

UNIVERSIDAD DE COSTA RICA  
SISTEMA DE ESTUDIOS POSGRADO

GENETIC STRUCTURE IN TWO AVIAN SPECIES WITH DIFFERENT TOLERANCE  
TO URBANIZATION: CASE OF WHITE-EARED GROUND-SPARROW AND HOUSE  
WREN ACROSS AN URBAN GRADIENT

Tesis sometida a la consideración de la Comisión del Programa de Estudios de  
Posgrado en Biología para optar por el grado y título de Maestría Académica en  
Biología con énfasis en Genética y Biología Molecular

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## **DEDICATORIA**

A mis padres y abuelos por su incondicional apoyo a lo largo de mi carrera y mi vida, quienes fueron inspiración y permitieron que mi formación académica fuera posible

## **AGRADECIMIENTOS**

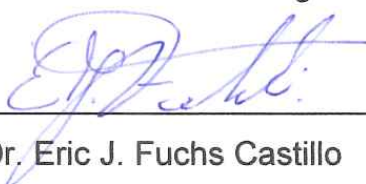
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## RESUMEN

El flujo génico en aves puede verse afectado por la urbanización dependiendo de la historia natural y adaptabilidad de la especie al cambio de hábitat. Se pueden esperar resultados contrastantes cuando se comparan especies con opuesta resiliencia a la urbanización. En este estudio, se evaluó la diversidad y estructura genética de dos especies de aves, el evitador urbano, ave cuatro ojos (*Melospiza leucotis*) y el habitante urbano, el soterrey cucarachero (*Troglodytes aedon*). Se usaron siete loci de microsatélites para cada especie y se muestreó en cinco localidades distintas, ubicadas en sitios con diferentes intensidades de urbanización en Costa Rica. Se encontró una estructura genética considerablemente mayor en cuatro ojos que en el soterrey cucarachero. Análisis de teoría de circuitos mostraron un mayor aislamiento por resistencia urbana para cuatro ojos que para soterrey cucarachero. Estos resultados apoyan que la urbanización es una barrera significativa para el flujo genético en evitadores urbanos, en contraste con una especie habitadora urbana que mostró un impacto sumamente leve. Las diferencias pueden ser atribuidas a una mayor plasticidad en preferencias de selección de hábitat y anidación y una limitante a la dispersión significativa para cuatro ojos. Estos resultados enfatizan la necesidad de estrategias de conservación para el pájaro cuatro ojos y para las especies evitadoras urbanas cuyo hábitat y conectividad pueden estar reducidas por la reciente expansión urbana.

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## LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS

**ACC:** Comité de cuidado animal

**CI:** Intervalo de confianza

**COR:** Corredores

**DAPC:** Discriminant analysis of principal components (Análisis discriminante de componentes principales)

**GAM:** Gran área metropolitana

**GIS:** Geographic information system (Sistema de información geográfica)

**HDA:** Heredia

**HWE:** Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (Equilibrio Hardy-Weinberg)

**IBD:** Isolation by distance (aislamiento por distancia)

**IBE:** Isolation by environment (aislamiento por ambiente)

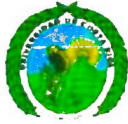
**IBR:** Isolation by resistance (aislamiento por resistencia)

**JBL:** Jardín Botánico Lancaster

**MTV:** Monteverde

**SD:** Desviación estándar

**UCR:** Universidad de Costa Rica



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## INTRODUCCIÓN

En los últimos años, la urbanización a nivel mundial ha incrementado notablemente, gran parte de la población ha emigrado de zonas rurales a urbes y se estima que para 2050 el 66% de la población mundial habite regiones urbanas<sup>1</sup>. Aunado a un incremento constante en la población mundial, la rápida y feroz urbanización representa un riesgo para los hábitats que circundan las crecientes y nuevas zonas urbanas, ya que se espera la pérdida y fragmentación de hábitats naturales<sup>2-4</sup>. Además, para algunas especies, edificaciones, carreteras, autopistas y demás asentamientos urbanos imponen resistencia al movimiento, lo cual implica una pérdida en la conectividad entre las subpoblaciones de la metapoblación<sup>5,6</sup>. Como principal consecuencia a la urbanización, muchas especies locales son aisladas, decrecen en densidad o son localmente extintas<sup>7-9</sup>.

Uno de los grupos más ampliamente estudiados para evaluar el efecto de la urbanización sobre la ecología de las especies son las aves<sup>10</sup>. En áreas templadas, donde se ha llevado a cabo la mayoría de los estudios, se ha visto una tendencia general de una disminución en la riqueza y aumento de la abundancia de pocas especies<sup>11,12</sup>. Esto implica que muchas especies no están adaptadas o no logran adaptarse al cambio de uso de suelo lo cual conlleva a la extinción local de algunas, pero el incremento en densidad de otras que poseen rasgos que le permite crecer poblacionalmente en las zonas urbanas<sup>13</sup>.

A partir de lo anterior, se ha generado una clasificación de acuerdo con la densidad de aves encontrada las zonas urbanas. Blair<sup>14</sup> definió a las aves que alcanzan su máxima densidad en las zonas altamente urbanizadas como “explotadores urbanos”; especies que alcanzan su máxima densidad en zonas naturales como “evitadores urbanos”; y especies que alcanzan su máxima densidad en zonas con intermedia urbanización como “adaptados urbanos”. Fischer y colaboradores<sup>15</sup> proponen otro acercamiento a la categorización, en donde se toma en cuenta además la dependencia de las especies a los ambientes urbanos y naturales. Se proponen tres definiciones: “Evitadores urbanos”, los cuales rara vez habitan zonas urbanas, pero pueden persistir en estos ambientes mediante el uso de los recursos de zonas naturales distribuidas en ciudades; “Usuarios urbanos” y

“Habitadores urbanos”, los cuales se definen de acuerdo con la importancia de la ciudad y de las zonas naturales para su subsistencia. Los “habitadores” se encuentran en el extremo del gradiente, su persistencia en la ciudad es independiente de las zonas naturales, mientras que los “usuarios” siguen dependiendo de zonas rurales o naturales para su supervivencia<sup>15</sup>.

### **Efecto de la urbanización sobre la genética de poblaciones de aves**

El comportamiento y tolerancia al ambiente urbano de las aves, así como las características de las ciudades, determinan el efecto que tendrá la urbanización sobre la genética poblacional de las especies<sup>13</sup>. En aquellas especies que se consideran “evitadoras”, se puede esperar que la urbanización conlleve una reducción del flujo genético entre subpoblaciones de la metapoblación<sup>16</sup>. Esto lleva a la reducción de la diversidad genética, aumento de la estructura genética espacial, incremento de la endogamia, probabilidad de fijación de alelos y disminución del tamaño efectivo de población, lo cual, en conjunto, pueden someter a una especie a ingresar en una vorágine de la extinción local<sup>16-18</sup>. De forma contrastante, se espera que aquellas especies “usuarias” y “habitantes” sufran las consecuencias con menor intensidad o inclusive de forma opuesta<sup>13</sup>.

Los ejemplos en la literatura muestran lo anterior, ya que el efecto de la urbanización sobre las estimaciones de genética poblacional de especies de aves parece depender de su historia natural y su movilidad. En poblaciones de herrerillo chochin (*Chamea fasciata*) en una zona altamente fragmentada por urbanización en California, se encontró una correlación entre la ubicación espacial de carreteras principales y el tiempo de aislamiento de los parches con la estructura genética de la metapoblación<sup>19</sup>. De forma similar, en poblaciones de gorrión cantor (*Melospiza melodia*), especie abundante y móvil en Seattle, Estados Unidos, se encontró una alta estructura genética en sitios con una densa y antigua cobertura urbana, mientras que más baja en subpoblaciones ubicadas en zonas con urbanización de baja densidad, más cobertura boscosa y relictos de bosque<sup>20</sup>. Por otro lado, otro estudio no encontró estructura genética en una población de gorrión cantor ubicada en una zona urbana poco densa, sugiriendo diferencias sobre la estructura genética

basados en el nivel de intensidad de la urbanización<sup>21</sup>. De forma similar, dos poblaciones de carbonero común (*Parus major*) en Europa mostraron diferentes valores de estructura genética en dos ciudades diferentes<sup>22,23</sup>. En Barcelona, España, la población presentó una marcada estructura genética y divergencia entre subpoblaciones<sup>22</sup>, pero en Montpellier, Francia, la estructura genética fue baja<sup>23</sup>. Diferencias en áreas de parches, fragmentación y tamaño de población entre ambas ciudades impactan de forma diferencial a la misma especie<sup>13,22,23</sup>.

Aunque la literatura evaluando el impacto de la urbanización sobre la genética poblacional de las aves está en crecimiento, los estudios están concentrados en ciudades de zonas templadas. Un caso estudiado en el trópico corresponde a una población de timalí goliestriado (*Mixornis gularis*) en Singapur<sup>24</sup>. Esta población presenta estructura genética espacial entre parches separados por poca distancia geográfica, pero densamente urbanizado, lo cual sugiere poca dispersión consecuencia de una alta urbanización<sup>24</sup>.

### **Teoría de circuitos como método de evaluación de conectividad**

Una de las formas de evaluar el impacto de la urbanización sobre la conectividad de poblaciones y flujo génico es la teoría de circuitos, ya que representa un buen acercamiento a las posibles conexiones de poblaciones de animales<sup>25</sup>. Este método utiliza algoritmos de pasos aleatorios y múltiples caminos que reflejan el flujo de la corriente en una matriz de resistencias, la cual se puede definir a partir de información geográfica derivada de sistemas de información geográfica (GIS; por sus siglas en inglés)<sup>25</sup>. Se pueden proponer diversas hipótesis de movimiento y conectividad a partir de la asignación distintos valores de resistencia a los componentes geográficos, tales como uso y cobertura de suelo, altitud, pendientes, entre otros, basado en la historia natural de las especies. Finalmente, se puede realizar el cálculo de los valores de resistencia acumulativa entre sitios, con el fin de correlacionarse con la diferenciación genética entre sitios<sup>20</sup>.

## Urbanización en Costa Rica: El caso de *Melozone leucotis* y *Troglodytes aedon*

La expansión urbana en Costa Rica ha estado concentrada en el Gran Área Metropolitana (GAM) y ha ocurrido veloz, desorganizada y no planificada<sup>26</sup>. En este estudio, se pretende estudiar el efecto de la urbanización en Costa Rica sobre la conectividad genética de dos especies con diferentes niveles de tolerancia a la urbanización, el pájaro cuatro ojos (*Melozone leucotis*) y el soterrey cucarachero (*Troglodytes aedon*).

Anteriormente, la expansión cafetalera en el Valle Central otorgó buena conectividad para especies que se benefician de los cafetales, pero en años recientes la mayoría de este hábitat ha sido convertido en asentamientos urbanos, creando parches que varían en aislamiento<sup>8,27</sup>. Una de las especies afectadas por este cambio es el ave cuatro ojos (*Melozone leucotis*). El ave cuatro ojos está presente desde los 600 a 1800 m. s. n. m., desde Chiapas, México hasta la sección occidental del Valle Central de Costa Rica<sup>28,29</sup>. Se le suele encontrar en matorrales densos, plantaciones de café y en parches de bosque secundario y sus bordes<sup>28-30</sup>. Recientemente, se determinó el efecto negativo de la urbanización sobre la ecología de esta especie, lo cual permite clasificarla como un “evitador urbano”. Juárez y colaboradores<sup>31</sup> encontraron que los territorios de esta especie abarcan una mayor área en zonas urbanas en comparación con zonas naturales, lo cual indica una menor densidad de recursos aprovechables para su supervivencia en la ciudad, imponiendo la necesidad de defender territorios más grandes. Esto sucede debido a que el pájaro cuatro ojos se alimenta en substratos de hojarasca húmedo y requiere de matorrales para la anidación.

Contrario al pájaro cuatro ojos, el soterrey cucarachero (*Troglodytes aedon*) es una especie que parece haberse adaptado al uso de suelo urbano<sup>31</sup>. Se puede encontrar desde los 0 hasta los 2800 m. s. n. m. con amplia distribución a lo largo del continente americano<sup>29,32</sup>. Habita áreas abiertas y semiabiertas, bordes de bosques y zonas urbanizadas<sup>29,32</sup>. A diferencia de cuatro ojos, el soterrey cucarachero disminuye el tamaño de sus nidos en las zonas más urbanizadas contra las naturales, indicador de una mayor cantidad de recursos aprovechables en las

ciudades<sup>31</sup>. El soterrey cucarachero tiene gran plasticidad para la escogencia de sustrato para el forrajeo y la anidación, ya que se le ha visto ingresar a edificios y anidar en cavidades hechas por humanos<sup>33</sup>. De acuerdo con esto, es posible considerar al soterrey cucarachero un “usuario” o incluso un “habitante” de la ciudad.

## **Justificación**

A la fecha, no se ha realizado ningún estudio que haya evaluado el impacto de la reciente urbanización y pérdida de cafetales sobre la genética poblacional de aves que habitan este ambiente. Estudiar el efecto de la urbanización sobre la conectividad genética de especies móviles como aves es importante para determinar la resiliencia a largo plazo de estas especies a la urbanización. Mediante su estudio, se brinda evidencia acerca de la necesidad de estrategias de conservación de hábitats en riesgo por el desarrollo urbano y así contribuir a la permanencia de la riqueza de aves de las ciudades. Por otro lado, examinar el estado de la genética poblacional de aves en urbes neotropicales aporta al conocimiento del efecto que puede tener el crecimiento de las ciudades en esta región, la cual corresponde a una de la más diversa en avifauna del mundo.

## OBJETIVOS

### Objetivo general:

Analizar el efecto de la urbanización sobre la genética poblacional de *Melospiza leucotis* y *Troglodytes aedon*, aves con diferente tolerancia a la urbanización en Costa Rica

### Objetivos específicos:

- Determinar los parámetros básicos de genética poblacional de *Melospiza leucotis* y *Troglodytes aedon*
- Comparar los niveles de estructura genética en *Melospiza leucotis* y *Troglodytes aedon*
- Evaluar el efecto del uso de suelo urbano sobre la estructura genética de *Melospiza leucotis* y *Troglodytes aedon* mediante teoría de circuitos



## ARTÍCULO

**Título:**

**Genetic structure in neotropical birds with different tolerance to urbanization**

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## **Genetic structure in neotropical birds with different tolerance to urbanization**

### **Abstract**

Gene flow in birds can be affected by urbanization depending on natural history traits and adaptability to habitat change. Contrasting results can be expected when comparing species with opposite resilience to urbanization. In this study, we assessed genetic diversity and structure for two bird species, the urban avoider white-eared ground-sparrow, *Melospiza leucotis*, and the urban dweller house wren *Troglodytes aedon*. We used seven microsatellite loci and sampled five locations with differing levels of urbanization in Costa Rica. We found considerably higher genetic structure in white-eared ground-sparrows than in house wrens. Circuit theory analyses proved a higher isolation from urban resistance for the white-eared ground-sparrow than for house wrens. These results support that urbanization is a significant barrier for gene flow in urban avoiders, in contrast to urban dweller species that showed little to no impact. Differences could be attributed to a higher plasticity in habitat and nesting site preferences in the house wren, and significant dispersal limitation for the white-eared ground-sparrow. These results emphasize the need for conservation strategies towards white-eared ground-sparrows and other urban avoider species whose habitat and connectivity have been reduced by the recent urban expansion.

### **Keywords**

**Aves, urban adaptation, population genetics, genetic diversity, gene flow, circuit-theory**

## Introduction

The rapid expansion of urbanized areas has converted large extensions of natural habitats into a concrete jungle that surrounds some small natural or seminatural fragments of vegetation<sup>8,34–37</sup>. The adaptive response to such drastic changes varies widely among species. Some species experience isolation, population decline and become locally extinct<sup>7–9</sup>. For some species (“urban avoiders”), buildings, streets, highways, and other human settlements restrict their movement, reducing the connection within the metapopulation<sup>5,6,14</sup>. These barriers are expected to reduce gene flow and genetic diversity, increasing inbreeding coefficient, allele fixation and genetic structure of those species trapped in isolated vegetation tracts<sup>16</sup>. However, contrasting results are expected for those species for which populations and connectivity increase in urban areas (“urban exploiters”)<sup>13,14</sup>.

The effect of urbanization on gene flow and other population genetic parameters will depend on each species’ mobility and life history traits<sup>38</sup>. In birds, species tolerance and adaptability to urban environments determines the impact of negative effects from habitat fragmentation and isolation<sup>13</sup>. In wrenit’s (*Chamaea fasciata*), a species with low dispersion capabilities, major roads restricted gene flow between fragments in urban landscape, producing a strong genetic structure across populations<sup>19</sup>. Similarly, in a species with high dispersion capabilities as song sparrow (*Melospiza melodia*) urban land cover has also shaped its genetic structure<sup>20</sup>. In this case higher genetic structure occurred in sites isolated and surrounded by dense and old urban development, compared to more recently developed urban sites or between forest relics<sup>20</sup>. However, in low-density urbanized sites, song sparrows showed no evidence of population genetic structure, suggesting that this species is capable of maintaining sufficient gene-flow between sites in non-saturated urban landscapes<sup>21</sup>. In great tits (*Parus major*), differences in patch size, population size and fragmentation can have different effects over levels of genetic structure<sup>13,22,23</sup>. The distance between patches within an urban matrix has reduced the connectivity between patches, and increased the genetic structure for the Singaporean yellow-breasted babbler (*Mixornis gularis*), a tropical edge-tolerant species<sup>24</sup>. These examples suggest that the effects of urbanization on structuring population genetics vary within and between species.

It is possible to use different approaches to evaluate the effects of urbanization on gene flow and genetic structure. Methods based on circuit-theory are well fitted to evaluate the effect of the complex connectivity structure within urban habitats on the genetic structure of mobile individuals such as birds<sup>25</sup>. This method focuses on random walking and multiple-choice path algorithms to uncover current flow in a resistance matrix developed from geographic information systems (GIS)<sup>25</sup>. With this algorithm landscape resistance hypotheses can be proposed, assigning a resistance value to different landscape components, forest cover, altitude or topological characteristic layers based on each species natural history and habitat use. Values of cumulative resistance between populations are used to test for correlations with genetic structure<sup>20</sup>.

In this study, our main objective was to evaluate the effect of urbanization on genetic diversity and gene flow patterns of two neotropical bird species with different levels of resilience to urbanization, across a heterogeneous landscape of urbanization and agriculture in Costa Rica. The white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) inhabit thickets, coffee plantations and secondary forest edges<sup>28-30</sup>. Historically, coffee industry expansion in the 20th century presumably provided greater connectivity for white-eared ground-sparrow, but in recent years, this habitat type has been gradually transformed into urban settlements and the habitat of white-eared ground-sparrows has been converted into fragments that vary in isolation<sup>8,27,39,40</sup>. On the contrary, the second species included in this study, the house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*), is commonly found in open and semi-open areas, forest edges and it has presumably benefited from urban development<sup>29,31,32</sup>. Their territories are larger in more urbanized areas, and this has been associated with an increase in nesting and food resources<sup>31</sup>. To date, there is a paucity of studies that evaluate the impact of recent habitat fragmentation and habitat loss on genetic diversity and structure of tropical species that differ in their response to the changes imposed by urbanization.

## Results

One marker for each species was monomorphic (*Asμ18* and *ThPI-01*) across all populations, so we removed them from further analyses. For white-eared ground-sparrow, only *Mme7* deviated from Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) as expected for a sex-linked marker. To include it in further analysis, the missing allele was coded as missing for females and juveniles<sup>20</sup>. Locus heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ) ranged between 0.347 and 0.903 and  $H_e$  ranged 0.368-0.891 for white-eared ground-sparrows (Supplementary Table S1). In house wren, locus  $H_o$  ranged between 0.107-0.904, while  $H_e$  ranged from 0.101 to 0.870 (Supplementary Table S1). Overall,  $H_e$  was consistently higher for white-eared ground-sparrows (0.639, 95% CI = 0.510 and 0.785) than for house wren (0.519, 95% CI = 0.327 and 0.711), though confidence intervals of diversity estimates overlapped between species. Inbreeding was not observed in any species, but we found a heterozygote excess in white-eared ground-sparrow in the UCR subpopulation (Table 1).

Table 1. Mean ( $\pm$ SD) observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ), expected heterozygosity ( $H_e$ ), inbreeding coefficient ( $F_{IS}$ ) and allelic richness ( $A_r$ ) for each population assessed for white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) and house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*).

Species	Population	n	$H_o$	$H_e$	$F_{IS}$	$A_r$
<i>Melospiza leucotis</i>	MTV	12	0.655 $\pm 0.243$	0.640 $\pm 0.256$	-0.048 $\pm 0.139$	5.86
	HDA	12	0.667 $\pm 0.180$	0.620 $\pm 0.222$	-0.104 $\pm 0.127$	5.57
	UCR	13	0.615 $\pm 0.335$	0.518 $\pm 0.309$	-0.215 $\pm 0.127$	4.94
	JBL	19	0.597 $\pm 0.223$	0.570 $\pm 0.207$	-0.057 $\pm 0.186$	4.54
<i>Troglodytes aedon</i>	MTV	11	0.468 $\pm 0.321$	0.489 $\pm 0.273$	0.025 $\pm 0.297$	3.76
	HDA	11	0.416 $\pm 0.310$	0.468 $\pm 0.297$	0.096 $\pm 0.308$	4.37
	UCR	16	0.411 $\pm 0.318$	0.483 $\pm 0.317$	0.140 $\pm 0.259$	4.08
	JBL	13	0.517 $\pm 0.287$	0.522 $\pm 0.283$	-0.017 $\pm 0.183$	4.45
	COR	10	0.500 $\pm 0.245$	0.460 $\pm 0.226$	-0.095 $\pm 0.214$	3.00

We found significant genetic structure in both species, but it was higher in white-eared ground-sparrow ( $\theta_{WC} = 0.0872$ , 95% CI = 0.0463 and 0.1411) than in house wren ( $\theta_{WC} = 0.0610$ , 95% CI = 0.0422 and 0.0736). Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  differed significantly between all but one comparison (UCR and HDA) for white-eared ground-sparrow (Supplementary Table S2). For house wren, only MTV and COR had significant differences in allele frequencies from all the other populations, while UCR and JBL marginally differ between each other (Supplementary Table S2).

In white-eared ground-sparrow MTV clustered separately from the rest of the populations, HDA and UCR grouped together and JBL separated from HDA and UCR on the second axis (Fig. 1), using DAPC clustering with priors defined as sampling sites. In contrast, for house wren, UCR, HDA, JBL and MTV clustered closely together, while individuals from COR were genetically separated from all other populations (Fig. 2). The Evanno method grouped individuals into  $K=4$  clusters, with  $k=2$  as another possible configuration (Supplementary Fig. S1). But  $K=2$  clusters had the highest likelihood (Supplementary Fig. S1). For  $K=4$ , clusters 1, 2 and 3 included individuals from MTV, HDA and UCR, and individuals from HDA and UCR were more likely to be placed in cluster 4 (Fig. 3a). JBL individuals were mostly assigned to cluster 4, and less than half the individuals were grouped in the other three clusters (Fig. 3a). With  $K=2$ , all MTV individuals were assigned to Cluster 1, while HDA, UCR and JBL individuals represented a mixture from both clusters (Fig. 3b). For house wren, the Evanno method indicated that  $K=2$  was the most likely configuration, but the highest  $L(K)$  corresponds to  $K=1$  (Supplementary Fig. S1). Individuals from each population of house wren were equally assigned to both clusters, suggesting a single panmictic population (Fig. 3c).

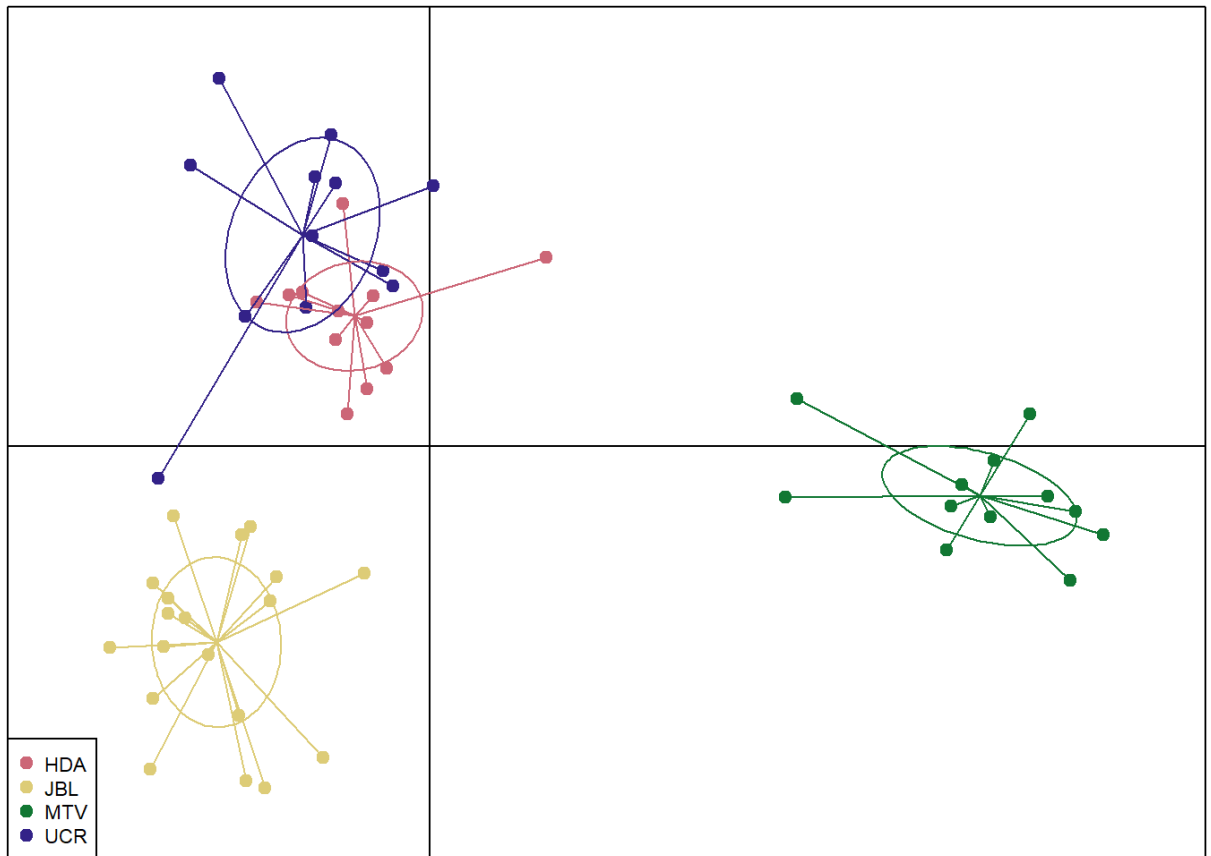


Figure 1. DAPC clustering for individuals of white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) for Heredia (HDA), Lankester Botanical Garden (JBL), Monteverde (MTV) and University of Costa Rica (UCR) populations with priors set as sampling sites.



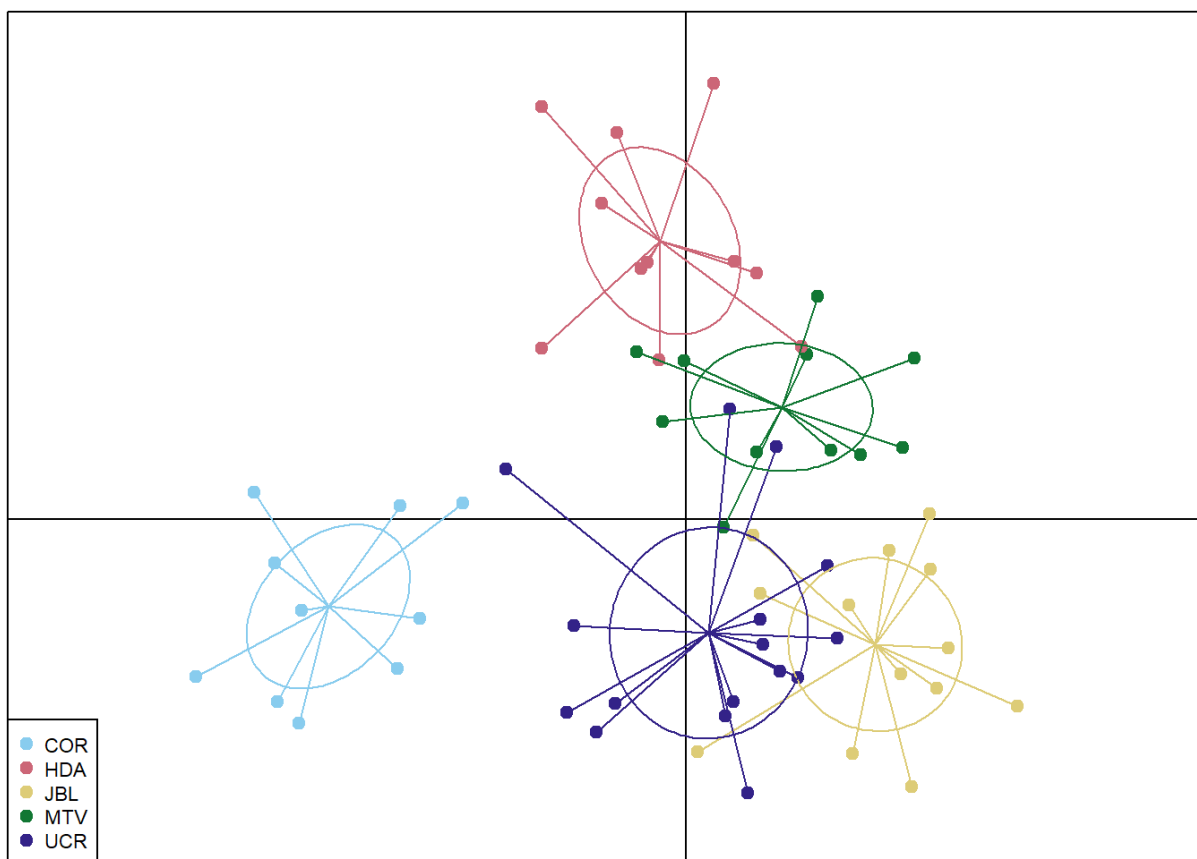


Figure 2. DAPC clustering for individuals of house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*) for Heredia (HDA), Lankester Botanical Garden (JBL), Monteverde (MTV), University of Costa Rica (UCR) and Corredores (COR) populations with priors set as sampling sites.

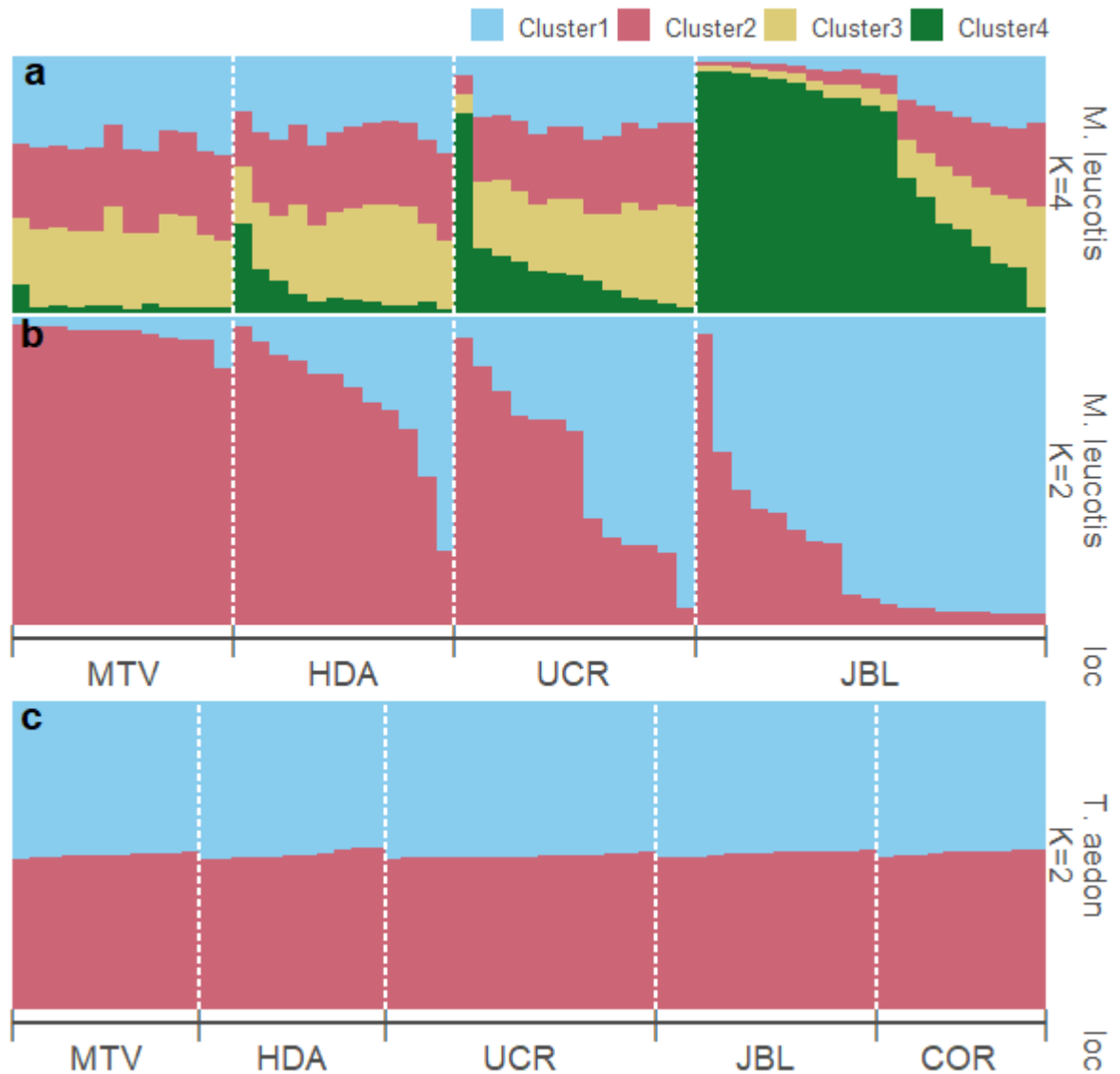


Figure. 3. STRUCTURE barplot for **a.** white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) K=4, **b.** white-eared ground-sparrow K=2, and **d** house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*) K=4. Plots are sorted by sampling location, bars are sorted by Cluster 1 proportion and each bar represents one individual, while colors represent each cluster, and its size corresponds to assignment proportion. Abbreviations. MTV: Monteverde, HDA: Heredia, UCR: University of Costa Rica, JBL: Lankester Botanical Garden, COR: Corredores.

We found significant IBD for white-eared ground-sparrow ( $r = 0.469$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but not for house wren ( $r = 0.066$ ,  $p = 0.184$ ). The urban resistance circuit analysis showed high connectivity between UCR and HDA, and lower connectivity among JBL and both HDA and UCR, for both species (Fig. 4). Connectivity between MTV and all other populations was low, as was COR for house wren (Fig. 4a-b). We found that the urban resistance matrixes correlated with genetic differences for both species, but correlations were higher for white-eared ground-sparrow (white-eared ground-sparrow:  $r=0.350$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; house wren:  $r=0.114$ ,  $p=0.020$ ).

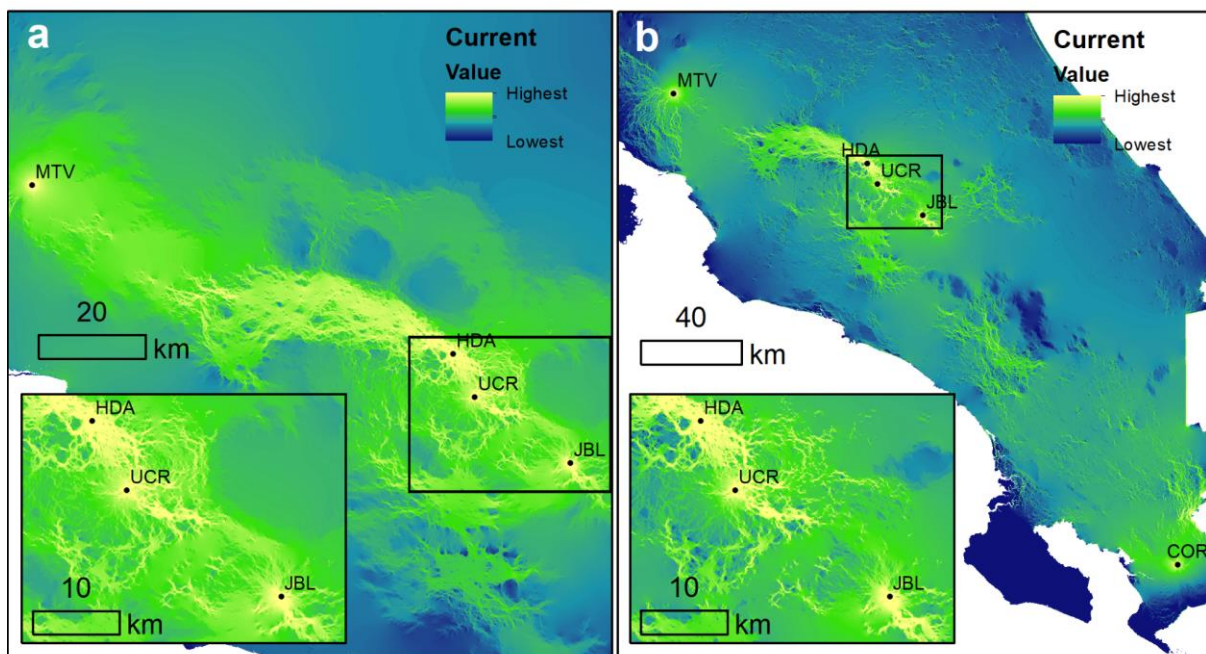


Figure 4. Maps of cumulative current within sampling site, modelled with circuit theory algorithm using Circuitscape 4.0, based on a land coverage layer of Costa Rica in 2005. Resistance values for each category are described on Supplementary Table S4. **a** corresponds to white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) sampling sites, and **b** house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*) sampling sites. Abbreviations. MTV: Monteverde, HDA: Heredia, UCR: University of Costa Rica, JBL: Lankester Botanical Garden, COR: Corredores.

Our niche modelling predicted that white-eared ground-sparrow should be restricted to the forested areas between the central valley of Costa Rica and MTV (Fig. 5a). For house wren, we found a countrywide suitability (Fig. 5b). Climatic resistance values correlated with genetic Euclidean distances for both species, but

with a higher correlation for white-eared ground-sparrow ( $r=0.453$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; Fig. 5c) than for house wren ( $r=0.100$ ,  $p=0.034$ ; Fig. 5d).

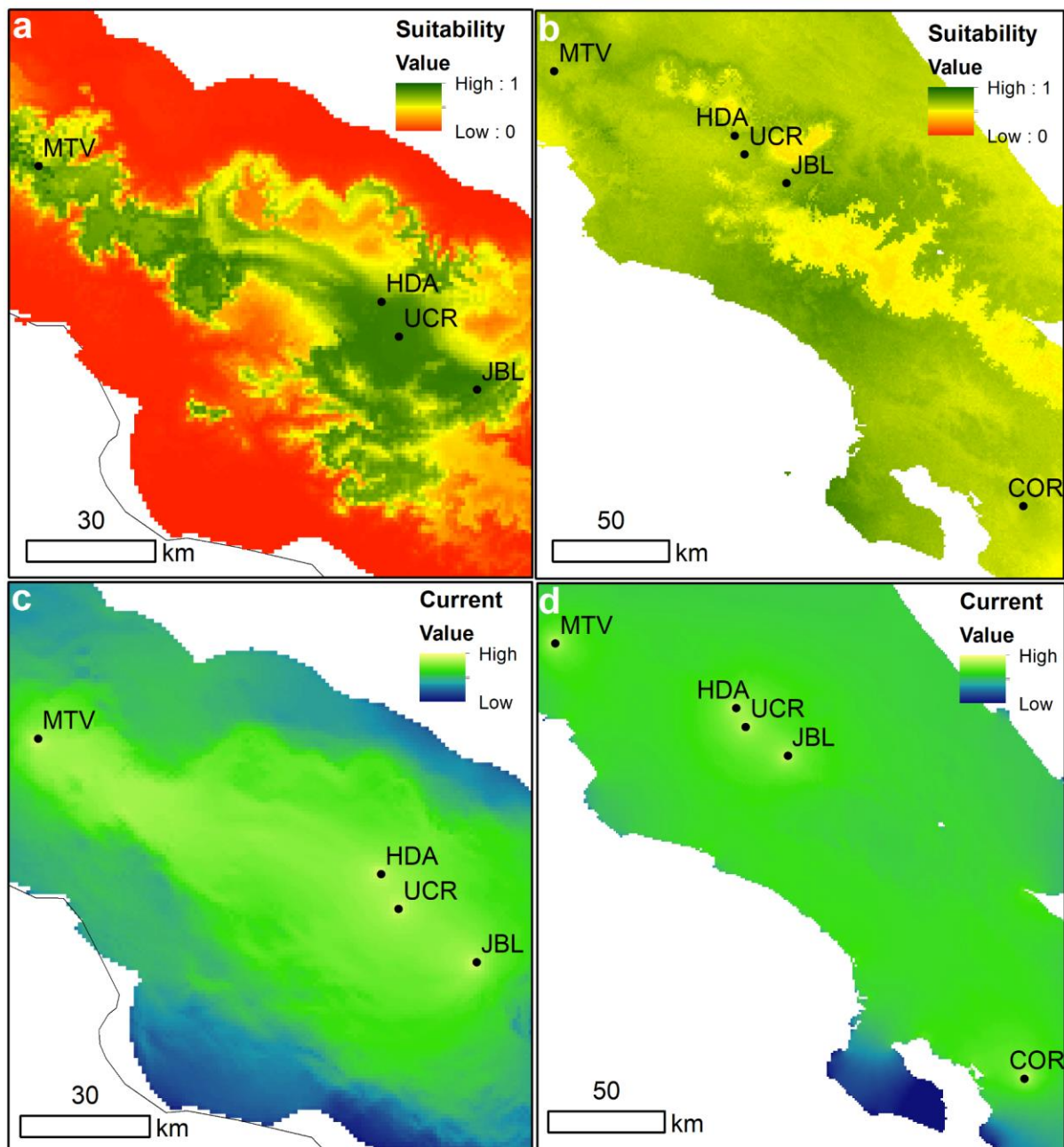


Figure 5. Maps of **a-b** habitat climatic suitability using MAXENT with clog-log transformation for **a.** white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) and **b.** house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*) in Costa Rica. **c-d** Represents maps of cumulative current within sampling site, modelled with circuit theory algorithm using Circuitscape 4.0, based on MAXENT climatic suitability prediction for **c** white-eared ground-sparrow sampling sites and **d** house wren sampling sites. Abbreviations. MTV: Monteverde,

HDA: Heredia, UCR: University of Costa Rica, JBL: Lankester Botanical Garden, COR: Corredores.

## Discussion

We found that urbanization affected gene flow differently for both species. Urbanized areas do not represent a barrier for house wren, consequently this species appears to be a single panmictic population in Costa Rica. On the contrary, gene flow is restricted by urban development in white-eared ground-sparrow. Using microsatellites, our analyses showed higher genetic structuring in white-eared ground-sparrow than in house wren. STRUCTURE and DAPC suggested differences in allele frequencies among white-eared ground-sparrow populations, while clustering all house wren individuals into a single group.

Genetic diversity estimates were similar for both species because confident intervals overlapped. These results contradict our initial predictions, since we expected a higher genetic diversity for house wren which is an urban tolerant species that shows great plasticity in habitat and nesting site preferences<sup>31–33</sup>. On the other hand, we expected white-eared ground-sparrow to have less genetic diversity since this species is isolated in small populations that are expected to experience higher genetic drift<sup>13,31</sup>. Similar results were found in two European bird species. In this study the tolerant blue tit (*Cyanistes caeruleus*) and less tolerant great tit species both had similar genetic diversity in an urban area, even when genetic structure was significantly higher for great tit than for blue tit<sup>41</sup>. Other studies have reported similar genetic diversity estimates between urban and rural populations of the same bird species (e.g., song sparrow; burrowing owl, *Athene cunicularia*; house sparrow, *Passer domesticus*)<sup>21,42,43</sup>. Therefore, our results may be explained because both species have large effective population sizes due to the recent urbanization in the study area (< 60 years)<sup>44</sup>, which is not sufficient to reduce population sizes and consequently genetic diversity through drift. This will be particularly true given that habitat fragmentation has occurred gradually<sup>44</sup>, which probably allowed remnant forest patches to act as stepping-stones for gene flow in the last three decades<sup>8,27,45</sup>

Clustering algorithms suggest that urbanization functions as barriers to gene flow in white-eared ground-sparrow, genetically structuring its populations. While gene flow in house wren appears to be limited only by distance, so that all populations of the house wren in Costa Rica may be considered a large panmictic population. Habitat loss and fragmentation often limit connectivity and gene flow and, consequently, increase differences in allele frequencies between populations <sup>46</sup>. Multiple studies have shown how urban areas increase fragmentation and isolation of avian populations with the corresponding effects on genetic diversity <sup>19,20,23,24,41</sup>. However, the magnitude of the effects of urbanization varies among species. For example, differences in sensitivity to urbanization resulted in higher genetic structure for great tits than for blue tits in Poland, in which fragmentation (urban vs. forest) and isolation by urban areas limited gene flow for great tits, but did not for blue tits <sup>41</sup>. The authors attribute these differences to the greater migration and dispersal ability of blue tits in urban populations <sup>41</sup>. Tan et al. <sup>24</sup> also found that the effective population size of the forest-edge tolerant Singaporean yellow-breasted babbler correlates with the habitat contraction caused by urbanization. Genetic differences in urban subpopulations were attributed to small effective population sizes, limited dispersal, and a lack of connectivity between patches <sup>24</sup>. The differences we observed on genetic structure between white-eared ground-sparrow and house wren may also be explained by contrasting tolerance to urbanization between these two species <sup>31</sup>. White-eared ground-sparrow and house wren differ in how they can benefit from urban habitats. White-eared ground-sparrow feeds in the humid leaf litter and requires thickets to build nests, while house wren feeds on arthropods on a wide array of substrates and is able to build nests in buildings and human made cavities <sup>30-33</sup>. A large proportion of the original habitat occupied by white-eared ground-sparrow in Costa Rica is now located within the Greater Metropolitan Area (GAM), characterized by a recent, rapid, and unplanned urban development <sup>26</sup>. For the earlier half of the 20th century, a large portion of the GAM was covered by coffee plantations and second growth vegetation, but recent urban development has reduced coffee plantations and natural vegetation cover to small, isolated fragments <sup>8,40</sup>. Hence, the preferred habitat of white-eared ground-sparrow has been constantly reduced; threatening the viability of this species' populations <sup>39,47,48</sup>.

House wren inhabits a wider array of habitats and can move between populations across large, urbanized areas<sup>33</sup>. Accordingly, we were not able to find evidence of isolation by distance or by habitat resistance. However, we found intermediate levels of genetic structure attributed to its likely low natal dispersal, because young individuals do not need to move long distances to find suitable habitat<sup>49</sup>. However, this hypothesis does not explain why we did not find significant IBD. This issue will be discussed below in further detail.

From the four populations of white-eared ground-sparrow, two (HDA and UCR, Fig. 1) were clustered together. These two populations are separated by the shortest distance and likely interconnected through remnant coffee plantations and patches of second growth vegetation. This suggests that gene flow for white-eared ground-sparrow is dispersal limited due possibly to urban areas limiting migration among populations<sup>31</sup>. JBL is separated from HDA and UCR by a large, urbanized area of approximately 2280 ha<sup>50</sup>, and by a mountainous densely forested terrain which likely limited migration and gene flow. These results are supported by the high correlation between urban resistance and genetic differentiation for white-eared ground-sparrow. MTV is geographically the most distant site, but clustered closer to HDA and UCR, due to large patches of coffee plantations located among these sites<sup>47</sup>. Contrary to white-eared ground-sparrow, our results suggest that house wren may be a single panmictic metapopulation. This is supported by the lack of IBD, and the weak correlations between genetic differentiation with urban resistance and climatic resistance. These results support our initial expectations that this species benefits from the recent urban development which increases the availability of nesting sites and habitat use, thus increasing connectivity among populations<sup>31,33</sup>. In contrast we expect gene flow to decrease for white-eared ground-sparrow in future generations. This is expected for city populations of an urban avoider that may reach the lowest densities in urban areas<sup>14,31</sup>.

All our isolation models suggest that geographic distance, urban resistance, and climatic resistance limit gene flow for white-eared ground-sparrow. Distance accounted for the strongest effect on genetic structure, which suggests that this species has limited dispersal, probably related to its territoriality<sup>51,52</sup>, low natal dispersal, and philopatry, though this remains to be tested. The geographic distribution of this species in Costa Rica, which coincides with the largest urbanized

area, further limits movement between populations as indicated by the high correlation between the resistance matrix and genetic structure<sup>28,53,54</sup>. Another study using circuit theory analysis showed a similar effect from urbanization on population differentiation in song sparrow populations, concluding that urbanization reduces gene flow in a mobile, disturb-tolerant species<sup>20</sup>. Other studies have drawn similar conclusions, finding that habitat fragmentation caused by urbanization expansion affects gene flow among isolated populations, particularly for species with a limited adaptive response to such drastic changes<sup>19,20,41</sup>.

In contrast, genetic structure did not correlate with distance in house wren, though genetic structure correlates weakly with environmental resistance. These results may be related to its widespread distribution and tolerance to changes imposed by urbanization. The house wren is a generalist species that nests in different man-made cavities and feeds on arthropods from a large variety of substrates<sup>32,33</sup>. However, 20 years ago, a study of six house wren populations in Costa Rica found significant IBD and genetic structure<sup>49</sup>. The differences findings of both studies may be attributed to the rapid urban expansion that occurred during the last 20 years in Costa Rica, which likely has increased the dispersal and gene flow for house wren. Additionally, most populations studied by Arguedas & Parker<sup>49</sup> at that time were separated by forested areas, which is a barrier of dispersion for this species, producing less connected populations.

Our results provide evidence for the need of conservation strategies and management for non-resilient species whose habitat has been reduced to small fragments immersed in urban matrices. The neotropics is the most avian diverse region, but the rapid growth of overcrowded cities poses a risk for urban avoider birds<sup>8,55,56</sup>. This is the case of white-eared ground-sparrow that may struggle to withstand the effects of the uncontrolled sprawl of Costa Rican urbanization<sup>26</sup>. Urban expansion will further isolate white-eared ground-sparrow populations and reduce their available habitat, increasing the effect of drift and inbreeding, which may increase the risk of local extinction<sup>17,18</sup>. Other species with similar ecology and behavior than white-eared ground-sparrow may be exposed to the same consequences of urbanization. It is then urgent to implement management and conservation strategies that ameliorate the negative effects of urbanization expansion on the rich Costa Rican avifauna<sup>8</sup>.



In conclusion, our study shows that the effect of unplanned urbanization sprawl on genetic diversity may strongly depend on a species ecology and behavior. Our results indicate that urbanization limits gene flow and has an effect in the genetic structure of white-eared ground-sparrow, but barely affects house wren. Such differences are associated with differences in tolerance to urban ambient and the resources that these landscapes offer to each species. White-eared ground-sparrow is more sensitive to urbanization and habitat loss than house wren, which may result in lower diversity if habitat availability is further reduced. We are aware that our sample sizes may limit our conclusions, however, differences between species were consistent across all our analyses and our results contribute to the scant information on the vulnerability of city avoider species, such as white-eared ground-sparrow. Studies on gene flow in neotropical cities are fundamental to implement conservation strategies that increase connection between patches of natural vegetation immersed in extensive urban matrices.

## Methods

### Study site

We selected four sites for white-eared ground-sparrow (Fig. 6), three located within the Greater Metropolitan Area of Costa Rica (GAM). This is the most densely populated and urbanized area of the country, and though some remaining coffee, sugarcane, and other plantations are still present; most of the area is urbanized. We sampled individuals in Heredia province (**HDA**: 10°01'N, 84°05'W, altitude: 1200-1500m); University of Costa Rica Campus, San José Province (**UCR**: 09°56'N, 84°05'W, altitude: 1200m); and Lankester Botanical Garden, Cartago Province (**JBL**: 09°50'N, 83°53'W, altitude: 1400m). Both Lankester Botanical Garden and University of Costa Rica Campus are urban areas with small patches of secondary vegetation immersed in an urban matrix. HDA had a lower urban coverage, surrounded by both urban zones and coffee plantations. The other sampling site was Monteverde, in the Puntarenas province (**MTV**: 10°18'N, 84°48'W; altitude:1600m), characterized by low

density population, coffee plantations, and large forest patches that connect with more extensive mature forests.

For house wren, we collected individuals in five localities (Fig. 6); three of these localities were the same sampling sites of white-eared ground-sparrow: HDA, UCR and JBL. The MTV sampling site of house wren was located about 5 km south of the white-eared ground-sparrow sampling site ( $10^{\circ}16'N$ ,  $84^{\circ}47'W$ , altitude: 1090m). The fifth sampling site was in Corredores, in the Puntarenas Province (**COR**:  $08^{\circ}35'N$ ,  $82^{\circ}58'W$ ; elevation 11m), and is characterized by extensive oil palm plantations.

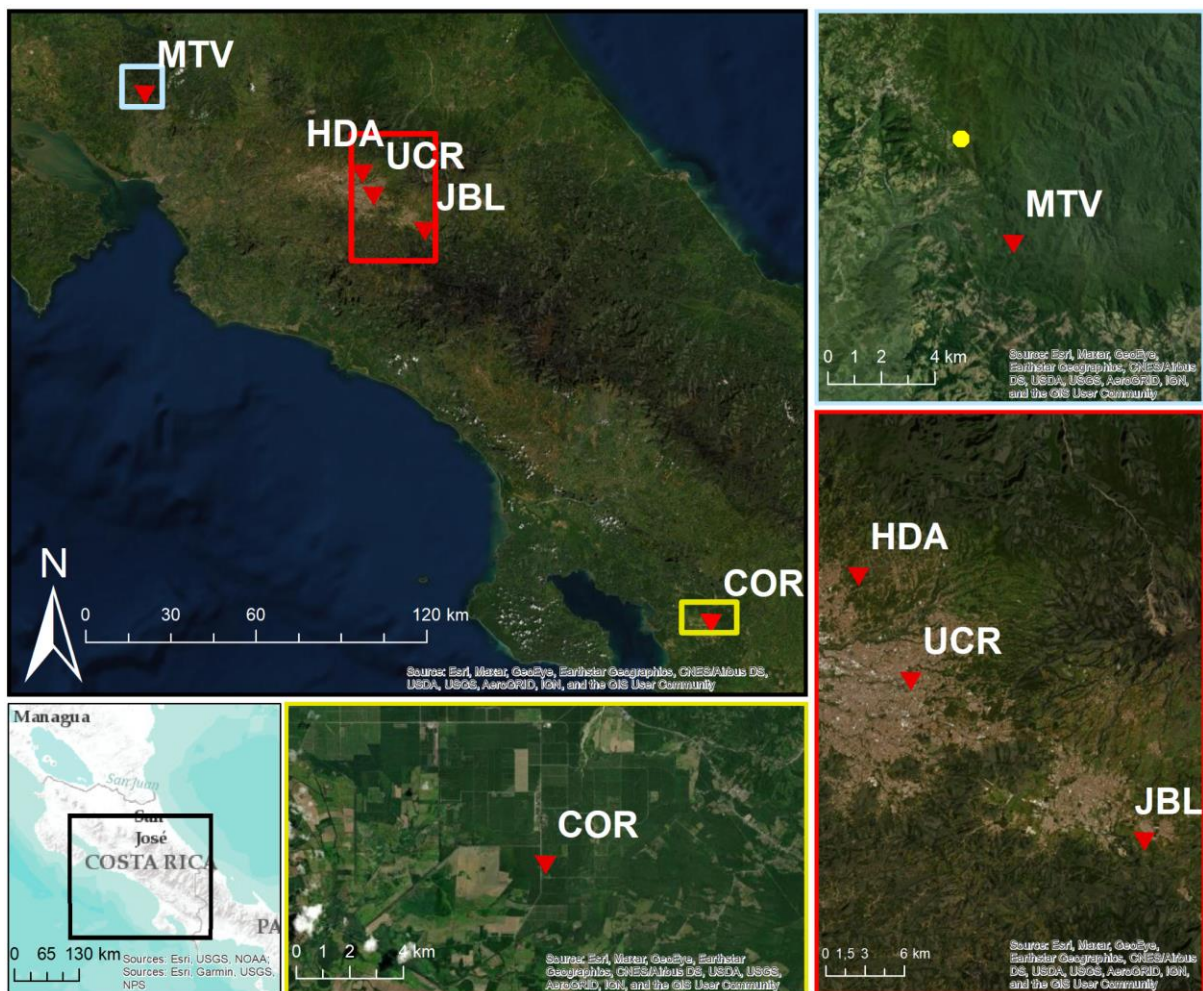


Fig. 6. Satellite images of the sampled locations (red triangles). MTV: Monteverde, HDA: Heredia, UCR: University of Costa Rica, JBL: Lankester Botanical Garden, COR: Corredores. The yellow dot corresponds to the MTV sampling location for white-eared ground-sparrow. Images base map source: Esri, Maxar, GeoEye, Earthstar Geographics, CNES/Airbus DS, USDA, USGS, AeroGRID, IGN, Garmin, NOAA, NPS, and the GIS User Community.

## Sample collection

We captured individuals of white-eared ground-sparrow using mist nets upon song playback in 2012, 2013, and 2019-2021, capturing between 12 to 19 individuals per site. House wren individuals were captured using mist nets upon song playback in 2019-2021, capturing between 11 and 17 individuals per site. We color banded all collected individuals, sexed all adults and categorized juveniles as indeterminate. We collected 10-30 $\mu$ L of blood from the brachial vein for each individual and stored it in 95% ethanol or Lysis buffer for molecular analyses<sup>57</sup>. Anesthesia was not used, and all birds were released unharmed. Procedures were conducted in accordance with the current laws in Costa Rica. Research permits and animal handling protocols were approved by the Research Committee of Biology School and by the Animal Care Committee (ACC) of Universidad de Costa Rica under the project approval code B9-469 and C1-085 of Vicerrectoría de Investigación. All procedures were conducted following the regulations of the ACC.

## DNA extraction and SSR amplification

We extracted DNA from blood and muscle tissue using the DNeasy blood and tissue Kit (Qiagen Inc., Valencia, CA, USA). For white-eared ground-sparrow, we amplified eight primers: Mme2, Mme7, Mme8, As $\mu$ 15, As $\mu$ 18, Esc $\mu$ 6, Gf01 and Gf05<sup>58-61</sup>. For house wren, we amplified eight primers: ThPI-01, ThPI-14, ThPI-17, Ta-C6-7, Ta-B4-2, Ta-A5-2, Ta-A5-15 and Ta-C3(B)-2<sup>62,63</sup>. PCR thermal profiles and primer mixes are described in Supplementary Table S3. We amplified all markers in a 12.5 $\mu$ L reaction containing 0.4 $\mu$ M primer mix and 40ng of template DNA. We used Multiplex Master Kit (Qiagen) for mixed primers and Top Taq Master Kit (Qiagen) for Gf01. We used Veriti™ thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) to perform the PCR reaction. Capillary electrophoresis was done in a 3500 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) at Escuela de Biología, UCR, using Hi-Di™ Formamide and GeneScan™ 500 LIZ™ dye Size Standard (Applied Biosystems). We scored genotypes using GeneMarker 1.91 (SoftGenetics, State College, PA, USA).

## Genetic analysis

We conducted population genetics analyses in R 4.0.2 <sup>64</sup>, using the RStudio 1.3.180 GUI <sup>65</sup>. We calculated expected heterozygosity ( $H_e$ ), observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ), inbreeding coefficients and allelic richness per population (to compensate for differences in sampling size per population) using the “hierfstat” package <sup>66</sup>. We calculated Weir and Cockerham  $F_{st}$  ( $\theta_{wc}$ ) <sup>67</sup>, expected heterozygosity values and 95% confidence interval of both estimates using 9999 bootstrap with *boot.vc* function of the “hierfstat” package. We also calculated pairwise  $\theta_{wc}$  between populations with *pairwise.WCfst* function and its 95%CI using *boot.ppfst* by 9999 bootstrap among loci using the “hierfstat” package.

We visualize individuals' similarity using a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) as implemented in the “adegenet” package <sup>68</sup>. The Bayesian clustering methods in Structure 2.3.4 allowed us to assess the possible genetic clustering of individuals into a  $K$  number of clusters <sup>69</sup>. The admixture model and correlated allele frequencies were used, with 300 000 markov chains and a burnin of 30 000. Phase information was added to include *Mme7* marker in the analysis, since previous evidence has shown this is a Z-linked marker<sup>20,60</sup>. We tested 1 to 6 clusters with 20 repetitions for each cluster. We determined the most likely number of  $K$  clusters using Structure Harvester 0.6.94 <sup>70</sup> and the Evanno <sup>71</sup> and  $\ln(K)$  methods. Then, we conducted another structure analysis after determining the most likely  $K$ , increasing generations and the burning to 1 000 000 and 100 000, respectively.

## Isolation by distance, isolation by resistance and isolation by environment

To test for isolation by distance (IBD) we estimated the correlation between pairwise Euclidean genetic distances and geographic linear distances among individuals using a Mantel test after 9999 permutations. The same coordinates of the sampling sites were assigned to all individuals within each population.

We estimated landscape resistance to movement and isolation by resistance (IBR) using Circuitscape 4.0.5 <sup>72</sup>. To create the resistance raster, we used a 30 m resolution land coverage of 2005 shapefile layer of continental Costa Rica created by the Earth Observatory Systems Laboratory of the University of Alberta, based on Landscape 7 satellite image classification and interpretation into 16 categories

(Supplementary Table S4), part of *Atlas Digital de Costa Rica* 2014 project <sup>73</sup>. We also used a 30 m resolution altitude layer developed by the Atlas Digital de Costa Rica 2008 project raster <sup>73</sup>. To create a resistance grid, we rasterized the land cover into a 100m grid and classified the altitude raster into 200m elevation categories using ArcGis 10.6. ArcGis toolbox “Gnarly Landscape Utilities”, based on resistance values assigned to each land use and altitude categories, according to expert opinion on habitat suitability for both species <sup>74</sup>. As altitude and land use layers overlap, the maximum value of resistance between both layers was assigned to each grid. We performed a pairwise circuit theory analysis of connectivity between all sampling locations of white-eared ground-sparrow and house wren, with a  $\log_{10}$  transformation for the cumulative current map for easier visualization. Finally, the correlation between pairwise resistance values and genetic differentiation among individuals was also tested using a Mantel test with 9999 permutations.

To test for isolation by environment (IBE), we developed a maxent species distribution model using the “Wallace” R library <sup>75</sup>. We obtained the occurrence of each species from the eBird database ([www.ebird.org](http://www.ebird.org)). We then removed duplicated data, erroneous observations and randomly thinned spatial data to 1km for white-eared ground-sparrow and 5 km for house wren. We used all 19 bioclimatic data available at [www.worldclim.org](http://www.worldclim.org) at a 1 km<sup>2</sup> resolution. We delimited the area of calibration to 25 km radius around each occurrence point. We sampled 10 000 background points and used the spatially block partition method. We set regularization multiplier parameters from 0.5 to 4, with 0.5 increments and used 5 feature class combinations (“L”, “H”, “LQ”, “LQH”, “LQHP”, where “L” = linear, “H” = hinge, “Q” = quadratic, “P” = product). We evaluated the models using the area under the curve (AUC) and average 10th percentile omission rate. To convert it into a resistance matrix input for Circuitscape, we performed a *cloglog* map prediction and set it as conductances in our Circuitscape model. We developed pairwise modeling between all sampling locations of white-eared ground-sparrow and house wren with a  $\log_{10}$  transformation for the cumulative current map. We performed a Mantel test with 9999 permutations between individual genetic euclidean distance and resistance values.

## **Data availability**

The datasets generated during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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## **Author Contributions**

M.R-B, L.S., E.J.F. and G.B. designed the study. M.R-B. and L.S. collected the samples. M.R-B and R.M-B. performed lab work. M.R-B, R.M-B. and E.J.F. performed statistical and genetic analyses. M.R-B. drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed, completed and approved the final manuscript.

## **Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

## CONCLUSIONES

Como conclusión, el estudio demuestra que el efecto de la urbanización no planificada sobre la diversidad y estructura genética puede depender en gran medida de la ecología y comportamiento de las especies. Los resultados indican que la urbanización limita el flujo génico y ha tenido un efecto en la estructura genética del pájaro cuatro ojos, pero afecta levemente al soterrey cucarachero. Este contraste se asocia a una diferente tolerancia al ambiente urbano y a los recursos que este ambiente otorga para cada especie. El pájaro cuatro ojos es más sensible a la urbanización y a la pérdida de hábitat que el soterrey cucarachero, lo cual podría resultar en una futura disminución de la diversidad genética si la disponibilidad de hábitat se sigue reduciendo.

Aunque el tamaño de muestra puede limitar las conclusiones, las diferencias entre especies fueron consistentes en todos los análisis realizados. Los resultados obtenidos contribuyen a la escasa información acerca de la vulnerabilidad de las especies “evitadoras urbanas”, como el pájaro cuatro ojos. Estudios que determinen el flujo génico en ciudades neotropicales son fundamentales para la implementación de estrategias de conservación que incrementen la conexión entre parches de vegetación natural inmersas en la extensa matriz urbana, y así promover su supervivencia.

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## ANEXOS

**Anexo 1. Tablas, figuras y referencias suplementarias al artículo.**

Supplementary Table S1. Observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ), Expected heterozygosity ( $H_e$ ), inbreeding coefficient ( $F_{IS}$ ) and allele number ( $A$ ) for polymorphic locus used in this study for white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) and house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*).

Species	Locus	$H_o$	$H_e$	$F_{IS}$	$A$
<i>Melospiza leucotis</i>	Mme2	0.514	0.397	-0.294	3
	Mme7†	0.601	0.530	-0.134	5
	Mme8	0.562	0.503	-0.117	4
	Asu15	0.903	0.854	-0.057	14
	Escu6	0.616	0.565	-0.090	5
	Gf05	0.347	0.368	0.057	7
	Gf01	0.892	0.891	-0.001	21
<i>Troglodytes aedon</i>	Th-PI14	0.904	0.870	-0.039	16
	Ta-C6-7	0.384	0.550	0.302	7
	Ta-A5-15	0.351	0.335	-0.048	3
	Ta-A5-2	0.558	0.628	0.111	7
	Ta-B4-2	0.610	0.605	-0.008	9
	Th-PI17	0.107	0.101	-0.056	2
	Ta-C3(B)- 2	0.320	0.302	-0.059	5

Z-linked locus.

Supplementary Table S2. Pairwise Weir and Cockerham  $F_{ST}$  [95% CI, 9999 bootstraps over loci] between populations for white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) (above diagonal) and house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*) (below diagonal).

	HDA	JBL	UCR	MTV
HDA		0.059 [0.008_0.100]	0.019 [-0.004_0.060]	0.065 [0.0140_0.126]
JBL	0.017 [-0.009_0.037]		0.070 [0.024_0.108]	0.161 [0.080_0.250]
UCR	0.031 [-0.017_0.077]	0.035 [0.003_0.055]		0.123 [0.014_0.255]
MTV	0.046 [0.027_0.070]	0.057 [0.023_0.099]	0.083 [0.056_0.110]	
COR	0.084 [0.057_0.111]	0.086 [0.030_0.167]	0.089 [0.038_0.125]	0.098 [0.027_0.190]

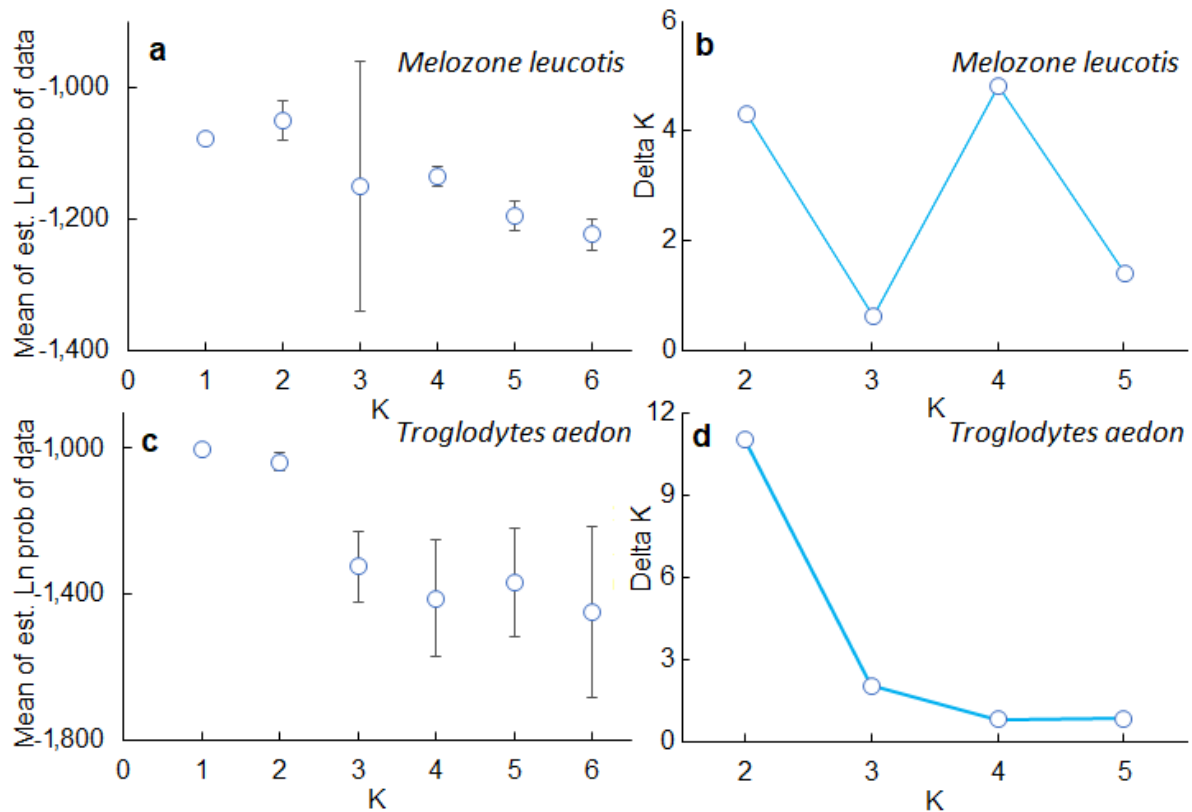


Supplementary Table S3. Primer mixes and PCR thermal conditions used for the study.

Species	Mix	Primer	Reference	Thermal profile	
<i>Melospiza leucotis</i>	1	Mme2	1	95 °C for 15 min; 33 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 58 °C for 1:30 min, 72 °C for 1:00 min; followed by 60 °C for 30 min	
		Mme7	1		
		Mme8	1		
	2	As $\mu$ 15	2	95 °C for 15 min; 30 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 1:30 min, 72 °C for 1:00 min; followed by 60 °C for 30 min	
		As $\mu$ 18	2		
		Esc $\mu$ 6	3		
		Gf05	4		
	-	Gf01	4	94 °C for 3 min; 33 cycles of 94 °C for 1:00 min, 50 °C for 1:30 min, 72 °C for 1:00 min; followed by 72 °C for 10:00 min	
	<i>Troglodytes aedon</i>	3	ThPI-01	5	95 °C 15 min; 25 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 60 °C for 1:30 min, 72 °C for 1:00 min; followed by 60 °C for 30 min
			ThPI-14	5	
Ta-C6-7			6		
4		Ta-A5-15	6		
		Ta-A5-2	6		
		Ta-B4-2	6		
5		Ta-C3(B)-2	6	95 °C for 15 min; touchdown 13 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 63-51 °C for 1:30 min decreasing 1 °C per cycle, 72 °C for 1:00 min; followed by 12 cycles of 94 °C for 1:00 min, 50 °C for 1:00 min, 72 °C for 1:00 min; followed by 60 °C for 30 min	
		ThPI-17	5		

Supplementary Table S4. Resistance value of each category of land cover and altitude designated for white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melospiza leucotis*) and house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*).

Layer	Category	Resistance value	Resistance value	
Land Cover	Non Forestal	20	20	
	Water	80	80	
	Secondary forest	1	1	
	Forest	20	20	
	Mangrove swamp	100	100	
	Forestry	20	20	
	Non classified	100	100	
	Clouds	20	20	
	Agriculture	40	40	
	Páramo	40	40	
	Palm forest	20	20	
	Limits	100	100	
	Deforestation	40	40	
	Coffee	1	1	
	Urban use	100	100	
	Burned areas	100	100	
	Altitude (MSL)	0-200	100	1
		200-400	100	1
		400-600	100	1
		600-800	50	1
800-1000		1	1	
1000-1200		1	1	
1200-1400		1	1	
1400-1600		1	1	
1600-1800		1	1	
1800-2000		50	1	
2000-2200		100	1	
2200-2400		100	1	
2400-2600		100	1	
2600-2800		100	1	
2800-3000		100	50	
3000-3200		100	100	
3200-3400	100	100		
3400-3600	100	100		
3600-3818	100	100		



Supplementary Figure S1. Structure Harvester results: mean L(K) (a and c) and Delta K (b and d) for both white-eared ground-sparrow (*Melozone leucotis*) (a and b) and house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*) (c and d).

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