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Evolution

A single genealogical lineage from the Sonoran Desert and the Mexican Pacific Coast explains the haplotype distribution of *Trichobaris compacta*

Un solo linaje del Desierto Sonorense y de la costa del Pacífico mexicano explica la distribución de haplotipos de Trichobaris compacta

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Abstract

The weevil *Trichobaris compacta* occurs in southwest USA where it uses *Datura wrightii* as host plant and to oviposit into its fruits. Previously, we showed that *T. compacta* can use 4 other *Datura* species as host plants also, but the mitochondrial lineages of *T. compacta* do not appear to be specifically associated to any *Datura* species. Thus, given that *T. compacta* is distributed from the southwest USA up to the Tehuantepec Isthmus in the Pacific coast ranges of Mexico, we aimed to determine how the genetic variation of *T. compacta* is distributed along the geographical space. To determine how geography has shaped the genetic population structure of *T. compacta* we used a 663-bp region of the COI gene in a sample of 232 individuals from 29 different localities. We detected 49 haplotypes, one of which is widely distributed. The un-rooted haplotype network and phylogeny showed that *T. compacta* integrates one single lineage. Also, the population genetic structure of *T. compacta* is made up of the admixture of 3 groups, 2 of them slightly associated geographically to the Colorado River basin. No other apparent geographic barrier to gene flow was identified despite weevils from southwest North America use *D. wrightii* and *D. discolor* as host plants, in the Pacific coasts of Mexico *T. compacta* uses *D. reburra* and *D. discolor* as host plants, whereas in southern Mexico it uses *D. inoxia*, *D. pruinosa* and *D. discolor*.

Keywords: Datura; Phylogeography; Plant-herbivore interaction; Trichobaris compacta; Weevil; COI

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Resumen

El gorgojo *Trichobaris compacta* se distribuye en el suroeste de EUA y oviposita en el fruto de *Datura wrightii*. Previamente, demostramos que *T. compacta* interactúa con otras 4 especies de *Datura*, pero no hay linajes mitocondriales específicos asociados a éstas. ¿Cómo se distribuye la variación genética de *T. compacta* en el espacio geográfico? es una pregunta particularmente interesante debido a que se distribuyen desde el suroeste de los EUA hasta el centro de México. Para determinar cómo la geografía ha conformado la estructura genética poblacional de *T. compacta* utilizamos una región de 663 pb del gen COI de 232 individuos de 29 localidades. Detectamos 49 haplotipos, uno de ellos ampliamente distribuido. La red de haplotipos sin enraizar y la filogenia mostraron que *T. compacta* integra un solo linaje. También detectamos que la estructura genética de *T. compacta* se compone de la mezcla de 3 grupos, 2 de ellos ligeramente influenciados por la cuenca del río Colorado, pero no se detectó ninguna otra barrera a pesar de que *T. compacta* se distribuye desde el suroeste de EUA, donde utiliza como plantas huésped a *D. wrightii y D. discolor*, hasta la costa del Pacífico de México, donde utiliza a *D. reburra* y *D. discolor*, y hacia el sur, donde usa a *D. inoxia*, *D. pruinosa* y *D. discolor* como huéspedes.

Palabras clave: Datura; Filogeografia; Interacción planta-herbívoro; Trichobaris compacta; Gorgojo; COI

Introduction

The Mexican transition zone is the area in which the Neotropical and Nearctic biotas overlap (Halffter, 1976). In a strict sense, this zone includes the highlands of Mexico and Guatemala, whereas northern Mexico and southern United States are clearly Nearctic, and the lowlands of southern Mexico and Central America are clearly Neotropical (Morrone, 2015). Few assemblages of interactions among insects and their host plants have been documented in this Nearctic-Neotropical transition zone, even though their study offers a unique opportunity to link coevolving interactions with different evolutionary affinities.

The interaction between *Trichobaris* (Curculionidae) and their host plants (*Solanum* L. and *Datura* L.) occurs in this diverse and complex Nearctic-Neotropical transition zone. The weevils of the genus *Trichobaris* have a Nearctic distribution whereas South America is the ancestral area of origin of the Solanaceae family (Dupin et al., 2016), and the region in central Mexico is the area with the greatest species richness of *Datura* and is thought to be the diversification center (Luna-Cavazos & Bye, 2011).

From the 12 species of *Trichobaris*, only *Trichobaris* compacta (Casey, 1892) uses several *Datura* species as a food. Weevils oviposit into immature fruit, and then larvae eat developing seeds and associated tissues, whereas adults eat leaf tissue. Adults of *Trichobaris compacta* mate and rest on the host plant (Barber, 1935 and personal observations). Some studies show that this species is unable to develop in other solanaceous species, such as *Nicotiana* spp. (Diezel et al., 2011). Thus, this weevil is restricted to the *Datura* plant species. *Trichobaris compacta* occurs from southeastern USA to northern and central Mexico (Barber, 1935). The geographic distribution of *T. compacta*

(Barber, 1935) differs from that of Datura species that uses as host plants. Datura wrightii is distributed in the deserts of USA and Mexico (Sonoran Desert), whereas D. discolor inhabits the Mexican Pacific Coast and Balsas basin. Datura inoxia occurs in the highlands in central Mexico and USA (Chihuahuan Desert), whereas D. reburra and D. pruinosa are only present in small areas in Mexico (northwest Mexico: states of Sinaloa and Sonora; southern Mexico: states of Morelos, Guerrero and Oaxaca, respectively) (Luna-Cavazos & Bye, 2011). Barber (1935) noted that T. compacta uses several host plant species distributed across a wide geographic area thus possibly promoting the formation of "races" or genetically distinctive populations associated with a particular plant species. However, we have not found evidence of lineages associated to a particular host plant species of Datura (De la Mora et al., 2018).

Here, we aim to elucidate how the genetic variation of *Trichobaris compacta* is geographically distributed. To this end, we analyzed a fragment of COI gene in individuals from different populations. This genetic marker has been used to test the presence of major genetic discontinuities causing population structure, most likely due to extrinsic barriers (Avise, 2004). Here, we show the (1) genetic diversity of 29 populations of *T. compacta*, population differentiation and structure estimates, (2) haplotype network, (3) the phylogeny of *T. compacta* haplotypes, and (4) historical demography.

Materials and methods

Trichobaris compacta occurs in southwestern USA (Barber, 1935) where it feeds upon *Datura* species. We collected *Trichobaris compacta* in populations of *Datura* plants along the Pacific coast of Mexico. For this study,

T. compacta was collected on D. wrightii, D. inoxia, D. pruinosa, D. reburra and D. discolor. We selected localities in order to cover the entire distribution of T. compacta (based on Barber, 1935). Collected adult weevils were preserved in absolute alcohol for posterior analysis. Several fruits per plant were collected. To avoid sampling relatives inside a given fruit, we performed genetic analysis on only 1 weevil from each fruit. A total of 29 locations were sampled along the host plant distribution (Table 1; Fig. 1).

Each insect was frozen in liquid nitrogen (-196 °C), then macerated in an eppendorf tube using a micropestle. Genomic DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Tissue Kit (QiagenTM) according to the manufacturer's protocol for animal tissue. We then amplified a 663-bp nucleotide protein coding region of the mitochondrial gene cytochrome c oxidase I (COI) by polymerase chain reaction (PCR), using the following primers: COA3107 (5'-TCT ATT ARD GGD GAD GCD CTA TCT TG-3') and COS2183N (5'-CAR CAY YTA TTY TGR TTY TGR TTY TTY GG-3') (Sota et al., 2004).

Each PCR (total volume of 25.5 ml) contained 1 ml of DNA (20 nM), 1 ml of each primer (10 mM), 0.2 ml of

Taq polymerase (1U of Go Taq (Promega), 5 ml of Buffer 5x, 0.5 ml of each nucleotide (10 mM), 3 ml of MgCl2 (25 mM) and 12.3 ml of ddH₂O. The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: an initial period of 5 min at 95 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 60 s at 95 °C, 1.2 min at 55 °C, 60 s at 72 °C, and as a final extension for 7 min at 72 °C. PCR products were sequenced at Washington University using an ABI 3730xl sequencer (Applied BiosystemsTM). All nucleotide sequences obtained were compared, edited manually with SequencherTM 4.7, and aligned with MAFFT (Katoh & Standley, 2013).

To describe the neutral variation of *T. compacta*, we estimated the total number of haplotypes, mutations, segregating sites (S), nucleotide diversity π , haplotype diversity (h) and the theta index of genetic diversity Θ using the Nei's (1987) equations implemented in DNAsp 5.1 (Rozas et al., 2003).

In order to compare the levels of genetic diversity among populations of T. compacta, we estimated the fixation index $(F_{\rm ST})$ between populations using Arlequin v. 3.11 (Excoffier et al., 2005). To assess potential genetic clustering due to geographic distribution, we analyzed population structure using 2 methods. First, we

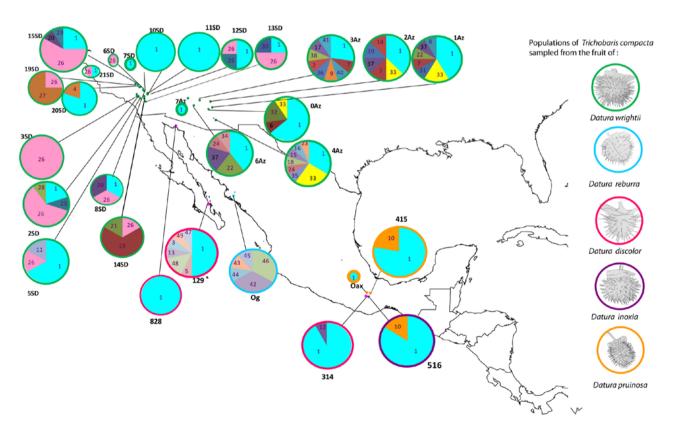


Figure 1. Sampled locations of populations of *Trichobaris compacta* collected upon several *Datura* plant species (indicated on the figure), different color dots represent localities, pie charts depict the frequency of each haplotype at given locality, and the size of the circle is proportional to the sample size; each COI haplotype is indicated by a corresponding number (see Table 1 for locality codes and sample size).

Table 1 Populations sampled of *Trichobaris compacta* and genetic diversity values estimated from COI gene. S segregating sites, h haplotype diversity, π nucleotide diversity and genetic diversity Θ .

Number	State, Country	Locality code, host-plant	Coordinates	# insects	# haplotypes	# mutations	S	# Singletons	h	π	θ
1	Arizona, USA	0Az, D. wrightii	32°35'32.79" N, 110°50'56.54" W	11	4	5	5	2	0.600	0.002	0.002
2	Arizona, USA,	1Az, D. wrightii	32°36'50.10" N, 110°49'57.91" W	12	7	6	6	5	0.833	0.001	0.003
3	Arizona, USA	2Az, D. wrightii	32°58'42.19" N, 110°46'8.08" W	8	6	5	5	4	0.893	0.002	0.002
4	Arizona, USA	3Az, D. wrightii	33°9'21.73" N, 111°46'36.77" W	10	9	14	13	11	0.945	0.004	0.007
5	Arizona, USA	4Az, D. wrightii	32°3'48.57" N, 110°17'3.42" W	15	8	8	8	7	0.848	0.002	0.003
6	Arizona, USA	6Az, D. wrightii	33°21'50.08" N, 112°37'32.06" W	10	5	7	7	5	0.822	0.002	0.003
7	Arizona, USA	7Az, D. wrightii	33°5'25.83" N, 112°2'1.26" W	2	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
8	California, USA	2SD, D. wrightii	33°34'26.50" N, 117°10'52.59" W	10	4	3	3	1	0.644	0.001	0.001
9	California, USA	3SD, D. wrightii	33°45'41.29" N, 117°11'27.19" W	8	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
10	California, USA	5SD, D. wrightii	33°46'4.14" N, 116°19'28.23" W	6	3	3	3	3	0.600	0.001	0.001
11	California, USA	6SD, D. wrightii	33°46'19.52" N, 116°19'53.98" W	1	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
12	California, USA	7SD, D. wrightii	33°35'42.08" N, 116°5'52.62" W	1	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
13	California, USA	8SD, D. wrightii		3	3	5	5	5	1.000	0.005	0.005
14	California, USA	10SD, D. wrightii	34°6'52.93" N, 116°27'56.07" W	7	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
15	California, USA	11SD, D. wrightii	34°8'24.06" N, 116°24'48.14" W	6	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
16	California, USA	12SD, D. wrightii	33°5'38.23" N, 116°57'47.19" W	4	3	2	2	1	0.833	0.001	0.001
17	California, USA	13SD, D. wrightii	33°29'28.28" N, 117°3'28.97" W	4	3	3	3	3	0.833	0.002	0.002
18	California, USA	14SD, D. wrightii	33°29'1.49" N, 116°54'45.23" W	6	3	6	6	6	0.600	0.003	0.003
19	California, USA	15SD, D. wrightii	34°10'35.93" N, 116°25'36.47" W	12	4	6	6	4	0.636	0.002	0.003
20	California, USA	19SD, D. wrightii	34°15'18.02" N, 116°26'19.72" W	4	2	1	1	1	0.500	0.001	0.001
21	California, USA	20SD, D. wrightii	33°59'46.45" N, 116°34'43.69" W	5	2	1	1	1	0.400	0.001	0.001

Table 1. Continued

Number	State, Country	Locality code, host-plant	Coordinates	# insects	# haplotypes	# mutations	S	# Singletons	h	π	θ
22	California, USA	21SD, D. wrightii	33°57'29.11" N, 116°35'30.66" W	2	2	2	2	2	1.000	0.003	0.003
23	Oaxaca, Mexico	314, D. discolor	16°47'11.61" N, 96 12'42.34" W	13	2	4	4	4	0.154	0.001	0.001
24	Oaxaca, Mexico	415, D. pruinosa	16°40'2.60" N, 96 22'48.98" W	18	2	1	1	0	0.366	0.001	0.000
25	Oaxaca, Mexico	516, D. inoxia	16°28'46.10" N, 96 13'3.51" W	19	2	1	1	0	0.281	0.001	0.001
26	Sonora, Mexico	828, D. discolor	32°11'28.14" N, 114 55'19.63" W	9	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
27	B.California, Mexico	129, D. discolor	26°0'21.46" N, 111 20'35.34" W	14	7	17	17	14	0.758	0.004	0.008
28	Oaxaca, Mexico	Oax, D. discolor	16°55'11.92" N, 96 23'6.10" W	3	1	0	0	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
29	Sinaloa, Mexico	OG, D. reburra	25°26'25.92" N, 108 3'59.49" W	9	5	7	7	5	0.833	0.003	0.003
			Total	232	49	57	56	33	0.704	0.002	0.014

used a Bayesian clustering analysis in BAPS for linked loci (Corander & Tang, 2007; Corander et al., 2008); we determined the number of genetic groups with the maximum likelihood value. We performed a mixture analysis with K values from 2 to 12, with 3 iterations each. Then, we used the output file to perform the admixture analysis. The minimum size of populations to be taken into account was set to 1, while 100 iterations were applied to estimate the admixture coefficients of individuals, 10 reference individuals from each population were used, and finally, 100 iterations were performed to estimate the admixture coefficients of the reference individuals. Second, we used a SAMOVA approach (spatial analysis of molecular variance; Dupanloup et al., 2002), which defines populations that are geographically homogeneous and maximally differentiated from each other. We repeated the analyses with 2 (the minimum for SAMOVA) to 20 numbers of groups (K) until the F_{CT} value (the proportion of genetic variation among groups) reached a plateau. Each run consisted of 100 replications.

The method is based on a simulated annealing procedure that aims to maximize the proportion of total genetic variance due to differences among groups of populations ($F_{\rm CT}$). The most significant statistical output indicates the number of groups. Simulations have shown that the SAMOVA algorithm does indeed find maximally differentiated groups, especially when data are derived from a single locus.

To visualize the frequency and distribution of haplotypes, we constructed an un-rooted haplotype network using the Median-joining algorithm. This analysis was performed in Network v. 4.6.1.1. (Bandelt et al., 1999). A haplotype phylogeny was estimated with a Bayesian inference analysis in BEAST v.1.4.7 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007). The parameters of MCMC runs were 30 million generations, sampling every 1,000 generations and discarding the first 10,000 trees as burn-in. We used a GTR+I model of nucleotide substitution and a fixed substitution rate of 2% per million years for COI, as previously reported for coleopterans (Nakamine & Takeda, 2008). To identify ancestral and derived haplotypes in the phylogeny, the trees were rooted using sequences of Trichobaris soror. We analyzed the sets of trees using DensiTree, showing only consensus trees (BEAST v.1.4.7 package software; Drummond & Rambaut, 2007).

To determine whether demographic events have shaped the genetic variation of T. compacta, we estimated Fu and Li's F (1993) and Tajima's D statistics (Tajima, 1989). These estimators assume neutrality to infer population historical demography. The Tajima's D statistic is expected to be negative when the genetic structure has been influenced by a rapid range expansion, positive when the population has passed through a bottleneck, and zero when there is an equilibrium between mutation and drift (Tajima, 1989). To compare the observed frequencies of pairwise differences with those expected under a model

of demographic expansion, mismatch distributions were generated using DNAsp v.4.10 (Rozas et al., 2003). A multimodal distribution is expected when there are no changes affecting population size, but unimodal distributions are expected when sudden demographic expansions have occurred (Rogers & Harpending, 1992).

Results

The southwest Mexico has not previously been reported as a distribution area of *T. compacta* (Barber, 1935), and most sampling was performed in the northern part of its distribution on *D. wrightii* and *D. discolor* (Table 1, from localities 1-22). However, in this study, we report new data for *T. compacta* distribution and host plant species: *D. pruinosa*, *D. reburra* and *D. inoxia* (Table 1, from localities 23-29). These populations were sampled in southwest Mexico (Fig. 1).

We found 49 haplotypes, 33 segregation sites (*S*), and 56 singletons (Table 1). Sequences without missing bases were submitted to GenBank (KX359683 to KX359723; Table 2). *Trichobaris compacta* possess high genetic diversity (h = 0.704, $\pi = 0.002$, $\Theta = 0.014$) (Table 1). The most common haplotype, Co1, is present in the entire distribution range of this weevil (Fig. 1).

A significant genetic differentiation among populations was detected. $F_{\rm ST}$ values range from 0.076 to 1.0 among populations. The most differentiated populations were 14SD, 19SD and 3SD (Table 3, Fig. 1), indicating that the haplotypes of this region are more exclusive along the distribution of T. compacta. The Bayesian clustering analysis performed with BAPS showed that the maximum likelihood value is reached at K = 3 (Fig. 2): cluster 1 in green, cluster 2 in yellow and cluster 3 in blue. Much of the genetic variation is specific to each group 1 (97%), group 2 (100%), and group 3 (87%) with very little gene flow between groups (for example, between group 3 and group 1 is only 1.1%). With SAMOVA, the highest value of $F_{\rm CT}$ was found at K = 3, p-value = 0.05083 \pm 0.00800, the criterion for choosing this number of groups was the peak of F_{CT} before the plateau phase (after K = 9 and up to K = 120 values F_{CT} for which the analysis was run) (Table 4).

The most frequent and shared haplotypes among populations were Co1 (52% of total sampling), Co26 (13%), Co33 (3%), and Co10 (3%) (Figs. 1, 3). From these, Co1 and Co10 were sampled in more than 1 hostplant species (*D. wrightii*, *D. discolor*, *D. inoxia* and *D. pruinosa*), while 7 haplotypes were found exclusively in *D. discolor*, 5 in *D. reburra* and 35 in *D. wrightii*.

Phylogenetic analysis of COI haplotypes did not support the formation of main clades into *T. compacta* (Fig. 4). Posterior probability values lower than 0.50 are not show in the phylogeny, only 3 clades with 2 or 3 haplotypes have support higher to 0.90.

Table 2
Genbank accession numbers of haplotypes of *Trichobaris compacta*.

Ganhank accession number	Haplotype number in this study
KX359683	
	Co33
KX359684 KX359685	Co1 Co37
KX359686	Co26
KX359687	C06
KX359688	Co27
KX359689	Co35
KX359690	Co36
KX359691	Co8
KX359692	Co39
KX359693	Co23
KX359694	Co7
KX359695	Co22
KX359696	Co19
KX359697	Co5
KX359698	Co20
KX359699	Co48
KX359700	Co28
KX359701	Co32
KX359702	Co47
KX359703	Co49
KX359704	Co24
KX359705	Co38
KX359706	Co25
KX359707	Co2
KX359708	Co10
KX359709	Co14
KX359710	Co18
KX359711	Co15
KX359712	Co17
KX359713	Co16
KX359714	Co29
KX359715	Co9
KX359716	Co40
KX359717	Co30
KX359718	Co13
KX359719	Co31
KX359720	Co11
KX359721	Co41
KX359722	Co12
KX359723	Co34

Table 3 Population differentiation values Fst among sampling sites (at least n = 3) of Trichobaris compacta estimated from COI gene. The statistically significant values are indicated in bold type.

Fst	0Az	10SD	11SD	12SD	13SD	14SD	15SD	19SD	1Az	20SD	2Az	2SD
0Az	0.000											
10SD	-0.024	0.000										
11SD	-0.043	0.000	0.000									
12SD	-0.073	0.378	0.336	0.000								
13SD	0.021	0.685	0.656	0.030	0.000							
14SD	0.147	0.599	0.571	0.418	0.500	0.000						
15SD	0.114	0.429	0.408	-0.018	-0.113	0.457	0.000					
19SD	0.176	0.938	0.931	0.583	0.333	0.683	0.294	0.000				
1Az	-0.056	-0.050	-0.675	-0.100	-0.026	0.073	0.076	0.089	0.000			
20SD	-0.061	0.073	0.040	0.206	0.542	0.490	0.371	0.850	-0.087	0.000		
2Az	-0.013	0.028	0.004	0.120	0.418	0.453	0.361	0.682	-0.041	-0.006	0.000	
2SD	0.135	0.635	0.616	0.100	-0.120	0.588	-0.053	0.380	0.085	0.560	0.485	0.000
314	0.035	-0.055	-0.072	0.231	0.577	0.578	0.436	0.808	0.005	-0.026	0.058	0.581
3Az	0.020	0.011	-0.001	0.046	0.276	0.350	0.299	0.506	-0.008	-0.021	-0.065	0.370
3SD	0.221	1.000	1.000	0.681	0.186	0.765	0.127	0.781	0.142	0.933	0.740	0.116
415	0.076	0.077	0.060	0.372	0.661	0.666	0.512	0.869	0.037	0.101	0.144	0.655
4Az	0.027	0.038	0.020	0.148	0.436	0.483	0.385	0.667	0.012	0.020	0.033	0.483
516	0.078	0.020	0.004	0.404	0.701	0.689	0.528	0.891	0.038	0.081	0.138	0.681
5SD	-0.047	0.028	0.000	-0.077	0.306	0.449	0.207	0.690	-0.066	-0.015	0.020	0.367
6Az	0.009	0.005	-0.015	0.096	0.383	0.433	0.349	0.635	-0.021	-0.020	-0.032	0.453
8SD	-0.108	0.300	0.250	-0.124	0.039	0.051	0.011	0.445	-0.140	0.142	0.122	0.210
854	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.445	0.731	0.644	0.465	0.949	-0.026	0.126	0.065	0.667
OG	0.464	0.811	0.799	0.740	0.756	0.760	0.765	0.814	0.358	0.770	0.742	0.801
129	0.034	-0.003	-0.020	0.034	0.257	0.330	0.283	0.478	0.010	-0.043	0.038	0.335
Fst	314	3Az	3SD	415	4Az	516	5SD	6Az	8SD	854	OG	129
314	0.000							,		,		
3Az	0.066	0.000										
3SD	0.836	0.546	0.000									
415	0.082	0.125	0.887	0.000								
4Az	0.080	0.065	0.686	0.144	0.000							
516	0.050	0.122	0.909	-0.043	0.135	0.000						
5SD	0.024	0.010	0.765	0.130	0.054	0.121	0.000					
6Az	0.050	-0.003	0.677	0.121	0.024	0.114	0.013	0.000				
8SD	0.271	0.051	0.587	0.411	0.182	0.444	0.000	0.111	0.000			
854	-0.031	0.041	1.000	0.103	0.065	0.044	0.072	0.037	0.379	0.000		
OG	0.813	0.667	0.860	0.853	0.751	0.863	0.755	0.733	0.693	0.832	0.000	
129	0.052	0.061	0.504	0.100	0.087	0.096	0.002	0.051	0.045	0.024	0.666	0.000

Table 4 Results from SAMOVA analysis of *Trichobaris compacta* populations, using COI gene (663bp). K = arbitrary partition of the n populations into K groups, $F_{\text{CT}} = \text{index of genetic variance due to differences among populations, } <math>p$ -value = probability values to accept the new structure.

K	1	2	3	4	5
F _{CT}		0.21845	0.29099	0.25082	0.24094
<i>p</i> -value		0.02639+-0.00439	0.05083 + -0.00800	0.01466+-0.00394	0.02151+-0.00491
K	6	7	8	9	10
F_{CT}	0.22482	0.23485	0.21917	0.38133	0.37744
<i>p</i> -value	0.03128+-0.00620	0.04594+-0.00610	0.07820+-0.00897	0.00098 + -0.00098	0.00000+-0.00000
K	11	12	13	14	15
F_{CT}	0.3733	0.38933	0.34445	0.34587	0.36122
<i>p</i> -value	0.00000 + -0.00000	0.00000+-0.00000	0.00000+-0.00000	0.00000+-0.00000	0.00000+-0.00000
K	16	17	18	19	20
F_{CT}	0.35109	0.35171	0.36861	0.38472	0.36474
<i>p</i> -value	0.00000+-0.00000	0.00000 + -0.00000	0.00000+-0.00000	0.00000 + -0.00000	0.00000+-0.00000

The haplotype network showed a star-like pattern indicative of a recent population expansion and congruent with both the mismatch distribution that displayed a unimodal pattern (Fig. 5) and with the negative values of Tajima's D = -2.69330 (p < 0.001) and Fu and Li's F = -5.10607 (p < 0.02).

Discussion

In general, the COI sequence of weevils shows high levels of genetic variation (from 0.973 to 0.75) allowing to discern different evolutionary lineages and population structure of this species (Anducho-Reyes et al., 2008; Aoki et al., 2008, 2009; Kuester et al., 2012; Ruiz et al., 2010). Here, we show that *T. compacta* have also higher level of genetic variation (h = 0.704) distributed mainly in the northern part of its distribution, USA, than in the south (Table 1; Fig. 1). *Trichobaris soror*, a weevil of the same genus but species-specific to a host plant and distributed on the highlands of Mexico, showed a similar level of genetic variation, h = 0.731 (De la Mora et al., 2015). *Trichobaris compacta* diverged from *T. soror ca.* 1.75 (\pm 1) million years ago, with a recent diversification *ca.* 0.5 (\pm 0.25) million years ago (De la Mora et al., 2018).

Neutral theory postulates that genetic diversity will increase with larger effective population sizes due to a decreasing effect of genetic drift (Kimura, 1983). According to the specialist-generalist variation hypothesis (SGVH), specialists are expected to have lower effective population sizes than generalists and consequently lower levels of genetic diversity due to the effect of drift (Li et al., 2014).

This pattern may result from their specialization in resource use; for instance, the habitat of specialist species may be more heterogeneous and patchier than that of generalists and, as a consequence, populations of specialist species may be less connected and more subdivided into smaller populations than those of generalist species. Therefore, we expected that the generalist T. compacta, which uses several host-plant species to feed and reproduce, would have higher levels of genetic variation than a specialist weevil. However, although Trichobaris soror feeds only on D. stramonium, our estimate of genetic diversity does not differ between species of *Trichobaris*. Therefore, no support for this hypothesis was found. It is likely that since the host plant of T. soror (D. stramonium) is highly abundant but with a patchy distribution along the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt, this has promoted high genetic variation of similar magnitude to that of T. compacta. However, the role of trophic host specialization and the distribution pattern of both species of *Trichobaris* on their genetic variation remains to be tested.

Phylogenetic structure. The population genetic structure of *T. compacta* investigated with COI does not reflect a significant genetic clustering, since the same haplotype can be found from Arizona in the USA, to Oaxaca in central Mexico. As mentioned below, a slight influence of the Colorado River basin may be disrupting the genetic flow in *T. compacta*. It is a bit difficult to compare the compact phylogeographic pattern of *T. compacta* with other insects since phylogeographic studies are scarce, in spite that other insect species distribute in the same geographical range (Anderson & O'Brien, 1996).

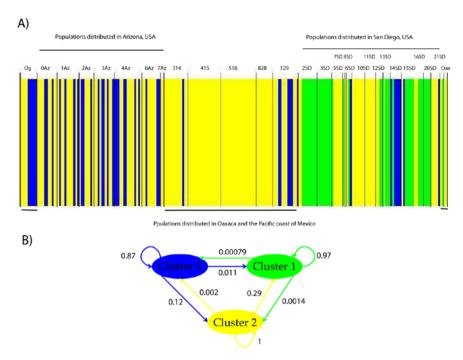


Figure 2. A) Population structure of *Trichobaris compacta* and B) genetic flow among clusters. Each color represents a genetic group determined by Bayesian clustering from COI gene (663 bp). The localities are described in Table 1. Gene flow is indicated as weighted arrows, such that the weights equal relative average among of ancestry in the source cluster, among the individuals assigned to the target cluster. The localities are described in Table 1.

Unlike *T. compacta*, *T. soror* is distributed only along the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt and in the Sierra Madre del Sur (Barber, 1935). The phylogeographical pattern of *T. soror* follows a partition due to the mountain systems, similar to other beetles distributed on the same region (i.e., *Dendroctonus mexicanus*; Anducho-Reyes et al., 2008).

Other taxa distributed in North American warm deserts have revealed vicariant events among their populations distributed in this area (Bryson et al., 2012; Leache & Mulcahy, 2007; Mantooth et al., 2013), and the barriers to gene flow for this biota have been identified as the Central Valley, the Colorado River and floristic provinces. At the equatorial climate, along the western coast of Mexico, Neotropical biota have been greatly influenced by past events that have produced strong genetic differentiation within species (García-Trejo et al., 2004; Zarza et al., 2008). We expected that at least the genetic variation of T. compacta would reflect these discontinuities. However, the genetic groups do not correspond to either the desert typical barriers or to a disjunction between the desert and equatorial climates. The Colorado River system seems to have slightly influenced the population structure of T. compacta because of the different haplotypic compositions found at each side (Fig. 2). However, the results of BAPS and SAMOVA do not support this barrier and estimations of gene flow are needed to corroborate this. Both analyzes suggest the formation of 3 groups but these groups are not equivalent. In BAPS there is a widely distributed group (cluster2-yellow) that includes several populations from the north and mainly from the south of the distribution (Fig. 2). While the other 2 form some geographical structure to the north of the *T. compact* distribution, SD populations in San Diego (cluster 1-green) and AZ populations in Arizona (cluster 3-blue). In SAMOVA, the K = 3 populations were grouped as: group 1 (0Az, 10SD, 11SD, 12SD, 13SD, 15SD, 1Az, 20SD, 2Az, 2SD, 314, 3Az, 405, 4Az, 516, 5SD, 6Az, 8SD, AP, OG, 129) group 2 (19SD, 3SD) and group 3 (14SD). Although the SAMOVA results, in general, were not statistically significant (Table 4), K =3 was the peak of F_{CT} and was marginally significant. It is likely that T. compacta is broadly distributed over the Datura species that we report in Mexico and gene flow is maintained along their distribution; yet extensive sampling to delimit the distribution of T. compacta in all 5 Datura species is badly needed.

The distribution of haplotypes is not uniform in all *Datura* species (Fig. 1). The most frequent haplotype of *T. compacta* (Co1) was found on 4 species of *Datura* distributed in USA and Mexico. All other haplotypes were found in *D. wrightii* and *D. discolor*, but some low-frequency haplotypes were restricted to *D. reburra*, *D. pruinosa* and *D. inoxia*. The haplotype network shows

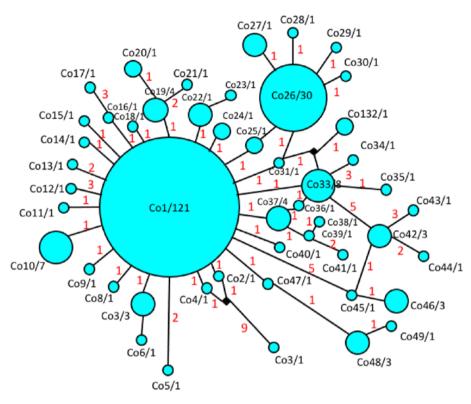


Figure 3. Haplotype network of *Trichobaris compacta* calculated from COI gene (663 bp) by the "median joining" algorithm. Black dots represent vectors, and red numbers represent the number of mutational changes.

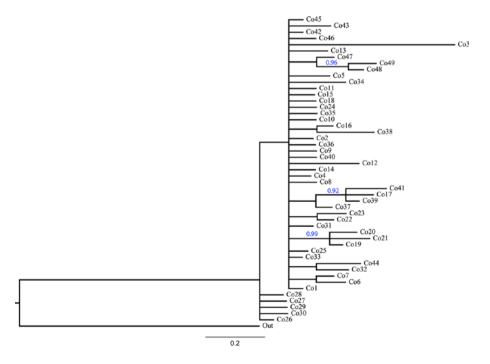


Figure 4. Phylogeny of COI haplotypes (663 bp) of *Trichobaris compacta* inferred by Bayesian inference analysis. Blue numbers show the posterior probability for clades (only values above 0.90 pp are showed). The length of the branches represents the divergence among haplotypes.

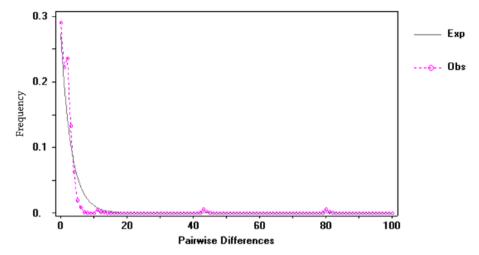


Figure 5. Historical demography of *Trichobaris compacta*. Mismatch distribution calculated from 663 bp of the COI gene sequence.

few mutational steps among haplotypes, which suggests a recent divergence of the haplotypes, but none of these as previously reported is associated to particular *Datura* species (De la Mora et al., 2018; Fig. 3).

Because plant-herbivore interactions have largely been maintained since the last glacial period, variation in mtDNA results useful to infer clades association to particular host plants (Aoki et al., 2011). Like results reported in other weevil species with larval development inside the host plant tissues (Aoki et al., 2009; Barr et al., 2013), we expected to find the COI gene haplotypes of T. compacta linked to different Datura species and clustered together with high support by a phylogeny, but we did not find such a pattern (Figs. 4, 5). The neutral nature of COI variation, in relation to host plant use made by weevils, does not mean that T. compacta is not adapted to Datura species. We are unable to assess adaptation to the host plant directly (Barr et al., 2013; Morse & Farrell, 2005). If weevils were adapted to host plants, analysis of other loci that code for adaptive traits to host plants and behavioral experiments of oviposition would be necessary. Rather, we determined that the relationship between T. compacta and Datura species is not reflected by clustering of mtDNA lineages linked to particular host plant species. It is possible that T. compacta had recently dispersed to Datura host species until attaining its current distribution range, as suggested by both the star-like pattern of the haplotype network and the historical-demographic analysis.

In the insect-plant interaction study, the phylogenetic study of variation in the COI gene revealed that interacting species share patterns of neutral genetic variation because they have been exposed to the same environmental and geological conditions (Aoki et al., 2009, 2011). In this sense, this study constitutes one of the first steps

to understand the coevolution of *Trichobaris* with *Datura* species.

Phylogeographic and phylogenetic analyses showed that *T. compacta* populations are slightly structured over a wide geographic distribution range. This genetic population structure is the result of the admixture of tree genetic groups, forming a single one genealogical lineage.

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