

1 **Comparison of genetic variation between rare and common congeners of**  
2 ***Dipodomys* with estimates of contemporary and historical effective population**  
3 **size**

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## 39 **Abstract**

40           Organisms with low effective population sizes are at greater risk of extinction because  
41           of reduced genetic diversity. *Dipodomys elator* is a kangaroo rat that is classified as threatened  
42           in Texas and field surveys from the past 50 years indicate that the distribution of this species  
43           has decreased. This suggests geographic range reductions that could have caused population  
44           fluctuations, potentially impacting effective population size. Conversely, the more common and  
45           widespread *D. ordii* is thought to exhibit relative geographic and demographic stability. Genetic  
46           variation between *D. elator* and *D. ordii* samples was assessed using 3RAD, a modified  
47           restriction site associated sequencing approach. It was hypothesized that *D. elator* would show  
48           lower levels of nucleotide diversity, observed heterozygosity, and effective population size when  
49           compared to *D. ordii*. Also of interest was identifying population structure within contemporary  
50           samples of *D. elator* and detecting genetic variation between temporal samples that could  
51           indicate demographic dynamics. Up to 61,000 single nucleotide polymorphisms were analyzed.  
52           It was determined that genetic variability and effective population size in contemporary *D.*  
53           *elator* populations were lower than that of *D. ordii*, that there is only slight, if any, structure within  
54           contemporary *D. elator* populations, and there is little genetic differentiation between spatial or  
55           temporal historical samples suggesting little change in nuclear genetic diversity over 30 years.  
56           Results suggest that genetic diversity of *D. elator* has remained stable despite claims of  
57           reduced population size and/or abundance, which may indicate a metapopulation-like system,  
58           whose fluctuations might counteract any immediate decrease in fitness.  
59           Key words: 3RAD, *Dipodomys elator*, *Dipodomys ordii*, genetic structure, metapopulation, single  
60           nucleotide polymorphisms

## 61 **Introduction**

62 Measuring genetic variation in rare, threatened, endemic, or endangered species has  
63 important implications for management and is integral to conservation efforts [1]. Population  
64 genetic summary statistics can be used to delimit management units based on significantly  
65 different allele frequencies [2], identify population structure [3], or assess connectivity of  
66 demographically disparate subpopulations [4]. One such critical measure for small populations  
67 is effective population size,  $N_e$  [5]. Effective population size can be influenced by fluctuations in  
68 census size, mating strategy, biased sex ratios, migration, demographic history, spatial  
69 dispersion, and population structure [6-9] and typically is far less than the census size.  
70 However, any one  $N_e$  value is hard to interpret because it lacks a context. One such context to  
71 help understand the potential impacts of fluctuations of  $N_e$  is comparison between more  
72 restricted, possibly threatened species and a widespread congener, which are presumed to  
73 harbor more genetic variation.

74 The Texas kangaroo rat (*Dipodomys elator*) is a heteromyid rodent that has a limited  
75 distribution in north-central Texas [10-14]. Though previously found in two counties in  
76 Oklahoma, it appears to have been extirpated from that state [15]. Moreover, *D. elator* has a  
77 small geographic range and low dispersal capability [16-17], which increases isolation from  
78 nearby subpopulations.

79 The distribution of the Texas kangaroo rat appears dynamic [18]. For instance, though  
80 the species was described from a specimen in Clay County [19], it has not been observed there  
81 in more recent surveys. Additionally, resampling of sites where it has been previously  
82 documented have failed to detect the species, and new localities of presence have been  
83 identified in more recent surveys [20]. Furthermore, previous studies of *D. elator* population  
84 genetics [21-22] have been relevant to assess genetic diversity and structure within the species  
85 and have established a valuable reference point for *D. elator*. However, these studies relied on  
86 few molecular markers (i.e. enzymes, mitochondrial DNA, and microsatellites). Additionally, it is

87 useful to compare contemporary samples to historical collections to identify potential changes in  
88 overall diversity [23-24].

89 Ord's kangaroo rat, *D. ordii* is a medium sized rodent that occurs from Canada into  
90 Mexico [25] Given its large geographic range and preferred commonly available habitat choice  
91 (i.e. sandy soils), *D. ordii* is not listed on any state or U.S. federal critically threatened and  
92 endangered lists. The population in Canada, however, is listed as endangered [26]. To our  
93 knowledge, there has not been a range-wide genetic analysis of *D. ordii*, and the last regional  
94 genetic study on *D. ordii* isoenzymes was published by [27].

95 Here, we compare population genetic parameters of *D. elator* with *D. ordii*, further  
96 compare *D. elator* samples from two time periods (pre- and post-2000), and for contemporary  
97 samples, investigate differences in genetic diversity across the distribution. We make several  
98 predictions: 1) *D. elator* will exhibit a lower effective population size than *D. ordii*, and  
99 concomitantly, lower nucleotide diversity, lower observed heterozygosity, and higher inbreeding  
100 coefficients; 2) there will be greater genetic diversity among contemporary samples of *D. elator*  
101 than in historical samples, as contemporary samples were taken from across the distribution,  
102 compared to historical samples collected from three counties in the middle of its distribution; and  
103 3) historical  $N_e$  from a coalescent approach for *D. ordii* and *D. elator* will demonstrate that *D.*  
104 *elator* exhibits a lower  $N_e$  at present than *D. ordii*.

## 105 **Methods**

### 106 **Sample collection**

107 Kangaroo rats were captured using Sherman live traps (23x9x8 cm; H.B. Sherman  
108 Traps, Inc. Tallahassee, Florida) during surveys within the historical range of *D. elator* (Fig 1)  
109 from 2015 to 2017. When a *D. elator* individual was captured, it was either 1) taken as a  
110 voucher specimen for deposition at the Natural Science Research Laboratory (NSRL) at the  
111 Museum of Texas Tech University or, 2) had between two to four whiskers extracted from either

112 side of the rostrum [28]. In the latter case, thicker whiskers (i.e., macrovibrissae) were selected  
113 with the follicle intact. Whiskers were stored in a sterile vial with 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate  
114 (SDS) lysis buffer [29]. A buccal swab was also collected from one *D. elator* individual as  
115 described in detail in [28].

116 **Fig 1. Map of contemporary kangaroo rat samples used in this study.** Filled stars indicate  
117 *Dipodomys elator* samples whereas gray circles represent *D. ordii* samples used in the study.  
118 Note the sampling hole located in Foard County, most of Hardman County, and in south  
119 Wilbarger County. Trapping restrictions and topography prevented collections in those regions.

120 Other methods of collecting DNA from rats included tail salvages and from toe clips from  
121 museum specimens (Table S1). *D. elator* tail lengths average about 196 mm [30] and at times  
122 the end of the tail (i.e., the plume) was severed by the door of an activated Sherman trap. These  
123 salvaged tail plumes were placed in sterile vials of 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) lysis buffer  
124 [29]. Also sampled were toe clips that had been collected from rats from 1986 to 1995 as part of  
125 a genetic survey of the species by REM and KGM.

126 In total, 70 *D. elator* samples were analyzed from five tissue types (i.e, liver, whisker, tail,  
127 buccal swab, and toe clips) and two time periods (prior to 2000 and contemporary surveys from  
128 2015 to 2017; Table S1). Additionally, 26 *D. ordii* liver samples were collected in five counties  
129 from 2015 to 2017. Contemporary sampling followed guidelines established by the American  
130 Society of Mammalogists [31]. Animal handling protocols were approved by the Institutional  
131 Animal Care and Use Committee at Texas Tech University (#T14083).

132 Throughout the manuscript the *D. elator* samples will be referred to using the following  
133 descriptors: 'historical', collected prior to 2000; 'contemporary', collected after 2000; 'west',  
134 collected from Cottle, Childress, or Hardeman counties; and 'east' collected from Baylor,  
135 Wilbarger and Wichita counties (Fig 1).

136 **DNA extraction**

137 DNA was extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue spin column protocol  
138 (Qiagen; Venlo, Netherlands). For liver, toe clips, and tail salvages, the manufacturer's  
139 recommendations were followed. For whisker and buccal swab samples, the protocol found in  
140 [28] was implemented. In all cases, DNA concentration was fluorometrically quantified using the  
141 Qubit 3.0, high sensitivity assay (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA).

## 142 **3RAD library prep, sequencing, and data husbandry**

143 RADseq libraries were prepared following the 3RAD protocol found in [32] Details of  
144 library prep conditions used in this study are provided in Supplemental File S1. In short,  
145 restriction enzyme combinations were tested in a subset of samples from both species, and  
146 according to digestion patterns and pilot sequence data, the best combination (i.e. Mspl, EcoRI,  
147 and Clal), was further used for all samples. Samples were normalized, digested, enzyme-  
148 specific adapters were ligated, and ligation products were purified. To generate full- length  
149 library constructs, ligated products were amplified using iTru5 and iTru7 primers [33]. For most  
150 samples, a molecular ID tag (iTru 5 8N) was incorporated in the first cycle of PCR, to detect  
151 PCR duplicates [32, 34]. PCR products were purified, pooled, and size-selected at a range of  
152 550 bp +/- 15%. Size-selected fragments were purified and sequenced using an Illumina HiSeq  
153 to generate paired end data at Oklahoma Medical Research Foundation Genomics Core or  
154 Novogene Inc.

155 Stacks v1.48 and v2.01 [35] was employed to demultiplex, analyze, and export data into  
156 other formats. After demultiplexing, poor reads were filtered using the AfterQC 'after.py' pipeline  
157 [36]. Poor reads were defined as exhibiting a low quality score (PHRED score < 15), bad  
158 overlaps (i.e., mismatched reads), too many ambiguous nucleotides (greater than 40% of the  
159 read), short read lengths (< 35 base pairs), or homopolymer regions. If a read failed one of  
160 these steps, it was removed from downstream analyses. Reads were aligned within Stacks to

161 the *D. ordii* genome assembly (accession ID GCA\_000151885.1) using the Burrows-Wheeler  
162 aligner [37].

163 Data were grouped into putative loci, and polymorphisms were identified with the  
164 'gstacks' module in Stacks. Common population genetic statistics such as observed and  
165 expected heterozygosity, nucleotide diversity, and inbreeding coefficients were calculated using  
166 the 'populations' module. This step was repeated four times to determine a balance between  
167 data used and processing speed. Though the "gold standard" is to include loci where 75 to 80%  
168 of the individuals in a population have that locus, known as the -r value [35, 38], this has been  
169 shown to bias population genetic measures, especially in cases where data are not plentiful.  
170 This influences biological implications [39-42]. The 'populations' module using this 75% rule (-r  
171 0.75), two liberal filters (-r of 0.25 and 0.5) and a more conservative filter (-r 0.95) was run. For  
172 most downstream analyses, -r 0.75 was used as the main dataset and for comparison across -r  
173 values for any differences. Finally, loci and individuals that had greater than 20% missing data  
174 were removed.

## 175 **Population genetics**

176 Observed and expected heterozygosity were calculated using the 'summary' function in  
177 the R package adegenet, version 2.1.1 [43].  $F_{IS}$  and  $F_{ST}$  values were calculated using hierfstat  
178 [44]. Nei's genetic distances [45] were determined and plotted using the 'aboot' function in the  
179 poppr R package [46].

## 180 **Estimation of effective population size**

181 To determine effective population size using NeEstimator v2.1 [51], the Genepop file [52]  
182 generated by Stacks was used on our contemporary dataset. NeEstimator calculates Ne using  
183 three methods: linkage disequilibrium, molecular co-ancestry, and a temporal method. The first  
184 two methods were used to determine contemporary effective population sizes per species.

185 For historical Ne of *D. elator*, the Extended Bayesian Skyline Plot (EBSP) coalescent  
186 test as implemented in BEAST 2.0 [53] was used. Once loci containing multiple single  
187 nucleotide polymorphisms were determined, the protocol outlined in [54] was followed, using a  
188 strict molecular clock set to 1.0 and a generation time of 3 years [55]. Plots were constructed  
189 with 24 individuals and 47 loci.

190 This same process was followed for *D. ordii*; however, 15 individuals and 49 loci were  
191 used. Only one individual from Dickens County (Fig 1) was included to avoid misinterpretations  
192 due to possible inbreeding since many individuals collected from that county were collected  
193 from a single location.

## 194 **Population structure**

195 To infer population structure for each species, the STRUCTURE algorithm was used  
196 [47]. All singletons and private doubletons were removed, which have been shown to mask  
197 weak population structure [48-49]. Only one randomly selected SNP from each locus was used  
198 to minimize possible effects of linked data. For all runs, 50,000 burn-in iterations were executed  
199 and 200,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) repetitions with 3 replicates at each K, which  
200 ranged from 1 to 5. The program DISTRUCT v1.1 was used to visualize the final output of  
201 structure analyses [50].

## 202 **Principal Components Analysis**

203 To visualize genetic structure of the population without assigning individuals to clusters *a*  
204 *priori*, a Principal Components Analysis was conducted using the function dudi.pca in the R  
205 package ‘adegenet’ version 2.1.1 [43] on historical and contemporary samples. Only the first  
206 two axes were retained for all datasets based on the scree plots generated by gIPca.

## 207 **Results**

208 In all, 96 kangaroo rats were sequenced and analyzed from two species in eight  
209 counties in north-central Texas. 3RAD analysis for 70 individual *D. elator* samples produced  
210 over 34 million reads. Before filtering within the ‘populations’ module, there were 330,326 loci  
211 suitable for analysis. Approximately 1.5% of reads per sample were removed from the dataset  
212 following AfterQC filtering. Similar analysis for the 26 *D. ordii* samples produced over 10 million  
213 reads. Prior to ‘populations’ filtering, approximately 382,514 loci were eligible for further  
214 analysis. Fewer than 2% of reads per sample were removed from the dataset. For *D. elator*  
215 samples, after removing loci and individuals that had greater than 20% missing data, 3,935  
216 samples remained from 55 individuals.

217

## 218 **Summary population genetics**

219 There were as few as 7 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) to as many as 61,000  
220 SNPs to analyze (Table S2). The general trend was that there were fewer SNPs analyzed as -r  
221 value increased and extreme values of -r (i.e. 0.25 and 0.95) yielded stronger deviations  
222 between observed and expected heterozygosity across all analyses (Table S2).

223 When compared to each other, contemporary *D. elator* samples showed lower levels of  
224 observed heterozygosity (0.042-0.043) than *D. ordii* (0.128) which suggests lower genetic  
225 diversity.  $F_{IS}$  was positive in all *D. elator* groups (0.015-0.031) except for in historical samples  
226 (-0.007).  $F_{ST}$  values show moderately low genetic differentiation (0.035-0.041) across *D. elator*  
227 comparisons (Table 1).

228 **Table 1. Genetic diversity summary statistics for *D. elator* and observed heterozygosity**  
229 **and expected heterozygosity values for *D. ordii*.** Only one population is assumed for *D. ordii*,  
230 so there are no values for  $F_{ST}$  or  $F_{IS}$ .

	$F_{IS}$	Observed Heterozygosity	Expected Heterozygosity
Temporal			

Historical		-0.007	0.042
East		+0.031	0.043
West		+0.027	0.042
Spatial			
East		+0.015	
West		+0.031	
<i>Dipodomys ordii</i>		0.128	0.155
		Pairwise $F_{ST}$	
		East	West
Temporal			
Historical		0.035	0.037
East			0.040
Spatial			
East		0.041	

231

## 232 Current and historical effective population size

233 Only the linkage disequilibrium method in NeEstimator v.2.1 produced a value other than  
234 'Infinite' for effective population size for *D. elator*. Estimated  $N_e$  of the east group 171.3, with a  
235 95% confidence interval of 158-186.9 using the lowest allele frequency. For the west group,  
236 both the linkage disequilibrium and molecular co-ancestry methods returned 'Infinite' for  $N_e$  at all  
237 allele frequencies. No method with NeEstimator was able to provide an estimate of population  
238 size for *D. ordii*, other than 'Infinite.'

239 The Extended Bayesian Skyline plots generated for the *D. elator* dataset showed a  
240 decline in effective population size over the last 10,000 years, to an approximate current  $N_e$  of  
241 500. For *D. ordii*,  $N_e$  has increased in the last 5,000 years and is estimated to stand at about  
242 10,000 individuals (Fig 2).

243 **Fig 2. Extended Bayesian Skyline Plot for *Dipodomys elator* (top) from 34 individuals and**  
244 **47 SNPs and for *D. ordii* (bottom) from 15 individuals and 49 SNPs.** X-axis is millions of  
245 years ago. Y-axis is effective population size ( $N_e$ ) in millions.

246

## 247 Population substructure

248 Based on log-likelihood scores (Table S3) and their respective variances from  
249 STRUCTURE, the “best” value for k for *D. elator* was 3. When visualizing the PCA bi-plot, PC1  
250 accounts for almost 98% of the variation found in the dataset and shows geographic separation  
251 along PC2, which only accounts for 0.1% of the variation (Fig 3). Using Nei’s genetic distance,  
252 most contemporary samples from the west cluster together and are nested within historical  
253 samples (Fig 4). The historical PCA for *D. elator* samples excluding those from the 1960s (Fig  
254 S1) largely confirms that all individuals were taken from the same region (Hardeman County).

255 **Fig 3. Principal components analysis on the genotypes for 55 samples (historical and**  
256 **contemporary) using the dudi.pca function in R package ‘adegenet’.** While there are no  
257 clear clusters emerging on PC1, geographic location seems to correspond with PC2.

258 **Fig 4. Nei’s genetic distance dendrogram for 55 samples (historical and contemporary).**  
259 The patchy arrangement of individuals suggests gene flow between the hypothesized east and  
260 west populations.

## 261 Discussion

262 This study evaluated changes in genetic diversity across time and space by comparing a  
263 rare species with a hypothesized amorphous and restricted distribution to a more common  
264 congener with a larger, more defined range. This is only the third population genetic study on  
265 *Dipodomys elator* in over 30 years and it is the first to make use of genomic techniques,  
266 screening from tens to thousands of markers, making the study valuable for current and future  
267 conservation efforts. In [21], allozyme markers were used to conclude that there was moderate  
268 genetic differentiation among three *D. elator* localities (Hardeman, Wilbarger, and Wichita  
269 counties). This is seemingly incongruent with our results in which we observed little genetic

270 differentiation ( $F_{ST} = 0.041$ ), but the difference could simply be the result of the markers used  
271 (SNPs versus allozymes).

272 More recently, [22] observed low mitochondrial DNA variation but high microsatellite  
273 diversity within the species. They concluded that genetic drift and not gene flow has had a  
274 greater impact on configuring *D. elator* genetic diversity. This result is possible because  
275 mitochondrial DNA has a lower effective population size than neutral nuclear markers such as  
276 RAD loci [56]. Genetic drift could play a role in structuring mitochondrial DNA diversity, but more  
277 time would be needed to detect reduction of diversity in the nuclear genome using older  
278 markers such as microsatellites. An insufficient number of polymorphic microsatellite loci limits  
279 genetic resolution between individuals with supposed low population-level diversity. Our results  
280 suggest that RAD loci, that have a slower rate of mutation than microsatellites, are superior  
281 when investigating populations with weak population structure [57]. Finally, genomic data  
282 generated from this study can be used for future genomic investigations, such as those  
283 examining family structure [58].

284 Together, these three studies, using allozyme, mtDNA, microsatellite and RAD-Seq  
285 markers, offer numerous mean geographic estimates of  $F_{ST}$  within this species. In [21], the  
286 mean  $F_{ST}$  was found to be 0.102, [22] estimated  $F_{ST}$  of 0.096 from their late 1960s samples, and  
287 our study, at the greatest resolution of all previous studies, reveals a mean  $F_{ST}$  value of 0.041.  
288 Our lower mean value includes individuals sampled from localities (Cottle and Childress  
289 counties) not present in the previous two studies. These results suggest modest population  
290 differentiation corresponding with geography.

291 From an overall genetic diversity perspective, our data suggest that there has not been a  
292 substantial loss in genetic diversity over the last 30 years, despite what seems to be a decrease  
293 in the distribution (and possibly abundance) of *Dipodomys elator*, similar to what [59] found in *D.*  
294 *ingens*, the giant kangaroo rat. In other words, despite a decline in distribution and census size,  
295 the genetic diversity of the species is sufficiently high to offset any short-term effects of reduced

296 fitness. This is supported by our estimate of  $N_e$  of between 170 to 500, which exceeds the  
297 recommended value to curtail inbreeding depression, as outlined by the 100/1000 rule [60].  
298 Within this range, there exist enough individuals to mitigate immediate reduction in fitness but is  
299 not sustainable in the longer term (over thousands of years). In [22], it was also found that the  
300  $N_e$  of this species was between 65 and 490 individuals.

301 Results from our contemporary samples confirm that subpopulation differentiation is not  
302 substantial ( $F_{ST} < 0.05$ ). The STRUCTURE algorithm determined the best value of  $k$  to be 3.  
303 However, examining the plots suggests that samples represent a single interbreeding  
304 population. More clusters (i.e. subpopulations), while possible, are not biologically practical. This  
305 may just be an artefact of our sampling scheme (for example,  $k=5$ , one for each county).  
306 Second, newly colonized subpopulations on the fringes of ranges can exhibit lower levels of  
307 genetic diversity than expected [61]. For our contemporary samples, this is not the case; the low  
308 mean value of  $F_{ST}$  ( $< 0.05$ ) does not seem to support cluster sizes of  $k=4$  and  $k=5$ . Based on  
309 climate, vegetation, edaphic, and land use characteristics across the study area [20], our *a priori*  
310 assumption was that there are two subpopulations (east and west). However, STRUCTURE, the  
311 PCA, and Nei's genetic distances do not clearly support two distinct subpopulations, suggesting  
312 there is a fair amount of gene flow in the region.

313 Our *a priori* subpopulations display low levels of inbreeding and very little genetic  
314 differentiation, suggesting one large interbreeding population (though not necessarily  
315 panmictic). Our samples were collected on opposite sides of a cline, separated by a region of  
316 inaccessible private land, so it was difficult to determine if the slight differentiation is due to that  
317 distance or if there is true population substructure and isolation from other habitat patches [62].  
318 We included additional historic samples from specimens collected in the 1960s from areas  
319 within this “sampling hole” to answer this question. We anticipated that if the contemporary east  
320 and west subpopulations were indeed distinct, then genetic differentiation would be greater  
321 between them than to the samples from the sampling hole. In other words, a STRUCTURE plot

322 would show the sampling hole samples as intermediate between the two. Alternatively, if the  
323 contemporary east and west subpopulations were considered one population then we would  
324 expect greater genetic differentiation between them and our “sampling hole” samples. Our  
325 results support the second prediction (Fig S2). However, the periods separating the datasets  
326 (anywhere between 20 and 50 years) and the relatively short generation times of kangaroo rats  
327 (about 3 years; Pacifici et al. 2012) would lead to high genetic turnover, so these results must  
328 be interpreted with caution. If there is substantial genetic turnover, this too could indicate small  
329 current effective population size, which supports our estimate of approximately 171.

330 As expected, our *D. ordii* samples exhibited higher genetic diversity estimates in nearly  
331 all categories despite our samples being collected from only five counties in north-central Texas.  
332 This emphasizes the substantial genetic diversity and evolutionary potential displayed by the  
333 common *D. ordii*, compared with a much rarer congener. However, we were surprised to find  
334 that *D. ordii* had a greater inbreeding coefficient than *D. elator* across some analyses. This  
335 pattern can be attributed to sampling bias, given that we sampled from a small portion of the *D.*  
336 *ordii* range, and half of the *D. ordii* samples were collected from a single ranch in Dickens  
337 County, Texas, where most individuals collected may present a certain degree of relatedness by  
338 proximity. Comparing between individuals from this ranch and a similarly situated subset of *D.*  
339 *elator* individuals, expected heterozygosity,  $\pi$ , and inbreeding coefficients were largely similar  
340 (Table S4). This suggests that potentially related individuals of *D. elator* do not show reduced  
341 genetic diversity than similarly related *D. ordii* individuals.

342 We were unable to generate a value of  $N_e$  for the current sample of *D. ordii*, likely a  
343 result of samples displaying high degrees of relatedness, so we used the value calculated from  
344 EBSP, which was approximately 10,000 individuals. In contrast to *D. elator*  $N_e$ , which declined  
345 over time, the plot for *D. ordii* increased, perhaps an indication of colonization of new habitat  
346 (northward) as glaciers receded after the Last Glacial Maximum 20,000 years ago [63-64].

347            Coupled with low  $N_e$  estimates, and population surveys that recover or fail to locate *D.*  
348    *elator* in different localities, one possibility is that this population exhibits characteristics of a  
349    metapopulation [65-66]. Metapopulation theory has been discussed in the context of  
350    mammalian conservation biology because it accommodates populations in fragmented habitats  
351    [67], but empirical studies to develop metapopulation theory for threatened and endangered  
352    mammals are few (see [68-69]). One reason for the difficulty to meet the original metapopulation  
353    criteria of [70] is the stringency of the original criteria. In [71], the authors relaxed two criteria,  
354    adding that subpopulations, not the colonized habitat patch, are the discrete entity, and that  
355    these discrete subpopulations differ in their demography, implying asynchronicity. Based on  
356    field surveys, analysis of field notes, museum specimens, and species distribution models [20]  
357    there is evidence that the *D. elator* population may benefit from management consideration  
358    stemming from metapopulation theory.

359            However, because this connection to metapopulation theory is still tenuous, the overall  
360    population should still be monitored [72]. Perhaps a long-term demographic study is warranted.  
361    Managing the metapopulation must be concerned with maintaining dispersal and gene flow and  
362    other population dynamics among subpopulations. Should managers elect for extreme  
363    measures to manage *D. elator* populations, such as translocations or reintroductions,  
364    knowledge that the population is a metapopulation is critical. Lastly, it is important to note that  
365    the metapopulation in a conservation context has several assumptions. One assumption is the  
366    “equilibrium” between colonization and extinction across long time scales (i.e. if one patch goes  
367    extinct, another is colonized). This seems unlikely in many natural populations [73], including  
368    that of *D. elator*, but this type of assumption can be used to appropriately model changes in  
369    demography and genetics of *D. elator*.

370            There is no lack of research on habitat associations, mainly those evaluating soil and  
371    vegetation changes, as they influence *D. elator*. These studies have greatly improved our  
372    understanding of this elusive rodent [16-18, 74-75], but we still do not have answers to many

373 basic biological questions. We do know, however, that the population of *D. elator* seems to track  
374 favorable habitat, albeit in a more restricted range than previously recorded [18].  
375 Overall, the population of *D. elator* exhibits genetic variation lower than that of a species with a  
376 predictably greater effective population size. However, contemporary samples show no  
377 substantial decrease in genetic diversity from historical samples, suggesting that the *D. elator*  
378 population, though small and constantly shifting, has managed to maintain its genetic diversity.

379 This study demonstrates the effectiveness of using samples from gradations across the  
380 range, rather than at two extremes. Sampling from the extremes of a population range could  
381 lead researchers to inappropriate conclusions that could wrongly influence management  
382 decisions. Though the current effective population size of *D. elator* is estimated to be around  
383 171 to 500 individuals, perhaps small population sizes are the status quo for this species.  
384 Increasing population size may be unsustainable for this species (greater competition, reduced  
385 resources, delayed or forgoing reproduction).

## 386 **Conservation Implications**

387 Researchers interested in natural genetic variation and population structure of mammals  
388 should consider the possibility the population of their organisms of study could be exhibiting a  
389 metapopulation. This is especially important for species that are rarely seen or captured. Our  
390 findings suggest that the *D. elator* population could be a metapopulation that must be vigorously  
391 monitored so that managers can detect any great losses in genetic diversity and evolutionary  
392 potential. Furthermore, given the current advances in molecular techniques and analyses, it is  
393 no longer necessary to limit samples in the temporal dimension. Doing so, especially for species  
394 that remain understudied, will prove detrimental to any plan long-term plan for management. We  
395 advise continued use of reduced representation sequencing (ddRAD, 3RAD) but with inclusion  
396 of historic and geographically represented samples to fully encapsulate temporal and spatial  
397 genetic variability within a possibly imperiled species.

## 398 CRediT authorship contribution statement

399 **Michaela Halsey:** Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review and Editing, Formal Analysis,  
400 Investigation, Data Curation, Validation, Methodology, Visualization. **John Stuhler:**  
401 Methodology, Investigation, Writing – Review and Editing. **Natalia Bayona-Vasquez:**  
402 Methodology, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review and  
403 Editing, Visualization. **Roy Platt II:** Conceptualization, Funding Acquisition, Methodology,  
404 Writing – Review and Editing. **Jim Goetze:** Conceptualization, Writing – Review and Editing.  
405 **Robert Martin:** Resources. **Kenneth Matocha:** Resources. **Robert Bradley:**  
406 Conceptualization, Methodology, Funding Acquisition, Writing - Review and Editing. **Richard**  
407 **Stevens:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Project Administration,  
408 Funding Acquisition, Writing – Review and Editing. **David Ray:** Conceptualization,  
409 Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Project Administration, Funding Acquisition, Writing –  
410 Review and Editing

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597

## 598 **Supporting Information**

599 **Fig S1. Principal components analysis on the genotypes for historical samples from**  
600 **Hardeman County using the gIPCA function in R package ‘adegenet’.**

601 **Fig S2. STRUCTURE plot of 70 *D. elator* samples across three time periods (see text for**  
602 **time breakdown).** The “sampling hole” individuals (blue) are completely divergent from later  
603 samples; however, there is evidence of those loci persisting in the population. These results  
604 confirm a) no appreciable decrease in genetic diversity over 30 years and b) one interbreeding  
605 contemporary population).

606 **Table S1. Seventy *Dipodomys elator* samples and 26 *D. ordii* samples used in the genetic**  
607 **analysis including temporal (historical, contemporary) subpopulation, spatial (east or**  
608 **west) subpopulation, the specific county the individual was found, tissue type, and the**  
609 **museum where the voucher was received.** Museum codes are MSB (Museum of  
610 Southwestern Biology), MSU (Midwestern State University), and TTU (Texas Tech University).

611 **Table S2. Summary statistics calculated in Stacks for 26 *D. ordii* and 38 *D. elator***  
612 **contemporary samples.** Private alleles are those alleles not shared with any other  
613 subpopulation.

614 **Table S3. Log-likelihood and delta K values used in the Evanno method for *D. elator***  
615 **STRUCTURE analysis.**

616 **Table S4. General summary statistics calculated in Stacks for a comparison between 3**  
617 **individuals from each species that were collected in proximity (i.e. same tract of land).**  
618 Private alleles are those alleles not shared with any other subpopulation. Observed and  
619 expected heterozygosity are the proportion of loci that are heterozygous based on Hardy-  
620 Weinberg frequencies.  $\pi$  is a measure of nucleotide diversity. FIS indicates the inbreeding  
621 coefficient.

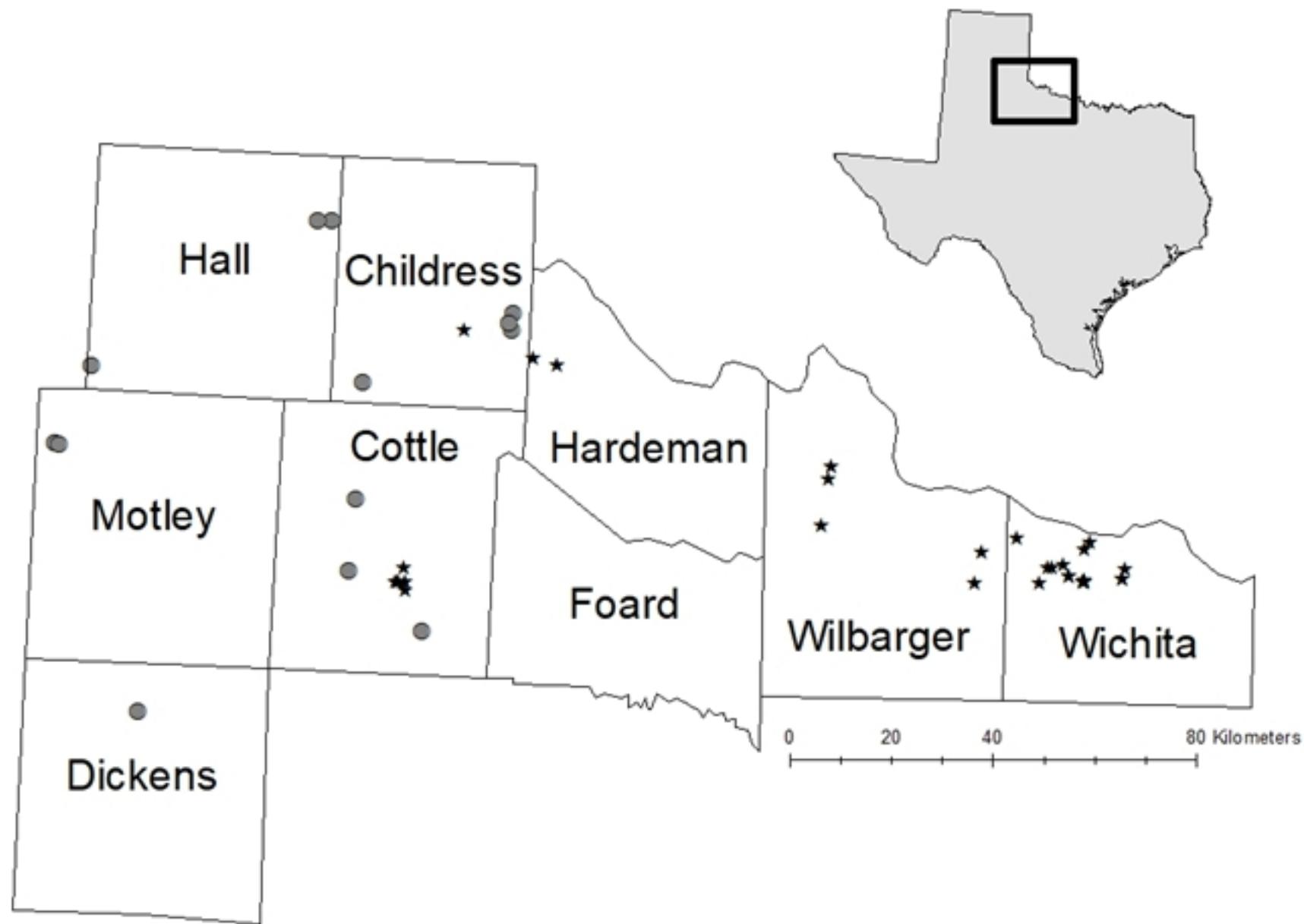


Figure 1

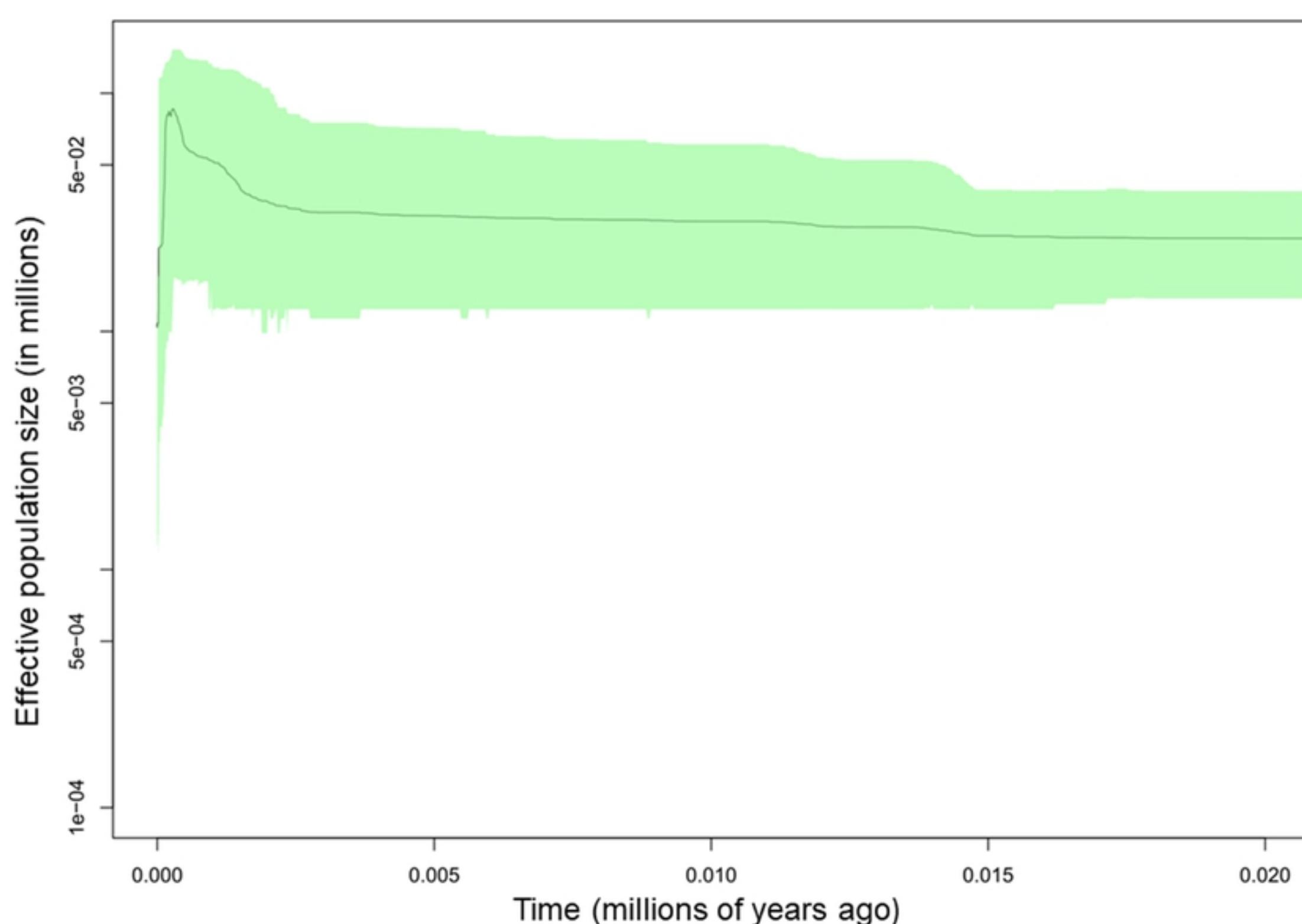
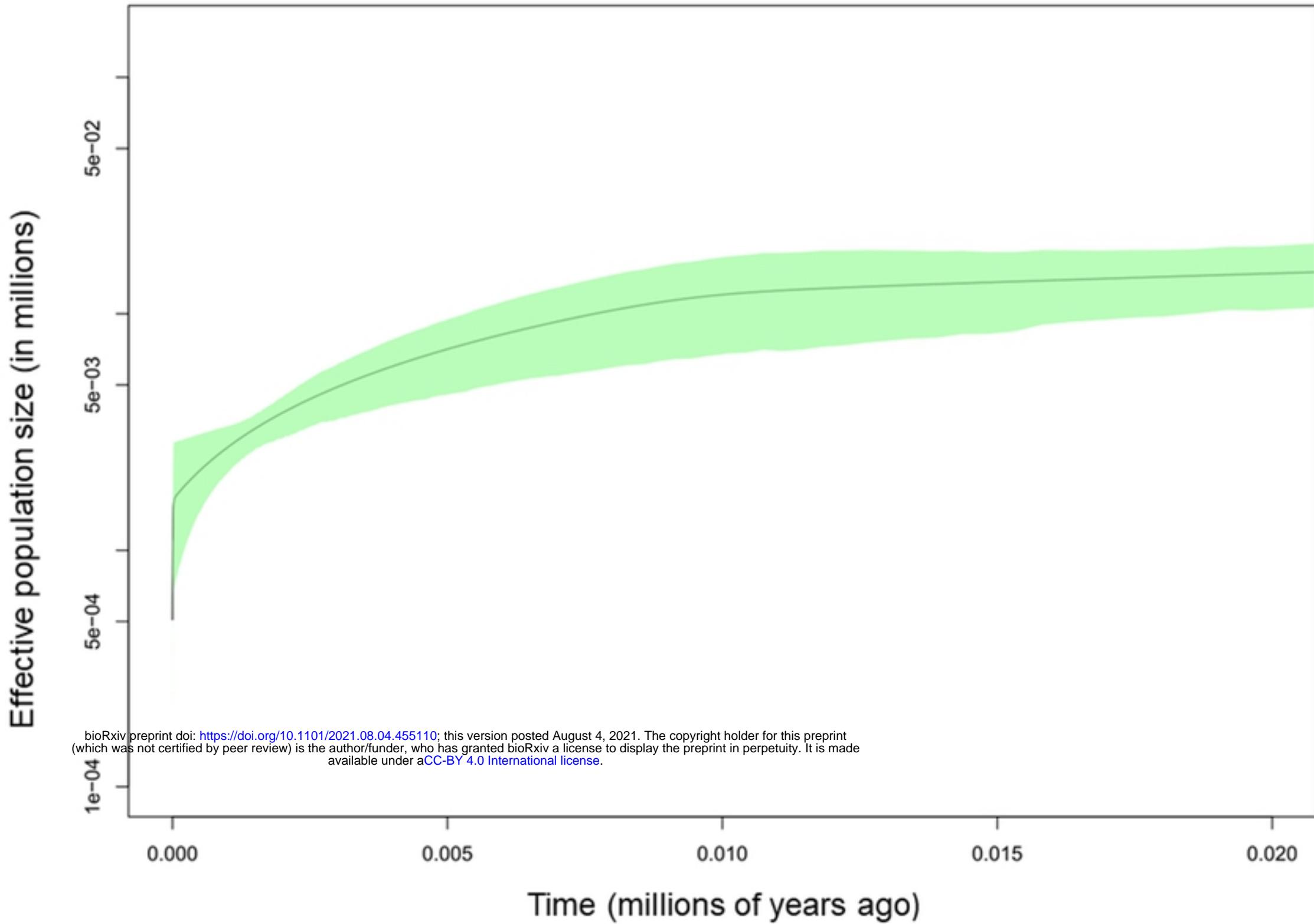


Figure 2

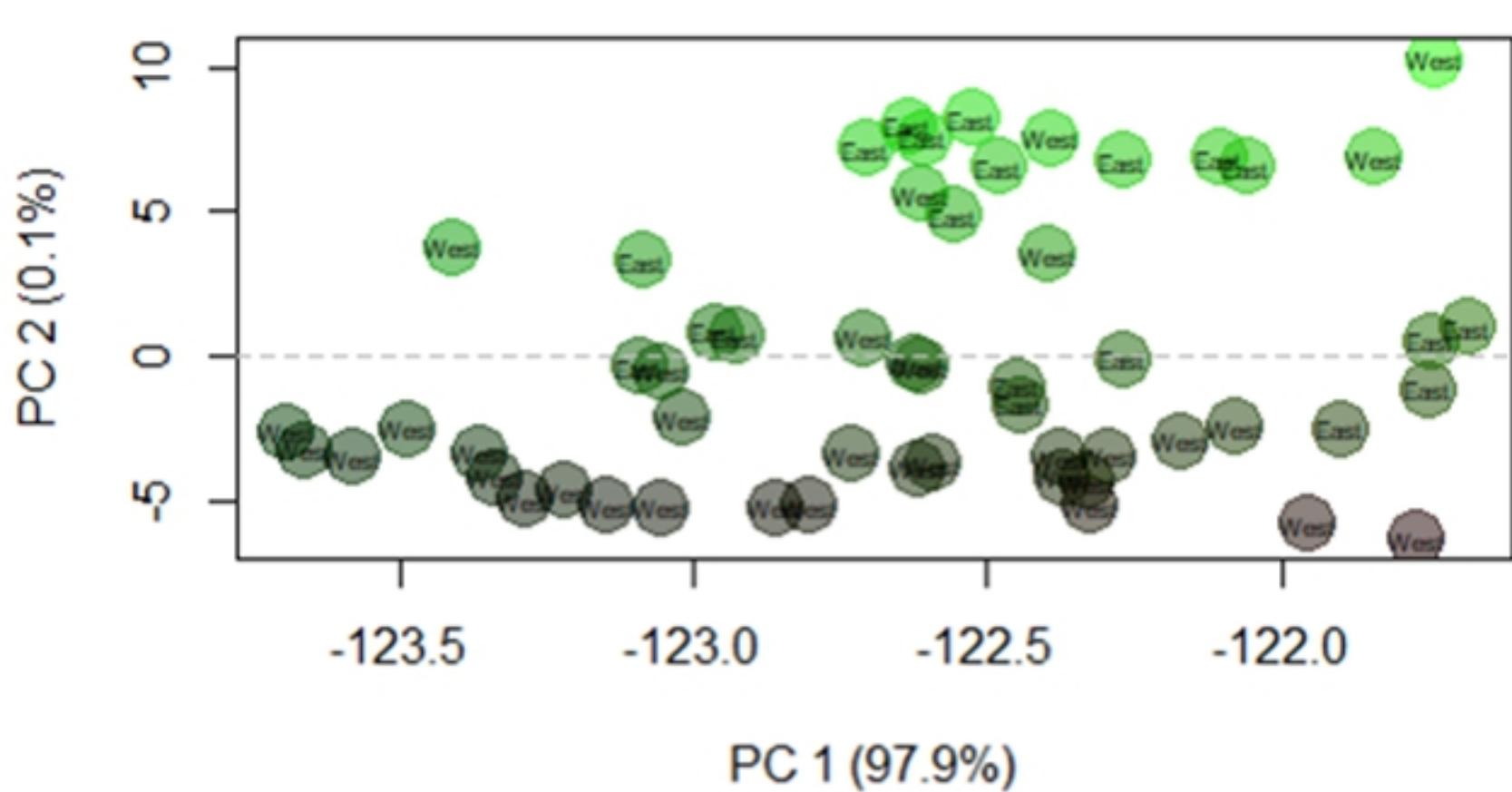


Figure 3

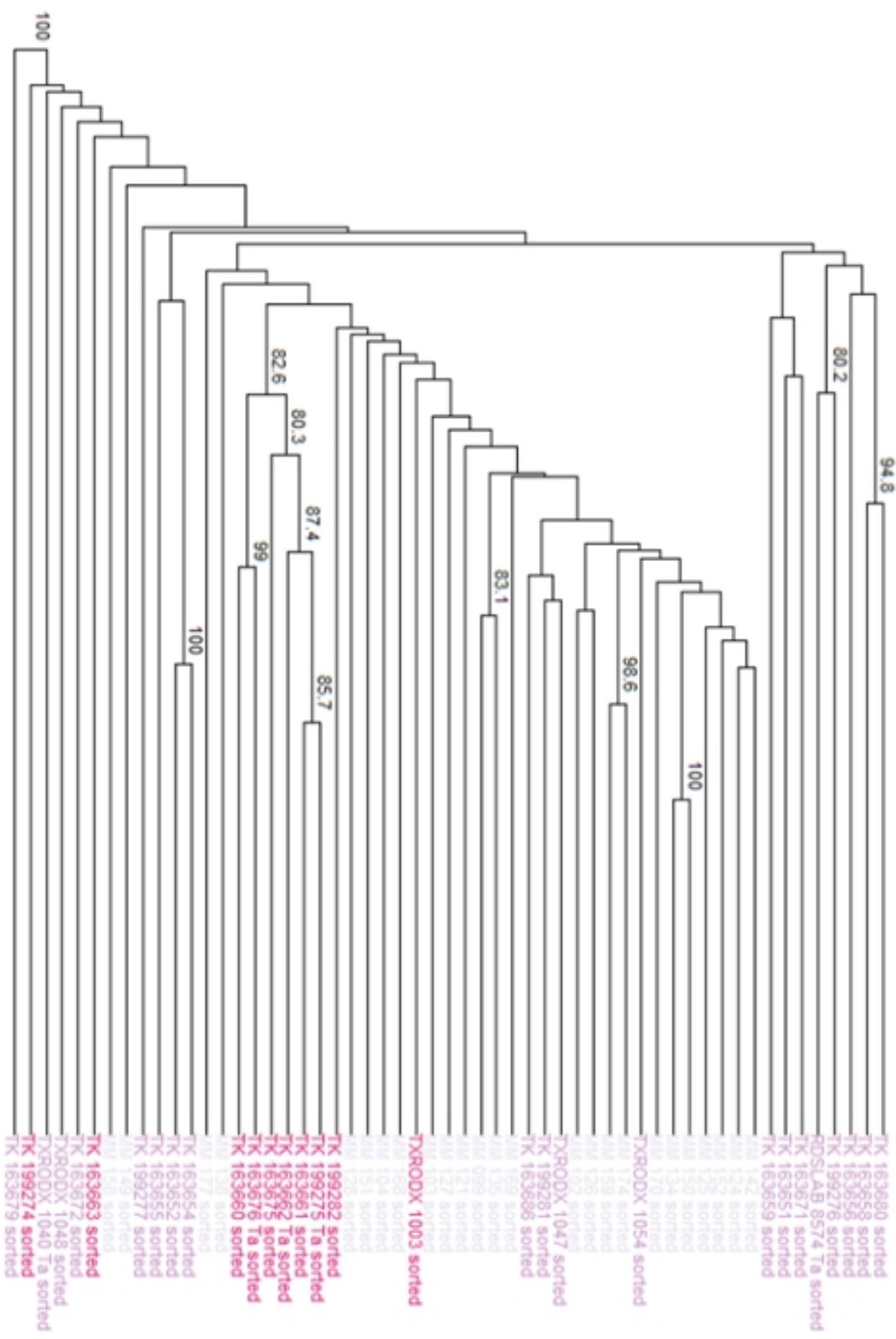


Figure 4