Supporting information.

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Section 1: Genotyping by Sequencing

Whole genomic DNA was extracted using the EZNA tissue DNA extraction kit (Omega Bio-Tek) and quantified on a fluorimeter with PicoGreen (Life Technologies Inc.). Reduced complexity single-end libraries were created from the extracted DNA using PstI restriction enzyme digestion at the Cornell Institute for Genomic Diversity (IGD) following the protocol described in (1). One hundred and forty-four *Lepidothrix* individuals and 46 individuals from other avian species unrelated to this project were divided into two libraries with 95 individuals uniquely barcoded per library. Each library was single-end sequenced to 100 bp on a single lane of an Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform with 95 barcoded samples multiplexed per lane. Each library produced around 200Gbp of unfiltered data.

Raw sequence reads were processed using the Stacks 1.44 pipeline (2) to obtain single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) datasets. The process_radtags module was used to trim raw reads to 90 bp (-t 90) and remove low quality reads (-q option) and reads with uncalled sites (-c). Only reads with high quality scores (Phred33 quality score) and with the correct barcode were retained. Any part of the common adaptors that remained within the 90 bp fragments fastx_clipper from the were removed using FASTX-Toolkit 0.0.14 (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit). Fragments were aligned to the Lepidothrix coronata reference genome (Warren and McDonnell Genome Institute, 2016) using Bowtie2-2.2.6 (3) with the default values for the "sensitive" setting. We then used the ref map wrapper script of Stacks to call genotypes. All settings were kept at their default values except the bounded - error SNP calling model was used which estimates the sequencing error rate at each nucleotide position, but does not allow the rate to exceed 0.05. Using vcftools 0.1.15 (4) we filtered for a minimum depth of coverage of at least 10x, retained only biallelic SNPs, and excluded SNPs with average depth of coverage exceeding the 95th percentile and with heterozygosity exceeding 0.75.

Three datasets were generated that differ in subsequent filtering strategy. Dataset 1 further excluded loci with a locus coverage of less than 50% and individuals with more than

70% missing data. This dataset was used for haplotype analyses to estimate coancestry and included 16,281 loci with one or more SNPs for 36 individuals. Dataset 2 was the same as dataset 1, but SNPs were thinned to a minimum distance of 50 kbp. This filtering resulted in a dataset with 7,394 SNPs and 120 individuals and was used for most genetic analyses except as indicated.

Dataset 3 filtered SNPs for use in coalescent modelling. Given the proximity of their geographic distributions, we consider the populations of L. nattereri distributed East of the Tapajós and Juruena rivers to be the most likely population to have played a role in the formation of L. vilasboasi. We therefore excluded individuals of L. nattereri found west of the Tapajós/Juruena rivers from these analyses. We also excluded all individuals from the Xingu/Teles Pires headwaters contact zone in which genetically admixed individuals of L. nattereri and L. iris eucephala occurred. The 84 included individuals were pooled by species and loci not present in at least 25% of individuals in each species were excluded. We next calculated pairwise linkage disequilibrium (r²) in veftools separately for each of the three species for SNPs with data present for 12 to 15 individuals per species. We used the R function LDit (code located: https://github.com/rossibarra/r_buffet/blob/master/LDit.r) to fit the observed decay in linkage disequilibrium as a function of physical distance along reference genome contigs (Fig. S1). These decay curves show that r² rapidly reached its expected values (with the expectation equal to the inverse of the number of individuals; expectation = 1/12 to 1/15) in less than 5 kbp for all three species, indicating that SNPs as close as 5000bp can be considered statistically independent. Nevertheless, we used a more conservative threshold of 10 kbp and used vcftools to thin SNPs so they were >10 kbp from each other and > 10 kbp from coding regions. This thinning both greatly reduces the chances for linkage disequilibrium among our retained SNPs and reduces the chance that retained SNPs will be influenced by loci under selection. We then used a custom R script to down sample each of the three species so that a total of 12 L. iris, 10 L. vilasboasi and 20 L. nattereri gene copies with the greatest depth of coverage (and thus the most robust genotype calls) were retained for each SNP. The resulting dataset had 10,298 SNPs and no missing data.

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Section 2: Genetic analyses of population structure and admixture

Assessment of genetic structure across the complex, and the admixed origin of L. vilasboasi, was performed using several methods on genome-wide SNP data. First, principal coordinate analysis (PCoA), was used to determine the number of genetically distinct clusters and whether L. vilasboasi was genetically intermediate between L. iris and L. nattereri (Fig. 2A). Genotypes were coded as 0 and 2 for homozygotes and 1 for heterozygotes and the PCoA was performed on Euclidean distances with the software package PAST 3.01 (5) Second, we performed Bayesian analysis of population structure and admixture using the program Structure 2.3.4 (6). Analyses were conducted using the admixture model and default settings with correlated allele frequencies. Analyses were performed with the number of populations (K) ranging from 1 through 6, and with 30 replicates per K (each with a different random seed and starting parameters). The burn-in period was set to 100,000 and 1,000,000 post-burn-in iterations were used, with a sample retained every 100 iterations. For our method of choosing the optimal K see Section 3 below. Third, a phylogenetic network was calculated in SplitsTree 4.14.4 (9) in order to visualize reticulation in the evolutionary history of the three species (Fig. 2C). The NeighborNet method was used to construct the network from uncorrected P distances and equal angle splits. Fourth, we calculated F_{st} and co-ancestry. Dataset 2 was used to calculate genome-wide pairwise Hudson's Fst (10) using custom scripts for 4208 SNPs from Dataset 2 for which a further minor allele frequency filter of 0.025 was applied. The single sequenced individual of L. iris iris and individuals of both L. iris and L. nattereri from the contact zone (Fig. 1) were excluded. The 95% confidence intervals were calculated using 1000 bootstraps (Table S1). Co-ancestry values were calculated in fineRADstructure (11) for the 12 individuals per species with the highest coverage and least amount of missing data from Dataset 1. Co-ancestry quantifies the shared genetic history among individuals across the genome. If L. vilasboasi is of hybrid origin between L. natterrei and L. iris, then we expect that it will have higher co-ancestry and lower F_{st} with both of these species than L. nattereri and L. iris will with each other. We used a one-tailed t-test to test this prediction for coancestry, and 1000 bootstrapped datasets for F_{st}.

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	vilasboasi	iris eucephala	nattereri (East)
vilasboasi	-	384.5 (383.5-385.5)	377.4 (376.6-378.2)
iris eucephala	0.178 (0.167-0.189)	-	366.7 (366.0-367.4)
nattereri (East)	0.143 (0.136-0.152)	0.208 (0.198-0.218)	-

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Fifth, we compared observed heterozygosity and hybrid indexes of L. vilasboasi and other hybrid populations to that of the parental species. Haffer (12) proposed that L. vilasboasi represents a rare hybrid phenotype between L. iris and L. nattereri. If true, then we expect to find a large proportion of L. vilasboasi individuals representing early generation hybrids $(F_1, F_2 \text{ and backcrosses of } F_1 \text{ individuals with the parental species})$ with both high heterozygosity and genome-wide hybrid indices close to 0.5 for F₁ and F₂ hybrid classes, or 0.25 for F₁ x L. nattereri and 0.75 for F₁ x L. iris. In contrast, if L. vilasboasi represented a hybrid species that has persisted over many generations, then interspecific heterozygosity should have stabilized to a low value across individuals as alternative alleles inherited from L. nattereri and L. iris sorted in the resulting population. We used the admixture values obtained from the analysis of population structure using K = 2 for our hybrid index (0 = pure L. nattereri; 1 = pure L. iris) and calculated heterozygosity of all individuals in the R package INTROGRESS 1.2.3 (13) for 353 SNPs from Dataset 1 that had less than 50% missing data for each parental population (non-contact zone populations of L. nattereri east of the Tapajós/Juruara rivers and L. iris eucepahla) and for which parental populations had allele frequency differences exceeding 0.25. The expected hybrid index for an F1 and F2 hybrids would be close to 0.5 while a back cross of a F1 to a pure L. nattereri would be close to 0.25 and to a pure L. i. eucephala would be close to 0.75. To determine the heterozygosity expected for these early generation hybrid classes we used a custom R script to simulate 5000 F1, F2 and F1-nattereri and F1-iris backcrosses using our

sample of parental *L. nattereri* and *L. iris* and calculated the observed heterozygosity for each (see Fig. S3).

To assess population structure and admixture with the mtDNA dataset a haplotype network was constructed using statistical parsimony (14) in the R package pegas (15).

Section 3: Choosing the optimal number of populations

The Evanno method (7) as implemented in the program Structure Harvester (8) has become the standard approach for choosing the optimal number of populations, K, for Bayesian analysis of population structure. The Evanno method first calculates L(K) for K 1 to n. L(K) is the mean of the log likelihood of the data at each MCMC step minus half of the variance across steps. Then $\Delta K = \text{mean}[/-2L(K) + L(K-1) + L(K+1)/] / \text{stdev}[L(K)]$. The best K is the one with the largest ΔK . While this approach worked well for the simple examples tested by Evanno et al (7) where L(K) generally increased or leveled off with increasing K, the approach may fail to detect the correct K following a sudden drop in L(K) as K increases. The problem is that ΔK is generated by a large change in likelihood, but both increases and decreases in likelihood contribute to this change. Instead, we propose that only increases should contribute and to this end propose a revised formulation for ΔK as follows:

 $\Delta K_{Revised} = mean[max(L(K) - L(K-1), 0) - max(L(K+1) - L(K), 0)] / stdev[L(K)]$

This revised formula is the same as that of the Evanno method when L(K) do not decline with increasing K, but unlike the Evanno method, only increases and not decreases in likelihood contribute to the formula. Comparison of the two approaches can be demonstrated clearly with the following example (Table S2).

Table S2

K	mean* L(K)	stdev* <i>L(K)</i>		ΔK_{Evanno}	$\Delta K_{Revised}$
1	-3000		1	Na	Na
2	-2000		1	1000.0	1000.0

3	-2000	1	3000.0		0.0
4	-5000	1	1000.0		0.0
5	-7000	1	1000.0		0.0
6	-10000	1	Na	Na	

^{*} The mean and standard deviation (stdev) values across independent runs of structure for a given K.

Here K=2 and K=3 both tie for the maximum value of L(K). K=2 is thus the best model because increasing K to 3 does not result in a corresponding increase in L(K). Nevertheless, ΔK calculated with the Evanno method is higher for K=3. Incorrect support for K=3 under the Evanno method arises due to the large drop in L(K) for K=4. In contrast, the revised formula for ΔK correctly chooses K=2.

Fig. S2 shows both the Evanno and revised ΔK approaches for *Lepidothrix*. Despite only a modest increase in L(K) from K=2 to K=3, ΔK_{Evanno} best supports K=3, a result driven largely by the sudden drop in L(K) from K=3 to K=4. This sudden drop has no effect in the $\Delta K_{Revised}$ method which best supports K=2 for *Lepidothrix*. We conclude that the slight increase in likelihood from K=2 to K=3 is not sufficient to support recognition of 3 distinct populations. Nevertheless, we consider results for both K=2 and K=3 (Fig. 2B).

Section 4: Coalescent Modeling

We used composite likelihood modeling implemented in fastSIMCOAL2 2.5 (16) to compare the fit of three models in which *L. vilasboasi* represents its own unique lineage without speciation (models T1 to T3: these differ in the topology connecting *L. vilasboasi*, *L. nattereri*, and *L. iris*) to a hybrid speciation model (model A1) in which *L. vilasboasi* originates following admixture between *L. iris eucephala* and *L. nattereri* (see Table 1). Models T1 to T3 each have six parameters: four effective population sizes for the three species and the common ancestor, and two dates of lineage divergence. Model A1 has the same parameters, but the second date of lineage divergence is instead the date of genetic admixture leading to *L. vilasboasi*. In addition, model A1 has a seventh parameter, α, which measures the proportion of the *L. vilasboasi* genome resulting from *L. nattereri*, while the contribution from *L. iris* is given by 1-α. FastSIMCOAL2 takes the observed site frequency spectrum (SFS; we used the multidimensional SFS for the minor allele at each SNP) for the

data and determines the fit of this observed data to each model by simulating a large number of SFS across a range of model parameter values and determining the fit of the observed to the simulated data. We calculated the SFS in Arlequin (17) for Dataset 3 and manually entered the number of non-variable sites in our dataset to the first entry of the SFS. This value was calculated from the proportion of non-variable to variable positions in our dataset multiplied by the number of variable positions included following filtering and thinning of SNPs. We used the neutral rate of 4.6 x 10⁻⁹ mutations per generation (18) calculated from whole genomes and pedigree analysis for *Ficedula* flycatchers (belongs to the same order as Lepidothrix) to calibrate our model fits. For each model we fitted 144 independent runs, each starting from a different set of random starting parameters drawn from uniform and loguniform distributions. These distributions ranged from 100 to 1,000,000 (log-normal) for effective population size parameters, 100 to 1,000,000 (uniform) for the time of the basal divergence, 0 to 1 (uniform) for the proportional time of the second event relative to the basal divergence time (uniform), and 0 to 1 for α (uniform). For each set of model parameter values, the fit of the observed data was obtained using 200,000 simulated SFS. Each run used 50 EMC loops. We then obtained the maximum likelihood parameter values for each run and re-estimated the likelihood fit to these parameters using 2,000,000 simulated SFS. The larger number of SFS allowed for more precise estimates of the likelihood fit. The best likelihood value and associated set of parameters of the 144 runs was then retained as a close approximation of the true likelihood fit of the data to the model. AIC and Akaike weights calculated from these likelihoods are reported in Table 1.

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The hybrid speciation model gave a much better fit to the data (Table 1) than tree-like models without hybridization. To test whether gene flow occurred after the hybrid speciation event, we next tested a hybrid speciation model in which three additional parameters were added to the model allowing ongoing gene flow among each of the three species (model A3). To reduce the number of migration parameters, we modelled gene flow so that the number of migrants shared between each pair of species per generation was symmetrical. This assumption is justified by the need for model simplicity, though we also note that species pairs share the same parapatric contact zones, and thus the same geographic opportunities for migration assuming equal population density for each species along shared parapatric contact zones. Poor dispersal ability in lowland Neotropical forest birds in general

likely means that gene flow only occurs along parapatric contact zones rather than involving migrants from deep within each species range. We also took the best fit tree topology (model T3) and added the three migration parameters to this model (model A2). These two additional models were fit to the data using the same methods as above. All models were then compared using AIC and Akaike Weights (Table S3). Models with gene flow greatly outperformed those without, and the hybrid speciation model (model A3) with gene flow outperformed the gene flow model without hybrid speciation (model A2). These results continue to support the ancient hybrid speciation event, but suggest that gene flow has occurred following this initial admixture event. However, unlike our best fit model without ongoing gene flow (model A1), model parameter estimates of this best fit model had broad confidence intervals (Fig. S4) suggesting that the signal in the data may not be sufficient to estimate parameters for models of this complexity

Table S3. Support for models in which *Lepidothrix vilasboasi* (V) arises with (A1 to A3) and without (T1, T2, T3) genetic admixture from *L. nattereri* (N) and *L. iris* (I).

	T1	T2	T3	A1	A2	A3
MODEL	N V I	N V I	V N I	N V I	N V I	N V I
N	6	6	6	7	9	10
ΔΑΙC	389.0	480.1	485.7	355.7	7.3	0.0
Akaike weights	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.97

Models T1, T2, and T3 represent alternative bifurcating tree-like histories without genetic admixture. Admixture models vary in whether admixture was a point event (A1), involved admixture over to a protracted period of geneflow (A2), or a combination of the two (A3). Arrows indicate migration among lineages.

We quantified color differences of crown feathers by measuring spectral reflectance for males of each species of Lepidothrix. Wavelengths between 300 and 700 nm were measured using a USB2000 spectrophotometer attached to a PX-2 pulsed xenon light source (Ocean Optics, Dunendin, FL, USA) for crown feathers obtained from 6 museum skins (2 for each species). A single feather from each of two individuals per species were stacked beside each other, with feathers slightly overlapping, on black construction paper. Crown feathers were very small and we thus stacked them in order to obtain higher quality measurements (i.e. with less of the black background revealed). We also included two stacked feathers from the crown for the male L. nattereri x L. iris F1-like hybrid individual (collector number ABG 167). Measurements were taken with a bifurcated micron fiber optic probe (Ocean Optics, Dunendin, FL, USA) held at 45° and 90° angles (two sets of measurements) and 6 mm (45°) or 9 mm (90°) away from the feather surface using probe holders. The spectral reflectance data was generated relative to a RS50 Halon white standard (Stellarnet Inc, Tampa, FL, USA) and a dark standard (measurement taken in a dark box with lamp turned off) to correct for electrical noise. The Ocean View software (Ocean Optics, Dunendin, FL, USA) was used to record the spectrum from each set of stacked feathers with an integration time of 120 ms, repeating this procedure five times for each species at each angle. We used the R package pavo 0.0-1 (19) to average measurements across replicate samples for each species and to smooth spectra.

To assess the role of carotenoids in the yellow crown coloration of *L. vilasboasi*, we extracted carotenoids from feathers for two different individuals (separate individuals from the above analyses) using acidified pyridine treatment following the protocol described in (20), and adjusting reagent volumes according to the weight of *Lepidothrix* feathers. After carotenoid extraction these feathers were stacked again and measured with the spectrophotometer following the same procedures described previously.

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Section 6: Transmission Electron Microscopy

Crown feathers for the three species and the hybrid individual were examined at the nanoscale to test the prediction that the spectral reflectance values for *L. vilasboasi* are produced by a hybrid phenotype of the structural elements of its feathers. Transmission

252 electron microscopy (TEM) was used to measure the morphological characteristics of nanostructural elements known as photonic crystals which can produce structural coloration 253 254 in visible wavelengths (21, 22). Feather barbs samples were cut from the upper 1cm of the crown feathers (one feather per species) and incubated them in 0.25 M sodium hydroxide and 255 256 0.1 % Tween-20 for 30 min. The samples were transferred to a solution of 2 parts formic acid to 3 parts ethanol for 3 hours. The samples then were dehydrated by incubating in 100% 257 258 ethanol twice and 100% propylene oxide once. Then the samples were infiltrated in successive concentrations of 15%, 50%, 70%, and 100% Quetol-Spurr (each step for at least 259 260 24 hours) and they were cured at 70°C for 48 hours. The samples were cut into cross sections 261 (one section per species) using a diamond knife on a Leica Ultracut UCT ultramicrotome 262 (Leica Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany) and each section was stained in osmium and lead citrate. The cross sections were visualized on a Hitachi H7500 (Hitachi, Tokyo, 263 264 Japan) transmission electron microscope operating at 80 kV at x 10,000, x 20,000 and x 25,000. We obtained images for three barbs per section. ImageJ 1.50a software 265 266 (http://imagej.nih.gov/ij) was used to take the following measurements for each image: 1) 267 Number of ordered layers of air and keratin in the spongy matrix measured perpendicular to the barb surface; 2) barb cortex thickness at 10 evenly spaced locations; 3) distance among 268 air pocket centers in the matrix of the spongy layer. 269

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- Eliason CM, Maia R, Shawkey MD (2015) Modular color evolution facilitated by a 320 22. 321 complex nanostructure in birds. Evolution 69(2):357–367.

333 Figure S1 The decay of linkage disequilibrium (r²) as a function of physical distance for three species of 334 335 Lepidothrix manakin. Only shown are loci with data for 12 to 15 individuals for each species. The 336 two red lines indicate the expected r² value (i.e. 1/n) for n= 12 and 15 individuals when linkage 337 disequilibrium is absent. Decay curves for all three species reach the expectation in less than 5,000 338 bp. L. nattereri has more SNPs present because it has a much larger pool of individuals sequenced. 339 340 Figure S2 Results of the Bayesian analysis of population structure under different numbers of populations 341 342 (K). A) change of L(K) with increasing K. B) the ΔK_{Evanno} (blue line) and $\Delta K_{Revised}$ (orange line) 343 statistic for K=2 to K=5. See Section 3 for details. 344 345 Figure S3 346 Analysis of hybrid index and observed heterozygosity. A) heterozygosity and hybrid index for 347 populations color coded as in Fig. 2B. Heterozygosity is calculated for SNPs from Dataset 1 for 348 which parental populations (Lepidothrix iris eucephala: blue; L. nattereri east of the 349 Tapajós/Juruena Rivers: Green) have less than 50% missing data and allele frequency differences 350 greater than 0.25. Box plots (with whiskers representing the range between the 0.025 and 0.975 351 quantiles that encompass 95% of the data) are shown for 1000 simulated individuals for each of 352 four early generation hybrids. The hybrid indexes for these individuals are shown at their 353 expectation of 0.5 for F₁ and F₂, 0.25 for F₁ x L. nattereri, and 0.75 for F₁ x L. iris. B) histogram of 354 hybrid indices for individuals from contact zone birds (all individuals from localities where at least 355 1 individual had a hybrid index between 0.05 and 0.95. C) histogram of hybrid indices for L. 356 vilasboasi individuals. Hybrid indices obtained from our analysis of structure with two populations 357 inferred. 358 359

Figure S4

Maximum likelihood parameter estimates of the best fit models without (A) and with (B) migration among species. The proportion of individuals of L. nattereri and L. iris origin in the founding population of L. vilasboasi are shown by α and $1-\alpha$ respectively. The number of migrants (N_m) per generation among species are shown. Thickness of the vertical lines correspond to effective population size estimates which are stated in units of thousands.

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Figure S5

Electron scanning micrographs of whole barb sections (x 10,000) for *L. irisi* (A), *L. nattereri* (B), *L. vilasboasi* (C) and *L. iris* x *L. nattereri* hybrid. Irregular translucent black lines and spots are sectioning artifacts and don't represent actual structures.

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Figure S6

Detail of the geographic range of Lepidothrix vilasboasi and surrounding congeners. Numbered arrows as follows. 1) Location of syntopy of L. vilasboasi and L. iris on the east bank of the Jamanxim River indicating that this river – which is 70 to 100 m wide at this latitude – is not an absolute barrier, and that these species at least occasionally come into geographic contact in the vicinity of the river. 2) Location of hybrid sample BR163-064 with admixture proportions from the program Structure (K = 3) of 85% L. iris and 14% L. nattereri. This individual occurs north of the Cachimbo Range and west of the Jamanxim River (which at this latitude is as narrow as 10m) with L. vilasboasi sampled on the same side of this river just 130km to the north. No major river barriers (i.e. with widths > 25m) occur between L. vilasboasi and this location. A parapatric contact zone between L. iris and L. villasboasi is almost certain to occur somewhere in the region encompassed by the dotted red contour. 3) This arrow indicates a lowland forested corridor that goes around the northern edge of the Cachimbo Range. The lack of river barriers and the presence of uninterrupted forest through this corridor strongly suggest that L. vilasboasi and L. nattereri come into geographic contact in this poorly explored region. In addition, the Cachimbo Range itself typically rises only 100 to 250 meters above the surrounding lowlands and is unlikely to present an absolute barrier to geneflow. We suspect that parapatric contact between L. vilasboasi and L.

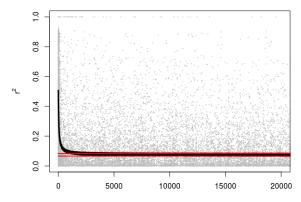
nattereri occurs along its northern half (dashed green contour) as it does between *L. nattereri* and *L. iris* along its southern half (dashed purple contour). Black circles show collecting localities for genomic samples in this study. Black arrows indicate sample sites of *L. nattereri* along both banks of the Teles Pires. The Cachimbo range is shown by inverted V's.

Figure S7

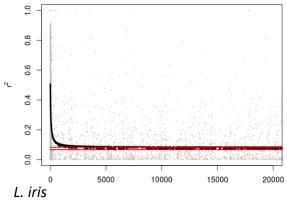
Possible scenario leading to the yellow crown of *L. vilasboasi*. *L. iris* and *L. nattereri* produce a hybrid swarm in which the intermediate nature of the nanostructural elements of the crown barb result in a loss of reflectance. The duller appearance of the crown renders males less showy at their dark forest interior lekks. Sexual selection then resulted in the thickening of the crown barb cortex and deposition of carotenoids to the cortex resulting in the yellow crown coloration of *L. vilasboasi*. Feather shown are from their respective species. The dull whitish/gray feather representing the hybrid population is a *L. vilasboasi* crown feather for which carotenoids were extracted and which we assume closely matches the ancestral hybrid swarm prior to deposition of carotenoids.

Figure S1

L. nattereri



L. villasboasi



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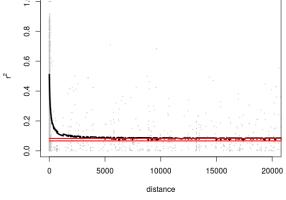
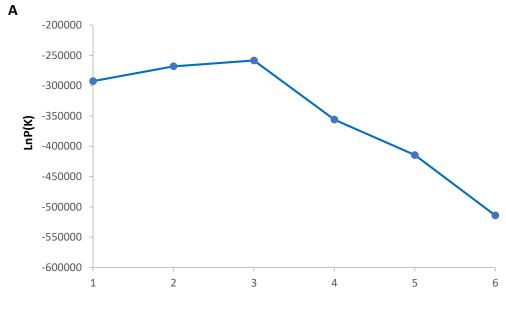


Figure S2



Number of populations (K)

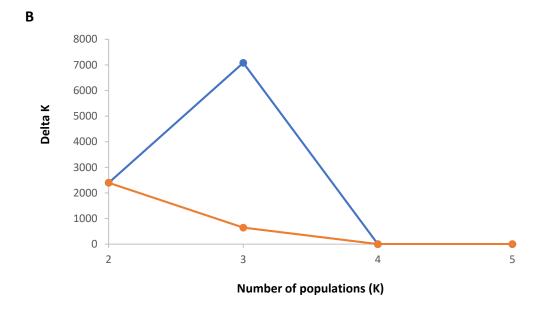


Figure S3

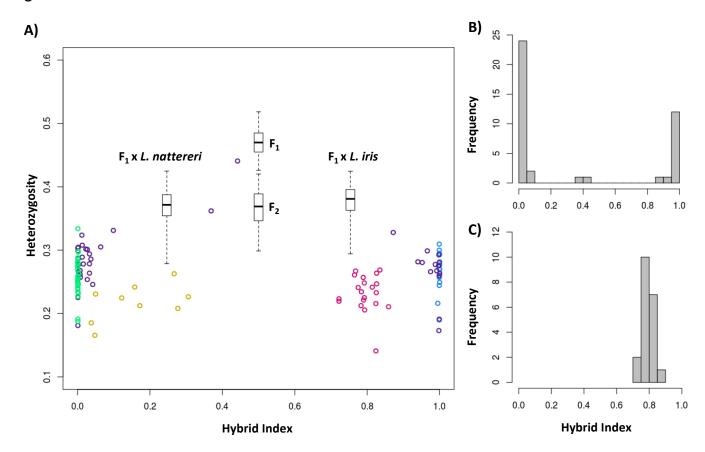


Figure S4

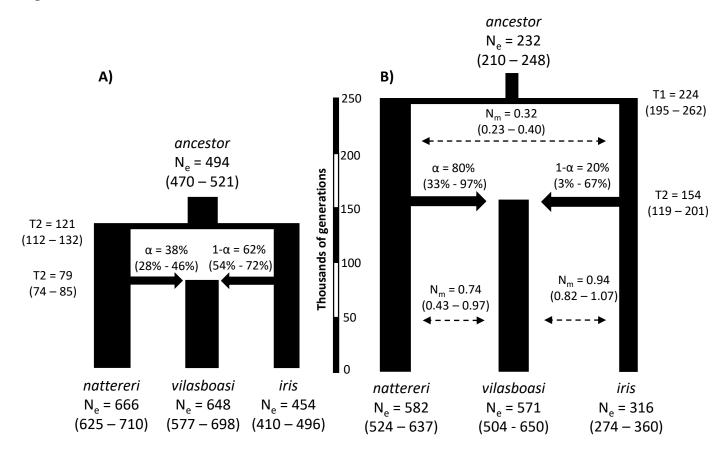
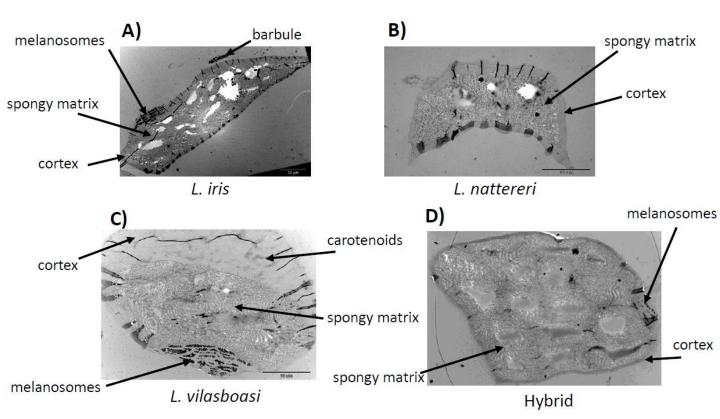


Figure S5



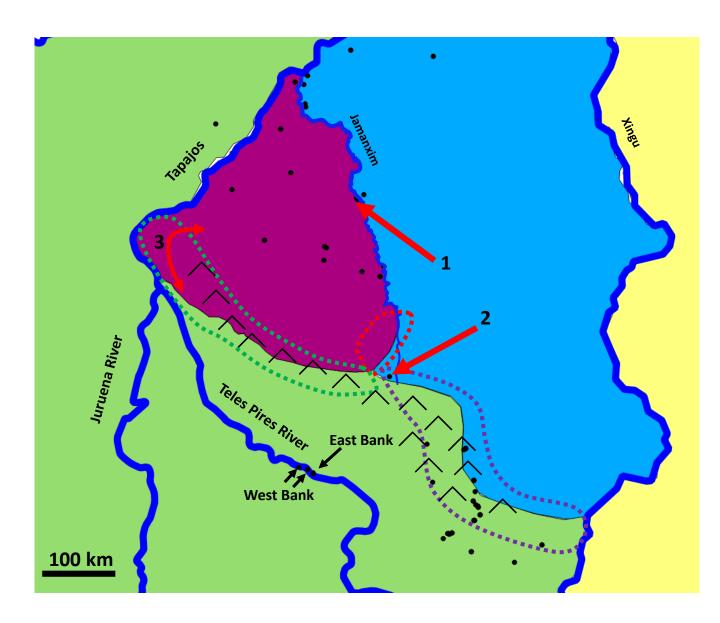


Figure S7

