- Following the Cold: Geographic Differentiation between Interglacial Refugia and
 Speciation in Arcto-Alpine Species Complex *Bombus monticola* (Hymenoptera: Apidae)
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34 ABSTRACT

Cold-adapted species are expected to reach their largest distribution range during a part of the 35 Ice Ages while the post-glacial warming leads to their range contracting toward high latitude 36 and high altitude areas. This results in extant allopatric distribution of populations and possibly 37 to trait differentiations (selected or not) or even speciation. Assessing an inter-refugium 38 39 differentiation or speciation remains challenging for such organisms because of sampling difficulties (several disjunct population) and disagreement on species concept. Here, we 40 assessed post-glacial inter-refugium differentiation and potential speciation among populations 41 of the most common arcto-alpine bumblebee species in European mountains, Bombus 42 monticola Smith 1849. Based on mtDNA/nuDNA markers and eco-chemical traits, we 43 44 performed integrative taxonomic analyses to evaluate alternative species delimitation hypothesis and to assess geographic differentiation between interglacial refugia and speciation 45 in arcto-alpine species. Our results show that trait differentiations occurred between most of 46 South European mountains (i.e. Alps, Balkan, Pyrenees and Apennines) and Arctic regions. We 47 suggest that. monticola complex actually includes three species: B. konradini sp. nov. status 48 distributed in Italy (Central Apennine Mountains), B. monticola with five subspecies, including 49 B. monticola mathildis ssp. nov. distributed in North Apennine Mountins and B. lapponicus. 50 Our results support that post Ice-Age periods can lead to speciation in cold-adapted species 51 through distribution range contraction. We underline the importance of integrative taxonomy 52 approach for rigorous species delimitation and for evolutionary study and conservation of 53 taxonomically challenging taxa. 54

55 Keywords

56 Arcto-alpine regions, Bombus, cold-adapted species, integrative taxonomic approach, inter-

- 57 refugium differentiation, post-glacial warming
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64 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Past climatic oscillations have led to significant changes in distributions of species. 65 However, species responses to climate change depend mainly on their eco-climatic 66 requirements and tolerances (Hewitt, 2004; Stewart et al., 2010). Pleistocene and Quaternary 67 climatic cycles triggered massive population movements resulting in periods of species range 68 reductions (i.e. during cold periods when populations are restricted to refuge areas) for 69 70 temperate species followed by periods of species range expansions (i.e. during warmer periods when populations recolonize at least portions of their initial range) (Reinig, 1937; Hewitt, 71 2004a; Stewart et al., 2010). These population dynamics have fostered intraspecific divergence 72 processes leading to differentiation and possibly speciation (Avise, 2000; Hewitt, 2004). On the 73 74 other hand, alternative demographic histories and subsequent differentiation patterns can be expected for cold-adapted species. Assessing accurately consequences of past climate change 75 on differentiation and speciation process is a key element to better understand and predict the 76 77 evolution of future biodiversity and to propose evidence-based mitigation strategies (Rasmont 78 et al., 2015).

While population dynamics of temperate species fostered by past climatic events and 79 their consequences have been the focus of abundant research (Zagwijn, 1992; Taberlet, 1998; 80 Hewitt, 1999; Stewart et al., 2010), cold-adapted species have received comparatively far less 81 attention to date (Mardulyn et al., 2009). Contrary to temperate taxa, cold-adapted species are 82 83 thought to have reached their largest distribution range during the Ice Ages (Hewitt, 2011). The post-glacial warming and subsequent interglacial period is thought to have led to range 84 contraction of such cold-adapted species toward the high latitude/altitude areas (Barnes et al., 85 2007; Fedorov et al., 2008; Hewitt, 2011). Such a population dynamic scenario can explain 86 current allopatric patterns of species distributed in Arctic and southern mountains (i.e. arcto-87 alpine species) acting as interglacial refugia. These taxa have their current distribution in the 88 89 relicts (refugia) of a widespread distribution fragmented by post-glacial warming (Reinig, 1937;

Mardulyn *et al.*, 2009; Dellicour *et al.*, 2014). In Europe, due to interglacial periods, arctoalpine species exhibit a strong pattern of allopatry between Southern mountains (Pyrenees,
Alps, Apennines, Balkans and Caucasus) and Northern areas (arctic regions of North
Scandinavia and Russia). Such allopatric patterns have fostered and still foster gene flow
disruptions leading to divergence and possibly speciation of cold-adapted species (Avise, 2000;
Hewitt, 2004b).

However, assessing species delimitation remains challenging because it requires to
arbitrarily select variable traits whose accuracy continues to be debated (Mayr, 1942; De
Queiroz, 2007; Lecocq *et al.*, 2015a). Moreover, it is quite difficult to comprehensively sample
specimens for phylogeographic or speciation studies across vast inhospitable areas such as high
altitude mountains and arctic areas (Hewitt, 2011). This could lead to the underestimation of
the variability within each allopatric population and to misunderstand the allopatric
differentiation process.

The integrative taxonomy based on the unified species concept (De Queiroz, 2007) aims 103 to overcome limitations due to unsettled adequacy of selected diagnostic traits and limited 104 105 sampling. First, the approach considers multiple independent lines of evidence to evaluate inter-106 population differentiation processes and taxonomic statuses (Schlick-Steiner et al., 2010; Lecocq et al., 2015a,b). This reduces the likelihood of false taxonomic conclusions driven by 107 108 single trait. Second, analyzing multiple traits to investigate inter-population differentiation allows to increase the amount of information available despite a limited sample size (Lecocq et 109 110 al., 2011).

Among potential organisms of interest for studying climatic oscillation consequences 111 112 on cold-adapted species, bumblebees (Hymenoptera, Apidae, Bombus) represent a relevant biological system because some of them (i) live in the coldest areas inhabited by insects, (ii) 113 have undergone diversification processes during the Pleistocene and Quaternary climatic cycles 114 (Hines, 2008; Duennes et al., 2012; Martinet et al., 2015a; Rasmont et al., 2015; Dellicour et 115 al., 2016). Their interspecific and inter-population differentiations have been studied for a long 116 time (e.g., Reinig, 1939). However, different diagnostic traits (morphological traits, DNA 117 sequences, eco-chemical traits) have been used, resulting in conflicting biological conclusions 118 (e.g., Gjershaug et al., 2013; Williams et al., 2015). Over the past few years, the efficiency of 119

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available diagnostic characters has been critically discussed and a merging of these traits in an 120 integrative taxonomic framework has been proposed (e.g. Lecocq et al., 2015a). This provides 121 the opportunity to efficiently delimitate species for a common cold-adapted bumblebee species 122 with a strong pattern of allopatry. Moreover, integrative taxonomy can help to define the 123 subspecies status of allopatric populations (Lecocq et al., 2015a). In bumblebees, subspecies 124 definition is traditionally based on color pattern variation but this diagnostic character requires 125 126 an extensive overview of the inter-individual variability (Bertsch & Schweer, 2012a). However, 127 color pattern has been shown to be unsuitable for taxonomic delimitation (Vogt, 1909; Bertsch & Schweer, 2012a; Carolan et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2015) as well as for intraspecific 128 variation study (Lecocq et al., 2015b,c). 129

Here, we investigated the potential inter-refugium differentiation and speciation within 130 the most common arcto-alpine bumblebee species in European mountains (Rasmont et al., 131 2015): Bombus (Pyrobombus) monticola Smith 1849. We sampled all the allopatric regions 132 where the species is known (infra-specific taxa). We analyzed inter-population differentiation 133 through multiple diagnostic traits: (i) a mtDNA marker (cytochrome oxidase I, COI), (ii) a 134 nuDNA marker (phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase, PEPCK), and (iii) eco-chemical traits 135 (cephalic labial gland secretions, CLGS). Based on these traits, we developed an integrative 136 taxonomic approach sensu Lecocq et al. (2015a,c) to assess the taxonomic status of major 137 clades. We aim to exemplify the consequences of climate change on the evolution of cold-138 adapted bumblebees with a common mountainous species. 139

140 2. MATERIAL & METHODS

141 2.1. Model Species

Bombus (Pyrobombus) monticola Smith 1849 is an arcto-alpine species widespread in 142 the alpine and sub-alpine stages of the most highest mountain ranges of Europe with isolated 143 populations in Northern Europe and Mediterranean mountains (Cantabrian Mountains, 144 Pyrenees, Alps, Apennines, and Balkans but not Caucasus) (Svensson, 1979; Kuhlmann et al., 145 2014; Rasmont et al., 2015). Bombus monticola was confirmed as an unique taxonomic unit by 146 chemical (cephalic labial gland secretion and enzymology) and genetic analysis (Svensson, 147 1979; Gjershaug et al., 2013) in comparison with its most similar taxon B. lapponicus 148 (Fabricius, 1793). The analysis of Hines (2008), suggested that Bombus monticola diverged 149

from its sister species B. lapponicus about 3 Ma (Hines, 2008). The species displays 150 geographically differentiated color patterns (Reinig, 1965) that have been used to define five 151 phenotypically diagnosable allopatric subspecies (Tab.1 Fig 2, (Rasmont et al., 2015)): (i) B. 152 monticola scandinavicus Friese 1912 (Fennoscandia), (ii) B. monticola monticola Smith 1849 153 (British Islands), (iii) B. monticola alpestris (= hypsophilus, Tkalcu 1992) Vogt 1909 (Alps, the 154 Balkans, and the Olympus Mount), (iv) B. monticola rondoui Vogt 1909 (Cantabrian Mountains 155 and Pyrenees), and (v) B. monticola konradini Reinig 1965 (Apennine Mountains) (Figs. 1-2). 156 157 We define "monticola complex" as Bombus monticola ssp. + Bombus lapponicus and only

158 *"monticola"* gathering exclusively all subspecies of *Bombus monticola*.

159 *2.2. Sampling*

We sampled 70 specimens including all B. monticola taxa (Appendix S1) from all 160 mountain ranges of Europe: B. monticola scandinavicus (n=11) from North Scandinavia, B. 161 162 monticola monticola (n=10) from the British Islands, B. monticola rondoui (n=9) from the Pyrenees, *B. monticola alpestris* from the Alps (n=9), Balkans (n=3) and the Olympus 163 Mountain (n=1) and B. monticola konradini (sensu Reinig, 1965) from the Central Apennines 164 (Sibilini Mountains) (n=5) and from the North Apennines (n=2). The North Apennines 165 population, whose geographic distribution includes the highest peaks in the Apuan Alps, is 166 separated by wide gaps not only from the Central Apennines populations but also from alpine 167 alpestris (almost 230 km). We used the phylogenetically closely related species B. 168 (Pyrobombus) lapponicus (n=10) for comparison (see Cameron et al., 2007) and B. bimaculatus 169 (Cresson 1863) (n=10) to root trees in our genetic analyses. All specimens were killed by 170 freezing at -20°C. We considered all taxa without a priori taxonomic status and referred to them 171 as scandinavicus, monticola, rondoui, alpestris, konradini, lapponicus, and bimaculatus 172 (Tab.2). We further split konradini into konradini-N to indicate the Northern Apennines 173 population and *konradini*-C to indicate the Central Apennines population. 174

175 2.3. Genetic Differentiation Analyses

To investigate the potential genetic differentiation between *B. monticola* taxa, we
sequenced two genes that are commonly used in bee phylogenetic and phylogeographic studies
(e.g. Pedersen, 2002; Cameron *et al.*, 2007; Williams *et al.*, 2012, Dellicour *et al.*, 2015): the
mitochondrial gene COI and the nuclear gene PEPCK. We performed DNA extraction protocol,
polymerase chain reaction (COI primers Apl2013/Aph2931, Pedersen 2002; PEPCK primers
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FHv4/RHv4, Cameron et al., 2007), sequencing procedures, and DNA sequence alignment 181 using the method described in Lecocq *et al.* (2013). We uploaded the resulting COI (938 bp) 182 and PEPCK (925 bp) sequences in GenBank (accession numbers Appendix S1). 183

We investigated the potential genetic differentiation within *B. monticola* through 184 haplotype network analyses and phylogenetic inference. We carried out the analyses for each 185 gene individually. We used the median-joining method to produce haplotype networks with 186 Network 4.6.1.0 (www.fluxus-engineering.com). We weighted transversions twice as high as 187 188 transitions to reconstruct the network (Lecocq et al., 2015).

In phylogenetic analyses, we analyzed each gene with maximum parsimony (MP), 189 maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian (MB) methods. We carried out maximum parsimony 190 analyses (heuristic method) using Seaview 3.2 (Galtier et al., 1996) with 1,000,000 replicas. 191 Only high quality trees and the majority rule 50% consensus tree were conserved. For ML and 192 193 MB, each gene was partitioned as follows: (i) the nuclear gene (PEPCK) into two exons and two introns and (ii) each nuclear exon and (iii) the mitochondrial gene (COI) by base positions 194 (first, second and third nucleotide) to define the best substitution model with JModelTest Server 195 2.0 (Posada, 2008) using the corrected Akaike information criterion. Best-fitting substitution 196 models :(i) for COI : GTR+I (1st position), TIM2+I (2nd position), TrN+G (3rd position) ; (ii) 197 for PEPCK intron 1: TPM1 uf +I ; (iii) for PEPCK exon 1: HKY+I (1st position), JC (2nd 198 position), TrN+I (3rd position); (iv) for PEPCK intron 2: TrN+I; (v) for PEPCK exon 2 : JC 199 (1st position), JC (2nd position), JC (3rd position). For maximum likelihood analyses (ML), 200 we performed 10 independent runs in GARLI 2.0 for both genes (Zwickl, 2006); the topology 201 and-ln L was the same among replicates. Only the run with the highest likelihood was saved. 202 We assessed statistical significance of nodes with 10,000 nonparametric bootstrap replicates. 203 We considered a topology well supported (high confidence) whenever the bootstrap value 204 (branch supports) was greater than 85% (Hillis & Bull, 1993). We carried out Bayesian 205 inference analyses (MB) with MRBAYES 3.1.2 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003). We achieved 206 10 independent analyses for each gene (100 million generations, four chains with mixed 207 208 models, default priors, saving trees every 100 generations). Then we removed the first 10,000,000 generations as burn-in procedure. Then a majority-rule 50% consensus tree was 209 210 constructed. Only branch supports (topologies) with high posterior probabilities (≥ 0.95) were

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considered statistically significant (Wilcox *et al.*, 2002). We (re) rooted all trees with the taxon

212 *B. bimaculatus.*

To check the robustness of the genetic analyses, we applied the bGMYC method to the 213 monticola complex (COI gene) to recognize species (threshold) following the protocol of 214 Lecocq et al. (2015c). These analyses were performed with "bGMYC" (Reid & Carstens 2012) 215 R packages. The stationarity and the modal coalescent/Yule ratio have been assessed to 216 continue the analysis. A range of probabilities > 0.95 was considered as strong evidence that 217 218 taxa were conspecific while a range of probabilities < 0.05 suggested that taxa was 219 heterospecific (Reid & Carstens 2012). For bGMYC, ultrametric trees have been generated with BEAST 1.7.4 (Drummond et al. 2012) with a phylogenetic clock model to generate a posterior 220 221 distribution of trees (length of the MCMC chain: 1 billion generations). The first million sampled trees as burn-in, using the maximum clade credibility method and setting the posterior 222 223 probability limit to 0. Following the method of *Lecocq et al.* (2015c), we based the bGMYC analysis on 1000 trees sampled every 10 000 generations. For each of these 1000 trees, the 224 MCMC was made of 100 000 generations, discarding the first 90 000 as burn-in and sampling 225 every 100 generations. Posterior probability distribution have been applied against the first 226 227 sample tree to provide a "heat' map".

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229 2.4. Molecular Clock - Estimating Divergence Time

Following the approach of Duennes et al. (2012) and Lecocq et al. (2013), we analyzed 230 the COI dataset in BEAST v1.7.2 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) to estimate the divergence 231 time among different clades. Using the GTR + I model selected by jModeltest, we ran Markov 232 233 chain Monte Carlo simulations with the coalescent constant population size tree model and the relaxed clock model. Considering that no fossils of Pyrobombus species are available, the 234 phylogeny is calibrated with a range date from a molecular study. We specified a range of 235 possible substitution rates which includes the extreme rate for insect mitochondrial genes 236 recorded in the literature (e.g. Duennes et al., 2012) using a flat prior ranging from 1×10-9 to 237 238 $1 \times 10-7$ substitutions site-1 and year-1. Simulations were run for 300 million generations, sampling every 1000 generations. Four independent runs were assessed in Tracer v1.4.1 239 240 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2016) to confirm convergence, determine burn-in, and examine the

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effective sample size of all posterior parameters. Log files from each run were combined in
LogCombiner v1.6.1 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2016) for final parameter estimates.

243 2.5. *Eco-Chemical Traits Differentiation*

We focused on the most studied eco-chemical trait involved in the bumblebee pre-244 mating recognition (Baer, 2003; Ayasse & Jarau, 2014): the cephalic labial gland secretions 245 (CLGS). These secretions are complex mixtures of mainly aliphatic compounds synthesized de 246 novo by male cephalic labial glands (Coppée et al., 2008; Lecocq et al., 2011; Žáček et al., 247 248 2013). We identified the main component as the compound that had the highest relative concentration (RA) among all compounds of CLGSs at least in one specimen of the taxon. The 249 CLGS are species-specific blends with some inter-population variations and are, subsequently, 250 251 commonly used for species discrimination and assessment of intraspecific variability in bumblebees (review in Lecocq et al., 2015a). We extracted the CLGS with 400 µl of n-hexane, 252 253 according to De Meulemeester et al., (2011) and Brasero et al., (2015). Samples were stored at - 40° C prior to the analyses. 254

We qualified the CLGS composition of each sample by gas chromatography-mass 255 spectrometry using a Focus GC (Thermo Scientific) with a non-polar DB-5 ms capillary column 256 [5% phenyl (methyl) polysiloxane stationary phase; column length 30 m; inner diameter 0.25 257 mm; film thickness 0.25 µm] coupled to DSQ II quadrupol mass analyser (Thermo Scientific) 258 with 70 eV electron impact ionization. We identified each compound using the retention times 259 and mass spectra of each peak, in comparison to those from the National Institute of Standards 260 and Technology library (NIST, U.S.A) database. We determined double bound positions (C=C) 261 by dimethyl disulfide (DMDS) derivatization (Vincenti et al., 1987). 262

We quantified the CLGS compounds with a gas chromatograph Shimadzu GC-2010 263 system (GC-FID) equipped with a non-polar SLB-5 ms capillary column [5% phenyl (methyl) 264 polysiloxane stationary phase; column length 30 m; inner diameter 0.25 mm; film thickness 265 0.25 µm] and a flame ionization detector. We quantified the peak areas of compounds in GC 266 solution postrun (Shimadzu Corporation) with automatic peak detection and noise 267 268 measurement. The relative areas (RAs, expressed in %) of compounds in each sample were calculated by dividing the peak areas of compounds by the total area of all compounds. We 269 270 excluded compounds for which RA were less than 0.1% for all specimens (De Meulemeester 271 et al., 2011). The data matrix for each taxon was based (Table S2) on the alignment of each "This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

272 relative proportion of compound between all samples performed with GCAligner 1.0 (Dellicour273 & Lecocq, 2013).

For GC/MS and GC-FID analyses, we injected 1 μ L, using a splitless injection mode (injector temperature of 220° C) and helium as carrier gas (1 mL/min, constant velocity of 50cm/s). The oven temperature (of the column)was programmed isothermal at 70° C for 2 min and then rising from 70° C to 320° C at a rate of 10°C/min. The temperature was then held isothermal at 320° C for 5 min.

To facilitate the alignment of compounds and their identification, before each sample injection, a standard (Kovats) was injected containing a mix of hydrocarbons (alkanes) from C10 (decane) to C40 (tetracontane). Kovats indices were calculated with GCKovats 1.0 according to the method described by Dellicour & Lecocq (2013).

We performed statistical comparative analyses of the CLGSs using R environment (R 283 Development Core Team, 2013) to detect CLGS differentiations between *B. monticola* taxa. 284 We used a clustering method, computed with the unweighted pair-group method with average 285 linkage (UPGMA) based on Canberra distance matrices (RA of each compound) (R package 286 287 ape; Legendre & Legendre, 2004; Paradis et al., 2004), to detect the divergence between taxa 288 in the CLGS composition. We assessed the uncertainty in hierarchical cluster analysis using pvalues calculated by multiscale bootstrap resampling with 100,000 bootstrap replications 289 (significant branch supports >0.85) (R package pvclust, Suzuki & Shimodaira 2011). We 290 assessed CLGS differentiations between taxa by performing a permutation multivariate analysis 291 292 of variance using distance matrix (PerMANOVA) (R package vegan, Oksanen et al., 2011). When a significant difference was detected, we performed a pairwise multiple comparison with 293 an adjustment of p-values (Bonferroni correction) to avoid type I errors. We determined specific 294 compounds of each taxon (indicator compounds) with the indicator-value (IndVal) method 295 (Dufrêne & Legendre, 1997; Claudet et al., 2006). This value is the product of relative 296 297 concentration and relative occurrence frequency of a compound within a group. The statistical significance of an indicator compound (threshold of 0.01) was evaluated with a randomization 298 procedure. 299

300 2.6. Morphological Analyses

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A total of 60 specimens were subjected to morphological analysis to discriminate B. 301 lapponicus, B. konradini and B. monticola. We includes only workers to have a sufficient 302 sampling and because the differences in metabasitarsus measurements were more pronounced 303 in females than males. We selected the maximum length and width metabasitarsus distance in 304 305 reference to the work of Gjershaug et al. (2013) and we calculated the ration (max length/max width) of these two measures to reduce the effect of body size on this morphological analysis. 306 307 One picture was taken for each measurement and specimen using a binocular coupled with a 308 digital camera (Nikon D70). The specimen was positioned in a way to maximize the focus of 309 the metabasitarsus. The maximum metabasitarsus distance was measured on the picture with the software Imagej 1.5 (Abràmoff et al., 2004) (Tab. 1, Appendix S3). Kruskal-Wallis analyses 310 (Kruskal-Wallis test and Multiple comparison test after Kruskal-Wallis, "pgirmess" R-package, 311 Siegel & Castellan, 1988) were performed using R (R Development Core Team, 2013) to 312 313 compare the different studied taxa.

314 2.7. Data Integration and Decision Framework

Assuming that species diagnosis and inter-population differentiation are more efficient 315 in a multiple evidence based approach (De Queiroz, 2007; Schlick-Steiner et al., 2010), we 316 proposed a species delimitation hypothesis according to our genetic and CLGS criteria based 317 on the method performed by Lecocq et al.(2015a) derived from the approach established by 318 Schlick-Steiner et al. (2010). In this method, all criteria used in the integrative approach must 319 be convergent to assign the specific status. This strict approach could lead to underestimate the 320 species differentiation but reduce the taxonomic inflation (Lecocq et al., 2015a) We assigned 321 the species status to a taxon (with a high degree of certainty) if this taxon: (i) was genetically 322 323 differentiated in all genetic markers (unique haplotype); (ii) constituted a monophyletic group with high branch support; (iii) was significantly differentiated in CLGS compositions 324 (including IndVal indicator compounds, PerMANOVA, high bootstrap values > 0.85) (Lecocq 325 et al., 2015a). We assigned the subspecies taxonomic status to phenotypically distinct allopatric 326 populations with differentiation in some traits but not all in order to highlight these populations 327 328 displaying of a such differentiation (originality) and to reduce the "underestimate's risk" of our strict approach to assign species status by naming them as a subspecies (Hawlitschek et al., 329 330 2012; Ennen et al., 2014; Lecocq et al., 2016).

331 2.8. Identification and Type Revision

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The type series of *Bombus lapponicus konradini* Reinig 1965 are presently at the Zoologische Staatssammlung München and have been revisited for this study. The identification of other studied taxa was checked with traditional identification keys such as Løken (1973) and Gjershaug *et al.* (2013).

336 3. RESULTS

337 *3.1. Inter-Taxa Differentiation*

Haplotype network analysis revealed six unique haplotypes for COI and two for PEPCK 338 339 (Fig.3) within B. monticola taxa complex. konradini-C was the only taxon displaying unique COI (6.8 % sequence difference from monticola alpestris and 5.3% from lapponicus) and 340 PEPCK (0.7% sequence difference from monticola and 0.97% from lapponicus) haplotypes in 341 the ingroup. All phylogenetic analyses (MP, ML and MB) of each single gene showed a similar 342 topology with clades corresponding to haplotype groups found in the networks. Analyses 343 showed strong support for all groups, but the position of konradini-C was variable in the clade 344 in our phylogenetic analyses, and hence remains uncertain (Fig.3). Phylogenetic analyses on 345 PEPCK showed two main lineages within "monticola" (Fig.3): the central Apennines lineage 346 (konradini-C, hereafter referred to simply as konradini) and the main lineage (all other taxa). 347 COI-based trees resolved *konradini* as the sister group to the outgroup *B. lapponicus* rather than 348 to other lineages of B. monticola. Among these last ones, COI phylogenetic trees underlined 349 some geographic subgroups within "monticola" (Fig.3): (i) the northern Apennine lineage of 350 "monticola" (described hereafter as mathildis ssp. nov.), (ii) a western group including taxa 351 from Pyrenees (rondoui) and Scotland (monticola); (iii) an eastern-northern group including 352 specimens from Sweden (scandinavicus) and Alps + Balkans + Olympus Mt. (alpestris). 353

Compare to the maximum likelihood and Bayesian methods for COI data, the tree 354 generated for bGMYC analysis displays significant difference mainly in the branching of 355 *mathildis* ssp. nov. These differences are probably due to the different parameters used in the 356 BEAST 1.7.4 software to calculate the bGMYC model and because this heat map is plotted 357 against on a sample tree and not on the consensus tree. The bGMYC analysis (Fig. 4) highlights 358 359 several entities with low probabilities (<0.05) to be conspecific with the other ones which match with the same taxa recognize in the COI tree (MP, ML, MB methods, Fig. 3). This threshold 360 361 leads us to consider three prospective species within the monticola complex and the comparison 362 group *B. bimaculatus* as in Fig. 3 where the monophyly of these species is highly supported: (i) "This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

363 one group including all *lapponicus* (bGMYC conspecificity probabilities between individuals 364 included in the group, IP >0.98–1), (ii) a group with all *konradini* from Central Apennines (IP 365 >0.99–1), (iii) one group with all *bimaculatus* (IP >0.98–1), (iv) all *monticola* subspecies (IP > 366 0.13-0.95) including rondoui (IP >0.95–1), alpestris (IP >0.95–1), scandinavicus (IP >0.98–1), 367 monticola (IP >0.99–1) and *mathildis* nov. spp. (IP >0.99–1) which are significantly 368 conspecific. The "heap map" (Fig. 4) shows more structure within *B. monticola* ssp. where the 369 group displays more different haplotypes.

370 In chemical analyses, 103 compounds were detected; 82 in the CLGSs of B. monticola taxa (Appendix S2) except for konradini for which we detected only 50 compounds. The 371 differentiation of CLGS composition between B. monticola taxa and outgroup species (B. 372 lapponicus and B. bimaculatus) was conspicuous (IndVal; PerMANOVA F=115.63 and F= 373 122.52, p-value < 0.05; Fig.3). Except *konradini*, all other *B. monticola* taxa shared the same 374 375 compounds with similar relative concentration (RA) (PerMANOVA F= 6.00 - 13.20, p-value >0.05) (Appendix S2). Differences between konradini and other B. monticola taxa were 376 particularly marked in the first half of the spectrum representing the most volatile molecules. 377 The relative abundance of several compounds was different compared with the relative 378 abundance in other taxa of B. monticola. The IndVal method highlighted several unique and 379 diagnostic compounds of konradini (Tab. 3; i.e. ethyl tetradecenoate, ethyl tetradecanoate, 380 hexadec-7-en-1-ol ethyl octadecadienoate, dotriacontane, ethyl octadec-9-enoate). In particular, 381 konradini was characterized by ethyl octadec-9-enoate with a relative abundance of 8.28% 382 while it had very low relative abundance in other subspecies (median 0.57%). The 383 discrimination between konradini and other B. monticola taxa was supported by maximal 384 bootstrap support values (100%) (Fig.3). This differentiation was confirmed by statistical 385 analysis (PerMANOVA F= 29.36 p-value < 0.05, between konradini and other B. monticola 386 taxa). 387

388 *3.2. Taxonomic Status*

Species status was confirmed for the comparison group *B. bimaculatus* and *B. lapponicus*. According to the mtDNA and nuDNA divergence along with the CLGS composition differentiation (including main compounds) (Tab. 4), the species status was assigned to *konradini* (detailed information is given in Supporting information, Appendix S3). *Bombus konradini* was originally described by Reinig (1965) as a subspecies typical of the

394 northern Apennines, ranging from the provinces of Genova and Parma to L'Aquila. All other taxa were included in *B. monticola* but their color pattern (Tab.1) and/or differentiation in 395 CLGS composition (minor quantitative differences) and/or in COI marker implied their 396 assignation to the subspecies status. It is important to note the distinction of the north Apennines 397 398 (province of Genoa and Parma) monticola population (B. monticola mathildis ssp. nov) from the central Apennines taxon (B. konradini nov. status) and the population from the Alps (B. 399 400 monticola alpestris). Indeed, considering the slight differentiation in COI (0.53% of divergence 401 from *alpestris*) and the strong divergence in coat color from *alpestris* (Tab.1, Fig.3), the north Apennines population should have a new subspecies status: B. monticola mathildis (detailed 402 information is given in Supporting information, Appendix S3). 403

404 *3.3. Divergence Times among Clades*

Based on the COI data, the divergence between B. konradini (Central Apennines) and 405 406 B. lapponicus was estimated with a median of 0.79 Ma (min 0.25 - max 1.9 Ma) at the end of the Günz-Mindel inter-glacial period. The divergence time between the outgroup *bimaculatus* 407 408 and the clade "monticola-lapponicus-konradini" was estimated with a median of 2.40 Ma (min 1.14 - max 3.88 Ma). In contrast, the divergence time between lapponicus-konradini and the 409 clade "monticola" was estimated with a median of 2.30 Ma (min 1.23 - max 4.11 MA. These 410 last two divergence times correspond approximately to the onset of glaciation events and the 411 formation of the Bering Strait. The other *monticola* subspecies have diverged recently with a 412 estimated time of 40,000-18,000 (min 7,500 - max 548,000) years ago. 413

414 *3.4. Morphological Analysis*

Measurements of the ratio maximum length and width metabasitarsus show significant 415 differences (Kruskal-Wallis multiple comparison chi²= 32.757; all p-values < 0.05) between 416 lapponicus and monticola alpestris, monticola mathildis ssp. nov. The ratio is also significantly 417 different between konradini and monticola ssp. but not between monticola alpestris and 418 monticola mathildis (Fig. S2, Appendix S3). However, between konradini and lapponicus, 419 although our results present a clear trend which highlight a larger ratio for *konradini*, there is 420 421 no significant differentiation. According these results, konradini appears as intermediate between monticola sensu stricto (large metabasitarsus ratio) and lapponicus (short 422 423 metabasitarsus ratio). Diagnostic morphological characters are summarized in Tab. 1.

424 4. DISCUSSION

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425 *4.1. Inter-Population Differentiation of B. monticola*

The concordance between genetic differentiation, geographic distribution, and CLGS 426 divergence of populations suggests a strong intraspecific structure between the subspecies of 427 monticola (Fig.3). The western subspecies (B. monticola rondoui from Pyrenees and B. 428 monticola monticola from British Islands), the north Apennines population (B. monticola 429 mathildis ssp. nov.) and the eastern-northern subspecies (B. monticola scandinavicus from 430 431 Sweden and B. monticola alpestris from Alps, Balkans and Olympus Mt) constitute, with the 432 COI marker, five differentiated groups in three main lineages which diverged recently (about 40,000 -18,000 years ago based on molecular clock) during the Pleistocene/Quaternary (Fig.3). 433 This could explain the weak divergence of PEPCK marker between monticola subspecies 434 (recent divergence) because nuclear genes have a lower mutation rate than mitochondrial genes 435 (Lunt et al., 1996; Trunz et al., 2016). Such time-estimation matches with the start of the last 436 437 post-glacial warming. So, it appears that the geographic pattern is most likely a consequence of allopatric differentiation and genetic drift triggered by a range fragmentation subsequent to the 438 last post-glacial warming. We speculate that, at the beginning of the current interglacial time, 439 taxa have found refuge in southern mountainous areas (Alps and southern peninsulas of Europe) 440 and Northern Europe by contraction of their distribution areas or range shifting (Hewitt, 1999; 441 Hewitt & Ibrahim, 2001; Petit et al., 2003; Stewart et al., 2010), similarlyto the boreo-montane 442 leaf beetle (Chrysomelidae), Gonioctena pallida (Mardulyn et al., 2009). The resulting 443 allopatry has fostered mtDNA differentiation along with minor differentiation of chemical 444 reproductive traits similarly to what has already been shown for insular populations of 445 bumblebees (Lecocq et al., 2013, 2015a). 446

Despite their relative geographic isolation, all other B. monticola allopatric taxa 447 previously recognized by Reinig (1965) are considered as conspecific based on our diagnostic 448 criteria with a low geographic genetic and phenotypic differentiation (decision framework 449 Tab.4; Fig.3). They shared overall the same CLGS composition (except some low relative 450 concentration differences) and are characterized by only a slight genetic differentiation. These 451 452 low differentiations, particularly in CGLS composition, can simply be explained by the short time of divergence due to geographical isolation and intraspecific variability (Lecocq et al., 453 454 2011, 2016). Within Bombus monticola alpestris, the three sampled populations (Alps, Balkans and Olympus Mountain) are clearly consubspecific. 455

456 *4.2. Mountain Top Speciation: Bombus konradini nov.status.*

Contrary to the situation within B. monticola, B. konradini nov. status displays larger 457 genetic and chemical traits differentiations (Fig. 3). Allopatry has most likely shaped the 458 reproductive trait (CLGS) differentiation as observed in other species (Lecocq et al., 2013). The 459 strong genetic differentiation of *B. konradini* could be explained by an earlier divergence from 460 the common ancestor with other *B. monticola* lineages, most likely temporally close to the *B.* 461 monticola - B. lapponicus complex divergence. Indeed, based on genetic differences in the 16S 462 463 gene, Hines (2008) suggested that B. lapponicus and B. monticola diverged from each other about 3 Ma. In temperate species, the post Ice-Age recolonization of territories by relict 464 populations (from refugia), could lead to a new shuffling of the genetic pool by re-contacting 465 of these populations without speciation (Coyne & Orr, 2004; Hewitt, 2004). The modification 466 of geographical range could trigger genetic and CLGS differentiation. Indeed, it has been shown 467 468 that the reproductive traits including cephalic labial glands secretions can differentiate from both sides of the physical barriers that may exist between the refuge areas (Lecocq et al., 2013a). 469 470 The case of the new species status of *B. konradini* lends strength to the hypothesis that for coldadapted taxa, climatic oscillations (i.e. interglacial periods) have led to species differentiation 471 in mountain refuges after geographical separation. Further phylogeographic and phylogenetic 472 studies, based on larger sampling (including additional closely related species) and other 473 genetic markers, are needed to accurately assess these hypotheses. 474

Our integrative taxonomic decision framework supported and confirmed the species 475 status of B. monticola compared with its morphologically closely related species (B. 476 lapponicus) (Løken, 1973; Svensson, 1979; Cameron et al., 2007; Gjershaug et al., 2013). Our 477 478 results also supported the species status of *konradini* which is endemic of alpine levels of the Central Apennines (Manino et al., 2007) (Fig. 3, Tab. 4). Concerning the eco-chemical traits 479 (CLGS), konradini differed from the other B. monticola taxa by lightweight compounds 480 (volatile molecules) which could have a long distance attractive role (Ayasse et al., 2001). 481 Therefore, the differentiation of these compounds may be a significant pre-mating reproductive 482 483 barrier or may simply reflect divergence times and drift. Besides, according to the results of COI marker, konradini could be more closely related to B. lapponicus (Fig.3) than B. monticola 484 485 taxa as suggested in the original description of Reinig (1965). However, the phylogenetic

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486 position of *konradini* is not completely resolved because of the different tree topologies487 between COI and PEPCK results.

The species status of *B. konradini* suggests that inter-glacial periods can lead to species 488 differentiation in mountain refugia in cold-adapted taxa. Unlike the populations of the Alps, 489 Pyrenees and Balkans, where the interconnection and thus the possibility of exchanges and 490 conspecificity are likely, the population of the central Apennines is much more isolated from 491 other mountain chains with a possible endemic speciation (Martin- Bravo et al., 2010). Several 492 493 studies have shown the presence of endemic taxa in the Central Apennines (e.g. in amphibians 494 Mattoccia et al., 2011, Canestrelli & Nascetti, 2008, 2012, in reptiles Nagy et al., 2002, Joger et al., 2007, in turtles Fritz et al., 2006, in plants Conti et al., 2005; Fuente et al., 2011, Frattaroli 495 et al., 2013; in bumblebees Lecocq et al., 2013). For example, Lecocq et al., (2013a) provided 496 evidence that the population of *B. lapidarius* (a Palearctic polytypic species) from the Southern 497 498 Italian refugia has experienced genetic and CLGS differentiation during Quaternary glaciations leading to an incipient speciation process. Populations inhabiting the Mediterranean mountains, 499 500 (e.g. the Apennines, one of the few mountain ranges in Europe arranged on a north-south axis) are characterized by a high genetic diversity (hotspot) with endemic taxa (Ruiz-La-Bourdette 501 502 et al., 2012). This ascertainment questions the conspecificity of cold-adapted species with an allopatric distribution with genetic diversity. 503

504 These results suggest that *B. monticola* (sensu stricto) could be absent in Southern Italy unless this absence could be due to a sampling bias. Such absence results in lack of sympatry between 505 506 B. monticola and B. konradini, which strikingly contrasts with the sympatry between B. lapponicus and B. monticola in Scandinavia. We cannot exclude the hypothesis that B. 507 konradini could be, although distinct, the "replacement" species of B. monticola in Apennines. 508 Although the results do not tend towards this hypothesis (morphological analysis Fig. 3, Fig. 509 510 S2), we may also question the status of *monticola mathildis* and the (phenotypically) intermediate position of this population between konradini and monticola alpestris (Alps). 511 Further genetic analyses (e.g. Microsatellite, SNPs, RAD-seq) are necessary to explore this 512 hypothesis.4.3. Conservation Remarks on B. monticola Complex and the Practice of Integrative 513 514 Taxonomy

515 Considering all taxonomic criteria in our integrative approach (Fig. 3, Tab. 4), we propose to conserve the subspecies status for five monticola taxa (Hawlitschek et al., 2012; 516 Lecocq et al., 2015a,c, 2016): B. monticola rondoui from Pyrenees, B. monticola monticola 517 from British Islands, B. monticola scandinavicus from Fennoscandia and B. monticola alpestris 518 519 from Alps, Balkans, Olympus Mountains and B. monticola mathildis ssp. nov. from North Apennines (formerly included by Reinig within konradini). Although the usefulness of 520 521 subspecies status in the bumblebee has been criticized and debated (Ebach & Williams, 2009) during recent decades (Williams, 1991; Bertsch & Schweer, 2012a), we propose that these 522 523 allopatric subspecies (partially isolated lineages) represent an important component and a useful pragmatic taxonomical unit for evolutionary biology and biological conservation in the 524 525 evolutionary legacy of B. monticola (i.e. Waples, 1995, Phillimore & Owens, 2006; Rasmont et al., 2008; Patten, 2009; Crowhurst et al., 2011; Braby et al., 2012; Sackett et al., 2014). These 526 527 differentiations could be local adaptations to particular environments (Avise, 2000; Frankham et al., 2010; Braby et al., 2012; Lecocq et al., 2013a). Therefore, subspecies classification seems 528 suitable to reflect the intraspecific differentiation within *B. monticola* taxa. 529

The *monticola* complex is a stunning example of the difficulty, in taxonomy, to define 530 species or subspecies status of a population. Here the integrative taxonomy considering all 531 criteria independently could provide definitive pieces of evidence for decision. We assigned the 532 subspecies taxonomic status to phenotypically distinct allopatric groups of populations with 533 differentiation in some but not all criteria used in the integrative decision framework (i.e. 534 conflict in selected criteria) (Hawlitschek et al., 2012; Ennen et al., 2014; Lecocq et al., 2015a,c, 535 2016). Taxonomical conclusions based only on the differentiation of one mitochondrial marker 536 (e.g. COI barcoding) can lead to weak taxonomic hypothesis (Andriollo et al., 2015; Mutanen 537 et al.; 2016; Trunz et al., 2016) as mitochondrial differentiation may result from sex-specific 538 characteristics, as lower dispersion for females (Kraus et al., 2009; Lepais et al., 2010), or 539 mtDNA introgression or incomplete lineage sorting (Bensasson et al., 2001; Lecocq et al., 540 2015a). Taxonomic diagnosis based on multiple evidence (integrative taxonomy) is the best 541 542 approach to avoid overestimation of species diversity which would lead to taxonomic inflation. Subspecies can be considered as a simple allopatric differentiation (Mayr, 1942; Patten, 2010). 543 544 This procedure allows to assign a taxonomic status to any doubtful bumblebee taxa and points 545 out these taxa for further taxonomic studies (Lecocq et al., 2015a). Moreover, despite the "This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

argument advanced by Williams *et al.* (2015), there is no case in bumblebees where the CLGS
(mate recognition system) was not differentiated between two different species even when
closely related bumblebee species have geographical distributions that do not overlap (e.g. *B. terrestris* (L.) and *B. ignitus* Smith, De Meulemeester *et al.*, 2011 or between *B. patagiatus* and *B. magnus* where Bertsch & Schweer, (2012b) have shown the differentiation of their cephalic
labial gland secretions).

552 4.4. Conservation Implication of the New Taxonomic Status of B. konradini nov. status

553

554 The new taxonomical status has implication for the red list assessments of the here studied European bumblebees according to the IUCN criteria (Nieto et al., 2014). While 555 Rasmont et al. (2015) assess all taxa lumped into B. monticola, the new taxonomic status of B. 556 konradini implies an evaluation of its conservation status independently from other B. 557 558 monticola taxa. Bombus konradini was described as a rare, geographically very restricted taxon endemic to the central Apennines of Marche, Umbria, Lazio, Abruzzo and mostly occurring 559 exclusively at elevations over 1800m (Reinig, 1965; Ricciardelli & Piatti, 2003; Manino et al., 560 2007, Rasmont et al., 2015). The apparent scarcity of B. konradini could lead to significant 561 genetic drifts (Ricciardelli & Piatti, 2003; Frankham et al., 2010) that might significantly 562 increase the species extinction risk (Rasmont et al., 2015). Indeed, according Frankham et al. 563 (2010), small and isolated populations of a taxon are inherently more vulnerable to local 564 extinction due to environmental and demographic stochasticity. It is therefore important to 565 consider this new taxonomic status in our models and in our future backup plans (mitigation 566 567 measures).

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986 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

987 Conceived and designed the experiments: BM TL NB CU IV PR. Sampling: BM NB PB MC

- 988 PR. Analyzed the data: BM. Wrote the paper: BM TL NB PB MC CU IV JOG, DM PR.
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993 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Appendix S1. Table of sampling. Sample code refers to the sample labels used in different
analyses. COI and PEPCK are the GenBank accession numbers for each sample (when
consubspecific samples display the same gene sequence, only one of them has been submitted
to Genbank;).

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Appendix S2. Data matrix of cephalic labial gland secretions (CLGS) (relative concentration
of each compound), list of the identified compounds and IndVal analysis with specific
compounds in the *monticola* complex. Unknown x's indicate undetermined compounds.

Appendix S3. Description of the new subspecies *Bombus monticola mathildis* and *Bombus konradini*nov. status., designation of the holotype and lectotype and morphological differentiation. Fig. S1.
Morphology and coloration variation of the face of *Bombus konradini nov. status* (Lectotype female,
A) and *Bombus monticola alpestris* (female, B). Photographs are by P. Rasmont. Fig. S2. Comparison
of the ratio maximum length/ maximum width metabasitarsus between workers of *B. lapponicus*, *B. konradini* and *B. monticola scandinavicus*.

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Fig. 1. Distribution map (Gall projection) of *Bombus monticola* (Rasmont & Iserbyt, 2014)
and its traditional subspecies in Europe according to Rasmont (1983a). A, *Bombus monticola scandinavicus* queen, red area on the map; B, *Bombus monticola monticola* queen,
dark green area; C, *Bombus monticola rondoui* queen, purple area; D, *Bombus monticola alpestris* queen, blue area; E, *Bombus monticola mathildis* ssp. nov Holotype male, pink area;
F, *Bombus konradini* nov status Lectotype queen, yellow area. Light green dots indicate the occurrence of the taxon in the region. All photographs are by P. Rasmont.

Fig. 2. Photos of the studied bumblebee taxa. A, Bombus monticola scandinavicus queen; B,
Bombus monticola monticola queen; C, Bombus monticola rondoui queen; D, Bombus
monticola alpestris queen; E, Bombus monticola mathildis ssp. nov Holotype male; F, Bombus
konradini nov status Lectotype queen.

1019 Fig. 3. Genetic and chemical analyses within the monticola complex. (A) Majority rule (50%) consensus tree based on maximum likelihood analyses of COI. Values above tree 1020 branches are Parsimony bootstrap values/ maximum likelihood bootstrap values/Bayesian 1021 1022 posterior probabilities. Only maximum likelihood and parsimony bootstrap values >70% and 1023 posterior probabilities >0.95 are shown. (B) Majority rule (50%) consensus tree based on maximum likelihood analyses of PEPCK. Values above tree branches are Parsimony bootstrap 1024 values/ maximum likelihood bootstrap values/Bayesian posterior probabilities. Only maximum 1025 likelihood and parsimony bootstrap values >70% and posterior probabilities >0.95 are shown. 1026 (C) a) Dendrogram of cephalic labial gland secretion differentiation within *monticola* complex 1027 and B. bimaculatus. This cluster was obtained by hierarchical clustering using an unweighted 1028

1029 pair-group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) based on a Canberra matrix calculated from

1030 the cephalic labial gland secretion matrix of *B. bimaculatus*, *B. lapponicus*, *B. konradini* nov.

1031 status, B. m. rondoui, B. m. scandinavicus, B. m. monticola, B. m. alpestris, B. m. mathildis ssp.

1032 nov. The values near nodes represent multiscale bootstrap resampling values (only values >80

1033 of main groups are shown except nodes between *B. monticola* subspecies). b) Principal

1034 component analysis (PCA) of cephalic labial gland secretion differentiation within *monticola*

1035 complex and *B. bimaculatus*. PC1, PC2 and PC3 are the first, the second and the third axes.

1036

Fig 4. Species recognition heat map. Species recognition heat map based on ultrametric tree of Cytochrome oxidase 1 (COI) sequences with bGMYC pairwise probability of conspecificity plotted on a sample tree from BEAST. The colored matrix corresponds to the pairwise probabilities of conspecificity returned by the bGMYC method (color scale on the right of the figure). Black spots show the coalescent node for each species.

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1043

1044Tab.1. Range, conservation status and main morphological and colour pattern differences (male

and female) between *B. konradini* nov. status, *monticola* subspecies including *mathildis* ssp.

nov. and the similar species *B. lapponicus* according to Gjershaug *et al.*, (2013), Løken (1973),

1047 Pittioni (1939) and original observations.

	scandinavicus	monticola	rondoui	alpestris	mathildis	konradini nov	lapponicus
					ssp.nov.	status	
Range	Fennoscandia	British	Pyrenees	Alps, Balkans,	North	Central	Fennoscandia
		Islands		Olympus	Apennines	Apennines	
				Mounts			
Conservation	No regression	In decline	In decline	Few data show	No	Rare and	Stable (Nieto et al.,
status	was	(Fitzpatrick et	(Iserbyt &	a decline in	regression	localized	2014)
	mentioned	al., 2006;	Rasmont	Italy (Manino	was	(Ricciardelli &	
		Evans &	2012)	et al., 2007)	mentioned	Piatti 2003)	
		Potts 2013)					
Female							
	Morphology						
Furrow of gena	The surface bety	ween the puncture	s on vertex is shin	y, and there is a sli	ght depression	Similar to	The surface between
	with some punc	tures near the com		monticola	the punctures on		
					vertex is rugose and		
							dull and the furrow is
							distinct, nearly

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							reaching the
							compound eye
Hind meta-	Slight pubescer	nce and the maxin	nal width of the bas	sitarsus is high (<i>sen</i>	su Gjershaug et	Strong	Strong pubescence
basitarsus	al., 2013). The	length of the meta	abasitarsus of these	taxa is large (App	endix S3)	pubescence and	and the maximal
				the maximal	width of the		
						width of the	basitarsus are low
				basitarsus is low	(sensu Gjershaug et		
				(sensu	al., 2013). The length		
						Gjershaug et al.,	of the metabasitarsus
						2013) as in	of this taxon is short
						lapponicus. The	(Appendix S3).
						ration maximum	
						length/maximum	
						width of the	
						metabasitarsus	
						of this taxon is	
						intermediate	
						(Appendix S3).	
Coat color	Dark	Dark	Light	Relatively	Light and	Large and light	Varies from very
variation				dark	colorful	(Reinig, 1965)	light and colorful in
							Northern
							Fennoscandia, to
							rather dark in
							Southern
							Fennoscandia
							(Southern Norway)
	Color pattern						
Face	Black	Black	Yellow	Black	Yellow or	Yellow (Fig.S1)	Black
					sometimes		
					black (Fig.		
					S1)		
Collare and	Small dark	Small dark	Light	Small dark	Wide light	Wide yellow	Yellow
scutellare	yellow	yellow and	yellow/yellow	yellow / dark	yellow with	band to the	
		black		yellow	a black line	tegulae/ yellow	
					near the		
					tegulae/		
					yellow		
Tergite 1	Black/Red	Black	Yellow	Yellow/black	Yellow/black	Yellow/	Yellow/Red/Black
					(center of	Red/black	
					tergite)		
Tergite 4	Dark red	Dark red	Red	Light R-red	Dark R-red	Yellow	Yellow
					with		
					sometimes		
					yellow (few)		
Tergite 5	Dark red	Light red	Light red	Light red	Dark red	Yellow	Yellow
					with		

					sometimes					
					yellow (few)					
Male										
	Color pattern									
Face	Dark yellow	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow			
Collare/	Dark yellow	Yellow / dark	Yellow / large	Yellow / large	Yellow /	Yellow / large	Yellow / large yellow			
scutellare	/NO	yellow	yellow	yellow	large yellow	yellow				
Tergite 1	Black and	Black and	Yellow and	Yellow and	Yellow and	Yellow	Yellow			
	Red	Red	Black	Black	Black					
Tergite 4	Dark red	Dark red	Dark red	Dark red	Light red	Red/yellow	Yellow/Red			
Tergite 5	Dark red	Red	Red	Red	Light red	Red/yellow	Yellow/Red			

- 1048 Tab.2. Summary of sampling table with genetic and eco-chemical criteria used in this study.
- 1049 PEPCK: Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase gene, COI: Cytochrome oxidase 1 gene, CLGS:

1050 Cephalic labial gland secretions, M: male and F: female.

Таха	Sampling site	РЕРСК	COI	CLGS
B. lapponicus (Fabricius 1793)	North Sweden	5 M	5 M	10 M
B. bimaculatus (Cresson 1863)	East Canada	3 M	5 M	10 M
B. monticola scandinavicus Friese 1911	North Sweden	5 M	5 M	11 M
B. konradini nov. status Reinig 1965	Italy (Central	3 M, 2 F	2 M, 2F	2 M
	Apennines)			
B. monticola mathildis ssp. nov. Martinet,	Italy (North Apennines)	2M	2M	2M
Cornalba & Rasmont 2016				
B. monticola alpestris Vogt 1909	Alps, Balkans,	6 M	6 M	13 M
	Olympus Mts			
B. monticola monticola Smith 1849	Scotland	5 M	4 M	10 M
B. monticola rondoui Vogt 1909	France (Pyrenees)	2F	4 M	7 M

1051Tab.3. List of indicator compounds (IndVal method, compounds > 70%, *) and main compound1052(1) identified for *B. konradini* nov. status within cephalic labial gland secretions. With MW=1053the molecular weight, n= number of used specimens, M= median of compound relative1054concentration (%), 2 = main compound identified for *B. lapponicus*, 3 = main compound1055identified for *B. bimaculatus*. Absent compounds are noticed by "-". The full matrix is presented1056in Appendix S2.

Compounda	MW	alpestris	monticola	rondoui	scandinavicus	mathildis ssp. nov	konradini nov status	lapponicus	bimaculatus
Compounds		(n=13)	(n=10)	(n=7)	(n=11)	(n=2)	(n=2)	(n=10)	(n=10)
		М	М	М	М	М	М	М	М
Citronellol*	156	-	-	-	-	0.08	0.17	-	-

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Ethyl tetradecenoate2*	254	-	-	-	-	-	0,13	-	-
Ethyl tetradecanoate*	256	-	-	-	-	-	0,18	-	-
Hexadec-7-en-1-ol*	240	0,11	0,08	-	-	0.25	1,84	-	-
Ethyl hexadec-9-enoate*	282	-	-	1.00	-	-	1.41	0,03	-
Hexadec-9-enyl acetate ¹	282	52.34	55.15	57.05	53.96	35.27	51.53	0.08	32.95
Geranyl citronellol ²	292	-	-	-	-	-	-	71.32	-
Ethyl octadecadienoate1*	308	-	-	-	-	-	0,37	-	-
Ethyl octadec-9-enoate*	310	0,68	0,35	0.57	0,46	1.73	8,28	-	-
Geranyl geranyl acetate ³	332	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.61
Dotriacontane*	451	-	-	-	-	-	0,09	-	-
Hexadecyl hexadecanoate2*	480	0,04	0,07	0,09	0,22	0.25	0,94	0.19	0.09

Tab.4. Taxonomic decision table with all criteria used for species delimitation. CLGS, cephalic 1057 1058 labial gland secretions; COI, cytochrome oxidase 1; PEPCK, phosphoenolpyruvate 1059 carboxykinase. Morphology indicates if a taxon has a diagnostic morphological character (+/-1060 means that morphology is/is not diagnostic). Private haplotypes indicate if a taxon has a specific haplotype (+/- means that the taxon has/has not only private haplotype (s). When the taxon 1061 1062 shares haplotype with other ones, the letters group together taxa that share haplotypes). CLGS indicates if the taxon has/has not diagnostic composition of CLGSs with different main 1063 1064 compounds (+/- means that the taxon has/ has not a specific CLGS composition. When the taxon shares CLGS composition with other ones, the letters group together taxa that share 1065 1066 similar CLGS. COI and PEPCK columns indicate if a taxon forms a strongly supported monophyletic group (+/- means that the taxon is/is not a monophyletic group) with MP, ML 1067 and MB methods. When the taxon is not a distinct monophyletic group, the letters group 1068 together taxa included in the same monophyletic group). LS= low supported differentiation. 1069

Former taxonomic status	Morphology	Private	CLGS	COI gene /	PEPCK	Proposed taxonomic status
	(Gjershaug et al., 2013)	haplotypes		bGMYC	gene	
		(COI/PEPCK)				
B. monticola scandinavicus	-	+/-	- (B)	- LS (B) / -	-	B. monticola scandinavicus
B. monticola monticola	-	+ /-	- (B)	- LS (A) / -	-	B. monticola monticola
B. monticola rondoui	-	+/ -	- (A)	- LS (A) / -	-	B. monticola rondoui
B. monticola alpestris	-	+/-	- (C)	- LS (B) / -	-	B. monticola alpestris

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R monticola konradini	_	+/-	- (C)	-LS(C)/-	_	B monticola mathildis ssp. nov
D. monneou konruum	_	17-	- (C)	- LS (C) / -	_	D. monticota mathaats ssp. nov.
(North Apennines)						
B. monticola konradini	+	+/+	+	+/+	+	B. konradini nov. status
(Central Apennines)						
R himaculatus		1/1	1	1/1	1	R himaculatus
D. Dimaculatus	+	±/±	Ŧ	+/+	Ŧ	D. Dimaculalus
B. lapponicus	+	+/+	+	+/+	+	B. lapponicus
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