

The rise and fall of the mountain hare (Lepus timidus) during Pleistocene glaciations: expansion and retreat with hybridization in the Iberian Peninsula

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27 Running title: The rise and fall of Lepus timidus in Iberia

1 Abstract

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3 Populations of Iberian (Lepus granatensis), brown (Lepus europaeus) and broom (Lepus 4 *castroviejoi*) hares in Northern Iberia harbour mitochondrial haplotypes from the mountain hare 5 (Lepus timidus), a cold adapted species presently absent from the Peninsula. To understand the history of this massive past introgression, we sequenced a fragment of cytochrome b and the control 6 region of mitochondrial DNA of L. timidus origin found in 378 specimens of these four species. 7 8 Among 124 L. timidus from the Northern Palaearctic and the Alps we found substantial nucleotide 9 diversity but little geographic differentiation. Based on the mismatch distribution, we propose this could result from an expansion at a time of temperature decrease favourable to this arctic species. 10 The nucleotide diversity of L. timidus mtDNA found in Iberian L. granatensis, L. europaeus and L. 11 castroviejoi (183, 70 and 1 specimens respectively) was of the same order as that in L. timidus over 12 its range (1.9 vs. 2.3%), suggesting multiple hybridization events. The coalescence pattern of the 13 introgressed lineage in L. granatensis indicates a recent demographic expansion which is 14 compatible with a scenario of progressive replacement with hybridization of L. timidus by L. 15 granatensis when temperatures started to rise and favour this temperate species. L. europaeus could 16 17 have hybridized with L. timidus in Iberia or on its way to the Peninsula, and according to our data it

18 could also have hybridized with introgressed *L. granatensis*.

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1 Introduction

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3 The climatic oscillations that characterized the Pleistocene imposed important range shifts on 4 Palaearctic biota, and contributed decisively to shape their demographic history and genetic diversity (Avise et al. 1998). Cooling of the climate forced temperate species to retract into 5 6 fragmented distribution ranges in Southern refugia, creating high levels of diversity and endemism 7 in these areas (Hewitt 1996). In Europe the Balkans, Italy and the Iberian Peninsulas represent the 8 major ice age refugia (Taberlet et al. 1999). Temperate biota normally show lower genetic diversity in the formerly glaciated regions, due to founder effects during their post-glacial expansion, unless 9 their mobility was sufficient to ensure an admixture from the different refugia during the 10 interglacials (Hewitt 1996; Cruzan & Templeton 2000). A different pattern could however prevail 11 for arctic species. Generally, given the much colder climates during glacial periods and the extent of 12 the arctic ice sheets, these species must have been pushed to lower latitudes. However, large areas 13 of Northeast Asia are known to have remained deglaciated and are proposed as refugial areas (see 14 Hewitt 2004). Still, these species are well adapted to cold conditions and some could have 15 16 maintained large distribution areas during the ice ages across the steppe and tundra stretches that 17 covered Europe. To many, the cooling of the climate could have represented periods of population expansion while the warmer stage may be a time of population reduction (see Hewitt 2001). 18 19 Consequently, some regions must have been occupied by an alternation of arctic and temperate 20 species as the climate oscillated. This probably set the conditions for temporal and moving overlaps of the ranges of these two types of species, competition between them, and eventually hybridization. 21 22 The Iberian Peninsula seems to have been an arena for such a type of interplay between hare 23 species.

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25 The genus Lepus is presently represented in Iberia by three species, two of which are endemic: the 26 broom hare, Lepus castroviejoi, restricted to the Cantabrian Mountains, and the Iberian hare, Lepus 27 granatensis, which covers the whole Iberian Peninsula except the Northeast, along the Pyrenees, 28 where the brown hare, Lepus europaeus, prevails. Mitochondrial DNA studies (Pérez-Suárez et al. 29 1994; Alves et al. 2003) have identified lineages that are specific to each of these species, but 30 Alves et al. (2003) have also detected haplotypes inherited from the mountain hare, Lepus timidus, currently extinct from Iberia, in specimens of L. granatensis and L. europaeus. L. timidus is an 31 32 arcto-alpine species with a wide range in the Northern part of the Palaearctic region, from the 33 British islands to the Russian Far East, and some isolated populations in the Alps, Poland and Japan (Angerbjörn & Flux 1995). According to the fossil record it was the most common and most widely 34 distributed hare species in Europe during the last glacial periods (Lopez-Martinez 1980). Upper 35 Pleistocene fossil records of mountain hares have been found for instance in Central Europe, 36 37 Southern France (Lopez-Martinez 1980), Northern Spain (Altuna 1970) and Ireland (Woodman et al. 1997). Recent molecular analyses demonstrated that mtDNA of L. timidus origin is widespread 38 in the Iberian Peninsula (Melo-Ferreira et al. 2005). It predominates in L. granatensis populations 39 from the North, but becomes rarer towards the South, where it is absent. Furthermore, it is almost 40 41 fixed in Iberian L. europaeus and also present in L. castroviejoi. Even though mitochondrial introgression in contact zones is not uncommon (e.g. Ferris et al. 1983; Tegelström 1987; Arnold 42 1997; Ruedi et al. 1997; Goodman et al. 1999; Bachtrog et al. 2006), the geographic and 43 taxonomic ranges of this introgression are unusual, and the donor species is now extinct form the 44 45 concerned region.

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In this work, we wanted to better understand the time scale and demographic processes characterizing the spectacular past invasion of the genomes of these three Iberian species. To do this, we studied mtDNA sequence variation in a sample of *L. timidus* spanning most of its present distribution area, and compared it with the diversity of the *L. timidus* haplotypes found in the Iberian species. Our results are compatible with the scenario of an expansion of *L. timidus* prior to the Eemian interglacial, followed by a retraction to the North at the end of the Pleistocene, accompanied by replacement with hybridization by the temperate species which, as they expanded, spread the traces of hybridization to the recolonized regions.

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9 Materials and Methods

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12 Samples and laboratory methods13

A total of 378 individuals from four hare species from the Iberian Peninsula (*L. granatensis*, *L. europaeus* and *L. castroviejoi*) and Eurasia (*L. timidus*) was analysed (Table 1; Fig. 1). The Iberian specimens had previously been identified has having the mtDNA of *L. timidus* origin through a PCR-RFLP approach (Melo-Ferreira *et al.* 2005).

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19 Total genomic DNA was extracted from liver or ear tissue using standard methods similar to those 20 described in Sambrook et al. (1989). A portion of the mitochondrial cytochrome b (Cytb) was amplified using primers LCYF (Alves et al. 2003) and LCYTBR (Melo-Ferreira et al. 2005), the 5' 21 22 terminal nucleotides of which correspond respectively to positions 14251 and 14919 of the 23 reference L. europaeus mitochondrial genome (GenBank Accession No. AJ421471; Arnason et al. 24 2002). Additionally, a fragment of the mitochondrial control region (CR) was amplified using primers LCRSEQ (5'-CACCATCAGCACCCAAAG-3') and LepD2H (Pierpaoli et al. 1999) which 25 start, respectively, at positions 15395 and 15947 of the reference mitochondrial genome. Both PCR 26 products were sequenced (617 bp from the Cytb and 471 to 473 bp of the CR) using LCYF and 27 28 LCRSEO primers, respectively, following the ABI PRISM BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing 29 3.1 (Applied Biosystems) standard protocol.

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32 Sequences analyses

The Cytb and CR sequences were visually inspected, aligned using CLUSTAL W (Thompson *et al.*1994) and concatenated. MtDNA haplotypes were defined using NETWORK 4.1.0.9

36 (http://www.fluxus-technology.com/).

37

A Neighbor-Joining tree (using the TN93 distance; Tamura & Nei 1993) was reconstructed using MEGA 3.1 (Kumar *et al.* 2004; http://www.megasoftware.net) in order to detect any error in the former PCR-RFLP determination of the mitochondrial lineage (Melo-Ferreira *et al.* 2005). No ambiguities were detected (data not shown).

42

43 When analysing intraspecific sequence data, that normally have large sample size and low genetic

44 distances between haplotypes, the results are better expressed using a network which allows for

45 alternative connections and for extant ancestral haplotypes in the populations (Bandelt *et al.* 1999).

46 Since the introgressed specimens in Iberia and the *L. timidus* specimens share the mtDNA lineage,

47 these two datasets were analyzed jointly using NETWORK 4.1.0.9 and a Median-Joining network was

48 computed (Bandelt *et al.* 1999).

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- 2 The nucleotide diversity (π), $\theta_{(S)}$ computed from the number of segregating sites, haplotype diversity 3 (h) and mismatch distributions were determined using ARLEQUIN 3.0 (Excoffier et al. 2005). The 4 mismatch distributions were analysed according to the Sudden Expansion Model (Rogers & 5 Harpending 1992). This model assumes that an initial population at equilibrium with $\theta = \theta_0$ grows rapidly to a new size with $\theta = \theta_1$, τ units of mutational time ago, where $\theta = N_e u$ and $\tau = 2ut$ (Ne = 6 effective population size, u = mutation rate and t = time since the expansion in generations). 7 8 Goodness-of-fit tests (Schneider & Excoffier 1999) of the observed to the expected distribution 9 were computed. The confidence intervals for τ were obtained from 1000 bootstrap replicates. The 10 conformation to a model of selective neutrality and population equilibrium by Tajima's D (Tajima 1989a) and Fu's Fs (Fu 1997) was tested with 5000 bootstrap replicates. 11
- 12

13 To further assess the demographic history of the analysed samples we determined the population growth parameter g using FLUCTUATE 1.4 (Kuhner et al. 1998), a coalescent-based method which 14 takes into account the genealogical relationships among haplotypes. Positive values of g indicate 15 population growth and negative values population reduction. We ran the program several times with 16 17 different combinations of short and long chains to ensure consistency of the estimates. The final estimates were based on a run of 10 short chains of 1,000 steps followed by 10 long chains of 18 19 20,000 steps, sampling every 10 steps. The estimates of the growth parameter g are known to be 20 biased upwards (Kuhner et al. 1998). Therefore, we followed the conservative method used by 21 Lessa *et al.* (2003) and considered g to indicate population growth only if g > 3(SD) and population 22 decline if g < -3(SD).

23

Population pairwise Φ_{ST} were calculated and tested for significance (10000 permutations; significance level 0.05). An analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA; 10000 permutations; Excoffier *et al.* 1992) was then computed to test for population structure in *L. timidus*, grouping the samples according to their geographic location (Northern Europe, Alps, Eastern Europe and Eastern Russia).

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30 To obtain an estimate of interspecific divergence time in *Lepus*, Pierpaoli *et al.* (1999) proposed that a Cytb divergence rate of 4% per Myr, which corresponds to the basal splitting of the genus at 3 31 32 Myr, is in accordance with the palaeontological data that reports the first appearance of the genus at 33 ≈ 2.5 million years ago (e.g. Lopez-Martinez 1980). In order to calibrate the rate of substitution in 34 L. timidus, we calculated the average nucleotide TN93 distance between the two major lineages of 35 L. timidus origin found in L. granatensis, for the Cytb fragment alone and for the concatenation of 36 the Cytb and CR fragments. By simple proportionality, assuming that the rate of divergence for 37 Cytb is 4% per Myr, we found that for the concatenated fragments the divergence rate is 15.8% per 38 Myr.

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41 **Results**

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After concatenating the Cytb and CR fragments, (378 individuals; 1088 to 1090 bp) we identified 167 haplotypes defined by 270 polymorphic sites, of which 267 had substitutions and 5 contained

48 insertions/deletions (Table 1; GenBank accession numbers: Cytb - ###-###; CR - ###-###;

⁴⁴ Sequence diversity

haplotypes with frequency higher than 1 are shown in the appendix). The Cytb sequences appear to be of mitochondrial origin and not nuclear integrated copies, as the reading frame is intact and the third position base composition is typical (A 38.5%, C 32.3%, G 2.7% and T 26.5%) compared to the average in mammals (A 39%, C 36%, G 3% and T 21%; Johns and Avise 1998). A separate analysis of the Cytb and CR datasets did not show any phylogenetic incongruence (data not shown) suggesting that the CR fragment is also of mitochondrial origin.

7

8 The 124 *L. timidus* specimens harboured 90 distinct haplotypes. Sequence diversity was high ($h = 0.991 \pm 0.003$; $\pi = 0.023 \pm 0.011$; Table 2) and the haplotypes were evenly distributed, all having 10 frequencies lower than 6%. Each of the major geographic regions that we defined separately 11 displayed similarly high sequence diversity (Table 2).

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13 Seventy-seven different mitochondrial haplotypes of L. timidus origin were found among the Iberian species: 67 in L. granatensis; 11 in L. europaeus; and 1 in L. castroviejoi. Two haplotypes 14 (i9 and i66) were found both in L. granatensis and L. europaeus. The introgressed L. granatensis 15 showed high sequence diversity (Table 2), with haplotypes evenly distributed in the sample, all 16 17 having a frequency lower than 7%. Haplotype diversity ($h = 0.978 \pm 0.003$) and nucleotide diversity $(\pi = 0.018 \pm 0.009)$ were high, suggesting that L. *timidus* mtDNA introgression in this species had 18 19 multiple origins. The diversity among the haplotypes of L. timidus origin found in L. europaeus was 20 also rather high ($h = 0.820 \pm 0.026$; $\pi = 0.017 \pm 0.008$; Table 2). In this species, two haplotypes, i09 21 and i72, occurring with a frequency of 26% and 30% respectively, are clearly predominant over the 22 others.

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25 Network analysis and population differentiation

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27 The Median-Joining network split the introgressed haplotypes in the Iberian species in two well 28 defined divergent haplogroups (average uncorrected p-distance = 0.030), which will be referred to 29 as groups A and B (Fig. 2). No haplotype was shared between true L. timidus and the other species. 30 Group A of introgressed haplotypes is found in the three Iberian species, and one haplotype is common to L. granatensis and L. europaeus. This group is not monophyletic, as the smallest clade 31 32 in which it is included also comprises haplotypes form Eastern Russia, Northern Europe and the 33 Alps. Group B of introgressed haplotypes is found in L. granatensis and L. europaeus, also with one 34 haplotype shared between these species. The smallest monophyletic group including group B also 35 comprises haplotypes of true L. timidus from the Alps and Northern Europe. The haplotypes from Northern Europe, Eastern Russia and the Alps were scattered throughout the network. However, 36 37 many haplotypes from the Alps fell into two clusters closely related to the introgressed Iberian 38 groups A and B, suggesting relatedness. The British Isles haplotypes form two well defined 39 divergent clusters which correspond to the Irish and Scottish specimens.

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41 The AMOVA showed that in L. timidus 7.5% of the variation is explained by differences among 42 major geographic groups, 28.3% among populations within groups and 64.2% within sampled 43 populations ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.36$, $\Phi_{SC} = 0.31$, $\Phi_{CT} = 0.07$). Pairwise Φ_{ST} distances among the *L. timidus* populations range from 0 to 0.805. The Scottish and Italian populations show the higher levels of 44 45 differentiation relative to the others. In general, the Northern European L. timidus populations are 46 little differentiated from the Eastern Russia ones (Table 3). The introgressed Iberian and brown hare populations are well differentiated from the native L. timidus (Φ_{ST} from 0.822 to 0.859). The 47 differentiation between the introgressed *L. granatensis* and *L. europaeus* is moderate (0.102). 48

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3 Demographic analyses 4

5 The mismatch analysis of the sequences from true *L. timidus* showed a unimodal distribution of the 6 number of pairwise differences that fitted the expectation under the Sudden Expansion Model (Fig. 7 3a). The main expansion event was estimated to have occurred at $\tau = 28.2$ (95% CI 22.4-31.2).

8

9 The *timidus*-like haplotypes in *L. granatensis* show a bimodal distribution of pairwise differences, rejecting, as expected, the Sudden Expansion Model (Fig. 3b). The observation of two clearly 10 separated sublineages in this species suggests independent origins of the introgressed clades. The 11 mismatch distribution for each lineage analysed separately is unimodal, not rejecting the 12 expectation under the Sudden Expansion Model, showing that the group A main expansion event 13 occurred at $\tau = 5.7$ (95% CI 3.0-14.0; Fig. 3c) while in group B it occurred at $\tau = 6.0$ (95% CI 3.4-14 13.6; Fig. 3d). In L. europaeus, the mismatch distribution shows three peaks at 0, 15, and 33 15 pairwise differences, rejecting the tested model (Fig. 3e). When analysing separately groups A and 16 B (Figs. 3f and 3g respectively), we found that for the latter the rapid expansion model is not 17 rejected, with an estimated $\tau = 6.0$ (95% CI 1.6-13.0). In *L. europaeus* group A however, it was not 18 19 possible to perform the goodness-of-fit test, since the least square procedure to fit model 20 distribution and observed distribution did not converge after 1800 steps.

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22 Tajima's D values were negative in L. granatensis groups A and B, group A of L. europaeus, and in 23 L. timidus, except for the analysis of the Alpine haplotypes (Table 2). However, none of the values was significantly different from zero (p > 0.05). Fu's Fs values were negative except in L. 24 europaeus (both groups A and B) and the Alpine and Eastern European L. timidus (Table 2). This 25 parameter was significant (p < 0.02) in L. granatensis group B, in L. timidus as a whole and in the 26 Northern European sample. Negative values of these parameters can be due to selection, but also 27 28 population expansion, bottleneck or heterogeneity of mutation rates (Tajima 1989b; Aris-Brosou & Excoffier 1996; Fu 1997). In fact, the Fs index is particularly sensitive to population expansion (Fu 29 30 1997; Ramos-Onsins & Rozas 2002), and thus at least in some cases, these results are concordant 31 with those of the mismatch analysis.

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The estimates of the growth parameter *g* show that both lineages in *L. granatensis* underwent a population growth, but this was not the case in *L. europaeus*. In true *L. timidus* the overall sample and the partitions indicate growth, except for the Alpine population (Table 2).

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38 Discussion

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- 41 *L. timidus population history and genetic structure* 42

Although our sample of *L. timidus* covers most of the species range, from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Scandinavia and the British Isles to the Alps, little geographic structure of mtDNA variation is apparent on the haplotype network of Fig. 2. Only 7.5% of the molecular variance lies in differences between the major geographic regions, most of the variance (64.2%) being attributable to intra-population diversity. The Φ_{ST} value (0.36) found among populations covering such a large area is low when compared to that found in other mammals such as wolf (0.69; Vilà *et*

1 al. 1999), roe deer (0.44; Randi et al. 2004) or brown hares (0.42; Kasapidis et al. 2005). Likewise, the pairwise Φ_{ST} values between some Northern European and Eastern Russian populations are 2 3 generally low (for example Sweden and Finland vs. Amurskaya Territory and Kamchatka 4 Peninsula; Table 3), indicating little differentiation. Although hares are mobile species, the 5 relatively low differentiation over such large distances is unlikely to exclusively reflect ongoing 6 gene flow, but rather suggests a common history of colonization. In fact, we have seen that Fu's Fs 7 statistics, the growth parameter (Table 2) and the mismatch distribution (Fig. 3a) are compatible 8 with an expansion of this species, that we have dated at 164 000 years BP (130 000-181 000 years 9 BP, 95% CI), i.e. before the last interglacial (130 000 to 116 000 years BP; Kukla et al. 2002), in agreement with earlier more restricted studies (Waltari & Cook 2005), and with a previous estimate 10 (135 000 BP; Pierpaoli et al. 1999). L. timidus being an arctic species, the glacial periods have 11 12 logically affected it differently from the temperate species. It would appear logical that the 13 expansion of this species occurred when temperatures were dropping, rather than during the 14 warming of an interglacial period as is proposed for several arctic taxa (Hewitt 2001; Flagstad & Røed 2003; Dalén et al. 2005). As a result, during the last glacial period L. timidus could have 15 maintained a large and continuous distribution south of the ice rim, and ice-age palaeontological 16 17 remains of L. timidus have been found throughout Europe (e.g. Altuna 1970; Lopez-Martinez 1980; 18 Woodman et al. 1997). Of course more recent expansions must also have occurred in the Northern 19 Palaearctic that was covered with ice during the last glacial maximum. This would explain the low 20 levels of allozyme and mitochondrial differentiation among European mountain hares found by 21 Suchentrunk et al. (1999) and Ben Slimen et al. (2006) respectively. Moreover, Thulin et al. 22 (1997a), given the close phylogenetic associations between Scandinavian and non-Scandinavian 23 mtDNA haplotypes, suggested that recent colonization from multiple areas explains the origin of 24 the Scandinavian mountain hares. On the other hand, fragmentation and shrinking of the species 25 range during warmer times could have induced partial differentiation of isolated populations by drift, especially in enclaves such as mountain chains. We note that the Italian population (our largest 26 27 sample from the Alps) is significantly differentiated from all other populations (Table 3), 28 presumably as result of this effect. The Scottish population also appears significantly different from 29 most others (Table 3). The Scottish haplotypes clearly appear separated from the others in the 30 network from Fig. 2, except one (t30) that clusters with the Irish samples. However these sampled specimens were from the Isle of Mull, Western Scotland, where Irish hares have been introduced 31 32 earlier (see Angerbjörn & Flux 1995). As has been observed before (Pierpaoli et al. 1999), the Irish 33 haplotypes are more related to the continental ones than to those from Scotland.

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36 Multiple L. timidus mtDNA introgression in Iberia

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38 None of the L. timidus mtDNA haplotypes found in the Iberian Peninsula is found elsewhere. This 39 translates into elevated pairwise Φ_{ST} between the introgressed L. granatensis and L. europaeus and 40 the true L. timidus populations (Table 3). It is also striking that the nucleotide diversity among the 41 L. timidus haplotypes in the Iberian Peninsula (17-19%) is comparable to that encountered over the 42 whole range of the donor species, L. timidus (23%; Table 2). This high diversity mainly results from 43 the introgressed haplotypes belonging to two divergent lineages (Fig. 2). These two observations 44 together suggest that some of the variation seen in L. granatensis and L. europaeus pre-existed the introgression, which thus occurred through multiple hybridization events. They also suggest that 45 46 some evolution occurred after the introgression, to produce the high differentiation from the donor 47 populations. This rules out the possibility that the introgression in the Iberian Peninsula results from 48 a single accidental hybridization, followed by an expansion of the introgressed haplotype. Evidence for single hybridization would have strengthened the idea that the introgression was driven by selection given its extraordinary extent over half of the Peninsula and three different species as shown by our previous study (Melo-Ferreira *et al.* 2005). Thus, in a sense, the great diversity of the introgressed haplotypes renders a test of the selection hypothesis more delicate, and we must attempt to reconstruct more precisely the history of the introgression.

6

Both in *L. granatensis* or in *L. europaeus*, the introgressed haplotypes belong to two groups (which
we named A and B) that are closely related to the two major haplotype clusters found in the present
Alpine population of *L. timidus* (Fig. 2). This indicates that the *L. timidus* population that
bequeathed its mtDNA to the Iberian hares was related to the ones that retreated up the Alps when it
became warmer, which makes geographical sense.

Most of the introgressed haplotypes found in L. granatensis fall into the two compact and well 12 13 separated groups A and B, which would mean that at least two main waves of L. timidus hybridization occurred in Iberia. We can thus try to date each introgression wave by assuming that it 14 was followed by a simple demographic expansion. Both *timidus*-like groups in L. granatensis show 15 signs of an increase in population size, and the mismatch distributions are compatible with recent 16 17 expansions at 33 000 years BP for group A (95% CI 17 000 - 81 000 years) and 35 000 years BP for group B (95% CI 20 000 - 79 000 years), a time when L. timidus presence in Iberia has been 18 19 documented by fossil records (Sesé & Sevilla 1996). The maximum extent of the glaciers in the 20 Pyrenees during the last glacial period occurred more than 30 000 years BP (García-Ruiz et al. 21 2003; Peña et al. 2004). A later advance coincides with the global last glacial maximum around 22 20,000 years BP but was less extensive than the previous one (García-Ruiz et al. 2003). Thus the 23 sudden demographic expansion detected in the introgressed groups of L. granatensis could 24 correspond to the date when L. timidus reached its southernmost extension in the Northern Iberian 25 Peninsula, before it retreated and gave ground to L. granatensis as the latter expanded from its Southern refuge with the climate getting milder. Currat and Excoffier (2004) have simulated such 26 27 situations of competitive replacement of one species by the expansion of another, and found that 28 even rare hybridization events could suffice to initiate extensive introgression of the invading 29 species by genes of the disappearing species. Hybridization is likely to occur mostly when the 30 invading species is still rare, and experiences some difficulties in finding conspecific mating partners, thus eventually raising the introgressed haplotypes to relatively high frequencies on the 31 32 invasion front. Subsequent demographic expansion of these initially rare colonisers could further 33 amplify this effect, potentially driving the introgressed genes to high frequencies ahead of the 34 invasion front. This expansion process is likely to leave a trace on the coalescent. This scenario appears plausible to explain the introgression in L. granatensis, in which we observe these two 35 predicted patterns, high frequency of introgressed haplotypes and a star-like coalescent. The fact 36 37 that the introgressed haplotypes do not form monophyletic groups but are intermingled with 38 lineages found in other distant populations shows that several independent hybridizations have 39 occurred on this front of replacement of L. timidus by L. granatensis.

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41 Our data on L. europaeus seem to indicate a shared history of introgression with L. granatensis since representatives of the same lineages are found in both species. However, although it is quite 42 43 clear that L. granatensis has always been in the Iberian Peninsula, to which it is endemic, the brown hare is thought to have arrived to Western Europe after the last glacial maximum, based on 44 45 palaeontological and molecular data (Lopez-Martinez 1980; Pierpaoli et al. 1999). Did L. europaeus reach Iberia before L. timidus had disappeared, and replace it in the Pyrenean foothills, just as L. 46 47 granatensis did further south? This is not certain. If alternatively we suppose that it arrived in Iberia after L. timidus went extinct there, then it must have hybridized with L. timidus before reaching 48

1 Iberia. This is conceivable since it must have cut across, or come close to, the range of L. timidus on 2 its way. In Sweden, native L. timidus hybridize with introduced L. europaeus (Thulin et al. 1997b; 3 Thulin & Tegelström 2002), and such crosses are also observed in captivity (Gustavsson & Sundt 4 1965). In both cases mating occurs only in the direction required to account for the observed 5 introgression, i.e. L. timidus females with L. europaeus males. However, recently, reciprocal 6 transfer of mtDNA between these two species was described in Russia (Thulin et al. 2006) and the Alps (Suchentrunk et al. unpublished data). L. europaeus could also have borrowed its alien 7 8 mtDNA from L. granatensis after or during its arrival in Iberia, and after the extinction of L. 9 timidus. Two introgressed haplotypes are shared by these two Iberian species and suggest exchanges between them. Recently Estonba et al. (2006), using microsatellites, could not find any 10 sign of hybridization between L. granatensis and L. europaeus. However, a reduced number of 11 specimens (19 L. granatensis and 39 L. europaeus) was analysed in this work and the contact area 12 was not comprehensively sampled. Further, our preliminary data also using microsatellites (to be 13 published elsewhere) clearly demonstrate ongoing hybridization between these species in the 14 Pyrenean foothills. The introgressed haplotypes of group A found in L. europaeus are in fact quite 15 close to those in L. granatensis. However some of those in group B are not, thus making it more 16 17 doubtful that L. granatensis be the sole source of L. timidus haplotypes in L. europaeus.

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20 The time-frame of the demographic events

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22 The estimates of time-frame that we propose for the demographic events rely on a number of 23 approximations. A first and strong assumption is that mtDNA diversity mostly reflects purely 24 demographic processes. However, a recent meta-analysis of animal mtDNA variation (Bazin et al. 25 2006) has shown a lack of relationship between population size and nucleotide diversity for mtDNA, and given evidence that this is the result of recurrent selective sweeps on mtDNA, as 26 27 predicted and modelled by Gillespie (2000, 2001). Our demographic inferences would clearly be 28 invalidated if such events occurred in the recent history of L. timidus. A second approximation was 29 to extrapolate by simple proportionality the rate of substitution of the Cytb, calibrated by Pierpaoli 30 et al. (1999), to the CR. It is known that the CR has several mutational hotspots and thus mutations 31 are more likely to be superimposed over log timescales (Sigurðardóttir et al. 2000). A third 32 approximation was to take the rate of evolutionary substitution thus determined as an estimate of the 33 mutation rate. It has been broadly observed that rate estimates obtained from population-level 34 studies are generally higher that those obtained in phylogenetic (species-level) studies (Sigurðardóttir et al. 2000; Ho et al. 2005). Ho et al. (2005) show that the relationship between the 35 age of calibration and the rate of change can be described by a vertically translated exponential 36 37 decay curve, concluding that for timescales less than about 1-2 Myr the application of phylogenetic 38 substitution rates lead to overestimate the divergence times. If we take, for example, the average pdistance between groups A and B in L. granatensis, 0.031, which using our rate means 196 000 39 years of divergence, and apply the correction suggested by Ho et al. (2005) both for CR and Cytb, 40 41 we obtain a 2 to 3-fold decrease in the divergence times (85 000 and 62 000 years respectively). Of course this is just indicative of the potential quantitative effect of this phenomenon, since the 42 43 correction proposed by Ho et al. (2005) is based on primate data, but this suggests that both the L. timidus demographic expansion and the introgression in Iberia could be more recent than we 44 estimated. In Iberia some fossil records of L. timidus are as recent as 17 000 to 10 000 years BP 45 46 (Altuna 1970; Sesé 2005). However, these data are scarce and there is great uncertainty in distinguishing Lepus species on the basis of palaeontological records (see Sesé 2005). The fossil 47 record is much better for other arctic species such as the grouse (Lagopus mutus), and a comparison 48

can help us reconstruct the history of *L. timidus* in Iberia. The rich grouse fossil record shows it was very abundant in the North of the Iberian Peninsula during the Upper Pleistocene and maintained populations there during the several glacial and interglacial periods (Tyrberg 1995). Interestingly, its present distribution worldwide is strikingly similar to that of *L. timidus*, the only major difference being that it is still present in Northern Iberia, in some parts of the Pyrenees. Therefore it is plausible that the contact and hybridization between *L. granatensis* and *L. timidus* remained until the Holocene.

- 7 the holoc
- 10 Conclusion

We have clearly made significant progress in our understanding of the history of L. timidus and of the spectacular introgression of its mitochondria in the Iberian Peninsula in this study. The observed data are compatible with a scenario of competitive expansion and replacement of a cold adapted species by a better adapted species during a climatic change. The scenario is coherent in terms of geographical and time scales, at least in the case of L. granatensis. The extension of the same scenario to L. europaeus remains somewhat uncertain, but the fact that the phenomenon occurred in both species and to a certain extent also in L. castroviejoi (which we have not discussed in detail due to the limited sampling) should still invite us to consider the hypothesis that selection could have favoured this massive introgression. At the present time this idea appears difficult to test using solely the available data, because selection is expected to leave the same kind of trace on the coalescent as the demographic processes that we put forward and that appears plausible. If mtDNA introgression is neutral, one expects to observe the same consequences of these demographic processes on the coalescent of the aboriginal mtDNA lineages and the nuclear genes of the introgressed populations as was seen on the introgressed lineages. This will be the object of future work

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13 Figure Legends

Fig. 1 – Species ranges of *L. granatensis*, *L. europaeus*, *L. castroviejoi* and *L. timidus* in Eurasia according to Flux & Angermann (1990) and Mitchell-Jones *et al.* (1999). Sample locations are shown (see also Table 1).

18

Fig. 2 – Median-Joining network of the haplotypes found in *L. timidus* and introgressed in the
 Iberian hare species. Branches are generally proportional to the number of differences between
 haplotypes. Dots on branches indicate the mutational steps when more than 1.

22

Fig. 3 – Observed (bars) and expected (solid lines) mismatch distributions of: a) *L. timidus* haplotypes; b) introgressed *L. granatensis* haplotypes; c) *L. granatensis* introgressed Group A

25 haplotypes; d) L. granatensis introgressed Group B haplotypes; e) introgressed L. europaeus

26 haplotypes; f) L. europaeus introgressed Group A haplotypes; g) L. europaeus introgressed Group

27 B haplotypes. Values of the expansion parameters are shown when sudden population expansion

assumption was not rejected.

Species	No.	Code	Locality	п	Haplotypes			
	Iberian Peninsula							
gra	1	IBGRA	Iberian Peninsula	183	i1 to i67			
eur	2	IBEUR	Iberian Peninsula	70	i9, i66, i68 to i76			
cas	3	IBCAS	Cantabrian Mountains	1	i77			
	North	iern Europ	е					
tim	4	SWE	Sweden	20	t1 to t20			
	5	NOR	Norway	3	t21 to t23			
	6	FIN	Finland	6	t24 to t29			
	7	SCO	Scotland	15	t30 to t36			
	8	IRE	Ireland	3	t37 to t39			
	Alps							
	9	FRA	France	3	t40 to t42			
	10	SWI	Switzerland	3	t43, t44			
	11	AUS	Austria	3	t45			
	12	ITA	Italy	38	t40, t41, t46 to t63			
	Eastern Europe							
	13	URA	Urals	3	t64 to t66			
	14	RUS	Western Russia	1	t67			
	Eastern Russia							
	15	AMU	Amurskaya territory	4	t68 to t71			
	16	KAM	Kamchatka Peninsula	4	t72 to t74			
	17	KOL	Kolyma river basin	7	t75 to t81			
	18	MAG	Magdan city	5	t82 to t84			
	19	PRI	Primorve territory	3	t85 to t87			
	20	YAK	Yakutsk city	3	t88 to t90			

Table 1: Sampled species, sample localities, their size (n) and the haplotypes detected in each locality.

gra: L. granatensis; eur: L. europaeus; cas: L. castroviejoi; tim: L. timidus

Group	ni	nh	h	πฺ (%)	$\theta(s)$ per site (%)	Tajima's D	Fu's <i>Fs</i>	Growth rate
Iberian species								
gra, eur and cas	254	77	0.974 (0.003)	1.9 (0.9)	1.7 (0.4)	-	-	-
gra	183	67	0.978 (0.003)	1.8 (0.9)	1.7 (0.4)	-	-	-
eur	70	11	0.820 (0.026)	1.7 (0.8)	1.0 (0.3)	-	-	-
gra, lineage A	103	34	0.963 (0.006)	0.7 (0.4)	1.2 (0.3)	-1.43	-7.95	152.9 (50.8)†
gra, lineage B	80	33	0.946 (0.013)	0.6 (0.3)	1.0 (0.3)	-1.30	-12.07*	232.2 (52.3)†
eur, lineage A	37	4	0.673 (0.050)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	-0.05	0.44	611.4 (1035.2)
eur, lineage B	33	7	0.587 (0.096)	0.6 (0.3)	0.5 (0.2)	0.31	4.71	-244.6 (108.9)
Native mountain	hare							
Total	124	90	0.991 (0.003)	2.3 (1.1)	2.9 (0.7)	-0.70	-23.86*	203.5 (15.0)†
Northern Europe	47	39	0.987 (0.009)	2.0 (1.0)	2.5 (0.7)	-0.73	-11.29*	143.1 (22.0)†
Alps	47	24	0.955 (0.015)	1.9 (1.0)	1.6 (0.5)	0.70	0.82	23.4 (30.8)
Eastern Europe	4	4	1.000 (0.177)	1.6 (1.1)	1.6 (0.9)	-0.17	0.95	288.6 (65.1)†
Eastern Russia	26	23	0.991 (0.013)	2.1 (1.1)	2.3 (0.8)	-0.32	-4.35	236.2 (27.2)†

Table 2: Estimates of sequence diversity, neutrality tests and growth rate in native *L. timidus* and in *L. granatensis*, *L. europaeus* and *L. castroviejoi* with *L. timidus* mtDNA haplotypes.

gra: *L. granatensis*; eur: *L. europaeus*; cas: *L. castroviejoi*; tim: *L. timidus*; ni = number of analysed individuals; nh = number of observed mtDNA haplotypes; h = haplotype diversity; π = nucleotide diversity; $\theta(s)$, computed from the number of segregating sites (Tajima 1983). Standard deviations (SD) are shown in brackets. The significant values are indicated by an asterisk. † indicates g > 3(SD).

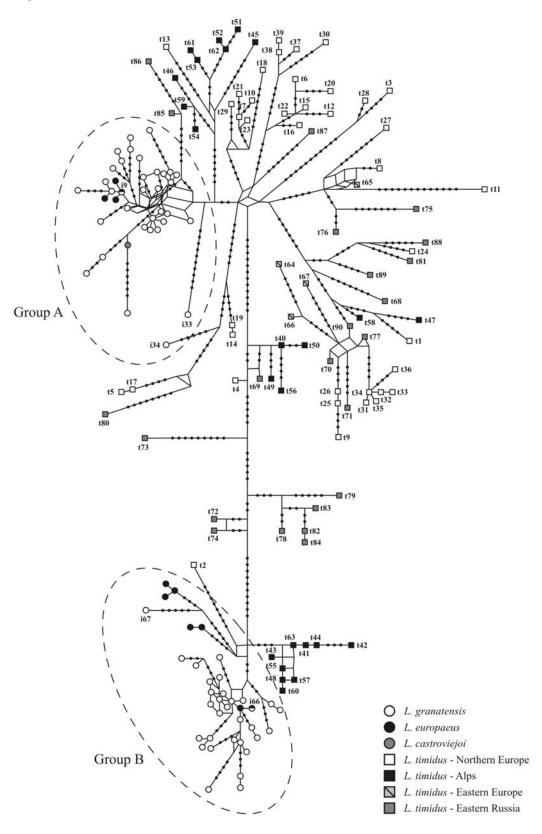
	SWE	FIN	SCO	ITA	AMU	KAM	KOL	MAG	IBPGRA
SWE									
FIN	0.052†								
SCO	0.337	0.312							
ITA	0.165	0.222	0.446						
AMU	0.094	-0.023†	0.307	0.232					
KAM	0.291	0.404	0.718	0.332	0.382†				
KOL	0.037†	0.020†	0.393	0.192	-0.024†	0.176†			
MAG	0.461	0.609	0.805	0.505	0.640	0.610	0.377		
IBPGRA	0.822	0.827	0.842	0.826	0.827	0.834	0.823	0.843	
IBPEUR	0.830	0.841	0.862	0.835	0.841	0.848	0.834	0.859	0.102

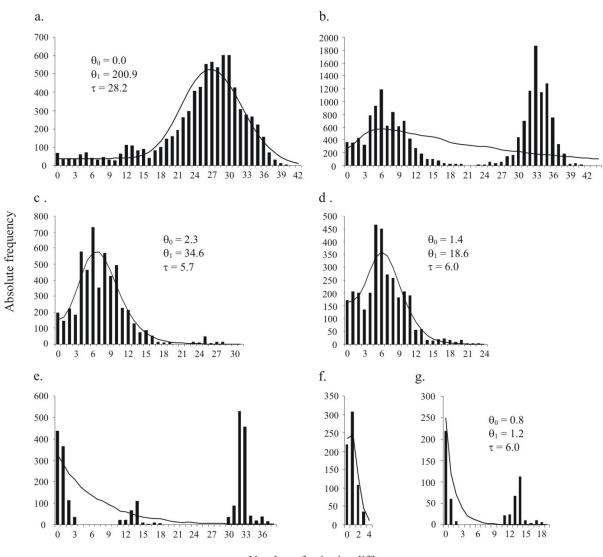
Table 3: Pairwise Φ_{ST} values for the populations († indicates values not significantly different from zero). See Table 1 for population codes. Only populations with sample size >= 4 individuals are shown.





Fig. 2:





Number of pairwise differences

1 Author Information Box

2

3 This work is part of a project on the evolutionary relationships in the genus *Lepus* and is also 4 included in the PhD thesis project of J Melo-Ferreira focused on phylogeography and patterns of introgression in hares. PC Alves is a researcher at CIBIO, University of Porto, and his main 5 research area is conservation genetics and evolution of Iberian mammals, particularly Lagomorphs. 6 7 P Boursot has general interests in molecular evolution, hybridization and speciation and his 8 favourite model is mice. F Suchentrunk has a long-term interest in the evolution of hares. N Ferrand 9 heads the CIBIO, University of Porto, and is interested in a variety of questions in evolutionary and 10 conservation genetics. E Randi is head of conservation biology and genetics at INFS. A Kryukov investigates natural hybridization, molecular phylogeny and phylogeography of birds, mammals and 11 12 amphibians.

- 13 14
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Appendix 17

- 18 Haplotypes with frequencies higher than 1:
- 19 Lepus granatensis: i1, 10; i2, 6; i4, 4; i5, 1; i6, 4; i7, 2; i8, 5; i9, 2; i10, 3; i11, 2; i12, 5; i15, 3; i16,
- 6; i17, 2; i18, 6; i19, 3; i20, 9; i22, 3; i23, 3; i24, 2; i25, 2; i26, 5; i27, 2; i30, 3; i36, 2; i37, 7; i40, 3; 20
- 21 i41, 3; i42, 4; i43, 3; i45, 11; i46, 2; i48, 3; i50, 2; i54, 4; i56, 2; i57, 12; i60, 2; i65, 2.
- Lepus europaeus: i9, 18; i68, 8; i69, 2; i70, 9; i72, 21; i73, 3; i74, 2; i75, 3; i76, 2; 22
- 23 *Lepus timidus*: t30, 2; t31, 4; t35, 2; t36, 4; t40, 2; t41, 2; t43, 2; t45, 3; t46, 7; t47, 2; t48, 3; t51, 2;
- t52, 5; t53, 4; t54, 2; t72, 2; t82, 2; t83, 2. 24