

1	ORIGINAL ARTICLE
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3	Evidence for niche similarities in the allopatric sister species Lepus castroviejoi and
4	L. corsicanus
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23 ABSTRACT

24	Aim Lepus castroviejoi and L. corsicanus are sister species with allopatric distributions
25	that share extensive phenotypic and genetic variation. Under the framework of niche
26	conservatism, we assessed whether these species have similar ecological niches, which
27	could provide insights on their mode of divergence, conservation, and taxonomic status.
28	Location The distribution range of L. castroviejoi, in the Northern Iberian Peninsula,
29	and of <i>L. corsicanus</i> in mainland Italy and Sicily.
30	Methods We developed spatially explicit ecological models to characterize the niches
31	of the species, modelling the individual species separately and together. Individual
32	models were transferred onto the territory of the sister species to explore their niche
33	relationships. Predictions were assessed in terms of discrimination and calibration in a
34	cross-assessment procedure.
35	Results The model trained for <i>L. castroviejoi</i> was not able to predict the range of <i>L</i> .
36	corsicanus. The model trained on <i>L. corsicanus</i> was able to discriminate the <i>L</i> .
37	<i>castroviejoi</i> distribution better than chance alone (AUC=0.814) but the reliability of the
38	predictions was limited. However, the model trained on L. corsicanus in Italy's
39	mainland (excluding range in Sicily), discriminated L. castroviejoi presences/absences
40	(AUC=0.788) and accurately predicted its probability of occurrence. Furthermore, a
41	well-calibrated model, which was able to discriminate the species distributions
42	(AUC=0.828 and AUC=0.956; for <i>L. castroviejoi</i> and <i>L. corsicanus</i> , respectively), was
43	obtained when species were considered together.
44	Main conclusions Our results suggest that L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus share
45	extensive niche properties, which reinforces their possible conspecific status. The
46	ecological niche of their ancestor may have resembled the present one in mainland Italy
47	since this model was able to accurately predict the distribution range of both species.

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- Finally, ecological evidences suggest that niche conservatism may explain the
- fragmentation of the distribution range of their ancestor, and thus may have been the
- driver of the initial stages of divergence.
- Keywords: allopatric speciation, Apennine Hare, Broom Hare, conservation
- biogeography, ecological niche, lagomorphs, macroecology, species distribution
- modelling.

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56 INTRODUCTION

57	The general tendency of species to maintain similar ecological requirements over
58	evolutionary time scales is commonly known as 'niche conservatism' (Peterson et al.,
59	1999; see also Wiens & Graham, 2005). However, whether species retain their
60	ecological niches throughout time is currently being highly debated (see e.g. Peterson,
61	2011). While some authors argued that speciation is not typically accompanied by
62	ecological innovation, i.e., niches are conserved (e.g. Peterson et al., 1999), others have
63	found evidence of the contrary (e.g. Graham et al., 2004; Schluter, 2009). The main
64	discrepancies among studies may derive from methodological artefacts (Warren et al.,
65	2008) and, to a certain extent, from the evolutionary age of the community (Losos et al.,
66	2003). Aside from the debate of whether niche conservatism exists, which should
67	probably be addressed in terms of identifying degrees of conservatism/divergence, the
68	concept of niche conservatism is highly valuable for evolutionary biology and
69	conservation biogeography; most importantly, it allows for the combination of inference
70	methods from both disciplines.
71	Among other topics in evolutionary biology and conservation biogeography, the
72	conceptual framework behind niche conservatism allows for the exploration of the
73	ecological relationships within and between phylogenetically related taxa (see Wiens &
74	Graham, 2005). Initial studies on this topic suggested that closely related species have
75	more similar niches (e.g. Peterson et al., 1999). However, some studies have examined
76	the degree to which niche similarities among taxa is a direct function of the
77	phylogenetic similarity, and have concluded that patterns of niche evolution beyond
78	sister taxa are inconsistent (Losos et al., 2003; Knouft et al., 2006; Kalkvik et al.,
79	2012). While some closely related taxa have widely divergent niches, other distantly
80	related taxa can maintain similar niches. Knouft et al. (2006) suggested that some

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81	species – the anole Anolis sagrei group – in a given territory are segregated by
82	environmental characteristics, and thus phylogenetically related species can be
83	ecologically distant due to disruptive ecological adaptation. In such cases, interspecific
84	interactions are stronger among closely related species, and niches tend to diverge from
85	that of near relatives (Losos et al., 2003). This is the expectation for parapatric species,
86	closely related taxa with separate but contiguous distributions without physical barriers
87	between them, which only co-occur in a narrow contact zone (Bull, 1991). Parapatric
88	species usually display divergent ecological niches, that are forced by asymmetric
89	competitive exclusion (Acevedo et al., 2012a), otherwise the distributions could tend to
90	coalesce (Bull & Possingham, 1995). Niche conservatism along phylogenetic trees
91	cannot therefore be considered a rule in nature, but it depends on whether the
92	divergence is caused by differential ecological adaptation. For example, niche
93	conservatism in allopatric sister species would imply little ecological differentiation
94	despite geographic separation, which can be tested empirically. Thus, integrating
95	phylogenetic and macroecological studies within the niche conservatism conceptual
96	framework allows the testing of different evolutionary hypothesis regarding the onset of
97	species divergence (e.g. Kozak & Wiens, 2006; Kalkvik et al., 2012).
98	The genus Lepus (hares) is a promising model for studying questions related to niche
99	conservatism. Hares are distributed worldwide and include over 30 presently recognized
100	species that are thought to have resulted from recent rapid radiation, presumably from
101	North America (Matthee et al., 2004; Melo-Ferreira et al., 2012). Many taxa have
102	parapatric distributions (e.g. Acevedo et al., 2012a), which occupy distinct ecological
103	niches even if they are phylogenetically closely related (Melo-Ferreira et al., 2012). On
104	the contrary, L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus display high morphological (Palacios,
105	1996) and genetic similarities (Alves et al., 2008a; Melo-Ferreira et al., 2012), but

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106	currently have allopatric ranges (Figure 1). While L. castroviejoi is endemic to the
107	Cantabrian Mountains in the Iberian Peninsula (Palomo et al., 2007), L. corsicanus is
108	endemic to the Italian Apennines and Sicily (Angelici & Luiselli, 2001; Angelici et al.,
109	2008), and it was rediscovered in Corsica (Scalera & Angelici, 2003; see also Pietri et
110	al., 2011). Furthermore, Melo-Ferreira et al. (2012) suggested that ancient hybridization
111	between the ancestors of L. castroviejoi-L. corsicanus and L. timidus, an arctic or boreal
112	taxa currently distributed in the northern Palaearctic, must have occurred. These events
113	led to the complete replacement of the original mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) variants
114	of L. castroviejoi-L. corsicanus by that of L. timidus, and explain the close genetic
115	similarity between the mtDNA haplotypes of L. timidus, L. corsicanus and L.
116	castroviejoi, which have been previously described (Alves et al., 2003; Wu et al.,
117	2005). The data suggest that L. corsicanus and L. castroviejoi are sister species which
118	have shared a very recent common ancestor during the Late Pleistocene.
119	In this work, we assessed whether L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus conserve similar
120	ecological niches, which could provide key insights on the mode of divergence,
121	ecological requirements, conservation, and taxonomic status of these species. The work
122	specifically tested whether the niche properties of one of these species is capable of
123	predicting the distribution range of the other, and whether the species distribution
124	ranges of both could be accurately predicted by a unique ecological model. Analyses of
125	the niches were fully integrated into an evolutionary context.
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127	METHODS
128	Study areas and species distribution
129	As the extent of the geographical background has substantial effects on the outputs of

130 species distribution modelling (see Anderson & Raza, 2010; Barve *et al.*, 2011;

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131	Acevedo et al., 2012b), first we delimited the arena of each species model. This was
132	done by modelling the species distribution where the third-degree polynomial of the
133	spatial coordinates were considered as predictors; the geographical background was
134	delimited by localities which had a predicted favorability higher than the minimum
135	value assigned to a presence (for further details see Acevedo et al., 2012b; Figure 1).
136	Species distribution data were obtained on UTM 10 km \times 10 km squares (our territorial
137	unit for modelling purposes) from Palomo et al. (2007) for L. castroviejoi (n=69
138	presences), and for <i>L. corsicanus</i> the information was provided by Boitani et al. (2002),
139	and was adapted to these territorial units (n=367; of them n=298 are concentrated in
140	Sicily). Although L. corsicanus is also present in Corsica, its presence is considered
141	testimonial (Angelici et al., 2008); thus information for Corsica was not considered for
142	modelling.
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144 Ecological variables and spatially explicit modelling

Previous studies reported some of the ecological requirements of the studied species. L. 145 146 *castroviejoi* has been described as typically occupying shrub lands in which mosaics 147 with pastures and broadleaved woods are frequent (Acevedo et al., 2007). L. corsicanus 148 inhabits a broader spectrum of habitats in Mediterranean environments ranging from 149 coastal dune to high mountain habitats, as well as grassland, pastures and/or cultivated 150 areas (Angelici & Luiselli, 2007; Angelici et al., 2008). Based on previous knowledge and the availability of environmental predictors for the scale required in this study, a set 151 152 of 19 environmental predictors were preselected to account for the niches of these 153 species (see Table 1). The predictors were related to two factors: topoclimate (8 predictors) and land uses (11 predictors). Bioclimatic variables and altitude (~1000 m 154 spatial resolution) were obtained from the Worldclim project database (see Hijmans et 155

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156	al., 2005). Land use data was obtained from Global Land Cover 2005, which accurately
157	assigns the land uses for each pixel of ~300 m (see Bicheron et al., 2008).
158	It is recommended, when conclusions about niche conservatism want to be extracted, to
159	control overfitting by managing the number of predictors (dimensions) in the models
160	(Peterson, 2011). In general, the probability of detecting a conserved niche increases as
161	the number of dimensions in the model decreases (Peterson & Nakazawa, 2008).
162	Following the recommendations provided by Peterson (2011), different strategies were
163	explored to deal with problems deriving from dimensionality (for details Appendix S1
164	of the Supplementary Material). Given that similar interpretations for niche
165	conservatism could be obtained from all the sets of predictors, the results of the most
166	parsimonious models are presented; they were obtained when both topoclimatic and
167	land use predictors were considered together.
168	Using an inductive approach, the macroecological requirements of the studied species –
169	"ecological niche" – based on the locations in which they occurred were determined.
170	Two statistical stages were carried out. To control the increase in type I errors as the
171	number of predictors increased, in a first stage the false discovery rate (FDR) using the
172	procedure proposed by Benjamini & Hochberg (1995) was evaluated. Only predictors
173	that were significantly related to the species distribution under a FDR of q<0.05 were
174	selected. Predictors selected after controlling the FDR were considered in a multiple
175	logistic regression analysis in a second stage, and the final models were obtained using
176	a forwards-backwards stepwise procedure based on the Akaike Information Criterion
177	(AIC). Statistical analyses were carried out in R 2.15.2 (R Core Team 2012).
178	Four different models were developed: a) an overall model for both sister species, b)
179	one for L. castroviejoi, c) one for L. corsicanus, and d) one for L. corsicanus, which
180	excluded its distribution range in Sicily. To assess the niche similarities between

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species, a model for one species, which was trained on its specific study area, was projected onto the territory of the other species. To project the model developed for one species in another territory (spatial transferability), the similarity in environmental gradients and the correlation structure among independent variables between study areas should be maintained (e.g. Jiménez-Valverde *et al.*, 2011). We successfully checked for model transferability requirements between our study areas (for details see Appendix S2).

Niche conservatism: a cross-assessment based on discrimination and calibration Warren et al. (2008) pointed out the relevance of the null hypotheses in the study of niche conservatism, since both niche similarity and niche identity can be measured, but the results can yield opposite conclusions regarding niche conservatism. Niche similarity tests whether one species' niche model predicts the occurrences of a second species better than expected by chance (e.g. Peterson *et al.*, 1999). The area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC), the most popular discrimination capacity measure in species distribution modelling, can be interpreted as the probability that a presence chosen at random will be assigned a higher probability than an absence chosen at random (for details see Krzanowski & Hand, 2009). Therefore, the AUC can be a suitable parameter to quantify niche similarity when the predictions of the model for one species are assessed on the territory of a second species such as it is used in this study. It should be noted that the discrimination performance based only on Sicily cannot be assessed since L. corsicanus is present in all territorial units of this island. If we view niche conservatism as a continuum gradient (ranging from niches that are identical to niches that are more similar than random), the AUC can provide information about one extreme. For instance, values significantly higher than 0.5

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206	indicate niches that are more similar than expected by chance. Yet, the AUC does not
207	provide information on niche identity, since a model can adequately discriminate the
208	distribution of a species even when it is not highly informative of its distribution. This is
209	because the AUC is affected by the distribution of the territory units along the modeled
210	environmental gradient (Lobo et al., 2008; Jiménez-Valverde et al., 2013). Thus
211	calibration, i.e., the degree to which the observed proportion of presences equate to the
212	model estimated probabilities (Pearce & Ferrier, 2000), is useful for informing on niche
213	identity; if the niches of two related species are identical, the niche model for one of
214	them is able to accurately predict the probability of occurrence for the second species.
215	Calibration plots were developed to visually assess the relatedness of the niches. Graphs
216	were constructed with 'ggplot2' R package (Wickham, 2009) by plotting the proportion
217	of occupied evaluation sites of a given species against the predicted probability of
218	presence of the other species (for the ten equal-size probability intervals); points located
219	along the 45° line indicate identical niches. Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness-of-fit statistic
220	(H-L; Lemeshow & Hosmer, 1982) was used for the statistical assessment of the
221	calibration plots. H-L tests assessed whether the observed values matched the expected
222	ones in the calibration plots. Good calibration is obtained when the expected and
223	observed presence rates are not significantly different (p>0.05). Statistical analyses
224	were carried out in R 2.15.2 (R Core Team 2012).
225	

- 226 **RESULTS**
- 227 Spatially explicit ecological models

After controlling the FDR, not all predictors were considered for inclusion in the final
models: 14 were considered for an overall model for both species (BIO0, BIO2, BIO4,
BIO9, BIO15, BIO19, T11, T20, T30, T70, T110, T120, T130 and T150), 7 for the *L*.

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231	castroviejoi model (BIO2, BIO9, BIO15, T14, T30, T120 and T150), 15 for the L.
232	corsicanus model (BIO0, BIO2, BIO4, BIO9, BIO15, BIO19, T11, T14, T20, T30, T70,
233	T110, T120, T130 and T150), and 9 for the <i>L. corsicanus</i> model excluding Sicily
234	(BIO0, BIO2, BIO15, BIO19, T14, T20, T70, T100 and T210).
235	The forward-backward stepwise procedure allowed one to obtain the final logistic
236	regression models for all species/territories (Table 2, see also Figure 2). In the training
237	territories, models achieved good predictive performance both in terms of
238	discrimination (AUC=0.948, AUC=0.934, AUC=0.954, and AUC=0.813; for the
239	overall model, L. castroviejoi model, L. corsicanus model, and for the model of L.
240	corsicanus in mainland Italy, respectively) and calibration (see Figure 3).
241	
242	Niche conservatism
243	A unique ecological model for both sister species was fitted (Table 2), and it was able to
244	accurately predict their distribution ranges (Figures 2a). When the discrimination
245	performance of this model was assessed, a high discrimination capacity was obtained on
246	L. castroviejoi territory (AUC=0.828) and on that of L. corsicanus (AUC=0.956).
247	Calibration plots indicated that the model predicted similarly the probability of presence
248	for the two species, L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus (Figure 3a).
249	When the model trained on <i>L. castroviejoi</i> was transferred to the territory of <i>L</i> .
250	corsicanus, it did not discriminate better than chance the distribution of the latter
251	species (AUC=0.232). On the contrary, the model trained on <i>L. corsicanus</i> data was
252	able to predict the territory of <i>L. castroviejoi</i> (AUC=0.814). Furthermore, the model
253	trained on L. corsicanus mainland distribution also discriminated better than chance the
254	<i>L. castroviejoi</i> distribution (AUC=0.789), and <i>L. corsicanus</i> overall distribution (AUC=
255	0.853). Calibration plots for the model trained on <i>L. castroviejoi</i> , partially supported the

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256 interpretations obtained by assessing the AUC (Figure 3b). However, calibration plots

showed that the predictions of the model for *L. corsicanus* did not fit accurately the

258 observed frequency of *L. castroviejoi* (Figure 3c), but it did fit the predictions of the

259 model for *L. corsicanus* in mainland Italy (Figure 3d).

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261 **DISCUSSION**

262 Multidisciplinary approaches are fundamental for understanding the past, present and

263 future evolutionary and ecological features of species, and to gather relevant

264 information that can be used to implement adequate conservation measures. Analyses

265 using morphological and genetic data have previously suggested that two allopatric

266 species of hares, *L. castroviejoi* and *L. corsicanus*, are recent descendants of a common

267 species (Palacios, 1996; Alves et al., 2008a; Melo-Ferreira et al., 2012). Here, these

taxa were studied from a novel perspective, and extensive similarities were also found

269 in their ecological traits. These results have important implications on the understanding

270 of the evolutionary history of these species and their ecological requirements.

271 Moreover, it contributes to the discussion of the relationship between niche

272 conservatism and evolutionary history.

273

274 On the methodological approach

275 Various metrics have been proposed to quantify potential niche overlap, and some were

276 comparatively assessed in the context of niche conservatism (e.g. Warren et al., 2008;

- 277 Rödder & Engler, 2011). Each showed advantages and drawbacks on the desirable
- 278 characteristics for a metric of potential niche overlap (see Rödder & Engler, 2011).
- 279 Based on the concept behind the pioneer study on niche conservatism (Peterson *et al.*,
- 280 1999), a simple and more in-depth exploration of niche similarities between two sister

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281	species was used here. The approach was based on a cross-assessment focused on the
282	two characteristic of the model's predictive performance, i.e., discrimination and
283	calibration. Assessing the discrimination with the AUC, and according to the model
284	based on the sister species, the probability for a presence chosen at random for one
285	species to be assigned a higher probability than an absence chosen at random was
286	determined. In other words, niche similarity was assessed (AUC>0.5). To determine if
287	two niches are (or are not) identical, the interspecific niche relationships should also be
288	assessed in terms of calibration. In the cross-assessment context, a perfectly calibrated
289	model shows that two niches are identical. The calibration plot informs about the
290	uncertainty of the predictions, and how they are distributed along the gradient of
291	probabilities predicted by the model, which is also needed for a proper understanding of
292	the AUC values (Jiménez-Valverde et al., 2013). Thus, in a cross-assessment context,
293	discrimination and calibration allow for a more in-depth exploration of niche
294	similarities; hence, additional conclusions about niche relationships can be extracted.
295	For instance, a situation in which the model overpredicts species occurrence under a
296	given threshold of probability and underpredicts over that threshold can be identified
297	(see Figure 3a in the <i>L. corsicanus</i> 's territory). That situation could be informing about
298	the presence of an unconsidered factor (e.g., a competitor, a resource, human
299	interference, etc.), which is preventing the species from occupying some favorable
300	localities.
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302	Ecological similarity of taxa: implications for taxonomy, evolutionary history and
303	conservation
304	The spatial resolution of the analysis was suggested as a factor affecting the conclusions

about niche conservatism (e.g., Peterson & Nyári, 2007). Therefore, the grain size of the
 analyses is important to properly understand the interpretations extracted from the

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307	results. Results obtained in this study – from an ecological perspective and at 10km \times
308	10km spatial resolution – support the close evolutionary relationship between L.
309	castroviejoi and L. corsicanus. This similarity adds to the morphological analyses
310	performed by Palacios (1996), and to the molecular inferences made by Alves et al.
311	(2008a) and Melo-Ferreira et al. (2012), which led these authors to suggest that these
312	taxa could eventually be considered conspecific. If parapatric groups of species (as
313	Lepus spp. in Europe) are naturally conceived to be ecologically divergent (Bull &
314	Possingham, 1995), then niche similarities between related species such as L.
315	castroviejoi and L. corsicanus (even in allopatry), can be used as arguments to discuss a
316	possible conspecific status. Even if species concepts vary and the classification of L .
317	castroviejoi and L. corsicanus as conspecific will depend on the applied criterion, the
318	similarities of these taxa is remarkable and shows how morphology, genes and ecology
319	may be conserved in the initial stages of divergence.
320	According to genetic evidences, L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus shared a common
321	ancestor possibly at least until the Upper Pleistocene (Alves et al., 2008a; Melo-Ferreira
322	et al., 2012). Similarly, as it has been described for other taxa such as the chamois
323	(Rupicapra spp., Masini & Lovari, 1988), it could be hypothesized that their common
324	ancestor occupied a larger range in Europe during the Pleistocene and the subsequent
325	climatic changes split it into two allopatric refugia in the two Southern European
326	peninsulas, Iberia and Italy (Angelici & Luiselli, 2007). Our results suggest that this
327	range of separation was not driven by disruptive adaptation to different ecological
328	settings, but must have resulted from the fragmentation of favorable habitat.
329	Apparently, L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus did not expand from these refugia, which
330	may have been due to i) competition with other hare species, ii) niche conservatism, or
331	most probably iii) by both factors to certain extent (see below). L. castroviejoi could

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332	have initially faced competition by <i>L. granatensis</i> and likely by <i>L. timidus</i> when this
333	species was present in northern Iberian Peninsula in Late Pleistocene (Altuna, 1970).
334	The presence of <i>L. timidus</i> mtDNA type in <i>L. castroviejoi</i> due to hybridization (Alves et
335	al., 2008b; Melo-Ferreira et al., 2012) is congruent with the hypothesis of contact
336	between these species. Also, when the niche expressed by L. corsicanus was projected
337	onto Iberia, in general, a high environmental potential for L. castroviejoi in more
338	southern areas of the Iberian study area was obtained (Figure 2). These areas are not
339	currently occupied by L. castroviejoi but are highly favourable for L. granatensis
340	(Acevedo et al., 2012c). This suggests that competition with L. granatensis may have
341	been an important factor impeding colonization of these southern territories by L.
342	castroviejoi. Similarly, in the Italian Peninsula, the northwards expansion of L.
343	corsicanus could have been prevented by competition with L. timidus and L. europaeus
344	since the past range of L. corsicanus reached more northern latitudes (Angelici &
345	Luiselli, 2007; Angelici et al., 2008).
346	Niche conservatism could have also limited the capacity of these species to colonize
347	new habitats since they are currently occupying "ecological islands" (e.g. Figure 1),
348	separated by intervening landscapes unsuitable for these species, i.e., by an ecological
349	barrier. In this situation, niche conservatism can limit adaptation to suboptimal
350	ecological conditions (see Wiens & Graham, 2005); hence, it restricts the expansion
351	ability of the species. Following this line of thought, niche conservatism may have
352	further implications on the evolution of these sister species. If the species cannot adapt
353	to suboptimal environmental conditions, then the barrier will continue to prevent gene
354	flow between these species, and they will inevitably continue to diverge (Kozak &

355 Wiens, 2006), according to the allopatric speciation model. At this point, it should be

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356	highlighted that these species offer a fascinating opportunity for a natural experiment in
357	which, for instance, the genetic bases of recent local adaptations can be explored.
358	Finally, but not least, our results suggest that the niche expressed by L. corsicanus in
359	mainland Italy retained ecological traits able to accurately predict the global distribution
360	of these sister species. Interestingly, some genetic differences between hares from
361	mainland Italy and Sicily were found using mtDNA (Pierpaoli et al., 1999; Alves et al.,
362	2008a; Pietri et al., 2011), which may have originated from a drift during a founding
363	event of the Sicilian <i>L. corsicanus</i> population. The ecological divergence can be related
364	to the fact that <i>L. corsicanus</i> is the only hare species in Sicily despite the intensive
365	release of L. europaeus during the last decades (Angelici et al., 2008). Therefore, the
366	populations in Sicily are evolving in absence of potential competitors, and thus
367	displaying something that could closely resemble the part of its fundamental niche that
368	is present in Sicily. On the contrary, continental populations evolved in contact with
369	competitors species, and the pattern of distribution accounted by the models is closer to
370	the species realized niche (e.g. Soberón & Peterson, 2005; Angelici & Luiselli, 2007).
371	Thus, different parts of the niche could have been occupied in mainland Italy and Sicily
372	which could be related to rather different expressions of the species ecological niche
373	(see Randin et al., 2006). Moreover, the fact that the model trained on L. corsicanus
374	mainland population was able to predict the range of <i>L. castroviejoi</i> but not vice-versa,
375	suggest that L. corsicanus populations in mainland Italy have retained the ecological
376	traits of their ancestor, and thus, these Italian populations have an impressive value for
377	ecological and evolutionary studies. Also, due to the characteristics described above, L.
378	castroviejoi and L. corsicanus are significant evolutionary units that should be
379	preserved.

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380	Similarly to the seminal studies of Peterson et al. (1999) and Wiens & Graham (2005),
381	among others, our study shows that macroecology can be useful to explore diverse
382	topics in evolution. Therefore, the integration of macroecology and phylogeography
383	would contribute decisively in the strengthening of the geographic components of
384	evolutionary biology, which is often omitted (Kidd & Ritchie, 2006).
385	
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559	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
560	Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:
561	Appendix S1 Controlling dimensionality effects in niche conservatism interpretations.

562 Appendix S2 Checking for models transferability between study areas.

- 563 As a service to our authors and readers, this journal provides supporting information
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 - 566 from supporting information (other than missing files) should be addressed to the
 - 567 authors.

568

- BIOSKETCH 569
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- 574

575 Author contributions: P.A. and P.C.A. conceived the ideas; P.A. analysed the data;

- 576 P.A., J.M.-F., R.R. and P.C.A. participated in the discussion of the results and wrote the
- 577 manuscript.
- 578
- 579 Editor: Miles Silman
- 580

- **Table 1**. Predictors used in the different models to study the *Lepus castroviejoi* and *L*.
- *corsicanus* distributions. A quarter is a period of three months (1/4 of the year).

Codes	Description (units)			
BIO0	Altitude (masl)			
BIO2	Mean diurnal range (mean of monthly [max T - min T])			
	(°C*10)			
BIO3	Isothermality (BIO2/Temperature annual range) (*100)			
BIO4	Temperature seasonality (standard deviation*100)			
BIO9	Mean temperature of driest quarter (°C*10)			
BIO15	Precipitation seasonality (coefficient of variation)			
BIO18	Precipitation of warmest quarter (mm)			
BIO19	Precipitation of coldest quarter (mm)			
T11	Post-flooding or irrigated croplands (or aquatic) (%)			
T14	Rainfed croplands (%)			
T20	Mosaic cropland / vegetation (grassland/shrubland/forest) (%)			
Т30	Mosaic vegetation / cropland (%)			
T70	Closed needleleaved evergreen forest (%)			
T100	Closed to open (>15%) mixed forest (%)			
T110	Mosaic forest-shrubland / grassland (%)			
T120	Mosaic grassland / forest or shrubland (%)			
T130	Closed to open shrubland (%)			
T150	Sparse (<15%) vegetation (%)			
T210	Water bodies (%)			
	Codes BIO0 BIO2 BIO3 BIO4 BIO9 BIO15 BIO18 BIO19 T11 T14 T20 T30 T100 T100 T100 T100 T120 T130 T150 T210			

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Table 2. Results of the models developed on the current distribution of *Lepus*586*castroviejoi* and *L. corsicanus* distributions. Predictors were listed following the order587of entrance (the first one in the top) in the stepwise procedure. B parameter coefficient588and its standard error (SE), z-value test statistics, Sig. significance (*** P < 0.001, ** P589<0.01, * P < 0.05 and ns P > 0.05). Predictors coded as in Table 1.

Model	Codes	B(SE)	z-value
Overall species	BIO15	0.1708(0.0126)	13.510***
distribution	BIO0	0.0066(0.0005)	14.011***
	BIO19	-0.0209(0.0018)	-11.822***
	BIO4	-0.0022(0.0002)	-10.383***
	BIO9	0.0231(0.0059)	3.943***
	T11	-0.3337(0.1682)	-1.984*
	BIO2	0.0182(0.0061)	2.964**
	Т30	-0.0299(0.0142)	-2.104*
	T120	0.0959(0.0455)	2.106*
	T130	-0.0350(0.0166)	-2.111*
	T150	0.0251(0.0148)	-2.111ns
	Intercept	-1.1033(0.5063)	-2.179*
L. castroviejoi	BIO9	-0.1622(0.0217)	-7.475***
	T120	-3.4344(1.7825)	-1.927ns
	T14	-0.0942(0.0377)	-2.501*
	Intercept	25.6815(3.4690)	7.403***
L. corsicanus	BIO15	0.1633(0.0140)	11.666***
	BIO19	-0.0251(0.0023)	-10.863***
	BIO0	0.0063(0.0023)	9.054***
	BIO4	-0.0020(0.0003)	-6.240***
	BIO9	0.0253(0.0076)	3.341***
	BIO2	0.0272(0.0114)	2.397*
	Т30	-0.0443(0.0176)	-2.518*
	T120	0.1180(0.0493)	2.397*
	T11	-5.7220(20.680)	-0.028ns
	Intercept	-1.4300(0.5510)	-2.595**
L. corsicanus	T70	0.0666(0.0228)	2.916**
in mainland	BIO0	0.0030(0.0005)	5.510***
Italy	BIO15	0.0834(0.0156)	5.359***
	BIO2	0.0444(0.0157)	2.828**
	T210	-0.1804(0.1131)	-1.595ns
	Intercept	-11.2500(1.8910)	-5.952***

592	FIGURE LEGENDS

593	Figure 1. Location of the study areas. Current distributions of <i>Lepus castroviejoi</i> and <i>L</i> .
594	corsicanus (excluding range in Corsica) represented in UTM 10×10 km (marks).
595	Species distribution data were obtained from Palomo et al. (2007) for Iberian Peninsula
596	and adapted from Boitani et al. (2002) for Italy. Trend surface analyses (see text for
597	details) were used to delimit the arena for modelling purposes (areas in grey).
598	Figure 2. Probability of species occurrence in the study areas (from dark blue=1 to
599	yellow=0) obtained from the different models: overall species distribution (a), model
600	trained on L. castroviejoi and then projected onto Italy (b), model trained on L.
601	corsicanus and projected onto Iberia (c), and finally, model trained on L. corsicanus,
602	but excluding its range in Sicily, and projected onto both Sicily and Iberia (d). Arrows
603	denote the projection of a model from the training area onto the territory of the sister
604	species.
605	Figure 3. Calibration plots showing the relationship between the predicted probability
606	of occurrence for a model and the observed proportion of evaluation localities occupied
607	by the species: overall species distribution (a), model trained on L. castroviejoi (b),
608	model trained on L. corsicanus (c), and finally, model trained on L. corsicanus but
609	excluding Sicily (d). Arrows denote the projection of a model from the training area to
610	the territory of the sister species. Full/open symbols indicate bins with ≥ 15 or < 15
611	localities, respectively. In bins with <15 localities the observed frequency should be
612	cautiously considered (Jovani & Tella, 2006). Significant codes: *** $P < 0.001$, ** P
613	<0.01, * P <0.05 and ns P >0.05, refer to Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit statistic
614	(Lemeshow & Hosmer, 1982).
615	







Figure 2



621 Figure 3



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2 Evidence for niche similarities in the allopatric sister species *Lepus castroviejoi* and

3 L. corsicanus - - P. Acevedo, J. Melo-Ferreira, R. Real, P.C. Alves

4 Appendix S1. Controlling dimensionality effects in niche conservatism

5 *interpretations*.

6 We carried out parallel analyses to be sure that the number of parameters in the models

7 - model's dimensionality (see Peterson, 2011) - is not affecting our interpretations on

8 niche conservatism. We run models following tree different approaches: i) considering

9 all available climate and land uses predictors (n=19; approach 1), ii) only climatic

10 predictors (n=8) were considered, as they usually yield higher predictive capacity than

11 land uses (approach 2), and iii) models were fitted with the orthogonal factors (n=6)

12 resulting from a principal component analysis (approach 3). For each approach, final

13 models were selected following a forwards-backwards stepwise procedure based on

14 Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1974). Results are summarized in Table S1

15 and Figure S1.

16

17 **Table S1.** Summary of the models carried out under approaches differing in the set of

18 predictors. Akaike Information Criterion is provided as a measure of model parsimony. The

19 number of predictors included in each final model is reported in brackets.

Approach	Model		
	L. castroviejoi	L. corsicanus	L. corsicanus in
	5		mainland Italy
Approach 1	157.16 (3)	626.94 (9)	410.97 (5)
Approach 2	161.69 (2)	630.29 (7)	413.56 (4)
Approach 3	161.79 (6)	862.35 (6)	426.73 (5)

20

21 Independently of the approach, similar interpretations could be obtained when models

22 predictions were mapped (Table S1, Figure S1): only models trained on data for *L*.

corsicanus predicted potentiality in areas occupied by both species. Thus, no effects
 derived of the number of predictors are expected to affect our interpretations, and only
 results from approach 1 are shown in the main text since it consistently yielded the most
 parsimonious models (Table S1).



Figure S1. Probability of species occurrence in the study areas (from dark-blue=1 to yellow=0) obtained from the different approaches (see above for details) and models: model trained on *L*. *castroviejoi* and then projected to Italy [A], model trained on *L. corsicanus* and transferred to Iberia [B], and finally, model trained on *L. corsicanus*, but excluding its range in Sicily, and

32 projected to both Sicily and Iberia [C]).

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33	Appendix S2. Checking for models transferability between study areas.
34	Three pivotal requirements should be checked when models are transferred outside their
35	training area. First, for each model, Mahalanobis distances were computed to represent
36	the ecological dissimilarity of the transferring area to the training area, i.e. the degree of
37	extrapolation. Second, multicollinearity among predictors in a model can bias the
38	predictions when this model is transferred outside the range where it was trained. The
39	collinearity was quantified using the variance inflation factor (VIF). Given that
40	collinearity can be a problem with VIFs higher than 3 (see Zuur et al., 2010), VIFs were
41	calculated for each predictor and study area as the inverse of the coefficient of non-
42	determination of the regression of each predictor against all others. Finally, Mantel tests
43	were run to assess the maintenance of the correlation structure of the predictors between
44	the training and the transferring areas (see Jiménez-Valverde et al., 2011). Pearson's
45	correlation coefficient between the elements of the matrices was used as the statistical
46	test, and its significance was assessed by permuting the row labels of one matrix relative
47	to the other 9999 times.
48	Statistical analyses were carried out in R 2.15.2 (R Core Team 2012). The 'HH' package
49	was used for the variance inflation factor analyses (Heiberger, 2012) and 'ade4' for the
50	Mantel tests (Chessel et al., 2004).
51	Results suggest that only in very few localities were the models extrapolated; thus, a
52	certain degree of uncertainty in the predictions can be expected in these localities
53	(Figure S2). According to the obtained VIF values, no effects of multicolinearity are
54	expected when models were spatially transferred (mean VIF value / range: $1.72 / 1.37$ -
55	2.82; 1.81 / 1.02-2.99; 1.80 / 1.25-2.91 for the areas of Iberia, Italy and mainland Italy
56	(excluding Sicily), respectively). Similarly, the correlation structures of the predictors
57	between training and transferring areas were maintained in all study cases, precisely

- 59 p<0.05), and mainland Italy and Sicily (r=0.51, p<0.01). That is, the correlation
- 60 structures of the predictors between training and transferring areas were maintained in
- 61 all study cases.

Figure S2. Maps showing the degree of environmental dissimilarity – in terms of the predictors

retained in the models (see Table 2) – between the transferring area and the training ones.

66 Localities with values in the predictors that were outside their range in the training areas are

- 67 depicted in blue.

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