

A new integrated tool to investigate genetic differentiation and hybridization between hare species

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Abstract:

Biomolecular tools are widely employed in conservation genetics and wildlife management, as they provide essential information for assessing population status, guiding conservation strategies, and supporting management decisions. These tools are particularly effective in addressing a range of research questions, including the assessment of genetic variability, the characterization of population structure, individual identification, and the detection of hybridization events.

In this study, we applied a panel of 4,472 high-quality genome-wide Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) in 78 samples belonging to the species *Lepus corsicanus*, *Lepus timidus* and *Lepus europaeus*, with the aim of evaluating their diagnostic efficiency in species assignment and hybridization detection compared to a previously tested set of 13 microsatellite loci (STRs).

The results revealed strong concordance between SNPs and STRs, with no significant differences in their overall discriminatory power for species identification or detection of recent (F1) hybridization events. However, SNPs showed greater sensitivity in identifying recent backcrosses, a context in which STRs proved ineffective, making SNPs more suitable for detecting signals of introgression.

These findings confirm that, a relatively low-density panel of SNPs can enhance the robustness and precision of genetic assessments, particularly in taxa with complex evolutionary histories or in anthropogenically managed populations.

Keywords: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism, hybridization, *Lepus* spp, genotype by sequencing, microsatellite loci.

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A new integrated tool to investigate genetic differentiation and hybridization between hare species

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Running title: Investigating genetic differentiation and hybridization among hare species.

Abstract

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In this study, we applied a panel of 4,472 high-quality genome-wide Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) in 78 samples belonging to the species *Lepus corsicanus*, *Lepus timidus* and *Lepus europaeus*, with the aim of evaluating their diagnostic efficiency in species assignment and hybridization detection compared to a previously tested set of 13 microsatellite loci (STRs).

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These findings confirm that, a relatively low-density panel of SNPs can enhance the robustness and precision of genetic assessments, particularly in taxa with complex evolutionary histories or in anthropogenically managed populations.

Keywords: *Lepus* spp.; Genotype by Sequencing; Single Nucleotide Polymorphism; Hybridization, Microsatellite loci.

47 Introduction

48 Biomolecular analyses have been routinely employed in wildlife studies to gather insights into
49 phylogeny and phylogeography (Fritz et al. 2022; Lavergne et al. 2010; Riddle and Jezkova
50 2019), population structure (Lohay et al. 2020; Venables et al. 2021; Vonholdt et al. 2010),
51 hybridization (Iacolina et al. 2019; Leonard et al. 2014; Moroni et al. 2022), as well as parentage
52 and individual identification (Åkesson et al. 2022; Jan and Fumagalli 2016; Moran et al. 2021).
53 The advent of Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) has enabled researchers to analyse genomes
54 more cost-effectively compared to the traditional Sanger sequencing and has facilitated the
55 discovery of new polymorphisms to utilize in the study of natural populations and species.
56 Microsatellite loci are commonly used markers in forensic and conservation genetics due to their
57 high resolution in individual and parentage identification, as well as their strength in discovering
58 population substructure, admixture, or hybridization events (Padula et al. 2023; Russell et al.
59 2021; Štöhlková Putnová et al. 2021). Although fragment analysis protocols on first-generation
60 automated sequencers are relatively straightforward and produce ready-to-use data, they are
61 prone to several limitations, such as ambiguities in raw data interpretation and the necessity for a
62 calibration to ensure consistency across different laboratories. Unlike STRs, Single Nucleotide
63 Polymorphisms (SNPs), isolated after the genome-wide analysis, allow for reliable comparison
64 of data generated across different time periods and operators; they are widely distributed in both
65 coding and non-coding DNA regions and provide greater resolution for detecting admixture
66 events or fine-scale genetic structures (Andrews et al. 2021; Pérez-González et al. 2023;
67 Zimmerman et al. 2020).

68 Three hare species inhabit the Italian mainland: the Italian hare (*Lepus corsicanus*), the mountain
69 hare (*Lepus timidus*), and the European brown hare (*Lepus europaeus*). Unlike the first two
70 species, which are respectively restricted to southern and northern Italy, the European hare is
71 widely distributed across the entire peninsula (Pierpaoli et al. 2003).

72 Hybridization between mountain and European hares in nature has been widely documented
73 using a variety of genetic markers (Acevedo et al. 2015; Alves et al. 2003; Alves et al. 2006;
74 Jansson et al. 2007; Levänen et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2011; Marques et al. 2017b; Melo-Ferreira et
75 al. 2007). In contrast, no evidence of admixture between Italian and European hares has been
76 reported in the wild, despite their overlapping geographic ranges. An exception was observed in
77 Corsica, where three hare species (*Lepus corsicanus*, *L. europaeus*, and *L. granatensis*) coexist

81 78 due to extensive human-mediated reintroductions. Analysis of the transferrin gene in hunted
82 79 individuals (Pietri et al. 2011) identified a single *L. corsicanus* × *L. europaeus* hybrid. Given the
83 80 high degree of population management, this case was attributed to repeated large-scale releases
84 81 for hunting, which may have facilitated interspecific mating. No further analyses using additional
85 82 genetic markers (e.g., STRs or SNPs) have been conducted to verify the hybrid's genomic
86 83 composition. Using a STR panel, Mengoni et al. (2015) first reported a discordance between
87 84 mitochondrial and nuclear markers in two European hares collected in the Sila Mountains,
88 85 southern Italy, where brown hare releases have been documented. The mitochondrial DNA
89 86 (mtDNA) control region showed a haplotype typical of *Lepus corsicanus*, whereas the 13
90 87 microsatellite loci assigned both individuals to *L. europaeus* and showed no evidence of
91 88 admixture. As this pattern may reflect a non-recent hybridization event, the analysis of genome-
92 89 wide markers or functional loci could provide greater power to detect traces of introgression
93 90 from non-native lineages, including historical admixture events.

94 91 Most studies on hares relied on mtDNA, STRs and nuclear gene markers (Alves et al. 2008;
95 92 Fickel et al. 2005; Pietri et al. 2011; Pohjoismäki et al. 2021; Reid et al. 2022; Schai-Braun et al.
96 93 2024), whereas only a limited number have employed SNP-based approaches (Thulin et al. 2006;
97 94 Levänen et al. 2018; Michell et al. 2022). To date, no SNP panel has been specifically developed
98 95 and applied simultaneously to the three hare species occurring in Italy (mountain, brown, and
99 96 Italian hares) to jointly assess genetic differentiation and hybridization. Moreover, no
100 97 comparison of the efficiency of results obtained from SNPs and STRs has yet been performed for
101 98 these species.

102 99 To fill this gap and better investigate potential differences in assessing genetic differentiation and
103 100 detecting hybridization between the two marker types, we applied Genotyping-by-Sequencing
104 101 (GBS) technology to identify a panel of SNPs using a dataset of three hare species (*L.*
105 102 *corsicanus*, *L. timidus*, and *L. europaeus*). We then compared these results with those previously
106 103 obtained using the STR protocol to evaluate the relative efficacy of the two marker panels.
107 104 Specifically, our aims were to: i) compare the effectiveness of the two marker panels in
108 105 describing genetic variability and differentiation ; ii) use simulations to evaluate differences
109 106 between STRs and SNPs in resolving power for detecting hybridization events; iii) using SNP
110 107 markers, assess the presence of admixture in the two samples found by Mengoni et al. (2015)
111 108 exhibiting discordance between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes.

113 109

114 110 **Materials & Methods**115 111 *Sampling*

116 112 A total of 78 samples belonging to three hare species was selected from the study by Mengoni et
117 113 al. (2015): *L. corsicanus* (N = 29) from southern Italy, *L. europaeus* (N = 28) from Italy and
118 114 Austria, and *L. timidus* (N = 21) from Italy, Sweden, Ireland, Finland, and Scotland. Two
119 115 European hare individuals from that study (EUR547 and EUR549), which exhibited discordant
120 116 mitochondrial and nuclear DNA, were included in the dataset.

121 117 DNA was extracted using the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen), following the
122 118 manufacturer's protocol, and analysed at 13 autosomal microsatellite loci: Sat12 (Mougel et al.
123 119 1997), Lsa1, Lsa2, Lsa3, Lsa4, Lsa5, Lsa6, Lsa8 (Kryger et al. 2002), Sol33 (SurrIDGE et al.
124 120 1997), Sol 30, Ocelamb, Ocls1b, D7utri (Hamill et al. 2006), using the procedures described in
125 121 the respective references. Genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) was applied to the sample set to
126 122 identify polymorphic SNPs. GBS library preparation and sequencing were performed at the
127 123 Institute for Genomic Diversity (IGD), Cornell University, following the protocol described by
128 124 Elshire (2011). Full methodological details are provided in Supplementary Material SM1.

129 125

130 126 *Comparison of genetic variability based on STRs and SNPs*

131 127 Using STR genotypes, GenAlEx 6.5 (Peakall and Smouse 2012) was used to calculate the
132 128 number of alleles (Na), observed (Ho) and expected heterozygosity (He). Analysis of molecular
133 129 variance (AMOVA) and pairwise *Fst* values were respectively computed using the *poppr*
134 130 (Kamvar et al. 2014) and the *hierfstat* (Goudet 2005) packages, within the R environment.

135 131 Deviations from Hardy Weinberg were assessed using Genepop on the web
136 132 (<https://genepop.curtin.edu.au/>; Raymond and Rousset 1995).

137 133 Actually, the SNP dataset was processed using SNP & Variation Suite (SVS) 8.0.1 (Golden
138 134 Helix Inc., Bozeman, MT, USA). Only loci and samples with high genotyping rates (>90%) were
139 135 retained for further analyses. The filtered dataset was then pruned for linkage disequilibrium
140 136 (LD), removing loci with $r^2 > 0.5$, calculated using sliding windows of 50 SNPs. The resulting
141 137 dataset was exported from SVS and converted into binary files using PLINK v1.07 (Purcell et al.
142 138 2007) for downstream analyses.

144 139 Subsequently, the PLINK files were imported into the R environment and converted into *genind*
145 140 and *genlight* objects using the *data.table* (Lim and Qin 2016) and the *dartR* package (Gruber et
146 141 al. 2018), enabling compatibility with various population genetics analyses.

147 142 Departures from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium were assessed using PLINK, and average values
148 143 per population were calculated in R. Observed heterozygosity, analysis of molecular variance
149 144 (AMOVA), and pairwise *Fst* values were computed using the *hierfstat* and *poppr* packages,
150 145 respectively, within the R environment.

151 146 *Comparative analysis of STR and SNP power in detecting hare genetic differentiation*

152 147 For both STRs and SNPs, Discriminant Analyses of Principal Components (DAPC) were
153 148 conducted using the *adegenet* package (Jombart, 2008) in the R environment. The optimal
154 149 number of principal components (PCs) was determined with the *xvalDapc()* function,
155 150 considering a training set of 0.6 and 90 repetitions, while the most likely number of genetic
156 151 clusters was inferred using the *find.clusters()* function based on the Bayesian Information
157 152 Criterion (BIC).

158 153 Bayesian clustering analysis with STRs was carried out using STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al.
159 154 2000; Falush et al. 2007) with 100,000 MCMC iterations following a burn-in of 10,000
160 155 iterations. Analyses were conducted under both the admixture and no-admixture models,
161 156 assuming independent allele frequencies, and testing K values ranging from 1 to 8.

162 157 Maximum Likelihood clustering analysis with SNPs was performed using ADMIXTURE
163 158 version 1.3.0 (Alexander et al. 2009), testing K values from 1 to 8.

164 159 For both marker types, the most likely number of clusters was evaluated using StructureSelector
165 160 (<https://lmme.ac.cn/StructureSelector/>; Li and Liu 2018), and graphical visualization of
166 161 clustering results was carried out with CLUMPAK (Kopelman et al. 2015).

167 162 *F1, BC1, and BC2 hybrid simulations for admixture detection*

168 163
169 164
170 165 Using the original SNP and STR datasets of the three species, we simulated 20 individuals for
171 166 each of the following hybrid categories per species combination: first-generation hybrids (F1),
172 167 first-generation backcrosses (BC1_A and BC1_B), and second-generation backcrosses (BC2_A
173 168 and BC2_B), employing two custom Python scripts. Alleles were randomly drawn from the
174 169

parental species following Mendelian inheritance, producing simulated *multilocus* genotypes consistent with each hybrid class across all species combinations. The simulated hybrids, comprising a total of 15 genotype clusters, were then combined with the original three parental species and the two individuals showing discordance between mitochondrial and nuclear DNA, to generate separate SNP and STR datasets. These datasets were subsequently analysed using clustering and multivariate analyses to investigate potential signals of admixture. The number of tested K in clustering analyses was increased to 20 to account for the total number of pre-defined groups, following the procedures described in the precedent paragraph. Cluster population membership coefficients (Q) were evaluated to assess differences in cluster assignments. DAPC was conducted retaining the number of discriminant functions suggested by the `xvalDapc()` function, considering a training set of 0.6 and 90 repetitions.

Results

Generating STR and SNP datasets

A total of 78 samples were genotyped at 13 STRs, with 1.2% of loci remaining unassigned. All loci were polymorphic across the three species, except for *Lsa6*, which was monomorphic in *L. timidus*. Significant departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were detected within species, likely reflecting heterogeneity in sampling origin and collection periods.

A total of 15,140 SNPs were obtained from the GBS analysis. The raw dataset was subjected to quality filtering, including the removal of SNPs with more than 10% missing data, and pruning for linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 > 0.5$) using sliding windows of 50 SNPs. After these steps, 4,472 high-quality SNPs were retained for downstream analyses. Seven samples (five *L. europaeus* and two *L. corsicanus*) failed to amplify due to low DNA quality, reducing the final dataset to 71 individuals (*L. corsicanus*, N = 26; *L. europaeus*, N = 24; *L. timidus*, N = 21).

Genetic diversity from STR and SNP genotyping

In STRs, the number of alleles (N_a) was generally comparable among species (*L. europaeus* = $7,6 \pm 1.3$, *L. timidus* = $7,3 \pm 1.2$) although a slight but statistically significant lower value was found in *L. corsicanus* ($N_a = 5,1 \pm 1.0$). Allelic richness (A_r), calculated to account for differences in sample size, was significantly lower in *L. corsicanus* compared to both *L. europaeus* and *L.*

207 200 *timidus*. Genetic diversity indices, including observed (H_o) and expected heterozygosity (H_e),
208 201 are detailed in Table 1.

209 202 F_{st} comparisons were all significant, with the lowest differentiation observed between *L.*
210 203 *europaeus* and *L. timidus* ($F_{st} = 0.14$). The differentiation between *L. corsicanus* and the other
211 204 two species was higher, with F_{st} values of 0.37 and 0.32, respectively. The AMOVA results,
212 205 illustrated in the pie chart in Figure 1a, revealed substantial genetic differentiation among
213 206 species, accounting for 28.5% of the total variance and among individuals within the same
214 207 species (15.1%). However, the majority of genetic variation was found within individuals
215 208 (56.4%).

216 209 In SNPs, the percentage of polymorphic loci varied among species, with *L. corsicanus* showing
217 210 the lowest polymorphism (26.5%), *L. europaeus* the highest (80.8%), and *L. timidus* an
218 211 intermediate value (54.1%). Correspondingly, expected (H_e) and observed heterozygosity (H_o)
219 212 were highest in *L. europaeus* (Table 1).

220 213 Unlike STR analyses, SNP-based results showed a slightly lower F_{st} between *L. corsicanus* and
221 214 *L. timidus* ($F_{st} = 0.12$), with nearly identical differentiation observed between *L. corsicanus* and
222 215 *L. europaeus* ($F_{st} = 0.13$) and between *L. europaeus* and *L. timidus* ($F_{st} = 0.13$). The AMOVA
223 216 pie chart (Figure 1b) indicated that most genetic variation was found within individuals (67.1%),
224 217 although a notable proportion (10.6%) was attributed to differences among species.

226 219 *Genetic differentiation from STR and SNP analysis in parental species*

227 220 In STRs, Factorial Correspondence Analysis (FCA; Figure SM2) and Discriminant Analysis of
228 221 Principal Components (DAPC; Figure 2a) yielded concordant results, indicating a closer genetic
229 222 relationship between *L. timidus* and *L. europaeus*.

230 223 The *adegenet* analysis identified three distinct genetic clusters with no signs of admixture or
231 224 sample misassignment. The lowest Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) value was obtained for
232 225 $K = 3$, although a smaller peak was also observed at $K = 2$. At this lower cluster number, *L.*
233 226 *europaeus* and *L. timidus* grouped together (see Figure SM3).

234 227 The optimal number of clusters identified by the Bayesian analysis was $K = 3$, regardless of
235 228 whether admixture or no-admixture models were used (Figure 3d, e). When considering $K = 2$
236 229 (Figure 3a, b), the primary division separated *L. corsicanus* from the other two species.

238 230 In SNPs, DAPC and PCA analyses showed concordant separation among individuals of the three
239 231 species (Figure 2b; Figure SM4). The *adegenet* analysis identified three main genetic clusters
240 232 corresponding to the species; however, when considering only two clusters, *L. corsicanus* and *L.*
241 233 *timidus* grouped together (Figure SM3).

242 234 Bayesian analysis also identified three main genetic clusters (Figure 3f). Analysing the first split
243 235 at $K = 2$, *L. corsicanus* and *L. timidus* clustered together (Figure 3c).

244 236

245 237 *Analysis of admixture using parental species, F1 BC1 and BC2 hybrids*

246 238 Bayesian clustering analyses based on STRs confirmed $K = 3$ as the most likely number of
247 239 genetic clusters when analysing the combined datasets of parental species, F1, BC1, and BC2
248 240 hybrids. Results showed a failure in correctly assign BC2 hybrids, highlighting a low
249 241 discriminatory power of STR markers for detecting advanced-generation hybrids. The highest
250 242 component values ranged from 0.864 to 0.941 and the lower from 0.042 to 0.114. In four
251 243 combinations (BC2A_Lco-Leur, BC2A_Lco-Lti, BC2B_Lco-Lti, and BC2A_Leur-Lti), the
252 244 minor membership component remained below 10%. Detailed assignment results are reported in
253 245 Table 2.

254 246 Using the SNP dataset, the best clustering was also found at $K=3$, although the CV value
255 247 continued to decrease slightly in all subsequent clusters; all parental and hybrids individuals
256 248 were correctly assigned to their respective clusters, with high resolution and accuracy. No
257 249 misassignments were recorded.

258 250 In particular, BC2 individuals showed values ranging from 0.878 to 0.893 for the greater genetic
259 251 component, and from 0.107 to 0.121 for the lowest genetic component. Detailed assignment
260 252 results are reported in Table 2.

261 253 In DAPC, the SNP-based scatterplot revealed clear and well-separated clusters for all categories,
262 254 including parental species and hybrids across F1, BC1, and BC2 generations, demonstrating the
263 255 high resolution of SNP markers in detecting both recent and older hybridization events (Figure
264 256 4). In contrast, the STR-based scatterplot showed substantial overlap between BC2 hybrids and
265 257 parental species, limiting the ability to accurately identify more advanced-generation hybrids and
266 258 highlighting the lower discriminatory power of STR markers for detecting non-recent admixture
267 259 (Figure 4).

269 260 In the STR and SNP analyses, the two hares with discordant mitochondrial and nuclear DNA
270 261 (EUR547 and EUR549, collected in the Sila Mountains, southern Italy) were associated with
271 262 European hare clusters.

273 264 Discussion

274 265 In this study, we identified, for the first time, a panel of SNPs using Genotyping-by-Sequencing
275 266 (GBS) and compared the results obtained from these markers with those previously obtained
276 267 from STRs (Mengoni et al., 2015) to evaluate their relative power in describing the genetic
277 268 variability and differentiation among the three hare species occurring in Italy (*L. corsicanus*, *L.*
278 269 *europaeus*, and *L. timidus*). Of particular interest was the evaluation of their effectiveness in
279 270 detecting recent hybrids and interspecific backcrosses, allowing a more detailed investigation of
280 271 Italian samples identified by Mengoni et al. (2015) that exhibited discordance between
281 272 mitochondrial and nuclear DNA.

282 273

283 274 *Comparison of SNP and STR markers for detecting species differentiation*

284 275 Results obtained from Genome-wide SNP and STRs analysis were fully concordant in
285 276 identifying genetic differentiation among the three hare species.

286 277 Fst and AMOVA results were also consistent across marker types, indicating a strong genetic
287 278 differentiation among species, despite a substantial proportion of genetic variance being
288 279 attributed to variation within individuals (56.4% for STRs and 67.1% for SNPs).

289 280 No differences in genetic differentiation were detected in the Bayesian clustering analyses at the
290 281 optimal value of $K = 3$, as all three species were clearly separated. However, differences
291 282 emerged at $K = 2$, where the clustering patterns diverged depending on the type of markers.
292 283 Specifically, the STR-based analysis grouped *L. europaeus* with *L. timidus*, whereas the SNP-
293 284 based analysis clustered *L. corsicanus* with *L. timidus*.

294 285 The phylogenetic relationships proposed by Pierpaoli et al. (1999) and subsequently confirmed
295 286 by genomic analyses (Ferreira et al. 2021) supported a higher genetic similarity between *L.*
296 287 *corsicanus* and *L. timidus*, whereas *L. europaeus* clustered with other *Lepus* species.

297 288 The discrepancy observed between STR- and SNP-based analysis may reflect intrinsic
298 289 differences in marker performance, which can be explained by the distinct mutational dynamics
299 290 and evolutionary properties of STRs compared to SNPs. Microsatellite loci used in this study

291 were originally developed and characterized in *Oryctolagus cuniculus* (Korstanje et al. 2001;
292 Mougél et al. 1997; Surridge et al. 1997; Van Haeringen et al. 1996) and, to a lesser extent, in
293 *Lepus saxatilis* (Kryger et al. 2002). As such, their transferability across different *Lepus* spp. may
294 be limited by mutation-driven homoplasy and locus-specific biases (Estoup et al. 2002; Smith et
295 al. 2007).

296 In contrast, the SNPs analysed in this study were identified through GBS in the target species,
297 ensuring a higher level of informativeness and species-specific relevance. Homoplasy, which has
298 been widely reported in STR analyses due to their high mutation rates and multiallelic nature
299 (Estoup et al. 2002), may contribute to misleading signals of genetic similarity. Moreover, SNPs,
300 given their lower mutation rates and abundance across the genome, are generally more effective
301 in resolving deeper evolutionary relationships (Morin et al. 2004). These factors likely account
302 for the discordant clustering patterns observed between the two marker types at $K = 2$.

303 Several studies involving different species support the findings of the present work and reinforce
304 the conclusion that results obtained from STR and SNP markers are often congruent. This
305 concordance has been reported in *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha* (Chinook salmon, Narum et al.
306 2008), *Salmo salar* (Atlantic salmon, Glover et al. 2010), West African cattle (Álvarez et al.
307 2021), as well as in various sheep and cattle breeds (Laoun et al. 2020).

308 Nevertheless, despite this general agreement, there is also growing evidence that SNPs offer
309 superior resolution compared to STRs when differentiating populations at a fine geographic or
310 demographic scale. Notable examples include studies on population of Gunnison sage-grouse
311 (*Centrocercus minimus*, Zimmerman et al. 2020) and northern pike (*Esox lucius*, Sunde et al.
312 2020), where SNPs outperformed STRs in detecting subtle patterns of genetic structure.

314 *Simulation of hybrids and introgression events between hare species*

315 Using the pure species genotypes, we generated simulated datasets from both SNPs and STRs
316 including 20 individuals for each hybrid class (F1, BC1_A, BC1_B, BC2_A, BC2_B) resulting
317 in 15 groups with a total of 300 individuals. The analysis provided preliminary evidence that
318 SNPs outperform STRs in detecting hybridization, especially in backcrosses with parental
319 species. STRs were unable to identify BC2 hybrids, whereas SNPs provided a clearer signal of
320 non-recent hybridization events. Furthermore, SNP-based assignment membership coefficients
321 (Q) closely reflected the expected genomic proportions across the various hybrid categories.

333 322 Microsatellite loci (STRs), although widely used and effective in detecting recent hybridization
334 323 and admixture events (Barilani et al. 2007; Iacolina et al. 2019; Leo and Millien 2017), are
335 324 inherently constrained by their relatively low number—typically fewer than 20–30 markers—and
336 325 their representation of only small genomic regions. As a result, they may lack the sensitivity
337 326 required to detect older or more cryptic introgression patterns, especially those diluted by
338 327 successive generations of backcrossing. In contrast, Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs)
339 328 provide a far more comprehensive and fine-scale view of the genome. Being abundant and
340 329 distributed across both coding and non-coding regions, SNPs have proven more effective in
341 330 revealing subtle population structure, detecting minor introgressed genomic segments, and
342 331 identifying signatures of past hybridization (Lavretsky et al. 2015; Spinks et al. 2014).

343 332

344 333 *Hybridization and introgression events between hare species*

345 334 In this study, we gained further insight into the absence of admixture between sampled *L.*
346 335 *corsicanus* and *L. europaeus*. The first compelling evidence supporting the absence of
347 336 admixture, based on the analysis of 15 microsatellite loci, was reported by Mengoni et al. (2015).
348 337 Notwithstanding this information, the authors were the first to highlight a notable incongruence
349 338 between mitochondrial and nuclear DNA in two individuals morphologically attributable to *L.*
350 339 *europaeus*. This incongruence—where individuals exhibited skull morphology and nuclear
351 340 genotypes consistent with *L. europaeus* but carried mitochondrial haplotypes typically associated
352 341 with *L. corsicanus*—points toward a likely case of mitochondrial introgression. Such
353 342 introgression events may result from non-recent hybridization episodes followed by repeated
354 343 backcrossing with the parental species, leading to the long-term retention of mitochondrial DNA
355 344 from one species within the nuclear genomic background of another. The SNPs data also
356 345 confirmed the absence of recent hybridization in samples EUR547 and EUR549 and the
357 346 concordance between the two marker systems reinforces the hypothesis of genetic isolation
358 347 between *L. corsicanus* and *L. europaeus* at the nuclear level. Nevertheless, the recovery of
359 348 discordant mitochondrial haplotypes suggests that interspecific hybridization may have occurred
360 349 in the past and that reproductive incompatibility does not entirely prevent gene flow between
361 350 these species.

362 351 Hybridization and introgression are frequent throughout the genus *Lepus*, involving both past
363 352 and recent events, and represent important evolutionary drivers for this group (Acevedo et al.

2012; Acevedo et al. 2015; Alves et al. 2003; Ashrafzadeh et al. 2018; Ferreira et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2011; Marques et al. 2017a; Marques et al. 2017b; Melo-Ferreira et al. 2012; Melo-Ferreira et al. 2014; Mengoni et al. 2015; Reid et al. 2022; Seixas et al. 2018).

In the genus *Lepus*, these historical processes also underlie recurrent genetic exchanges—both mitochondrial and nuclear—between closely related taxa and poorly differentiated lineages, resulting in a characteristic reticulated evolutionary pattern (Acevedo et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2011; Reid et al. 2022; Tolesa et al. 2017).

Analysis of whole exome sequences of 61.7 Mb from 15 *Lepus* species across the genus's broad geographic range by Ferreira et al. (2021) revealed repeated introgression events throughout the evolutionary history of the genus, both during its early radiation and more recently, including instances since the Last Glacial Maximum.

Focusing on the genetic differences between the two sister species *L. castroviejo* and *L. corsicanus*, Meira do Souto (2022) found that their genomic divergence was shaped by gene introgression into *L. castroviejo* from neighbouring species, particularly *L. granatensis* (the Iberian hare), as well as from *L. europaeus* and *L. timidus*.

Conversely, the values of excess allele sharing, $F_b(C)$, reported by Ferreira (2021), between *L. corsicanus* and *L. europaeus* support the absence of hybridisation also inferred in the present study.

An interesting aspect of hares EUR547 and EUR549—morphologically and genetically identified as *L. europaeus* through STR and SNP genotyping—is that they show no signs of recent hybridization, despite anthropogenic translocations of this taxon in Italy dating back to the last century. Notably, these individuals were collected in a mountainous area in far southern Italy, which may offer habitat conditions more ecologically suitable for *L. europaeus* than the typically Mediterranean environments.

No evidence of introgression was detected in the Italian peninsula also in this study, even when accounting for possible introgression from *L. europaeus* into *L. timidus* populations driven by recent habitat shifts associated with climate warming (Schai-Braun et al. 2024; Schai-Braun et al. 2023).

In the case of *L. europaeus*, this pattern may be partly explained by the extensive importation of individuals from other countries for hunting purposes, which could have contributed to the partial replacement of the native taxon.

384 In *L. corsicanus*, the absence of introgression may be related to the potential interposition of *L.*
385 *europaeus* between the distributions of *L. timidus* and *L. corsicanus*. This pattern likely reflects
386 differences in ecological niches, with *L. europaeus* occupying an intermediate position. Despite
387 these general considerations, it is important to emphasize that the sample size in this study was
388 very limited. Although SNPs have been shown to be more powerful in detecting hybridization, a
389 more comprehensive sampling strategy would be essential to confidently confirm the complete
390 absence of hybrids between *L. corsicanus* and *L. europaeus* in Italy.

392 *Conclusion*

393 This study provides new insights into the greater power of SNPs compared to STRs for detecting
394 admixture events and confirms the absence of hybridization between *L. corsicanus* and *L.*
395 *europaeus*, reinforcing earlier findings based on microsatellite (STR) markers that found no
396 nuclear evidence of admixture. However, the presence of *L. corsicanus* mitochondrial haplotypes
397 in two morphologically identified *L. europaeus* individuals suggests non-recent mitochondrial
398 introgression, likely due to historical hybridization followed by repeated backcrossing. Such
399 events are common within the genus *Lepus*, where both past and recent hybridization episodes
400 have shaped a complex evolutionary history. This is particularly evident in natural contact zones
401 or areas affected by *Lepus* spp. introductions, which have influenced species distributions and
402 the occurrence of hybridization, thereby promoting opportunities for both natural and
403 anthropogenically driven gene flow. Our finding suggests long-term reproductive isolation or the
404 presence of natural ecological or behavioural barriers preventing gene flow between these
405 species. The comparison between STR and SNP markers revealed a high degree of concordance
406 in identifying species boundaries, although preliminary SNPs analysis provided finer resolution
407 for detecting backcross hybridization events. The study is preliminary and was limited by the
408 relatively small number of samples collected across different areas and time periods. Broader
409 sampling, including non-invasive specimens, is therefore required to substantially improve the
410 resolution of the evolutionary histories of these closely related and intensively managed taxa,
411 while also enabling fine-scale monitoring in areas where species hybridization occurs. The
412 development of reduced SNP panels suitable for non-invasive genomics has recently been
413 advocated (Soi et al. 2026) as an effective tool to better characterize population genetic structure
414 and to investigate admixture processes potentially driven by habitat shifts associated with climate

429 415 warming. In this context, the present panel may provide a starting point for the definition of an
430 416 ad hoc tool for non-invasive genetic study aimed at improving our understanding of the short-
431 417 and medium-term dynamics of these species and their populations in rapidly changing
432 418 environments.

433 419

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440 426

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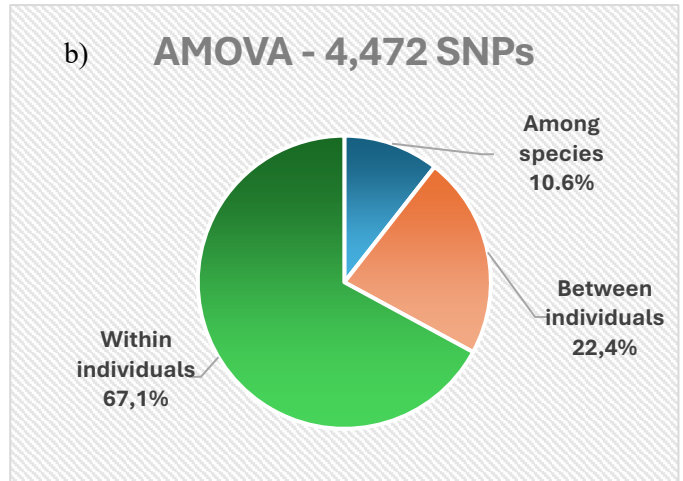
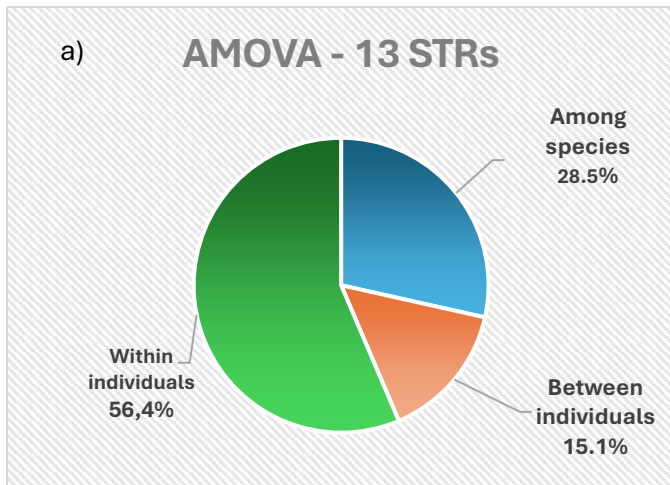
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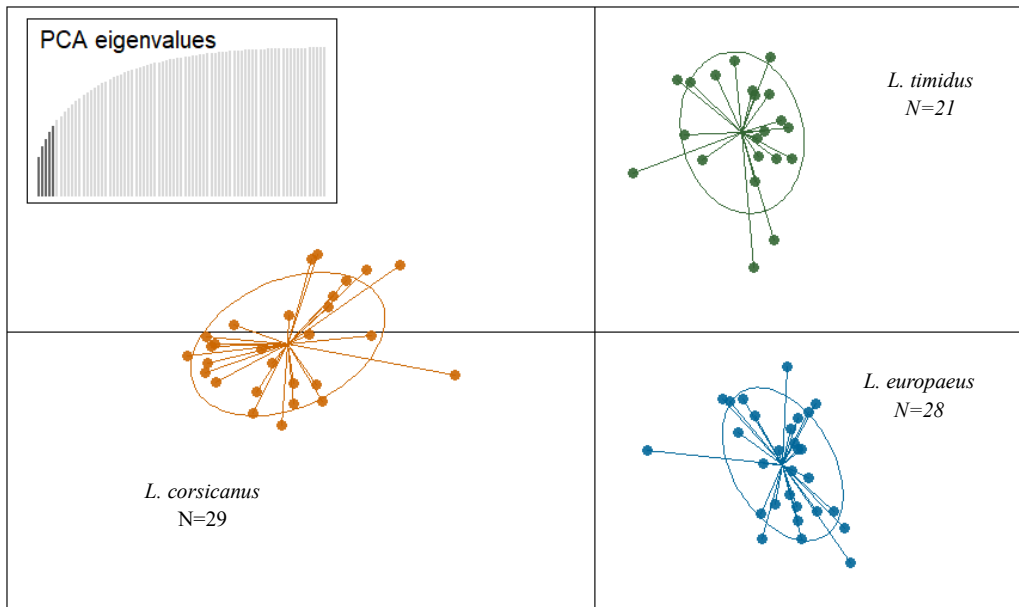
Species	13 STRs					4,472 SNPs			
	Na	Ar	Ho	He	P (%)	Na	Ho	He	P (%)
<i>L. corsicanus</i>	5.1±1.0	4.0±0.2	0,331±0,053	0,457±0,074	100	1,26±0.01	0,034±0,001	0,09±0,001	26,5
<i>L. europaeus</i>	7,6±1.3	6.6±0.2	0,587±0,058	0,671±0,056	100	1,81±0.01	0,182±0,002	0,200±0,001	80,8
<i>L. timidus</i>	7,3±1.2	6.9±0.2	0,486±0,067	0,702±0,067	92.3	1,54±0.01	0,103±0,002	0,130±,001	54,1

Table 2[Download DOCX \(20.61 kB\)](#)

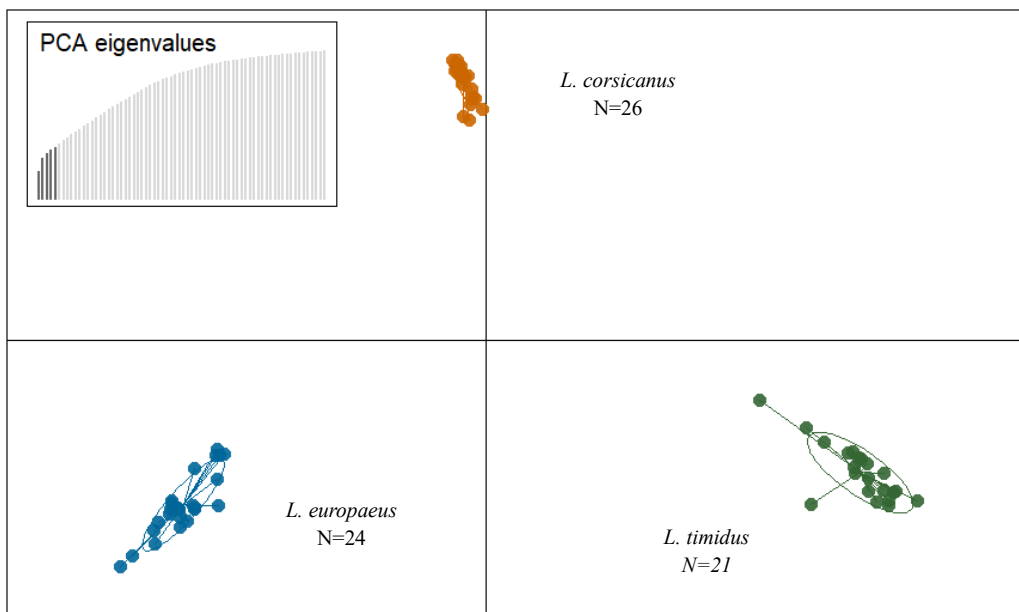
	STRs – STRUCTURE software (K=3)			SNPs – ADMIXTURE software (K=3)		
	<i>L. corsicanus</i>	<i>L. europaeus</i>	<i>L. timidus</i>	<i>L. corsicanus</i>	<i>L. europaeus</i>	<i>L. timidus</i>
<i>L. corsicanus</i>	0.978	0.011	0.011	1.000	0.000	0.000
<i>L. europaeus</i>	0.019	0.958	0.023	0.005	0.992	0.003
<i>L. timidus</i>	0.017	0.079	0.905	0.001	0.006	0.993
<i>F1_Lco_Leu</i>	0.526	0.450	0.024	0.499	0.501	0.000
<i>F1_Lco_Lti</i>	0.539	0.044	0.417	0.497	0.000	0.503
<i>F1_Leu_Lti</i>	0.020	0.543	0.436	0.000	0.490	0.510
<i>BC1A_Lco_Leur</i>	0.832	0.148	0.020	0.753	0.247	0.000
<i>BC1B_Lco_Leur</i>	0.240	0.732	0.027	0.247	0.753	0.000
<i>BC1A_Lco_Lti</i>	0.791	0.031	0.178	0.743	0.000	0.257
<i>BC1B_Lco_Lti</i>	0.234	0.022	0.744	0.228	0.000	0.772
<i>BC1A_Leur_Lti</i>	0.023	0.852	0.125	0.000	0.754	0.246
<i>BC1B_Leur_Lti</i>	0.016	0.254	0.730	0.000	0.239	0.761
<i>BC2A_Lco_Leur</i>	0.938	0.042	0.020	0.119	0.881	0.000
<i>BC2B_Lco_Leur</i>	0.114	0.864	0.022	0.885	0.115	0.000
<i>BC2A_Lco_Lti</i>	0.941	0.016	0.043	0.107	0.000	0.893
<i>BC2B_Lco_Lti</i>	0.090	0.022	0.887	0.883	0.000	0.117
<i>BC2A_Leur_Lti</i>	0.018	0.937	0.045	0.000	0.878	0.121
<i>BC2B_Leur_Lti</i>	0.014	0.113	0.873	0.000	0.118	0.882

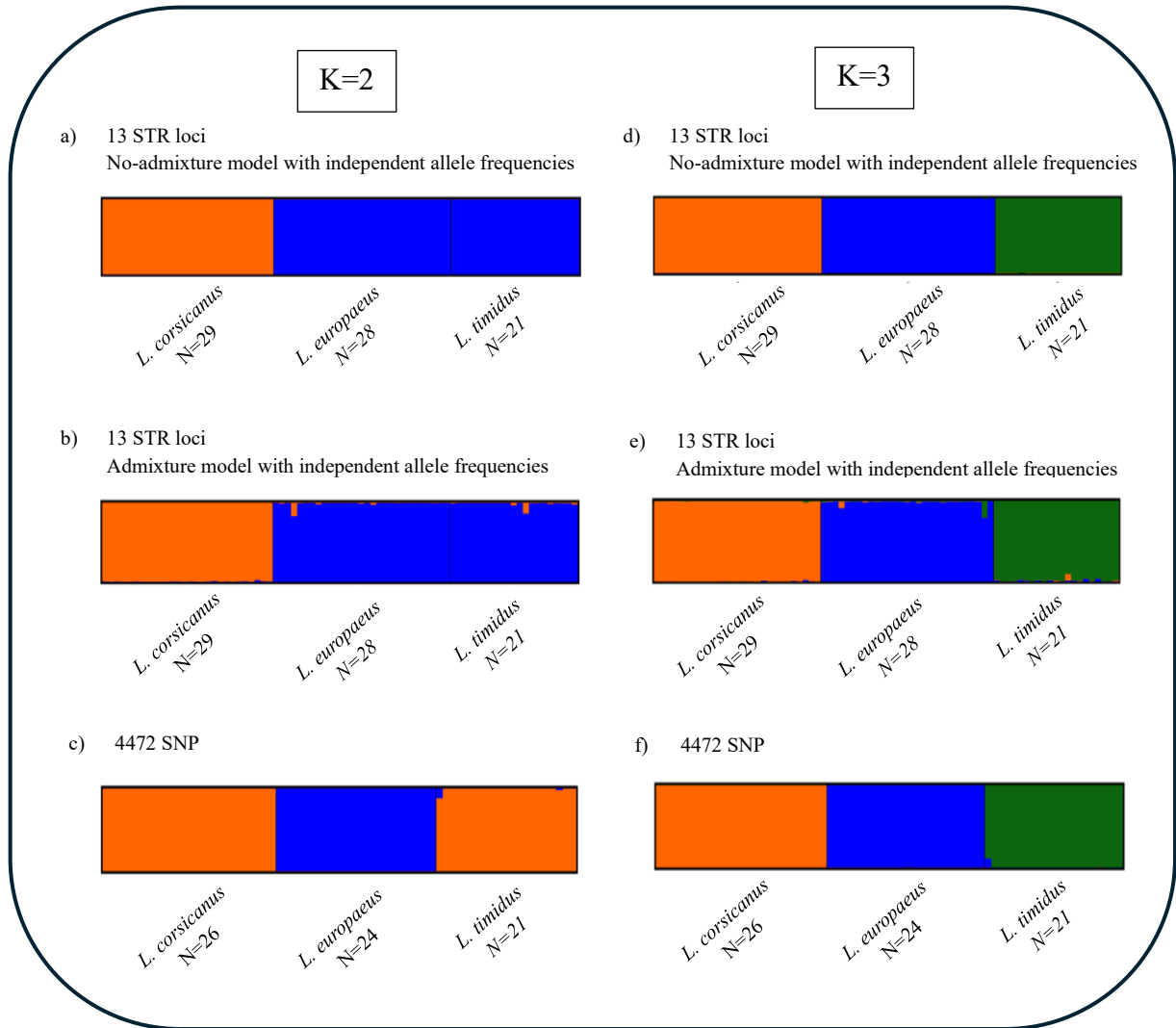


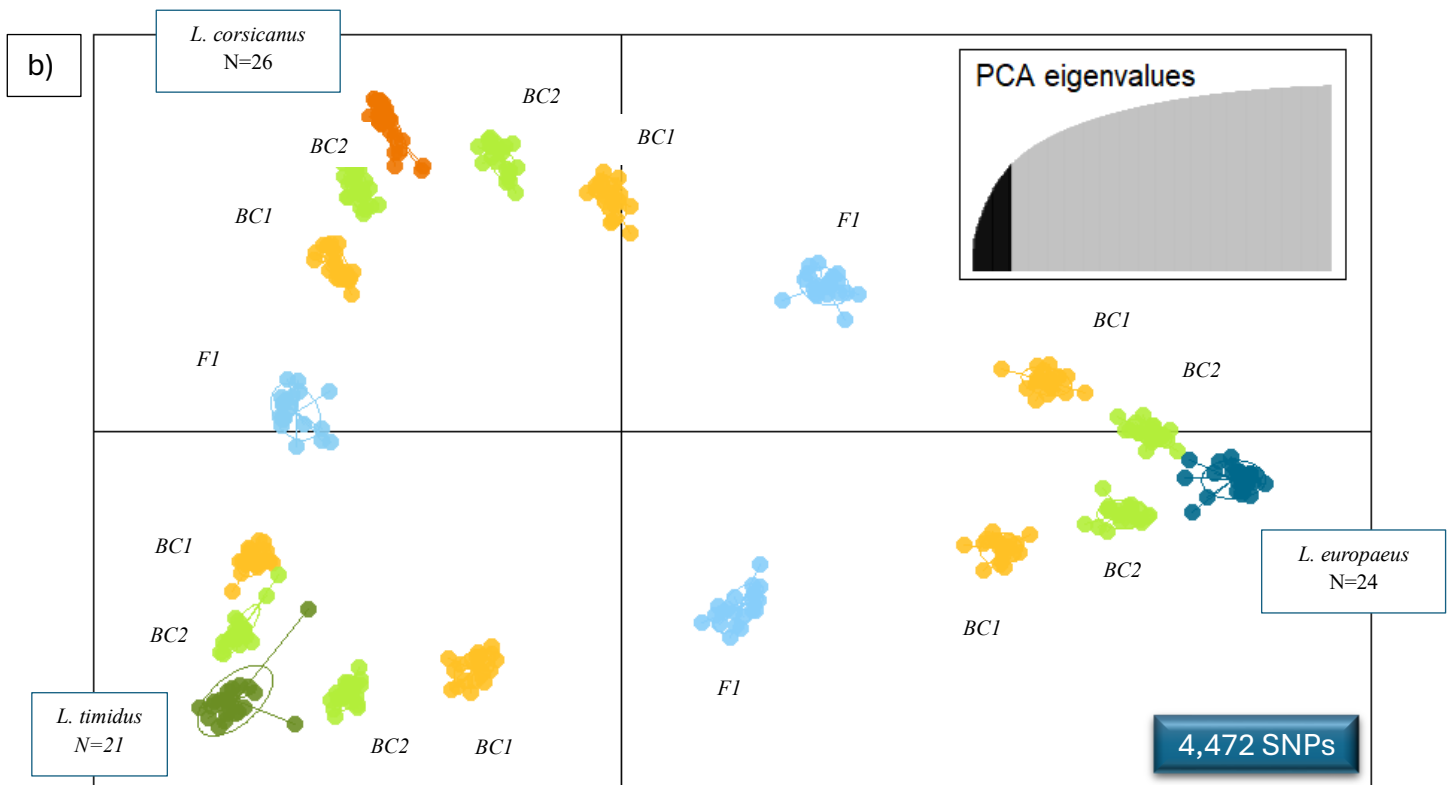
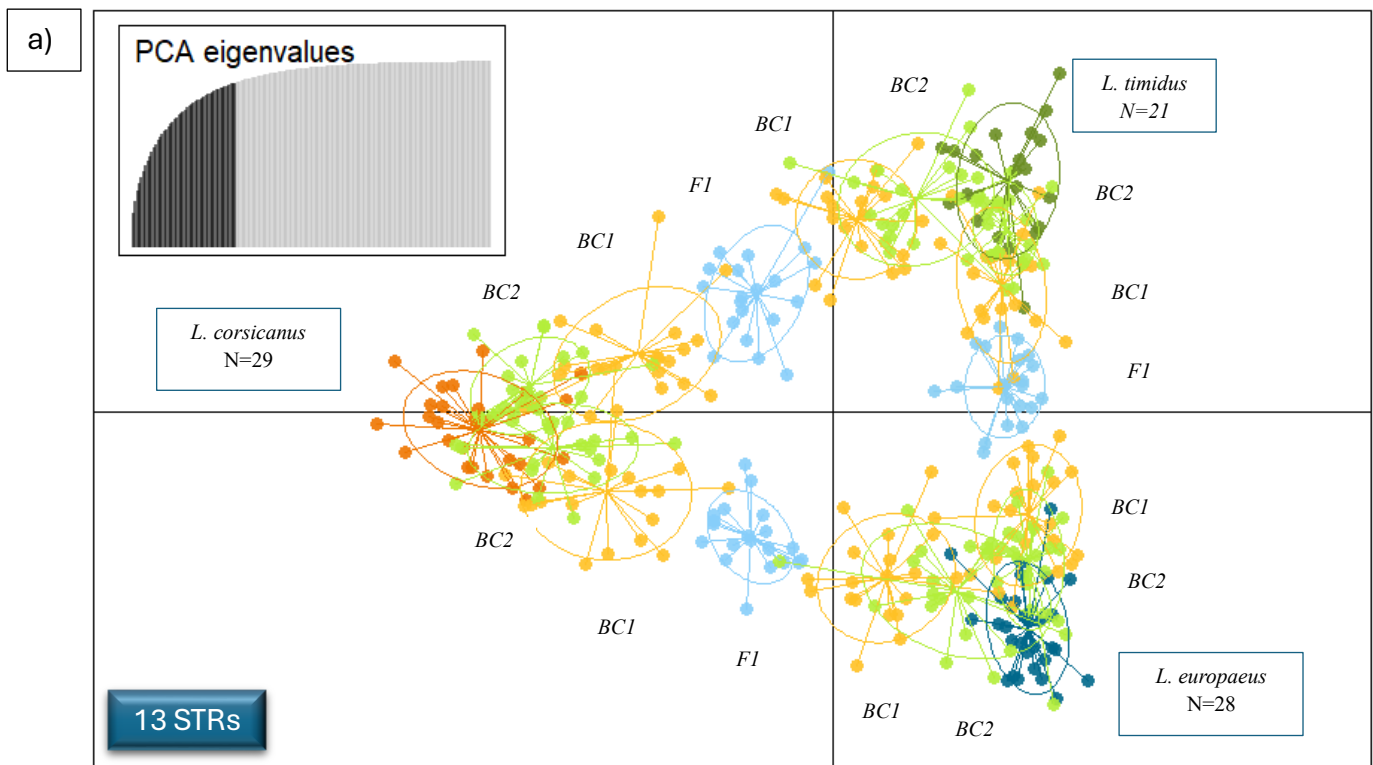
a)



b)







Manuscript body

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Tables

Table 1 - [Download source file \(15.76 kB\)](#)

Table 1. Indices of genetic variability in STRs and SNPs.

Na= Number of Alleles; Ar= Allelic richness; Ho= Observed heterozygosity; He= Expected heterozygosity; P%= Polymorphic loci; Standard errors are reported for Na, Ar, Ho, He. Differences between observed (Ho) and expected (He) heterozygosity were significant after a t-test.

Table 2 - [Download source file \(20.61 kB\)](#)

Table 2. Membership coefficients (Q values) inferred from STRs and SNPs

Membership coefficients (Q) of parental and hybrid classes inferred from STRUCTURE (STRs) and ADMIXTURE (SNPs) analyses at K=3. Highest membership coefficients for each cluster are shown in bold, whereas BC2 backcrosses lacking a membership component higher than 10% for either of the two species are underlined.

Figures

Figure 1 - [Download source file \(74.53 kB\)](#)

Figure 1. Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) based on two marker types.

a) AMOVA results for 78 individuals genotyped at 13 STR loci. b) AMOVA results for 71 individuals genotyped at 4,472 SNPs. The pie charts show the proportion of genetic variance partitioned among species (blue), between individuals within species (orange), and within individuals (green).

Figure 2 - [Download source file \(92.38 kB\)](#)

Figure 2. Comparison of genetic differentiation inferred from STR and SNP datasets.

a) Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) based on 78 individuals genotyped at 13 STR loci; b) Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) based on 71 individuals genotyped at 4,472 SNPs. In both analyses, three genetic clusters corresponding to *Lepus corsicanus*, *L. europaeus*, and *L. timidus* are identified. DAPC plots are based on 40 retained principal components and 2 discriminant functions. The percentage of explained variance is indicated on the axes.

Figure 3 - [Download source file \(209.74 kB\)](#)

Figure 3. Identification of the best genetic clustering. Visualization using StructureSelector.

a) STR-based analysis using STRUCTURE, assuming K = 2, under a no-admixture model with independent allele frequencies; b) STR-based analysis using STRUCTURE, assuming K = 2, under an admixture model with independent allele frequencies; c) SNP-based analysis using ADMIXTURE, assuming K = 2; d) STR-based analysis using STRUCTURE, assuming K = 3, under a no-admixture model with independent allele frequencies; e) STR-based analysis using STRUCTURE, assuming K = 3, under an admixture model with independent allele frequencies; f) SNP-based analysis using ADMIXTURE, assuming K = 3.

Figure 4 - [Download source file \(115.38 kB\)](#)

Figure 4. DAPC of genotypes from the three original species and their simulated counterparts.

Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) based on genotypes from three species and 15 classes of simulated hybrids (including F1, BC1, and BC2 clusters), using a) 13 STR loci and b) 4,472 SNPs. In both analyses, three genetic clusters corresponding to *Lepus corsicanus*, *L. europaeus*, and *L. timidus*, as well as clusters corresponding to the F1, BC1, and BC2 hybrid classes, are identified. The number of individuals for each parental species is indicated in brackets; no indication of sample size is provided for the simulated genotypes, as a total of 20 admixed individuals were generated for each hybrid class and combination. The percentage of explained variance is indicated on the axes.

Supplementary Online Material

[Download source file \(134.89 kB\)](#)