Museomics of *Carabus* giant ground beetles evidences an Oligocene origin and *in situ* Alpine diversification

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28 Abstract: The development of museomics represents a major paradigm shift in the use of natural 29 history collection specimens for systematics and evolutionary biology. New approaches in this field allow the sequencing of hundreds to thousands of loci from across the genome using historical 30 31 DNA. HyRAD-X, a recently introduced capture method using bench-top designed probes, has 32 proved very efficient to recover genomic-scale datasets using natural history collection specimens. Using this technique, we infer at both the intra- and interspecific levels, the most robust phylogeny 33 34 of Arcifera to date, an ecologically and morphologically diverse clade of Carabus giant ground beetles. We successfully generated a genomic dataset of up to 1965 HyRAD-X loci for all 35 described species, permitting to infer a robust dated phylogenomic tree of this clade. Our species 36 37 delimitation and population genomic analyses suggest that the current classification in Arcifera is in line with its evolutionary history. Our results suggest an origin of Arcifera in the late Oligocene 38 followed by speciation events during the warm mid-Miocene unlinked to Pleistocene glaciations. 39 The dynamic paleogeographic history of the Palearctic region likely contributed to the 40 41 diversification of this lineage with a relatively ancient colonization of the proto-Alps followed by in situ speciation where most species of Arcifera are currently found sometimes syntopically likely 42 as a result of post-glaciations secondary contacts. 43 44 Kevwords: Arcifera; Beetle evolution; Carabinae; Historical DNA; HyRAD-X; Phylogenomics; 45

- 46 Palearctic biogeography; Pleistocene glaciations
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50 Introduction

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Recent developments in museomics are opening new prospects allowing samples from natural 52 history collections (NHC) to enter the era of genomics (reviewed in (Raxworthy & Smith 2021; 53 54 Card et al. 2021). Specimens held in the collections are crucial for the study of systematics and taxonomy, but also for the study of ecology and evolution (Duchenne et al. 2020). Sampling from 55 NHC specimens is also a major asset to study groups that are currently rare in the wild, for which 56 57 authorizations to collect new specimens are difficult to obtain, or for which a comprehensive taxonomic and geographic sampling would require extensive fieldwork campaigns. Such a strategy 58 59 is therefore very powerful when working on taxonomic groups presenting a wide geographical range. In extreme cases, and when species are believed to be extinct, NHC represent the only 60 potential source of genetic data (Toussaint et al. 2021; de-Dios et al. 2023). 61

62 Innovative approaches are now making it possible to obtain genetic information from NHC 63 specimens for which it has long been impossible to recover DNA. The DNA in these specimens, referred to as historical DNA (hDNA), is in low quantity, fragmented, has undergone chemical 64 modifications over time and contains contaminants linked to the history of the collection 65 (Raxworthy & Smith 2021). Improvements in extraction methods, sequencing technologies but 66 above all the development of new capture methods has enabled an increasing amount of genetic 67 68 information to be recovered. They allow to overcome the difficulties associated with highly degraded and fragmented hDNA from NHC samples, which prevents conventional amplification 69 using standard molecular primers (Landry et al. 2023). Among these methods, Ultra Conserved 70 71 Elements (Blaimer et al. 2016; Faircloth 2017) or anchored hybrid enrichment of conserved 72 regions (AHE, Lemmon et al. 2012; Mayer et al. 2021), are based on the capture of informative loci previously designed from existing genomic data and generally target fairly conserved regions 73 74 in order to perform large phylogenies. Applying these approaches to NHC specimens allows to integrate samples that are complicated to obtain in the field. In order to work on non-model species 75 76 for which no prior genomic data is available, the HyRAD (Suchan et al. 2016) and HyRAD-X 77 (Schmid et al. 2017) approaches enable probes to be designed directly from a few phylogenetically 78 close fresh samples. These approaches, based on bench-top production of probes, also make it possible to dispense with the high cost of probe synthesis. Probes are designed using ddRADseq 79 80 protocol (Peterson et al. 2012) allowing to target thousands of loci randomly distributed along the genome. This approach is suitable for integrating NHC samples into population-scale studies 81 (Gauthier et al. 2020) or for phylogenetic studies of taxa that have recently diverged, such as within 82 a genus (Gauthier et al. 2023). The HyRAD-X approach designs probes on fresh RNA extractions. 83 By targeting only expressed gene loci, the HyRAD-X approach makes it possible to investigate 84 85 phylogenetic questions at older evolutionary scales than the HyRAD approach (Toussaint *et al.*) 2021). Using these probe sets, hDNA is then captured by hybridization and sequenced using NGS 86 technologies. This allows only the targeted loci to be recovered while eliminating all unwanted 87 88 fragments such as contaminants. After sequencing, the loci are reconstructed and aligned using 89 appropriate bioinformatic pipelines in order to make phylogenetic inferences (Toussaint et al.

2021). Unlike random Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS) of all the extracted DNA, these targeted
approaches enable better recovery of loci and integration of a larger number of NHC samples into
the phylogenetic inferences made in fine (Toussaint *et al.* 2021). Although the efficiency of
HyRAD-X has been tested at higher taxonomic levels, an empirical investigation of its
performance at the interface between population and species levels is needed.

The genus Carabus, Linnaeus 1758 (Coleoptera: Carabidae), is a monophyletic highly 95 diversified lineage comprising ca. 970 species classified into 91 subgenera (Deuve 2019, 2021). 96 This genus, together with its sister genus Calosoma (cosmopolitan, 130 species) form the tribe 97 Carabini (Osawa et al. 2004; Toussaint Fls & Gillett 2018; Toussaint et al. 2021; Sota et al. 2022). 98 99 Within Carabus, the clade named Arcifera Imura, 1996 is sister to the very diversified clade Eucarabi Deuve, 2013 (Deuve et al. 2012; Deuve 2021). This clade is mainly Palearctic, ranging 100 101 in the west from southwest England to Ukraine and Turkey in the east. The range of this group 102 notably encompasses the Carpathian mountains as well as the Swiss, Italian, Austrian and Dinaric 103 Alps. It currently includes four subgenera: Carabus (Hygrocarabus) Thomson, 1875, Carabus 104 (Platycarabus) Morawitz, 1886, Carabus (Chaetocarabus) Thomson, 1875 and Carabus (Heterocarabus) Morawitz, 1886 (Deuve 2019, 2021). Within Arcifera, the subgenus Carabus 105 106 (Hygrocarabus) contains two species found from France to Ukraine, the status of which has been 107 extensively debated over the past decades due to reduced morphological differences and 108 inconsistent genetic admixture patterns (Müller-Kroehling et al. 2006; Müller-Kroehling et al. 109 2014); Matern et al. 2009, 2010; Mossakowski et al. 2020). These hygrophilous nocturnal species 110 live in river banks and hunt close or in the water of cold forest streams. The two species are in 111 relative allopatry with Carabus nodulosus Creutzer, 1799 being found from eastern France to 112 Austria and western Balkans, and Carabus variolosus Fabricius, 1787 from Slovakia to Ukraine and Bulgaria (Kulijer 2019; Deuve 2021; Bekchiev et al. 2022; Hristovski et al. 2023). Despite 113 the protection status of their habitat (Annexes II and IV of the European Union's Habitats 114 Directive), these two species appear to be declining due to anthropogenic activities and their 115 116 consequences (Tyszecka et al. 2023). The subgenus Carabus (Chaetocearabus) only contains two 117 allopatric species following Deuve (Deuve 2019, 2021), the widespread Carabus intricatus Linné, 118 1761 found from western France to Ukraine and Greece, and the Greek endemic Carabus arcadicus Gistl, 1850. These two species are found in sympatry in Greece where hybrids are 119 120 known from example at the Katara Pass in the Epirus region. Additionally the status of several subspecies in both taxa has been debated, and some authors recognize Carabus arcadicus merlini 121 122 Schaum, 1861 (Greece), Carabus intricatus lefebvrei Dejean, 1826 (southern Italy including 123 Sicily) and Carabus intricatus krueperi Reitter, 1896 (Greece) as separate species within which 124 additional subspecific taxa have been described (e.g., Cavazzuti & Ghiretti 2020). Perhaps the most debated taxon of the three being Carabus intricatus lefebvrei found south of Umbria to 125 126 northern Sicily which is largely allopatric from the rest of the Italian populations found only in the 127 extreme north of Italy from Piemonte to Friuli (Cavazzuti & Ghiretti 2020). The subgenus Carabus 128 (Heterocarabus) contains a unique species, Carabus marietti Cristofori & Jan, 1837, that is found 129 in southern Bulgaria near the Black Sea and in Anatolia (Turkey), however its ecology and 130 relationships between the numerous described subspecies remain poorly known (Gueorguiev & 131 Gueorguiev 1995; Hieke & Wrase 2008). Finally, the subgenus Carabus (Platycarabus) is 132 composed of five currently accepted species: Carabus creutzeri Fabricius, 1801, Carabus 133 cychroides Baudi, 1860, Carabus depressus Bonelli, 1811, Carabus fabricii Panzer, 1812 and 134 Carabus irregularis Fabricius, 1792. These beetles are characterized by a flattened morphology, 135 long legs, and elytra generally covered with small foveoli (except in Carabus depressus lucens Schaum, 1857). They are most widely distributed in Central and Eastern Europe, generally at high 136 altitudes, in mountain forests and alpine pastures. The subgenus contains helicophagous species 137 that exhibit different hunting techniques related to the morphology of their mandibles and 138 139 prothorax (Casale et al. 1998). For instance, Carabus cychroides with a thin, elongated head and 140 prothorax, is adapted to enter gastropod shells and has undergone a process known as 141 "cychrization". This species has a very restricted range in the Piedmont region of Italy, is 142 endangered and the focus of reinforced conservation programmes (Anselmo & Rizzioli 2022a; b). 143 In contrast, the species C. irregularis presents a "licinization" resulting in a large head likely 144 adapted to cracking snail shells (Casale et al. 1998). The relationships among species of the 145 subgenus Carabus (Platycarabus) are still debated, and the various taxonomic divisions, both 146 species and subspecies, have yet to be clarified (Casale et al. 1998; Deuve 2021). Natural hybrids 147 have been suggested between Carabus fabricii and Carabus depressus, Carabus creutzeri and 148 Carabus irregularis, Carabus creutzeri and Carabus depressus, and Carabus depressus and 149 Carabus cychroides (Casale et al. 1998; Camard & Leplat 2004; Casale & Rapuzzi 2015), 150 indicating the need for an in-depth study of possible hybridization in this group.

151 One of the earliest attempts to elucidate the phylogeny of Arcifera was conducted by 152 Ishikawa (Ishikawa 1984), using 21 morphological characters. This study supported the monophyly of Arcifera and placed *Carabus* (*Hygrocarabus*) as sister to the rest of the group, in 153 which Carabus (Chaetocarabus) was sister to Carabus (Heterocarabus) and Carabus 154 (Platycarabus). The first placement of Arcifera members in a molecular phylogeny was based on 155 156 a single mitochondrial fragment (i.e. ND5), and recovered Carabus (Chaetocarabus) and Carabus (Platycarabus) as sister lineages, close to Carabus (Limnocarabus) Géhin, 1876 and Carabus 157 158 (Euleptocarabus) Nakane, 1956 (Imura et al. 1998). A subsequent study with the same gene fragment but increased taxon sampling recovered a paraphyletic Arcifera due to the placement of 159 160 Carabus (Hygrocarabus) as sister to Carabus (Limnocarabus) and Carabus (Euleptocarabus) 161 (Imura et al. 2000). In the same study, Carabus (Heterocarabus) was sister to Carabus 162 (Chaetocarabus) and Carabus (Platycarabus). Using the same gene fragment, another study 163 inferred Carabus (Platycarabus) as sister to Carabus (Chaetocarabus) and Carabus 164 (*Heterocarabus*), within a largely unresolved *Carabus* clade (Su *et al.* 2003). A subsequent study 165 using two nuclear gene fragments recovered Arcifera, represented by Carabus (Chaetocarabus) 166 and Carabus (Platycarabus) as sister to the rest of the genus (=Eucarabi) (Sota & Ishikawa 2004). 167 More recently, Deuve et al. (2012) used ten loci to recover Arcifera as sister to the Eucarabi and 168 within Arcifera, they recovered *Carabus* (*Hygrocarabus*) as sister to *Carabus* (*Chaetocarabus*) 169 and Carabus (Platycarabus). Phylogenetic relationships among Carabus (Platycarabus) were also

170 investigated using Sanger sequencing data (Casale et al. 1998), suggesting that C. irregularis is 171 sister to the rest of the subgenus with C. fabricii and C. depressus being the most derived lineages 172 in the tree. In parallel to a moderate refinement in the phylogenetic inferences of Arcifera, the 173 estimation of divergence times in the clade has made some progress. Estimates for the origin of 174 Arcifera based on few loci range from the mid-Miocene (ca. 14 Ma, Deuve et al. 2012) to the early Oligocene (ca. 30 Ma, Schmidt et al. 2023). No major improvement in our understanding of 175 176 Arcifera systematics and evolution has been achieved in the past decade and there is a need to infer 177 a robust evolutionary tree for this section of *Carabus* to better understand the morphological, 178 ecological and geographical evolution of constituent lineages.

In this study, we take advantage of the HyRAD-X approach to integrate a large number of samples throughout the large geographical range of Arcifera. We rely on phylogenomic inferences, species delimitations and population genomics approaches to clarify the taxonomy and elucidate the evolutionary history of this complex group of species. In particular, we use this new genomic framework to test which abiotic factors may have fostered the diversification of Arcifera through space and time in the Cenozoic.

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186 Material and methods

187 Taxon sampling and DNA extraction

188 The initial sampling was designed in order to sample major lineages within the Arcifera group 189 comprising four subgenera Carabus (Chaetocarabus), Carabus (Heterocarabus), Carabus 190 (Hygrocarabus) and Carabus (Platycarabus) (Deuve 2019). A total of 96 samples were initially 191 collected, mainly from NHC samples (87 samples, i.e. 90% of the dataset) but also from a few 192 fresh samples (9 samples, i.e. 10% of the dataset) when these were available (Supplementary Table 1). Multiple specimens of the same taxa and geographic populations were initially selected to 193 194 mitigate the risk of hDNA degradation that can result in specimens not being processed. NHC specimens used in this study are kept at the Natural History Museum of Geneva (MHNG, 76 195 196 specimens) and Zoologische Staatssammlung München (ZSM-SNSB, 10 specimens). Eight 197 specimens collected in 96% ethanol were also used and have been deposited in the MHNG 198 collections. DNA was extracted destructively from a single leg using a QIAamp DNA Micro kit 199 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Quantity and quality of the purified DNA were assessed with a 200 Fragment Analyzer. Based on DNA quality and concentrations, 38 specimens were not included in the final samples selected for capture, enrichment and sequencing (ca. 40% of DNA extractions 201 not processed). Overall, a total of 56 Arcifera specimens were sequenced de novo for this study, 202 representing all Arcifera subgenera and species, several subspecies for the most widespread 203 species as well as a good geographical representation of each species range (taking into account 204 205 12 specimens that were eventually not included in the decisive datasets, see Results). Commonly, 206 early sampling erosion and discarded samples are not discussed in the framework of museomics 207 studies but we believe that this is critical to understand the limitations and cost of such approaches 208 in modern phylogenomic studies. The initial sampling in this study was specifically designed to 209 accommodate a ca. 40-50% specimen loss during DNA quality/quantity assessment (e.g.,

Toussaint *et al.* 2021), and therefore the resulting sampling is well-suited to tackle the focal taxonomic and evolutionary questions in Arcifera. The final taxon sampling was complemented by eight samples of *Carabus* (including one of *C. irregularis* and one of *C. variolosus*) and one of

213 Calosoma sycophanta (Linné, 1758) retrieved from (Toussaint et al. 2021) (see Supplementary

- Table 1 for more details).
- 215
- 216 *HyRAD-X protocol*

217 The HyRAD protocol was applied as in (Toussaint et al. 2021). For fresh specimens a shearing step with NEBNext dsDNA Fragmentase (New England Biolabs) was performed before library 218 219 preparation. Shotgun libraries were prepared based on the protocol developed in (Tin et al. 2014). 220 Purified DNA was phosphorylated with T4 Polynucleotide Kinase. After heat-denaturation into 221 single-stranded DNA. G-tailing was performed with Terminal Transferase and second strand DNA 222 was synthesized with Klenow Fragment (3'->5'exo-) using a poly-C oligonucleotide. Blunt-end 223 reaction was performed with T4 DNA Polymerase and barcoded adapters were ligated to the 224 phosphorylated end with T4 DNA ligase. After adapter fill-in with Bst DNA Polymerase (Large Fragment), PCR were run using Phusion U Hot Start DNA Polymerase (Thermo Scientific) and 225 226 indexed PCR primers. Libraries were pooled in equimolar quantities based upon their respective 227 concentrations. Hybridization capture for enrichment of shotgun libraries was based on the 228 MYbaits protocol (Arbor Biosciences) modified as in (Toussaint et al. 2021) to include a two-step 229 capture at different temperatures (Li et al. 2013). Final library sequencing was performed on 230 Illumina NovaSeq 6000 SP using a paired-end protocol (Lausanne Genomic Technologies Facility, 231 Switzerland).

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233 Illumina sequencing data cleanup and processing

234 Raw reads were demultiplexed according to indexes and barcodes using CutAdapt2 (Martin 2011). Reads were cleaned using CutAdapt2 (Martin 2011) and quality was assessed all along the process 235 236 using fastqc (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Cleaned reads were 237 individually mapped onto the loci catalog using BWA-MEM (Li 2013) (Supplementary Figure 1). 238 The GATK (GenomeAnalysisTK) IndelRealigner tool (McKenna et al. 2010) realigned the indels 239 and deamination were corrected using mapDamage2.0 (Jónsson et al. 2013). For each sample and 240 each locus, a consensus sequence was generated from the mapping file using samtools mpileup, beftools and vcfutils.pl (Li et al. 2009). Consensuses were generated keeping the majority allele at 241 242 each position. Twelve samples with too much missing data (more than 80% of N), were identified 243 using seqtk and removed (Supplementary Table 1). Two thresholds of minimum coverage (min cov) were applied to keep positions: min cov=3 and min cov=6. To test different levels of 244 245 missing data, decisive datasets were generated applying three thresholds for the minimum number 246 of samples per locus (min sample): min sample=10, min sample=17 and min sample=32. As a 247 result, six datasets were generated: Dataset A (min cov=6, min sample=10, 50 taxa, 1'481 loci), 248 Dataset B (min cov=6, min sample=10, 52 taxa, 1'965 loci), Dataset C (min cov=6, 249 min sample=17, 50 taxa, 1'014 loci), Dataset D (min cov=3, min sample=17, 52 taxa, 1'291

loci), Dataset E (min_cov=6, min_sample=32, 50 taxa, 366 loci) and Dataset F (min_cov=3, min_sample=32, 52 taxa, 478 loci). The consensus sequences were combined and aligned with
MAFFT using the --auto option. Eight samples from (Toussaint *et al.* 2021) were integrated at the
alignment step. The final datasets only differ at the taxon sampling level with respect to *Carabus arcadicus merlini* CBX0176 and *Carabus cychroides* CBX0082 that were included only in
Datasets B, D and F (these two taxa were systematically discarded because of low genomic
coverage when generating loci with a min_cov=6, i.e., in Datasets A, C and E).

257 MitoFinder (Allio et al. 2020) was used to identify mitochondrial genes among all sequenced loci. The kept genes were shared by at least half of the samples. The genes were aligned, 258 259 and the sequences were cleaned in Geneious. Individual locus haplotype networks were built in 260 SplitsTree v.4.19.1 (Huson & Bryant 2006). The networks were reconstructed using calculated 261 uncorrected p-distances and the NeighborNet algorithm. All non-Arcifera outgroups were removed 262 before analyses. In parallel, a SNP calling was performed on the mapping files from the Arcifera 263 species using GATK (McKenna et al. 2010) in order to perform complementary population 264 genomic analyses and compare the results with those obtained from the locus oriented approach, 265 avoiding any bias linked to locus reconstruction (Dataset H).

266

267 Phylogenetic inferences

268 For each dataset, phylogenetic inferences were performed using IQ-TREE v2.0.5 (Minh et al. 269 2020) using the edge-linked partition model (Chernomor et al. 2016). First, the best partitioning 270 schemes were estimated using PartitionFinder v2.1.1 (Lanfear et al. 2017) with the reluster 271 algorithm under the Akaike Information Criterion corrected (AICc), with a reluster-max of 2,000 272 and a reluster-percent of 20. The resulting partitioning schemes were then used in IQ-TREE to 273 select corresponding models of nucleotide substitution using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et 274 al. 2017) and the AICc across all available models in IQ-TREE. To avoid local optima, we 275 performed 100 independent tree searches for each dataset in IQ-TREE. To estimate branch support, 276 we calculated 1,000 ultrafast bootstraps along with 1,000 SH-aLRT tests in IQ-TREE (Guindon et 277 al. 2010; Hoang et al. 2018). We used the hill-climbing nearest-neighbour interchange topology 278 search strategy to avoid severe model violations leading to biased ultrafast bootstrap estimations 279 (Hoang et al., 2018). The best tree for each analysis was selected based on the comparison of 280 maximum likelihood scores. Coalescent species trees were inferred using ASTRAL-hybrid (Zhang & Mirarab 2022). We first performed individual locus trees using IQ-TREE v2.0.5 (Minh et al. 281 2020) and branch supports were assessed using 1,000 ultrafast bootstraps. Best substitution model 282 283 for each locus was estimated using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017). Species tree reconstruction was performed combining gene trees using the weighted-ASTRAL optimization 284 285 algorithm (Zhang & Mirarab 2022) taking into account phylogenetic uncertainty by relying on 286 branch length and branch support across locus trees. As a complement to the locus reconstruction 287 approach, we performed phylogenetic inferences based on the SNP set used for the population 288 genomic approaches. Bi-allelic SNP shared by at least four samples were extracted and all 289 invariant sites removed. Species trees were inferred with RAxML-NG (Kozlov et al. 2019) using GTR+G+ASC_LEWIS model for ascertainment bias correction and branch supports were assessed
 using 1,000 bootstraps.

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293 Divergence time estimation

294 Divergence time estimation was performed in BEAST 1.10.4 (Suchard et al. 2018) based on a subset of loci selected using a gene-shopping approach to make these analyses tractable on a 295 bioinformatic cluster. SortaDate (Smith et al. 2018) was used with default settings to select 100 296 297 loci sorted using the following criteria: clock-likeness, tree length, and least topological conflict 298 with the IQ-TREE species tree on dataset E. The selected loci were then concatenated into a 299 Dataset G for relaxed-clock Bayesian divergence time estimation. The best partitioning scheme and substitution models were determined with PartitionFinder2 (Lanfear et al. 2017) using the 300 301 greedy algorithm with the parameter minsubset-size = 2000 and the Bayesian information criterion 302 algorithm to choose between competing models. Clock partitioning was implemented by 1) a 303 single clock for all partitions and 2) a clock for each partition (eight in total; see Results). A 304 Bayesian lognormal relaxed clock model was assigned to the different clock partitions. Different 305 tree models were tested using a Yule pure birth model (Yule 1925; Gernhard 2008), a birth-death 306 model (Drummond et al. 2006; Gernhard 2008) as well as a Constant population size coalescent 307 model (Kingman 1982). Since the fossil record of Carabus is scarce, we relied on secondary 308 calibrations from a study focusing on Adephaga evolution based on 23 beetle fossil calibrations 309 (Baca et al. 2021). According to this study, the separation between the genera Calosoma and 310 *Carabus* occurred about 41.4 [37.1–46.1] million years ago (Ma). This age was used as a secondary calibration for the corresponding node in our topology (split Calosoma/Carabus, in this case the 311 312 root). A second calibration was used to constrain the crown of Carabus. Following (Baca et al. 313 2021), this node was constrained to match the recovered age in their study at about 25.4 [22.8– 314 28.2] Ma. The analyses were conducted for 50 million generations, sampling parameters and trees 315 every 5000 generations. The maximum clade credibility tree for each analysis was generated in 316 TreeAnnotator 1.10.4.

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318 Species delimitation and hybridisation

319 We used a combination of species delimitation methods and population genomic approaches to 320 test species and subspecies limits. For these analyses we excluded the six non-Arcifera outgroup 321 specimens resulting in a dataset composed of 44 samples. We extracted the 44 Arcifera samples 322 from Dataset E composed of 366 shared loci which present the lowest level of missingness (Table 1). First, BPP (Flouri et al. 2018) was used with the A11 option, using inverse-gamma 323 distributed diffuse priors ($\alpha = 3$) for the population sizes (θ) and root ages (τ 0). Analysis was 324 run for 100,000 generations, sampling every 100 generations after a burnin of 8,000 325 326 generations. Second, the multi-locus species delimitation using Bayesian model comparison 327 implemented in the TR2 package (Fujisawa et al. 2016) has been applied on the same dataset. 328 Locus trees generated with IQ-TREE v2.0.5 (Minh et al. 2020) and previously used for the

weighted-ASTRAL approach were used as well as the maximum likelihood IQ-TREE consensus
 tree on dataset A as guide tree. Outgroups were removed from gene trees and the guide tree.

331 From the SNP (Dataset H), population clustering was assessed using STRUCTURE 2.3.3 332 (Pritchard et al. 2000). Bi-allelic SNPs shared by at least 40% of the samples were extracted using 333 VCFtools v0.1.12a (Danecek et al. 2011). Because markers are supposed to be unlinked, we extracted randomly only one SNP by locus. K-values from 1 to 15 were tested with no prior 334 335 population information and performed three times for each of them to verify a convergence of 336 estimations. A burn-in of 100,000 runs was used followed by 500,000 iterations. The most likely 337 number of clusters was determined using the Evanno method (Evanno et al. 2005) implemented 338 in Structure Harvester (Earl & vonHoldt 2012). The replicates were then combined and the figures 339 generated using CLUMPAK server (Kopelman et al. 2015). To investigate putative admixture 340 between species or subspecies we estimated Patterson's D statistic (ABBA-BABA test) (Patterson 341 et al. 2012) for all subspecies/species quartets using the Dsuite (Malinsky et al. 2021). The 342 analyses were performed on bi-allelic SNPs shared by at least 40% of the samples composed of 343 6,743 SNPs. Z-scores and associated p-values were calculated to assess the significance of the 344 results.

345

346 Results

347 *Museomic approach efficiency*

348 The combination of historical and fresh samples enabled to compare the effectiveness of 349 museomics methods. The DNA concentrations obtained from a single leg are very variable 350 between fresh samples (mean = 8.37 ng/ μ L; sd = 6.82 ng/ μ L) and NHC samples (mean = 1.18 351 $ng/\mu L$; sd = 2.45 ng/ μL). There was a significant correlation between the quantity of DNA extracted and the age of the specimens (Figure 1A). For the NHC samples, this concentration was 352 not homogeneous, with some samples nevertheless showing a high concentration. Forty samples 353 354 with a concentration below the detection thresholds; were excluded from the rest of the capture 355 process. It should be noted that some samples with very low DNA concentrations, such as *Carabus* 356 *fabricii* CBX0094 captured in 1977 with a concentration of only 0.08 ng/µL, were reliably placed into the final phylogenetic inferences. For specimens with measurable DNA, the capture process 357 worked efficiently, allowing the sequencing of an average of 8.4 million reads per sample (sd = 358 359 9.2 million). There was a large difference between the average number of reads obtained from 360 fresh samples (mean = 23.8 millions; sd = 11.0 millions) and NHC samples (mean = 5.4 millions; 361 sd = 5.0 millions). The age of the specimens also had an influence on the number of reads obtained, 362 as there was a significant correlation between the age of the specimens and the number of reads obtained (Figure 1B). 363

364 After locus reconstruction, the difference between fresh and NHC samples persists, with an

average of 1765 loci recovered in fresh samples (sd = 553) and 629 in NHC samples (sd = 447) (Figure 1C). This difference is of the same order when looking at shared loci (Figure 1D). There

is a large heterogeneity in the number of loci recovered between NHC samples, largely linked to

368 the age of the specimen. Samples with too few loci (< 150 loci), i.e. 12 samples, had to be excluded

from the final datasets. For 35 NHC samples, the number of loci recovered, on average 793 (sd = 400), was sufficient to include them in subsequent analyses. Although strict filtering steps reduced the number of NHC samples, they also ensured the reliability of the dataset for downstream inferences.

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374 Phylogenomic inferences

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376 We inferred the phylogenetic relationships among Arcifera using six different datasets under various taxon sampling and/or gene sampling strategies (Figure 2). The results of analyses based 377 378 on a concatenation approach performed in IO-TREE and on a coalescent species-tree approach 379 conducted in wASTRAL are consistent except for the placement of Carabus marietti, the 380 branching pattern within C. (Chaetocarabus) and relationships between C. creutzeri and C. fabricii. The subgenus C. (Hygrocarabus) is recovered as monophyletic in all analyses (including 381 382 wASTRAL) and as sister to the rest of Arcifera, however all analyses failed to recover C. 383 nodulosus and C. variolosus as reciprocally monophyletic. In all IQ-TREE inferences except the one based on Dataset E and all wASTRAL analyses except the one based on Datasets A and B. C. 384 marietti is recovered as sister to C. (Chaetocarabus) with heterogeneous levels of branch support. 385 In the IQ-TREE analysis of Dataset E, this taxon is recovered as sister to the genus Carabus as a 386 387 whole, whereas in wASTRAL analyses of Datasets A and B it is recovered as sister to Arcifera 388 except C. (Hygrocarabus) with low branch support. The subgenus C. (Chaetocarabus) is always 389 recovered as monophyletic but internal relationships differ between analyses. A minority of 390 analyses recovered C. arcadicus and C. intricatus as reciprocally monophyletic (for instance no 391 wASTRAL analysis recovered this relationship). The subspecies C. intricatus lefebvrei is 392 recovered as sister to the nominal subspecies in all analyses. When Carabus arcadicus merlini is 393 included (Datasets B, D and F only), it never groups with other specimens of the nominal subspecies resulting in *Carabus arcadicus* being consistently inferred as paraphyletic when this 394 395 taxon is included (Supplementary Figure 2). The subgenus C. (Platycarabus) is recovered as 396 monophyletic and with identical interspecific relationships across all IQ-TREE analyses but some 397 contention in wASTRAL ones. The alpine endemic C. cvchroides is recovered as sister to the rest 398 of the subgenus in all analyses with strong branch support (IQ-TREE and wASTRAL). The species 399 C. depressus is inferred as the next lineage branching off in C. (Platycarabus) across all IQ-TREE analyses and most wASTRAL analyses (except in Dataset A and E where it is recovered as sister 400 to C. irregularis with low branch support). The subspecies C. depressus lucens is recovered as 401 sister to the nominal subspecies in all analyses. The placement of the three remaining C. 402 (*Platycarabus*) species is identical across all IO-TREE analyses with strong branch support, with 403 404 C. creutzeri being sister to C. fabricii and C. irregularis. The wASTRAL analyzes recover different relationships but with low branch support, with a weakly supported sister relationship 405 406 between C. creutzeri and C. fabricii in analyses of Datasets D, E and F. The subspecies C. fabricii 407 *malachiticus* is recovered as nested within the nominal subspecies in all analyses. The subspecies 408 C. irregularis montandoni is recovered as sister to C. irregularis bucephalus and C. irregularis

409 *irregularis* in all IQ-TREE analyses whereas it is *C. irregularis bucephalus* that is inferred as sister

410 to *C. irregularis irregularis* and *C. irregularis montandoni* in all wASTRAL analyses. Overall the

411 IQ-TREE and wASTRAL inferences are highly compatible when collapsing the weakly supported

- 412 relationships in wASTRAL species trees (gray and red asterisks in Figure 2). In particular,
- inconsistent relationships in wASTRAL compared to IQ-TREE always received poor branch
 support. We observe that branch support and overall phylogenetic resolution appears positively
- 415 correlated to gene and taxon sampling (i.e., including less taxa and less loci to improve matrix
- 416 completeness likely results in a loss of resolution).
- 417
- 418 *Divergence time estimation*
- 419

The BEAST dating analysis revealed consistent results for the four main nodes, i.e. the root, *Carabus*, Arcifera and *Carabus* (*Platycarabus*) nodes, according to the three models tested Yule, Birth-Death model, and Constant population size coalescent (Figures 3 and 4). The coalescent model including eight Bayesian log-normal relaxed clocks received the best marginal likelihood as calculated using stepping-stone sampling in BEAST and was therefore selected hereafter. This inference suggests an origin of Arcifera at 26.07 Ma (95% HPD: 22.77 - 29.67 Ma) and 14.56 Ma (95% HPD: 12.52 - 16.76 Ma) for the *Carabus (Platycarabus)* subgenus.

427

428 Species delimitation and putative hybridization

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430 The different approaches to species delimitation produced contrasting results. The analysis 431 performed with BPP is the most consistent with morphology and the current classification. The two species Carabus variolosus and C. nodulosus are well separated even though C. nodulosus is 432 433 not monophyletic in our phylogeny. TR2 approach proposes an oversplit of the three C. nodulosus 434 samples. Conversely, the STRUCTURE approach groups the two species in a single cluster 435 (Supplementary Figure 6). *Carabus marietti*, the only representative of *Carabus (Heterocarabus)* 436 is delineated as a species in all three approaches. Within Carabus (Chaetocarabus), the two species 437 C. arcadicus and C. intricatus are delineated by BPP but are merged by TR2 and STRUCTURE, 438 potentially for the same reasons as in Carabus (Hygrocarabus). It should be noted that the two 439 subspecies of C. intricatus, i.e. C. intricatus lefebvrei and C. intricatus intricatus, are never 440 delineated as distinct species. The species C. cychroides was well discriminated in two of the three 441 approaches, with only TR2 proposing an additional split of the most basal sample. The two subspecies of C. depressus, C. depressus depressus and C. depressus lucens are not grouped 442 443 together in the BPP approach and are identified as two distinct species. The results of the three 444 methods are fully consistent with the morphology for C. creutzeri and C. fabricii. For C. 445 irregularis, the situation is similar for two of the three methods, i.e. BPP and Structure. Among 446 the 85 trios analysed, high D-statistics values, > 0.25, with significant p-values were observed for 447 three trios. For two of these, C. cychroides was observed in P1 and C. arcadicus in P3. Despite 448 this, no f-branch signal significantly different from zero could be identified (Supplementary Figure 7). These results suggest an absence of past introgression between the different species andsubspecies.

- 451
- 452 Discussion
- 453

454 Using museomics to obtain an extensive dataset

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456 The HyRAD and HyRAD-X methods are unique in that they allow in-house production of probes using a ddRAD protocol, either directly on the DNA of a few fresh samples (Suchan et al. 2016) 457 458 or on their RNA (Schmid et al. 2017). These approaches allow to target several thousand loci and 459 generate in turn high-resolution phylogenomic inferences (Young & Gillung 2020). In this study, 460 we obtained 1,965 loci for the most extensive dataset. These loci were informative enough to 461 resolve both the deep relationships between outgroups and the more recent relationships at the 462 intrageneric and intraspecific scales. In addition, the identification of SNPs on these loci also 463 enabled population genomic approaches such as the study of genetic structure and admixture.

- In addition, the HyRAD-X approach made it possible to integrate samples with extremely 464 low initial DNA quantities. However, out of 96 samples from which DNA was extracted, 40 had 465 an undetectable quantity of DNA. In the context of museomics projects, it is therefore instrumental 466 467 to plan for redundancy in the sampling, with several samples per targeted taxon, in order to 468 compensate for any failures. Furthermore, the ability to generate genetic information from hDNA is not entirely predictable. The recovery of meaningful genomic data does not seem to be linked 469 470 to the age of samples (Figure 1), in line with existing observations (Toussaint et al. 2021; Nunes 471 et al. 2022). In that vein, large amounts of genomic data could be obtained from older NHC samples when almost none could be obtained from more recent samples. The quality and quantity 472 473 of DNA that can be extracted from NHC specimens is linked to factors that we cannot control, 474 such as the conditions of collection and preservation process (Post et al. 1993; Dillon et al. 1996; 475 Ruppert et al. 2023).
- 476

477 Systematics and species delimitation in Arcifera

478

479 Our results provide a robust phylogenomic tree of Arcifera for the first time (Figure 2). Overall we support the view that Arcifera represents a monophylum within which all four subgenera form 480 481 clades. The monophyly of Arcifera is also supported by the presence of a hook-shaped ligulum 482 (i.e., arculus) at the base of the endophallus, a strong morphological character that unites all constituents of this lineage (Imura et al. 2000; Deuve et al. 2012). Our study is the first to provide 483 484 strong evidence for these relationships while including all species of the group. Other studies based 485 on reduced genomic sampling, often a single gene fragment, either failed to recover Arcifera as 486 monophyletic (Imura et al. 2000; Osawa et al. 2004), or had too limited a taxon sampling to 487 properly test the placement and otherwise monophyly of each subgenus (Su et al. 2003; Sota & 488 Ishikawa 2004; Deuve et al. 2012). Except for a minority of analyses, our results strongly suggest that *Carabus* (*Hygrocarabus*) is sister to the rest of Arcifera, with *Carabus* (*Platycarabus*) as sister
to a clade formed by *Carabus* (*Chaetocarabus*) and *Carabus* (*Heterocarabus*).

491 Within Carabus (Hygrocarabus), we recover C. variolosus nested within C. nodulosus. 492 This result contrasts with the ones of Mossakowski et al. (2020) where the two species were 493 suggested to be well differentiated genetically. In their study, these authors argued based on the 494 analysis of two gene fragments that both taxa form distinct clades although several specimens 495 caused each species to be paraphyletic. Some tests of mating between the two candidate species 496 were also performed in this study and suggested that the two lineages do not mate. However, the 497 scale and conditions of these trials do not allow to conclusively rule out potential mating. We argue 498 that in the current state of our knowledge it is not yet possible to definitively test species 499 boundaries, past introgression and signature of hybridization between *Carabus nodulosus* and *C*. 500 variolosus. A desired approach would be to combine a large geographical sampling as in 501 Mossakowski et al. (2020) with a genomic scale dataset as developed in the present study to revisit 502 the systematic conundrum within this subgenus at the population level.

Within Carabus (Chaetocarabus), we recover C. arcadicus as sister to C. intricatus in most 503 analyses (Figure 2). These two species are allopatric, morphologically well-differentiated and little 504 doubt exists with respect to their status as distinct species. Surprisingly our species delimitation 505 506 analyses only partly support the two species hypothesis, with TR2 and STRUCTURE considering 507 that Carabus (Chaetocarabus) is a unique species. Considering the low genomic coverage of some 508 taxa included in the analyses (see below), the clear morphological and geographical split between 509 these lineages and the support from BPP analyses, we argue that the validity of these two species 510 is uncontroversial. Natural hybrids with an intermediate morphology and usually green dorsal 511 pattern are known to exist along the limits of their respective ranges in northern Greece (i.e., at the 512 Katara pass) where Carabus intricatus macedonicus (not sampled here) and C. arcadicus 513 arcadicus co-occur. Both Carabus arcadicus and C. intricatus also comprise geographically 514 restricted subspecies in Greece that have been considered valid species by some authors. In the 515 south of Greece, the melanistic subspecies Carabus arcadicus merlini is endemic to the 516 Peloponnese peninsula and allopatric from the nominal subspecies present in the north. One 517 specimen of this taxon was sequenced but genomic coverage was low and therefore it was only 518 included in the less stringent Datasets B, D and F. In the phylogenetic analyses of these datasets, 519 the inclusion of Carabus arcadicus merlini systematically results in all three C. arcadicus specimens forming a phylogenetic grade within which C. intricatus is nested. We argue that this 520 is an artifact possibly caused by missing genomic sampling and that both species are reciprocally 521 monophyletic as recovered in all other analyses and as suggested by morphology. However, it is 522 523 possible that Carabus arcadicus merlini represents a distinct evolutionary lineage since it is always 524 recovered as sister to the rest of C. (Chaetocarabus). Additional taxon sampling is needed to test 525 the placement of this morphologically distinct taxon within the subgenus. Across its range, 526 Carabus intricatus is represented by the nominal subspecies from western France and UK to 527 northern Greece. In the south of Italy and Sicily, this species is represented by the allopatric 528 Carabus intricatus lefebvrei. The status of this taxon is debated and some authors consider it a 529 valid species. In our results, we recover this subspecies as sister to the nominal subspecies 530 represented by specimens from France and Piemonte. Our phylogenetic inferences support the 531 view of Carabus intricatus lefebvrei as a possible distinct species but our species delimitation 532 analyses reject this hypothesis. To properly test species boundaries within Carabus intricatus, 533 additional taxon sampling is needed including a much denser geographical sampling of the 534 nominal subspecies along with all described valid subspecies (Deuve 2019). In the Balkans, several 535 subspecies of Carabus intricatus have been described and represented more or less isolated 536 populations restricted to northern Greece. Despite our efforts we could not obtain DNA of good quality for Carabus intricatus krueperi endemic to eastern Thessaly and considered by some 537 538 authors to be a valid species. Here as well, a denser taxon sampling is needed to properly test 539 species boundaries in this group. The placement of Carabus (Heterocarabus) marietti as sister to 540 C. (Chaetocarabus) receives support from most analyses in this study. Despite a relatively 541 circumscribed geographic range in northern Turkey and southern Bulgaria, numerous taxa have 542 been described in this subgenus even though currently a single species is considered valid (Turin 543 et al. 2003; Deuve 2019). Increasing the taxon sampling for this group by covering all its geographical range would allow testing the match between morphological and genetic diversity 544 and better understand the evolution of this unique lineage at the inter- and intraspecific interface. 545

Within Carabus (Platycarabus), we recover C. cychroides as sister to the rest of the 546 547 subgenus. This result is unexpected because this species is a very narrowly restricted endemic to 548 Piemonte mountain ranges where it lives in alpine meadows and scree >2000m. The species was 549 only included once in a phylogenetic framework by Casale et al. (1998) who recovered it as a 550 derived lineage close to Carabus depressus and C. fabricii. Interestingly, a sister relationship of 551 this species to the rest of Carabus (Platycarabus) was suggested by the analysis of morphological characters in Casale et al. (1998). Indeed, this species is morphologically quite different from the 552 553 rest of the subgenus in that it is one of the most extreme examples of cychrization in Carabus, a 554 process by which the pronotum is narrowed to allow predation inside snail shells (= stenocephalic 555 morphology). All species of the subgenus present a stenocephalic morphology, although less 556 marked than in Carabus cychroides, except for C. irregularis which is macrocephalic. Our phylogenetic inferences are therefore important to understand the evolution of predation strategies 557 558 and associated morphology across the genus Carabus in which both types of morphologies exist 559 (Sota & Ishikawa 2004). Most malacophagous and helicophagous species in Carabus are macrocephalic and use their enlarged pronotum, head and robust mandibles to break snail shells. 560 Cases of stenocephaly are most notably observed in Carabus (Platycarabus) but also in C. 561 562 (Damaster) Kollar, 1836 and C. (Macrothorax) Desmarest, 1850. The fact that Carabus 563 irregularis, the only C. (Platycarabus) macrocephalic species, is recovered as the most derived 564 species in the subgenus, indicates that macrocephaly possibly evolved from a stenocephalic morphology unlike what was suggested in Casale et al. (1998). In the case of Carabus cychroides, 565 566 it is not closely related to any other species of the subgenus as suggested by previous authors, and 567 despite rare known natural hybrids with C. depressus in the Cottian Alps (i.e., Colle delle Finestre, 568 Monte Morefreddo, Monte Albergian), these species do not share an immediate recent common

569 ancestry (Sturani 1962; Casale et al. 1998; Anselmo & Rizzioli 2022a; b). The rest of Carabus 570 (Platycarabus) species and most sampled subspecies are found monophyletic (Figure 2). We 571 recover the subspecies *Carabus depressus lucens* as sister to the nominal subspecies in all analyses 572 and with robust branch support. This subspecies is morphologically quite divergent from the 573 nominal subspecies and C. depressus bonellii as it completely lacks elytral foveoli. It is also 574 allopatric from the rest of the C. depressus populations, being found in a small translapine region 575 between France and Italy (i.e., French Queyras to Italian Alpi Marittime), and its status as a valid 576 species even though rejected by three out of four species delimitation analyses should be revisited 577 with enhanced population sampling. Our taxon sampling within *Carabus creutzeri* does not allow 578 testing subspecies monophyly and relationships in detail but species delimitation analyses 579 unambiguously support a single species (Figure 3). Within Carabus fabricii, we recover the 580 Carpathian populations of C. fabricii (ssp fassati = nominal ssp, and spp malachiticus) nested 581 within Alpine populations of the nominal subspecies. This is unexpected to some extent as 582 Carabus fabricii presents a disjunct distribution between the Alps and the Carpathians (i.e., it is 583 not currently found in the Danube valley). Our results suggest that despite an allopatric range, gene flow has been maintained between all populations of this species, however branch supports for 584 585 internal relationships in Carabus fabricii are moderate and an enhanced taxon sampling is needed to understand the past and present connectivity between populations. All species delimitation 586 587 analyses support a unique species. One of the most interesting subspecific cases is recovered in 588 Carabus irregularis. This species is the most widespread of the subgenus ranging from eastern 589 France to Romania and Ukraine. It comprises three valid subspecies, one of which Carabus 590 irregularis montandoni from the Carpathians, was suggested to be a valid species based on 591 molecular evidence (Homburg et al. 2013). Our results support to some extent this view with C. 592 irregularis montandoni being found sister to the rest of populations in all IQ-TREE analyses but 593 not in wASTRAL analyses where the other subspecies C. irregularis bucephalus is found as sister 594 to the rest of the clade. There seems to be a genetic differentiation between the three recognized 595 subspecies of C. irregularis but our species delimitation analyses support the view of a single 596 species.

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598 Evolution of the Arcifera group

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600 The divergence time estimation analyses all recover an origin of Arcifera ca. 26 Ma in the 601 Oligocene. We did not perform a biogeographic estimation of ancestral ranges in the group because 602 several species are very widespread and initial attempts resulted in unresolved patterns. The fact 603 that species boundaries within Carabus (Hygrocarabus) are unstable also prevented a proper 604 reconstruction. However, it is possible to discuss several phylogenetic splits in the framework of 605 our results. The stem branch connecting Carabus (Hygrocarabus) to the rest of Arcifera is long, 606 potentially representing periods of extinction in this lineage. Currently the two recognized species 607 in the subgenus occur in temperate forests where adults live and hunt near and in good quality 608 streams. The reconfiguration of such habitats in the past 25 million years due to climatic

oscillations (Westerhold *et al.* 2020) may have extirpated populations and pushed others in their
current ranges. Considering the specificity of these two lineages to their habitat, and predictions
of global warming and their impact on such ecosystems (Capon *et al.* 2021; Bonacina *et al.* 2023),
it is likely that they may be increasingly threatened in the future.

613 With respect to biogeography, one of the most interesting lineages in Arcifera is the clade 614 composed of Carabus (Chaetocarabus) and Carabus (Heterocarabus). Because Carabus 615 (Heterocarabus) marietti is restricted to eastern Bulgaria and western Turkey, and Carabus 616 (Chaetocarabus) distributed in Greece (C. arcadicus is endemic to Greece), it is likely that the ancestors of this clade originated in the geologically highly complex Aegean area. The split 617 618 between the two subgenera ca. 17 Ma predates the timing of the opening of the Aegean sea in the 619 Tortonian ca. 8 Ma (i.e., opening of the Mid-Aegean Trench or Aegean barrier; van Hinsbergen & 620 Schmid 2012), rejecting the hypothesis of geographic vicariance in the south as suggested in other 621 lineages (Poulakakis et al. 2015). Interestingly, both subgenera have very marginally overlapping 622 distributions in the Thrace basin with Carabus (Heterocarabus) currently distributed on the 623 southern Black Sea coast where Carabus intricatus is also represented by the subspecies C. intricatus starensis (Gueorguiev & Gueorguiev 1995). At the time of divergence in the early 624 625 Miocene (i.e., Burdigalian), the Thrace basin formed a connection between the eastern Balkan 626 peninsula and Anatolia (Rögl 1997, 1999; Sachsenhofer et al. 2017; Erbil et al. 2021). It is possible 627 that ancestral populations dispersed in the Balkan Peninsula and/or in Anatolia where they evolved 628 independently. Under this scenario, the close geographic ranges of these two species would likely represent secondary contact associated with more recent colonization of the Thrace basin. A more 629 630 robust population-level taxon sampling, especially of Carabus (Heterocarabus), might elucidate 631 the fine-scale biogeographic history of this clade in the future. Within Carabus (Chaetocarabus), 632 the two currently recognized species are mostly allopatric with only a short overlap in western 633 Greece (e.g. Katara pass). There is no clear geological barrier that may have fostered vicariant 634 diversification at the time of speciation ca. 7 Ma. Further diversification appears to be occurring 635 at the population level with *Carabus intricatus lefebvrei* endemic of southern Italy and allopatric 636 from the nominal subspecies. Similarly, Carabus arcadicus merlini endemic to Peloponnese is 637 morphologically quite divergent from the nominal subspecies and might represent a case of 638 ongoing speciation. The wide dispersal of Carabus intricatus across the western Palearctic region 639 is likely recent and may be explained by the generalist habitat preference of this species. Additional geographical and taxon sampling will likely yield more robust inferences of evolutionary patterns 640 641 and processes within this clade in the future.

The evolutionary history of the subgenus *Carabus (Platycarabus)* is also revealed by our analyses. We recover the narrowly endemic *Carabus cychroides* as sister to the rest of the subgenus. This is surprising as it was not suggested by the molecular inference of Casale *et al.* (1998). This placement has strong implications for our understanding of alpine biogeography in this group. Only *Carabus irregularis* has lowland populations and its derived placement in the phylogeny indicates that alpine specialization was likely ancestral in the subgenus with recent shift in that species to lower habitats. This phylogenomic pattern and the origin of the subgenus *ca.* 15 649 Ma during the warmest period of the Neogene seems to indicate that ancestors of Carabus 650 (Platycarabus) may have been less specialized than nowadays and were distributed in mountain 651 regions. In the mid Miocene, mountain ranges across the Alps had the same elevation as nowadays 652 (Campani et al. 2012; Krsnik et al. 2021), however ecosystems were different due to significantly 653 warmer climatic conditions. When the climate progressively turned colder these beetles adapted 654 to ensuing conditions and became alpine specialists. It is possible that species of the subgenus 655 diverged due to competition, niche filling and/or host specialization as observed in Carabus 656 cychroides for instance. We hypothesize that in the latest sequence of their evolutionary history, 657 Pleistocene glaciations played a limited role in speciation since all current species had already diverged (Figure 3). 658

659 Although natural hybrids are known between different species of the subgenus, our results 660 recover no hybridization signal between them. The most significant case concerns the species C. 661 fabricii and C. irregularis, whose ranges largely overlap in Switzerland, Austria and Slovakia. It 662 is in these sympatric areas that several cases of natural hybridisation have been identified (e.g. at the Radstädter Tauern Pass in Austria, Mandl 1960). However, our genetic results do not show 663 any hybridisation signals between the species, either on genetic structure, where the two clusters 664 are well separated, or in the approach using Dsuite, which seeks to trace admixture signals in the 665 lineages. These results suggest that these sporadic hybridization events are not conserved in 666 667 populations and could imply a potential infertility of F1s (Casale et al. 1998). Furthermore, the 668 networks obtained with the three mitochondrial genes (Supplementary Figure 4) group the samples of the C. irregularis and C. fabricii species in the same cluster. These mitonuclear discordance 669 670 patterns are frequent in the literature and can be explained by the specific biological properties of 671 mitochondrial DNA (uniparental inheritance and reduced recombination; Birky 2001) or 672 differences in the evolutionary histories of nuclear and mitochondrial markers including 673 incomplete lineage sorting and gene flow among species (Sota & Vogler 2001; Suchan et al. 2017). 674 The results obtained with the nuclear loci are sufficiently robust to be able to consider that the 675 hybridisations observed are either localised or do not induce lasting admixture between the species. 676 A more detailed analysis of hybrids, local populations and the implications of hybridisation on the 677 fitness of individuals could provide a better understanding of the mechanisms involved.

678 Integrating current species distribution, genetic isolation of these alpine species was 679 already in place when glaciation cycles struck the Alps. As a result, dispersal of populations in peripheral glacial refugia as observed in C. irregularis (Homburg et al. 2013) did not result in 680 genetic homogenization despite species being placed in secondary contact. It is also possible in 681 the case of the more alpine-adapted species (all but C. irregularis) that dispersal occurred in 682 nunataks rather than peripheral glacial refugia (Holderegger & Thiel-Egenter 2009; Schönswetter 683 684 & Schneeweiss 2019; Kosiński et al. 2019), which would have resulted in an increased genetic 685 differentiation among populations as suggested by our analyses. Coupling a more extensive 686 geographic sampling of these five alpine species with niche modeling analyses may help testing 687 more specifically the different scenarios that governed range and genetic evolution of these 688 populations during Pleistocene glaciations.

689

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691

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704 Conflict of interest disclosure

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The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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708 Data, script, code, and supplementary information availability

Raw reads are available on the NCBI BioProject PRJNA1086379. The data underlying this article
 (final alignments and trees) and bioinformatic scripts are available on Github repository
 (https://github.gom/JorgmyJ Couthier/Argifere_phylogeny)

- 711 (https://github.com/JeremyLGauthier/Arcifera_phylogeny).
- 712 713

714 Figure captions

Table 1. Alignment statistics for each dataset, including the number of taxa, the number of loci, the minimum coverage, the minimum number of taxa, the alignment length, the percentage of missing data, the numbers and percentages of variable sites and of parsimony informative sites, and the GC content.

- 718 and 718
- 719

Figure 1. Statistical summary of locus recovery. Plots representing the relationship between the collection year and DNA concentration (A), number of sequenced reads (B), number of loci recovered for each sample (C), and number of shared loci in final dataset B. In each plot, ethanolpreserved samples are shown in green, samples from museums with an age < 30 years in blue and samples from museums with an age > 30 years in classic yellow. Correlations were tested with Spearman's correlation tests and adjusted coefficients of determination R-squared were estimated using a linear model.

727

728 Figure 2. Summary of phylogenetic inferences across Arcifera based on HyRAD-X data. The 729 presented topology is derived from a maximum likelihood analysis performed in IQ-TREE using 730 Dataset A. Branch support from this analysis is shown for all branches. Branch support retrieved 731 in different analyses is shown for major branches according to the inserted caption. Sample type 732 is indicated according to the inserted caption. Abbreviations at the end of each taxon label 733 correspond to the following countries: AT, Austria, CH, Switzerland, FR, France, GR, Greece, 734 HU, Hungary, IT, Italy, KP, Carpathians (Slovakia to Romania), RO, Romania, SI, Slovenia, SK, 735 Slovakia, TK, Turkey. An illustration of a male Carabus (Platycarabus) cychroides is presented 736 (Drawing: Conrad Gillett).

737

738 Figure 3. Bayesian divergence time estimates for the subgenus Carabus (Platycarabus) and 739 Arcifera group. Maximum clade credibility tree obtained from a BEAST analysis using eight 740 Bayesian log-normal relaxed clocks and a Coalescent Constant Size tree model. Node estimates 741 are postburn in median ages, with 95% credibility intervals. Histogram represents the number of 742 loci recovered for each sample and sample type are indicated according to the inserted caption. The section on the right shows the results of species delimitations identified using the different 743 744 methods indicated above. The shades of gray represent the concordance between the different 745 approaches with black being a total consensus. Habitus of three representative species (1) Carabus 746 nodulosus nodulosus (credit : Conrad Gillett), (2) Carabus intricatus intricatus (credit : Conrad 747 Gillett) and (3) Carabus irregularis irregularis (credit : Conrad Gillett) are shown.

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Figure 4. Comparison of divergence time estimation between competing tree models and relaxedclock partitioning strategies. Box-plots indicate for each analysis (color-coding inserted as a
caption on the right side of the figure) the median age of the focal node (see X axis) and associated
95% age credibility interval. BD, birth-death model; CS, constant population size coalescent
model.

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Supplementary Table 1. Descriptive statistics for each included and non-included sample,
 including historical sample data, molecular biology information (DNA concentrations),
 sequencing and loci reconstruction statistics.

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759 Supplementary Figure 1. Schematic representation of the bioinformatic pipeline.

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Supplementary Figure 2. Maximum likelihood trees for each dataset: Dataset A (min_cov=6, min_sample=10, 50 taxa, 1'481 loci), Dataset B (min_cov=6, min_sample=10, 52 taxa, 1'965 loci), Dataset C (min_cov=6, min_sample=17, 50 taxa, 1'014 loci), Dataset D (min_cov=3, min_sample=17, 52 taxa, 1'291 loci), Dataset E (min_cov=6, min_sample=32, 50 taxa, 366 loci)
and Dataset F (min_cov=3, min_sample=32, 52 taxa, 478 loci). Node supports indicate SH-aLRT and UFBoot values.

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768 Supplementary Figure 3. Species trees obtained with wASTRAL on each dataset: Dataset A 769 (min cov=6, min sample=10, 50 taxa, 1'481 loci), Dataset B (min cov=6, min sample=10, 52 770 taxa, 1'965 loci), Dataset C (min cov=6, min sample=17, 50 taxa, 1'014 loci), Dataset D 771 (min cov=3, min sample=17, 52 taxa, 1'291 loci), Dataset E (min cov=6, min sample=32, 50 772 taxa, 366 loci) and Dataset F (min cov=3, min sample=32, 52 taxa, 478 loci). Node supports 773 indicate SH-aLRT and UFBoot values. Node supports indicate LPP values. 774 775 Supplementary Figure 4. Individual locus haplotype networks (A. CO1, B. CO3 and C. CYTB). Networks were generated in SplitsTree using calculated uncorrected p-distances and the 776 777 NeighborNet algorithm. The colour coding for the different morphological groups is identical to 778 the one used (photo credit : Marie Pauli). 779 780 Supplementary Figure 5. Structure plots estimated on unlinked shared SNPs for K=1 to K=15. 781 For each K, the Mean(LnProb) is indicated. 782 783 Supplementary Figure 6. F4-branch statistic plotted as a heatmap. The tree topology is plotted 784 above, and on the left, every branch of the tree is displayed (including internal branches). 785 786 787 788 789 References 790 791 792 Allio R, Schomaker-Bastos A, Romiguier J et al. (2020) MitoFinder: Efficient automated largescale extraction of mitogenomic data in target enrichment phylogenomics. Molecular ecology 793 794 resources. 795 Anselmo L, Rizzioli B (2022a) Side Threats: Further Possible Effects Of Warming On The High 796 Alpine Narrow Endemic Carabus Cychroides (Coleoptera: Carabidae). Nature Conservation 797 Research. Заповедная наука, 7, 88–94. 798 Anselmo L, Rizzioli B (2022b) The small range and the great threat: extinction risk assessment of 799 the narrow endemism Carabus cychroides under climate change. Journal of insect 800 conservation, 26, 17–27. 801 Baca SM, Gustafson GT, Alexander AM, Gough HM, Toussaint EFA (2021) Integrative 802 phylogenomics reveals a Permian origin of Adephaga beetles. Systematic entomology, 46, 803 968–990. 804 Bekchiev R, Antov M, Boyadzhiev P et al. (2022) Carabus variolosus (Fabricius, 1787) 805 (Coleoptera: Carabidae) in Bulgaria: rediscovered after 111 years. Historia naturalis 806 Bulgarica. 807 Birky CW Jr (2001) The inheritance of genes in mitochondria and chloroplasts: laws, mechanisms,

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Data	set	No. of taxa No. of loci		Minh cov	Min. taxa	Align. length	Missing data	Variable sites	Parsimony informative sites	GC content
A		50	1,481	6	10	346,687	66.7%	40,743 (11.8%)	19,061 (5.5%)	0.469
В		52	1,965	3	10	458,090	67.9%	59,905 (13.1%)	28,256 (6.2%)	0.468
С		50	1,014	6	17	251,069	59.9%	32,461 (12.9%)	15,871 (6.3%)	0.469
D		52	1,291	3	17	317,337	60.4%	45,834 (14.4%)	22,711 (7.2%)	0.468
E		50	366	6	32	93,904	43.2%	12,566 (13.4%)	6,350 (6.8%)	0.474
F		52	478	3	32	126,457	45.3%	18,843 (14.9%)	9,655 (7.6%)	0.471
G		50	100	6	10	29,855	44.5%	29,855 (17.7%)	2,801 (9.4%)	0.463
Н		44	na	3	4	26,201	73.0%	26,201 (100.0%)	13,539 (52.0%)	0.507





Figure 1.



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Time (Ma)

