et al. s.n. (MAF-Lich 7657)	AY581055	AY578918	EF092144	KR995652	KP888274	—
<i>Parmotrema perlatus</i>	Portugal: Sintra, Crespo et al. s.n. (MAF-Lich 6965)	AY586566	AY584838	EF092146	—	—	—
<i>Parmotrema perlatus</i>	Spain: Tenerife, Crespo & Divakar s.n. (MAF-Lich 16122)	—	—	—	KR995656	KP888277	—
<i>Parmotrema perlatus</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	AY249618
<i>Parmotrema pilosum</i>	Uruguay: Maldonado, Sacarabino (MAF-Lich 7656)	AY581056	AY578919	GU994728	KR995657	KP888278	—
<i>Parmotrema reticulatum</i>	Portugal: Lisboa, Crespo s.n. (MAF-Lich 6067)	AY586579	AY584850	GU994729	KR995658	—	—
<i>Parmotrema reticulatum</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	AY249617

### **5.2.2 Molecular methods**

Total genomic DNA was isolated from a ca. 30 mg fragment of each thallus using the DNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) following the manufacturer's instructions except grinding was done with 50  $\mu$ L of lysis buffer and a pinch of sand in a porcelain mortar and pestle. If apothecia were present on the thallus, DNA was extracted from a fragment that was approximately 50-100% apothecia by mass. On thalli without apothecia, lobes were used for DNA isolation. Fungal specific primers (Table XVII) were used to amplify seven nuclear loci. Of these, three were ribosomal loci: the whole internal transcribed spacer (ITS: ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2), a portion of the intergenic spacer (IGS), and a portion of the large subunit (nuLSU). The other four were low-copy protein coding genes, including glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate-dehydrogenase (*GPD*), DNA replication licensing factor (*Mcm7*), ribosome biogenesis protein (*Tsr1*), and the largest subunit of RNA polymerase II (*RPB1*). Parameters for amplifying the ITS followed Blanco *et al.* (Blanco et al. 2005), and amplification of IGS and nuLSU employed a 66 °–56 ° C touchdown cycle (Lindblom and Ekman 2006). For *GPD*, part of the protein coding region spanning three exons and three introns were PCR-amplified using the parameters described in Myllys, Lohtander, & Tehler (Myllys, Lohtander, and Tehler 2001). The *Mcm7*, *Tsr1*, and *RPB1* loci were amplified as in Schmitt *et al.*, (Schmitt et al. 2009). Unincorporated dNTP and primers for all amplified loci were removed enzymatically by adding 5 units ExoI (Promega) and 0.5 unit shrimp alkaline phosphatase (Promega) to 5  $\mu$ L of PCR product. The reaction was incubated at 37°C for 45 minutes and 80°C for 15 minutes to deactivate the enzymes. PCR products were used as templates for direct forward and reverse sequencing with BigDyeTerminator v3.1 chemistry. The *GPD* sequencing reactions were run on an ABI 3730 48-capillary electrophoresis DNA analyzer sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) at the DNA Sequencing and



Genotyping Core Facility (University of Nebraska Medical Center, Omaha, NE). The other genes (ITS, nuLSU, IGS, *RPB1*, *Mcm7*, *Tsr1*) were sequenced on the ABI 3730 48-capillary electrophoresis DNA analyzer sequencer in the Pritzker Laboratory at the Field Museum.

TABLE XVII. PRIMERS USED FOR PCR AMPLIFICATION AND SEQUENCING NUCLEAR RIBOSOMAL IGS, ITS, NULSU AND PROTEIN CODING GENES *GPD*, *MCM7*, *RPB1*, AND *TSR1*.

Marker	Primer name	Forward primer sequence	Annealing temperature °C	Reference
IGS	XIGS_ F	5'-GCCGMTGGCTATCATTATCC-3'	56–65 (touchdown)	This study Leavitt <i>et al.</i> (2011)
	XIGS_ R	5'-TACTGGCAGAATCARCCAGG-3'		
ITS	ITS1 F	5'-CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA-3'	56–65 (touchdown)	Gardes & Bruns (1993) White <i>et al.</i> (1990)
	ITS4	5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'		
nuLSU	<sup>a</sup> AL2R	5'-GCGAGTGAAGCGGCAACAGCTC-3'	56–65 (touchdown)	Mangold <i>et al.</i> (2008)
	LR3	5'-CCGTGTTTCAAGACGGG-3'		
<i>GPD</i>	GPD1-LM	5'-ATTGGCCGCATCGTCTTCCGCAA-3'	60	Myllys <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Mcm7</i>	GPD2-LM	5'-CCCACTCGTTGTCGTACCA-3'	56	Myllys <i>et al.</i> (2002)
	Mcm7-709F	5'-ACIMGIGTITCVGAYGTHAARCC-3'		Schmitt <i>et al.</i> (2009)
	Mcm7-1348R	5'-GAYTTDGCACICCCIGGRTCWCCCAT-3'		Schmitt <i>et al.</i> (2009)
<i>RPB1</i>	9RPB1-A	5'-GARTGYCCDGGDCAY-3'	50	Stiller & Hall (1997)
<i>Tsr1</i>	fRPB1-C	5'-CCNGCDATNTCRTRTCCATRTA-3'	49	Matheny <i>et al.</i> (2002)
	Tsr1-1459for	5'-CCIGAYGARATYGARCTICAYCC-3'		Schmitt <i>et al.</i> (2009)
	Tsr1-2308rev	5'-CTTRAARTAICCRTGIGTICC-3'		Schmitt <i>et al.</i> (2009)

### 5.2.3 Sequence alignment and phylogenetic analysis

Contigs were assembled with Vector NTI 10.1.1 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and Geneious 8.1.7 (Biomatters, Auckland, New Zealand). Traces were carefully examined for double peaks. If a base call was ambiguous in one read but unambiguous in the complementary

strand sequence, the nucleotide was called as unambiguous. Sequences were aligned with default settings by MUSCLE implemented in Geneious 8.1.7. Data matrix concatenation was also performed in Geneious 8.1.7.

Phylogenetic relationships were inferred using maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI), in addition to the multispecies coalescent species tree approach. Analyses of individual gene tree topologies yielded no well-supported ( $\geq 70\%$  bootstrap values) conflicts, thus phylogenetic relationships were estimated from a seven locus concatenated data matrix using a total-evidence approach (Kluge 1989). The data matrix had approximately 14% missing data; however, phylogenetic analyses have been shown to accurately infer relationships if many characters are sampled overall (Wiens and Morrill 2011). For the ML analysis, we used RAxML v8.0.0 (Stamatakis 2014) to reconstruct the concatenated ML gene-tree. We implemented the GTRGAMMA model and evaluated nodal support using 1000 bootstrap pseudoreplicates. PartitionFinder v1.1.1 (Lanfear et al. 2012) was used to infer the best-fitting partitioning scheme. The input file contained a total of 32 partitions, corresponding to ribosomal RNA genes (5.8s, nuLSU) and spacer regions (IGS, ITS1, ITS2) in the ribosomal repeat regions, introns in protein coding genes (three in *GPD* and two in *RPB1*) and first, second, and third codon positions of each exon of the protein coding genes (*GPD*, *Mcm7*, *RPB1*, *Tsr1*). We used the "greedy" algorithm (heuristic search) with branch lengths estimated as "linked" implemented in PartitionFinder where only one underlying set of branch lengths is estimated. We used the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) as implemented in PartitionFinder. We also reconstructed phylogenetic relationships using the concatenated matrix under a Bayesian approach using BEAST v1.8.0 (A J Drummond and Rambaut 2007). The same partitioning scheme that was used in the ML analysis was also used in the Bayesian analysis. We ran two independent Markov

Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains for 20 million generations, implementing a relaxed lognormal clock and a constant coalescent speciation process prior. The first 25% of generations were discarded as burn-in and the remaining trees from the two runs were combined in the program LogCombiner v2.0 (Alexei J. Drummond et al. 2012).

#### **5.2.4 Inference of putative populations**

We used the Bayesian clustering program STRUCTURE v.2.3.2 to identify genetic groups without a priori knowledge within the *P. perforatum* group. While STRUCTURE assumes independence of all loci (no linkage), previous studies have demonstrated that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from multilocus DNA sequence data can also effectively recover population structure (O'Neill et al. 2013; Altermann et al. 2014). Therefore, we reduced our concatenated, multi-locus dataset to include only polymorphic sites for the STRUCTURE analyses. Indels and 'N's were ignored for the purpose of the SNP identification. We explored the population assignments for K values ranging from 1 to 10, with 10 replicate runs per K value. We used the admixture options, and each mcmc run consisted of 50,000 burn-in generations, followed by 50,000 iterations. Results of the STRUCTURE analyses were evaluated using the Structure Harvester webserver (Earl and vonHoldt 2012), and the optimal number of genetic clusters was inferred using the  $\Delta K$  method (Evanno, Regnaut, and Goudet 2005).

#### **5.2.5 Species tree inference**

We used a coalescent-based hierarchical Bayesian model \*BEAST implemented in BEAST v2.0.0 (Drummond and Rambaut 2007; Drummond, Xie, and Heled 2009) to estimate species trees. \*BEAST incorporates the coalescent process and the uncertainty associated with gene trees and nucleotide substitution model parameters and estimates the species tree directly from the sequence data (Drummond, Xie, and Heled 2009). Population assignments are required

a priori for \*BEAST analyses, and we assigned each individual to species based on two putative population hypotheses: 1) the traditional classification of reproductive mode and chemical profile determined by TLC for a total of six different populations and 2) the three species scenario inferred from the STRUCTURE analysis. We employed bModelTest (Bouckaert 2015), a Bayesian approach implemented in BEAUti, to estimate nucleotide site substitution model for each of the six sequence alignments which were treated as separate partitions (*GPD*, ITS, *Mcm7*, *nuLSU*, *RPB1* and *Tsr1*) in the \*BEAST analysis. Two independent MCMC runs of 100 million generations were executed with sampling at every 2000 steps. Chain mixing and convergence were evaluated in Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al. 2014) making sure that ESS values were greater than 200. We discarded the first 25% of trees as burn-in and the remaining trees from the two runs were combined in the program LogCombiner v2.0 (Drummond et al. 2012), and the final MCC tree was estimated from the combined posterior distribution of the trees using TreeAnnotator v2 (Drummond et al. 2012). Likelihood values of each species tree (three-species and six-species) were compared with a likelihood ratio test in R, to see which model better describes the data.

#### **5.2.6 Species delimitation**

The program BP&P v3.2 (Yang and Rannala 2010) was used to estimate Bayesian posterior probability distributions for alternative models of species delimitation (speciation probabilities). For the BP&P analysis we tested the two hypotheses of species inference found in STRUCTURE (three species scenario) and the traditional circumscription (six species scenario) by using the \*BEAST species trees as guide trees from each analysis. In the six species scenario, the six currently accepted taxa were taken as putative species and two starting tree topologies, one representing the traditional hypothetical relationships and the other representing the

\*BEAST species tree, were used for each analysis. The gamma prior G (2, 2000) was used on the population size parameters and on sequence divergence, while the Dirichlet prior was assigned to other divergence time parameters. Each was run twice to confirm consistency between runs.

### **5.3 Results**

#### **5.3.1 Sympatry of *Parmotrema perforatum* group species**

Collection data from 25 sites showed that the distributions of all six species in the *P. perforatum* group species overlap in a ca. 15,000 km<sup>2</sup> area in eastern Texas and western Louisiana. All specimens were collected on hardwood tree species; none were found on conifers at these sites. Four to six species co-occurred within an area of ca. 100 m<sup>2</sup> at each of our four sampled sites (Table XIV). Differences in abundance and combination of taxa varied at different sites. Such extensive co-occurrence of the North American species of the *Parmotrema perforatum* group was unexpected, having never been reported before. All specimens were collected on hardwood tree species.

#### **5.3.2 Sequences and alignment**

We generated 276 new sequences from seven loci for this study. The data set of 46 individuals produced a concatenated alignment that spanned 4726 bp. All sequences were submitted to Genbank (Table XV). Approximately 14% of sequences were missing from the concatenated matrix.

#### **5.3.3 Phylogenetic analysis**

The ML phylogeny estimated from the concatenated 7-locus dataset (Figure 16) recovered three well-supported, major clades in the *P. perforatum* group individuals sampled. Clade A was comprised of all *P. perforatum s. str.* specimens and a single specimen identified as *P. hypotropum*; all these specimens contain only norstictic acid. Clade B included all specimens

identified as *P. subrigidum* and *P. louisianae*, all of which produce alectoronic acid. Clade C, was comprised of all *P. preperforatum* and *P. hypoleucinum* specimens and all but one specimen of *P. hypotropum* specimens. Clade C has a mixture of chemical profiles, including individuals with stictic and norstictic acids and individuals with only norstictic acid. All specimens of *P. preperforatum* s. str. were recovered as monophyletic, but its hypothetical species pair, *P. hypotropum* was polyphyletic, appearing in both Clades A and C. The species pair of *P. subrigidum* and *P. louisianae* clustered together in one monophyletic clade, but neither of these was recovered as monophyletic within Clade B. In Clade C, *P. preperforatum* was paraphyletic and *P. hypoleucinum* was polyphyletic with some of the *P. hypoleucinum* individuals intermixed with the *P. preperforatum* clade and the other two, from Europe, clustering with specimens of *P. hypotropum*. Each clade contained both apotheciate and sorediate specimens. The BI topology inferred from the concatenated seven-locus data matrix in BEAST was congruent with the ML topology.

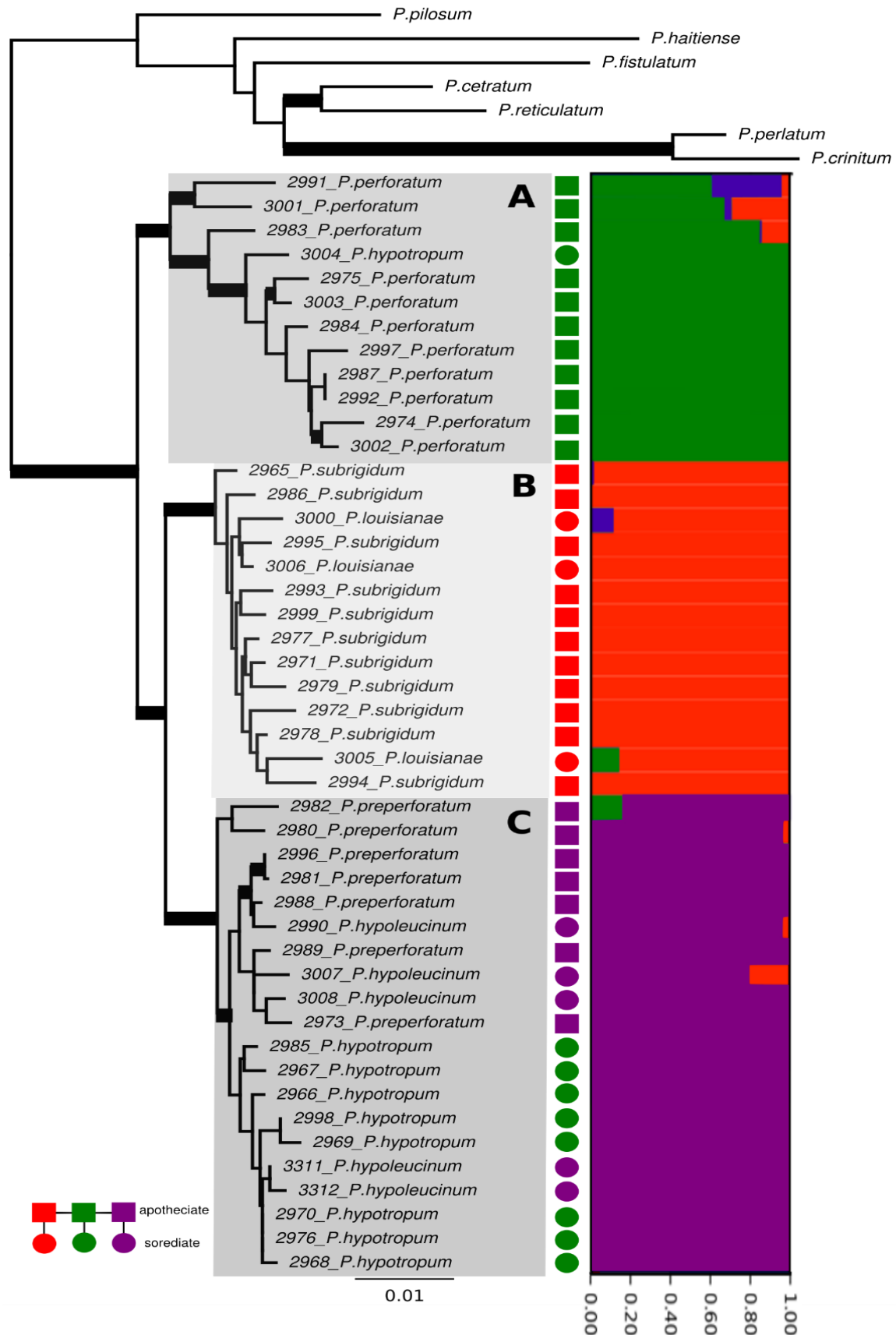


Figure 16. Phylogeny of the *Parmotrema perforatum* group with other *Parmotrema* species selected as outgroup inferred from a seven locus data set as the most likely tree in a ML analysis which was congruent with the BEAST BI. Support was evaluated with ML bootstrap proportions (BS) and bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP) which are mapped onto the branches. Support is depicted as the bold branches: (ML-BS>75 / BPP>95). Colours represent chemical composition of the sample collected inferred by TLC (green = norstictic acid only, red = alectoronic acid, purple = norstictic+stictic acid). Apotheciate (sexual) species are depicted as squares while sorediate (asexual) species are shown as circles.

The partitioning strategy inferred with PartitionFinder resulted in three partitions: (I) the first codon position in the first exon, the third codon position in the second exon, and the second codon position of the third exon and all three introns for *GPD*; all of IGS, 18S, ITS1, and ITS2; the third codon position for *Mcm7*; the second codon in the first exon and third codon in the second exon and both introns for *RPBI*; and the first and third codon positions for *TsrI*; (ii) the second and third codon positions of the first exon, and the first position in the second exon of *GPD*; the first and second codon positions of *Mcm7*; the first codon position of the first and second exons in *RPBI*; the second codon position of *TsrI*; and all of the nuLSU; and (iii) the 5.8s gene; the second codon position of the second exon and the first and third codon positions of the third exon in *GPD*; and the third codon position of the first exon and the second codon position of the second exon in *RPBI*. The GTR+G model was used for the first and third partitions while the GTR+I+G was used for the second partition as these were found to be the best fitting nucleotide substitution models in PartitionFinder.

### **5.3.4 Inference of putative population clusters**

Bayesian clustering using STRUCTURE resulted in strong support for three distinct populations, congruent with the concatenated ML and Bayesian phylogenetic clades A, B, and C.



Most individuals showed little evidence of admixed genomes (probability of assignment to a single genetic cluster  $>0.95$ ), although a limited number of individuals showed evidence of admixture (Figure 16). Likelihood values in the STRUCTURE analysis peaked at  $K=3$ , and the ad hoc  $\Delta K$  approach supported a three population model as well (Evanno, Regnaut, and Goudet 2005) (Figure 17).

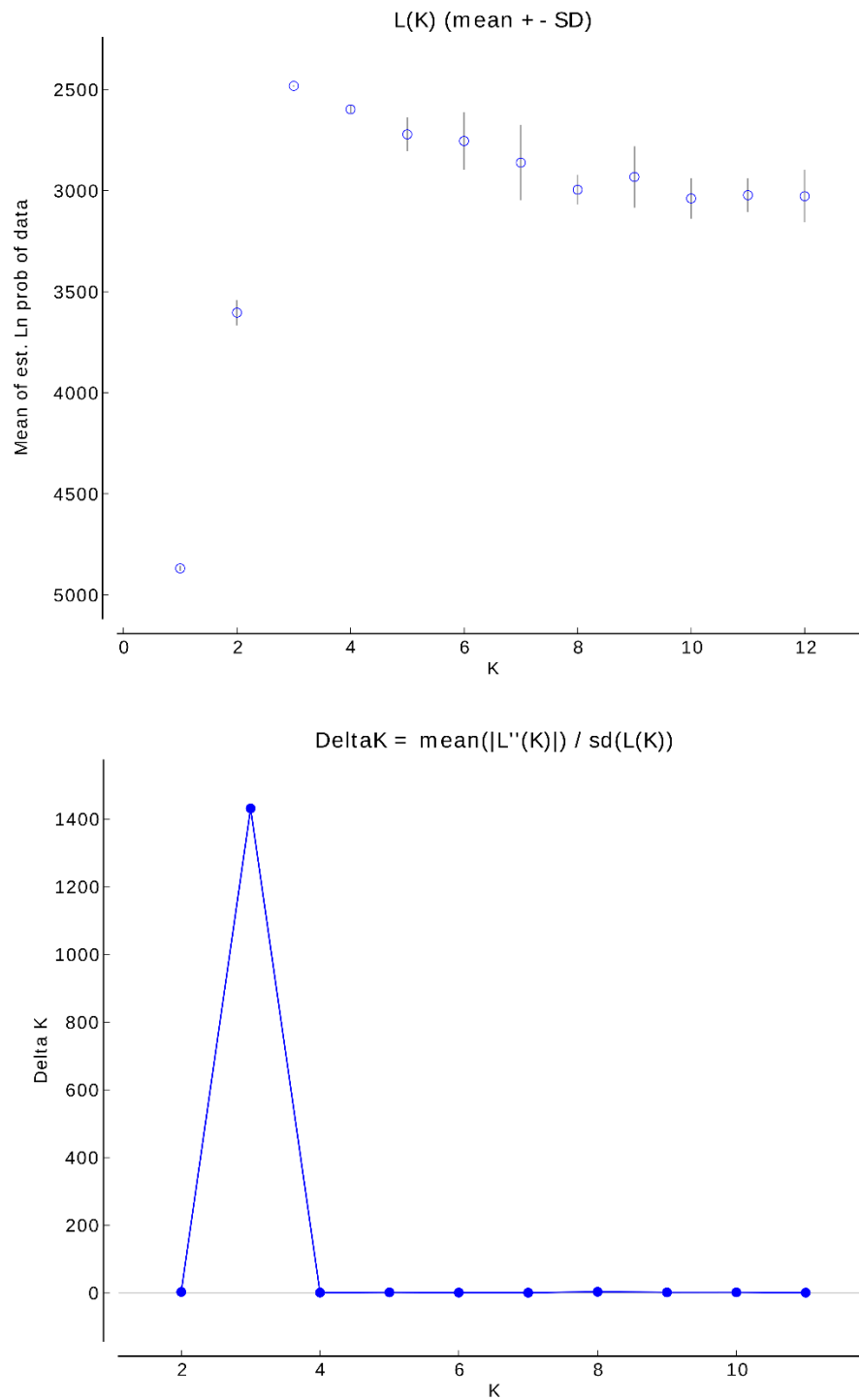


Figure 17. A, Mean  $L(K)$  ( $\pm$ SD) over ten runs for each  $K$  value. B,  $\Delta K$  calculated as  $\Delta K = m[L''(K)]/s[L(K)]$ . The modal value of this distribution is the true  $K(^*)$  or the uppermost level of structure, here three clusters.

### **5.3.5 Species tree inference**

In both \*BEAST analyses, run lengths generated effective sample size (ESS) values in the thousands and tree topologies were congruent across independent runs. Figure 16 shows the results of the three species scenario, where asterisks denote the topology recovered by \*BEAST. The three species tree is congruent with the backbone branches of the concatenated phylogeny and recovering the three species A, B, and C with PP support greater than 90 on all branches. Figure 18 shows the MCC species tree with PP support from the \*BEAST analysis indicated in above the branches. In Figure 18, BP&P species delimitation PP values are shown in italics by the names of putative species and in the nodes to show the PP of combined putative species. The topology of the species tree mirrors the backbone of the ML tree in Figure 17. The *P. perforatum* group was inferred as monophyletic and all branches were highly supported (PP >90) except the clade of *P. preperforatum* and *P. hypoleucinum* (PP = 0.87), which was sister to *P. hypotropum*. Sister to this clade was the clade of the alectoronic acid containing species *P. subrigidum* and *P. louisianae* and sister to the rest of the group was *P. perforatum*.

The likelihood values of the species trees inferred in \*BEAST was -10568.3934 and -10575.2822 for the three- and six-species trees respectively. A chi-squared test of the likelihood ratio had a *p*-value=0, indicating that the three-species model is significantly better than the six-species model at explaining the model.

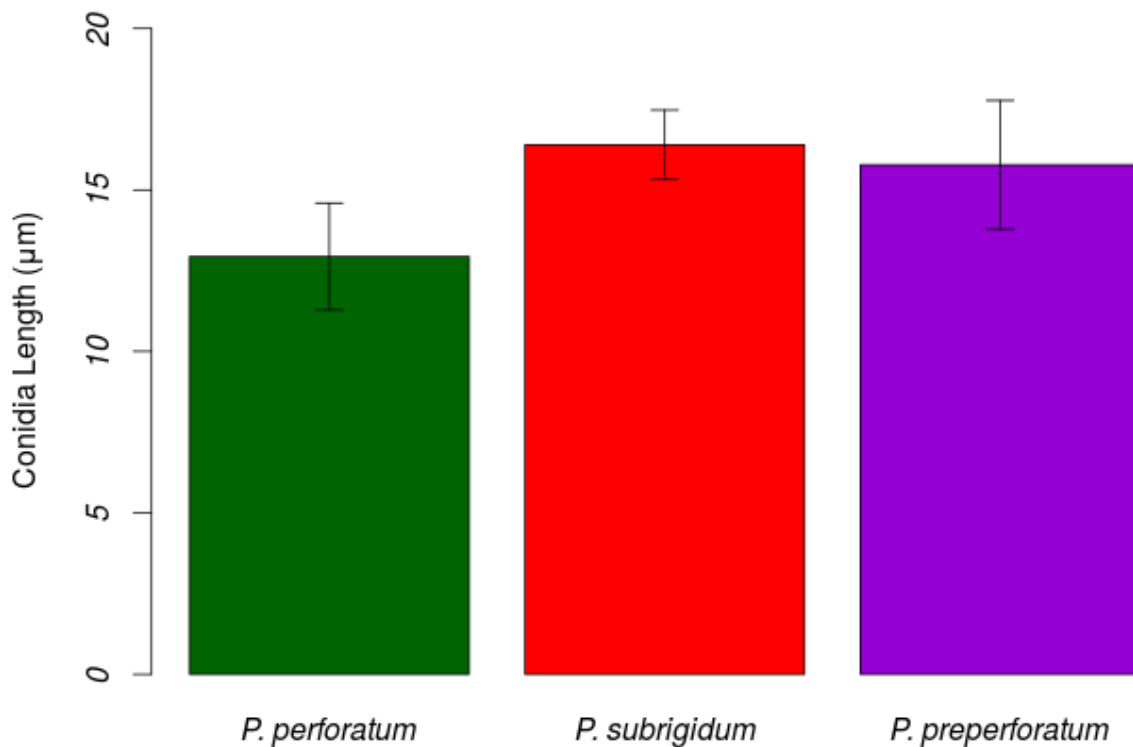


Figure 18. Average conidia length of apotheciate (sexually reproducing) species of the PPG.

### **5.3.6 Species delimitation analysis**

In the three species scenario, BP&P inferred a final species tree that was congruent with the \*BEAST three-species tree. It is depicted in Figure 16 by asterisks above the branches.

BP&P delimited the three species A, B, and C all with PP = 1.

Despite the difference in starting tree topologies in the six species scenario, BP&P consistently inferred a final species tree topology that was congruent with the \*BEAST species tree in Figure 18. Each run consistently delimited four previously described species (*P.*

*perforatum*, *P. hypotropum*, *P. subrigidum*, and *P. louisianae*) and combined *P. preperforatum* and *P. hypoleucinum* into one species. All species were delimited with high speciation probabilities (PP > 95).

#### **5.3.7 Micromorphological measurements**

In total, 143 conidia from the sexually reproducing specimens of the *P. perforatum* group were measured. Average conidia length was  $12.9 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $16.4 \pm 1.1 \mu\text{m}$  and  $15.8 \pm 2.0 \mu\text{m}$  for *P. perforatum*, *P. subrigidum* and *P. preperforatum*, respectively (Figure 19).

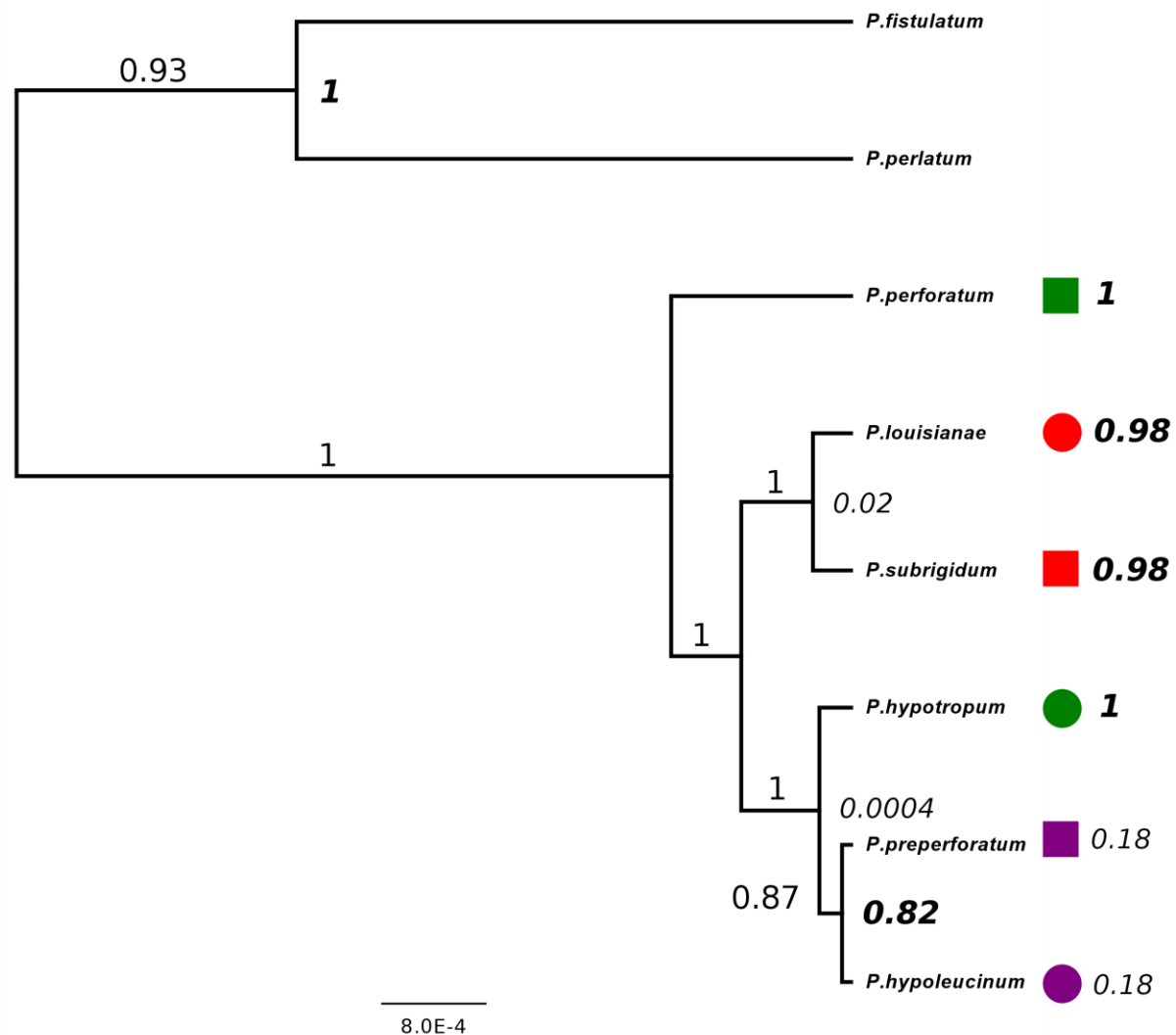


Figure 19. \*BEAST species tree for the *Parmotrema perforatum* group. Posterior probabilities at branches indicate support from the \*BEAST analysis. The posterior probability of each delimited species calculated by BP&P are indicated in italics in front of each putative species or in the node indicating the support if the two species are combined by BP&P. The highly supported BP&P posterior probabilities are shown in bold.

## 5.4 Discussion

Our study provides an important case study highlighting the importance of considering independent lines of evidence and analytical approaches for effectively delimiting species in taxonomically challenging groups. An integrative approach incorporating phenotypic characters (secondary metabolite variation, differences in reproductive strategies, and conidial size), analyses of molecular sequence data using Bayesian clustering, ML and BI phylogenetic inference and a coalescent-based species-tree method, and empirical species delimitation analysis in BP&P, provides unprecedented insight into species boundaries and evolutionary relationships in the *P. perforatum* group. We approached the delimitation of species in two ways. The first employed the Bayesian clustering algorithm STRUCTURE to infer putative populations. This approach was congruent with the concatenated phylogeny, inferring three populations that corresponded with the three major clades A, B, and C (Figure 16). Individuals were then assigned to their population for inferring a \*BEAST species tree. This tree was used as a starting topology in BP&P for species delimitation. The three-species scenario was highly supported by all analysis methods (Figure 16). The second approach used a six-species scenario assigning individuals to their traditional circumscribed species to infer a \*BEAST species tree (Figure 18). This topology was used as a starting tree in the BP&P species delimitation. This approach supported the distinctiveness of the traditionally recognized taxa *P. perforatum*, *P. hypotropum*, *P. subrigidum* and *P. louisianae*, while *P. preperforatum* and *P. hypoleucinum* were found to be conspecific. Although our results highlight the fact that secondary metabolite variation and differences in reproductive mode can serve as taxonomically relevant characters in *Parmotrema*, traditional species pair concepts and chemotaxonomy are not reflected in evolutionary relationships.

Before secondary chemistry was integrated into the taxonomic treatment of the *P. perforatum* group, only two species, *Parmelia perforata* (apotheciate-fertile) and *P. hypotropa* (sorediate-sterile) were recognized as distinct, based solely on reproductive strategy. However, inclusion of secondary chemical data revealed six diagnosable populations. Culberson (1973) discussed what he considered to be the best taxonomic treatment of species in the *P. perforatum* group and claimed that all the chemical races of the apotheciate morph were sister species, each with a sorediate counterpart considered a secondary species. Based on this interpretation, he described a number of new species (Culberson 1973). By incorporating multilocus sequence data, we have added another valuable resource for species delimitation.

#### **5.4.1 Evolutionary relationships**

The ML and BI concatenated phylogenies and the Bayesian clustering program STRUCTURE (Figure 16) recovered well-supported clades that corresponded to the secondary chemistry of specimens, providing support for Culberson's (1973) original hypothesis of chemospecies. For example, all apotheciate-fertile chemically unique specimens were in separate, well-supported clades. However, the relationships among these clades did not correlate with the similarity of secondary chemistries. Alecoronic acid, an orcinol-type depsidone, is distinct from norstictic and stictic acids, which are both  $\beta$ -orcinol-type depsidones; the latter two differ only by the degree of *O*-methylation. Based on the chemical structure of secondary compounds, we would expect that the two clades that contain norstictic acid (Figure 17, Clades A and C) would be sister, but instead, the species containing alecoronic acid (*P. subrigidum* and *P. louisianae*, Figure 16, Clade B) were sister to the clade containing *P. preperforatum* (Figure 16, Clade C). This relationship was also observed in the species trees approach of \*BEAST (Figure 18). The BP&P species tree provided the same topology with the highest support of all analyses



even when the starting tree matched the traditional hypothesis proposed by Culberson (1973). The observed evolutionary relationships found in all DNA sequence analyses were further confirmed by conidial length data (Figure 19); conidia from *P. perforatum* were smaller (average conidia length  $12.9 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{m}$ ) than those of *P. subrigidum* and *P. preperforatum* (average lengths of  $16.4 \pm 1.1 \mu\text{m}$  and  $15.8 \pm 2.0 \mu\text{m}$  respectively).

Culberson (1973) considered the sorediate taxa (secondary species) to be derived from their apotheciate counterpart (primary species), thus forming closely related species pairs. Most studies that address the issue of species pairs find the two species of the pair to be monophyletic in molecular phylogenies (Myllys, Lohtander, and Tehler 2001; Lohtander, Källersjö, and Tehler 1998; Lohtander et al. 2000; Articus et al. 2002; Cubero et al. 2004; Buschbom and Mueller 2006; Wirtz, Printzen, and Lumbsch 2012; Lohtander et al. 1998). However, of the sorediate-sterile individuals of *P. hypotropum*, which only contains norstictic acid, only one specimen clustered with its primary counterpart *P. perforatum* (Figure 16, Clade A), and most specimens formed a clade that was sister to the stictic acid clade of *P. preperforatum* (Figure 16, Clade C). This was unexpected, since *P. hypotropum* was hypothesized to be a derived sterile species pair from *P. perforatum* (Culberson 1973). This evolutionary relationship was further corroborated using the coalescent-based species tree inference programs \*BEAST and BP&P, both of which placed *P. hypotropum* sister to the stictic acid clade (Figure 18).

In the other sorediate-sterile taxon, *P. hypoleucinum*, all specimens collected in North America clustered with chemically similar specimens of the apotheciate counterpart *P. preperforatum*, but the individuals from Europe clustered with the *P. hypotropum* sub-clade in Clade C on the ML phylogeny (Figure 16). In the alectoronic clade, *P. louisianae* was always clustered with chemically similar specimens of apotheciate *P. subrigidum* in their own

monophyletic clade (Clade B, Figure 16) with no support for the two to be distinct species, but \*BEAST and BP&P always recovered them as distinct lineages with high PP support (Figure 19).

#### **5.4.2 Species delimitation**

The analyses of the seven-locus concatenated dataset gave us a first look at the relationships of the individuals in the group, suggesting hypotheses of independently evolving lineages. However, with gene concatenation, there still is the possibility that loci have different evolutionary histories and inaccurate inferences could be drawn (DeGiorgio et al. 2014). Also, species delimitation based on monophyly of clades of genes is usually highly supportive for determining boundaries, but it is not necessary and can potentially lead to inaccurate delimitations (Ross, Murugan, and Li 2008). To address these potential issues, we employed a coalescent-based model to identify well-supported species and to quantify the probability of evolutionary divergence to avoid the possible bias from single-gene or concatenated phylogenies (Knowles and Carstens 2007; Fujita et al. 2012). The species tree generated by the MSC program \*BEAST (Figure 18) generally corroborated the topology of the ML phylogeny (Figure 17). This topology was used as a starting tree in the species delimitation program BP&P which is able to detect evolutionary lineages even if they are recently diverged (Yang and Rannala 2010). Using BP&P, all traditional species were delimited with high support values (PP >95%) with the exception of *P. preperforatum* and *P. hypoleucinum* which were consistently combined into one species in multiple analyses.

#### **5.5 Conclusions**

Our analyses support the presence of three to five distinct species-level lineages in the *Parmotrema perforatum* group in eastern Texas and western Louisiana depending. Using only

DNA sequence data, three populations were inferred with the Bayesian clustering program STRUCTURE and in the concatenated ML and BI phylogenies, corresponding to clades A, B, and C. The MSC methods \*BEAST and BP&P both highly supported the three species delimitation. However, when independent chemical and morphological data were included, a more detailed delimitation was the result. In the six-species situation, the currently circumscribed species, *P. perforatum*, *P. hypotropum*, *P. subrigidum* and *P. louisianae* were delimited using the MSC method BP&P, with the exception of the chemically identical species pair of *P. preperforatum* and *P. hypoleucinum*, which were consistently recovered as conspecific. Furthermore, these species-level lineages were recovered with strong support in both concatenated and MSC species-tree topologies. Even though the six-species model is more fine-tuned, the likelihood ratio test, showed that the three-species model was significantly better. However, this result is difficult to accept completely at this stage, as we feel that more sampling may be necessary to get a clearer picture of species boundaries in the *P. perforatum* group.

This study provides a detailed investigation of the *P. perforatum* group in the Southern United States, integrating morphology, chemistry, concatenated molecular data and MSC-based methods; however, for a clearer picture of the species boundaries in this group, future studies should include a broader, worldwide sample.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

TABLE XVIII. HYBPIPER BLASTX STATS.

Name	ReadsMapped	GenesMapped	GenesWithContigs	GenesWithSeqs	GenesAt25pct	GenesAt50pct	GenesAt75pct	Genesat150pct	ParalogWarnings
<i>15880-Sticta-fuliginosa</i>	16247	395	244	242	240	214	182	0	2
<i>4005-Ricasolia-amplissima</i>	43711	394	378	378	378	375	366	0	10
<i>15878-Pseudocyphellaria-pubescens</i>	77434	389	378	377	377	375	368	0	12
<i>15871-Sticta-caulescens</i>	66202	396	377	376	375	375	363	0	14
<i>14538-Sticta-scabrosa</i>	104206	393	380	379	379	376	370	0	15
<i>15885-Pseudocyphellaria-hirsuta</i>	49919	387	365	365	365	362	353	0	20
<i>15881-Sticta-fuliginosa</i>	22895	386	311	310	307	294	256	0	8
<i>15682-Ricasolia-sp</i>	67366	393	382	382	382	381	371	0	14
<i>14850-Pseudocyphellaria-rubrina</i>	212630	396	387	387	386	385	381	0	29
<i>15156-Sticta-sp</i>	34842	384	344	343	339	332	307	0	8
<i>15848-Pseudocyphellaria-freycinetii</i>	65127	391	374	374	374	372	366	0	12
<i>15678-Yoshimuriella-sp</i>	23494	390	277	276	274	269	255	0	8
<i>15879-Sticta-latifrons</i>	40643	387	359	358	358	352	335	0	9
<i>15890-Pseudocyphellaria-carpoloma</i>	99794	394	377	376	376	374	369	0	11
<i>15686-Lobaria-sp</i>	25823	390	301	299	298	292	266	0	15
<i>15895-Pseudocyphellaria-degelii</i>	106741	392	380	380	380	378	376	0	16
<i>15272-Dendriscosticta-affwrightii</i>	67788	392	383	383	383	383	375	0	13
<i>15253-Dendriscosticta-kurokawae</i>	84925	392	386	385	385	383	374	0	18
<i>15275-Lobariella-sp</i>	89805	393	383	382	382	380	361	0	22
<i>14492-Sticta-beauvoisii</i>	165286	394	381	380	380	379	376	0	15
<i>9930-Lobaria-pulmonaria</i>	317874	400	398	398	398	398	398	0	19
<i>15874-Pseudocyphellaria-haywardiosum</i>	27024	381	312	312	312	310	295	0	8
<i>15873-Sticta-scabrosa</i>	140166	390	380	379	379	376	373	0	23
<i>15155-Sticta-sp</i>	31980	392	344	343	339	329	301	0	9
<i>15892-Pseudocyphellaria-chloroluca</i>	140011	390	375	375	374	371	365	0	13

TABLE XVIII. CONTINUED

Name	ReadsMapped	GenesMapped	GenesWithContigs	GenesWithSeqs	GenesAt25pct	GenesAt50pct	GenesAt75pct	Genesat150pct	ParalogWarnings
<i>15897-Pseudocyphellaria-episticta</i>	76645	394	376	376	376	376	370	0	12
<i>15683-Ricasolia-sp</i>	59859	390	379	379	379	377	370	0	14
<i>15688-Nephroma-sp</i>	37009	381	292	286	284	250	206	0	10
<i>14657-Sticta-affsublimbatoides</i>	12791	381	199	195	194	179	143	0	2
<i>15901-Sticta-latifrons</i>	181353	393	383	382	382	378	374	0	19
<i>15899-Pseudocyphellaria-rufovirescens</i>	105510	393	376	374	373	371	367	0	14
<i>15276-Lobariella-sp</i>	53711	392	378	378	375	364	339	1	23
<i>15280-Yoshimuriella-peltigera</i>	85126	393	382	381	380	378	371	1	17
<i>15882-Sticta-cinereoglauca</i>	7929	386	79	78	74	54	32	0	0
<i>15884-Pseudocyphellaria-sp</i>	69857	390	374	374	374	374	367	0	14
<i>15257-Lobaria-sp</i>	72323	397	395	395	395	393	392	0	16
<i>15876-Pseudocyphellaria-cinnamomea</i>	40418	390	364	364	362	357	347	0	9
<i>15258-Nephroma-antarcticum</i>	62403	384	341	333	330	297	249	0	6
<i>15847-Pseudocyphellaria-berberina</i>	95431	391	381	380	380	380	377	0	13
<i>14840-Pseudocyphellaria-neglecta</i>	87835	389	374	374	374	373	371	0	15
<i>15869-Pseudocyphellaria-intricata</i>	51376	390	370	369	369	367	359	0	11
<i>15894-Pseudocyphellaria-crocatagroup</i>	73117	393	375	375	375	373	370	0	15
<i>15844-Pseudocyphellaria-crocata</i>	91425	387	375	375	0	0	0	0	14
<i>15684-Lobaria-sp</i>	20432	387	253	250	249	243	231	0	7
<i>15679-Yoshimuriella-sp</i>	39663	390	353	352	352	351	337	0	18
<i>15893-Pseudocyphellaria-corbettii</i>	68465	390	375	374	373	371	363	0	10
<i>15898-Pseudocyphellaria-montagnei</i>	172716	393	383	383	381	379	375	0	16
<i>15902-Sticta-lacera-livida</i>	115924	393	384	383	383	381	374	0	19
<i>15277-Lobariella-sp</i>	88480	391	385	385	384	380	359	1	17
<i>15685-Lobaria-sp</i>	26296	390	320	318	318	309	284	0	11
<i>15896-Pseudocyphellaria-disimilis</i>	63765	389	373	373	373	368	357	0	10
<i>15279-Yoshimuriella-peltigera</i>	175762	395	385	385	385	382	374	0	18
<i>15903-Sticta-martinii</i>	154510	394	381	380	379	375	370	0	10
<i>10048-Sticta-afffuliginosa</i>	36811	384	349	349	347	343	333	0	13
<i>14665-Sticta-densiphyllidata</i>	63900	392	378	377	377	374	362	0	16
<i>15891-Pseudocyphellaria-carpoloma</i>	73265	390	376	376	376	375	370	0	10

TABLE XVIII. CONTINUED

Name	ReadsMapped	GenesMapped	GenesWithContigs	GenesWithSeqs	GenesAt25pct	GenesAt50pct	GenesAt75pct	GenesAt150pct	ParalogWarnings
<i>14830-Pseudocyphellaria-billardierei</i>	82895	391	378	376	376	374	372	0	12
<i>15877-Pseudocyphellaria-lividofusa</i>	81644	388	372	372	372	369	363	0	9
<i>15875-Pseudocyphellaria-affinricata</i>	28950	386	324	324	324	320	310	0	8
<i>15843-Pseudocyphellaria-obvoluta</i>	69568	388	375	375	374	372	366	0	15
<i>15886-Pseudocyphellaria-sp</i>	121706	391	379	378	377	376	371	0	14
<i>15889-Nephroma-australe</i>	58436	387	319	314	313	296	259	0	7
<i>14532-Sticta-weigeli</i>	30708	387	345	345	345	338	315	0	11
<i>15841-Pseudocyphellaria-granulata</i>	80330	392	374	373	373	373	369	0	15
<i>15274-Lobarina-oregana</i>	103892	398	389	389	389	387	383	0	16
<i>14493-Sticta-carolinensis</i>	119992	390	383	380	380	380	376	0	17
<i>15256-Lobaria-sp</i>	91578	399	398	398	398	398	396	0	18
<i>10049-Sticta-afflimbata</i>	37025	390	352	351	350	342	334	0	11
<i>15887-Pseudocyphellaria-vaccina</i>	87740	390	378	377	377	375	369	0	24
<i>15850-Yarrumia-coronata</i>	92707	393	383	383	382	381	375	0	31
<i>15851-Yarrumia-colensoi</i>	74045	392	377	377	377	376	366	0	30
<i>15254-Lobaria-linita</i>	69494	397	392	392	392	392	390	0	16
<i>15317-Yarrumia-coronata</i>	78530	395	376	376	376	373	365	0	34
<i>15681-Yoshimuriella-sp</i>	43085	390	361	361	361	360	350	0	16
<i>15900-Sticta-filix</i>	145328	396	385	384	383	381	376	0	18
<i>15144-Pseudocyphellaria-homoeophylla</i>	84774	394	377	376	376	375	368	0	14
<i>15271-Anomalobaria-anomala</i>	47259	396	385	384	383	382	379	0	13
<i>15868-Pseudocyphellaria-coriifolia</i>	19578	392	261	258	258	254	232	0	5
<i>15278-Yoshimuriella-subdissecta</i>	167360	393	386	386	386	386	380	1	20
<i>15273-Nephroma-plumbeum</i>	43210	381	294	290	287	250	181	0	4
<i>15687-Nephroma-sp</i>	50277	388	306	300	298	275	224	0	8
<i>15872-Sticta-sp</i>	70932	392	377	376	376	375	368	0	18
<i>15904-Sticta-subcaperata</i>	156960	393	385	381	381	380	377	0	18
<i>15870-Sticta-hypochra</i>	56609	389	372	370	370	365	357	0	13
<i>15316-Yarrumia-colensoi</i>	100375	390	381	381	381	379	370	0	28
<i>15680-Yoshimuriella-sp</i>	54282	390	374	374	374	371	363	0	19
<i>15888-Crocodia-aurata-poculifera</i>	67681	386	370	370	369	367	360	0	13
<i>14835-Pseudocyphellaria-crocata</i>	52660	387	367	367	367	365	359	0	11



TABLE XVIII. CONTINUED

Name	ReadsMapped	GenesMapped	GenesWithContigs	GenesWithSeqs	GenesAt25pct	GenesAt50pct	GenesAt75pct	Genesat150pct	ParalogWarnings
<i>15849-Pseudocyphellaria-flavicans</i>	81891	390	377	376	376	375	365	0	13
<i>14829-Pseudocyphellaria-dissimilis</i>	34235	388	348	348	348	347	333	0	10
<i>15842-Pseudocyphellaria-lecheri</i>	45146	387	367	367	366	365	358	0	12
<i>15845-Pseudocyphellaria-crocata</i>	63722	387	372	372	372	372	363	0	12
<i>14681-Pseudocyphellaria-glabra</i>	169690	395	380	379	379	378	372	0	15
<i>15313-Crocodia-aurata-poculifera</i>	87348	389	369	369	369	369	362	0	14
<i>15261-Dendriscosticta-sp</i>	76478	392	384	384	384	382	374	0	18
<i>14845-Pseudocyphellaria-granulata</i>	70414	390	376	376	376	375	371	0	14

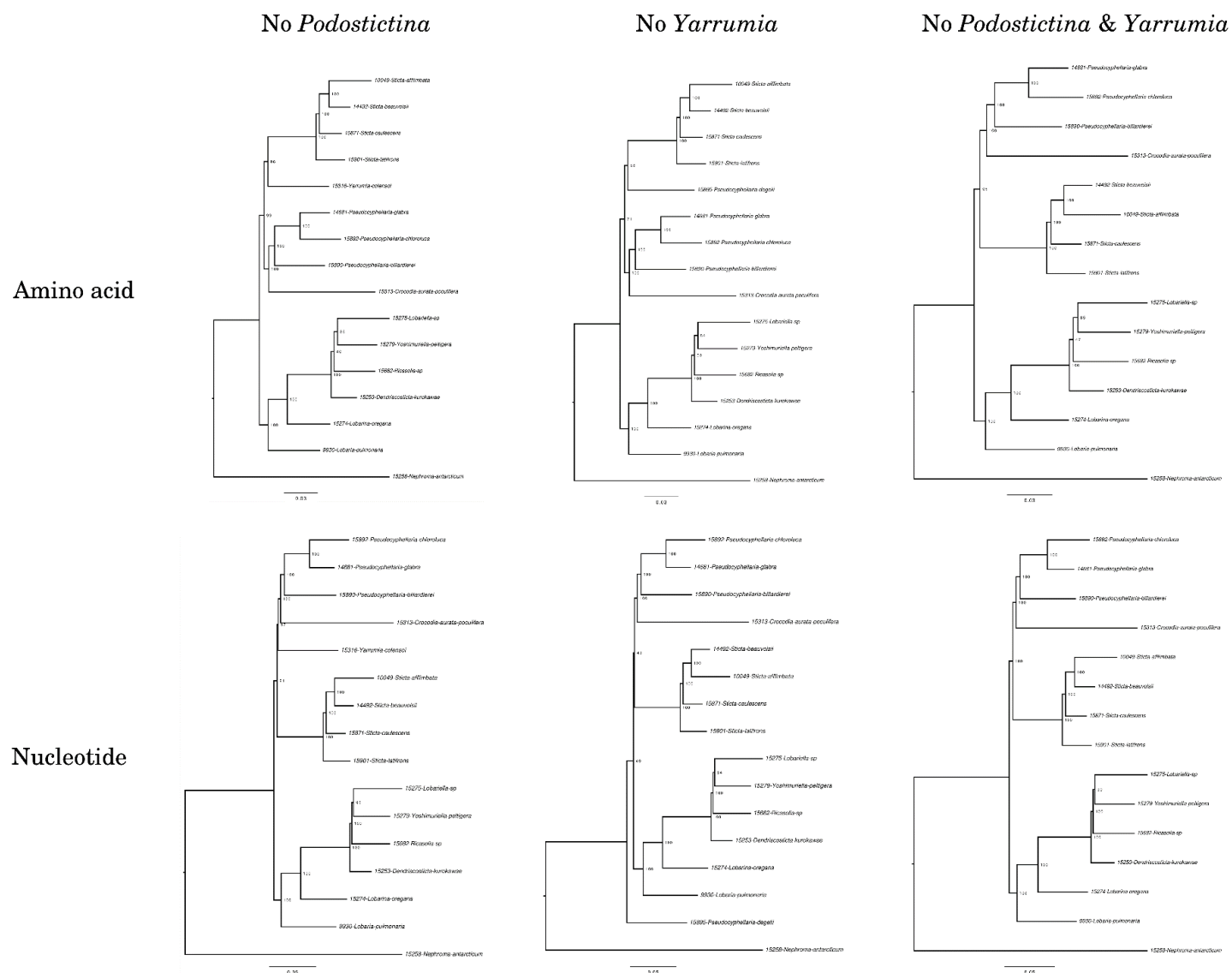


Figure 20. Maximum likelihood analyses conducted without *Podostictina*, *Yarrumia*, or both. Bootstrap support is depicted at the nodes.

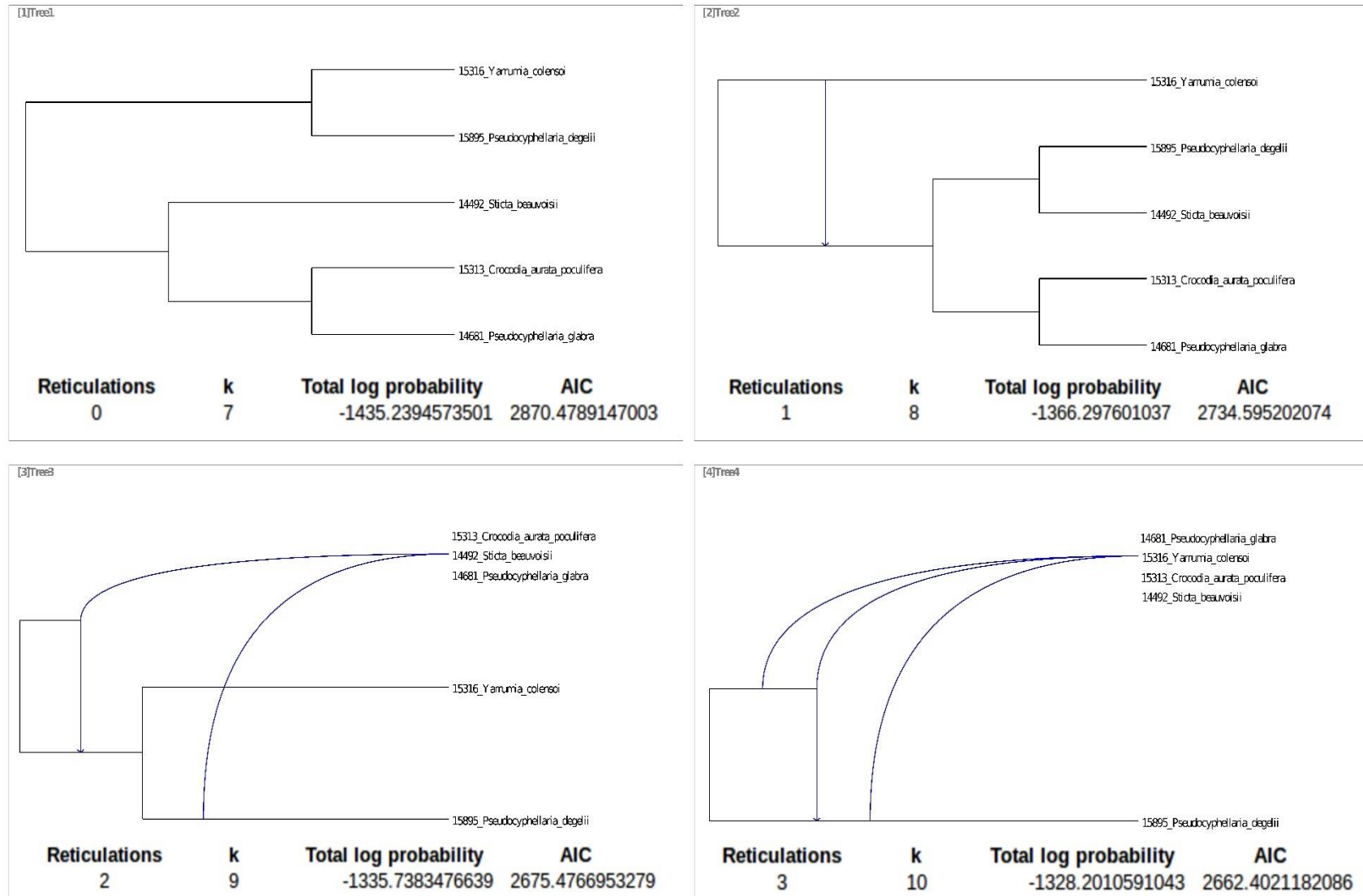


Figure 21. PhyloNet ML networks for five taxa. For each reticulation scenario, the log likelihood and AIC are reported under the networks.

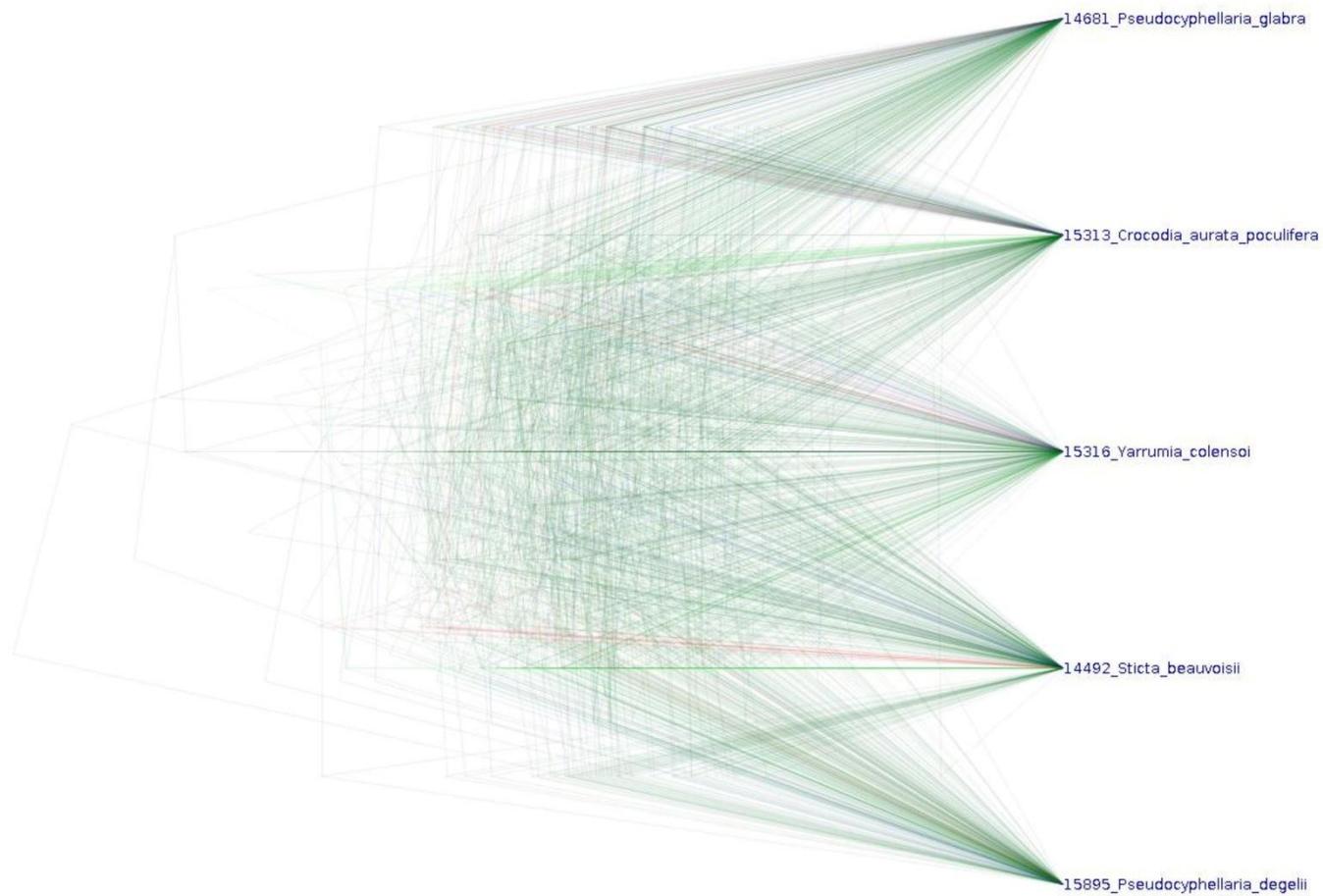


Figure 22. A DensiTree plot of 297 gene trees used to produce the five-taxa datasets.

## APPENDIX B

TABLE XIX. BISSE TYPE1 ERROR FS OUTPUT TAB.

Free speciation Inlik	MK1 Inlink	P-value
-453.0334598	-461.7208293	0
-446.3326743	-456.185631	0
-452.5660204	-467.5487094	0
-448.4409255	-461.3138182	0
-453.6635799	-465.7078711	0
-455.9191195	-467.3026283	0
-446.0415487	-456.4762503	0
-449.5841757	-464.1176214	0
-450.8700521	-465.4754459	0
-452.3660765	-460.3896314	0
-450.7616996	-459.8537142	0
-449.8442364	-458.7617392	0
-453.6934017	-465.8725579	0
-445.6139216	-461.2685178	0
-444.0935829	-454.3989049	0
-451.8448645	-459.7662793	0
-451.0659349	-460.7121476	0
-453.3167867	-466.5992442	0
-450.8216473	-463.2256214	0
-454.5652604	-464.4101676	0
-447.3915685	-461.3266474	0
-448.3718325	-462.0114557	0
-450.8164039	-465.6550844	0
-451.1254287	-461.9698401	0
-447.5236554	-462.4288391	0
-455.4425802	-467.62042	0
-455.3030599	-464.9832458	0
-451.5266883	-461.0797044	0
-454.0690699	-460.9851401	0
-453.7837261	-466.3863684	0
-456.4439032	-464.1782996	0
-452.5886863	-464.8115485	0
-455.3462546	-467.555996	0
-452.6577318	-459.1921188	0
-448.7469549	-464.2869391	0
-450.0374357	-462.0024233	0
-454.8846111	-469.2394012	0
-447.1342458	-458.2591833	0
-447.8587455	-461.2984439	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlink	P-value
-448.4619439	-462.1481918	0
-457.380102	-468.4114798	0
-452.6609261	-466.8633401	0
-455.4424234	-466.7421559	0
-451.4709334	-460.3633978	0
-451.5263038	-465.6229023	0
-449.8606003	-461.2490985	0
-455.7666675	-469.5249455	0
-451.9548528	-465.7059072	0
-450.8977848	-463.3416954	0
-447.3934143	-459.5833944	0
-455.1805463	-463.9582022	0
-448.7488602	-455.84619	0
-448.3761209	-463.3279683	0
-453.0425525	-461.9766297	0
-451.4677978	-466.2318968	0
-453.9177097	-460.6274286	0
-446.8090171	-458.04367	0
-454.9673838	-468.107789	0
-449.7360873	-459.5800885	0
-447.6974974	-460.7253019	0
-455.9017229	-467.415531	0
-452.0642301	-461.8601719	0
-446.7125528	-461.5351495	0
-456.9196818	-466.0913466	0
-452.1450082	-464.849112	0
-454.6015616	-464.0264228	0
-456.0166208	-468.5122848	0
-455.3833113	-466.6295235	0
-449.2016536	-463.9196176	0
-459.6439668	-465.9251738	0
-446.3824782	-456.5757055	0
-455.4596005	-463.6446678	0
-451.30943	-459.3674819	0
-446.2914156	-460.0073126	0
-452.1954654	-464.9073486	0
-450.9364752	-465.7347841	0
-448.9170153	-462.6276464	0
-447.837001	-459.4924811	0
-449.8782375	-462.8482498	0
-456.9163264	-468.0234727	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlink	P-value
-446.3685496	-457.5448217	0
-453.8613322	-466.4610184	0
-451.2545293	-463.3265159	0
-451.0210337	-465.6431369	0
-443.0621573	-455.6499227	0
-453.9367158	-461.4010071	0
-448.9466754	-459.3651761	0
-449.0100985	-458.442455	0
-454.4492425	-464.243407	0
-448.8482683	-459.776057	0
-452.7891062	-461.614043	0
-453.2894109	-468.0184465	0
-454.1267704	-464.9674751	0
-457.4564447	-471.1969709	0
-447.3807104	-457.7797761	0
-448.3956568	-457.7946038	0
-453.6424531	-464.6784383	0
-452.0953149	-464.5017164	0
-455.1594986	-466.9571553	0
-451.8008581	-461.1797339	0
-452.1568911	-458.0616056	0
-459.279603	-466.830471	0
-451.7807074	-461.5477279	0
-449.5798994	-459.2920984	0
-449.7228739	-461.4392315	0
-452.2342542	-461.2441771	0
-451.3536489	-465.7475725	0
-453.2001298	-462.6662996	0
-455.5872674	-468.4051691	0
-451.6269374	-456.6432309	0
-453.0494336	-462.7623455	0
-457.8438034	-466.457251	0
-451.9779309	-466.162925	0
-451.0276745	-459.0969013	0
-445.094549	-458.9558586	0
-452.478129	-462.1544474	0
-451.9341203	-460.547119	0
-450.5314788	-459.1741365	0
-458.1162129	-466.5935136	0
-446.9977665	-461.3104821	0
-450.0429297	-461.4308079	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-450.1443846	-462.7870193	0
-447.3929874	-455.7093001	0
-453.3866674	-464.4983199	0
-452.2546776	-464.2230343	0
-448.3537262	-461.2633217	0
-449.5049955	-463.9641971	0
-451.4205447	-465.0976336	0
-448.8335492	-459.989035	0
-455.2850831	-464.9440792	0
-454.5316297	-468.486296	0
-449.0806078	-458.1481399	0
-454.4781239	-466.5417603	0
-449.1114152	-460.2027004	0
-447.499664	-459.212637	0
-448.9689136	-457.3652081	0
-451.2824903	-464.026768	0
-448.8818944	-461.5328124	0
-449.5225119	-459.8508041	0
-447.8838331	-459.966532	0
-450.6780422	-462.5317461	0
-455.5615876	-466.7569992	0
-446.8940686	-461.7825037	0
-445.9240609	-456.106823	0
-451.6506109	-459.5839731	0
-451.471989	-462.8444467	0
-451.5688282	-461.3574422	0
-449.5823033	-464.1319732	0
-454.3007209	-466.3780492	0
-447.846218	-459.6391116	0
-452.837424	-466.2215119	0
-447.5565858	-460.7538609	0
-450.5965784	-460.4297268	0
-450.6605104	-463.0416604	0
-451.9508502	-462.5833625	0
-447.7388188	-463.0055746	0
-450.5885569	-464.0618918	0
-451.9497275	-462.8100295	0
-451.6820864	-466.3649863	0
-449.9263214	-462.7078009	0
-452.266663	-463.185565	0
-448.3873423	-459.1092683	0



TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-453.0923859	-461.3170612	0
-456.3332817	-465.8512744	0
-450.8913949	-463.4323076	0
-455.4396522	-464.2696916	0
-450.2562107	-464.1503911	0
-454.6448503	-462.434081	0
-447.1028636	-456.2289491	0
-446.9352749	-457.1458794	0
-452.5263742	-465.1376855	0
-446.8958678	-461.3790117	0
-455.9223054	-465.7770914	0
-450.7366421	-463.341783	0
-450.6957068	-464.2821535	0
-445.6585074	-457.9619156	0
-448.2226678	-461.7016205	0
-450.3752659	-463.1717692	0
-455.1798279	-466.7815911	0
-449.9487899	-458.2851392	0
-451.8137863	-459.8980165	0
-451.6267714	-458.2239435	0
-449.2167382	-463.2325056	0
-450.6240453	-461.6009328	0
-454.351143	-465.4603333	0
-454.0057248	-461.8287871	0
-455.2808224	-464.2346189	0
-446.4225341	-458.4165807	0
-452.6494478	-463.09464	0
-452.1082432	-466.1034849	0
-444.544176	-458.240619	0
-451.8660917	-464.8918006	0
-450.3043758	-462.8340727	0
-450.9663808	-460.5905295	0
-448.7561	-459.9892828	0
-451.4560882	-462.1016322	0
-453.2746398	-460.1144152	0
-451.1188177	-459.2284182	0
-451.2281028	-464.3941102	0
-451.744558	-460.4350256	0
-455.8694528	-465.6526444	0
-452.2677449	-467.6664661	0
-452.1210746	-460.5038289	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-449.6672097	-463.5618559	0
-448.7383786	-463.7889265	0
-453.9538021	-460.7516698	0
-450.4792244	-457.2552908	0
-453.8021702	-465.8076768	0
-447.6236987	-455.5641351	0
-453.6302355	-465.4907785	0
-452.8639873	-458.147202	0
-450.9268265	-462.948657	0
-453.9263866	-465.9282186	0
-445.9999478	-456.8385327	0
-451.1801521	-464.3273722	0
-457.1460428	-467.2438763	0
-449.4639307	-461.0853916	0
-451.2599495	-463.8410268	0
-453.9820049	-463.5871027	0
-450.2566125	-462.0397739	0
-452.1193367	-462.2244713	0
-453.7001413	-464.5042316	0
-449.9805514	-457.1248922	0
-449.8047779	-460.3405069	0
-452.7961746	-465.5164502	0
-451.9071772	-462.5102883	0
-453.8619102	-465.2531088	0
-446.4652704	-457.1966751	0
-456.9210002	-466.7341529	0
-450.4878809	-462.7566165	0
-451.1226798	-462.5473055	0
-453.3536984	-460.064388	0
-448.1687549	-460.7252742	0
-450.557697	-462.0625545	0
-453.0931901	-465.3572884	0
-455.3582574	-466.3189448	0
-452.7282054	-465.1853541	0
-449.3848832	-464.7623552	0
-445.6889946	-456.8179441	0
-449.8203878	-463.3524337	0
-450.9046089	-462.3246539	0
-450.3356075	-462.4801032	0
-453.644544	-466.9891646	0
-449.0721569	-460.8682775	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-447.6279661	-457.0614027	0
-453.2821075	-463.2793679	0
-448.0320889	-462.4277266	0
-450.135772	-465.6886535	0
-449.018654	-463.0003305	0
-458.4172263	-465.8410669	0
-448.8420416	-461.2426729	0
-448.6841964	-461.3580127	0
-449.7311061	-458.6609864	0
-448.5850969	-460.1738681	0
-457.754427	-469.6834763	0
-450.3049802	-463.8584413	0
-452.3272445	-466.5404459	0
-450.9994314	-459.94859	0
-455.1509147	-464.2198152	0
-452.0509377	-464.9095607	0
-454.0067362	-465.2667638	0
-451.5647978	-463.2097897	0
-451.54038	-464.960496	0
-449.4747857	-459.9678376	0
-451.526962	-463.6162215	0
-452.6744496	-466.0750049	0
-451.5626876	-465.6201051	0
-450.3066345	-460.6131005	0
-446.4784406	-457.3018122	0
-455.398142	-464.489883	0
-450.3697755	-459.532449	0
-457.1628095	-468.9440571	0
-455.2850061	-464.5088639	0
-459.9806977	-468.6341095	0
-449.2598849	-459.1886468	0
-452.7320791	-462.4057572	0
-451.0907881	-459.8959825	0
-450.1510659	-459.1505219	0
-456.3284776	-466.4320561	0
-456.8942148	-464.1807968	0
-457.1012307	-466.8651577	0
-452.0389165	-464.9460455	0
-447.5217439	-461.333209	0
-452.7428878	-465.9438403	0
-453.4089934	-467.7932071	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-453.7450867	-465.3661749	0
-451.6997536	-464.1692602	0
-451.364277	-461.9453162	0
-447.7027253	-459.3257612	0
-456.0384162	-467.516911	0
-449.8505535	-462.0428748	0
-451.3128597	-466.1685694	0
-456.1992855	-466.9178737	0
-453.0176933	-465.1309394	0
-444.1248899	-454.0059724	0
-453.9425024	-463.0236863	0
-449.2981906	-463.0715684	0
-449.6012415	-462.2677412	0
-456.4720522	-470.5948563	0
-451.3143521	-465.0984991	0
-451.3657606	-462.9244641	0
-455.483409	-465.6470692	0
-453.9879467	-467.6824601	0
-453.3141616	-464.5166589	0
-449.5010217	-458.6296314	0
-452.9212287	-459.6995149	0
-451.8405045	-461.2159881	0
-454.1016671	-467.6780542	0
-457.0980188	-470.2158085	0
-448.8570564	-458.4287066	0
-446.7921755	-461.4716628	0
-455.9057658	-467.2560565	0
-456.080819	-467.7243321	0
-452.3462461	-465.6351246	0
-452.4790499	-464.4308538	0
-450.1987684	-461.7051799	0
-450.7102383	-464.4188126	0
-449.6519002	-460.340023	0
-454.5659567	-464.9359547	0
-453.9397425	-465.9029993	0
-448.9059303	-460.013144	0
-448.2770333	-461.2661979	0
-447.7943526	-459.7353571	0
-455.8398803	-463.5314023	0
-453.2841348	-464.7390694	0
-448.10257	-462.1169067	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-449.4511173	-460.2563784	0
-457.2597219	-469.1734878	0
-453.4708024	-468.1390107	0
-447.9280231	-458.2303078	0
-450.3977788	-458.5096675	0
-454.29082	-467.3883089	0
-452.1528771	-466.7615411	0
-450.058851	-462.9840808	0
-453.9692616	-468.852776	0
-451.2816186	-461.4678	0
-443.5786452	-455.3207166	0
-455.1436444	-463.6606249	0
-448.534043	-462.8788716	0
-446.8711114	-461.1474991	0
-455.0289652	-466.5381001	0
-452.1855082	-462.6467861	0
-448.1692608	-459.7654526	0
-451.0950898	-459.8438025	0
-449.5044178	-462.3792759	0
-452.7388717	-463.9867695	0
-452.6461523	-462.5289825	0
-455.9223202	-462.7932688	0
-452.105378	-465.4501331	0
-453.3924506	-463.7013004	0
-451.5265171	-465.1805253	0
-451.2880253	-459.7728892	0
-454.2447486	-467.3708094	0
-449.7182666	-457.3547096	0
-452.7728672	-461.4085695	0
-447.9708853	-456.1737649	0
-454.7300625	-470.2952329	0
-450.808366	-462.2404407	0
-445.6261039	-457.9325944	0
-453.7900363	-458.2221401	0
-451.8507546	-461.3866394	0
-448.2082252	-462.4290848	0
-449.8821933	-463.5038484	0
-454.0987857	-465.7008371	0
-453.2329223	-467.0656634	0
-455.7692188	-465.9509972	0
-447.6499867	-461.9518489	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlink	P-value
-456.5899917	-472.1976789	0
-451.9012497	-460.395346	0
-449.8948401	-460.6452467	0
-449.932856	-465.574787	0
-454.0333635	-461.5148657	0
-458.4445617	-470.7660012	0
-453.7286295	-469.3910788	0
-452.167333	-463.1688816	0
-456.7260744	-467.140607	0
-450.7098344	-461.4329508	0
-446.2422063	-458.1752932	0
-453.7027152	-467.730229	0
-454.9173788	-466.7819684	0
-451.0098001	-460.4233765	0
-451.5772185	-463.1592818	0
-450.004609	-464.3011801	0
-450.3599462	-463.4298817	0
-447.9967014	-458.9452744	0
-449.524956	-464.8453361	0
-449.703755	-465.321002	0
-453.9089796	-468.1253116	0
-450.9536495	-465.2867985	0
-452.8943435	-466.7084987	0
-453.4319457	-464.8724456	0
-455.0458025	-465.6754112	0
-449.2841786	-458.9835008	0
-452.7207496	-461.388292	0
-447.8171227	-457.7599461	0
-448.5956323	-459.3260343	0
-452.4736695	-462.0276592	0
-451.8005816	-460.118923	0
-443.9548488	-454.3342113	0
-457.2337025	-471.5569175	0
-450.6370662	-464.9172277	0
-454.1295055	-465.9470139	0
-454.9456831	-462.6900812	0
-452.8247709	-460.675113	0
-453.1891127	-459.5060059	0
-448.6372539	-463.1506819	0
-449.5210883	-462.2771865	0
-455.4042601	-462.3066636	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-452.1262196	-461.7895631	0
-453.3413845	-467.688765	0
-453.7987362	-466.1003556	0
-453.548008	-466.9833351	0
-454.3053794	-468.0043821	0
-452.2548283	-467.9984657	0
-455.2410769	-462.2125709	0
-455.8747541	-469.78487	0
-453.4796713	-468.0266984	0
-444.0939397	-456.9683702	0
-450.4385043	-463.3445036	0
-448.3835333	-461.538537	0
-452.4784552	-462.4620435	0
-452.035133	-466.3906086	0
-452.9058534	-461.5433659	0
-453.6892687	-463.6439146	0
-451.8457316	-467.0439001	0
-451.5113729	-458.5581635	0
-443.6773104	-454.2170042	0
-445.7959534	-460.8722069	0
-452.5070409	-462.5650421	0
-457.7647961	-470.4466009	0
-458.8030414	-469.0121826	0
-454.271888	-463.5710662	0
-453.4898733	-464.7107904	0
-453.0252641	-461.325648	0
-448.7505168	-461.4919284	0
-451.218309	-464.047261	0
-452.7735607	-459.9994762	0
-447.6323023	-462.3178526	0
-442.6052397	-456.929988	0
-449.4034148	-457.5484872	0
-444.6995979	-452.2162459	0
-450.9587241	-462.7929001	0
-451.5817505	-463.7461501	0
-453.6465293	-459.4183929	0
-445.2514434	-455.7656509	0
-455.7515577	-462.236334	0
-452.5311603	-458.3706069	0
-452.0467815	-464.965338	0
-452.2901775	-462.0736017	0

TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlink	P-value
-452.90015	-465.4709041	0
-450.8337055	-465.1931738	0
-453.7383508	-464.1311739	0
-449.5033127	-459.3833583	0
-450.3102926	-457.0957866	0
-447.4847273	-459.329979	0
-450.102028	-464.0022249	0
-455.2677139	-467.0568679	0
-455.5957286	-469.3443976	0
-452.0691707	-460.6475596	0
-450.2784641	-459.7812587	0
-450.8795351	-466.6446234	0
-450.3770632	-464.648734	0
-450.7633411	-461.8934298	0
-452.445138	-465.1707873	0
-449.7850646	-460.1163187	0
-454.677513	-463.754009	0
-454.383832	-466.0305125	0
-451.1042764	-462.5720393	0
-450.5920666	-464.9110168	0
-454.4616583	-461.4098332	0
-451.4983949	-462.2686028	0
-450.2726077	-462.8826772	0
-452.0819749	-466.2356645	0
-454.1037932	-469.3239325	0
-453.9843622	-463.2214179	0
-453.269521	-467.3218089	0
-450.3836971	-459.0722699	0
-449.285439	-459.6267727	0
-451.8856712	-465.3012156	0
-452.6979381	-464.2542173	0
-455.4352964	-469.8048726	0
-451.682171	-464.1563622	0
-454.2609689	-466.0596523	0
-454.3560441	-463.6298443	0
-454.6696032	-465.9641632	0
-448.5008081	-462.0836308	0
-456.3026131	-465.2025172	0
-451.3773105	-462.6953795	0
-451.2224356	-459.9371853	0
-447.3297256	-459.5169828	0



TABLE XIX, CONTINUED

Free speciation lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-451.8228208	-461.3136536	0
-447.309059	-458.1565107	0
-453.4054273	-466.0346403	0
-446.7734846	-458.6450426	0
-451.85258	-460.9629584	0
-449.2476648	-459.4463775	0
-459.9703132	-468.0916156	0
-447.1472254	-455.1002452	0
-450.2015091	-458.4443277	0
-454.3483605	-469.1819002	0

TABLE XX. BISSE\_TYPE1\_ERROR\_ANDES\_Q01\_TAB.

no q01 lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-489.8016292	-476.2167454	0.999999814
-491.4000487	-476.4162103	0.999999956
-487.2179832	-476.3088207	0.999997003
-479.3683717	-476.3902813	0.985334223
-488.6215127	-476.3901397	0.999999242
-489.68726	-476.4409781	0.999999735
-486.479672	-476.3946673	0.999992915
-490.7683527	-476.3955541	0.999999918
-478.4404028	-476.3955253	0.956856109
-477.0715122	-476.8762219	0.468005554
-486.3227429	-476.2583955	0.99999276
-474.0174911	-476.383348	0
-487.00004	-474.4468631	0.999999458
-492.9587782	-476.4013586	0.999999991
-482.871719	-473.6713165	0.999982102
-494.038642	-475.9568	0.999999998
-487.7234775	-476.3968844	0.99999806
-485.0620141	-475.9186719	0.999980997
-479.6807468	-476.394875	0.989638961
-490.5831884	-476.3773877	0.999999902
-494.658378	-475.9970842	0.999999999
-486.0909565	-476.380759	0.999989512
-490.3499809	-476.386874	0.999999874
-476.8863046	-474.4115216	0.973902781
-484.6046622	-476.3912878	0.999949433
-488.575398	-476.3077155	0.99999927
-478.2973156	-474.2562251	0.995529739
-486.094944	-474.7629315	0.999998071
-490.2298238	-476.3982005	0.999999856
-495.2019504	-476.3947271	0.999999999
-488.0468935	-476.3960052	0.999998615
-489.7409904	-476.3946749	0.999999762
-490.4469352	-476.3963543	0.999999885
-490.2697502	-476.3820607	0.999999864
-488.75402	-476.0008052	0.999999559
-486.4063284	-476.398035	0.999992323
-489.7929088	-476.4000754	0.999999773
-492.1231787	-476.3921772	0.99999998
-481.865897	-476.3793722	0.999075535
-487.6562697	-475.7504775	0.999998938
-487.9073582	-475.977028	0.999998964
-486.3738286	-476.3892709	0.99999213
-487.4589996	-476.1151718	0.999998094
-485.3631159	-476.2917443	0.999979505
-480.1323865	-475.03606	0.998589987
-476.7271184	-474.9394086	0.941359368
-487.3254954	-476.4126901	0.999997014
-487.6483661	-476.3955937	0.999997905
-488.4677525	-476.3948371	0.999999107
-490.1153814	-476.3969346	0.999999838
-496.8744778	-476.400374	1
-484.9418026	-476.2747437	0.999968649
-489.1850381	-476.4481959	0.999999552
-495.30897	-476.0697776	0.999999999
-491.7205833	-476.3335614	0.999999971
-492.5978032	-476.3983606	0.999999987
-491.3712104	-476.3912567	0.999999956
-487.1595542	-475.4346902	0.999998718
-490.4649303	-476.400825	0.999999887
-488.8783492	-476.3947201	0.999999417

TABLE XX, CONTINUED

no q01 lnlik	MK1 lnlik	P-value
-484.572387	-476.389377	0.999947787
-488.8936691	-476.182465	0.99999954
-487.2596843	-476.3955284	0.999996859
-482.0402575	-475.3239439	0.999752714
-486.975879	-476.3948673	0.99999578
-485.497146	-476.1129568	0.999985241
-480.7396523	-476.3964518	0.99679407
-487.5032374	-476.3947399	0.999997565
-481.3673825	-476.3430723	0.998475379
-472.9530584	-474.8843589	0
-494.2299807	-476.3955325	0.999999998
-493.3955975	-476.4215207	0.999999994
-488.4559791	-476.3955222	0.999999095
-483.3996987	-475.6315174	0.999919067
-493.1330686	-476.4820061	0.999999992
-494.411138	-476.413998	0.999999998
-495.0571435	-476.3963432	0.999999999
-489.2808239	-476.394775	0.999999616
-489.5608476	-475.9267565	0.999999823
-486.2347333	-476.3955247	0.999990837
-486.2666542	-476.2834843	0.999992118
-487.7243152	-476.3480582	0.999998157
-483.6238016	-476.3955307	0.999856569
-483.1791173	-476.1024911	0.999831495
-489.9134306	-476.3955464	0.9999998
-493.9020939	-476.3583746	0.999999997
-482.5548856	-476.1369002	0.999659981
-479.1688663	-476.3955253	0.981484246
-481.3970005	-476.3915966	0.998443758
-487.3481373	-475.1826927	0.999999189
-490.7126825	-476.4002943	0.999999912
-492.7380104	-476.3538789	0.99999999
-488.1826301	-476.3934789	0.999998801
-482.1472757	-476.1783931	0.999449926
-487.9713002	-476.2731344	0.999998682
-488.0942543	-476.3955306	0.999998683
-493.8685926	-476.4403653	0.999999997
-492.6272882	-476.3955264	0.999999988
-487.6152292	-476.0096018	0.999998549
-485.1246611	-475.6318742	0.999986829

## APPENDIX C

TABLE XXI. SPECIMEN VOUCHER INFORMATION.

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
01/14/16	Australia	14682_TAS	-41.15	110 m	145.1	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2046 B
01/14/16	Australia	14687_TAS	-41.1333	210 m	145.06667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2072 D
01/14/16	Australia	14689_TAS	-41.1333	210 m	145.06667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2076 B
01/14/16	Australia	14690_TAS	-41.1333	210 m	145.06667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2076 C
01/14/16	Australia	14693_TAS	-41.1333	210 m	145.06667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2077 C
01/15/16	Australia	14696_TAS	-41.4667	350 m	145.26667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2096 B
01/15/16	Australia	14702_TAS	-41.4667	350 m	145.26667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2096 H
01/16/16	Australia	14706_TAS	-42.6833	1050 m	146.58333	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2144 B
01/16/16	Australia	14708_TAS	-42.6833	1050 m	146.58333	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2144 D
01/16/16	Australia	14709_TAS	-42.6833	700 m	146.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2172 A
01/16/16	Australia	14711_TAS	-42.6833	700 m	146.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2172 C
01/16/16	Australia	14712_TAS	-42.6833	700 m	146.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2172 D
01/16/16	Australia	14718_TAS	-42.6833	700 m	146.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2172 J
01/17/16	Australia	14720_TAS	-42.8167	390 m	146.65	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2201
01/21/16	Australia	14725_VIC	-37.7	740 m	145.7	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2259 B
01/21/16	Australia	14727_VIC	-37.7	1149 m	145.66667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2272
01/21/16	Australia	14728_VIC	-37.7	1149 m	145.66667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2272 A
01/21/16	Australia	14729_VIC	-37.7	1149 m	145.66667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2272 B
01/21/16	Australia	14731_VIC	-37.7	1149 m	145.66667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2272 D
01/21/16	Australia	14732_VIC	-37.7167	993 m	145.6	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2282 A
01/21/16	Australia	14735_VIC	-37.7167	993 m	145.6	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2282 D
01/21/16	Australia	14743_VIC	-37.7	976 m	145.61667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2290 G
01/21/16	Australia	14747_VIC	-37.7	976 m	145.61667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2290 K
01/21/16	Australia	14749_VIC	-37.7	1070 m	145.65	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2293 A
01/21/16	Australia	14753_VIC	-37.7	1070 m	145.65	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2293 E
01/21/16	Australia	14755_VIC	-37.7	1070 m	145.65	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2293 G
01/21/16	Australia	14756_VIC	-37.7	1070 m	145.65	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2293 H
01/21/16	Australia	14757_VIC	-37.7	1070 m	145.65	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2293 I
01/21/16	Australia	14758_VIC	-37.7	1070 m	145.65	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2293 J

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
01/22/16	Australia	14759_VIC	-37.5167	888 m	145.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2311 A
01/22/16	Australia	14761_VIC	-37.5167	888 m	145.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2311 C
01/24/16	Australia	14762_VIC	-38.1	655 m	147.4	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2324 A
01/25/16	Australia	14763_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2402 A
01/25/16	Australia	14764_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2402 B
01/25/16	Australia	14766_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2402 D
01/25/16	Australia	14767_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2402 E
01/25/16	Australia	14768_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2402 F
01/25/16	Australia	14769_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2403 A
01/25/16	Australia	14770_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2403 B
01/25/16	Australia	14771_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2403 C
01/25/16	Australia	14772_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2403 D
01/25/16	Australia	14776_VIC	-38.45	339 m	146.53333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2403 H
01/26/16	Australia	14777_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 A
01/26/16	Australia	14778_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 B
01/26/16	Australia	14779_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 C
01/26/16	Australia	14780_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 D
01/26/16	Australia	14781_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 E
01/26/16	Australia	14783_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 G
01/26/16	Australia	14784_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 H
01/26/16	Australia	14785_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 I
01/26/16	Australia	14786_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 J
01/26/16	Australia	14787_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 K
01/26/16	Australia	14789_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 M
01/26/16	Australia	14790_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 N
01/26/16	Australia	14791_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 O
01/26/16	Australia	14792_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 P
01/26/16	Australia	14793_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 Q
01/26/16	Australia	14796_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 T
01/26/16	Australia	14798_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 V
01/26/16	Australia	14799_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 W

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
01/26/16	Australia	14800_VIC	-37.3167	1022 m	148.83333	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2421 X
01/13/16	Australia	14810_VIC	-41.5	1240 m	147.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2030 F
01/13/16	Australia	14811_VIC	-41.5	1240 m	147.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2030 HO
01/13/16	Australia	14812_VIC	-41.5	1240 m	147.66667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2030 HO A
01/14/16	Australia	14814_VIC	-41.1333	210 m	145.06667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2076
01/14/16	Australia	14815_VIC	-41.1333	210 m	145.06667	H.T. Lumbsch, T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2076 D
01/21/16	Australia	14816_VIC	-37.6333	554 m	145.71667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2287 A
01/21/16	Australia	14818_VIC	-37.6333	554 m	145.71667	T. Widhelm & F. Grewe	2287 C
12/16/17	Chile	15514_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4322
12/16/17	Chile	15516_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4324
12/16/17	Chile	15517_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4326
12/16/17	Chile	15518_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4327
12/16/17	Chile	15520_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4329
12/16/17	Chile	15521_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4330
12/16/17	Chile	15522_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4331
12/16/17	Chile	15523_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4332
12/16/17	Chile	15524_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4333
12/16/17	Chile	15526_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4338
12/16/17	Chile	15527_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4339
12/16/17	Chile	15528_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4340
12/16/17	Chile	15529_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4341
12/16/17	Chile	15530_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4342
12/16/17	Chile	15535_CHI	-41.1906	111.16 m	-72.532718	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4347
12/16/17	Chile	15537_CHI	-41.1739	250 m	-72.517188	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4351
12/16/17	Chile	15538_CHI	-41.1739	250 m	-72.517188	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4351A
12/16/17	Chile	15539_CHI	-41.1739	250 m	-72.517188	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4355
12/16/17	Chile	15540_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4364
12/16/17	Chile	15541_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4365
12/16/17	Chile	15542_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4366
12/16/17	Chile	15543_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4367

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
12/16/17	Chile	15544_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4368
12/16/17	Chile	15545_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4369
12/16/17	Chile	15546_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4370
12/16/17	Chile	15547_CHI	-41.1388	1000 m	-72.536507	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4371
12/17/17	Chile	15550_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4375
12/17/17	Chile	15551_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4376
12/17/17	Chile	15552_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4377
12/17/17	Chile	15556_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4381
12/17/17	Chile	15557_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4382
12/17/17	Chile	15559_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4384
12/17/17	Chile	15560_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4385
12/17/17	Chile	15562_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4387
12/17/17	Chile	15563_CHI	-41.598	134.17 m	-72.599706	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4388
12/17/17	Chile	15565_CHI	-41.5938	138.91 m	-72.593082	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4391
12/17/17	Chile	15567_CHI	-41.5938	138.91 m	-72.593082	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4393
12/17/17	Chile	15571_CHI	-41.5938	138.91 m	-72.593082	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4397
12/17/17	Chile	15575_CHI	-41.5938	138.91 m	-72.593082	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4410
12/17/17	Chile	15578_CHI	-41.5938	138.91 m	-72.593082	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4414
12/17/17	Chile	15579_CHI	-41.5938	138.91 m	-72.593082	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4415
12/18/17	Chile	15581_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4444
12/18/17	Chile	15586_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4449
12/18/17	Chile	15587_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4450
12/18/17	Chile	15588_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4451
12/18/17	Chile	15589_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4452
12/18/17	Chile	15590_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4453
12/18/17	Chile	15591_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4454
12/18/17	Chile	15592_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4455
12/18/17	Chile	15593_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4456
12/18/17	Chile	15594_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4457
12/18/17	Chile	15595_CHI	-41.8872	32.94 m	-73.672813	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4458
12/19/17	Chile	15603_CHI	-42.7122	105.41 m	-73.936354	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4472

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
12/19/17	Chile	15605_CHI	-42.7122	105.41 m	-73.936354	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4472
12/19/17	Chile	15606_CHI	-42.7122	105.41 m	-73.936354	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4475
12/19/17	Chile	15609_CHI	-42.7122	105.41 m	-73.936354	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4478
12/19/17	Chile	15611_CHI	-42.7122	105.41 m	-73.936354	Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4482
11/07/17	New Zealand	15905_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3050
11/07/17	New Zealand	15906_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3052
11/07/17	New Zealand	15907_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3053
11/07/17	New Zealand	15909_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3066
11/07/17	New Zealand	15910_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3069
11/07/17	New Zealand	15911_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3075
11/07/17	New Zealand	15912_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3077
11/07/17	New Zealand	15913_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3101
11/07/17	New Zealand	15914_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3106
11/07/17	New Zealand	15915_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3107
11/07/17	New Zealand	15916_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3110
11/07/17	New Zealand	15917_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3116
11/07/17	New Zealand	15918_NZN	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3122
11/09/17	New Zealand	15919_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3143
11/09/17	New Zealand	15920_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3144
11/09/17	New Zealand	15921_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3145
11/09/17	New Zealand	15923_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3147
11/09/17	New Zealand	15924_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3148
11/09/17	New Zealand	15926_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3151
11/09/17	New Zealand	15927_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3152



Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
11/09/17	New Zealand	15928_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3153
11/09/17	New Zealand	15929_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3154
11/09/17	New Zealand	15930_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3155
11/09/17	New Zealand	15931_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3156
11/09/17	New Zealand	15932_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3157
11/09/17	New Zealand	15934_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3159
11/09/17	New Zealand	15937_NZN	-39.205	1154 m	175.54103	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3162
11/09/17	New Zealand	15938_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3203
11/09/17	New Zealand	15939_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3204
11/09/17	New Zealand	15940_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3205
11/09/17	New Zealand	15942_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3207
11/09/17	New Zealand	15943_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3212
11/09/17	New Zealand	15944_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3213
11/09/17	New Zealand	15946_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3216
11/09/17	New Zealand	15947_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3218
11/09/17	New Zealand	15948_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3226
11/09/17	New Zealand	15949_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3227
11/09/17	New Zealand	15950_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3228
11/09/17	New Zealand	15951_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3233
11/09/17	New Zealand	15952_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3234
11/09/17	New Zealand	15953_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3235
11/09/17	New Zealand	15954_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3236
11/09/17	New Zealand	15955_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3237
11/09/17	New Zealand	15957_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3239
11/09/17	New Zealand	15958_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3240
11/09/17	New Zealand	15959_NZN	-39.154	724 m	175.82364	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3242
11/10/17	New Zealand	15960_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3275
11/10/17	New Zealand	15963_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3283
11/10/17	New Zealand	15965_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3308
11/10/17	New Zealand	15969_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3313
11/10/17	New Zealand	15971_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3315

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
11/10/17	New Zealand	15972_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3316
11/10/17	New Zealand	15975_NZN	-40.808	290 m	175.54575	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3319
11/11/17	New Zealand	15978_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3361
11/11/17	New Zealand	15980_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3363
11/11/17	New Zealand	15981_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3368
11/11/17	New Zealand	15982_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3374
11/11/17	New Zealand	15984_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3377
11/11/17	New Zealand	15986_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3379
11/11/17	New Zealand	15987_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3380
11/11/17	New Zealand	15988_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3381
11/11/17	New Zealand	15991_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3384
11/11/17	New Zealand	15993_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3386
11/11/17	New Zealand	15995_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3388
11/11/17	New Zealand	15996_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3389
11/11/17	New Zealand	15997_NZN	-41.353	33 m and up	174.91752	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Jeremy Rolfe	3400
11/13/17	New Zealand	15999_NZS	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3438
11/13/17	New Zealand	16000_PHO	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3439
11/13/17	New Zealand	16002_PHO	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3441
11/13/17	New Zealand	16003_PHO	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3442
11/13/17	New Zealand	16009_PHO	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3448
11/13/17	New Zealand	16010_PHO	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3449
11/13/17	New Zealand	16011_NZS	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3450
11/13/17	New Zealand	16012_PHO	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3451
11/13/17	New Zealand	16014_NZS	-41.106	367 m	172.72146	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3453

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
11/14/17	New Zealand	16017_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3500
11/14/17	New Zealand	16019_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3502
11/14/17	New Zealand	16021_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3504
11/14/17	New Zealand	16022_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3505
11/14/17	New Zealand	16024_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3508
11/14/17	New Zealand	16025_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3509
11/14/17	New Zealand	16026_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3510
11/14/17	New Zealand	16027_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3511
11/14/17	New Zealand	16034_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3519
11/14/17	New Zealand	16035_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3520
11/14/17	New Zealand	16036_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3521
11/14/17	New Zealand	16037_NZS	-41.807	625 m	172.84679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3522
11/14/17	New Zealand	16039_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3525
11/14/17	New Zealand	16040_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3526
11/14/17	New Zealand	16042_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3528
11/14/17	New Zealand	16043_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3529
11/14/17	New Zealand	16045_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3531
11/14/17	New Zealand	16046_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3532
11/14/17	New Zealand	16050_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3536
11/14/17	New Zealand	16056_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3542
11/14/17	New Zealand	16057_NZS	-41.767	139 m	172.19267	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3543
11/15/17	New Zealand	16067_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3597
11/15/17	New Zealand	16068_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3598
11/15/17	New Zealand	16069_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3599
11/15/17	New Zealand	16070_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3600
11/15/17	New Zealand	16072_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3602
11/15/17	New Zealand	16073_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3603
11/15/17	New Zealand	16074_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3604
11/15/17	New Zealand	16075_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3605
11/15/17	New Zealand	16076_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3606
11/15/17	New Zealand	16077_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3607

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
11/15/17	New Zealand	16078_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3608
11/15/17	New Zealand	16079_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3609
11/15/17	New Zealand	16080_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3610
11/15/17	New Zealand	16081_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3611
11/15/17	New Zealand	16082_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3612
11/15/17	New Zealand	16084_NZS	-42.919	851 m	171.55832	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3614
11/15/17	New Zealand	16089_NZS	-42.745	129 m	171.4202	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3651
11/15/17	New Zealand	16091_NZS	-42.745	129 m	171.4202	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3653
11/15/17	New Zealand	16092_NZS	-42.718	63 m	171.24679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3662
11/15/17	New Zealand	16093_NZS	-42.718	63 m	171.24679	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3665
11/17/17	New Zealand	16094_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3671
11/17/17	New Zealand	16096_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3673
11/17/17	New Zealand	16097_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3674
11/17/17	New Zealand	16099_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3676
11/17/17	New Zealand	16100_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3677
11/17/17	New Zealand	16101_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3678
11/17/17	New Zealand	16102_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3679
11/17/17	New Zealand	16103_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3680
11/17/17	New Zealand	16104_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3681
11/17/17	New Zealand	16106_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3683
11/17/17	New Zealand	16107_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3684
11/17/17	New Zealand	16108_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3685
11/17/17	New Zealand	16111_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3688
11/17/17	New Zealand	16112_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3689
11/17/17	New Zealand	16113_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3690
11/17/17	New Zealand	16114_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3691
11/17/17	New Zealand	16115_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3692
11/17/17	New Zealand	16116_NZS	-43.449	100 m	169.9701	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm	3720
11/19/17	New Zealand	16117_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3883
11/19/17	New Zealand	16119_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3885
11/19/17	New Zealand	16120_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3886

Table XXI, CONTINUED

Date	Country	DNA number	Latitude	Altitude	Longitude	Collected by	Collection. no.
11/19/17	New Zealand	16121_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3887
11/19/17	New Zealand	16122_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3888
11/19/17	New Zealand	16123_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3889
11/19/17	New Zealand	16124_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3890
11/19/17	New Zealand	16125_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3891
11/19/17	New Zealand	16126_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3892
11/19/17	New Zealand	16127_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3893
11/19/17	New Zealand	16128_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3894
11/19/17	New Zealand	16129_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3895
11/19/17	New Zealand	16130_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3896
11/19/17	New Zealand	16131_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3897
11/19/17	New Zealand	16132_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3898
11/19/17	New Zealand	16133_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3899
11/19/17	New Zealand	16134_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3900
11/19/17	New Zealand	16135_NZS	-45.899	34 m	169.49716	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, John Knight	3901
11/07/17	New Zealand	16138_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3051
11/07/17	New Zealand	16139_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3070
11/07/17	New Zealand	16140_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3103
11/07/17	New Zealand	16141_PHO	-37.317	757 m	175.44699	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Dan Blanchon, Peter de Lange	3112
12/14/17	Chile	16142_CHI	-54.9774	313 m	-67.674222	Felix Grewe, Todd Widhelm, Matt von Konrat, Juan Larrain	4268
01/07/18	New Zealand	17204_CAM	-52.5378	20-200 m	169.1497	A. Knight	70993
01/08/18	New Zealand	17205_NZN	-50.8117	50 m	166.0908	A. Knight	70992
01/06/18	New Zealand	17206_NZS	-50.4961	25 m	166.2789	A. Knight	70988
11/16/17	New Zealand	17208_NZS	-45.8167	560 m	170.5439	A. Knight	69177

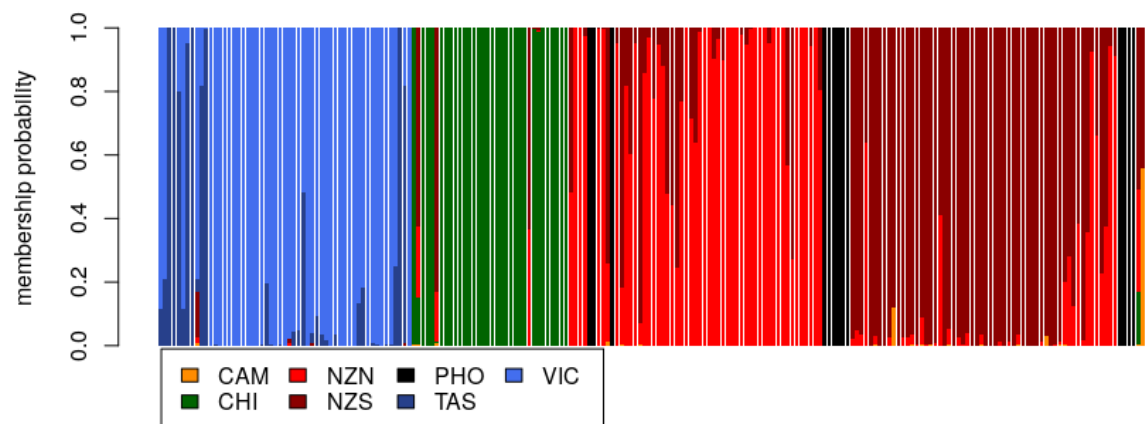
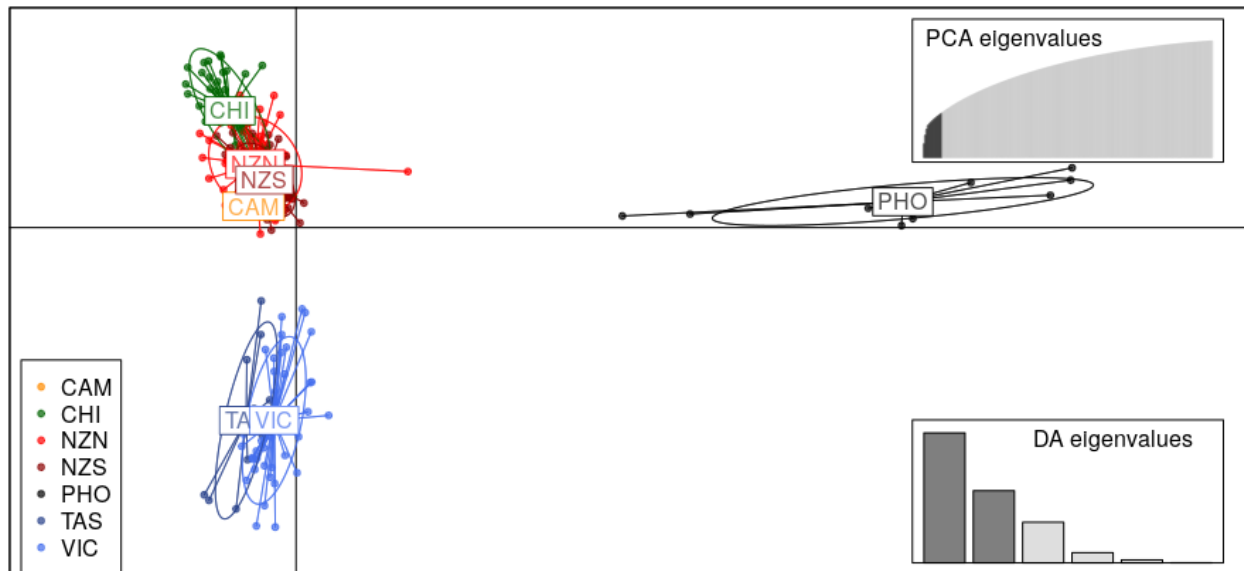


Figure 23. Genomic variation by non-parametric DAPC. (A) DAPC scatter plot of the densities of the populations of *P. glabra* (TAS=dark blue, VIC=light blue, CHI=green, NZN=dark red, NZS=light red, CAM=orange, PHO=black) estimated with 14 PCA and six DA eigenvalues (B) Bar plot of group membership probabilities.

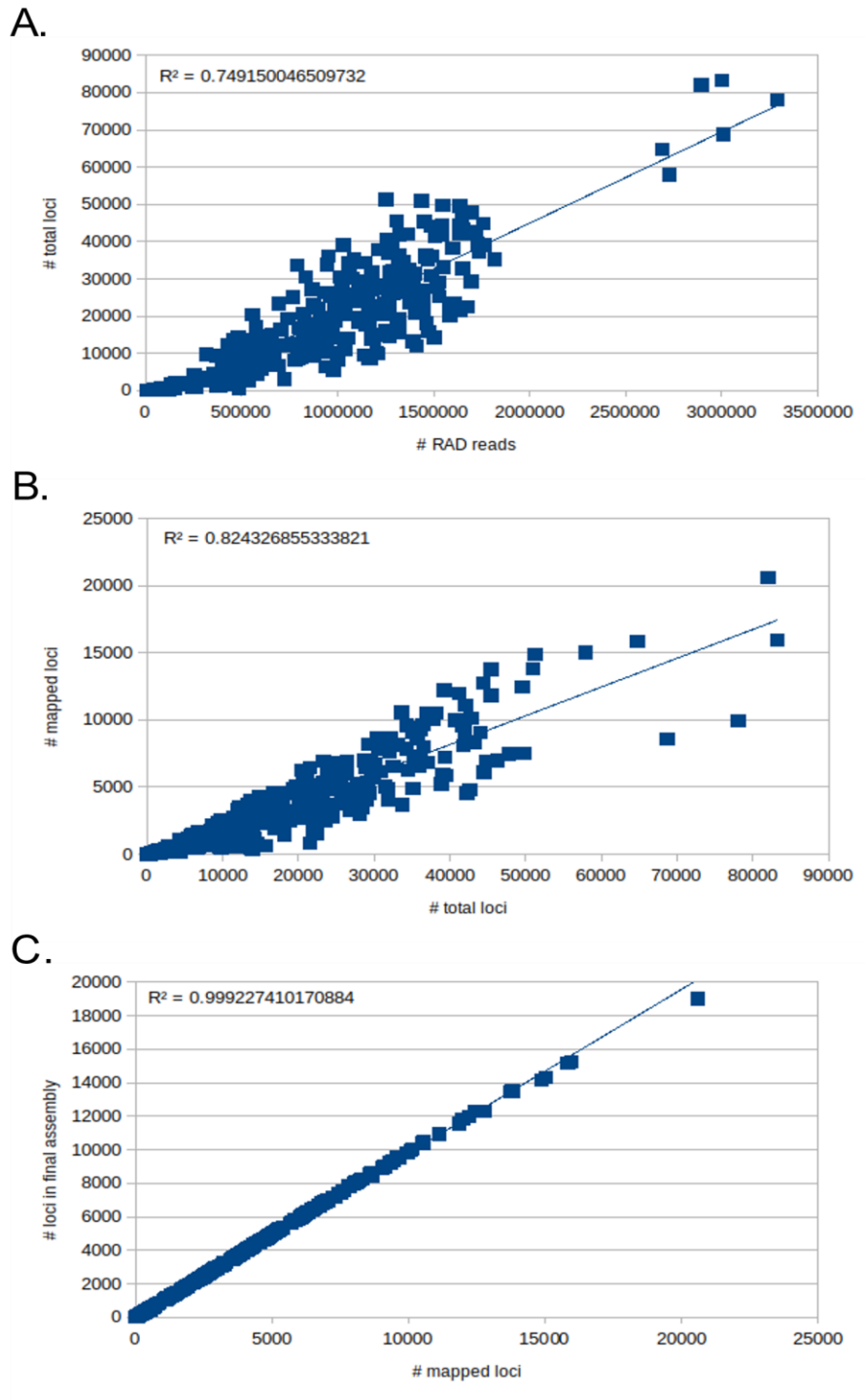


Figure 24. Reference-based RADseq assembly statistics. (A) The strong, positive, linear association between the number of RADseq reads and total RAD loci assembled. (B) The strong, positive, linear association between the number of total RAD loci assembled and those mapped to the reference genome. (C) The very strong, positive, linear association between the number of mapped loci and the total number of loci in the final assembly.

TABLE XXII. STATISTICS ON THE NUMBER OF RADESQ READS, TOTAL UNMAPPED LOCI ASSEMBLED IN PYRAD, LOCI MAPPED TO THE REFERENCE GENOME WITH BOWTIE2, AND LOCI IN THE 1000MIN DATASET.

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
14682_TAS	1305804	17934	3813	21.26%	3756	3756
14687_TAS	1473828	15724	2682	17.06%	2661	2661
14689_TAS	831680	30502	7830	25.67%	7828	7828
14690_TAS	984352	23891	6072	25.42%	6045	6045
14693_TAS	1293865	15579	3541	22.73%	3483	3483
14696_TAS	976359	5333	824	15.45%	793	
14702_TAS	878723	9286	2267	24.41%	2230	2230
14706_TAS	385699	1124	181	16.10%	177	
14708_TAS	484668	663	25	3.77%	27	
14709_TAS	1605770	23280	5390	23.15%	5357	5357
14711_TAS	1651796	32714	8091	24.73%	8062	8062
14712_TAS	859785	17657	4577	25.92%	4560	4560
14718_TAS	1506181	41256	11985	29.05%	11809	11809
14720_TAS	2690816	64767	15843	24.46%	15173	15173
14725_VIC	782498	12226	1889	15.45%	1849	1849
14727_VIC	691438	6796	543	7.99%	534	
14728_VIC	463814	1769	64	3.62%	59	
14729_VIC	723291	3132	177	5.65%	173	
14731_VIC	583556	4244	191	4.50%	182	
14732_VIC	877672	13736	434	3.16%	416	
14735_VIC	1417236	21891	1674	7.65%	1644	1644
14743_VIC	1580485	21528	816	3.79%	777	
14747_VIC	1456408	35938	6608	18.39%	6554	6554
14749_VIC	1245019	20448	4367	21.36%	4371	4371
14753_VIC	3006808	68705	8602	12.52%	8584	8584
14755_VIC	1176617	31872	4860	15.25%	4852	4852
14756_VIC	1049268	25409	3719	14.64%	3702	3702
14757_VIC	1178418	27097	3463	12.78%	3448	3448
14758_VIC	447083	10385	2421	23.31%	2387	2387
14759_VIC	798059	16876	3603	21.35%	3531	3531
14761_VIC	1488375	36168	7328	20.26%	7170	7170
14762_VIC	1164755	21570	6441	29.86%	6401	6401
14763_VIC	2728019	57949	15025	25.93%	14326	14326
14764_VIC	1518728	41717	9600	23.01%	9550	9550
14766_VIC	1402244	31376	8077	25.74%	8094	8094
14767_VIC	458809	12044	3274	27.18%	3250	3250
14768_VIC	1349460	26368	6900	26.17%	6862	6862
14769_VIC	562702	5777	1416	24.51%	1386	1386
14770_VIC	963716	10313	2459	23.84%	2438	2438
14771_VIC	1216447	14913	2330	15.62%	2281	2281
14772_VIC	383453	1383	253	18.29%	223	
14776_VIC	1634386	21335	5146	24.12%	5118	5118
14777_VIC	795078	8573	2145	25.02%	2104	2104



TABLE XXII, CONTINUED

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
14778_VIC	604752	5914	1461	24.70%	1440	1440
14779_VIC	1549084	33159	8153	24.59%	8107	8107
14780_VIC	365582	1177	181	15.38%	170	
14781_VIC	1161929	8518	1723	20.23%	1693	1693
14783_VIC	802292	16746	4618	27.58%	4605	4605
14784_VIC	1527992	25286	6826	27.00%	6810	6810
14785_VIC	1109095	19606	5090	25.96%	5052	5052
14786_VIC	1042293	20486	4992	24.37%	4968	4968
14787_VIC	665833	9746	2285	23.45%	2273	2273
14789_VIC	983316	14044	3925	27.95%	3878	3878
14790_VIC	1374252	23513	5330	22.67%	5300	5300
14791_VIC	1735343	37061	6854	18.49%	6800	6800
14792_VIC	1543533	41771	8084	19.35%	8057	8057
14793_VIC	1345674	28918	6458	22.33%	6423	6423
14796_VIC	1195161	22177	3679	16.59%	3682	3682
14798_VIC	1285540	32046	7616	23.77%	7541	7541
14799_VIC	1394096	29572	6298	21.30%	6264	6264
14800_VIC	1404040	20973	4110	19.60%	4077	4077
14810_VIC	1393288	13204	3243	24.56%	3238	3238
14811_VIC	71160	209	20	9.57%	18	
14812_VIC	1716669	42597	4780	11.22%	4758	4758
14814_VIC	931884	26345	6021	22.85%	5990	5990
14815_VIC	589474	14318	2785	19.45%	2779	2779
14816_VIC	1034601	11649	783	6.72%	776	
14818_VIC	955999	18801	2450	13.03%	2394	2394
15514_CHI	1204098	10006	528	5.28%	519	
15516_CHI	765990	25113	6231	24.81%	6160	6160
15517_CHI	173875	2140	318	14.86%	310	
15518_CHI	317169	9700	2507	25.85%	2476	2476
15520_CHI	483821	14498	3691	25.46%	3692	3692
15521_CHI	1141522	9498	721	7.59%	691	
15522_CHI	43524	209	27	12.92%	23	
15523_CHI	152937	1946	299	15.36%	286	
15524_CHI	54075	297	33	11.11%	23	
15526_CHI	95698	857	144	16.80%	132	
15527_CHI	153019	453	8	1.77%	8	
15528_CHI	6901	9	0	0.00%	0	
15529_CHI	429485	12268	3484	28.40%	3440	3440
15530_CHI	44377	30	1	3.33%	1	
15535_CHI	371991	9315	2361	25.35%	2332	2332
15537_CHI	251979	4323	1100	25.45%	1079	1079
15538_CHI	1251984	51242	14880	29.04%	14143	14143
15539_CHI	147206	1595	353	22.13%	340	
15540_CHI	135844	1662	343	20.64%	323	
15541_CHI	458031	13616	4008	29.44%	3994	3994
15542_CHI	24906	59	4	6.78%	1	
15543_CHI	81484	591	74	12.52%	68	

TABLE XXII, CONTINUED

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
15544_CHI	129692	1351	223	16.51%	211	
15545_CHI	790120	33595	10564	31.45%	10336	10336
15546_CHI	1059953	34323	9580	27.91%	9489	9489
15547_CHI	1636141	42036	11129	26.47%	10943	10943
15550_CHI	692966	23332	6930	29.70%	6895	6895
15551_CHI	2891795	82044	20591	25.10%	19017	19017
15552_CHI	820990	20668	6021	29.13%	5988	5988
15556_CHI	555083	20411	6235	30.55%	6227	6227
15557_CHI	165175	1798	288	16.02%	275	
15559_CHI	1597329	38205	10535	27.57%	10397	10397
15560_CHI	1060689	32225	8612	26.72%	8591	8591
15562_CHI	1543762	44439	12759	28.71%	12291	12291
15563_CHI	1306708	45440	13754	30.27%	13449	13449
15565_CHI	1029363	39231	12214	31.13%	11968	11968
15567_CHI	1264822	37019	10542	28.48%	10471	10471
15571_CHI	576311	17258	4366	25.30%	4366	4366
15575_CHI	1253619	40729	9975	24.49%	9807	9807
15578_CHI	1436944	50989	13810	27.08%	13513	13513
15579_CHI	890797	14829	4327	29.18%	4328	4328
15581_CHI	1175460	8673	1210	13.95%	1194	1194
15586_CHI	1443125	21977	2489	11.33%	2497	2497
15587_CHI	1270923	14482	811	5.60%	777	
15588_CHI	1677445	22496	1504	6.69%	1465	1465
15589_CHI	1318664	15657	615	3.93%	591	
15590_CHI	999579	8087	625	7.73%	615	
15591_CHI	1210293	9839	414	4.21%	388	
15592_CHI	1178245	13923	387	2.78%	361	
15593_CHI	437925	4418	211	4.78%	192	
15594_CHI	1409637	12068	534	4.42%	518	
15595_CHI	1241913	23498	2541	10.81%	2514	2514
15603_CHI	1635832	49574	12445	25.10%	12301	12301
15605_CHI	739692	19384	4905	25.30%	4877	4877
15606_CHI	1083965	35151	9111	25.92%	8991	8991
15609_CHI	953819	36157	9319	25.77%	9216	9216
15611_CHI	1010247	25628	5855	22.85%	5856	5856
15905_NZN	635453	14629	2562	17.51%	2534	2534
15906_NZN	1647253	46240	6988	15.11%	6939	6939
15907_NZN	1072907	30070	6734	22.39%	6671	6671
15909_NZN	1182530	28846	6469	22.43%	6441	6441
15910_PHO	1362241	42008	8643	20.57%	8551	8551
15911_PHO	1322625	41899	9660	23.06%	9548	9548
15912_NZN	827881	19984	3869	19.36%	3807	3807
15913_NZN	1652612	43228	8281	19.16%	8237	8237
15914_NZN	511931	5214	452	8.67%	445	
15915_NZN	946410	10463	1314	12.56%	1293	1293
15916_PHO	1159461	25674	4442	17.30%	4443	4443
15917_NZN	550604	13306	3753	28.21%	3726	3726

TABLE XXII, CONTINUED

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
15918_NZN	616738	12402	2205	17.78%	2213	2213
15919_NZN	392997	4041	268	6.63%	265	
15920_NZN	1423653	25984	4663	17.95%	4634	4634
15921_NZN	1319506	18156	1387	7.64%	1374	1374
15923_NZN	1270438	28077	2951	10.51%	2932	2932
15924_NZN	909372	12369	1047	8.46%	1034	1034
15926_NZN	1164119	22685	2861	12.61%	2831	2831
15927_NZN	930918	16610	2933	17.66%	2898	2898
15928_NZN	1665311	42267	4534	10.73%	4521	4521
15929_NZN	1253352	28363	3461	12.20%	3435	3435
15930_NZN	1275234	31885	4038	12.66%	4004	4004
15931_NZN	1001044	22164	3590	16.20%	3562	3562
15932_NZN	1402105	20747	2672	12.88%	2672	2672
15934_NZN	1582775	20043	2691	13.43%	2638	2638
15937_NZN	1144809	17565	2974	16.93%	2931	2931
15938_NZN	1469036	35255	6867	19.48%	6821	6821
15939_NZN	1042169	10960	881	8.04%	858	
15940_NZN	974044	17740	2487	14.02%	2469	2469
15942_NZN	779188	8095	1161	14.34%	1156	1156
15943_NZN	1108641	28911	4070	14.08%	4031	4031
15944_NZN	1759768	44805	6956	15.53%	6912	6912
15946_NZN	1765626	39051	5952	15.24%	5866	5866
15947_NZN	447493	6582	415	6.31%	405	
15948_NZN	1446135	24441	2763	11.30%	2734	2734
15949_NZN	831614	16906	1875	11.09%	1850	1850
15950_NZN	705615	12033	1850	15.37%	1830	1830
15951_NZN	3002039	83290	15965	19.17%	15236	15236
15952_NZN	1360447	31473	5060	16.08%	5036	5036
15953_NZN	3286909	78041	9951	12.75%	9827	9827
15954_NZN	1323095	19215	4529	23.57%	4484	4484
15955_NZN	1313325	27695	5226	18.87%	5204	5204
15957_NZN	1426632	26321	4200	15.96%	4162	4162
15958_NZN	986805	20312	4241	20.88%	4195	4195
15959_NZN	1726385	39353	7238	18.39%	7174	7174
15960_NZN	216205	1679	24	1.43%	12	
15963_NZN	1009462	30470	8652	28.40%	8412	8412
15965_NZN	383041	2786	566	20.32%	562	
15969_NZN	119492	343	21	6.12%	23	
15971_NZN	300588	3566	628	17.61%	614	
15972_NZN	114420	772	75	9.72%	71	
15975_NZN	629056	12309	2966	24.10%	2927	2927
15978_NZN	439530	2568	363	14.14%	355	
15980_NZN	1317839	36520	8011	21.94%	7970	7970
15981_NZN	957736	25333	6497	25.65%	6425	6425
15982_NZN	1140007	34290	7852	22.90%	7778	7778
15984_NZN	396622	6727	1650	24.53%	1628	1628
15986_NZN	850060	11357	2710	23.86%	2685	2685

TABLE XXII, CONTINUED

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
15987_NZN	1209196	37763	10094	26.73%	9944	9944
15988_NZN	1454547	35682	8575	24.03%	8481	8481
15991_NZN	1482568	44076	9047	20.53%	8921	8921
15993_NZN	1025297	26874	4224	15.72%	4188	4188
15995_NZN	1291444	26186	4797	18.32%	4712	4712
15996_NZN	31968	105	5	4.76%	4	
15997_NZN	740794	11890	1796	15.11%	1759	1759
15999_NZS	484988	4552	448	9.84%	437	
16000_PHO	919747	17850	2878	16.12%	2823	2823
16002_PHO	1449485	45402	11853	26.11%	11555	11555
16003_PHO	1077454	25893	6043	23.34%	5941	5941
16009_PHO	1266737	24619	5268	21.40%	5253	5253
16010_PHO	760345	12550	1705	13.59%	1669	1669
16011_NZS	79766	154	2	1.30%	2	
16012_PHO	1118812	25542	5700	22.32%	5636	5636
16014_NZS	446577	4520	805	17.81%	782	
16017_NZS	332318	3194	595	18.63%	577	
16019_NZS	243762	994	142	14.29%	137	
16021_NZS	940094	6454	564	8.74%	553	
16022_NZS	1518607	27826	3520	12.65%	3499	3499
16024_NZS	413290	1732	129	7.45%	117	
16025_NZS	1270669	20963	3232	15.42%	3174	3174
16026_NZS	534657	2564	184	7.18%	180	
16027_NZS	151004	536	43	8.02%	43	
16034_NZS	988880	18539	2738	14.77%	2676	2676
16035_NZS	439725	3071	327	10.65%	307	
16036_NZS	251664	1731	154	8.90%	137	
16037_NZS	1422823	22805	4133	18.12%	4094	4094
16039_NZS	1296703	29275	8215	28.06%	8160	8160
16040_NZS	702807	16367	3476	21.24%	3423	3423
16042_NZS	1458468	36432	9626	26.42%	9533	9533
16043_NZS	1641151	42791	10127	23.67%	10031	10031
16045_NZS	408694	5469	1158	21.17%	1128	1128
16046_NZS	1315574	35372	9423	26.64%	9336	9336
16050_NZS	131056	1049	136	12.96%	113	
16056_NZS	1170807	21067	5892	27.97%	5844	5844
16057_NZS	502248	6625	1487	22.45%	1445	1445
16067_NZS	925207	16783	2645	15.76%	2605	2605
16068_NZS	1545634	49722	7511	15.11%	7418	7418
16069_NZS	717712	12164	2088	17.17%	2045	2045
16070_NZS	691421	12231	1485	12.14%	1448	1448
16072_NZS	527922	5657	435	7.69%	413	
16073_NZS	1163050	18696	2469	13.21%	2431	2431
16074_NZS	1117320	26201	4303	16.42%	4242	4242
16075_NZS	1129674	24156	3744	15.50%	3687	3687
16076_NZS	633782	10053	1443	14.35%	1428	1428
16077_NZS	1080014	23765	4863	20.46%	4796	4796

TABLE XXII, CONTINUED

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
16078_NZS	1050421	14151	1180	8.34%	1184	1184
16079_NZS	1637419	44502	6123	13.76%	6052	6052
16080_NZS	838323	11896	2558	21.50%	2521	2521
16081_NZS	1462655	18096	2365	13.07%	2310	2310
16082_NZS	376360	2885	449	15.56%	436	
16084_NZS	1819134	35140	4909	13.97%	4885	4885
16089_NZS	1343610	34509	6277	18.19%	6250	6250
16091_NZS	1372859	32511	6539	20.11%	6497	6497
16092_NZS	1441475	26800	3258	12.16%	3225	3225
16093_NZS	1695182	29326	4538	15.47%	4517	4517
16094_NZS	1257733	27705	4816	17.38%	4794	4794
16096_NZS	1527435	29165	5376	18.43%	5322	5322
16097_NZS	487029	9009	1300	14.43%	1263	1263
16099_NZS	1136123	29528	7046	23.86%	6959	6959
16100_NZS	562435	11522	1900	16.49%	1874	1874
16101_NZS	1489631	30918	6157	19.91%	6103	6103
16102_NZS	597913	9643	520	5.39%	401	
16103_NZS	554532	6523	815	12.49%	806	
16104_NZS	1189517	13903	1396	10.04%	1360	1360
16106_NZS	1305004	28606	7003	24.48%	6920	6920
16107_NZS	892152	16390	2546	15.53%	2518	2518
16108_NZS	916286	15213	2990	19.65%	2972	2972
16111_NZS	969153	26163	4039	15.44%	4010	4010
16112_NZS	873571	17989	2927	16.27%	2932	2932
16113_NZS	819249	14448	2374	16.43%	2338	2338
16114_NZS	1251298	27278	4495	16.48%	4465	4465
16115_NZS	526740	13500	1976	14.64%	1950	1950
16116_NZS	1192267	21068	3301	15.67%	3269	3269
16117_NZS	656004	14990	2507	16.72%	2478	2478
16119_NZS	906322	19575	3162	16.15%	3088	3088
16120_NZS	355744	4654	476	10.23%	463	
16121_NZS	260353	870	39	4.48%	40	
16122_NZS	506995	12022	2113	17.58%	2064	2064
16123_NZS	809748	8917	1098	12.31%	1057	1057
16124_NZS	872816	23206	4717	20.33%	4649	4649
16125_NZS	364959	2484	225	9.06%	211	
16126_NZS	568246	8175	1154	14.12%	1128	1128
16127_NZS	350201	2775	256	9.23%	237	
16128_NZS	901233	22162	4132	18.64%	4092	4092
16129_NZS	461994	3559	370	10.40%	357	
16130_NZS	837556	10140	1320	13.02%	1269	1269
16131_NZS	1246214	16131	2525	15.65%	2509	2509
16132_NZS	548384	8779	1406	16.02%	1365	1365
16133_NZS	292028	2470	426	17.25%	426	
16134_NZS	1109089	18442	2882	15.63%	2847	2847
16135_NZS	1441725	23782	3081	12.96%	3033	3033
16138_PHO	865446	27221	4309	15.83%	4278	4278

TABLE XXII, CONTINUED

sample_name	n_reads	n_total_loci	n_mapped_loci	% loci mapped	n_assembled_loci	1000min_dataset
16139_PHO	1029367	38850	5235	13.47%	5175	5175
16140_PHO	1281728	39505	5842	14.79%	5801	5801
16141_PHO	945414	33745	3675	10.89%	3645	3645
16142_CHI	792246	11055	1530	13.84%	1501	1501
17204_CAM	1020705	29943	5668	18.93%	5598	5598
17205_NZN	660624	6753	827	12.25%	794	
17206_NZS	1699635	47798	7451	15.59%	7419	7419
17208_NZS	1503607	14241	1028	7.22%	1012	1012
<b>AVE</b>	<b>994,295.95</b>	<b>20,357.12</b>	<b>3,966.98</b>	<b>17.27%</b>	<b>3,910.36</b>	<b>5,073.16</b>
<b>STDEV</b>	<b>535,452.64</b>	<b>15,128.82</b>	<b>3,584.49</b>	<b>7.17%</b>	<b>3,498.41</b>	<b>3,263.88</b>

## VITA

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### PUBLICATIONS:

- Egan, Robert S, Robert Harms, and Todd Widhelm. 2005. "Studies on the Lichen *Parmotrema rigidum* s. Lat. from North and South America." *The Bryologist* 108 (3).
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- Assessing evolutionary relationships in Lobariaceae using target capture; American Bryological and Lichenological Society meeting, Nederland, Colorado, August 2018
- Miocene radiation and the effect of photobiont association on diversification in the genus *Sticta* (Lobariaceae); Botany Conference, Fort Worth, Texas, June 2017
- Picking holes in traditional species delimitations: an integrative taxonomic reassessment of *Parmotrema perforatum* group (Parmeliaceae, Ascomycota); International Association for Lichenology, Helsinki, Finland, August 2016
- A Defined Transposon-Mutant Library for the *Staphylococcus aureus* Research Community; Wind River Conference on Prokaryotic Biology, Estes Park, Colorado; 2011 Jun
- A Defined Transposon-Mutant Library for the *Staphylococcus aureus* Research Community; American Society for Microbiology Annual Meeting of the Missouri Valley Branch, Lincoln, Nebraska; March 2011
- Testing Species Delimitations in the *Parmotrema peforatum* group (Parmeliaceae, Ascomycota) in Eastern North America; Botany and Mycology 2009, Snowbird, Utah; July 2009
- Testing Species Delimitations in the *Parmotrema perforatum* Group in Eastern North America;



International Association on Lichenology/American Bryological and Lichenological Society joint meeting, Asilomar Conference grounds, Monterey California; July 2008  
Phylogenetic Relationships in the *Parmotrema perforatum* Group in North America based on the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*GPD*) gene; American Bryological and Lichenological Society meeting, Xalapa, Veracruz, Mexico; August 2007  
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UIC LAS Student Travel Award  
UIC BIOS Student Travel Award  
UIC Student Presenter Award  
UIC Graduate Student Council travel award  
British Lichen Society Travel Grant for IAL8  
UIC Liberal Arts and Sciences travel funds  
NSF and the Society for Systematic Biology Travel Award, Phylogenetics Symposium  
UIC Bodmer Award for International Travel  
UIC Elmer Hadley Award  
A. J. Sharp Award, American Bryological and Lichenological Society  
University of Nebraska at Omaha, University Committee on Research Travel Award  
American Bryological and Lichenological Society  
Thelotremaaceae Lichen Workshop Travel Award, Thailand  
American Bryological and Lichenological Society  
UNO Summer Graduate Scholarship  
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Philadelphia Botanical Club Bayard Long Award  
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