The Genus *Camelobaetidius* Demoulin (Ephemeroptera: Baetidae) in America: Phylogenic and Biogeographic analyses

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4	Phylogenic and Biogeographic analyses of Camelobaetidius
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31 Abstract

32	The genus Camelobaetidius is the second most diverse genus of the family Baetidae in
33	America. Also, two other genera were described as closely related to Camelobaetidius:
34	Corinnella, and Tapajobaetis. A peculiar spatulate tarsal claw is the character shared
35	among them. We used TNT (Tree analysis using New Technology) and GEM
36	(Geographically explicit Event Model) to recover the phylogenic and biogeographic history
37	of this genus. A matrix of 42 taxa and 77 morphological characters was constructed, of
38	which 68 were treated as discrete and nonadditive (unordered), and eight as continuous. All
39	available records of Camelobaetidius plus Corinnella, Tapajobaetis, and the species's
40	outgroup were included in the biogeographic analysis. Corinnella and Tapajobaetis were
41	obtained into Camelobaetidius. The founder events were the most frequent in this genus,
42	followed by vicariance, sympatry and point sympatry. The long-distance dispersal ability in
43	mayfly seems to be the rule instead of the exception in the history of this clade.
44	
45	Keyword. Mayfly, Neotropical region, Cladistics, Biogeography, Founder Event, Long
46	Distance Dispersal.
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59 **1.1. Introduction**

The genus *Camelobaetidius* Demoulin is the second most diverse genus of the family 60 Baetidae (Ephemeroptera) in America. Demoulin described it in 1966 and, since then, the 61 description of new species has not stopped. Although it is distributed between Canada in 62 the North (Lehmkuhl, 1976) to Argentina in the South (Traver and Edmunds, 1968; Nieto, 63 2003), the vast majority of the species are distributed in the Neotropical region. 64 65 *Camelobaetidius* has 45 species described, of which 26 were described from nymphs, five from imagoes, 13 from nymphs and male imago and one from nymph and female imago 66 (Jacobus and McCafferty, 2005; Salles and Serrão, 2005; Domínguez et al., 2006; Boldrini 67 68 et al., 2012a, b; Boldrini et al., 2013; Boldrini and Pes, 2014; Sibajaya-Araya and Esquivel, 2018; Salinas-Jimenez et al., 2019). Dactylobaetis described by Traver and Edmunds in 69 1968, was proposed as a sister group of *Camelobaetidius* (Traver and Edmunds, 1968). 70 However, it was later synonymized with Camelobaetidius in 1990 by McCafferty and 71 Waltz. 72 *Camelobaetidius* is common in lotic habitats, above rocks in areas of moderate to fast 73 current. The nymphs have a particular powerful grasping claw (Berner and Pescador, 74 75 1988). Boldrini et al. (2012) proposed the spatulate claw was used for adhering to substrate 76 in areas of the strong current, rather than as a tool for removing food particles as was suggested by Baptista et al. (2006). There are a few species with gut content analyzed. 77 78 Camelobaetidius mexicanus (Traver and Edmunds) was defined as scraper (Wagner, 1996) consuming diatoms and filamentous algae. Also, the genus was reported as detritivore with 79 a high percentage of FPOM (Fine Particulate Organic Matter) and low content of algae in 80 its gut (Granados-Martínez et al., 2016). Related to the life cycle, Camelobaetidius was 81 reported as multivoltine, species such as C. penai (Traver and Edmunds) exhibited a 82 83 bivoltine life cycle (Corigliano et al., 2008), while C. variabilis had five generations per year (Perry and Kennedy, 2016). 84 Boldrini and Salles (2009) proposed that the species of Camelobaetidius could be divided 85 into three morphological groups: the first one with the terminal filament reduced and with a 86 projection on the inner margin of the fore femora; the second with the terminal filament 87 reduced and without a projection on the inner margin of the fore femora and the last one 88

89 with the terminal filament almost as long as cerci. Also, two other genera were described as

- 90 closely related to *Camelobaetidius*, *Corinnella* Thomas and Dominique described from
- 91 French Guiana (Nieto, 2010) and later reported from Brazil (Boldrini et al., 2013), and
- 92 *Tapajobaetis* Boldrini and Salles described from Brazil (Boldrini et al., 2017).
- 93 The knowledge of biogeographic history of the genus is scarce, almost null. McCafferty et
- al. (1992) sustained that *Camelobaetidius* may have had a recent Neotropical center of
- dispersal because "it follows the pattern of having an arid-favored distribution in the
- 96 Nearctic and being warm-water sublimited".
- 97 In this paper, we proposed cladistic and biogeographic analyzes of *Camelobaetidius* in
- 98 order to improve the knowledge of this diverse and widely distributed genus throughout
- 99 America. The main object was to test the monophyly of *Camelobaetidius* plus *Corinnella*
- and *Tapajobaetis*. Additionally, we reconstructed the biogeographic pattern of the genus,
- 101 evaluating which events influenced the distribution and speciation of this clade. Also, we
- evaluated the three morphological groups proposed by Boldrini and Salles (2009) and we
- analyzed the evolution of different characters.
- 104

105 2. Material and Methods

Intensive fieldwork was carried out collecting different rivers along with South America in 106 107 order to collect fresh specimens of the different species. The nymphs were collected using traditional methods, with a D-frame net (Domínguez & Fernandez, 2009). All the material 108 was conserved in 96% alcohol. For morphology, mature nymphs was selected and dissected 109 where possible. The material examined is housed in the following institutions: Instituto de 110 Biodiversidad Neotropical (IBN), Tucuman, Argentina; Universidade Federal de Roraima 111 (UFRR), Universidade Federal de Vicosa (UFVB), and Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da 112 Amazônia (INPA), Brazil. Additional sources included systemactic studies performed on 113 114 material from other collections: Florida A & M University (FAMU), Tallahassee; Colorado State University (CSU); and Texas A&M University (TA&M), USA. 115 **2.1.***Taxa* 116

117 A matrix of 42 taxa and 77 morphological characters was constructed (Appendix S1). 37

species were included in the ingroup: two of which belong to *Corinnella*: *C. eximia* and *C.*

- thomasi, one to Tapajobaetis: T. labiosus and 34 to Camelobaetidius, representing 75% of
- 120 the total species. We selected the species better described, with the specimens available,

and we omitted species only described from adults. Five species were included as out-

122 group: Centroptilum luteolum, Harpagobaetis gulosus, Nanomis galera, Americabaetis

123 *longetron, Spiritiops silvudus*, all of them belong to Baetidae. We chose genera belonging

to different clade in the family Baetidae, following Cruz et al. 2020, from genus very closer

to *Camelobaetidius* such as *N. galera*, to lesser close such as *C. luteolum*. The tree was

126 rooted with *C. luteolum*. Although the result did not change with other taxa as the

127 outgroups.

128

129 **2.2.** *Characters*

130 All characters in this study were derived from the external morphology of nymphs. Sixty

characters were binary, 17 were multistate, 68 characters were treated as discrete and

nonadditive (unordered), and 8 as continuous (Appendix S2 and S3).

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134 **2.3.** *Phylogenetic Analysis*

The matrix was analysed using TNT (Tree analysis using New Technology, Goloboff et al., 135 2003a), under extended implied weights (Goloboff, 2014) (TNT default) following the 136 137 script published by Mirande et al. (2013). The analyses provide 21 values of K and their respective topologies. For each K-value, under extended implied weighting, extra searches 138 were carried out using parsimony ratchet (Nixon, 1999), sectorial searches, tree fusing, and 139 140 tree drifting (Goloboff, 1999) until the best fit was obtained three times, all using TNT default. Trees obtained in each K-value, were reduced to a strict consensus (if more than 141 one); the result of these searches were three different trees. Mirande (2009, 2010) and 142 Mirande et al. (2011, 2013) proposed a measure of stability as a criterion to choose the 143 most stable topologies under different parameters. The distortion coefficient ("tcomp") 144 145 (Farris, 1989) was used as a measure of stability and later a strict consensus of the most stable solutions was calculated. 146 The strict consensus trees obtained in each K-value (21) were saved in TNT memory 147

148 (RAM) and distortion coefficient was found using the following scripts.

149

(i)

macro=; loop 0 20

```
loop 0 20
tcomp= #1 #2
stop;
stop;
proc/;
```

150 The best average of "tcomp" was selected to compose the set of topologies (Table 1). Group support was obtained by applying three estimators, absolute and relative Bremer 151 supports (Bremer, 1988, 1994) and frequency differences (Goloboff et al., 2003b). Bremer 152 supports were calculated for the most-parsimonious trees and 15 000 suboptimal trees up to 153 ten steps longer. Suboptimal trees were distributed in 12 stages: 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 154 155 0.7, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 10 units of fit, saving 1000 trees at each stage. Frequency differences were calculated with 500 replicates of jackknifing (Farris et al., 1996) by 156 symmetrical resampling of the original matrix (each character presents the same probability 157 of being positively or negatively reweighted, Goloboff et al., 2003b). Each replicate of 158 jackknifing was calculated by ten random addition sequences plus tree bisection-159 reconnection, saving ten trees per replicate. After obtaining the shortest trees, the value of 160 homoplasy for each character was calculated (adjusted homoplasy). Characters with low 161 homoplasy present values near 0.00, whereas characters with high homoplasy have values 162

163 near 1.00 (some are mentioned in the results).

164

165 **2.3.** *Biogeographic Analysis*

166 All available records of the species of *Camelobaetidius* included in the matrix, plus

167 *Corinnella, Tapajobaetis*, and the species's outgroup were mapped with the free software

168 QGIS, Geographic Information System (<u>http://qgis.org</u>). Species distribution have been

169 plotted and overlapped with layer of political subdivisions of the world and the ecoregions

170 proposed by Olson et al., 2001.

171 To infer the particular biogeographic history of *Camelobaetidius*, a biogeographic analysis

172 was carried out using Geographically explicit Event Model (GEM, Arias, 2017). This

173 phylogenetic biogeographic method does not assume predefined areas or a hierarchical

relationship between them. The primary purpose of this method is to discover cladogenetic

175 events such as vicariance, sympatry, point sympatry and founder event among sister

176 groups. Distributions were represented as absence/presence data in a raster grid with pixels

177 of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ degrees, with a filling of 2. The cost of the four cladogenetic events was set to 178 one. To penalize large ancestral ranges a Z=50 was used. The search was made with the 179 flipping algorithm applying 1000 flip replicates.

180

181 **3. Results**

182 **3.1.** *Phylogenetic Analysis*

An unique tree was obtained in a range of value of K, from 1.71 to 3.63, and with a length 183 of 243.27 steps (fit = 47.756). The tree ranging from these values of K were also the most 184 185 stable according to the measure of tcomp. This tree was proposed as the final hypothesis. The shortest tree obtained with C. luteolum as the outgroup recovered the genus Corinnella 186 and Tapajobaetis into Camelobaetidius (Fig. 1). Five synapomorphies (Appendix S4) 187 sustained this result (Node A): length of tibia/ length of femur, 0.944-0.956 (character 6); 188 frontoclypeal suture is Y shaped (character 8); left mandible with the subtriangular process 189 elevated (character 26); articulation of the tibia absent (character 64); and tarsal claws 190 191 spatulated (character 67). The analysis recovered three main groups of Camelobaetidius (Nodes B, C, D). Node B included 16 species and it is sustained by three synapomorphies 192 193 (Appendix S4): relationship in the left mandible between length of mola and length between triangular process and incisor, 1.069 (character 1); number of denticles in the 194 tarsal claws, 0.009 (character 7) and first denticle of the tarsal claw distinctly larger than 195 the other (character 68). In this clade, five groups were recovered with good support (Node 196 E, F, G, H, I). Node B confirmed the synonymy of Dactylobaetis under Camelobaetidius, 197 198 because this clade recovered the type species of both nominal genus C. warreni (Traver and Edmunds) and C. leentvari Demoulin, respectively. Node F, sustained by four 199 synapomorphies, grouped all the species with the terminal filament reduced, about the size 200 of the 10th abdominal segment (character 76). However, Node G is nested to this group. 201 Node G recovered the species with a tubercle on the inner margin of the femur (character 202 61). 203 Node C recovered seven species: the two species of Corinnella, the single species of 204 Tapajobaetis, and four species of Camelobaetidius, and six synapomorphies supported it: 205

relationship in the left mandible between length of mola and length between triangular

207 process and incisor, 0.700-0.762 (character 1); relationship in the maxillary palp between

- length of palp and length of galea-lacinia, 1.418-1.638 (character 2); shape of incisors of
- left mandible not same level (character 19); teeth at apex of the crown long and slender
- 210 (character 36); outer margin of maxilla convex (character 37); development of base of
- 211 glossa of the labium not overlapping (character 41). The two species of *Corinnella*, were
- sustained by ten synapomorphies including the following: maxillary palp bifid (character
- 213 33), galea of maxilla robust (character 38), setae on surface of labial palp many and long
- 214 (character 49), row of setae subparallel of the patelo-tibial suture present (character 65).
- 215 Tapajobaetis plus C.ortizi, C.carolinae, C.cruzi and C. matilei are supported by two
- synapomorphies: incisive of maxilla with setae on the apex (character 34) and outer margin
- 217 of paraglossa curved (character 54).
- 218 Node D grouped 14 species is sustained by 4 synapomorphies including the following:
- number of setae on outer margin of femora, 0.050 (character 4), relationship between length
- of femur and width of 1/3 basal of femora, 3.262-3.422 (character 5), row of setae between
- molar and incisors of left mandible absent (character 24), and segment III of labial palp
- rounded (character 50).
- 223

224 **3.2.** *Systematic*

- 225 Camelobaetidius Demoulin, 1996: 9; McCafferty and Waltz, 1990: 777; Lugo-Ortiz and
- 226 McCafferty, 1999, 258; Dominique et al., 2000: 40; McCafferty and Randolph, 2000: 259;
- 227 Dominique et al., 2001: 18; Dominique and Thomas, 2001: 27; Nieto, 2002: 57; Nieto,
- 228 2003: 233; Salles and Serrão, 2005: 267; Jacobus and McCafferty, 2005: 153; Domínguez
- et al., 2006: 118; Boldrini et al., 2012b: 2033.
- 230 (Type-Species: Cameloabetidius leentvaari Demoulin, original description)
- 231 Dactylobaetis McCaffetty and Waltz, 1990: 777.
- 232 *Corinnella* (Thomas and Dominique, 2006) SYN. NOV.
- 233 *Tapajobaetis* Boldrini and Salles, 2017. SYN. NOV.
- 234 *Diagnosis.* 1) labrum with dorsolateral arc of setae; 2) incisors of mandibles fused; 3)
- 235 maxillary palp segment II bifid or simple; 4) segment II of labial palp with or without
- distomedial projection; 5) thoracic gill present or absent at base of forecoxa; 6) hind wing
- pads usually present (absent in few species); 7) tarsal claws spatulate; 8) tarsal claws with

6–140 denticles; 9) paraproct with pointed or rounded marginal spines; 10) abdominal gills 238 present on segments I-VII; 11) terminal filament as long as cerci or reduced. 239

240 Included species: Species described based on nymphs: C. baumgardneri Boldrini, 2014; 241

242 C. edmundsi Dominique, Thomas and Mathuriau, 2002; C. eximia (Thomas and

Dominique, 2006), new combination; C. guaycara Sibaja-Araya and Esquivel, 2018; C. 243

244 hamadae Salles and Serrão, 2005; C. ipave Nieto, 2003; C. juparana Boldrini and Salles,

2012; C. kondratieffi Lugo-Ortiz and McCafferty, 1995; C. kickapoo McCafferty, 2000; C. 245

labiosus (Boldrini and Salles, 2017), new combination; C. lassance Salles and Serrão, 246

247 2005; C. leentvaari Demoulin, 1966; C. lourii (Salles, Victoriano, Boldrini and Cabette,

2017), new combination; C. maidu Jacobus and McCafferty, 2005; C. maranhensis Salles 248

and Serrão, 2005; C. mathuriae Dominique and Thomas, 2001; C. metae Salinas-Jimenez 249

and Boldrini, 2019; C. musseri (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); C. patricki Dominique and 250

Thomas, 2001; C. rufiventris Boldrini and Salles, 2009; C. sallesi Boldrini, 2014; C. 251

252 serapis (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); C. shepardi Randolph and McCafferty, 2001; C.

spinosus Boldrini and Salles, 2012; C. tepequensis Boldrini, 2014; C. tuberosus Lugo-ortiz 253

254 and McCafferty, 1999; C. variabilis Wiersema, 1998; . Species described based on

255 nymphs and adults: C. anubis (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); C. billi Thomas and

Dominique, 2001; C. cayumba (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); C. francischettii Salles, 256

Andrade and Da-Silva, 2005; C. huarpe Nieto, 2003; C. janae Dominique and Thomas, 257

2001; C. mexicanus (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); C. penai (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); 258

C. phaedrus (Traver and Edmunds, 1968); C. suapi Nieto, 2002; C. warreni (Traver and 259

Edmunds, 1968); C. waltzi McCafferty, 1994; C. yacutinga Nieto, 2003; Species described 260

based on adults: C. alcyoneus (Traver, 1943); C. aneto (Traver, 1971); C. arriaga (Traver 261

262 and Edmunds, 1968); C. dryops (Needham and Murphy, 1924); C. tantillus (Needham and

263 Murphy, 1924); C. thomasi (Boldrini and Salles, 2013), new combination.

264

3.3. Biogeography 265

The search with GEM found one reconstruction with a cost of 226.820. The events 266

267 recovered were: eight vicariance events, eight sympatry events, four point sympatry, and 21

268 founder events (Fig. 2). All ancestral areas assignments are available in Figs. S5. The

founder events occurred more frequently in the deep clades meanwhile vicariance in the 269 270 apical branches. Sympatry and point sympatry appeared both at the base of the tree and at the terminals. Also, with a few exceptions, the nodes with the best supports in the 271 phylogeny analysis were recovered as vicariants in the biogeography analysis. For the 272 273 origin of the clade "Camelobaetidius" (Node 3), the reconstruction found a sympatric event. The first event in the genus was the founder event from Southeastern Brazil to 274 275 northeastern South America (Node 5, Fig. S5 6). Descendants of Node 6 arose in a sympatry event in northeastern South America (Fig. S5 7). Related to Node 7 all its 276 terminals were restricted to the Guiana Highlands and Amazon ecoregions, and both the 277 278 founder events as well as point sympatry were the most frequent events recovered. In Node 13 a sympatry event occurred between the northeastern and central South America (Fig. S5 279 14). From this area occurred different founder events to the south of South America (Node 280 281 15 and 17, Figs. S5 16-18) as well as to the north of South and Central America (Node 18 and 19 Figs. S5 19-20). Node 26 was characterized by founder events, from southeastern 282 283 Brazil to North and Central America (Fig. S5 27). Node 31 presented a vicariant event in the southeastern Brazil, specifically in Atlantic Forest ecoregion (Fig. S5 32), between the 284 north and south. Finally, in the rest of the clade, distinct sympatry events followed by some 285 286 vicariant events around the north and central of South America were recovered. 287

288 **4. Discussion**

289 **4.1.** *Phylogenetic Analysis*

290 Evolution of selected characters

In 1968, when Traver and Edmunds described *Dactylobaetis*, they proposed that the 291 292 spatulated claws were of 2 types representing two separate phyletic lines: *Camelobaetidius* 293 and *Dactylobaetis*. However, they did not explain the difference between them, both genera 294 were distinguished by other characters instead of the claw. Corinnella was established based on the tarsal claws with few denticles but spatulated (Thomas and Dominique, 2006). 295 *Tapajobaetis* was described by having spatulated claws with more than 100 denticles, along 296 297 with other characteristics related to mouthpart morphology (Boldrini et al., 2017). Here, in our analysis, the character "tarsal claws spatulated" was recovered as a synapomorphy of 298

Node A with the best adjusted homoplasy, including *Corinella*, *Tapajobaetis* and all the
species of *Camelobaetidius* considered in the analysis.

The labial palp, especially the second segment, presents a high variability within the genus. Although this structure has many forms in the family, most of this variation is found among different genera (and not so often among species of the same genus). However, in *Camelobaetidius*, the inner margin of the second segment of the labial palpi can be slightly protruded (instead of parallel to outer margin, the inner margin is gently curved) to strongly protruded (in these cases a distinctic distomedial projection is present) (Nieto, 2003, Salles and Serrão, 2005), with an enormous range of forms. The character 46: projection of the

- 308 segment II of the labial palp had the best adjusted homoplasy. However, a morphometric
- analysis could be better to approach this structure.
- 310 The length of the terminal filament was considered to distinguish *Camelobaetidius* from
- 311 Dactylobaetis (Traver and Edmunds, 1968), the first one had terminal filament short, while
- 312 *Dactylobaetis* had terminal filament long. In our analysis, both states of this character
- 313 wwere not recovered as synapomorphies of these two groups (character 76). The state
- 314 "terminal filament subequal in length to cerci" was recovered at the base of the tree, being
- 315 plesiomorphic for the species of *Camelobaetidius*. Then, in the clade containing *C*.
- 316 maranhensis, C. billi, C. rufiventris, C. tepequensis, C. ipaye, C. francishettii, and C.
- 317 *leentvaari*, this character changed to short or reduced in length and, thus, is considered a
- synapomorphy of these species, in coincidence with Boldrini and Salles (2009). Among
- them, a reversal has occurred in *C.tepequensis*, once the terminal filament is subequal inlength to cerci in this species.
- 321 Many authors have analyzed the accessory gills (maxillary, coxal, and labial gills) if these
- structures were homologous or not and synapomorphies of a specific clade (Zhou, 2010,
- 323 Staniczek, 2010). They have been considered as accessory gills, although their respiratory
- function has not been experimentally confirmed (Staniczek, 2010). In *Camelobaetidius* it is
- most often present at the base of foreleg (character 57), but also can be found at the base of
- the second segment of the maxillary palp (*C. jane, C. thomasi* and *C. lourii*). At the base of
- 327 foreleg, based on our analysis, it had two independent acquisitions in the tree, at *C. warreni*
- 328 and at *C.anubis+C.yacutinga*. In two related species, *C. hamadae* and *C. juparana*, these
- 329 accessory gills are bifid and relatively long. Among the other species they are always

simple, and the length is highly variable. However, it is still necessary to map this characterand the other similar structures in a large phylogeny of the order.

332 **4.2.** *Biogeography*

Camelobaetidius presents a wide distribution along continental America, including a wide 333 334 variety of climates, however at high altitude, above 2000 m.a.s.l. its presence is minimal or null. The Andean mountain seems to be a barrier instead of the route to diversification. 335 336 Vicariance was obtained generally in nodes with good support. Many authors have discussed the speciation and adaptive evolution related to vicariant or sympatry events 337 (Brooks and McLennan, 1993, Friesen and Anderson, 1997). Some authors sustained that 338 339 sympatric speciation involves the adaptive process; meanwhile, vicariant speciation involves the nonadaptive process (Losos and Glor, 2003). The adaptive process involves 340 ecological opportunity, such as dispersal into new territory, extinction of competitors or 341 change in behavior, while the nonadaptive process does not require specific adaptations for 342 speciation to occur (Brooks and McLennan, 1993). Our results showed that the vicariance, 343 worked on the speciation process promoting derived characters or synapomorphies. 344 The founder events were the most common in this genus. In these events, a small number of 345 individuals, sometines parthenogenetic female or male, take part in a rare, long-distance 346 347 colonization (Funk et al., 2010), and this population is very rapidly isolated from the ancestral population (Matzke, 2014). This event is an essential mode of lineage splitting 348 and of moving taxa around the planet (Heads, 2012; Matzke, 2014). Mayfly dispersal had 349 been thought to be very limited (Brittain, 1982), until new studies confirmed the long-350 distance dispersal ability in mayfly species on remote islands such as the Azores (Brinck 351 and Scherer, 1961; Raposeiro et al., 2012), transoceanic dispersal between Madagascar and 352 continental Africa (Monaghan et al., 2005; Vuataz et al., 2013) on the Canary Island and 353 354 Madeira (Rutschmann et al., 2014), on the Macaronesian archipelago (Rutschmann et al., 355 2017). In this analysis, we recovered founder events inside South America, sometimes including long distances, such as between Cerrado Ecoregion and Colombia (Node 16), or 356 Cerrado ecoregion and San Juan Province in Argentina (Node 17) or even Cerrado and 357 Costa Rica and Guatemala (Node 20). 358 McCafferty et al. (1992) and McCafferty (1998) sustained that *Camelobaetidius* had a 359

360 recent Neotropical center of dispersal, specifically South America. We obtained the

Amazon ecoregion as the area with the majority founder, vicariance, and sympatry events. 361 This ecoregion was proposed as a refuge area based on the idea that climatic oscillation 362 occurring during the Pleistocene promoted allopatric speciation, different patches of the 363 selve remained isolated. (Haffer 1969, 2008). The theory proposed that during dry climatic 364 365 periods, humid rainforest blocks remained isolated and separated by dry forest or other intermediate vegetation and this fact promoted the speciation (Haffer 1969, 2008). As in 366 367 other taxa, the interaction of paleogeographical and paleoclimatic forces would seem to be the cause of the complex processes of diversification in South America (Bush, 1994; 368 Riddle, 1996; Rull, 2008). 369 370 In coincidence with our results, species of the genus Asthenopodes (Polymitarcynae, Polymitarcydae) showed a similar pattern of speciation in the Amazon region (Molineri et 371 al., 2015). The authors sustained that "without a molecular dating of these nodes they can 372 only speculate possible explanations related to Pleistocene refugia". Later, Molineri et al. 373 (2019) recovered for this region several traceable vicariance events (TVEs, Hovenkamp 374 375 1997) for species of Campsurus, Homothraulus, Callibaetis and Caenis. They reinforced the idea of Amorin and Pires (1996) as this region such as an area of endemism, and a 376 transitional zone between tropical and temperate climates. 377 378 The biogeographic history of *Camelobaetidius* has resulted in a complex history of plenty of dispersal events or founder events. In that sense, the use of a Geographically explicit 379 380 Event Model seems to be the appropriate methodology to recover these patterns since other

methods, such as Diva, Lagrange, or Dec, fail to take founder event into account (Matzke,

382 2014). The fact to use explicit distributions instead of the predefined area helped us to

383 identify these events inside South America.

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576 Figure Legends

577 Fig. 1. The shortest tree obtained with a length of 243.27 steps. The numbers above the

578 nodes indicate frequency differences; unnumbered nodes have support less than 25. The

- 579 numbers below the nodes indicate absolute, and relative Bremer supports.
- 580

581 Fig. 2. The optimal reconstructions found for the geographical data. The white triangle

represents founder event; white squares represent sympatry, the black square represents

vicariance, the white circle represents point sympatry. All ancestral node reconstructions

see Appendix S5.

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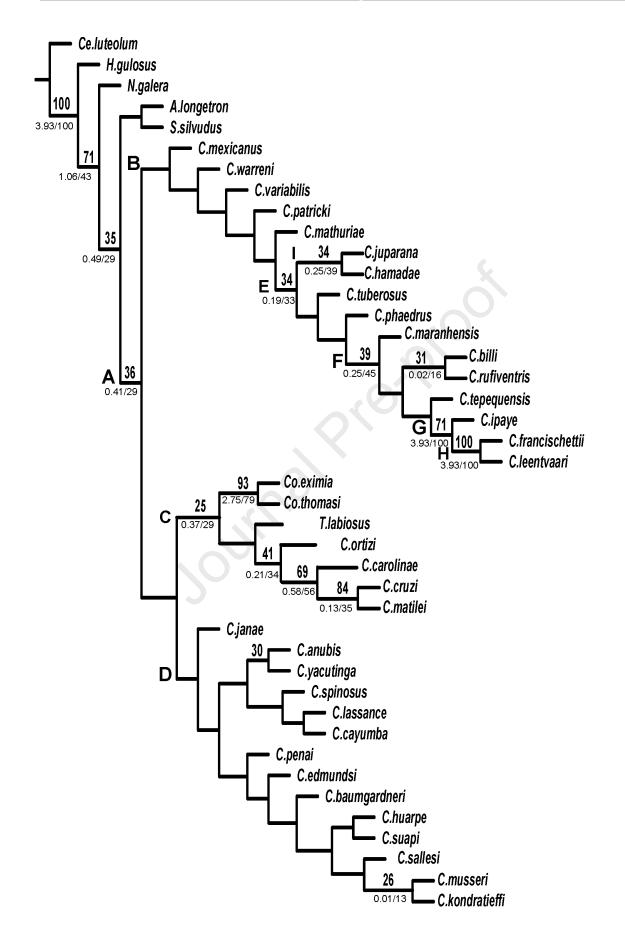
586 Supporting Information

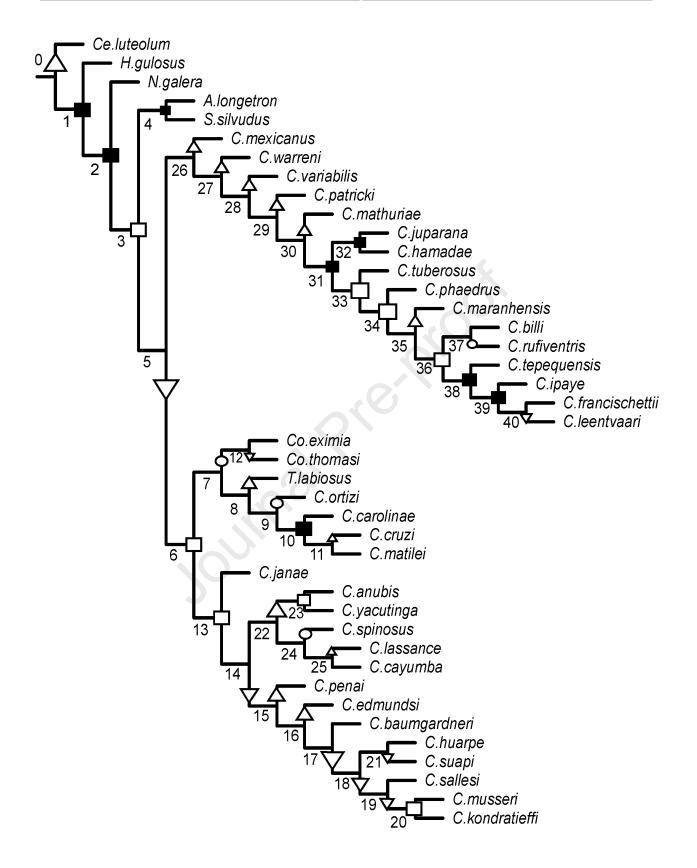
- 587 S1. Matrix.
- 588 S2. Characters and character states.
- 589 S3. Figures of characters.
- 590 S4. List of synapomorphies common to the shortest tree.
- 591 S5. Maps with ancestral reconstructions.

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605	Table 1. Distortion coefficient (tcomp) under different K_values, and number of shortest
606	trees obtained.

Reference	K-value	Trees	Tcomp
		1	
0	1.709284		0.9711982
		1	
1	1.851724		0.9711982
2	2.006551	1	0.9711982
3	2.175452	1	0.9711982
4	2.36044	1	0.9711982
5	2.563926	1	0.9711982
6	2.788832	1	0.9711982
7	3.038727	1	0.9711982
8	3.318022	1	0.9711982
9	3.632229	1	0.9711982
10	3.988329	1	0.9700462
11	4.395302	1	0.9700462
12	4.864885	1	0.9700462
13	5.412733	1	0.9700462
14	6.060189	1	0.9700462
15	6.837136	1	0.9306355
16	7.786738	1	0.9306355
17	8.973741	1	0.9306355
18	10.499887	1	0.9306355
19	12.534749	1	0.9306355
20	15.383556	1	0.9306355
		-	





Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: