

# The effect of landscape on functional connectivity and shell shape in the land snail *Humboldtiana durangoensis* (#45428)

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First submission

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# The effect of landscape on functional connectivity and shell shape in the land snail *Humboldtiana durangoensis*

Benjamín López<sup>1</sup>, Omar Mejía<sup>Corresp., 1</sup>, Gerardo Zúñiga<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Laboratorio de Variación Biológica y Evolución, Departamento de Zoología, Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Mexico City, Mexico

Corresponding Author: Omar Mejía  
Email address: homarmeja@hotmail.com

The populations of *Humboldtiana durangoensis* have experienced a drastic reduction in the effective population size; in addition, the species is threatened by anthropogenic activities. For the aforementioned, landscape genetics will serve as a tool to define the potential evolutionarily significant units (ESU) for this species. To complete our objective, we evaluated the effect of cover vegetation and climate on the functional connectivity of the species from the LGM to the present as well as the effect of climate on shell shape. Partial Mantel tests, distance-based redundancy analysis and a Bayesian framework were used to evaluate connectivity. On the other hand, geometric morphometrics, phylogenetic principal component analysis and redundancy analysis were used for the analysis of shell shape. Our results suggest that the suitable areas have been decreasing since the LGM; also, vegetation cover rather than climate has influenced the genetic connectivity among land snail populations, although temperature had a high influence on shell shape in this species. In conclusion, vegetation cover was the main factor that determined the functional connectivity for the land snail; however, local selective pressures led to different phenotypes in shell shape that allowed us to postulate that each one of the previously defined genetic groups must be considered as a different ESU.



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48 **Abstract**

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51 the effective population size; in addition, the species is threatened by anthropogenic  
52 activities. For the aforementioned, landscape genetics will serve as a tool to define the  
53 potential evolutionarily significant units (ESU) for this species. To complete our  
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66 a different ESU.

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94 **Introduction**

95 Species dispersal can be affected not only by essential processes (e.g., the movement,  
96 mating, and reproductive fitness of the individuals) but also by ecological and  
97 topographical factors (e.g., abiotic variables, land cover, line features and landforms)  
98 associated with the landscape (Manel et al. 2003; McRae et al. 2008). Especially in land  
99 snails, dispersal is a process that is highly dependent on a set of variables associated  
100 with the landscape, such as climate and vegetation cover, which represent a high  
101 physiological cost for the snail (Dörge et al. 1999; Schweiger et al. 2004; Hylander et al.  
102 2005; Aubry et al. 2006). Thus, in a heterogeneous landscape, the differentiation  
103 between populations may be increased not only by the historical events and  
104 microevolutionary factors but also by the ecological and topographical factors that  
105 determine the habitat or structural connectivity (McRae 2006; McRae et al. 2008; Bell et  
106 al. 2010).

107         Due to their low vagility, patchy distribution and preference for particular  
108 microhabitats (Dörge et al. 1999; Hylander et al. 2005; Aubry et al. 2006), land snails  
109 are excellent models for exploring the effects of landscape on the movement of  
110 individuals among suitable patches, or in other words, on the functional connectivity  
111 (Tischendorf and Fahrig 2000). The effect of the Pleistocene climate changes on the  
112 phylogeographical structure and demographic history of land snails has been widely  
113 documented (Ross 1999; Haase et al. 2003; Davison and Chiba 2006; Holland and  
114 Cowie 2007; Dépraz et al. 2008; Guiller and Madec 2010); as well as changes in  
115 vegetation cover that have caused a decline in abundance and species density  
116 (Hylander et al. 2004). However, neither the effect of vegetation cover nor the effect of  
117 the climate on functional connectivity have been explored yet.

118         The snails of the genus *Humboldtiana* represent a group of nearly 60 species  
119 that have an insular distribution in the mountainous regions from South Texas and New  
120 Mexico to Central Mexico (Thompson 2006, Mejía and Zuñiga 2007). Many species  
121 have very small ranges, with the exception of three species that are widely distributed  
122 (Mejía et al. 2018). *H. durangoensis* is distributed in the Madreñse Centro ecoregion of  
123 the Sierra Madre Occidental in Durango state, mainly in cold temperate forests in an

124 altitudinal gradient ranging from 1600 to 2800 m asl. This vegetation community has  
125 historically been exploited in Durango state and has also experienced droughts and  
126 fires that have led to fragmentation and habitat loss (Aragón-Piña et al. 2010). For these  
127 reasons, forest loss has turned into a global conservation issue due to its effect on  
128 biodiversity (Fahrig 2003).

129 Conservation efforts in several countries have traditionally been focused on  
130 “surrogate” species, which can create the umbrella effect for other sympatric species  
131 and, at the same time, serve to attract attention and funding (Caro and O’Doherty  
132 2001). Illustrative examples of this situation in Mexico are the efforts to recover the tiny  
133 vaquita porpoise (*Phocoena sinus*) and the Mexican wolf (*Canis lupus baileyi*).  
134 Nevertheless, very few efforts have been conducted to preserve “non-charismatic  
135 species” such as land snails. In fact, none of the nearly 1500 species of native land  
136 snails that occur in Mexico (Thompson and Hubert 2011) is included in the Mexican law  
137 for endangered species or in the IUCN Red List, a situation that highly contrasts with  
138 European land snails (Cuttelod et al. 2011); at the same time, few studies of the  
139 phylogeographic structure or population genetics have been performed with Mexican  
140 land snails (López et al. 2017; López et al. 2019).

141 On the other hand, while there is a lack of agreement on how to define an  
142 evolutionarily significant unit (ESU) (but see the review in Fraser and Bernatchez 2001),  
143 we agree with those proposals that suggest that ESUs must include genetic, ecological  
144 and morphological differentiation (Crandall et al. 2000) that reflect the adaptive  
145 distinctiveness. Previous papers have evaluated the population genetics and  
146 phylogeographic structure of *H. durangoensis* in the Madreñse Centro region using  
147 microsatellite DNA markers and mitochondrial and nuclear DNA (López et al. 2017;  
148 López et al. 2019). The microsatellite analysis recovered seven genetic groups and  
149 signals of a strong genetic bottleneck in the populations, while the mitochondrial and  
150 nuclear DNA sequences found three main genetic groups that also showed signals of  
151 drastic reduction in the effective population size.

152 To evaluate the effects of vegetation cover and local climatic variables on the  
153 genetic differentiation of the snail *H. durangoensis*, we analyzed the functional  
154 connectivity in three temporal frames: the last glacial maximum (21,000 years bp), the



155 middle Holocene (6000 years bp) and the present. In addition, we evaluated the effect  
156 of the climate on shell size and shape using phylogenetic comparative methods.  
157 Despite the lack of agreement regarding the effects of the climate on shell traits, a  
158 strong relationship between the phenotype, genetic variation and climate would be  
159 expected (Dowle et al. 2015), because land snails as other groups with low vagility and  
160 dispersal abilities, tend to develop local morphological adaptations due to restrictive  
161 gene flow (Fitzpatrick 2012; Pfenninger and Posada 2002). Both approaches together  
162 will allow us to postulate the ESU for this land snail in the Sierra Madre Occidental in  
163 Western Mexico.

## 164 **Methodology**

### 165 *Resistance surfaces*

166 The geographic centroids of each one of the seven genetic groups of *H. durangoensis*  
167 previously defined by microsatellite loci by López et al. (2017) were used to determine  
168 the effect of the landscape on functional connectivity (Fig. 1). Whereas the landscape  
169 can include a large number of variables, in the present work, we followed two  
170 approximations to evaluate the functional connectivity between snail populations. The  
171 first was to use an approximation of the Grinnellian niche defined from a set of  
172 bioclimatic variables (Bell et al. 2010; Ortego et al. 2012; Poelchau and Hamrick 2012);  
173 the second was to analyze the effect of vegetation cover, because it is known that it  
174 affects the dispersion of terrestrial snails (Labaune and Magnin 2002; Armbruster et al.  
175 2007; Ström et al. 2009; Edworthy et al. 2012; Kappes et al. 2009), especially in  
176 mountain populations where periods of glaciation and deglaciation promoted the  
177 contraction and expansion of vegetation cover (Armbruster et al. 2007). In both cases,  
178 the different models were generated for three different time frames, including the current  
179 period and two time periods representing the extreme conditions experienced during the  
180 late quaternary: the middle Holocene (6000 years bp), which was warmer and wetter  
181 than the present, and the last glacier maximum (LGM), which was characterized by dry  
182 and colder climates (21,000 years bp).

183 To reduce the error in the parameterization, validation, and comparison of the  
184 models (Barve et al. 2011), the available geographic space for the taxon (M) was  
185 defined as the Ecoregion Madreña Centro (González-Elizondo et al. 2013). Grinnellian

186 niche models were constructed with the 19 climatic variables available in WorldClim  
187 (Hijmans et al. 2005) and the 18 climatic and topographic variables available in  
188 ENVIREM (Title and Bemmels 2018). The models were made at a resolution of 30 arc-  
189 seconds, but in the case of the last glacial maximum (LGM), the variables were used at  
190 their native resolution of 2.5 minutes, and a bilinear interpolation was performed to  
191 decrease the resolution to 30 arc-seconds with the disaggregate function of the raster  
192 library ver. 2.6-7 in R (Hijmans 2017). The atmospheric circulation model used was the  
193 MPI-ESM-P, since it has shown better performance with respect to other models of  
194 circulation (Tang et al. 2017).- The bioclimatic variables were clipped to the geographic  
195 space with the crop and mask functions of the raster library ver. 2.6-7 in R (Hijmans  
196 2017).

### 197 *Species niche model*

198 The environmental suitability areas were defined by a maximum entropy algorithm  
199 (MAXENT v. 3.2.19, Phillips et al. 2006) from 28 records of *H. durangoensis* available in  
200 museums and our own collections. We selected this algorithm because it produces  
201 reliable results even with a small quantity of data (Elith et al. 2006; Heikkinen et al.  
202 2006; Hernandez et al. 2006). In a preliminary analysis, the 19 WorldClim and 18  
203 ENVIREM variables were included with the default parameters and log output to  
204 minimize the correlation and maximize their contributions to the model. The relative  
205 importance of each variable was determined from its percentage of contribution and for  
206 the loss of predictive power when each variable was excluded using a jackknife test. In  
207 addition, to select those variables with correlation coefficients lower than 0.6,  
208 environmental information was extracted from each geographic point, and a Pearson  
209 correlation test was performed with the function `corr.test` in the `psych` library of R  
210 (Revelle 2018). Thus, the geographic distribution model was obtained with the selected  
211 variables and assumed 10,000 pseudoabsence points separated by one kilometer from  
212 the presence records (Barbet-Massin et al. 2012). The statistical evaluation of the  
213 model was carried out in 10 repetitions and the data were partitioned into 75% for  
214 training and 25% for evaluation with a logistical output. The predictive power of the  
215 model was evaluated using a partial ROC test with 100 bootstrap replicates (Barve

216 2008). Finally, the suitability area available for the species in each temporal frame was  
217 estimated with the DEM surface tools in ArcGIS 10.

### 218 *Vegetation models*

219 The random forest (RF) classification algorithm was used to obtain the modeled  
220 vegetation cover (Breiman 2001). This method categorizes a set of data based on the  
221 classification and regression of the trees from a bootstrap analysis (Breiman 2001). The  
222 INE-INEGI (1997) vegetation cover map was used as an input file. Because this  
223 classification contains many vegetation types for the Madrense Centro ecoregion, prior  
224 to the analysis, the vegetation types were reclassified into five categories based on the  
225 ombrothermal horizons of the Sierra Madre Occidental (Macías-Rodríguez et al. 2017):  
226 (1) temperate forests, (2) cold temperate forests, (3) grasslands, (4) tropical forests and  
227 (5) drylands. The model was trained to take into account the variables sets of BIOCLIM  
228 and ENVIREM and to select only those that explained more than 50% of the variation  
229 based on the mean decrease accuracy criterion; these models were made with the  
230 randomForest 4.6-14 library in R (Breiman 2001).

### 231 *Isolation by resistance*

232 To evaluate the resistance of the landscape between the genetic groups, the resistance  
233 isolation model (IBR) was implemented in CIRCUITSCAPE 3.4.2 (McRae 2006). This  
234 method produces a resistance/conductance matrix between the pairs of sites that are  
235 obtained by assigning an arbitrary resistance/conductance value per pixel  
236 corresponding to the relative resistance of the landscape to the genetic flow. The result  
237 was a resistance value that depended on the distance between the localities, the  
238 number of possible pathways and the heterogeneity of the landscape (McRae 2006).  
239 The following resistance values were assigned to the forest structure: 60 (cold  
240 temperate forests), 110 (temperate forests), 200 (grasslands), 300 (tropical forests) and  
241 360 (drylands).

242 For the surface derived from the niche modeling, resistance values were  
243 assigned considering five symmetrical categories defined by the range between the  
244 minimum training presence (MTP) and the highest suitability value obtained by the  
245 Maxent model. The values were assigned with the ifelse and raster R libraries (Hijmans  
246 et al. 2005), and three different approaches were used to evaluate the relationship

247 between the paired  $F_{ST}$  values among the seven genetic groups (López et al. 2017) and  
248 resistance values. Three matrices were considered in this analysis: the genetic paired  
249 distances, the log<sub>10</sub>-transformed Euclidean geographical distances, and the paired  
250 resistance distances obtained from CIRCUITSCAPE for the two evaluated resistance  
251 surfaces (climate and vegetation). In the first approximation, the Mantel partial test was  
252 used to evaluate the effects of the two variables while controlling for the effect of a  
253 third. The significance of the partial correlation of the Mantel test was obtained by 1000  
254 random permutations using the `partial.mantel.test` function of the `NFC` library (Bjørnstad  
255 2013). In the second approach, a distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) was  
256 used in the `vegan 2.5` library (Oksanen et al. 2013) considering the genetic distances,  
257 geographic distances, and the effect of vegetation cover, as well as the effect of the  
258 climatic distances on the mean of the resistance values (Noguerales et al. 2016). The  
259 characterization of the environmental space was performed with the `randomPoints`  
260 function in R that generated 1000 random geographic points and with the `extract`  
261 function to obtain the climatic point value per site. Then, the `main` function in R was  
262 used to perform the PCA, and later, the `dist` function in R was used to obtain the  
263 eigenvalues of the environmental distances for the first three components considering  
264 only the loadings of the geographic points corresponding to the genetic groups; finally,  
265 the significance of the dbRDA was evaluated with the `anova.cca` function in R. Lastly, in  
266 the third approach, given that in the two previous analyses the climate component was  
267 not significant (see Tables 1 and 2), we only evaluate the effects of geography (G),  
268 vegetation cover (E) and both (G + E) on functional connectivity through a Bayesian  
269 framework implemented in the `Sunder 0.0.4` library (Botta et al. 2015). The algorithm  
270 implemented in `SUNDER` assumed that the covariance of the allelic frequencies among  
271 the populations would decrease as a function of the geographical and environmental  
272 distances (Botta et al. 2015). Thus, to estimate the effect of the set of G, E, and G+E  
273 variables, 10 independent chains with  $10^7$  iterations and sampling every 1000 steps  
274 were used with uniform priors with large upper bounds (Botta et al. 2015).

### 275 *Shell morphometrics*

276 A total of 129 shells of *H. durangoensis* adults from the seven genetic groups used by  
277 López et al. (2017) were analysed: Las Peñas (20), El Salto (8), Progreso (3), Topia (7),

278 Potrero (46), Los Herreras (25) and Guanaceví (20). The shape of the shell was  
279 obtained using two approaches: a classical approach that assumed four linear shell  
280 measurements (height, SH; width, SW; aperture height, AH; maximum aperture width,  
281 AW) obtained with a digital micrometer with an accuracy of 0.01 mm; in addition,  
282 globosity ( $G=SH/WD$ ), spiral height ( $SP=SH-AH$ ) and shell volume ( $V$ ) were calculated  
283 (Fig. S1). These variables were transformed to  $\log_{10}$  to remove the allometric effect  
284 associated with growth following the method described by Mosimann (1970). Finally, the  
285 eigenvalues of the mean and the centroid values for each one of the genetic groups  
286 were recovered from a principal component analysis (PCA) for posterior analysis  
287 (Harigan et al. 1979). On the other hand, the shell shape was evaluated from 11  
288 landmarks according to Mumladze et al. (2013) (Fig. S1). Following the method  
289 proposed by Kistner and Dybdahi (2012), a total of five photos were taken per individual  
290 to eliminate the error associated with the orientation. The X/Y coordinates were digitized  
291 in TPSDIG ver 2.12 (Rohlf 2008). The average shape per genetic group was obtained  
292 from a generalized Procrustes analysis (GPA) with the gpagen function implemented in  
293 geomorph 3.0.7 (Adams et al. 2019). To eliminate the phylogenetic effect on the  
294 variation in shell shape, a phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) was  
295 performed considering the shell shape of both, classical and geometric morphometrics  
296 approaches and a tree based on distances generated from  $F_{ST}$  values with the function  
297 phyl.pca in phytools (Revell 2012). Lastly, to determine whether there was a relationship  
298 between the shell shape and environmental conditions, a redundancy analysis (RDA)  
299 was performed considering the three matrices generated (means, centroids and  
300 geometric morphometrics) with the rda function following the method proposed by  
301 Borcard et al. (2018) in the vegan library ver 2.5 (Oksanen et al. 2013).

## 302 **Results**

303 Six variables made the greatest contribution to the model of the potential distribution:  
304 isothermality (Bio3), the minimum temperature of the coldest month (Bio6), the  
305 precipitation of the wettest month (Bio 13), the precipitation of the driest month (Bio 14),  
306 the precipitation of the coldest month (Bio 19), and the climatic humidity index. For the  
307 potential vegetation model, 11 variables were selected: isothermality (Bio 3),  
308 temperature seasonality (Bio 4), the annual temperature range (Bio 7), the annual

309 precipitation (Bio 12), the driest month precipitation (Bio 13), the seasonality of  
310 precipitation (Bio 15), the coldest quartile precipitation (Bio 19), the average monthly  
311 evapotranspiration potential of driest quarter (PETDriestQuarter), the monthly variability  
312 in evapotranspiration potential (PETseasonality), the average monthly  
313 evapotranspiration potential of the warmest quarter (PETWarmestQuarter), and the  
314 average evapotranspiration potential of the wettest quarter (PETWettestQuarter).

### 315 *Environmental suitability and vegetation models*

316 The results obtained for the modeling of the distribution area of *H. durangoensis* in the  
317 Madreña Centro region showed that the models constructed for the three temporal  
318 frames were satisfactory ( $P = 0$ ). In general, our findings suggested that the areas of  
319 environmental suitability had decreased considerably in the last 21,000 years (38197  
320 km<sup>2</sup> or 28.5% of the total area in the LGM, 32945 km<sup>2</sup> or 24.5% in the mid Holocene and  
321 23620 km<sup>2</sup> or 17.6% in the current). Our findings show that at present, the areas with  
322 high probability of occurrence are restricted to the northern portion of the distribution  
323 area (Fig. 1). The model of vegetation cover generated from the current vegetation map  
324 with random forest showed that the estimated success rate was 76.77% for the LGM,  
325 77.48% for the Middle Holocene and 75.57% for the current period (Table S1). In  
326 addition, in the last 21,000 years, a variation in the coverage area of each plant  
327 community was estimated, and the temperate forests increased the most, while the  
328 grasslands decreased the most (Table S1, Fig. S2).

### 329 *Resistance and functional connectivity*

330 The maps generated by CIRCUITSCAPE considering the structure of the vegetation  
331 cover suggested that the connectivity routes between the *H. durangoensis* genetic  
332 groups in the Central Madreña region have changed little in the last 21,000 years,  
333 although in the actual period, the areas of high resistance are larger compared to those  
334 in the LGM (Table 1, Fig. S2). The resistance surface from the environmental suitability  
335 models for the Mantel test and Mantel partial tests were not significant (Table 2, Fig.  
336 S3). On the other hand, when considering the effects of vegetation cover, the Mantel  
337 test between the values of  $F_{ST}$  and vegetation cover was once again not significant in  
338 any of the three time frames; however, the Mantel partial tests yielded significant  
339 correlations when controlling for the effects of geography and vegetation cover in the

340 three time periods (Table 2). In the case of the redundancy analysis, the marginal tests  
341 for the three time frames showed a significant association between the genetic  
342 differentiation and geographic distance, explaining 24.26% of the variance, but were not  
343 significant when the resistance distances generated from the vegetation cover or from  
344 the climatic variables were considered (Table 3). In contrast, in the conditional tests as  
345 in the Mantel partial test, a relationship was again observed with the structure of the  
346 vegetation cover but not with that of the climate (Table 3). With respect to the results  
347 generated by SUNDER, when the climatic component was no longer considered, it was  
348 observed that during the LGM, it was the geographic component that best explained the  
349 variation, while for the Middle Holocene and the actual period, both the geographic  
350 component and the vegetation cover were important (Table 4).

#### 351 *Variation in shell size and shape*

352 The values estimated from the morphometrics classical approach allow us to establish  
353 that the populations located in the north of the distribution area (Topia, Potrero, Los  
354 Herreras and Guanaceví) had larger sizes and higher spires in comparison with the  
355 populations in the center (Progreso) and south (Las Peñas and El Salto) of the  
356 distribution area (Table 5). The percentage of variance explained by the first three  
357 phylogenetic components was 99.47% for the means of the linear variables, 99.98% for  
358 the centroid size and 91.84% for the average shape obtained from the analysis of the  
359 geometric morphometrics. Finally, the redundancy analysis obtained from the analysis  
360 of the first three phylogenetic components was statistically significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). The  
361 bioclimatic variables associated with each dataset were different, although in all cases,  
362 they were exclusively temperature variables, with the temperature annual range (Bio 7)  
363 being the only common variable (Fig. 2). Although it was difficult to establish a pattern,  
364 the data retrieved from **geometric morphometric analysis** allowed us to suggest that  
365 larger shells with higher spirals are related to the max temperature of the warmest  
366 month (Bio 5), while smaller shells with the lower spirals were related to the temperature  
367 annual range (Bio 7) and mean temperature of the wettest quarter (Bio 8) (Fig. 2).

## 368 **Discussion**

### 369 *Effects of the landscape on functional connectivity*

370 The functional connectivity in terrestrial snails was determined by the availability  
371 of microhabitats suitable for dispersal. Our findings showed that the variables related to  
372 the humidity and relative aridity of the terrain, as well as the precipitation of the driest  
373 and the wettest month, had a greater contribution to the potential distribution model  
374 generated by Maxent. These variables were related to the apparent rupture of the  
375 estivation period in May and to the period of activity and dispersion between July and  
376 September, as has been suggested for other members of the group (Baur 1986; Aubry  
377 et al. 2006). However, the climate component defined through the environmental  
378 suitability analysis with the MAXENT maximum entropy algorithm and by the method  
379 proposed by Nogueras et al. (2016) did not contribute significantly to explaining the  
380 functional connectivity of *H. durangoensis* populations.

381 A possible explanation for this phenomenon might be related to the spatial  
382 resolution provided by the bioclimatic layers. It has been demonstrated that the  
383 geographic patterns of the areas of environmental suitability in the terrestrial mollusks  
384 were particularly dependent on the resolution of the grid, since this increases or  
385 diminishes the heterogeneity of the geographic space (Kadmon and Heller 1998).  
386 However, the models generated for land snails at a resolution of 30 arc-seconds (1  
387 km<sup>2</sup>), as used in this study, have been shown to be efficient in explaining the historical  
388 demographic reductions that are the consequence of contractions in the areas of  
389 environmental suitability (Horsák et al. 2010; Pfenninger et al. 2014; Mumladze 2014;  
390 Patrao et al. 2015). In this sense, the areas of environmental suitability for *H.*  
391 *durangoensis* have decreased from 28.5% in the LGM to 17.6% at the present, a result  
392 congruent with the population reductions recovered for this species with microsatellite  
393 markers and DNA sequences (López et al. 2017; López et al. 2019). Therefore,  
394 although the climate component apparently did not make a significant contribution to  
395 functional connectivity, its influence on the taxon cannot be denied because *H.*  
396 *durangoensis* likely experienced environmental tracking as a consequence of climate  
397 change, as has been demonstrated in alpine populations of *Arianta arbustorum* (Baur  
398 and Baur 2013).

399 On the other hand, the random forest algorithm has been shown to perform well  
400 in predicting the current vegetation types in heterogeneous geographic areas, as it was



401 very robust in relation to the number of classes in which plant communities were  
402 clustered, as has been verified by paleopalynological records for models generated for  
403 LGM (Waske and Braun 2009; Rodriguez-Galiano et al. 2012; Vanselow and Samimi  
404 2014; Hais et al. 2015). Thus, the results of efficiency in the assignment to plant  
405 categories with the random forest algorithm (Table S1) fall within the values obtained in  
406 other works (Waske and Braun 2009; Hais et al. 2015), suggesting that predictions of  
407 vegetation cover in this study are correct. Although our paleovegetation maps  
408 apparently did not show significant changes in vegetation cover (Fig. S2), the resistance  
409 results from Circuitscape suggested that these changes have occurred and that  
410 resistance values have increased from the LGM to the present (Table 1). One of the  
411 main limitations of analyses based on resistance surfaces is that the values assigned to  
412 each of the categories are arbitrary; however, it has been shown that the assigned  
413 resistance values have no effect on the habitat categories in a fragmented landscape  
414 (Schweiger et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2009). Consequently, as has been reported for  
415 other mountain snails (Schell and Hausdorf 2012; Hugall et al. 2002; Sherpa et al.  
416 2018), the altitudinal displacement of plant communities in mountainous regions during  
417 Quaternary climate changes could explain the dynamics of functional connectivity in *H.*  
418 *durangoensis* as has been postulated for other species distributed in the SMOc  
419 (Metcalf et al. 2000; Anducho-Reyes et al. 2008; Bryson et al. 2011; López-González  
420 et al. 2014),

421         Based on these findings, we hypothesized that the functional connectivity of *H.*  
422 *durangoensis* on different temporal scales has been promoted by the presence of both  
423 temperate and cold temperate forests and that two patterns can be distinguished as has  
424 been suggested in *Helix aspersa* and *Cepaea nemoralis* (Arnaud et al. 2003; Schweiger  
425 et al. 2004; Barahona-Segovia et al. 2019), for which two patterns can be distinguished.  
426 The first is a model of isolation by distance on a larger geographic scale (Pfenninger  
427 and Posada 2002; Arnaud et al. 2003; Schweiger et al. 2004), and the second is  
428 possible dynamic metapopulation promoted both by environmental and landscape  
429 heterogeneity on a fine geographic scale, as has been documented for other land snails  
430 (Arnaud et al. 2001; Baur and Baur 2013).

431 *Variation of the shell in H. durangoensis*

432 The relationship between shell size and shape in land snails with climatic variables of  
433 temperature and precipitation has been widely studied and is well known (see review in  
434 Goodfriend 1986). However, while the effect of the genetic component on shell shape  
435 variation has been studied (Goodacre 2001; Dowle et al. 2015; Sherpa et al. 2018), few  
436 studies have attempted to control this effect (Webster et al. 2012; Kotsakiozi et al.  
437 2013), and none so far have evaluated this effect at the intraspecific level. Our findings  
438 showed, after controlling for the genetic effects, that the shell size and shape were  
439 determined by climatic variables of temperature and precipitation (Fig. 2). However,  
440 whereas these variables were not significant to explain the genetic relationships among  
441 the groups, they suggested that both the phenotype and genotype were the results of  
442 independent processes (Haase and Misof 2009); that is, the microhabitat conditions had  
443 a great effect on the shell despite the existence of gene flow (Chiba and Davison 2007;  
444 Fiorentino et al. 2013; Stankowski 2013; Proćków et al. 2017). Thus, whereas has been  
445 suggested that the use of comparative phylogenetic methods at intrapopulation levels  
446 may generate poor informative results (Niewiarowski et al. 2004), the power of  
447 resolution of these methods may depend on the taxon and the assessed trait (Martins  
448 and Housworth 2002), as has been found in this study.

449 In addition, our results suggested that populations with larger shells and  
450 apertures are distributed to the north, while populations with smaller shells and  
451 apertures were distributed to the south. The altitudinal interval of the sampled localities  
452 in the northern region (1,702-2,400 m asl) was lower than the altitudinal interval in which  
453 the populations in the southern region were collected (2,587-2,759 m asl), which was  
454 consistent with the results previously found in intrapopulation studies of the species of  
455 the genera *Arianta*, *Vestia* and *Trochulus* (Burja and Stahel 1983; Baur and Raboud  
456 1988; Sulikowska-Drozd 2001; Proćków  
457 et al. 2017), where the populations from colder climates had smaller shells. This could  
458 be related to a greater probability of survival of organisms with small shells in  
459 unfavorable climatic conditions (Baur et al. 2014) and the greater resistance to  
460 crystallization temperatures (Ansart et al. 2014). At the same time, at higher altitudes,  
461 the duration of individual growth time is shorter (Anderson et al. 2007; Proćków et al.  
462 2017). However, there were also differences in the sizes of the aperture and the heights

463 of the spires between the north and south regions. These shells attributes could  
464 reflected microclimatic conditions, where small apertures tended to occur in the drier  
465 and higher altitude regions, meanwhile large apertures and higher spires **occured** at  
466 lower altitudes as has been reported in other species (Anderson et al. 2007; Haase and  
467 Misof 2009; Dowle et al. 2015).

#### 468 *How many ESUs?*

469 In the literature, only two published works that addressed the definition of the ESUs of  
470 land snails have been published (Holland and Hadfield 2002; Ursenbacher et al. 2010);  
471 however, they did not remove the phylogenetic effects, which impacted their results. In  
472 the first study, a fragment of the mtCOI DNA was used and only the phylogenetic trees,  
473 genetic distances and AMOVA analysis in the 12 populations of the tree snail  
474 *Achatinella mustelina* were recognized as six ESUs that were reproductively isolated  
475 and distributed throughout a longitudinal transect of 24 km (Holland and Hadfield 2002).  
476 In the second study, which used microsatellite loci and performed a genetic structure  
477 analysis, two main clusters were found in *Trochulus aureatus*, although the authors  
478 decided to define each one of the nine sampled populations as different ESUs, even  
479 though they were separated by less than 200 meters (Ursenbacher et al. 2010). In  
480 opposition, our results suggest that each of the seven genetic groups previously  
481 identified by the analysis performed by López et al. (2017) must be considered an ESU,  
482 not only because of their genetic distinctiveness but also due to the phenotypical  
483 differences. The removal of the phylogenetic effect shows that temperature and  
484 precipitation variables were strong determinants of the shell size and shape of the  
485 species, which explained the morphological differentiation (Fig. 2).

#### 486 **Conclusions**

487 The main conclusion of this work is that vegetation cover has a high impact on the  
488 functional connectivity of the land snail, as does climate, which is a strong determinant  
489 of shell shape in this species. Previous studies have found that young restored forests  
490 can achieve even higher snail diversities than old unperturbed forests (Hylander et al.  
491 2004; Ström et al. 2009), although this could depend on survival in microrefugia or  
492 dispersal from other patches. Forestry is one of the main economic activities in the state  
493 of Durango, Mexico, that exerts strong pressure on the populations of the land snail *H.*

494 *durangoensis* due to habitat loss and degradation. Nevertheless, the development of  
495 comprehensive management plans for the state (Conafor 2006) could guarantee the  
496 long-term survival of *H. durangoensis*, although further studies need to be performed to  
497 evaluate the potential effects of global climate warming on the species.

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**Table 1** (on next page)

Pairwise comparison of the resistance values obtained with Circuitscape using the vegetation cover as resistance surface

The numbers in the first column correspond to the geographic centroid of each one of the seven genetic groups recovered by López et al. 2017: 1) Guanaceví, 2) Los Herreras, 3), 4) Topia, 5) Progreso, 6) El Salto and 7) Las Peñas.

1 Table 1. Pairwise comparison of the resistance values obtained  
 2 with Circuitscape using the vegetation cover as resistance surface

Pair	LGM	mid Holocene	Current
1,2	209.87	308.20	305.42
1,3	196.76	318.14	294.33
1,4	169.83	227.74	226.22
1,5	309.86	359.06	356.54
1,6	428.33	507.67	518.36
1,7	371.76	424.61	420.29
2,3	235.52	357.59	334.44
2,4	182.15	243.87	247.67
2,5	284.65	341.65	344.16
2,6	402.27	489.54	505.29
2,7	345.54	406.29	407.04
3,4	164.42	236.34	213.96
3,5	308.73	377.72	352.35
3,6	427.46	526.63	514.47
3,7	370.94	443.65	416.48
4,5	224.20	238.48	240.16
4,6	343.37	387.74	402.65
4,7	286.93	304.84	304.74
5,6	209.67	251.50	264.47
5,7	159.03	175.71	173.63
6,7	162.45	227.27	239.57

3 The numbers in the first column correspond to the geographic  
 4 centroid of each one of the seven genetic groups recovered by  
 5 López et al. 2017: 1) Guanaceví, 2) Los Herreras, **3**, 4) Topia, 5)  
 6 Progreso, 6) El Salto and 7) Las Peñas.

7

**Table 2** (on next page)

Mantel partial test of the effect of isolation by distance (IBD) and isolation by resistance (IBR) from climate and vegetation surfaces on the genetic differentiation of *Humboldtiana durangoensis* populations for the three temporal frames used in thi

R= Spearman correlation coefficient between pairwise genetic distances ( $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$ ) and the Euclidean distance from the geography and pairwise resistance of CIRCUITSCAPE. p= Statistical significance obtained from 1000 replicates.

1 **Table 2.** Mantel partial test of the effect of isolation by distance (IBD) and isolation by  
 2 resistance (IBR) from climate and vegetation surfaces on the genetic differentiation of  
 3 *Humboldtiana durangoensis* populations for the three temporal frames used in this study.

Resistance model	Comparison	LGM		mid Holocene		Current	
		R	p	R	P	R	P
Climate	fst vs resistance	0.474	0.094	0.368	0.122	0.418	0.111
	fst vs geogra resistance	0.182	0.321	0.39	0.081	0.295	0.191
	fst vs resistance geogra	0.105	0.398	-0.181	0.362	-0.074	0.476
Vegetation	fst vs resistance	0.057	0.382	-0.144	0.29	-0.111	0.344
	fst vs geogra resistance	0.782	0.005	0.796	0.003	0.784	0.009
	fst vs resistance geogra	-0.699	0.012	-0.725	0.013	-0.706	0.021

4 R= Spearman correlation coefficient between pairwise genetic distances ( $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$ ) and  
 5 the Euclidean distance from the geography and pairwise resistance of CIRCUITSCAPE.  
 6 p= Statistical significance obtained from 1000 replicates.

7

**Table 3**(on next page)

Effect of the geographic distance (IBD), vegetation and climate on the genetic differentiation among the seven genetic populations of *Humboldtiana durangoensis* obtained from the distance based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) for the three temporal frame

In the marginal test the effect of each one of the variables was evaluated separately, meanwhile, in the conditional test, the effect of the geographic distance was included as a covariate. F represent the proportion of variance, P the statistical significance and % var the percentage of variance explained from each variable



1 **Table 3.** Effect of the geographic distance (IBD), vegetation and climate on the genetic  
 2 differentiation among the seven genetic populations of *Humboldtiana durangoensis*  
 3 obtained from the distance based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) for the three temporal  
 4 frames used in this study

Variable	Marginal tests			Conditional tests		
	F	P	% var	F	P	% var
<b>LGM</b>						
Geographic	6.086	0.02	24.26			0
Vegetation	0.605	0.447	3.087	14.521	0.002	33.819
PCA1	1	0.327	4.999	0.244	0.623	1.013
PCA2	2.979	0.1	13.552	1.308	0.266	5.131
PCA3	0.098	0.748	0.515	1.536	0.238	5.956
<b>mid Holocene</b>						
Geographic	6.086	0.026	24.26			0
Vegetation	0.404	0.537	2.083	19.986	0	39.849
PCA1	2.106	0.166	9.976	1.916	0.177	7.286
PCA2	0.419	0.516	2.158	0.074	0.785	0.312
PCA3	1.211	0.284	5.992	2.888	0.105	10.473
<b>Current</b>						
Geographic	6.086	0.025	24.26			
Vegetation	0.235	0.636	1.224	17.844	6.00E-04	37.704
PCA1	0.408	0.525	2.101	0.138	0.704	0.578
PCA2	2.095	0.161	9.933	1.723	0.213	6.617
PCA3	1.48	0.231	7.228	2.82	0.108	10.258

5 In the marginal test the effect of each one of the variables was evaluated separately,  
 6 meanwhile, in the conditional test, the effect of the geographic distance was included as  
 7 a covariate. **F** represent the proportion of variance, **P** the statistical significance and % var  
 8 the percentage of variance explained from each variable

9

**Table 4**(on next page)

Results of the Bayesian inference and model selection obtained from SUNDER to evaluate the relative effect of geography and vegetation cover on the genetic differentiation of the seven genetic groups of *Humboldiana durangoensis*.

G: Euclidean geographic distances; E: Resistance values obtained for the vegetation cover-; G+E: combined effect of both variables. The numbers inside brackets in the iteration column indicate the number fo times that each one of the three models has obtained the lower value of likelihood in ten independent runs. The parameter  $\beta$  represents the magnitude of the effect of the variable on the genetic covariance (-lower values indicate a more important effect).

1 Tabla 4. Results of the Bayesian inference and model selection obtained from SUNDER  
 2 to evaluate the relative effect of geography and vegetation cover on the genetic  
 3 differentiation of the seven genetic groups of *Humboldiana durangoensis*.

Period	Iteration	G		E		G+E		
		Likelihood	$\beta_g$	Likelihood	$\beta_e$	Likelihood	$\beta_g$	$\beta_e$
LGM	(6, 3, 1)	-8975.22	4.13	-9053.74	521.65	-9044.04	4.15	1102.35
mid Holocene	(3, 3, 6)	-6712.19	3.29	-6672.19	524.79	-6638.51	3.52	2040.62
Current	(3, 2, 5)	-9942	3.63	-9964.55	530.97	-9890.39	3.29	1711.27

4 G: Euclidean geographic distances; E: Resistance values obtained for the vegetation  
 5 cover-; G+E: combined effect of both variables. The numbers inside brackets in the  
 6 iteration column indicate the number fo times that each one of the three models has  
 7 obtained the lower value of likelihood in ten independent runs. The parameter  $\beta$   
 8 represents the magnitude of the effect of the variable on the genetic covariance (-lower  
 9 values indicate a more **important** effect).

10

**Table 5** (on next page)

Average size (in mm) for the four measurements used in this study to evaluate the shell shape of seven genetic groups of *Humboldtiana durangoensis*. Shell height (SH), Shell width (SH) Aperture height (AH), Maximum Aperture width (AW). Additionally,

- 1 Table 5. Average size (in mm) for the four measurements used in this study to evaluate
- 2 the shell shape of seven genetic groups of *Humboldtiana durangoensis*. Shell height
- 3 (SH), Shell width (SH) Aperture height (AH), Maximum Aperture width (AW). Additionally,
- 4 Globosity index (G), Spire Height (SP) and Shell Volume are showed

Group	SH	SW	ALH	AW	G	SP	V
Guanacevi	32.15	34.45	21.66	19.52	0.93	10.49	3.42
Los herreras	31.94	33	22.06	19.09	0.97	9.88	3.29
Potrero	32.86	35.4	22.32	20.34	0.93	10.54	3.47
Topia	31.13	32.56	23.18	18.98	0.96	7.95	3.22
Progreso	24.11	26.16	19.11	15.81	0.92	5	2.62
El Salto	28.94	31.3	21.28	17.97	0.93	7.66	3.16
Las Peñas	25.51	28.14	19.32	16.29	0.91	6.18	2.87

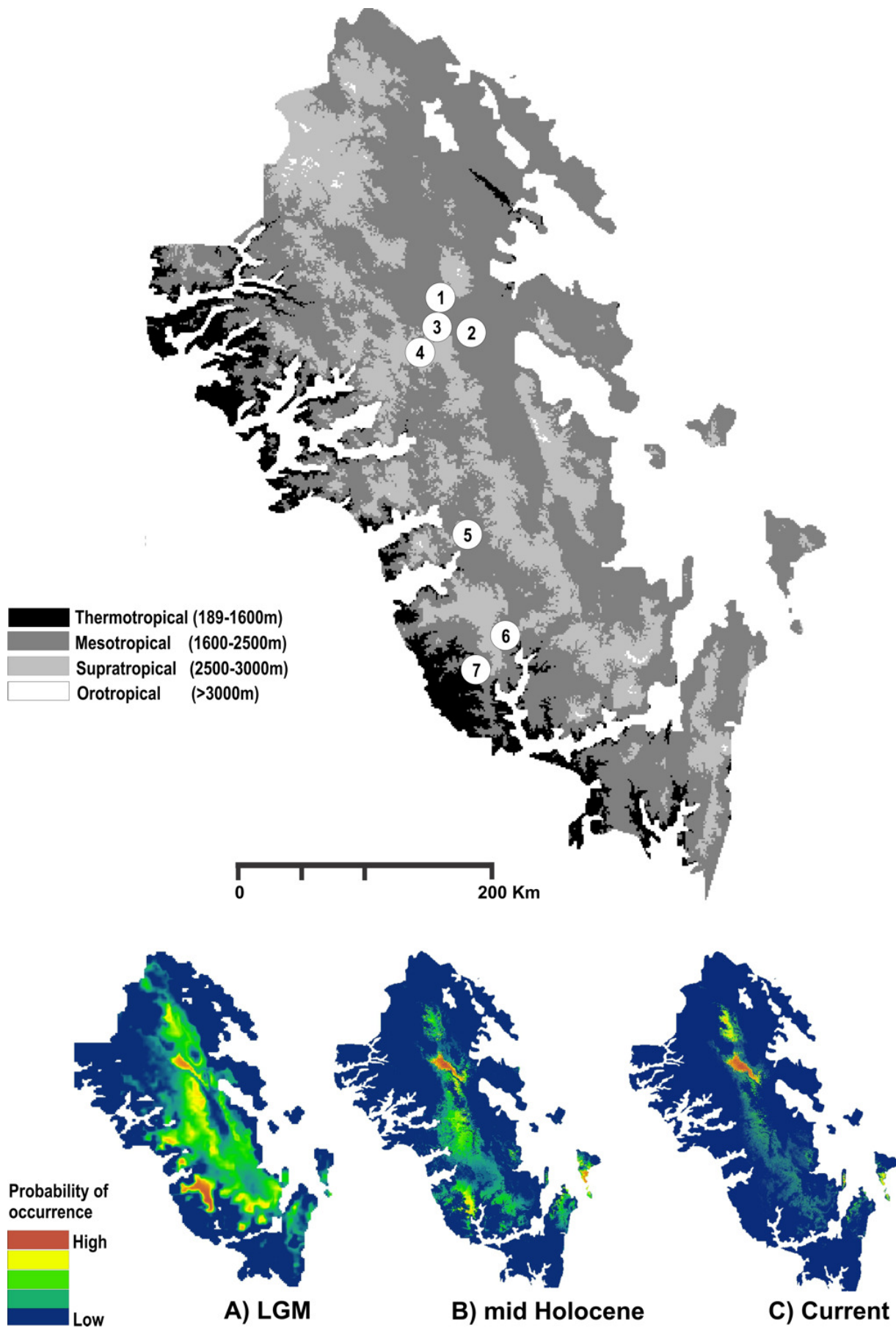
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# Figure 1

Geographic map of the Region Madreña Centro in the Mexican state of Durango.

In the upper section a digital elevation model (DEM) was used to highlight the different ombrothermal horizons defined by Macías-Rodríguez et al. (2017). The circles represent the geographic centroid for each one of the seven genetic groups of *Humboldtiana durangoensis* defined from microsatellite markers in López et al. (2017): 1 Guanaceví, 2 Los Herreras, 3 Potrero, 4 Topia, 5 Progreso, 6 El Salto and 7 Las Peñas. In the lower section a suitability distribution map from Maxent is showed for the three temporal frames used in this study assuming a minimum training presence from the model A) Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 0.172) B) Mid Holocene (0.369) and C) Current time (0.347)



## Figure 2

Redundancy analysis (RDA) for the shell shape of *Humboldtiana durangoensis*.

A) Average size from traditional morphometrics B) Centroid from traditional morphometrics

C) Consensus shape from geometric morphometrics and climate variables from Worldclim.

The direction and size of the arrows indicate the correlation between climate variables and RDA axes. The circles represent the geographic centroid for each one of the seven genetic groups: 1 Guanaceví, 2 Los Herreras, 3 Potrero, 4 Topia, 5 Progreso, 6 El Salto and 7 Las Peñas



