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碩士論文



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日本樹蛙鳴叫特徵和外部形態特徵的地理變異 Geographic Variation of Acoustic and Morphometric Traits in Ryukyu Kajika frog (*Buergeria japonica*)

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日本樹蛙 (Buergeria japonica) 廣泛分布在琉球群島和台灣,為橫跨不同島系之間 的兩棲動物,模式標本產於琉球群島北部的奄美大島。近年研究指出,日本樹蛙族群在 島間具有高度的分化,且台灣島內也並非單系群,顯示日本樹蛙族群的分類地位有重新 檢視的必要。聲音及外部形態是蛙類繁殖與物種辨識重要的依據,因此本研究利用這兩 組特徵進行日本樹蛙族群間地理變異的檢測。總共分析來自琉球群島和台灣,共 17 個 族群的宣示叫聲以及 13 個族群的外部形態特徵。使用卡方檢測和廣義線性混合模型 (GLMM)檢測鳴叫聲在地區間的差異,並使用主成份分析濃縮 19 個外部形態特徵, 接著根據過去利用遺傳訊息建立的親緣關係樹進行判別分析,尋找最佳的分群方式,並 根據分群結果利用 GLMM 進行不同單系群間的差異性檢測。結果顯示,日本樹蛙的叫 聲由短鳴叫和長鳴叫所組成。台灣東部和西南地區具有一種其他地區未曾記錄到的長鳴 叫類型;而這些族群短鳴叫的鳴叫時間和鳴叫分貝上升時間也比其他地區短促。另外, 台灣西北地區的主頻率則比其他地區來的高。利用形態特徵進行判別分析的結果也顯示, 分群為台灣東部和西南地區(台灣群),和琉球群島及台灣西北地區(日本群)兩個單系 群時具有最佳的判別正確率,且台灣群在頭部特徵上顯著的大於日本群。綜合以上結果 和前人的遺傳訊息,皆顯示日本樹蛙有一個形態不易辨識,但叫聲明顯分化的隱蔽種存 在。

關鍵字:日本樹蛙、外部形態、宣示叫聲、族群分化、隱蔽種

Abstract



Delimitating species is a central concern in evolutionary biology, taxonomy, and biological conservation. Acoustic and morphological traits play key roles in frogs, especially in species recognition and reproduction. Buergeria japonica is widely distributed from Ryukyu Archipelago to Taiwan. Recent studies indicated the extremely high genetic differentiation with non-monophyletic relationship among populations in Taiwan, which revealed the necessity to reevaluate the taxonomic status of this species across their distributional range. In this study, we sampled advertisement calls from 17 localities and morphology from 13 localities across Ryukyu and Taiwan to examine the variation among populations. By analyzing their advertisement calls, we found an exclusively unique type of long call occurring in the southwestern and eastern populations in Taiwan. Moreover, these populations also represent faster call duration and shorter call rise time compared to those from the other regions. On the other hand, the dominant frequency in the northwestern populations in Taiwan was higher than the others. Morphological measurements with discriminant analysis indicated that the species should be separated into two forms, which correspond to Taiwanese clade (the southwestern and eastern populations in Taiwan) and Japanese clade (Ryukyu and the northwestern populations in Taiwan) defined by mitochondrial sequences. Principal

component analysis showed that traits on the head from Taiwanese clade are significantly higher than the other. These results indicated that there is a cryptic species in Taiwan, which represents different acoustic signal but with similar morphology from *B. japonica sensu stricto*.

Keywords: advertisement call, Buergeria japonica, cryptic species, morphology,

population differentiation

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Introduction

Establishing species status is one of the major tasks in evolutionary biology. not only essential to taxonomy, but also crucial for biodiversity conservation (Bickford et al., 2007; Warwick et al., 2015). Cryptic species are often misclassified or unidentified in the past (Dobzhansky, 1940). The rapid development of molecular techniques has improved our ability to delimitate cryptic species. For example, molecular evidence has revealed the forest cicada, *Cicadetta Montana*, to be a complex of several closely related species distinguishable by calls (Wade et al., 2015). However, delimitating species limits based solely on molecular evidence may lead to other problems in taxonomy. For instance, only using DNA identification in Diptera would lead to misidentifications because of wide overlapping of intra- and interspecific genetic variability (Meier et al., 2006). Furthermore, phylogenetic tree was reconstructed by using unsuitable molecular marker which may not provide sufficient information. The insufficient diagnosis of divergence sometimes presented inconsistent results with actual species tree due to incomplete lineage sorting, gene flow, recombination, stochastic coalescence events and sex-biased dispersal rates (Carstens and Knowles, 2007; Irwin, 2002; Knowles and Carstens, 2007; Maddison and Knowles, 2006; Petit and Excoffier, 2009).

Several criteria should be employed to provide consistent and coherent set of

evidence (Helbig *et al.*, 2002). For example, the Bahama Woodstar, *Calliphlox lyryra*, was described as a distinct species based on morphology until Peter (1931) considered it as a geographic variation and revised its status as a subspecies, *C. evelynae lyryra*. Recently, additional supports from morphology, call, song, mechanical sounds, and genetics re-elevated the Bahama Woodstar back to the species level (Feo *et al.*, 2014). Similarly, AlstrÖ m (2008) used six lines of evidence to clarify the species status of the spotted bush warbler (*Bradypterus thoracicus*) complex. These studies showed the importance of using multiple criteria while examining species status.

Acoustic signals and body morphometric features are factors that should be included as diagnostic criteria for amphibians. Acoustic signals have been shown to be vital to mate choice and resource defense (Ritchie, 2007) in anurans (Gerhardt and Huber, 2002), as in many other taxa such as insects (Cocroft and Rodríguez, 2005; Gray and Cade, 2000), fishes (Maruska *et al.*, 2012), birds (Price, 1998; Thorpe, 1961), and mammals (McComb, 1987; Voigt *et al.*, 2008). Frog calls have the potential of acting as a diagnostic signal that supports intraspecific recognition or reproductive isolation (Panhuis et al., 2001; Ritchie, 2007; West-Eberhard, 1983). On the other hand, body size and shape are complex traits resulted from many selective pressures in nature (McKinney, 1990; Perrin, 1998; Peters, 1986; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984). They reflect the multifaceted ecological context where an amphibian species evolves (Barbault, 1988; Miller *et al.*, 1993; Nauwelaerts *et al.*, 2007). Both acoustic signal and morphological traits have been used to complement genetic data for delimitating amphibian species. For example, the application of genetic data as a first step followed by subsequent confirmation from acoustic signal or morphology has contributed to a steep increase in amphibian species diversity in Madagascar (Köhler *et al.*, 2005; Vieites *et al.*, 2009). In Taiwan, two newly described frog species, *Kurixalus berylliniris* and *K. wangi* were established by combining molecular phylogenetic, morphological, and acoustic evidences (Wu *et al.*, 2016).

The old world tree frog family Rhacophoridae has more than 380 species from 18 genera (Delorme *et al.*, 2005; Frost, 2014; Frost *et al.*, 2006). The most basal group of Rhacophoridae, genus *Buergeria*, consists of four species (Biju *et al.*, 2016; Wilkinson and Drewes, 2000). One of the species, the Ryukyu Kajika frog, *Buergeria japonica* (Hallowell, 1861), distributes widely on the East Asian Arc from Ryukyu Archipelago to Taiwan. Studies of several terrestrial species found restricted distribution and high endemism on the East Asian Arc (Ota, 1998), such as grass lizards (Lin *et al.*, 2002), newt (Tominaga *et al.*, 2010), geckos (Honda *et al.*, 2014), and fireflies (Osozawa *et al.*, 2015). Multiple historical events of land connections and fragmentations due to repetitive glacial cycles may have contributed to the diversification and distribution of many species that are isolated by oceanic barrier (Ho, 1986; Kimura, 2000; Lin *et al.*,

2002).

Mountain ranges and river systems are species barriers as well. The island of Taiwan is formed through the collision of the Philippine Sea Plate and the Eurasian Plate, which results in several mountain ranges and the development of numerous river systems (Teng, 1990). The intricate network of mountain ranges and river systems creates the opportunity for species differentiation within small geographic scale. For example, the Pallas's squirrel, Callosciurus erythraeus, has very high genetic differentiation among populations on different mountain tops (Oshida et al., 2006). The geographic boundary of two sister grass lizards, Takydromus viridipunctatus and T. luyeanus, is a narrow stream (Tseng et al., 2015). These topographic features have similar effects on amphibians in Taiwan. Without an effective osmoregulatory mechanism, phylogeographic patterns of amphibians may fit best to the topography. A genetic landscape model of the Brown tree frog (Buergeria robusta) showed that its phylogeographic pattern matched the topography of Taiwan splendidly (Lin et al., 2012). Similar findings have been reported for several other amphibian species, such as Sylvirana latouchii (Jang-Liaw et al., 2008) and Rana sauteri (Jang-Liaw and Lee, 2009). These topographic features may have had similar effects on *Buergeria japonica*.

A recent study (Tominaga *et al.*, 2015) revealed that *B. japonica* has extremely high level of genetic differentiation among the East Asian Arc islands groups. Another

study (Lin et al. 2013) investigated the genetic differentiation of B. japonica among populations from different river systems in Taiwan. The results placed the populations in northwestern Taiwan and those in southern Ryukyu in the same clade, while assigned populations from the eastern and southwestern Taiwan to their own clade. The maximum genetic distance among populations exceeded 17%. Both studies indicated the necessity to re-evaluate the taxonomic status of *B. japonica* across different regions. It is highly plausible that cryptic species exist in Taiwan and should be separated from B. japonica whose type locality came from Amami Oshima (Hallowell, 1861). In this thesis, I evaluated the taxonomic status of the Ryukyu Kajika frog, B. japonica, with two additional criteria: calls and morphology. I examined: (1) the acoustic differentiation among regions; and (2) the morphometric differentiation among regions across the geographic distribution range of the species along the East Asian Arc, including Taiwan.

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Materials and methods

Acoustic signal data

Acoustic signal data collection



During the breeding season of *Buergeria japonica* from April to September 2015, I recorded the calls of 281 individuals sampled from 17 localities in Taiwan and Ryukyu archipelago (Table 1, Fig. 1 and Fig. 2). We recorded the advertisement calls using a Sony ECM-CG50 directional microphone attached to a digital recorder (Sony PCM-M10) at a 44.1 kHz, 16 bit resolution. The microphone was held toward the calling male as close as possible during recording. At least one minute and 10 calls were recorded for each male. The callers were subsequently captured to prevent from repeat sampling. Frogs were released at their original localities immediately after all recording works at the same day. Since ambient temperature and moisture may influence call characteristics (Oseen and Wassersug, 2002), we also recorded air temperature and humidity using a thermoshygrometer (Lutron, Taipei, Taiwan).

Advertisement call analyses

Records were digitized and characterized as acoustic traits by Raven Pro v1.4 (Cornell Lab of Ornithology, Ithaca, NY, USA). The call types of *B. japonica* could be classified into short calls and long calls by the number of pluses after the first rising peak

on the waveform. Calls with less than three pluses after the first rising peak on the waveform were defined as short calls. In contrast, calls with more than three pluses after the first peak were identified as long calls (Fig. 3).

Five spectral and temporal properties of each short call were extracted, which have been proposed to associate with female choices (Bee *et al.*, 2010; Gerhardt, 1991; Gerhardt and Huber, 2002). They are (1) dominant frequency (DF, in kHz), which was the highest peak reached by a call on the power spectrum (FFT = 1024 points, Hanning window); (2) the interquartile range (IQR), which was calculated by subtracting the 3rd quartile value from the 1st quartile value of frequency bandwidth of a call; (3) call duration (DT), which was the time from the beginning to the end of a call; (4) call rise time (RT), which was the time from the beginning to the highest peak on the waveform of a call; and (5) call fall time (FT), which was the time from the highest peak on the waveform to the end of call (Fig. 4). Call parameters of an individual were obtained by averaging the values of 10 calls from the same caller.

I summarized temperature and humidity by principal component analysis (PCA), then chose PC1 as the "ambient factor" (Appendix 1). To test differences in the call properties among regions, we used general linear mixed model (GLMM) in which regions were treated as a fixed factor and sample localities were nested in the regions as a random factor. We included "ambient factor" as covariate. The GLMM was performed using SAS 9.4 statistic software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC).

In addition to the short calls, *B. japonica* also produce long calls which are comprised of a series of complicated pulses. This kind of signals could be further identified as type 1 and type 2. Type 1 was identified as calls with more than four consecutive and similar amplitude pulses following the first rising peak on the waveform (Fig. 3a, 3b). In contrast, type 2 are calls with two peaks presented at two terminal of one call (Fig. 3c, 3d). We recorded the type of long call from each frog and calculated the number of individual of each call type from each region. To access the association between long call type and regions, we used χ^2 test and computed adjusted standardized residuals for each cell of contingency table to assess significant deviations in frequency of a particular region in call type.

Morphological data

Morphological data collection

In 2015, I captured a total of 133 adult male frogs from 13 populations (Table 1; Fig. 1 and Fig. 2). They were euthanized by providing lethal dose of benzocaine, fixed in 10% formalin immediately, and transferred to 70% ethanol for permanent storage. I measured SVL as well as 18 other morphometric measurements as shown and defined in Table 2 and Fig. 5. The choice and definition of measurements follow those of previous studies

(Matsui, 1984, 1994, 2011; Matsui et al., 2013; Poyarkov Jr et al., 2014). All measurements were taken by myself with a digital caliper and recorded to the nearest 0.1 mm (Mitutoyo, Kanagawa, Japan).

Morphological analyses

First, I examined the association between SVL and regions. The 18 morphometric traits were divided by SVL in order to standardize those measurements and were used in statistical analyses. To reduce the number of variables, I input all parameters into a principle component analysis (PCA), and used principal components with eigenvalues greater than 1 as new variables in the subsequent analyses, including discriminant analysis (DA) and general linear mixed model (GLMM). I identified five individuals as outliers (based on conditioned non-Gaussian distribution). They were excluded from analyses (excluded individuals were listed on Appendix 2). We used discriminant analysis to discriminate among populations to establish groups, and evaluate different ways of grouping based on phylogenetic tree and different divergence time (Lin *et al.*, 2013; Tominaga *et al.*, 2015). We chose the best grouping way and use GLMM to test the difference of principal component among groups.

Results

Acoustic data



We recorded short calls from a total of 251 individuals from 17 populations, 7 regions. They were included in short call analyses, except the population from Okinawa region because of its small sample size (n=2). The call duration (GLMM , $F_{5,9}=5.25$, p=0.016), call rise time ($F_{5,9}=5.23$, p=0.016), and dominant frequency ($F_{5,9}=0.019$, p=0.019) of short calls were significantly different among regions. Both call duration and call rise time in the SE, SW, NE regions of Taiwan were shorter, while dominant frequency in the NW region was higher than those of the other regions. Call fall time ($F_{5,9}=0.29$, p=0.906) and the interquartile range ($F_{5,9}=0.11$, p=0.988) were not different among regions. Ambient factor had no effect on any short call properties (Table 3; Fig. 6).

We recorded long calls from a total of 281 individuals from 17 populations, 7 regions. The types of long call were significant association with regions ($\chi^2 = 185.5$, d.f.=6; p<0.0001). There was a statistically higher frequency of type 2 long call than random expectation in the SE, SW, NE regions of Taiwan (Table 4; Fig. 7).

Morphological data

Based on the results of PCA, I included six principal components (from PC1 to PC6)

as new variables and used them in discriminant analysis (Appendix 3). Based on the similarity among regions, I tried to discriminate the regions by 5, 3, or 2 clusters. The 2 cluster approach yielded to the best discrimination results: the SE, SW, NE regions were placed in one and the remaining regions in the other cluster (Fig. 8a). Such a cluster division correctly assigned 89.84 % of individual to a cluster. The 3-cluster approach yielded 86.72 % correct assignment (Fig. 8b); the 5-cluster approach yielded 81.25 % correct assignment (Fig. 8c). The individuals in the two clusters differed significantly in PC2, which was associated mainly with head dimensions ($F_{1,14}$ =15.85, *p*=0.001; Table 5; Fig. 9).

Discussion

The taxonomic status of Ryukyu Kajika frog, *Buergeria japonica*, has been proposed to be questionable by two recent studies based on molecular evidence (Lin *et al.*, 2013; Tominaga *et al.*, 2015). In this study, we used two additional criteria: acoustic signal and morphology, to provide further analyses on their species status. The results from both criteria are consistent with molecular evidence. All together, they support the splitting of *B. japonica* on the East Asian Arc from Ryukyu Archipelago to Taiwan into two clades: a clade that includes populations in the Ryukyu Archipelago and northeast Taiwan (hereafter defined as Japanese clade), and the other that includes other populations from eastern and southwestern Taiwan (Taiwanese clade).

Both short and long calls are significantly different between the two clades. Taiwanese clade has shorter call duration and call rise time than that in Japanese clade, whereas the type 2 long call is found exclusively in Taiwanese clade. The two clades can also be separated in morphology specifically by PC2. PC2 is contributed mainly by head dimensions, such as head length and width. This result showed that the head dimensions of the Taiwanese clade is relatively larger than those of Japanese clade. Referring to the type locality in Amami Island, the *B. japonica sensu stricto* should be strictly assigned to populations distributed from Ryukyu Archipelago to the northwestern region of Taiwan, whereas populations on the eastern and southwestern regions of Taiwan should be a new species.

Using morphological traits has been the major criteria for species delimitation However, my study showed that it may not be sensitive to distinguish between cryptic Buergeria species. Although Japanese and Taiwanese clades differ significantly in morphology principle component PC2, it explains only 16.9% of overall morphological variations. In addition, PC2 contains more than head dimensions, and would render the use of morphological traits as a species identification criteria tedious if not inaccurate. Therefore, PC2 is not an ideal diagnostic features between the two clades. This situation is similar to several cases of cryptic species. For example, the greenish warbler, *Phylloscopus trochiloides* subspecies are hard to be distinguished through morphology. However, they display distinct acoustic signals (Irwin et al., 2008; Irwin, 2002). Another case in bird comes from the famous Chinese song bird Hwamei, Garrulax canorus. The songs of several morphologically similar geographic populations are significantly different in syllable and syntax. The two sibling species were thus further divided into two valid species, G. canorus and G. taewanus, by consolidating the results from song variation and gene information (Li et al., 2006; Tu and Severinghaus, 2004). An anuran case comes from Mircohyla ornata, an abundant species in South Asia (Kuramoto and Joshy, 2006; Matsui et al., 2005). The species distributes from India to Taiwan to Ryukyu Archipelago and was separated into three species. The populations on Ryukyu

Archipelago and Taiwan are now recognized as distinct species, *M. okinavensis* and *M. fissipes*, based on both genetic data (Matsui *et al.*, 2005) and acoustic evidence (Kuramoto and Joshy, 2006). The three species can be clearly discriminated by temporal acoustic characteristics, especially pulse repetition rate (Kuramoto and Joshy, 2006). My study shows another case of using acoustic signals in anuran cryptic species delimitation. The two morphologically similar clades of *B. japonica* are significantly distinct in acoustic signals.

Acoustic signal plays a key role in pre-mating isolation. Referring to Paterson's Recognition Species Concept (RSC) (Coyne, 1993; Paterson, 1985), the differentiation of advertisement calls gave the primary line of evidence to suggest the biological identity in this candidate species. In addition to RSC, the genetic data (Lin *et al.*, 2013) provided strong evidence to my suggestions with Evolutionary Species Concept (ESC) (Simpson, 1961) because the genetic distance among populations in *B. japonica* could reach 17%. Genetic divergence of these clades exceed to the case of two newly discovered species, *Kurixalus wangi* and *K. berylliniris*. In that case, the maximum sequence divergence among three *Kurixalus* species was 11% (Wu *et al.*, 2016).

The evolutionary processes shaping the isolation between closely related species is a compelling issue in speciation. Acoustic signals could be the key reproductive barrier that maintains Japanese and Taiwanese clades as different uniqueness species. Such a hypothesis could potentially be tested directly using mate choice experiments (Gerhardt, 1991; Gerhardt and Huber, 2002), or by observing the occurrence of reproductive character displacement (RCD) in nature. Given that reproduction barriers between populations could break down when the two clades get into contact, the reproductive signals, such as calls and songs, may be heightened in the contact zone to avoid interspecific competition for signal space and to prevent the two clades from hybridization. The heightened difference in the reproductive barrier leads to reproductive character displacement, defined from the prediction that the traits would be more distinguished in sympatric than in allopatric zones among closely related species (Albert *et al.*, 2007; Arthur, 1982; Grether *et al.*, 2009). This hypothesis has been observed from African tinkerbird *Pogoniulus bilineatus and P. subsulphureus* (Moyle, 2002), and American green tree frog *Hyla cinerea* and *H. gratiosa* (Hobel and Gerhardt, 2003).

In *Buergeria japonica*, the Japanese and Taiwanese clades could get into contact in lowland areas in western and northern Taiwan. The former is likely between ZhouShui Stream and BaZhang Stream, while the latter might between XinDian Stream and LanYang Stream. A preliminary observation in my study showed that there was indeed a greater difference in type 1 and 2 long call usage ratio between regions at contact zones than the other regions. Future studies could pursuit the topic of reproductive character displacement between the two clades which could further get insight into the role of acoustic signal in species delimitation.



Conclusion

My study demonstrated the geographic variations of acoustic and morphological traits in *Buergeria japonica*. Both the two kinds of advertisement calls in *B. japonica* showed divergence among regions, with one of the two types of long call appeared exclusively in the populations from southern and eastern Taiwan. In addition to acoustic signal, the morphological trait also indicated the subtle difference on integrated head trait, which is bigger in these populations than in the others, although it was hard to distinguish them by macroscopic observation. Based on the type locality, we propose to redefine the taxonomic status of *Buergeria japonica*, and treat the populations in southern and eastern Taiwan as a new species.

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GPS coordination for each <i>Buergeria japonica</i> population used in this study.							
Region	Sample locality	Abbr.	Acoustic	Morphological	GPS coordination		
Amami	Naze Oaza Nesebu	NAZ	5	6	28.379315, 129.438779		
	Yuwangama	YUW	10	6	28.363202, 129.412020		
	Uken	UKE	0	9	28.276756, 129.302697		
Okinawa	North Okinawa	OKI	14	5	26.727186, 128.210264		
Yaeyama	Iriomote	IRI	5	4	24.284637,123.886220		
	Ishigaki	ISH	5	9	24.413747, 124.206365		
North-Weatern	XinDian Stream	XD	15	9	24.866563, 121.552164		
	ZhongGang Stream	ZG	23	8	24.658416, 121.018135		
	Wu Stream	WU	19	0	24.065765, 120.737269		
	ZhouShui Stream	ZS	15	8	23.784825, 120.778910		
North-Eatern	LanYang Stream	LY	19	10	24.618080, 121.635305		
	NanAo Stream	NAO	21	8	24.481911,121.823648		
	HePing Stream	HP	24	0	24.346551, 121.769833		
South-Western	BaZhang Stream	ΒZ	18	0	23.381634, 120.530214		
	GaoPing Stream	GP	18	0	22.875611, 120.666287		
	DongGang Stream	DG	19	11	22.626340,120.643342		
	FongGang Stream	FG	0	10	22.217591, 120.799465		
South-Eastern	MeiLun Stream	ML	0	8	24.005365, 121.547298		
	MuGua Stream	MG	17	0	23.883503, 121.519595		
	XiuGuLuan Stream	XG	19	11	23.502209, 121.329709		
	BeiNan Stream	BN	15	0	22.897131, 121.156045		
	Baliwan stream	BL	0	11	23.596076,121.516176		
Total			281	133			

Table 1. Region, locality, abbreviation, sample size (acoustic and morphological), and

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Table 2. Abbreviation and definition of the 19 morphometric measurements used in this

No.	Measurement	Abbr.	Adjusted abbr.	Definition
1	Snout-vent length	SVL		The length between the tip of the snout to the
				cloaca
2	Head length	HL	aHL	The length between tip of snout to the hind
				border of jaw angle
3	Head width	HW	aHW	The maximum width of the head on the level
				of mouth angles in ventral view
4	Eye length	EL	aEL	The length between the anterior and posterior
				corners of the eye
5	Interokbital distance	ΙΟ	aIO	The shortest length between the medial edges
				of eyeballs in dorsal view
6	Intercanthal distance	IC	aIC	The length between the front edge of the eyes
7	Eye-nose length	END	aEND	The length between the anterior corner of eye
				and the nostril center
8	Width of upper eyelid	UEW	aUEW	The widest length from the medial edge of
				eyeball to the lateral edge of the upper eyelid
9	Forelimb length	FLL	aFLL	The length from the third finger to the end of
				the forelimb armpit
10	Forelimb arm length	FAL	aFAL	The length from the forelimb armpit to the
				elbow
11	Length of hand	HAL	aHAL	The length from the proximal end of outer
				metacarpal tubercle to the tip of the third
				finger
12	Finger 1st length	1FL	a1FL	The length from the first fingertip to the base
				of the finger
13	Finger 3rd length	3FL	a3FL	The length from the third fingertip to the base
				of the finger.
14	Hindlimb length	HLL	aHLL	The length of straightened hind limb from
				groin to tip of the fourth toe
15	Tibia length	TL	aTL	The length between the knee and tibiotarsal

study. Adjusted abbreviation was used after standardizing by SVL.

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				articulation
16	Tarsus length	TTL	aTTL	The length between tibiotarsal articulation and
				the fourth toe
17	Inner metatarsal	iMTL	aiMTL	The maximal diameter of inner metatarsal
	tubercle length			tubercle
18	Toe 1st length, 1TL	1TL	a1TL	The length from the end to first toe tip to the
				base of the toe
19	Toe 4th length	4TL	a4TL	The length from the end to fourth toe tip to the
				base of the toe

short calls (n= 251). Ecological factors were treated as covariates in GLMM.						
Effect	Num. DF	Den. DF	F	<i>p</i> value		
Call duration				業。學 199		
Region	5	9	5.25	0.02		
Eco	1	235	0.03	0.87		
Call rise time						
Region	5	9	5.25	0.02		
Eco	1	235	0.03	0.87		
Call fall time						
Region	5	9	0.29	0.91		
Eco	1	235	0.06	0.80		
Dominant frequency						
Region	5	9	4.92	0.02		
Eco	1	235	0.03	0.87		
IQR f.						
Region	5	9	0.11	0.99		
Eco	1	235	0.00	0.99		

Table 3. The results of generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) on acoustic traits of

Num.: numerator; Den.: denominator; Eco: the principal component of temperature and humidity.

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Table 4. Contingency table for testing the association between long call types and regions. Observed and expected values are

significantly different when the absolute values of adjusted standized residuals test (adjusted standized r.) exceed 2.0 (n=281, $\chi 2$

185, *p* <0.001).

					Grou	р			
Call Typ	e	AM	OKI	ISG	NW	NE	SW	SE	total
no Type	2 count	15.0	14.0	10.0	72.0	14.0	13.0	24.0	162
	expected count	8.6	8.1	5.8	41.5	36.9	31.7	29.4	
	total%	5.3	5.0	3.6	25.6	5.0	4.6	8.5	
	adjusted standized r.	3.4	3.3	2.8	8.4	-6.6	-5.7	-1.7	
Type 2	count	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	42.0	27.0	119
	expected count	6.4	5.9	4.2	30.5	27.1	23.3	21.6	
	total%	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.8	15.0	9.6	
	adjusted standized r.	-3.4	-3.3	-2.8	-8.4	6.6	5.7	1.7	
Total		15	14	10	72	64	55	51	281

Table 5. G	eneralized linear	r mixed model or	n morphometric traits.	A HE R
Effect	Num. DF	Den. DF	F value	P value
PC1				
Clade	1	14	0.98	0.34
PC2				×2010101010
Clade	1	14	15.85	0.0014
PC3				
Clade	1	14	1.39	0.26
PC4				
Clade	1	14	2.72	0.12
PC5				
Clade	1	14	1.73	0.21
PC6				
Clade	1	14	1.34	0.27

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Figure 1. Large-scaled sample regions for (a) acoustic and (b) morphological characters of *Buergeria japonica* from Ryukyu and Taiwan. See Table 1 for the details of each region.



Figure 2. Fine-scaled sample localities for (a) acoustic and (b) morphological characters of *Buergeria japonica* in Taiwan. Number in the circles denote sample size in each locality. Also see Table 1 for abbreviations of each locality.



Figure 3. Entire advertisement call sections of *Buergeria japonica*. (a) A typical waveform and spectrum of short and long calls (type 1) produced by populations from Ryukyu and northwestern Taiwan; (b) a waveform and a spectrum from eastern and southwestern Taiwan, with a short call followed by a type 1 long call; (c) eastern and southwestern Taiwan, a short call followed by a type 2 long call; (d) eastern Taiwan, a combination of short, type 1, and type 2 long calls.



Figure 4. Definition of temporal and spectral call properties from a short call of *Buergeria japonica*. (a) A typical waveform of a short call with three temporal traits (DT, RT, and FT); and (b) power spectrum of this short call. See context for the abbreviation of these traits.

Figure 5. The 19 morphometric traits of *Buergeria japonica* used in this study.

		港臺
Measure	ments:	
1	Snout-vent length	SVL
2	Head length	HL A A
3	Head width	HW
4	Eye length	EL 學·學 Moler
5	Interokbital distance	10
6	Intercanthal distance	IC
7	Eye-nose length	END
8	Width of upper eyelid	UEW
9	Forelimb length	FLL
10	Forelimb arm length	FAL
11	Length of hand	HAL
12	Finger 1 st length	1FL
13	Finger 3 rd length	3FL
14	Hindlimb length	HLL
15	Tibia length	TL
16	Tarsus length	TTL
17	Inner metatarsal tubercle length	iMTL
18	Toe 1 st length	1TL
19	Toe 4 th length	4TL



Figure 6. Statistic comparison of short call temporal traits among six regions of *Buergeria japonica*, with ecological parameters as cofactors. The bar which presented with orange is from the Japanese clade and with blue is from the Taiwanese clade. (a) Call duration (p=0.02); (b) call rise time (p=0.02); (c) call fall time (p=0.9); (d) dominant frequency (p=0.02); and (e) IQR bandwidth of frequencies (p=0.99).





Figure 7. The percentage of the two types of long calls occurring from the seven geographic regions across Ryukyu and Taiwan. Orange bars: the proportion of type 1 long calls; blue bars: the proportion of type 2 long calls (proportion = the number of individuals producing this call type/all individuals in this area). Some individuals in eastern and southeastern Taiwan are able to produce both types of long calls, yielding to exceeding of 100% in these regions.





Figure 8. (a) Discriminant analysis of principal component on morphometric traits from *Buergeria japonica* in Ryukyu and Taiwan when defined as two groups. This is also the grouping design which obtained the highest statistic score.





Figure 8 (continued). (b) Discriminant analysis of principal component on morphometric traits from *Buergeria japonica* in Ryukyu and Taiwan when defined as three groups.





Fig. 8 (continued). (c) Discriminant analysis of principal component on morphometric traits from *Buergeria japonica* in Ryukyu and Taiwan when defined as five groups.



Figure 9. The association between principal component of morphometric traits and genetic/acoustic clades. (a) - (f) denote PC1 - PC6.

Appendix



Appendix 1.

The principle components of ecological factor for generalized linear mixed model of acoustic characteristics of short call. PC1 was chose as ambient factor.

		Temperature H	umidity	Variance explained (%)
ambient	PC1	-0.70711	0.70711	72.70
	PC2	0.70711	0.70711	27.30

	1610/		
EK C	5	0	E
oTTI oiMTI	1		271

The list and information of the excluded individuals from discriminant analysis.

Appendix 2.

ID	Location	aHL	aHW	aEL	aIOD	aIC	aEND	aUEW	aFLL	aFAL	aHAL	a1FL	a3FL	aHLL aTL	aTTL	aiMTL	a1TL	a3TL
150705_02#0	WL	0.40	0.37	0.18	0.09	0.12	0.09	0.10	0.69	0.24	0.30	0.09	0.18	2.02 0.64	0.82	0.06	0.14	0.43
150705_06#0	WL	0.38	0.37	0.17	0.09	0.15	0.11	0.10	0.70	0.24	0.30	0.10	0.18	1.89 0.61	0.81	0.06	0.15	0.41
150601_01	ML	0.35	0.30	0.12	0.08	0.12	0.09	0.10	0.80	0.29	0.28	0.05	0.17	1.88 0.59	0.77	0.02	0.12	0.46
150911_05	ISG	0.36	0.32	0.13	0.09	0.16	0.11	0.09	0.58	0.09	0.31	0.10	0.19	2.01 0.61	0.85	0.04	0.14	0.41
151027_2-9	XGL	0.38	0.36	0.13	0.10	0.17	0.09	0.09	0.83	0.30	0.31	0.08	0.19	2.05 0.63	0.88	0.03	0.09	0.39

Appendix 3

The principal components of morphological traits included SVL and 18 standardize measurements for discriminant analysis and generalized linear mixed model.

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5	PC6
Eigenvalue	5.55	3.21	1.52	1.27	1.06	1.01
% variance	29.23	16.91	7.99	6.68	5.55	5.31
SVL	-0.169	-0.143	0.158	0.419	0.133	-0.001
aHL	0.179	0.406	0.180	-0.045	-0.058	0.015
aHW	0.210	0.377	0.083	0.111	0.001	-0.134
aEL	0.120	0.252	0.182	-0.368	-0.263	-0.097
aIOD	0.065	0.342	-0.101	0.219	0.377	0.136
aIC	0.087	0.376	-0.032	0.371	0.113	0.084
aEND	0.167	0.271	0.216	0.291	-0.144	0.152
aUEW	0.136	0.162	0.006	-0.405	-0.088	0.498
aFLL	0.327	-0.014	-0.400	-0.085	0.195	-0.040
aFAL	0.200	0.070	-0.500	-0.226	0.373	-0.103
aHAL	0.325	-0.084	-0.129	0.187	-0.112	0.009
a1FL	0.134	-0.221	0.208	0.007	0.455	0.038
a3FL	0.271	-0.188	-0.116	0.294	-0.099	0.085
aHLL	0.360	-0.124	0.088	-0.017	-0.082	-0.118
aTL	0.357	-0.103	0.120	-0.056	-0.077	-0.154
aTTL	0.361	-0.187	0.090	0.058	-0.106	-0.018
aiMTL	0.079	0.048	0.455	-0.171	0.394	-0.511
a1TL	0.087	-0.148	0.332	-0.137	0.351	0.590
a3TL	0.277	-0.262	0.115	0.078	-0.132	0.084