

Phylogeography of *Nasutitermes ephratae* (Termitidae: Nasutitermitinae) in Neotropical region

Amanda de Faria Santos (✉ amanda.santos@unesp.br)

Universidade Estadual Paulista (UNESP)

Eliana Marques Canello

Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo (MZUSP)

Adriana Coletto Morales

Universidade Estadual Paulista (UNESP)

Research Article

Keywords: termites, dispersal route, genetic structure, demographic history, mtDNA.

Posted Date: January 12th, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1238841/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. [Read Full License](#)

Abstract

The neotropical region ranks third in the number of termites with five different families. Of these, Termitidae is the most diverse and includes the species *Nasutitermes ephratae* and is common in the neotropics. To date, only one study has been published about phylogeographic issues in neotropical termites (*N. corniger*). Here, we aimed to investigate and analyze the population genetic patterns of *N. ephratae* and then evaluated the phylogeographical processes involved in the evolutionary history of the species. We used the mitochondrial genes 16S rRNA and COII as molecular markers: These were sequenced for 128 samples of *N. ephratae*. We estimated the genetic diversity and divergence time as well as the demographic and genetic structure analyses. We also produced ancestral area reconstruction and a haplotype network. The results showed high genetic variability, recent demographic expansion, and strong genetic structure. We also inferred a dispersal route for the species that occurred in both directions between South and Central America. The results emphasize a temporary separation between the South and Central America population that affected the origin of the current Central America populations. These were formed from different phylogeographic histories.

Introduction

The neotropics host a large diversity of species and habitats that arose from the complex geological history associated with environmental and climatic changes. Evolutionary features such as vicariance, dispersion, and extinction shaped the geographical distribution patterns of the species found in this region [1].

The Neotropical termite fauna ranks third in the number of species with 612 living species following Asia (1154 species) and Ethiopia (757 species). Of the five neotropical termite families, Termitidae is the most diverse with 436 species described. Termitidae includes the subfamily Nasutitermitinae with 171 species described in the neotropical region including 67 in the genus *Nasutitermes* corresponding to almost 40% of the number of species of the subfamily [2].

Like the other Nasutitermitinae, the soldiers of this genus are characterized by a conic-shaped frontal projection where the opening of an exocrine gland is located at the top. This gland produces substances used for defense against predators [3].

Nasutitermes ephratae was described by Holmgren [4] using alates and workers collected in Ephrata, Suriname. Banks [5] described the soldiers using specimens of *N. creolina* collected in Panama. Later Snyder [6] synonymized *N. creolina* with *N. ephratae*. The nests of this species are arboreal and show a light to dark brown coloration and a leathery surface as if they were enveloped. Internally, the nests are reinforced around the royal camara that harbors the queen and the king in the center of the nest (closer to the trunk or branch of the tree) [7].

Nasutitermes ephratae is reconstructed as a sister species or close to *N. corniger* in various phylogenetic studies [8, 9, 10, 11]. Both species are very common in the neotropics including most of Central and South America, e.g., Brazil, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, French Guiana, Guyana, Peru, Suriname, and Venezuela [2, 6, 12, 13, 14, 15].

To date, only one phylogeographic study has been done on neotropical termites. This was performed with *N. corniger* [15]. The results showed high variability and strong genetic structure for the populations sampled. These were divided in haplogroups along its occurrence area associated with South American biomes. The authors also

proposed a dispersal route for *N. corniger*, which would have left Central America towards South America where the populations dispersed toward the eastern regions.

Phylogeographic and biogeographic studies can help explain how the species responded to geological and climatic changes in the past. This highlights the importance of phylogeographic studies that show a variety of taxonomic groups including insects that have population and evolutionary dynamics different from other taxa [16]. Thus, the association of various phylogeographic patterns can explain the evolutionary history of neotropical biota.

The main aim of this study was to explain the phylogeographical and historical processes that gave rise to population patterns of *N. ephratae* in the neotropics. Thus, we used the mitochondrial molecular markers 16S rRNA and the subunit II of the code gene to cytochrome oxidase (COII). It is important to highlight that the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) have been extensively used for the investigation of phylogeographic issues as well as other evolutionary questions of a large variety of species including termites [15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23].

We performed demographic analyses, estimates of variability and genetic structure, analyses of divergence time, and ancestral area reconstruction. We also performed a haplotype network and proposed a dispersal route for the species. The biogeographic units defined for the analyses are according to the Neotropical regionalization in dominions proposed by Morrone [24] as follows (considering the areas that were sampled): Antillean subregion (ANT) and Mesoamerican dominion (MES) in Central America; Pacific dominion (PAC) in Central and South America; Boreal Brazilian dominion (BOR), Chacoan dominion (CHA), Parana dominion (PAR), and south Brazilian dominion (SOU) in South America.

Methods

Sampling

The samples of *N. ephratae* (Table 1; Figure 1) analyzed here came from the Isoptera collections of the *Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo* (MZUSP) and the University of Florida (UF). The samples were collected in different campaigns and stored in 96% ethanol (MZUSP) and in 85% ethanol (UF) to better preservation of the DNA. Extracted DNA are stored in the Molecular Collection of the *Laboratório de Biologia Evolutiva* (LaBE) of the *Faculdade de Ciências Agrárias e Veterinárias*, UNESP (Jaboticabal, SP, Brazil). In addition to these samples, 12 nucleotide sequences of *N. ephratae* obtained in GenBank (public access) were included in the analyses, totaling 128 samples analyzed.

Table 1

– Samples analyzed with their respective collection location, geographical coordinates, sequencing of mtDNA regions and neotropical dominion.

Samples	Collection location, state (BR)/country	Geographical coord.		Sequencing	Neotropical dominion
		Latitude	Longitude		
756	Bonito, MS	-21.1284	-56.4957	16S/COII	CHA
757	PortoVelho, RO	-9.44788	-64.811609	16S/COII	SOU
758	PortoVelho, RO	-9.44788	-64.811609	16S/COII	SOU
759	PortoVelho, RO	-9.60887	-65.376932	16S/COII	SOU
760	PortoVelho, RO	-9.44788	-64.811609	16S	SOU
761	PortoVelho, RO	-9.44788	-64.811609	16S/COII	SOU
762	PortoVelho, RO	-9.44788	-64.811609	16S	SOU
763	PortoVelho, RO	-9.591526	-65.05023	16S	SOU
765	PortoVelho, RO	-9.579086	-65.05786	16S/COII	SOU
766	PortoVelho, RO	-9.591526	-65.05023	16S/COII	SOU
767	PortoVelho, RO	-9.642215	-65.446262	16S/COII	SOU
768	PortoVelho, RO	-9.591526	-65.05023	16S/COII	SOU
770	PortoVelho, RO	-9.632081	-65.438702	16S/COII	SOU
774	PortoVelho, RO	-9.45022	-64.36745	16S/COII	SOU
775	Arceburgo, MG	-21.365503	-46.94185	16S/COII	PAR
776	Promissão, SP	-21.545429	-49.782324	16S/COII	PAR
777	Avanhandaga, SP	-21.554946	-49.950317	16S/COII	PAR
778	Linhares, ES	-19.4225	-40.1596	16S/COII	PAR
779	Coroados, SP	-21.356732	-50.305391	16S/COII	PAR
780	Ipora, GO	-16.4124	-51.2391	16S/COII	CHA
781	Aquidauana, MS	-20.4587	-55.6164	16S/COII	CHA
782	SantaBárbara, MG	-16.483	-49.7686	16S/COII	CHA
783	Promissão, SP	-21.356201	-49.79478	16S/COII	PAR
784	Guapiaçu, SP	-20.75824	-49.165914	16S/COII	PAR
785	RibeirãoPreto, SP	-21.22689	-47.826861	16S/COII	CHA
786	Palmeiras, MS	-20.4553	-55.5053	16S/COII	CHA

*Nucleotide sequences obtained in GenBank. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Samples	Collection location, state (BR)/country	Geographical coord.		Sequencing	Neotropical dominion
		Latitude	Longitude		
787	Dourados, MS	-22.2373	-54.6144	16S/COII	PAR
789	SãoJoãoBatista, MG	-20.7176	-46.4742	16S/COII	CHA
790	Sooretama, ES	-19.0554	-40.1469	16S/COII	PAR
802	RioChico, Venezuela	10.32965	-65.95991	16S/COII	PAC
807	Colon, Panamá	9.12209	-79.71566	16S	PAC
808	Chiquila, México	21.02455	-87.4977	16S/COII	MES
809	LasQuebradas, Honduras	15.38002	-86.48891	16S/COII	MES
811	AltaVerapaz, Guatemala	15.56674	-90.14269	16S/COII	MES
814	Minca, Colômbia	11.1256	-74.11972	16S/COII	PAC
820	PipelineRoad, Panamá	9.12582	-79.71581	16S/COII	PAC
821	SoberaniaNationalPark, Panamá	9.08148	-79.66596	16S/COII	PAC
822	Ometepe, Nicarágua	11.51468	-85.55514	16S/COII	MES
823	Izabal, Guatemala	15.75838	-88.64599	16S/COII	MES
826	FranciscodeOrellana, Equador	-0.4708	-76.45925	16S/COII	BOR
827	Minca, Colômbia	11.11327	-74.12861	16S/COII	PAC
830	TrinityHills, TrindadeTobago	10.12008	-61.13279	16S/COII	PAC
831	Englishman'sBay, TrindadeTobago	11.28833	-60.66867	16S/COII	PAC
832	Aragua, Venezuela	10.49	-67.61	16S	PAC
836	Coyolito, Honduras	13.31492	-87.62271	16S/COII	MES
838	LaCeiba, Honduras	15.66692	-87.00109	16S/COII	MES
842	TayronaNationalPark, Colômbia	11.27731	-73.92561	16S/COII	PAC
844	Maracay, Venezuela	10.27289	-67.61113	16S/COII	PAC
847	Miranda, Venezuela	10.23373	-66.66384	16S	PAC
849	Colon, Panamá	9.57705	-79.32218	16S/COII	PAC
850	BluefieldsNavalStation, Nicarágua	12.03739	-83.77062	16S/COII	PAC

*Nucleotide sequences obtained in GenBank. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Samples	Collection location, state (BR)/country	Geographical coord.		Sequencing	Neotropical dominion
		Latitude	Longitude		
853	AltaVerapaz, Guatemala	15.68823	-89.98703	16S	MES
858	HenriPittierNationalPark, Venezuela	10.39418	-67.75036	16S/COII	PAC
859	GrandRiviere, Trinidadetobago	10.83	-61.044	16S/COII	PAC
861	Bolivar, Venezuela	5.683	-61.583	16S	BOR
862	Satipo, Peru	-11.28681	-74.67691	16S/COII	SOU
864	PuertoAsese, Nicaragua	11.90023	-85.92898	16S/COII	MES
866	LancetillaBotanical, Honduras	15.73359	-87.45594	16S/COII	MES
867	AltaVerapaz, Guatemala	15.71261	-89.94968	COII	MES
868	AnselaFrais, Guadalupe	15.97567	-61.31552	16S/COII	ANT
871	PastMojoriver, Belize	16.09314	-88.9702	16S/COII	MES
872	Cochabamba, Bolivia	-16.99937	-65.62736	16S/COII	SOU
873	YacaumbuNationalPark, Venezuela	9.69985	-69.52694	16S/COII	PAC
883	Mahaut, Guadalupe	16.18723	-61.7735	16S/COII	ANT
886	RioBlancoNationalPark, Belize	16.22892	-89.09382	16S/COII	MES
887	SierradeCochis, Bolivia	-18.14974	-60.06951	16S/COII	SOU
890	AripoSavannah, Trinidadetobago	10.59667	-61.2075	16S	PAC
892	RioNegro, Peru	-11.18987	-74.66985	16S/COII	SOU
893	Colon, Panama	9.32286	-80.00095	16S/COII	PAC
894	LosSantos, Panama	7.25147	-80.50834	16S/COII	PAC
895	QuintanaRoo, Mexico	21.09713	-86.96915	16S	MES
896	PicoBonitoLodgetrail, Honduras	15.68348	-86.90016	16S/COII	MES
900	Heredia, CostaRica	10.4254	-84.0022	16S/COII	PAC
901	MayaPoint, Belize	16.52775	-88.36321	16S/COII	MES
902	TauriMennonitesite, Bolivia	-17.58995	-62.44228	16S/COII	SOU
907	BajoPichanaqui, Peru	-11.06414	-74.71955	16S/COII	SOU

*Nucleotide sequences obtained in GenBank. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Samples	Collection location, state (BR)/country	Geographical coord.		Sequencing	Neotropical dominion
		Latitude	Longitude		
910	QuintanaRoo, México	20.83018	-87.32672	16S/COII	MES
915	Heredia, CostaRica	10.4254	-84.0022	16S/COII	PAC
918	SanJavier, Bolívia	-14.54909	-64.88964	16S/COII	SOU
922	AltoCacazuoldforest, Peru	-10.70755	-75.14109	16S/COII	SOU
924	LosSantos, Panamá	7.67865	-80.15967	16S/COII	PAC
925	LagunaBacalar, México	18.76662	-88.33867	16S	MES
926	CapiroNationalPark, Honduras	15.88046	-85.94997	16S/COII	MES
927	Peten, Guatemala	16.30402	-89.42172	16S/COII	MES
930	Limon, CostaRica	9.63252	-82.67172	16S/COII	PAC
933	SanPedro, Bolívia	-14.2126	-64.94026	16S/COII	SOU
937	Pte.Bermudez, Peru	-10.46894	-75.03005	16S/COII	SOU
940	SanJose, México	18.4409	-89.00258	16S/COII	MES
949	ElCoco, Venezuela	10.18912	-65.6721	16S	PAC
950	ArenaForest, Trinidadetobago	10.57657	-61.27255	COII	PAC
952	Campoverde, Peru	-8.60854	-74.93628	16S/COII	SOU
953	LajasdeTole, Panamá	8.1874	-81.72511	16S/COII	PAC
955	SanJose, México	18.296	-87.83277	16S/COII	MES
956	LagunaGuaimoreto, Honduras	16.01322	-85.91839	16S/COII	MES
957	Izabal, Guatemala	15.73636	-89.091	16S	MES
961	CockscombNationalPark, Belize	16.78049	-88.45901	16S/COII	MES
964	HigueroteBeach, Venezuela	10.50282	-66.11221	16S	PAC
967	TingoMariaCacao, Peru	-9.32776	-76.03557	16S/COII	SOU
969	Cocle, Panamá	8.66907	-80.59178	16S/COII	PAC
977	SanPedro, Bolívia	-14.4239	-64.86053	16S/COII	SOU
981	Rushville, Trinidadetobago	10.16633	-61.05433	16S/COII	PAC
982	TingoMaria, Peru	-9.14974	-75.99233	16S/COII	SOU
983	BarroColoradols., Panamá	9.1521	-79.8464	16S/COII	PAC

*Nucleotide sequences obtained in GenBank. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Samples	Collection location, state (BR)/country	Geographical coord.		Sequencing	Neotropical dominion
		Latitude	Longitude		
985	Chicbul, México	18.78033	-90.93848	16S/COII	MES
986	SamboCreek, Honduras	15.79585	-86.62127	16S/COII	MES
988	Inra, Guadalupe	16.20458	-61.6666	16S	ANT
990	FranciscodeOrellana, Equador	-0.4708	-76.45925	16S	BOR
991	CienegaLaBatea, Colômbia	9.32242	-74.70874	16S/COII	PAC
1078	João Pessoa, PB	-7.13445	-34.84602	16S/COII	PAR
1079	João Pessoa, PB	-7.13445	-34.84602	16S/COII	PAR
1080	Areia, PB	-6.962804	-35.754688	16S/COII	CHA
1081	Areia, PB	-6.962804	-35.754688	16S/COII	CHA
1084	Amajari(ESECMaracá), RR	3.3778	-61.46444	COII	BOR
1085	Amajari, RR	3.405	-61.47333	16S/COII	BOR
1086	Bonfim, RR	3.35111	-59.846944	COII	BOR
1087	Bonfim, RR	3.35111	-59.846944	COII	BOR
BZ15*	RioBravoConservationArea, Belize	17.836799	-89.019253	16S (AY623088)	MES
DM59*	St.Andrew, Dominica	15.58	-61.320032	16S (AY623086)	ANT
GU113*	Basse-Terre, Guadalupe	16.166813	-61.664298	16S (AY623089)	ANT
NOU1*	Nouragues, GuianaFrancesa	4.087108	-52.680544	16S (KF724740)/ COII (KC630996)	BOR
NOU2*	Nouragues, GuianaFrancesa	4.087108	-52.680544	16S (KF724739)/ COII (KC630996)	BOR

*Nucleotide sequences obtained in GenBank. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Samples	Collection location, state (BR)/country	Geographical coord.		Sequencing	Neotropical dominion
		Latitude	Longitude		
PAT2*	Patagai, GuianaFrancesa	5.48	-53.26	16S (KF724741)/ COII (KC630997)	BOR
PAT3*	Patagai, GuianaFrancesa	5.48	-53.26	16S (KF724739)/ COII (KC630998)	BOR
PAT4*	Patagai, GuianaFrancesa	5.48	-53.26	16S (KF724738)/ COII (KC630999)	BOR
ROC1*	Rocoucua, GuianaFrancesa	5.455818	-53.304559	16S (KF724738)/ COII (KC630995)	BOR
RSE1*	RouteSaint-Élie, GuianaFrancesa	5.335233	-53.035583	16S (KF724739)/ COII (KC631000)	BOR
ST18*	PetitSaut, GuianaFrancesa	5.03333	-52.95	16S (KX816700)/ COII (KX816672)	BOR
TT644*	PinfoldBay, Tobago	11.188005	-60.657997	16S (AY623087)	PAC
Total de amostras				128	
Total de sequências de 16S				123	
Total de sequências de COII				108	
Total de amostras com 16S e COII sequenciados				103	
*Nucleotide sequences obtained in GenBank. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.					

Laboratory procedures

The total DNA was extracted from the head of an individual per colony following Liu & Beckenbach [25] protocol, which includes phenol-chloroform for the extraction and 100% and 70% ethanol for the DNA washing. The amplification of the 16S rRNA and COII (gene regions of mtDNA) was performed by PCR following the conditions described in Table 2. The PCR reaction, with 25 μL of final volume, was composed by 3 μL of each primer (forward and reverse) at 5 pmol/ μL , 12.5 μL of PCR Master Mix (Promega), 3.5 μL of nuclease free water, and 3 μL of target DNA at 20 ng/ μL . The PCR product was purified using the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions, followed by Sanger sequencing in ABI 3730 XL DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) automatic sequencer.

Table 2
– Primers and PCR conditions followed for the amplification of the 16S and COII mtDNA regions.

mtDNA region	Primers	Cycling	num. of cycles	Fragment length
16S	LR-J-13007 (F) [26]	94° (3') – initial denaturation	35	400 pb.
	LR-N-1398 (R) [27]	94° (45") – denaturation		
		46° (45") – annealing		
		72° (45") – extension		
		72° (7') – final extension		
COII	Modified A-tLeu (F) [8]	94° (3') – initial denaturation	35	750 pb.
	B-tLys (R) [28]	94° (30") – denaturation		
		46° (1') – annealing		
		72° (3') – extension		
		72° (10') – final extension		

Data analysis

Genetic diversity and neutrality tests

The nucleotide sequences were read in Chromas Lite v. 2.6.5 (Technelysium Ltd., 2005). The sequences of 16S were aligned using Mafft v. 7 [29, 30] and the sequences of COII were aligned using Geneious v. 7.1.9 (<https://www.geneious.com>) by ClustalW, both followed by inspection by eye. Geneious also was used to concatenate the 16S and COII sequences of the samples in which both regions could be sequenced.

To quantify the genetic diversity, the following parameters were estimated using DnaSP v. 6 [31]: number of polymorphic sites (S), nucleotide diversity (π), average number of nucleotide differences (k), and haplotype diversity (Hd). In addition to these parameters, the value of θ -W per sequence was estimated using Arlequin v. 3.5.1.2 [32]. This software also was used to perform the Fu's F_s [33] and Tajima's D [34] neutrality tests – these tests were performed for the entire sample set and, separately, for each Neotropical dominion sampled. The other neutrality tests Fu and Li's F^* and D^* and Achaz Y^* [35] were performed using DnaSP v. 6 [31].

The nucleotide composition of the sequences and the pairwise genetic distances (among individuals, among dominions and within dominions) were estimated using MEGA-X [36]. The genetic distances and the neutrality tests were estimated for both the concatenated sequences (16S+COII) and the single genes (16S or COII). Only the single genes were considered to estimate the genetic diversity indexes.

Haplotype network

The haplotype network was generated with the concatenated sequences (16S+COII) using TCS v. 1.21 [37], that uses parsimony method to establish the relationship among the haplotypes, with 95% of connection limit. The haplogroups were defined based on the shape of the network, considering the distance among the haplotypes and among the tips and central haplotypes of the group. The network was colored using tcsBU [38] considering the frequency of the haplotype in each Neotropical dominion sampled.

The map showing the distribution of the samples, colored according to the observed haplogroups, was performed using QGIS v. 3.6.3 [39] based on the datum WGS 1984 and on the shapefile of the Neotropical region developed by Löwenberg-Neto [40], considering the regionalization proposed by Morrone [24].

Genetic structure and Mantel test

The Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) was performed using Arlequin v. 3.5.1.2 [32] to assess the possibility of genetic structure among the sampled populations. Using the concatenated sequences, tree constructions were defined for this analysis: (i) an AMOVA was performed considering the haplogroups of the haplotype network; (ii) the second AMOVA was performed separating the samples in seven groups according to their Neotropical dominion (ANT, BOR, CHA, MES, PAC, PAC, and SOU); (iii) the third AMOVA was also performed considering the dominions as groups, but regrouping them into two major groups: Central America (ANT, MES, and northern PAC) and South America (BOR, CHA, southern PAC, PAR, and SOU). The F indexes, calculated by AMOVA, range from 0 to 1 and indicate high differentiation above 0.25 and moderately high differentiation between 0.15 e 0.25 [41].

Even to evaluate the inference of genetic structure, we performed an analysis of DNA clustering using the package rhierBAPS [42, 43] implemented in R v. 4.0.1 [44]. The results were obtained for both the concatenated sequences and the single genes. The graphs showing the geographical distribution of each genetic cluster (considering the concatenated sequences results) were obtained using Microsoft Excel (2008).

The Mantel test was performed using the package vegan [45], implemented in R v. 4.0.1, considering the Pearson's correlation as method with a number of permutation equal to 10000. We inputted the concatenated sequences and the geographical coordinates of each sample to perform this analysis.

Analysis of divergence time and ancestral area reconstruction

We estimated the divergence time among the samples of *N. ephratae* using an analysis of Bayesian inference. The tree was generated in BEAST v. 2.6.3 [46] using strict clock and chain length equal to 100 million. Two partitions were included in the analysis, the first containing the 16S sequences and the second containing the COII sequences. The tree models (Fossilized Birth Death Model) [47] and the clock models for both partitions were linked, but different substitution models were applied – TrN+G for the 16S and TrN+I+G for the COII partition [48]. The selection of the best-fit model of nucleotide substitution was done based on the results of jModelTest [49] considering the lower values of BIC.

The Bayesian inference was calibrated with the ages of four fossil records: *Valditermes brenanae* [50], 136.4 to 130 million of years ago (My); *Nanotermes isaace* [51], 56 to 47.8 My; *Nasutitermes electrinus* [52], 23.03 to 15.97 My; and *Atlantitermes caribea* [53], 20.44 to 13.82 My. Besides the fossil records, the origin dates estimated by Bourguignon [54] for Termitidae (54 My), Nasutitermitinae (19.4-26.2 My), and *Nasutitermes* (16.4-22.6 My) were also included to better fitting the calibration of the analysis. As outgroups, we included the species *Mastotermes darwiniensis* (Mastotermitidae), *Amitermes dentatus* (Termitidae: Termitinae), *Atlantitermes snyderi* (Termitidae: Nasutitermitinae), and *Nasutitermes longinasus* (Termitidae: Nasutitermitinae).

The MCMC trace files generated by Bayesian inference were viewed and analyzed using Tracer v. 1.7.1 [55] to check the values of Effective Sample Size (ESS > 200). The trees were resampled using the BEAUti v. 2.6.3 application “Full To Extant Tree Combiner” [46] to remove the fossil taxa of the topology, keeping only the extant species. The best tree was annotated by TreeAnnotator v. 2.6.3 [56] with 10% burn-in, and it was viewed and draw using FigTree v. 1.4.4 [57]. The colors of the branches are corresponding to the colors of the haplogroups (points on the map – Fig. 1).

A second Bayesian inference was performed considering the haplotypes (a single sequence per haplotype in each partition), following the same models and procedures described for the first Bayesian analysis, except the nucleotide substitution model for the 16S partition – TrN+I+G was selected as the best-fit model for 16S in this analysis. The best tree (with values of ESS > 200) were obtained with a chain length equal to 90 million.

The haplotype tree topology, as well as the divergence times estimated by this analysis, were used for the ancestral area reconstruction analysis, which was performed using the package BioGeoBEARS [58] in R v. 4.0.1 [44]. We defined seven occurrence areas for this analysis, according to the Neotropical dominions which were sampled (ANT, BOR, CHA, MES, PAC, PAR and SOU). We tested the models DEC, DIVALIKE and BAYAREALIKE with and without j (i.e. six models tested). The best-fit model was selected based on the lower values and higher weights of AIC and AICc.

Results

Genetic diversity and demographic inferences

We obtained 123 nucleotide sequences for 16S [396 base pairs (bp)] and 108 for COII (742 bp) within the samples, totaling 103 specimens with both mtDNA genes sequenced. The nucleotide composition of the concatenated sequences corresponds to 40.27% of adenine (A), 25.35% of thymine (T), 21.20% of cytosine (C), and 13.19% of guanine (G). The mean genetic distance among the samples was 0.011 for the concatenated sequences, 0.007 for the 16S sequences, and 0.015 for COII sequences. After estimating the genetic distances among and within the dominions, higher values were obtained for the BOR-MES and BOR-PAC pairwise comparisons (Table 3). The mean genetic distance within dominions was 0.008.

Table 3

– Genetic distance values estimated (a) among the dominions and (b) within dominions.

(a) Genetic distance among the Neotropical dominions sampled						
	ANT	BOR	CHA	MES	PAC	PAR
BOR	0,011					
CHA	0,010	0,011				
MES	0,013	0,016	0,013			
PAC	0,013	0,016	0,013	0,013		
PAR	0,010	0,010	0,003	0,012	0,012	
SUL	0,010	0,011	0,004	0,012	0,012	0,003
(b) Genetic distance within the Neotropical dominions sampled						
Domínio	Distância					
ANT	0,008					
BOR	0,012					
CHA	0,005					
MES	0,012					
PAC	0,014					
PAR	0,001					
SUL	0,003					
ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.						

We found 66 haplotypes considering the concatenated sequences: 41 haplotypes ($H_d = 0.890$) for 16S and 53 haplotypes ($H_d = 0.932$) for COII (Table 4a), indicating high genetic variability for the populations sampled. High values also were found for the number of polymorphic sites (S) of both mtDNA genes (24 for 16S and 87 for COII). The COII synonym sites showed the higher value of nucleotide diversity (π), which was 200 times higher than the value observed for the non-synonym sites (Table 4.a). The 16S π value was lower than the COII π value, which tends to present more polymorphism.

Table 4

– (a) Genetic diversity indices and (b and c) neutrality tests performed for the *N. ephratae* populations.

(a) Genetic diversity								
Gene	num. of sequences	num. of sites	h (Hd) ¹	S ¹	k ¹	π ¹	θ-W/seq.	
16S	123	396	41 (0.890)	24	3.851	0.00972	3.793 ± 1.216	
COII	108	742	53 (0.932)	87	11.560	0.01551	16.354 ± 4.312	
		syn = 154.8				syn = 0.069		
		n.syn = 529.2				n.syn = 3.5e ⁻⁴		
		n.cod = 58						
(b) Neutrality tests for the whole sample set								
Gene	Fu/Li D*	Fu/Li F*	Achaz Y*	Fu's Fs	Tajima's D			
16S	-2.190 (n/s)	-2.089 (n/s)	0.02162	-26.072 (p=0.00)	-0.884 (n/s)			
COII	-5.833 (p<0.02)	-5.333 (p<0.02)	-1.65154	-24.454 (p=0.00)	-1.225 (n/s)			
16S + COII ²	-4.962 (p<0.02)	-4.584 (p<0.02)	-1.31284	-26.431 (p=0.00)	-0.915 (n/s)			
(c) Testes de neutralidade por domínio								
Gene	Test	Neotropical dominion						
		ANT	BOR	CHA	MES	PAC	PAR	SUL
16S	Fu's Fs	-2.370 (p=0.02)	-10.558 (p=0.000)	-12.470 (p=0.000)	-26.545 (p=0.000)	-25.996 (p=0.000)	-34.028 (p=0.000)	-28.194 (p=0.000)
	Tajima's D	-1.145 (n/s)	-0.349 (n/s)	-1.513 (n/s)	-0.479 (n/s)	-0.006 (n/s)	-1.128 (n/s)	-1.201 (n/s)
COII	Fu's Fs	2.996 (n/s)	-7.832 (p=0.002)	-4.656 (p=0.004)	-12.963 (p=0.000)	-13.563 (p=0.001)	-14.439 (p=0.000)	-26.495 (p=0.000)

¹ h: number of haplotypes; Hd: haplotype diversity; S: number of polymorphic sites (including aligned gaps for 16S); k: average number of nucleotide difference; π: nucleotide diversity. ² For Fu and Li's D* and F* and for Achaz Y*, we considered only the samples with both mitochondrial genes sequenced. Syn: synonym; n.syn: non-synonym; n.cod.: no coding site; n/s: not significant (p>0.05). Significant values are highlighted in bold. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

(a) Genetic diversity								
	Tajima's <i>D</i>	0.000	0.062	-1.527	1.247	-0.428	0.336	-2.267
		(n/s)	(n/s)	(n/s)	(n/s)	(n/s)	(n/s)	(p=0.002)
16S + COII	Fu's <i>F_s</i>	-2.370	-10.558	-4.063	-26.629	-26.022	-13.607	-28.194
		(p=0.02)	(p=0.000)	(p=0.01)	(p=0.000)	(p=0.000)	(p=0.000)	(p=0.000)
	Tajima's <i>D</i>	-1.145	-0.349	-1.591	-0.647	-0.176	-0.077	-1.200
		(n/s)	(n/s)	(p=0.004)	(n/s)	(n/s)	(n/s)	(n/s)
¹ h: number of haplotypes; Hd: haplotype diversity; S: number of polymorphic sites (including aligned gaps for 16S); k: average number of nucleotide difference; π: nucleotide diversity. ² For Fu and Li's <i>D*</i> and <i>F*</i> and for Achaz <i>Y*</i> , we considered only the samples with both mitochondrial genes sequenced. Syn: synonym; n.syn: non-synonym; n.cod.: no coding site; n/s: not significant (p>0.05). Significant values are highlighted in bold. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.								

Regarding to the neutrality tests performed with the whole sample set (Table 4b), none of the Tajima's *D* values were significant. Values of Fu and Li's *D** and *F** for 16S were also not significant. This means that there is not enough evidence to infer between demographic expansion or population bottlenecks from these indices. The negative and significant values of Fu's *F_s*, i.e., the most sensitive among the neutrality tests performed [59], suggest purifying selection or demographic expansion for the populations, which is also suggested from the negative value of Achaz *Y** considering both mitochondrial genes. Regarding the neutrality tests performed per dominion, the negative and significant values of Fu's *F_s* also indicate purifying selection or demographic expansion for all the dominions despite the non-significant Fu's *F_s* for ANT (considering COII). The other tests performed for this dominion showed negative and significant values. Only the values of Tajima's *D* for SOU (COII) and CHA (16S+COII) were significantly negative.

Haplotype network

We generated a haplotype network to reconstruct the relations among the 66 haplotypes found for *N. ephratae* (Figure 2). We observed four haplogroups (Hg) composed, in general, by haplotypes close each other and originated from a more frequent central haplotype. Haplotypes that were very distant from the central haplotype of the haplogroup (i.e., that present many mutational steps) were not grouped. The star shape of the haplogroups suggests recent demographic expansion events for the populations analyzed.

The network also showed a clear geographic differentiation among South American populations composed of haplogroup 1 and Central American populations composed mostly of haplogroups 2 and 4 (Figure 2; Table 5). The haplogroup 3 is formed mainly by populations located in northern South America (BOR) and in the Antillean islands. Haplogroup 3 also includes haplotypes from eastern Brazil (PAR – Espírito Santo, Brazil), which are intermediaries between this haplogroup and the haplogroup 1. The geographical distribution of the haplogroups is also showed in Figure 1.

Table 5

– Relation among haplogroups, haplotypes, *N. ephratae* samples and its localities and dominions.

Haplogroups	Haplotypes	Samples	Locality, state (BR)/country	Dominion
Hg1	H01	756	Bonito, MS	CHA
		775	Arceburgo, MG	PAR
		776	Promissão, SP	PAR
		777	Avanhandaga, SP	PAR
		779	Coroados, SP	PAR
		782	Santa Bárbara, MG	CHA
		783	Promissão, SP	PAR
		784	Guapiaçu, SP	PAR
		785	Ribeirão Preto, SP	CHA
		787	Dourados, MS	PAR
		847	Miranda, Venezuela	PAC
		890	Aripo Savannah, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
		918	San Javier, Bolívia	SOU
		937	Pte. Bermudez, Peru	SOU
		949	El Coco, Venezuela	PAC
		952	Campoverde, Peru	SOU
		982	Tingo Maria, Peru	SOU
		1087	Bonfim, RR	BOR
			H02	781
786	Palmeiras, MS			CHA
	H03	922	Alto Cacazu old forest, Peru	SOU
	H04	872	Cochabamba, Bolívia	SOU
	H05	862	Satipo, Peru	SOU
	H06	887	Sierra de Cochis, Bolívia	SOU
	H07	902	Tauri Mennonite site, Bolívia	SOU
	H08	933	San Pedro, Bolívia	SOU
	H09	761	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		774	Porto Velho, RO	SOU

n/g: not grouped. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Haplogroups	Haplotypes	Samples	Locality, state (BR)/country	Dominion
	H10	757	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		758	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		760	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		762	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		763	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		766	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
	H11	759	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		765	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		767	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		768	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
		770	Porto Velho, RO	SOU
	H12	861	Bolivar, Venezuela	BOR
	H13	967	Tingo Maria Cacao, Peru	SOU
	H14	907	Bajo Pichanaqui, Peru	SOU
	H15	780	Ipora, GO	CHA
		977	San Pedro, Bolívia	SOU
	H16	802	Rio Chico, Venezuela	PAC
	H17	858	Henri Pittier Nat. Park, Venezuela	PAC
	H18	832	Aragua, Venezuela	PAC
		844	Maracay, Venezuela	PAC
Hg2	H19	807	Colon, Panamá	PAC
		811	Alta Verapaz, Guatemala	MES
		822	Ometepe, Nicarágua	MES
		823	Izabal, Guatemala	MES
		849	Colon, Panamá	PAC
		850	Bluefields Naval St., Nicarágua	PAC
		853	Alta Verapaz, Guatemala	MES
		866	Lancetilla Botanical, Honduras	MES
		867	Alta Verapaz, Guatemala	MES

n/g: not grouped. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Haplogroups	Haplotypes	Samples	Locality, state (BR)/country	Dominion
		893	Colon, Panamá	PAC
		896	Pico Bonito Lodge, Honduras	MES
		924	Los Santos, Panamá	PAC
		926	Capiro Nat. Park, Honduras	MES
		930	Limon, Costa Rica	PAC
		950	Arena Forest, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
		957	Izabal, Guatemala	MES
		969	Cocle, Panamá	PAC
		1084	Amajari, RR	BOR
		1086	Bonfim, RR	BOR
	H20	956	Laguna Guaimoreto, Honduras	MES
	H21	871	Past Mojoriver, Belize	MES
	H22	842	Tayrona Nat. Park, Colômbia	PAC
	H23	827	Minca, Colômbia	PAC
	H24	894	Los Santos, Panamá	PAC
	H25	901	Maya Point, Belize	MES
	H26	886	Rio Blanco Nat. Park, Belize	MES
	H27	864	Puerto Asese, Nicarágua	MES
	H28	985	Chicbul, México	MES
	H29	808	Chiquila, México	MES
	H30	961	Cockscomb Nat. Park, Belize	MES
	H31	955	San Jose, México	MES
		991	Cienega La Batea, Colômbia	PAC
	H32	927	Peten, Guatemala	MES
	H33	821	Soberania Nat. Park, Panamá	PAC
	H34	940	San Jose, México	MES

n/g: not grouped. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Haplogroups	Haplotypes	Samples	Locality, state (BR)/country	Dominion
	H35	820	Pipeline Road, Panamá	PAC
	H36	953	Lajas de Tole, Panamá	PAC
Hg3	H37	DM59	St. Andrew, Dominica	ANT
	H38	883	Mahaut, Guadalupe	ANT
	H39	PAT2	Patagai, Guiana Francesa	BOR
	H40	981	Rushville, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
		BZ15	Rio Bravo Cons. Area, Belize	MES
		TT644	Pinfold Bay, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
	H41	PAT4	Patagai, Guiana Francesa	BOR
	H42	868	Ansela Frais, Guadalupe	ANT
		GU113	Basse-Terre, Guadalupe	ANT
	H43	PAT3	Patagai, Guiana Francesa	BOR
		RSE1	Rt. Saint-Élie, Guiana Francesa	BOR
	H44	NOU1	Nouragues, Guiana Francesa	BOR
		NOU2	Nouragues, Guiana Francesa	BOR
	H45	ROC1	Rocoucoua, Guiana Francesa	BOR
		ST18	Petit Saut, Guiana Francesa	BOR
	H46	778	Linhares, ES	PAR
	H47	790	Sooretama, ES	PAR
Hg4	H48	836	Coyolito, Honduras	MES
		964	Higuerote Beach, Venezuela	PAC
		988	Inra, Guadalupe	ANT
		1085	Amajari, RR	BOR
	H49	831	Englishman's Bay, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
		895	Quintana Roo, México	MES
		925	Laguna Bacalar, México	MES
	H50	830	Trinity Hills, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
	H51	910	Quintana Roo, México	MES
	H52	900	Heredia, Costa Rica	PAC

n/g: not grouped. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Haplogroups	Haplotypes	Samples	Locality, state (BR)/country	Dominion
	H53	809	Las Quebradas, Honduras	MES
	H54	892	Rio Negro, Peru	SOU
	H55	838	La Ceiba, Honduras	MES
	H56	859	Grand Riviere, Trin. e Tobago	PAC
n/g	H57	789	São João Batista, MG	CHA
n/g	H58	814	Minca, Colômbia	PAC
n/g	H59	826	Francisco de Orellana, Equador	BOR
n/g	H60	873	Yacaumbu Nat. Park, Venezuela	PAC
n/g	H61	915	Heredia, Costa Rica	PAC
n/g	H62	983	Barro Colorado Is., Panamá	PAC
n/g	H63	986	Sambo Creek, Honduras	MES
n/g	H64	990	Francisco de Orellana, Equador	BOR
n/g	H65	1078	João Pessoa, PB	PAR
		1079	João Pessoa, PB	PAR
n/g	H66	1080	Areia, PB	CHA
		1081	Areia, PB	CHA

n/g: not grouped. ANT: Antillean subregion; BOR: Boreal Brazilian dominion; CHA: Chacoan dominion; MES: Mesoamerican dominion; PAC: Pacific dominion; PAR: Parana dominion; SOU: South Brazilian dominion.

Population structure and isolation by distance

The inference of population structure in *N. ephratae* was verified from the results of the AMOVA (Table 6) and hierBAPS (Figure 3). Regarding the AMOVA among haplogroups (Table 6.a), the F_{ST} value was significantly very high (0.547; $p=0.000$) suggesting a consistent differentiation among the haplogroups established in the network (Figure 2). A high F_{ST} was also observed in the AMOVA among dominions (Table 6.b) indicating strong genetic structure among the dominions sampled. In the AMOVA among continents (Table 6.c), the high F_{CT} also suggest structuration among the population located in different continents while a moderate structure that be observed among the dominions within continents, as showed by F_{SC} (0,227). The F_{ST} (within dominions) for this AMOVA was also high, which suggests that there are a great number of genetic variants within a dominion despite the genetic structure among dominions and among continents.

Table 6
 – Results obtained for the Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA).

(a) Among haplogroups		
Source of variation	Percentage of variation	Fixation indices
Among haplogroups	54.69%	$F_{ST} = \mathbf{0.547}$ ($p = 0.000$)
Within haplogroups	45.31%	-
(b) Among dominions		
Among dominions	31.07%	$F_{ST} = \mathbf{0.310}$ ($p = 0.000$)
Within dominions	68.93%	-
(c) Among continents		
Among continents	25.91%	$F_{CT} = \mathbf{0.259}$ ($p = 0.02$)
Among dominions within continents	16.82%	$F_{SC} = \mathbf{0.227}$ ($p = 0.000$)
Within dominions	57.27%	$F_{ST} = \mathbf{0.427}$ ($p = 0.021$)

The rhierBAPS results (Figure 3) showed five genetic clusters (represented by different colors) for the *N. ephratae* samples (Figure 3a,c) except for the result for the 16S sequences that were grouped in four clusters (Figure 3b). The samples of cluster 2 (orange) are absent in the 16S analysis and can be found joining to the cluster 3 (yellow) in this analysis. Clusters 1 (blue), 3 (yellow), 4 (green), and 5 (red) remained consistent because most samples in these groups remained within the same cluster in the three analyses. Except for cluster 1, all other clusters were regrouped in subclusters by the analysis (represented by the different shades of the respective colors).

Relating the results of clustering analysis with the concatenated sequences (Figure 3a) and the geographic distributions of the populations sampled, it is possible to observe that the samples of the cluster 1 are distributed in South America (Figure 4); the samples of cluster 2 are distributed in northern South America (Venezuela and Colombia in southern portion of PAC) and Central America (MES dominion). Cluster 3 includes only samples from Central America (MES and northern portion of PAC), and cluster 4 includes samples from BOR, ANT, and mainly from PAC (northern and southern portions) and MES. Cluster 5 includes samples from BOR and southern portion of PAC. These results also suggest strong genetic differentiation among the populations located in South and Central America.

Mantel's test was performed to verify the existence of isolation by distance and resulted in a significantly positive *r* value (0.1197; $p = 0.0005$), thus indicating that there is a positive correlation between the genetic distance and the geographic distance, i.e., the genetic distances increase as geographic distance between populations increase.

This can be also observed in the genetic distance matrices among the individuals (Supplementary Tables S1, S2, and S3). This in turn showed higher values in the pairwise comparisons among samples from more distant localities each other.

Divergence time

The divergence times of the *N. ephratae* populations were estimated from a Bayesian inference (BI) analysis (Figure 5). According to the tree obtained, three important cladogenetic events seem to have given rise to the *N. ephratae* populations analyzed. The first event (8.98 My) separated the green clade (that includes samples from Central America and northern South America) from the other clades – the most external node of this clade was dated to 3.66 by the analysis. The second event (4.54 My) separated the blue + red clade from the yellow clade, which most external node was dated to 3.76 My. The last one includes only specimens distributed in Central America). The third event (3.04 My) caused the divergence among the blue clade (formed by South American populations) from the red clade (formed by samples from northern South America and Antillean islands) whose most external nodes were dated to 2.4 My. The clade formed by the 1078-H65 to 790-H47 samples (within the blue clade) must also be highlighted because it includes, exclusively, all the samples from the east coast of Brazil (Paraíba and Espítio Santo states).

Ancestral area reconstruction

Aiming to reconstruct the ancestral ranges of the populations, we considered a Bayesian inference generated using the haplotypes of the 16S and COII sequences (Figure 6; Supplementary Fig. S1). We did not use all individuals as was done for the divergence time estimation. The best-fit model selected, DEC+*j*, presented AIC and AICc equal to 211.7 and 212.4 with weights equal to 0.85 and 0.84, respectively. The results showed that the common ancestor of all the clades was distributed in MES and PAC dominions and were dispersed posteriorly to the other areas (Figure 6; Supplementary Fig. S2). Most of the haplogroups observed in the haplotype network were also recovered in the BI performed for this analysis.

Discussion

Data on the genetic diversity obtained for the *N. ephratae* populations showed high genetic variability for the species as evidenced by the large number of haplotypes in relation to the total number of samples as well as by the high haplotype diversity. As expected, the nucleotide diversity observed for the COII sequences was greater than the nucleotide diversity found for the 16S. Furthermore, the π value obtained for the COII synonyms sites was higher than the π value for the non-synonym sites (Table 3a). This is because synonym substitutions can produce deleterious modifications in the protein structures; hence, they tend to not settle in the populations. Non-synonym substitutions rarely produce important changes in the gene expression, and thus they suffer low selective pressure and, therefore, tend to be retained and increase the nucleotide diversity indexes for these sites in the populations.

The high genetic variability observed for *N. ephratae* seems not to be widely shared among the populations because the AMOVA results (Table 5) showed strong genetic structure for the species. That is, there are a lot of genetic variants that are exclusive of one or few regions suggesting low or moderated gene flow among distant populations. This limitation in gene flow may have occurred due to isolation by distance as confirmed by Mantel's test. The clustering analysis results also corroborated the population structure inference because five clusters with a distribution limited to adjacent dominions were recovered. Cluster 1 shows a larger geographic distribution and

occurs in all South American dominions. Great genetic variability with haplotypes little shared among distant geographic regions was also observed very similar to *N. corniger* [15].

Regarding to the demographic history of the *N. ephratae* populations, the neutrality tests (Table 3b,c), specifically Fu's F_s , indicated demographic expansion for the species (considering the whole sample set) and particularly for each neotropical dominion sampled. This also can be inferred from the star shape of the haplogroups in the haplotype network, thus suggesting that a lot of descendent haplotypes had recently risen from the ancestor haplotypes located in the center of the haplogroups.

The haplotype network (Figure 2) also showed four haplogroups presenting clear differences about the geographical distribution of the haplotypes. Haplogroup 1 is entirely composed of haplotypes from the South America dominions while haplogroups 2 and 4 are mostly formed by Central American haplotypes. Some haplotypes included in haplogroup 4 can also be found in northern South America (Venezuela and Trinidad and Tobago), but were not often observed at latitudes below this. Haplogroup 3 is composed of haplotypes from northern South America (Trinidad and Tobago and French Guiana) and from the Antillean islands (Dominica and Guadeloupe).

These groups were also recovered by the clustering analysis (Figure 3a) and by the BI (Figure 5) except for a few differences among the three analyses. In general, the results of these three analyses are linked as following: haplogroup 1 corresponds to cluster 1 and to the blue clade; haplogroup 2 corresponds to cluster 3 and to the yellow clade; haplogroup 3 corresponds to cluster 5 and to the red clade; and haplogroup 4 corresponds to cluster 4 and to the green clade. These colors were used to reference the groups in Figures 1, 3, and 5.

The BI analysis (Figure 4) shows that a few nodes of the tree presented posterior probabilities above 0.50 possibly due to the difficulties of the algorithm, implemented in BEAST, in solving datasets containing very similar sequences [60]. Despite this, the larger clades of the tree recovered most of the network haplogroups and the clusters of the clustering analysis as we discussed previously. These conclusions help to support the phylogenetic inferences raised by BI.

The cladogenetic relationship among the haplogroups may also be observed in the BI performed with the haplotypes for the ancestral area reconstruction. In general, the larger clades of this tree include haplotypes from the same haplogroup (Figure 5). This suggests a relationship among the haplotypes and the ancestral area reconstructed. We inferred dispersal events occurred based on the ancestral ranges and then proposed a dispersal route for the *N. ephratae* populations (Figure 7).

The ancestral populations distributed in MES and PAC ("1"; Figure 7a) suffered a temporary separation that split the populations of South America (southern PAC) from the Central American (northern PAC + MES) populations ("2"; Figure 7b). The ancestor of the haplogroups 1, 2, and 3 occurred in MES during this separation ("3"; Figure 7c). This leads to the origin of haplogroup 2 that was restricted to Central America (northern PAC + MES). After the reconnection of the *N. ephratae* populations (indicated with an asterisk in Figure 7), the Mesoamerican ancestor dispersed to the South American portion of PAC ("5"; Figure 7e) from where there was a new dispersion to SOU ("6", Figure 7f) and to ANT-BOR ("7", Figure 7f). This last dispersion gave rise to haplogroup 3 composed mainly of French Guiana and Antillean populations. The ancestral populations of the haplogroup 1 that had arisen in SOU were widely dispersed to CHA and PAR (Atlantic Forest *lato sensu*) reaching to BOR and southern PAC ("8", Figure 7.f), but remaining limited to South America.

Still during the temporary separation between the South and Central America *N. ephratae* populations, the South American ancestor of the haplogroup 4 arose in southern PAC (“4”; Figure 7d). After the populations’ reconnection, there was a dispersal from southern PAC to northern PAC and to MES originating as the late ancestor of haplogroup 4 and clade H25-A59, which were restricted to these dominions (“5”; Figure 7e).

Based on the dispersal route proposed, we inferred that the *N. ephratae* populations currently distributed in Central America arose from distinct dispersal events. This becomes clearer when we also observe the geographic distribution of haplogroups 2 and 4 (Figure 1) whose occurrence areas overlap, but who have different genetic groups. That is, even though these haplogroups are distributed in the same area, the results are from different evolutionary events. The ancestors of these haplogroups possibly diverged during a temporary split among the ancestral *N. ephratae* populations from South and Central American between the late Pliocene and early Pleistocene (around 5.06 and 2.78 My; Figure 6 and 7). Haplogroup 2 originated from populations that were restricted to Central America during this split while the haplogroup 4 originated after the reconnection perhaps arising from populations that were dispersed from the northern South America (southern PAC) to Central America (northern PAC + MES). The same direction of dispersion (South America to Central America) was also identified for the ant species *Neoponera villosa* [16] dated from 0.46 to 0.28 My; earlier dispersions have been observed for *N. ephratae*.

Haplogroup 1 is exclusively South American and arose from a Mesoamerican ancestor that dispersed to the northern South America and then to the SOU dominion. Therefore, the dispersal events of the *N. ephratae* populations among Central and South America occurred in both senses, thus shaping the genetic and phylogeographic patterns observed here.

Although the causes responsible for the temporary split between the South and Central American *N. ephratae* population are not clear, some hypotheses can be raised. A population isolation caused by the geographic distance between the populations may have led to this split: The occurrence of isolation by distance was suggested by the Mantel’s test. The loss of distribution area could also have caused this effect in the populations. In this way, the reconnection of the populations could have occurred due to the demographic expansion that was detected by the neutrality tests and can be suggested from the star shape of the haplogroups in the haplotype network.

Geological and/or geographic factors could also help to explain this split. Following this approach, it is possible that the separation is related to the tertiary’s tectonic and paleogeographical reorganization movements (in the late Pliocene), which led to the emergence of barriers and changes in dispersal routes in South America [61]. Specifically, this split between the *N. ephratae* populations may have been caused by the momentaneous effects of the elevation of the Panama isthmus. These effects would have lasted between 4.6 and 2.6 My [62] – a date close to the one estimated for the separations detected (5.06 to 2.78 My). Moreover, the early Quaternary climate changes (early Pleistocene) was characterized by temperature and dryness oscillations in the continents and was also impacted the adaptability and the migration of species and populations [61].

Although dispersion by water (inside flotsam carried by ocean or river currents or ferried by vessels) helps to explain dispersion patterns for termite species [54, 63, 64], it is more likely that the paths taken by the populations of *N. ephratae* were overland, which makes the PAC dominion an obligatory passage for the dispersal of populations between South and Central America. This dominion harbor peculiarly haplotypes from all

haplogroups and present a higher value of intra-dominion genetic distance (Table 3.b). These features help to infer the PAC intermediary position for the *N. ephratae* dispersions.

The dispersal route traced for the populations analyzed here are very similar to the dispersal route observed for *N. corniger* species [15] including the dispersion from Central to South America, the eastward dispersion on South America lands, and the late occupation of Atlantic Forest. Nevertheless, the dispersal from South to Central America and the temporary split among the population have not yet been detected for *N. corniger* unlike *N. ephratae*. However, it is important to note that only the 16S mitochondrial marker was used for the *N. corniger* analyses [15]: The addition of other markers can lead to a more robust comparison among the population patterns of the two species.

Crews and Esposito [65] also studied dispersal routes and identified that South America is most probably the origin of most of the Caribbean arthropod fauna including *N. ephratae*, *N. corniger*, and other species of the genus *Nasutitermes*. These data contradict the inferences raised by Santos et al. [15] although there are some important methodological differences among the studies. Crews and Esposito [65] analyzed 18 species of *Nasutitermes* using the same mtDNA genes used here as molecular markers (16S + COII). The dispersal route proposed herein is according to the inferences made by Crews and Esposito [65] because the *N. ephratae* Antillean populations arose from a South America ancestor according to the ancestral area reconstruction. Specifically, for these island populations, it is possible that the dispersion from northern South America to the Antilles occurred via flotsam or floating wood carried to the islands by oceanic currents. This kind of dispersion has already been detected for Caribbean termite species [64]. Most of the islands' termite species analyzed here are composed of haplogroup 3 together with samples from French Guiana (BOR dominion) and Trinidad and Tobago (located in the transition between BOR and PAC). This data suggests high genetic similarity among populations of these areas – although a larger sampling can better clarify the relations among the two dominions.

Regarding the BOR dominion, we found that the samples from this area have haplotypes typically found in other areas, which stayed distant from each other in the haplotype network (except for the haplotypes from French Guiana). This distance was also observed in BI. Some authors argue that the Amazonian biota (composed of parts of BOR and SOU dominions and the southeastern Amazon dominion – the latter was not sampled herein) have unnatural biogeographic origins [66, 67, 68, 69, 70]. As a speculation, this hypothesis could help clarify the existence of haplotypes that are genetically distant from each other in Amazonian localities that are geographically close to each other. However, we point that it is necessary to include a greater sampling of this region to clearly detect the genetic population patterns and the evolutionary events involving *N. ephratae* in this dominion.

In general, there are many questions to be explored about the phylogeographic processes of the South American and Neotropical species especially for termites whose studies are still new. Better sampling of *N. ephratae* and/or including new molecular markers in future studies, as well as addressing phylogeographic issues of other species, can help solidify the inferences made in this work and can expand the understanding of the evolutionary history of the group and of the neotropics.

Conclusions

This study covered a great part of the occurrence area of *N. ephratae* in the neotropics. It was possible to make important inferences about the general panorama of the evolutionary history of the species in this region although

a broader sampling, especially from central-eastern South America, could better clarify some phylogeographic patterns. Our data also showed similarities on the population and dispersal patterns among *N. ephratae* and *N. corniger*. Here, it is possible to speculate that both species responded similarly to the biogeographic processes that have occurred in the neotropics although new comparative studies may better answer this question. In summary, this study offers important contributions to the understanding of biogeographic and phylogeographic issues in the neotropics especially evolutionary studies of termites and other insects.

Declarations

DATA AVAILABILITY

DNA sequences: Genbank accessions numbers OL830473 - OL830583 (16S) and OL830584 - OL830683 (COII).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

AFS performed the laboratory procedures. AFS and ACM generated, analyzed, and interpreted the results. EMC coordinated the obtention of the samples. All the authors contributed, read, and approved the final manuscript.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Prof. Dr. Rudolf Scheffrahn (University of Florida) and the Isoptera Collection team of MZUSP for assistance in obtaining samples; the Laboratory of Genetic of Bacteria (FCAV/UNESP) for providing equipment; and CAPES for the scholarship granted to AFS.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

1. Carvalho, C. J. B. & Couri, M. S. Biogeografia de Muscidae (Insecta: Isoptera) da América do Sul. in *Biogeografia da América do Sul: padrões & processos* (eds. Carvalho, C. J. B. & Almeida, E. A. B.) 277-298 (Roca, São Paulo, Brazil, 2010).
2. Constantino, R. *On-line termite database* <http://164.41.140.9/catal/> (2020).
3. Eisner, T., Kriston, I. & Aneshansley, D. J. Defensive behavior of a termite (*Nasutitermes exitiosus*). *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.* **1**, 83-125 (1976).
4. Holmgren, N. Versuch einer Monographie der amerikanischen Eutermes-Arten. *Jahrb. Hamburg. Wiss. Anst.* **27**, 235-243 (1910).
5. Banks, N. The termites of Panama and British Guiana. *Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist.* **38**, 659-667 (1918).
6. Snyder, T. E. Catalog of the termites (Isoptera) of the world. *Smithsonian Misc. Collect.* **2**, 1-490 (1949).
7. Thorne, B. L. Differences in nest architecture between the neotropical arboreal termites *Nasutitermes corniger* and *Nasutitermes ephratae* (Isoptera: Termitidae). *Psyche (Camb Mass)*. **87**, 235-244 (1980).

8. Miura, T., Roisin, Y. & Matsumoto, T. Molecular Phylogeny and Biogeography of Nasute Termite Genus *Nasutitermes* (Isoptera: Termitidae) in the Pacific Tropics. *Mol. Phylogenet. Evol.* **17**, 1-10 (2000).
9. Scheffrahn, R. H., Krecek, J., Szalanski, A. L. & Austin, J. W. Synonymy of neotropical arboreal termites *Nasutitermes corniger* and *N. costalis* (Isoptera: Termitidae: Nasutitermitinae), with evidence from morphology, genetics, and biogeography. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **98**, 273-281 (2005).
10. Scheffrahn, R. H., Krecek, J., Szalanski, A. L., Austin, J. W. & Roisin, Y. Synonymy of two arboreal termites (Isoptera: Termitidae: Nasutitermitinae): *Nasutitermes corniger* from the neotropics and *N. polygynus* from New Guinea. *Fla. Entomol.* **88**, 28-33 (2005).
11. Roy, V., Constantino, R., Chassany, V., Giusti-Miller, S., Diouf, M., Mora, P. & Harry, M. Species delimitation and phylogeny in the genus *Nasutitermes* (Termitidae: Nasutitermitinae) in French Guiana. *Mol. Ecol.* **23**, 902–920 (2014).
12. Snyder, T. E. Termites collected on the Mulford biological exploration to the Amazon Basin, 1921-1922. *Proc. U. S. Natl. Mus.* **68**, 1-76 (1926).
13. Araujo, R. L. *Catálogo dos Isoptera do novo mundo* (ed. Araujo, R. L.) 1-92 (Academia Brasileira de Ciências, Rio de Janeiro, 1977).
14. Torales, G. J. & Armua, A. C. Contribución al conocimiento de las termites de Argentina (Provincia de Corrientes). *Nasutitermes corniger* (Isoptera: Termitidae). Primera Parte. *Facena.* **6**, 203-222 (1986).
15. Santos, A. F., Carrijo, T. F., Canello, E. M. & Morales, A. C. Phylogeography of *Nasutitermes corniger* (Isoptera: Termitidae) in the Neotropical Region. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **17**, 1-12 (2017).
16. Mendoza-Ramírez, M., Gutiérrez-Rodríguez, J., Poteaux, C., Ornelas-García, P. & Zaldívar-Riverón, A. Late Pleistocene genetic diversification and demographic expansion in the widely distributed neotropical ant *Neoponera villosa* (Ponerinae). *Mitochondrial DNA part A.* **30**, 296-306 (2019).
17. Li, H. F., Ye, W., Su, N. Y. & Kanzaki, N. Phylogeography of *Coptotermes gestroi* and *Coptotermes formosanus* (Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae) in Taiwan. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **102**, 684-693 (2009).
18. Jenkins, T. M. *et al.* Phylogeography illuminates maternal origins of exotic *Coptotermes gestroi* (Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae). *Mol. Phylogenet. Evol.* **42**, 612-621 (2007).
19. Austin, J. W., Szalanski, A. L., McKern, J. A. & Gold, R. E. Molecular phylogeography of the subterranean termite *Reticulitermes tibialis* (Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae). *J. Agric. Urban Entomol.* **25**, 63-79 (2008).
20. Kutnik, M., Uva, P., Brinkworth, L. & Bagnères, A. G. Phylogeography of two European *Reticulitermes* (Isoptera) species: the iberian refugium. *Mol. Ecol.* **13**, 3099-3113 (2004).
21. Tripodi, A. D. *et al.* Phylogeography of *Reticulitermes* Termites (Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae) in California inferred from mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **99**, 697-706 (2006).
22. Park, Y. C., Kitade, O., Schwarz, M., Kim, J. P. & Kim, W. Intraspecific molecular phylogeny, genetic variation and phylogeography of *Reticulitermes speratus* (Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae). *Mol. Cells.* **21**, 89-103 (2006).
23. Bourguigon, T. *et al.* Towards a revision of the Neotropical soldierless termites (Isoptera:Termitidae): redescription of the genus *Anoplotermes* and description of *Longustitermes*, gen. nov. *Invertebr. Syst.* **24**, 357-370 (2010).
24. Morrone, J. J. Biogeographical regionalisation of the Neotropical region. *Zootaxa.* **3782**, 1-110 (2014)
25. Liu, H. & Beckenbach, A. T. Evolution of the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase II gene among 10 orders of insects. *Mol. Phylogenet. and Evol.* **1**, 41-52 (1992).

26. Kambhampati, S. A phylogeny of cockroaches and related insects based on DNA sequence of mitochondrial ribosomal RNA genes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **92**, 2017-2020 (1995).
27. Xiong, B. & Kocher, T. D. Comparison of mitochondrial DNA sequences of seven morphospecies of black flies (Diptera: Simuliidae). *Genome*. **34**, 306-311 (1991).
28. Simon, C., Frati, F., Beckenbach, A., Crespi, B., Liu, H. & Flook, P. Evolution, weighting, and phylogenetic utility of mitochondrial gene sequences and a compilation of conserved polymerase chain reaction primers. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **87**, 651-701 (1994).
29. Kuraku, S., Zmasek, C. M., Nishimura, O. & Katoh, K. aLeaves facilitates on-demand exploration of metazoan gene family trees on MAFFT sequence alignment server with enhanced interactivity. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **41**, 22-28; 10.1093/nar/gkt389 (2013).
30. Katoh, K., Rozewicki, J. & Yamada, K. D. MAFFT online service: multiple sequence alignment, interactive sequence choice and visualization. *Brief. Bioinform.* **20**, 1160-1166 (2017).
31. Rozas, J. *et al.* DnaSP v6: DNA Sequence Polymorphism Analysis of Large Datasets. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **34**, 3299-3302 (2017).
32. Excoffier, L. & Lischer, H. E. L. Arlequin suite v. 3.5: a new series of programs to perform population genetics analyses under Linux and Windows. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* **10**, 564–567 (2010).
33. Fu, Y. X. Statistical Tests of Neutrality of Mutations against Population Growth, Hitchhiking and Background Selection. *Genetics*. **147**, 915-925 (1997).
34. Tajima, F. Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA polymorphism. *Genetics*. **123**, 585-595 (1989).
35. Achaz, G. Testing for neutrality in samples with sequencing errors. *Genetics*. **179**, 1409-1424 (2008).
36. Kumar, S., Stecher, G., Li, M., Nnyaz, C. & Tamura, K. MEGA X: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis across computing platforms. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **35**, 1547-1549 (2018).
37. Clement, M., Posada, D. & Crandall, K. A. TCS: a computer program to estimate gene genealogies. *Mol. Ecol.* **9**, 1657-1659 (2000).
38. Santos, A. M., Cabezas, M. P., Tavares, A. I., Xavier, R. & Branco, M. tcsBU: a tool to extend TCS network layout and visualization. *Bioinformatics*. **32**, 627-628 (2016).
39. QGIS Development Team. *QGIS Geographic Information System* <http://qgis.org> (2009).
40. Löwenberg-Neto, P. Neotropical region: a shapefile of Morrone's (2014) biogeographical regionalization. *Zootaxa*. **3802**, 300-300 (2014).
41. Wright, S. Variability within and among natural populations. in *Evolution and the genetics of populations vol. 4* (ed. Wright, S.) 1-590 (University of Chicago Press, USA, 1978).
42. Cheng, L., Connor, T. R., Sirén, J., Aanensen, D. M. & Corander, J. Hierarchical and Spatially Explicit Clustering of DNA Sequences with BAPS Software. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **30**, 1224-1228 (2013).
43. Tonkin-Hill, G., Lees, J. A., Bentley, S. D., Frost, S. D. & Corander, J. RhierBAPS: An R Implementation of the Population Clustering Algorithm hierBAPS. *Wellcome Open Res.* **3**, 1-9 (2018).
44. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, <https://www.R-project.org/> (2020).
45. Oksanen, F. J. *et al.* vegan: Community Ecology Package. R package version 2.5-7, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan> (2020).

46. Bouckaert, R. *et al.* BEAST 2.5: An advanced software platform for Bayesian evolutionary analysis. *PLoS Comput. Biol.* **15**, e1006650; 10.1371/journal.pcbi.1006650 (2019).
47. Heath, T. A., Huelsenbeck, J. P. & Stadler, T. The fossilized birth–death process for coherent calibration of divergence-time estimates. *PNAS.* **111**, E2957-E2966 (2014).
48. Tamura, K. & Nei, M. Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **10**, 512-526 (1993).
49. Posada, D. jModelTest: Phylogenetic model averaging. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **25**, 1253-1256 (2008).
50. Jarzembowski, E. A. An early Cretaceous termite from southern England (Isoptera: Hodotermitidae). *Syst. Entomol.* **6**, 91-96 (1981).
51. Engel, M. S. & Grimaldi, D. A. The termites of Early Eocene Cambay amber, with the earliest record of the Termitidae (Isoptera). *ZooKeys.* **148**, 105-123 (2011).
52. Krishna, K. New fossil species of termites of the Subfamily Nasutitermitinae from Dominican and Mexican amber (Isoptera, Termitidae). *Am. Mus. Novit.* **3176**, 1-13 (1996).
53. Krishna, K. & Grimaldi, D. Diverse Rhinotermitidae and Termitidae (Isoptera) in Dominican Amber. *Am. Mus. Novit.* **3640**, 1-48 (2009).
54. Bourguigon, T. *et al.* Mitochondrial Phylogenomics Resolves the Global Spread of Higher Termites, Ecosystem Engineers of the Tropics. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **34**, 589-597 (2016).
55. Rambaut, A., Drummond, A. J., Xie, D., Baele, G. & Suchard, M. A. Posterior summarization in Bayesian phylogenetics using Tracer 1.7. *Syst. Biol.* **67**, 901-904 (2018).
56. Rambaut, A. & Drummond, A. J. TreeAnnotator v. 2.6.3. <http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk> (2020).
57. Rambaut, A. FigTree: Tree Figure Drawing Tool. v. 1.4.4. <http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk> (2018).
58. Matzke, N. J. BioGeoBEARS: BioGeography with Bayesian (and Likelihood) Evolutionary Analysis in R Scripts. R package version 0.2.1, <http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=BioGeoBEARS> (2013).
59. Ramos-Onsins, S. E. & Rozas, J. Statistical properties of new neutrality tests against population growth. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **19**, 2092-2100 (2002).
60. Seal, J. N., Kellner, K., Trindl, A. & Heinze, J. Phylogeography of the parthenogenic ant *Platythyrea punctata*: highly successful colonization of the West Indies by a poor disperser. *J. Biogeogr.* **38**, 868-882 (2011).
61. Turchetto-Zolet, A. C., Pinheiro, F., Salgueiro, F. & Palma-Silva, C. Phylogeographical patterns shed light on evolutionary process in South America. *Mol. Ecol.* **22**, 1193-1213 (2013).
62. Mann, P., Peterson, L. & Droxler, A. *Tectonics, Circulation, and Climate in the Caribbean Gateway* (eds. Mann, P., Peterson, L. & Droxler, A) 1-100 (Joint Oceanographic Institutions, Inc., 2006).
63. Scheffrahn, R. H., Křeček, J., Chase, J. A., Maharajh, B. & Mangold, J. R. 2006. Taxonomy, biogeography, and notes on termites (Isoptera: Kalotermitidae, Rhinotermitidae, Termitidae) of the Bahamas and Turks and Caicos Islands. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **99**, 463-486 (2006).
64. Janowiecki, M. A., Scheffrahn, R. H., Austin, J. W. & Szalanski, A. L. Population Structure of the Drywood Termite *Incisitermes schwarzi* (Blattodea: Kalotermitidae) in the Caribbean. *J. Agric. Urban Entomol.* **36**, 101-108 (2020).
65. Crews, S. C. & Esposito, L. A. Towards a synthesis of the Caribbean biogeography of terrestrial arthropods. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **20**, 1-27 (2020).

66. Prum, R. O. Historical relationships among avian forest areas of endemism in the Neotropics. *Acta Ornithol.* **19**, 2562-2572 (1988).
67. Amorim, D. S. Dos Amazonias. in *Introducción a la biogeografía em Latino América: teorías, conceptos, métodos y aplicaciones* (eds. Llorente-Bousquets, J. & Morrone, J. J.) 245-255 (UNAM, Mexico, 2001).
68. Cracraft, J. & Prum, R. O. Patterns and processes of diversification: speciation and historical congruence in some Neotropical birds. *Evolution.* **42**, 603-620 (1988).
69. Bates, J. M. Avian diversification in Amazonia: evidence for historical complexity and a vicariance model for a basic diversification pattern. *Diversidade biológica e cultural da Amazônia.* 119-137 (2001).
70. Ribas, C. C., Aleixo, A., Nogueira, A. C., Miyaki, C. Y. & Cracraft, J. A palaeobiogeographic model for biotic diversification within Amazonia over the past three million years. *Proc R Soc Lond B.* **279**, 681-689 (2012).

Figures

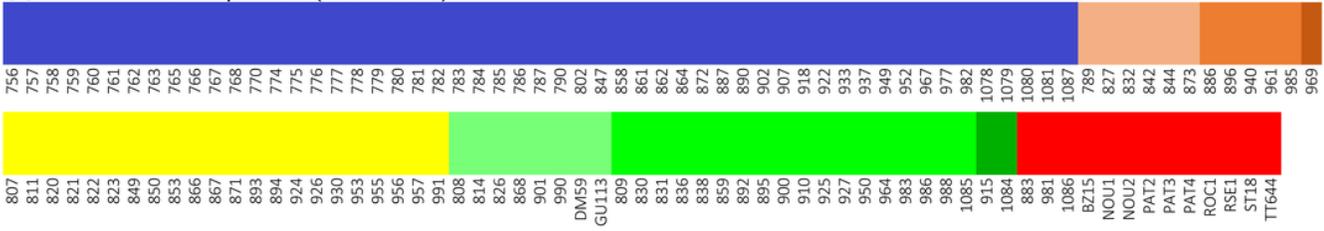
Figure 1

Collection locations of the *N. ephratae* samples. The colors of the points are corresponding to the colors of the haplogroups (see “Haplotype network”).

Figure 2

Haplotype network generated using the concatenated sequences (16S + COII) of the *N. ephratae* samples. The white dots on the branches are indicating the mutational steps between the related haplotypes.

(a) Concatenated sequences (16S + COII)



(b) 16S



Figure 3

Results of the analysis of clustering (rhierBAPS) performed with the concatenated sequences (a), 16S sequences (b), and COII sequences (c) of the samples of *N. ephratae*. *The colors above the line are indicating the cluster of the respective samples in the analysis with the concatenated sequences.

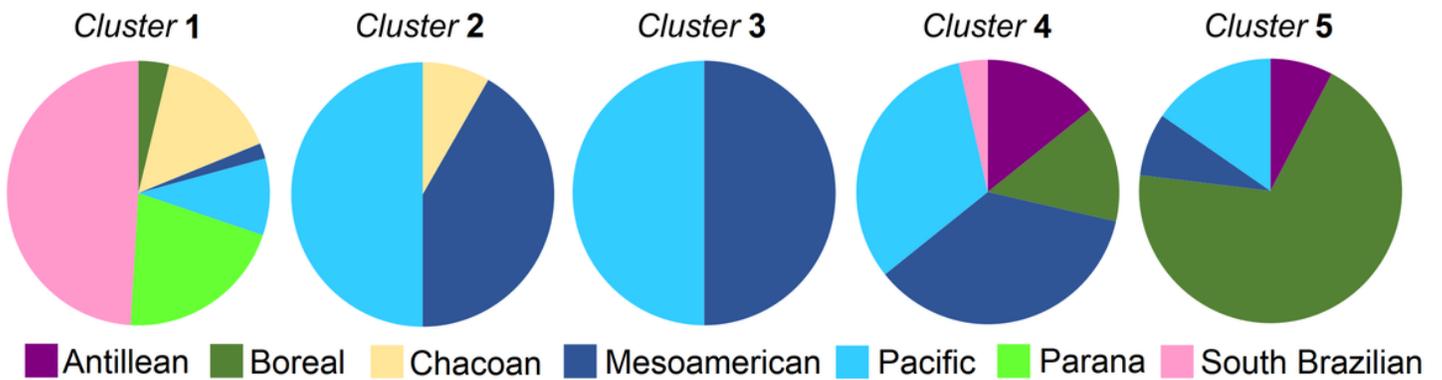


Figure 4

Pie charts generated from the frequency of the dominions in each cluster recovered by rhierBAPS with the concatenated sequences (16S+COII; Figure 3.a).

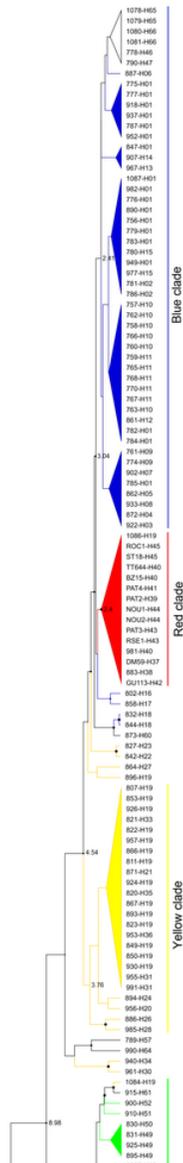


Figure 5

Bayesian inference tree generated with the *N. ephratae* specimens samples. The colors of the branches correspond to the colors of the haplogroups in the map (Figure 1). The numbers near to the nodes correspond to the estimated divergence times in million of years (My). The dots are indicating the nodes with posterior probabilities above 0.50 – the greater the diameter of the dot, the higher the posterior probability value.

Figure 6

Bayesian inference tree generated using the haplotypes of *N. ephratae*, associated to the results of the ancestral area reconstruction. The numbers near to the nodes correspond to the estimated divergence times in million of years (My). The “N” inside the PAC circles (close to the taxa names) are indicating that the respective haplotype was observed in the northern portion of PAC dominion, located in Central America; PAC circles without the “N” are indicating the haplotypes from southern portion of PAC dominion, located in South America. The posterior probabilities for this BI are showed in Figure S2.



Figure 7

Dispersal route inferred for *N. ephratae* based on the results obtained in the ancestral area reconstruction. The arrows are indication the direction of the dispersion

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [SuppFigS1BayesianHapPPs.png](#)
- [SuppFigS2BGB.png](#)
- [TableS1GenDist16S.pdf](#)
- [TableS2GenDistCOII.pdf](#)
- [TableS3GenDistCONC.pdf](#)