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3	Ecological Genomics Predicts Climate Vulnerability in an Endangered Southwestern Songbird
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- 42 landscape genetic analyses; M.W. and E.H.P. contributed samples and biological expertise; K.R. wrote

43 the paper with contribution from all authors.

44

45 Data Accessibility: The Willow flycatcher genome and annotations are available through DRYAD

46 [DRYAD NUMBER] and population-level RAD-Seq data are available through NCBI's Sequence Read

47 Archive [SRA NUMBER].

48 Few regions have been more severely impacted by climate change in the United States than the

49 Desert Southwest. Here we use ecological genomics to assess the potential for adaptation to rising

- 50 global temperatures in a widespread songbird, the willow flycatcher (*Empidonax traillii*), and find
- 51 the endangered desert southwestern subspecies (*E. t. extimus*) most vulnerable to future climate
- 52 change. Highly significant correlations between present abundance and estimates of genomic
- 53 vulnerability the mismatch between current and predicted future genotype-environment
- 54 relationships indicate small, fragmented populations of the Southwestern willow flycatcher will
- 55 have to adapt most to keep pace with climate change. Links between climate-associated genotypes
- 56 and genes important to thermal tolerance in birds provide a potential mechanism for adaptation to
- 57 temperature extremes. Our results demonstrate that the incorporation of genotype-environment
- 58 relationships into landscape-scale models of climate vulnerability facilitates more precise
- 59 predictions of climate impacts that can guide conservation in threatened and endangered groups.
- 60

61 Introduction

- 62 The effects of climate change on biodiversity are forecast to be one of the leading causes of extinction
- 63 over the next century (Dawson *et al.* 2011; Warren *et al.* 2013; Pacifici *et al.* 2015; Urban 2015).
- 64 Evidence of climate-induced local extinctions are now widespread among plant and animal species
- 65 (Sinervo *et al.* 2010; Wiens 2016) and the velocity of climate change impacts in desert biomes is
- 66 predicted to be among the fastest (Loarie *et al.* 2009). Recent climate change has altered community

67 composition by favoring generalist taxa over habitat specialists and rare species (Menéndez et al. 2006; 68 Estrada *et al.* 2016), but the ability to measure climate impacts below the species level is often lacking. 69 Fine-scale estimates of vulnerability to climate change require an understanding of both the capacity for 70 populations to shift their ranges to track climate conditions, as well as their capacity to tolerate climate 71 alterations *in situ* via phenotypic plasticity or adaptation. Despite the fact that intraspecific variation in 72 climate tolerances may factor critically in the ability of species to move or adapt to environmental change, 73 most modeling efforts ignore local adaptation. However, genomic tools are facilitating assessments of 74 local adaptation in non-model species with increasing reliability (Savolainen et al. 2013) and such 75 information can be used to improve climate vulnerability estimates. Here we combine genome-wide 76 sequencing with environmental data to improve predictions of how genotype-environment relationships 77 may be disrupted by future environmental change in an endangered songbird native to the Desert 78 Southwest of the United States, the Southwestern willow flycatcher.

79

80 Until recently, assessing species vulnerability to climate change focused largely on using current range-81 climate associations to predict distributions under models of future climate (Parmesan & Yohe 2003; 82 Pacifici et al. 2015). However, complex biotic interactions (competition, specialization, coevolution, etc.) 83 and or limits to dispersal imposed by physical barriers may limit range shifts, making it important to 84 understand a species' potential to adapt to climate change in situ (Williams et al. 2008). Methodologies 85 in the field of ecological genomics have provided tools to help incorporate information on local 86 adaptation into climate vulnerability models by identifying regions where climate-induced selective 87 pressure will be highest (Fitzpatrick & Keller 2015), but such methods have yet to be widely implemented. 88 These approaches calculate the difference between current genotype-environment relationships and those 89 predicted under future climate change to identify the geographic regions of greatest mismatch. More 90 specifically, they can be used to ask, "How much would allele frequencies across the range have to 91 change to keep pace with projected changes in climate?". In the absence of a range shift, populations in 92 regions where the mismatch is greatest will either need to adapt or may suffer population declines, as was 93 recently shown in the North American songbird, the Yellow warbler (Setophaga petechia) (Bay et al. 94 2018).

95

96 Few regions in North America will be more severely impacted by temperature extremes than the desert
97 Southwest (Diffenbaugh *et al.* 2008; Hsiang *et al.* 2017). While most large-scale analyses of climate
98 impacts in birds have focused on changes in geographic ranges or shifts in migratory phenology to better
99 synchronize arrival times with earlier spring onset (Both & Visser 2001; Both *et al.* 2006; Stephens *et al.*100 2016), these changes will do little to offset the impact of summer heat waves in desert regions. Recent

101 work suggests that small desert passerines, in particular, will experience higher rates of mortality due to 102 dehydration and hyperthermia as the frequency of extreme temperature events increases (Albright et al. 103 2017). In addition, work in poultry has shown that high temperatures can cause heart strain, or in some 104 cases heart failure, as birds attempt to dissipate heat through increased blood circulation. Further, this 105 work has shown that such stress is not just physiological in nature, but is associated with differential 106 expression in a suite of ~300 genes (Zhang et al. 2017). Based on these studies, we predict that genes 107 important to thermal cooling will be under strong selection in small desert passerines as the frequency of 108 heat waves increases.

109

110 The endangered Southwestern willow flycatcher provides an example of a desert passerine for which a 111 better understanding of climate vulnerability has important implications for its conservation. This desert 112 subspecies is one of four subspecies within the willow flycatcher whose combined ranges span the 113 continental United States (Fig. 1; Pacific Northwestern form, E. t. brewsteri; Western Central form, E. t. 114 adastus; and Eastern form, E. t. traillii). The presence of the Southwestern willow flycatcher in particular 115 is associated with riparian woodlands along streams and waterways (Sedgwick 2000) and such habitats 116 are thought to provide important refuges from temperature extremes (Chen 1999; McLeod et al. 2008). 117 At the turn of the century, the Southwestern willow flycatcher was described as common wherever its 118 specialized habitat existed (Grinnell & Miller 1944), but by 1995 when it was listed under the Endangered 119 Species Act, the number of known breeding pairs had been reduced to between 300 and 500 (Unitt 1987; 120 Sogge et al. 1997). Population declines have been attributed to loss of riparian habitats in the Southwest 121 following dam-building, water diversions, groundwater pumping, urbanization, agricultural development, 122 and livestock grazing (Service 2002), but the role that climate change may have played in declines is 123 unknown. Some researchers have questioned the subspecies designation of the Southwestern willow 124 flycatcher, suggesting that it is a peripheral population of an otherwise widespread species with no 125 evidence for ecological distinctiveness (Zink 2015), although this suggestion has been questioned 126 (Theimer et al. 2016). Here we use ecological genomics to investigate the potential for ecological 127 distinctiveness within the willow flycatcher as well as the potential role of rising global temperatures on 128 its future persistence.

129

To investigate potential genomic signals of local adaptation in the willow flycatcher, we tested for significant genotype-environment correlations using 105,000 SNP markers from 219 individuals spanning 24 populations across the breeding range (Fig. 1; Table 1). To identify the genomic locations of climateassociated SNPs in relation to genes and gene regions important to adaptation under climate change, we also assembled and annotated the first willow flycatcher genome. Significant genotype-environment

135 correlations for a subset of loci were further validated by genotyping an additional 274 individuals

136 spanning 25 populations. To identify geographical regions where climate-induced selective pressure is

137 predicted to be greatest under future climate change, we used gradient forest modeling and calculated an

138 index of genomic vulnerability - defined as the mismatch between current and future genotype-

139 environment relationships. We compared genomic vulnerability across the four subspecies and examined

relationships between abundance and genomic vulnerability in order to understand which geographical

141 regions will be most severely impacted by climate-induced selective pressure.

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- 145

146 Materials and Methods

147 Sample Collection and DNA extraction

148 We compiled a collection of 493 willow flycatcher blood or tissue samples from 41 locations across the 149 breeding range using a combination of samples from previous studies, museum donations and new field

150 collections (Paxton 2000). 219 individuals from 24 populations were used to test for genome-wide

151 genotype-environment correlations, while 274 individuals spanning 25 populations (8 replicate and 17

152 new populations) were used to validate a subset of significant genotype-environment correlations

identified in the genome-wide analysis ($N_{total_{indiv}} = 493$; $N_{total_{pops}} = 41$; Table 1; Fig. 1). The willow

154 flycatcher range map and associated subspecies boundaries was taken from the most current United States

155 Geological Survey map used for willow flycatcher surveys (Sogge *et al.* 1997). Samples within one

degree latitude and longitude and with no more than 10% difference in any environmental variable (as

157 indicated by our environmental analysis, below) were lumped into a single population. DNA was purified

using the QiagenTM DNeasy Blood and Tissue extraction kit and quantified using the Qubit[®] dsDNA HS

159Assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

160

161 Genome Sequencing, Assembly, and Annotation

162 The genomic DNA library was created using a single Southwestern willow flycatcher individual from

163 Roosevelt Lake, AZ and the Illumina TruSeq DNA PCR-Free LT kit (Illumina), with adjustments. One

ug of DNA was diluted in 100 ul of AE buffer and fragmented to an average insert size of ~400bp. The

resulting library was sequenced on two lanes of an Illumina HiSeq2500 using 250bp paired-end

166 sequencing at the QB3 Vincent J. Coates Genomics Sequencing Laboratory, UC Berkeley. Two mate-pair

167 libraries were also created, using 4kb and 8kb inserts and sequenced on one-third of a 100bp paired-end

168 Illumina HiSeq 2500 lane at the Huntsman Cancer Center at the University of Utah. The 250bp paired

- 169 end reads were used to assemble contigs with the Discovar DeNovo assembler from the Broad Institute
- 170 (http://www.broadinstitute.org), discarding contigs less than 1000 bp in length. Mate pair reads were
- trimmed and separated from paired end reads using NxTrim (O'Connell *et al.* 2015) and contigs were
- 172 scaffolded with SSPACE (overlap requirement k=3) (Boetzer *et al.* 2010) using both paired end and mate
- pair libraries. We used reapr (Hunt *et al.* 2013) and mapping of the 8kb insert library to break the
- assembly at likely error regions. SSPACE scaffolding was repeated with k=5 and scaffolds <5kbp were
- 175 discarded for the final assembly.
- 176
- 177 For annotation purposes, repetitive regions were replaced with N's using RepeatMasker (-species birds) 178 (Tarailo-Graovac & Chen 2009). For annotation, we used two different *ab initio* gene predictions within 179 the MAKER pipeline (Cantarel et al. 2008): SNAP and AUGUSTUS. SNAP was trained iteratively using 180 Zebra Finch cDNA and protein sequences downloaded from Ensembl and AUGUSTUS was run using the 181 available chicken training dataset. We used Interproscan (Zdobnov & Apweiler 2001) to add Pfam protein 182 annotation and gene ontology (GO) terms and identified 15,489 genes. Scaffolds were aligned to the 183 Zebra Finch genome (version 3.2.4) using the software promer, part of the MUMmer package (Delcher et al. 2003). After alignment, we retained the longest consistent alignment (-q) for each chromosome while 184 185 filtering for similarity (-i 50) and alignment length (-1 500). We then determined the location of the 186 longest alignment for each scaffold and ordered scaffolds accordingly for visualization purposes.
- 187

188 SNP Discovery and SNP Filtering

189 Genome scans on 219 individuals were conducted following the BestRAD library preparation protocol 190 with some modifications (Ali et al. 2016). 100ng of DNA was digested using the SbfI restriction enzyme 191 (New England Biolabs, NEB) and fragments were ligated with SbfI adapters prepared with biotinylated 192 ends. Adapter-ligated samples were pooled and cleaned using 1X Agencourt® AMPure XP beads 193 (Beckman Coulter). All DNA fragments were sheared to an average length of 400bp and adapter-ligated 194 fragments were bound to M-280 streptavidin magnetic Dynabeads (Life Technologies). Blunt end repair 195 and ligation of NEBNext Adapters was performed using the Illumina NEBNext Ultra DNA Library Prep 196 Kit (New England Biolabs, NEB) and Agencourt® AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) were used to 197 size select an average of 500bp fragments. The final library was cleaned and run on a Bioanalyzer at the 198 UCLA Technology Center for Genomics & Bioinformatics to check for the size distribution and the 199 absence of contaminants. Two libraries, each comprised of 96 individuals, were initially sequenced in 200 two lanes of 100bp paired end reads on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 at the UC Davis Genome Center. In a

third lane, 69 individuals with low coverage from the first two libraries were re-sequenced and an

- additional 27 individuals were sequenced.
- 203

204 The program Stacks (Catchen et al. 2013) was used to demultiplex, filter and trim adapters from the data 205 with the process radtags function and to remove duplicate read pairs using the clone filter function. 206 Reads were mapped to our genome assembly using bowtie2 (Langmead & Salzberg 2012) and the 207 Haplotype Caller in the Genome Analysis Toolkit was used to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms 208 (SNPs), following best practices from the Broad Institute (http://www.broadinstitute.org). Finally, we 209 discarded low quality and rare variants (genotype quality<30; depth<8; minor allele frequency<0.01), as 210 well as indels and non-biallelic SNPs using vcftools (Danecek et al. 2011). We used the R package 211 genoscapeRtools (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.848279) to visualize the tradeoff between discarding SNPs with 212 low coverage and discarding individuals with missing genotypes in order to determine the final number of

- 213 SNPs and individuals retained (SI Fig. 1).
- 214

215 Environmental data

216 For each sampling location, we obtained environmental data from publicly available databases. These 25

variables included 19 climate variables downloaded from WorldClim (Hijmans *et al.* 2005) which

represented average climate between the years 1960-1990, as well as vegetation indices (Carroll *et al.*

2004) (NDVI and NDVIstd, average for the year 2003), Tree Cover (Sexton *et al.* 2013) and elevation

data from the Global Land Cover Facility (<u>http://www.landcover.org</u>) and a measure of surface moisture

characteristics from the NASA Scatterometer Climate Record Pathfinder project (QuickSCAT mean andstandard deviation, downloaded from scp.byu.edu).

223

224 Assessing the role of geography and environment

225 To assess the relative contributions of geography and the environment to genetic divergence in the willow

flycatcher, we compared genetic, environmental, and geographic distance matrices and used multiple tests

designed to account for spatial autocorrelation. For locations with > 4 individuals (Table 1), we

228 calculated pairwise F_{ST} across all quality-filtered SNPs using the R package SNPrelate (Zheng *et al.* 2012)

and pairwise geographic distances from longitude and latitude using the R package geosphere (Hijmans

et al. 2012). We then calculated environmental distance between each pair of sites by removing highly

correlated climate variables (Pearson's r>0.7; Table 2; SI Table 1), scaling and centering each

environmental variable to account for differences in magnitude, and then calculating pairwise Euclidean

233 differences between sites. Mantel, Partial Mantel, and multiple regression of distance matrices were used

to test for associations between linearized F_{ST} ($F_{ST}/1$ - F_{ST}) and genetic and environmental distance after accounting for geographic distance.

236

237 *Gradient forest prediction of genomic mismatch*

We identified the environmental variables that best explained genetic variation using gradient forest 238 239 analysis with the R package gradientForest (Ellis et al. 2012). Because rare alleles are more likely to yield 240 false positives, we only used SNPs with minor allele frequency >10%. The gradient forest analysis 241 (ntree=500, nbin=201, corr.threshold=0.5) provided a ranked list based on the relative predictive power of 242 all environmental variables (Table 2). To ensure that our model was explaining more variation than we would expect by chance, we compared the number of SNPs with positive R^2 and the mean R^2 across these 243 244 'predictive' loci (those with positive R^2) to 10 runs with randomized environments. Visualization of the 245 gradient forest model across the range of the willow flycatcher (Buschke et al. 2016), was done by 246 generating and extracting uncorrelated BIOCLIM values for 100,000 random points. The final gradient 247 forest model was used to predict the genomic composition from uncorrelated environmental variables for 248 each random point (Table 2). Principal components analysis (PCA) was used to summarize values. To 249 visualize the different adaptive environments across the breeding range, colors were assigned based on 250 the top 3 principal components axes, as recommended by the authors (Ellis et al. 2012).

251

We extended the gradient forest analysis to predict "genomic vulnerability" using the method presented by Fitzpatrick and Keller (2015). Here, "genomic vulnerability" (termed "genetic offset" by Fitzpatrick and Keller) is a measure of the mismatch between genotype and future predicted environment using associations across current gradients as a baseline. We used the baseline gradient forest model calculated using current BIOCLIM values to predict genomes under future environmental conditions (based on RCP 2.6 2050 projections) at the same 100,000 random points. The Euclidean distance between these weighted current and predicted values is what we refer to as "genomic vulnerability" (Bay *et al.* 2018).

259

260 Identification of SNPs as candidates for environmental selection

To identify SNPs (with minor allele frequency >0.1) that were most highly associated with the top
 environmental variables while accounting for underlying population structure, we used Latent Factor

202 environmental variables while accounting for underlying population structure, we used Latent Pactor

263 Mixed Models (LFMM) (Frichot *et al.* 2013). For each of the top 8 environmental variables from the

- 264 gradient forest analysis, we ran five separate MCMC runs with a latent factor of K=4, based on the
- number of reported subspecies and previous morphological and genetic analysis based upon neutral
- 266 markers (Paxton 2000). P-values from all five runs were combined and adjusted for multiple tests using a
- 267 false discovery rate (FDR) correction. We annotated each significant SNP with genes within 25kb

upstream or downstream which we assume is within the distances before which LD should break down(Backstrom *et al.* 2006).

270

271 Validation of climate associated SNPs

272 To validate genotype-environment correlations identified in the LFMM analysis, we genotyped the top 273 ranking 18 SNPS that were significantly associated with the top 8 climate variables and could be 274 converted to SNPtype Assays in an additional 274 breeding individuals from 25 locations. DNA was extracted from feather samples using the KingFisher[™] Cell and Tissue DNA Kit and SNP genotyping 275 was performed on the FluidigmTM 96.96 IFC controller following manufacturer guidelines. Nine 276 277 individuals with greater then 8% of missing data were removed from downstream analysis and final allele 278 frequencies were calculated for each SNP at each location. Standard linear regression was used to test for 279 significant associations between climate and allele frequency (FDR-corrected p-value <0.05).

280

281 Association between genomic vulnerability and abundance

282 To assess the relationship between genomic vulnerability and abundance and determine which subspecies 283 may be most vulnerable to future climate change, we correlated estimates of genomic vulnerability with 284 willow flycatcher relative abundance from the North American Breeding Bird Survey (BBS) for 2011-285 2015, including all sites where the species was detected at least once during the history of the survey 286 (Pardieck 2017). In order to associate the two datasets, vector-based BBS relative abundance estimates 287 derived from inverse-distance weighting interpolation (2010-15; Sauer et al. 2017; https://www.mbr-288 pwrc.usgs.gov/bbs/shape ra15.html) of route-level mean counts was converted to raster format with grid 289 resolution of approximately 15×15 km. We then extracted values of relative abundance and genomic 290 vulnerability for grid cells including BBS routes using bilinear interpolation (Hijmans 2015). For cells 291 with BBS routes where detections had been recorded, but for which model-based estimates of abundance 292 were not available due to low abundance and isolation from other sites with detections, we assigned mean count values (~ 9% of routes; mean count = 0.06). Significant differences in genomic vulnerability 293 294 between subspecies were assessed using boxplots with 95% confidence intervals around median 295 vulnerability scores (Chambers et al. 1983).

296

297 Results

298 Genome assembly, SNP discovery, and SNP/population filtering

299 The final Southwestern willow flycatcher genome assembly was 1.2 Gb in length and consisted of 7,791

- 300 scaffolds (contig N50=79,613bp; scaffold N50=895,074bp). In total, we identified 6,355,061 SNPs
- across the genome. Discarding low quality SNPs and low coverage individuals resulted in a final set of

- 302 105,000 SNPs and 175 individuals (SI Fig. 1), with less than 7.4% missing genotypes per SNP
- 303 (mean=2.3%), less than 15.6% missing SNPs per individual (mean=2.3%), and minor allele frequency
- greater than 1%. Because F_{ST} is robust to low sample size when a large number of SNPs are employed
- 305 (Nazareno *et al.* 2017), we retained all populations with a minimum of 4 (mean = 8) individuals for
- analysis based upon F_{ST} (distance matrix comparisons), resulting in a final dataset of 168 individuals
- 307 from 22 sampling locations. Alternatively, to avoid bias associated with low sample size in analyses
- 308 requiring estimates of allele frequency (Gradient Forest and LFMM), we used only populations with a
- 309 minimum of six individuals (average = 10), resulting in a final dataset of 136 individuals from 14
- 310 sampling locations (Fig. 1; Table 1).
- 311

312 Assessing the role of geography and environment in shaping genetic structure

- Pairwise F_{ST} across all quality-filtered SNPs ranged from 0 0.11 (SI Table 2). Mantel tests revealed 313 highly significant correlations between genetic and geographic distance (r = 0.70, $P = 1 \times 10^{-6}$), genetic 314 and environmental distance (r = 0.56, $P = 1 \times 10^{-6}$), and geographic and environmental distance (r = 0.42, 315 $p = 1.8 \times 10^{-4}$) (SI Fig. 2A). Partial Mantel tests revealed the correlation between genetic and 316 317 environmental distance remained significant after accounting for the relationship between genetic and geographic distance (r = 0.42, $p = 3 \times 10^{-4}$; SI Fig. 2) and both geographic and environmental distances 318 were significant in a multiple regression of distance matrices (MRM: $R^2=0.59$; geography $P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$; 319 320 environment $P = 3 \ge 10^{-5}$).
- 321

322 Gradient forest mapping of genotype environment correlations

- 323 More genetic variation was explained by our gradient forest than those generated under randomized 324 environments (SI Fig. 3). A total of 9015 SNPs were correlated with environment with mean $R^2=0.18$, 325 compared to a mean R^2 of 0.13-0.15 across 3489-5633 SNPs for randomized data. We used gradient 326 forest models to identify which climate and vegetation variables were most important in structuring 327 genetic variation in the willow flycatcher and visualize climate-associated allelic variation across the 328 breeding range (Fig. 2 A & B). Seven temperature variables and one precipitation variable were most 329 strongly correlated with genetic variation across the breeding range of willow flycatchers (Table 2). 330 Mapping principal components of gradient forest output revealed putative signals of local adaptation 331 across the US Southwest, the East, the Inter-Mountain West, and the Pacific Northwest geographic regions (Fig. 2C). 332
- 333
- 334 Identification of candidate SNPs for environmental selection

335 To investigate genomic regions potentially involved in climate adaptation, we identified genomic regions 336 associated with the top 8 climatic variables (which explained 49% of the total variation) using Latent 337 Factor Mixed Models (25) (Table 2, SI Table 3). We found 77, 100, 104, 97, 97, 58, 107 and 70 SNPs 338 significantly associated with BIO11, BIO10, BIO5, BIO1, BIO6, BIO9, BIO4 and BIO17 respectively 339 (FDR-corrected p<0.05), with 1 SNP located on chromosome 16, Climate 20, shared among 7 variables. 340 The SNPs were broadly distributed across the genome and within 25 KB of 202 genes with a variety of 341 functions (SI Table 3). We identified 5 genes (BRACA1, RND2, CIITA, ICOS, and UBE2C) that were 342 among the ~300 genes found to be differentially expressed in an RNA-seq analysis of thermal tolerance in 343 chickens (Zhang et al. 2017), two of which were physically linked (BRACA1 and RND2), and an 344 additional 5 genes (Ecel1, SLC23A2, NOX4, PIRT, and GR1N1) with GO terms related to other aspects 345 of thermal tolerance, including respiratory system process, oxidative stress, and response to heat (Rimoldi 346 et al. 2015) (SI Table 4). Three of the 5 genes from the poultry thermal stress study as well as 3 of the 347 genes with potentially relevant GO terms were found to be outliers in association with BIO6 (Fig. 3A). 348 Further, targeted genotyping using Fluidigm SNPtype assays for 18 of the top candidate SNPs in an 349 additional 274 birds from 24 locations validated climate associations in 8/18 SNPs (FDR-corrected 350 p<0.05; SI Table 5). In particular, we found a highly significant relationship between the Climate_20 351 SNP and 7 of the 8 top ranked climate variables in both the genome scan and validation results. While no 352 link between Climate_20 and genes linked to thermal tolerance in birds was found, the highly significant 353 relationship between this SNP and climate variables reflective of the intensity of summer heat waves, 354 such as Mean Temperature of the Warmest Quarter (BIO10), suggests a potential role for this region in 355 climate adaptation (Fig. 3 B, C, and D).

356

357 *Prediction of genomic mismatch and association between vulnerability and abundance*

358 Under a model of future climate change, genomic vulnerability was predicted to be highest in the 359 southern part of the willow flycatcher range (Fig. 4A), corresponding to the range of the Southwestern 360 willow flycatcher subspecies range. Overall, highest genomic vulnerability occurred at sites with 361 especially low abundance, resulting in a significant negative correlation between abundance and genetic 362 vulnerability (r = -0.18; P < 0.001; df = 1382; Fig. 4B, C). Abundance of southwestern willow flycatcher was low across sites and correlation between abundance and vulnerability for this subspecies was 363 364 especially strong (r = -0.49; P = 0.016; df = 27) and weakest for the eastern subspecies region (*traillii*; r = 365 -0.11; P < 0.001; df = 957). While there were regions of high and low genomic vulnerability across the 366 range, the southwestern willow flycatcher subspecies had the highest overall median genomic

367 vulnerability score (Fig. 4D).

368

369 Discussion

370 Climate envelope models are widely used to predict future species distributions (Parmesan & Yohe 2003; 371 Pacifici et al. 2015), but such models do not account for complex biotic interactions (competition, 372 specialization, coevolution, etc.) or barriers to dispersal that may limit range shifts (Williams et al. 2008). 373 Here we show evidence for local adaptation in the willow flycatcher, supporting the idea that climate 374 vulnerability estimates based on a single species distribution model across the entire North American 375 breeding range (Zink 2015) could potentially result in misplaced conservation efforts. Here we move 376 beyond species distribution modeling to identify populations that will need to adapt most to keep pace 377 with climate change - a critically important question for the endangered Southwestern willow flycatcher 378 whose dispersal is known to be limited by proximity to water sources (Friggens & Finch 2015). By 379 calculating the difference between current genotype-environment relationships and those predicted under 380 future climate change, we identify regions of highest vulnerability in the southern part of the willow 381 flycatcher range. A comparison of the average genomic vulnerability across all currently recognized 382 subspecies strongly supports the view that allele frequencies in the endangered Southwestern willow 383 flycatcher will have to evolve most to keep pace with climate change. Significant correlations between 384 estimates of genomic vulnerability and abundance from Breeding Bird Survey data confirm that already 385 rare populations in the Southwest and throughout the range have the highest genomic vulnerability, 386 suggesting that climate change may have already had an impact on population declines in regions at the 387 edge of the species niche. Our results demonstrate how the incorporation of genotype-environment 388 relationships into models of climate vulnerability can improve predictions of climate-induced impacts 389 below the species level.

390

391 Assessing the extent of intraspecific variation in climate tolerances is an important first step towards 392 understanding species vulnerability to climate change. Here we investigate the relationship between 393 genetic, geographic and environmental distance in the willow flycatcher and find consistent support for 394 the conclusion both geography and environment are important to genetic divergence in the willow 395 flycatcher (SI Fig. 2). Mapping putatively adaptive genetic variation using gradient forest-transformed 396 climate variables supports the idea that the Pacific Northwest, the Southwest, the East, and the Inter-397 Mountain West harbor unique genotype-environment correlations. More specifically, our results support 398 the idea that high maximum temperatures during the warmest month (BIO5) are important to genotype-399 environment correlations in the Southwest, while genotype-environment relationships in the Pacific 400 Northwest are driven by environmental variables such as precipitation during the driest quarter (BIO17) 401 and mean temperatures during the coldest quarter (Figs. 2 & 3). In contrast, genotype-environment

402 correlations in Inter-Mountain West and Eastern populations, center closer zero in the PCA (Fig. 2A),

403 indicating a more moderate impact of climate variables underling climate adaptation in this area. In sum,

- 404 our results support the idea that genotype-environment correlations in the willow flycatcher are complex,
- 405 involving multiple environmental variables and genomic regions and such information can be used to help
- 406 refine estimates of future climate vulnerability.
- 407

408 Adaptation to local environments often occurs through natural selection acting on a large number of loci, 409 each with a small effect on phenotype (Orr 2005). Here we identify putative loci important to local 410 adaptation in the willow flycatcher, after accounting for underlying population structure, and find 411 between 58 – 107 SNPs significantly associated with each of the top 8 environmental variables (SI Table 412 3). Independent validation of our top climate-associated SNPs in 274 new individuals from 24 413 populations revealed that 8 of our top 18 loci were likely robust to Type 1 error. While such error is a 414 problem common to all association studies (McCarthy et al. 2008), the high number of false positives in 415 our data underscores the idea that genotype-environment associations that cannot be validated should be 416 interpreted with caution. Highly significant associations between Climate 20 and 7 of our 8 top-ranked 417 environmental variables in both the genome scan and validation datasets provides the strongest evidence 418 for local adaptation across the willow flycatcher genome (Fig. 3). While no associations between 419 Climate 20 and genes known to be important to thermal tolerance in birds were identified, the 420 relationship between allele frequency variation in this SNP and Mean Temperature of the Warmest 421 Quarter (BIO5) suggests a potential role for this region in adaptation to temperature extremes. Overall, 422 our results are in keeping with the idea that willow flycatchers exhibit region-specific genotype-climate 423 associations that should be considered when assessing the capacity for endangered populations of the 424 Southwestern willow flycatcher to shift their range in response to rising global temperatures. 425 While genotype-environment correlations have been noted across a variety of plant and animal systems, 426 the mechanisms behind such local adaptation remain less well understood. Recent work on birds supports 427 the idea that exposure to high temperatures can result in dehydration and heat stress related mortality 428 (Albright et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2017). As a first step towards understanding the genomic basis of 429 adaptation to temperature in the willow flycatcher, we identify genes within 25KB of our top-ranking 430 climate-associated SNPs (SI Table 4). Our strongest evidence for genes and gene regions that may be 431 important to climate adaptation in this species comes from the overlap between five genes in our panel 432 (BRACA1, RND2, CIITA, ICOS, and UBE2C) and those that were also found to be differentially 433 expressed in a thermal tolerance study in poultry (Zhang et al. 2017). More specifically, Zang et al (2016) 434 concluded that expression of these genes was linked to the dissipation of heat through increased heart 435 pumping and blood circulation in smaller breeds of chickens. These results are consistent with the recent

436 work by Albright et al (2017) who found that small passerines in the Desert Southwest were particularly 437 prone to mortality resulting from the failure to maintain body temperatures below lethal limits. While 438 more research is needed, it is possible that physiological pathways responsible for overheating are related 439 to those involved in interspecific adaptation to temperature extremes. Further, while limited gene 440 annotation information for non-model organisms makes us cautious about placing significance on GO 441 term analyses (Stein 2001), we also note the presence of four genes (Ecel1, SLC23A2, NOX4, PIRT, and 442 GRIN1) with GO terms related to heat stress, thermal tolerance, and oxidative stress. Future efforts will focus on validating gene environment correlations at putative heat stress related loci as well as 443 444 investigating the extent to which the genes identified here may serve as a mechanism for adaptation to 445 temperature extremes in the willow flycatcher.

446

447 Desert ecosystems are home to some of the world's rarest species, many of which are already threatened 448 by climate change (Loarie *et al.* 2009). Methods for assessing climate change impacts that rely on single 449 species distribution models may overlook the importance of local adaptation in the ability of populations 450 to respond to environmental shifts, potentially leading to misplaced conservation efforts. The US Fish 451 and Wildlife Service was considering removing the Southwestern willow flycatcher from the endangered 452 species list, in part because of a single species distribution model that showed no evidence of habitat 453 specialization across the range. Here we annotate the first willow flycatcher genome and use population-454 level, genome-wide sequencing to show that willow flycatchers are not a single homogenous group, but a 455 composite of locally adapted populations with specific genotype-environment relationships related to 456 differences in temperature extremes. Clear evidence for local adaptation across the range highlights the 457 need for management efforts below the species level if locally adapted populations are to be conserved. 458 Estimates of the mismatch between current genotype-environment correlations and those predicted under 459 future climate indicate that the Southwestern subspecies is at the greatest risk of climate-induced 460 extinction. Our findings support the idea that protection or enhancement of riparian thermal refuges (Chen 461 1999) within regions of lower genomic vulnerability in the desert Southwest may be the most effective 462 strategy for conserving remaining populations of flycatchers by buffering them from temperature 463 extremes.

464

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Table 1. Sample location information. $N_{RAD_nofilter}$ = number of idividuals for genome-wide RAD dataset before filtering for readdepth and missing data , NRAD_filter = number of remaining post-filtering, Nvalidation = number of individuals in the SNPvalidation dataset.

Location	Latitude	Longitude	N _{RAD}	N _{RAD_filter}	$\mathbf{N}_{validation}$

East Pima, AZ	32.83	-109.7	-	-	8
San Pedro/Gila River confluence, AZ	32.98	-110.77	18	14	17
West Fort Ditch, NM	33.04	-108.54	-	-	11
San Carlos Reservation, AZ	33.2	-110.44	-	-	30
San Diego, CA	33.28	-117.37	14	4	6
Roosevelt Lake, AZ	33.77	-111.24	20	10	18
White Mountains, AZ	34.00	-109.00	15	13	15
Camp Verde, AZ	34.56	-111.84	-	-	17
Santa Ynez River, CA	34.62	-120.18	-	-	8
Zuni/Nutria Diversion Reservation, NM	35.24	-108.64	-	-	8
South Fork Kern River, CA	35.66	-118.46	20	13	11
Southern Ute Reservation, CO	37.12	-107.59	-	-	6
Pahranagat Lake NWR, NV	37.32	-115.13	-	-	6
Owen's River at Bishop, CA	37.41	-118.48	-	-	12
Alamosa National Wildlife Refuge, CO	37.5	-106	-	_	17
Beaver Creek, CO	37.68	-108.38	-	-	6
Clear Creek, CO	37.79	-108.24	-	-	8
Baltimore Area, MD	39.4	-76.99	_	_	8
Escalante State Wildlife Area, CO	39.47	-106.37	_	_	13
Fish Creek, UT	39.78	-111.20	14	11	_
Rio Blanco Lake, CO	40.09	-108.21	_	_	7
Orefield, PA	40.66	-75.67	21	21	_
White River Confl. to the Green River, UT	40.67	-109.68	7	6	_
Willow Slew, IN	40.98	-87.53	4	4	_
Bigelow Meadows, CA	41.26	-121.88	7	6	_
Agusta, MI	42.3	-85.32	_	_	9
Mink Creek, ID	42.75	-112.39	6	6	_
Malheur NWR, OR	42.83	-118.87	7	6	_
FCTC-SABO, MI	42.84	-85.30	4	4	6
Jones Creek, OR	43.04	-123.97	10	10	_
Little White River Rec. Area, SD	43.17	-101.53	4	4	6
Black Creek, NY	43.38	-73.91	6	4	_
Fall Creek 2, ID	43.43	-111.40	7	7	_
Marion Forks, OR	44.37	-122.02	_	_	14
Finley NWR, OR	44.41	-123.35	3	0	_
Priem Road, OR	44.78	-123.38	7	6	_
Elm Creek, MN	45.13	-93.45	4	0	6
Waubay NWR, SD	45.40	-97.33	4	4	_
Hamon Memorial, MT	45.95	-114.13	5	4	_
Carbondale (Edgwick), WA	47.09	-122.05	8	7	-
Fork clearcut, WA	47.97	-124.40	4	4	-
Total	-	-	219	168	273

Table 2. Environmental variables used in the gradient forest analysis, ordered by ranked importance of variables

and the cumulative contribution of each variable. The top eight environmental variables represent 49% of the total.

Variable	Definition	GF Rank	Cumulative Contribution
BIO11 *	Mean Temperature of Coldest Quarter	8.03E-04	7.66
BIO10	Mean Temperature of Warmest Quarter	6.71E-04	14.40
BIO1	Annual Mean Temperature	6.41E-04	21.05
BIO5*	Max Temperature of Warmest Month	6.40E-04	27.47
BIO6	Min Temperature of Coldest Month	5.79E-04	32.90
BIO4*	Temperature Seasonality (standard deviation *100)	5.20E-04	38.30
BIO9	Mean Temperature of Driest Quarter	4.91E-04	43.64
BIO17*	Precipitation of Driest Quarter	4.78E-04	48.76
NDVI_Mean	Vegetation Indicies	4.50E-04	53.18
BIO15	Precipitation Seasonality (Coefficient of Variation)	4.28E-04	57.39
BIO7	Temperature Annual Range (BIO5-BIO6)	3.75E-04	61.41
TreeCover	Tree Cover	3.72E-04	65.41
BIO14	Precipitation of Driest Month	3.64E-04	69.36
BIO16	Precipitation of Wettest Quarter	3.09E-04	72.75
BIO19	Precipitation of Coldest Quarter	2.96E-04	76.04
BIO2*	Mean Diurnal Range (Mean of monthly (max temp - min temp))	2.90E-04	79.31
BIO8*	Mean Temperature of Wettest Quarter	2.87E-04	82.49
BIO13	Precipitation of Wettest Month	2.82E-04	85.63
STM	Elevation	2.21E-04	88.36
BIO12	Annual Precipitation	2.12E-04	90.98
BIO3	Isothermality (BIO2/BIO7) (* 100)	2.07E-04	93.54
QuickScat	Surface moisture characteristics	2.02E-04	95.87
BIO18	Precipitation of Warmest Quarter	1.92E-04	98.17
NDVI_StDev	Vegetation Indicies	1.81E-04	100.00

* Top ranked, uncorrelated climate variables used for Gradient Forest mapping and distance matrix comparison analyses.

These variables were selected by moving down the list of ranked importance for the full model and discarding

variables highly correlated (Pearson's r>7) with a variable of higher importance.

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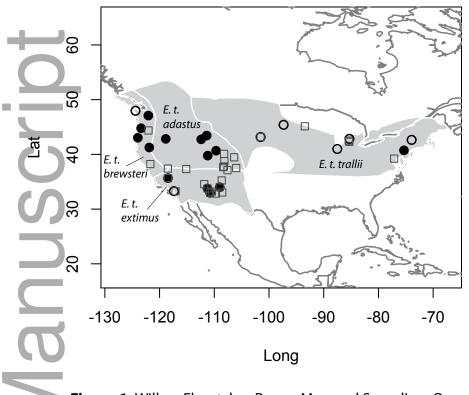


Figure 1. Willow Flycatcher Range Map and Sampling. Open and closed circles represent the data used in distance matrix comparison tests, while only populations represented by closed circles were used in the Gradient Forest analysis. Open gray boxes represent populations used to validate gene-environment correlations. Lines represent currently recognized subspecies boundaries according to Sogge et al (1997). *E. t. brewsteri* = Pacific Coastal, *E.t. adastus* = Interior West, *E. t. trallii* = East, and *E. t. extimus* = Southwest.

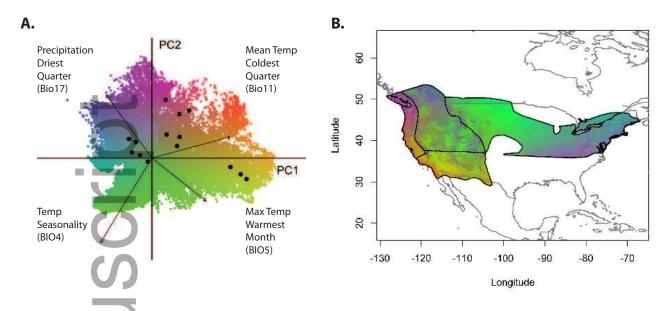
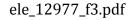


Figure 2. Mapping gene-environment correlations across the willow flycatcher breeding range. A) Principal components analysis of gradient forest-transformed climate variables. Black dots represent the PC scores associated with the sampling locations, while colors are based upon modeled gene-environment correlations from 100,000 random points across the breeding range. Arrows show the loadings of the top ranked uncorrelated environmental variables. B) Gradient forest-transformed climate variables from the PCA mapped to geography support climate adaptation across the breeding range. Black lines designating approximate subspecies locations support the idea that while subspecies are adapted to distinct ecological regions, climate adaption is complex.

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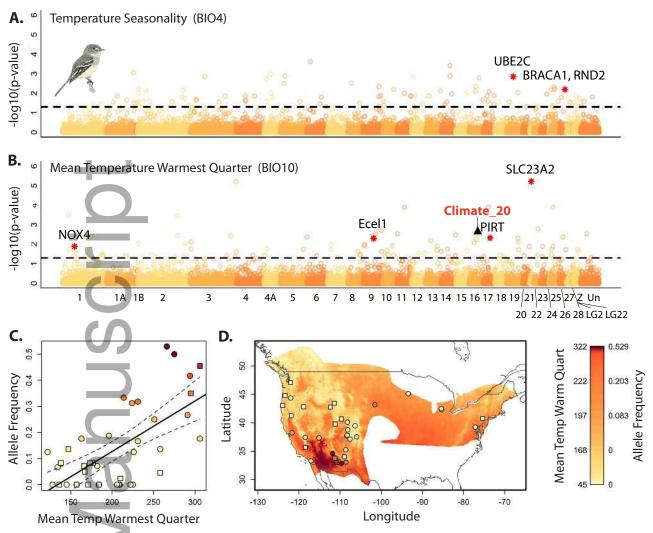


Figure 3. Candidate SNPs linked to temperature in the Willow flycatchers. A) Manhattan plot showing the FDR-corrected significance level for SNPs associated with Temperature Seasonality (BIO4) and B) Mean Temperature of the Warmest Quarter (BIO10). Dashed line represents p=0.05. Colors distinguish different chromosomes. Candidate genes linked to thermal tolerance in birds are highlighted by red stars and denoted with gene names, while Climate_20, the SNP validated in B and C below, is denoted by a black triangle. No link between Climate_20 and genes linked to thermal tolerance in birds was found, but the highly significant relationship between this SNP and 7 of the 8 top ranked climate variables (except temperature seasonality shown in A above) in both the genome scan and validation results (SI Table 5) suggest a potential role for this region in climate adaptation. C) Relationship between Climate_20 and mean temperature of the warmest quarter in genome scan and SNP validation datasets. The allele frequencies from the original genome scan data are denoted by squares, while allele frequencies based upon the validation set are denoted by circles. D) The association between Mean Temperature of the Warmest Quarter (BIO10) and Climate_20 across geographic space, with population allele frequencies color coded from high frequency (red) to low (yellow).

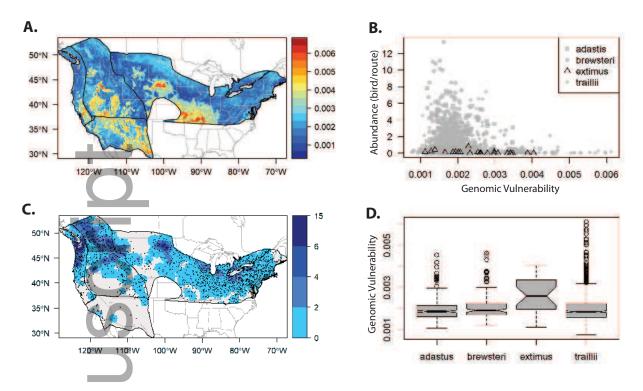


Figure 4. Genomic Vulnerability and abundance in the Willow Flycatcher. A) Map of genomic vulnerability across the Willow Flycatcher breeding range. Red = high genomic vulnerability, blue = low genomic vulnerability, lines indicate subspecies boundaries. B) Genomic Vulnerability versus abundance based upon the estimated mean number of birds/ route in 2011-2015 Breeding Bird Survey. C) Estimates of relative abundance from the BBS based on inverse-distance weighting interpolation. Points indicate the BBS routes where Willow Flycatchers have been recorded. Points in the grey areas fall in regions where abundance was too low or distant from other detection routes to be included in the BBS spatial model. D) Quantile box plots of the median Genomic Vulnerability broken down by subspecies. Open circles represent outliers.

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