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3	Parapatric species and the implications for climate change studies: a case study on
4	hares in Europe
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6	Running title: Parapatric species and climate change
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31 ABSTRACT

32 Parapatry is a biogeographic term used to refer to organisms whose ranges do not 33 overlap but are immediately adjacent to each other; they only co-occur - if at all - in a34 narrow contact zone. Often there are no environmental barriers in the contact zones, 35 hence competitive interaction is usually advocated as the factor that modulates species 36 distribution ranges. Even though the effects of climate change on species distribution 37 have been widely studied, few studies have explored these effects on the 38 biogeographical relationships between closely related, parapatric, species. We modelled 39 environmental favourability for three parapatric hare species in Europe - Lepus granatensis, L. europaeus and L. timidus - using ecogeographical variables and 40 projected the models into the future according to the IPCC A2 emissions scenario. 41 42 Favourabilities for present and future scenarios were combined using fuzzy logic with 43 the following aims: i) to determine the biogeographical relationships between hare 44 species in parapatry, that is L. granatensis/L. europaeus and L. europaeus/L. timidus; 45 and ii) to assess the effects of climate change on each species as well as on their interspecific interactions. In their contact area L. granatensis achieved higher 46 47 favourability values than L. europaeus, suggesting that if both species have a similar 48 population status, the former species may have some advantages over the latter if 49 competitive relationships are established. Climate change had the most striking effect 50 on the distribution of L. timidus, especially when interspecific interactions with L. 51 europaeus were taken into account, which may compromise the co-existence of L. 52 *timidus.* The results of this study are relevant not only for understanding the distribution 53 patterns of the hares studied and the effects of climate change on these patterns, but also 54 for improving the general application of species distribution models to the prediction of 55 the effects of climate change on biodiversity.

56

57 INTRODUCTION

58 Parapatry is a biogeographic pattern in which two species have separate but contiguous 59 distributions without physical barriers between them, and they only co-occur – if at all – 60 in a narrow contact zone. This is a common distribution pattern in closely related 61 species and in species with a weak phylogenetic relationship but with a high level of 62 ecological similarity (Bull 1991). Since parapatry is considered as an opposite state to 63 coexistence, most explanations of parapatric distributions assume negative interactions 64 as the cause of interspecific exclusion along geographic gradients; as a result, the 65 species with the highest persistence potential displaces the other (Bull & Possingham 66 1995 and references therein).

67 A key step in species distribution modelling (SDM) (Guisan & Thuiler 2005) involves 68 taking into account the biotic factors (i.e., interactions with other species that modify 69 the ability for a given species to maintain populations) that contribute to delimiting 70 species' ranges. The inclusion of biotic interactions improves SDM performance for 71 both positively-related species, such as specialist species requiring a specific biotic 72 resource (e.g., Araújo & Luoto 2007; Kissling et al. 2010), and for other systems in 73 which competitive forces modulate species distribution ranges (e.g., Meier *et al.* 2011). 74 Biotic interactions are especially relevant in the context of studies predicting 75 distributional shifts under climate change scenarios, since the distribution of a species 76 may change not only because of altered climatic conditions, but also because interactive 77 species move in response to climate change (Meier *et al.* 2011). Thus, understanding the 78 biogeographical relationships between parapatric species and how they vary in response 79 to climate changes is needed to improve the predictions on shifts in species 80 distributions.

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81 Even though biotic interactions are highly relevant in SDM, studies investigating 82 procedures to account for them are still scarce. The simple approach of including the 83 distribution of other species as predictors in a predictive model of a given species (e.g., 84 Araújo & Luoto 2007) may not in fact reflect a biotic interaction, but rather the absence 85 of important environmental predictors in the model (Guisan & Thuiller 2005). In 86 addition, the inclusion of these predictors in the model may only provide information on 87 potential interaction between species, but not on the possible role of each species in the 88 interaction. Biotic interactions, such as those producing parapatry, are usually 89 asymmetric relationships in which the distribution of one species is strongly mediated 90 by another, but not always vice versa (Bull & Possingham 1995). Thus, the inclusion of 91 other species' ranges as predictors ideally requires prior knowledge to choose the 92 correct biotic predictors from among many alternatives; nevertheless, this is not always 93 possible when, for example, competitive exclusion between species has not been 94 previously documented.

95 Fuzzier approaches have been applied to assess interspecific relationships in a 96 biogeographical context. For example, Chefaoui et al. (2005) explored variation in the 97 suitability scores for two species along an environmental gradient and showed the 98 usefulness of this approach to describe potential sympatry between two species (see also 99 Acevedo et al. 2007a, 2007b). Sattler et al. (2007) examined biogeographical 100 relationships between cryptic species by combining Ecological Niche Factor Analysis 101 (Hirzel et al. 2002) and discriminant analysis. The discriminant factor correlates with 102 the variables that best segregate the species. These authors used the discriminant factor 103 as an integrative variable to compare the "niches" of the species and estimate their 104 degree of overlap. Based on the conceptual framework applied in these studies and 105 using the favourability function (see Real et al. 2006), Acevedo et al. (2010) developed

an approach to explore the biogeographical relationships between related species. Even though this approach was proposed in a context of native *versus* introduced species, it can be used to study other types of biotic relationships. This approach can be used to map species interaction and to create directional hypothesis about the role of each species in the interaction, although species interactions cannot be conclusively demonstrated using these kinds of approaches (Anderson *et al.* 2002; Jiménez-Valverde *et al.* 2007).

113 European hares provide a suitable model by which to study the biogeographical 114 relationships between parapatric species. At present, taxonomic experts accept five 115 species of the genus Lepus occurring naturally in Europe: L. europaeus, L. timidus, L. 116 granatensis, L. castroviejoi and L. corsicanus (Mitchell-Jones et al. 1999; Alves & 117 Hackländer 2008). The latter two species, although being genetically similar (Alves et 118 al. 2008), have restricted allopatric ranges – L. castroviejoi in the Cantabrian Mountains 119 of the Iberian Peninsula and L. corsicanus in the Apennines and Sicily – and the other 120 three species have wider distributions (see Figure 1). This complex distribution pattern 121 certainly reflects specific ecological adaptations, and enhances different putative contact 122 zones. However, the relationship between each pair of parapatric species is not expected 123 to be symmetrical as usually one species prevails over the other in the contact zones. 124 even when competitive exclusion relationships have not been firmly evidenced. On the 125 one hand, it is known that populations of L. granatensis are increasing but those of L. 126 europaeus are decreasing in their contact areas in the Iberian Peninsula (Gortázar et al. 127 2007). On the other hand, other studies have identified the expansion of L. europaeus as 128 one of the causes of the generalized decline of L. timidus (see Thulin 2003; Jannson & 129 Pehrson 2007; Patton et al. 2010; Reid 2011).

Using European hares as a study model and the analytical procedure described in Acevedo *et al.* (2010), this study has the following aims: i) to determine the biogeographical relationships between hare species with wider distributions, namely *L. granatensis/L. europaeus* and *L. europaeus/L. timidus*; and ii) to assess the effects of climate change on each species and their interspecific interactions. The results may assist in improving the general application of species distribution models for assessing the effects of climate change on biodiversity.

138 MATERIAL AND METHODS

139 Species data

140 The European distribution of *Lepus* spp. was extracted from The Atlas of European 141 Mammals (Mitchell-Jones et al. 1999; Figure 1). Information refers to UTM 50×50 km 142 squares as they were the territorial units used for modelling purposes. Due to the fact 143 that the sampling effort used to create the Atlas was not spatially homogeneous, we 144 calculated the number of mammal species in each square as a proxy of sampling effort; 145 for modelling purposes, we only considered the UTM squares in which at least one 146 species has been reported (n = 2557). This filter excluded most of Eastern Europe which 147 coincided with the most incomplete area identified by the Atlas authors (A.J. Mitchell-148 Jones, personal communication). In the study area, the most frequent hare species was L. europaeus (n = 1119 presences), followed by L. timidus (n = 532 presences) and 149 150 finally the Iberian endemism *L. granatensis* (n = 118 presences).

151 Environmental data

The occurrence of the three hare species in each UTM square was modelled using 35 potential explanatory variables related to the following factors: spatial location (2 variables), topography (1 variable), climatology (15 variables), and land use (17 variables; see Table 1). These variables were chosen on the basis of availability at this scale and potential predictive power, and were assumed to be correlated with more explanatory factors.

Land use data came from Global Land Cover 2005, which is freely available at <u>http://ionial.esrin.esa.int/</u>. The map (~300 m spatial resolution) covers the entire planet, and its accuracy has been successfully validated (see Bicheron *et al.* 2008). Bioclimatic variables (for present and future times) and altitude (~1000 m spatial resolution) were obtained from the Worldclim project database (see Hijmans *et al.* 2005 for details). The 163 models calibrated for the present period were projected into the future by replacing the 164 current bioclimatic variables in the models with those expected according to the climate 165 change scenario for the future period up to 2080 using the A2 emissions scenario 166 (Nakicenovic et al. 2000). This scenario is defined as a world of strengthening regional 167 cultural identities, with an emphasis on family values and local traditions, high 168 population growth, and less concern for rapid economic development. We used only 169 one scenario because our main interest was to assess the changes in interspecific 170 relationships between parapatric species due to climate, rather than to assess the effect 171 of different global circulation models or emissions scenarios (see Real et al. 2010).

172 Modelling

173 We used an inductive approach to estimate the macroecological requirements of the 174 species from the locations in which they occurred (Corsi et al. 2000). We modelled the 175 occurrence of each species assuming that, after correcting for the sampling effort 176 previously described, if a species was not observed within a UTM square, this was 177 equivalent to the absence of the species. For each species, the model was calibrated using a 70% random sample of the data and evaluated against the remaining 30%. 178 179 Firstly, to control for the increase in type I errors as the number of independent 180 variables increased, we evaluated the false discovery rate (FDR; García 2003) using the 181 procedure proposed by Benjamini & Hochberg (1995), and only accepted variables that 182 were significantly (p < 0.05) related to the species distribution under an FDR of q < 0.05183 0.05. The selected variables were then used in a multiple logistic regression procedure 184 (Hosmer & Lemeshow 1989), and the final models were selected following a forwards-185 backwards stepwise procedure. Finally, to establish direct comparisons between models 186 (species), the logistic probabilities were used to obtain favourability values using the 187 function described by Real et al. (2006). The favourability function is a valuable tool to study biogeographical relationships between models whatever the proportion of presence records (sample prevalence) in the calibration datasets (e.g., see Real *et al.* 2009; Acevedo *et al.* 2010). This is due to the fact that a favourability value of 0.5 always corresponds to the same environmental threshold, thus the independence of these values in relation to species prevalence enables direct comparisons between models (species) built with different prevalences.

194 Sensitivity – the percentage of correctly predicted presences to the total number of 195 presences –, specificity – the percentage of correctly predicted absences to the total 196 number of absences -, and the area under the ROC curve (AUC) were estimated on the 197 validation datasets to assess the discriminative capacity of the models (Fielding & Bell 198 1997; but see Lobo et al. 2008). To calculate sensitivity and specificity a threshold of 199 0.5 was used as a cutoff for favourability values in all the models according to the 200 favourability concept (Real et al. 2006). All statistical analyses were performed using 201 SPSS 18 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) statistical software.

202 Assessing relationships between parapatric species

203 An inherent quality of favourability values is that they can be regarded as the degree of 204 membership in the fuzzy set of sites whose environmental conditions are favourable to 205 the species (Robertson et al. 2004; Real et al. 2006). Thus, fuzzy logic operations can 206 be used to compare different models. This is an advantage of the favourability function 207 over other SDM techniques when the aim of the study is to combine models for 208 different species, scenarios, etc. (see Estrada et al. 2008; Acevedo et al. 2010, 2011). 209 The biogeographical relationships between two species can be assessed using the fuzzy 210 overlap index (FOvI; see Acevedo et al. 2010), i.e., the ratio between the degree to 211 which the study area is favourable to the two studied species simultaneously and the 212 degree to which it is favourable for either species (Dubois & Prade 1980; Kunchenva

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213 2001). This index varies from 0 (no overlap in favourability) to 1 (complete overlap in 214 favourability). The FOvI can be decomposed into absolute local overlap values (FOvI-215 L) that represent the contribution of each locality (UTM square) to the FOvI. Thus, the 216 FOvI-L shows the spatial location of the areas where spatial overlap between species is 217 expected to occur (Acevedo et al. 2010). 218 Trends on species favourability were assessed across the range of FOvI-L values for 219 each pair of parapatric species (L. granatensis/L. europaeus and L. europaeus/L. 220 *timidus*) using the procedure described by Acevedo *et al.* (2010). Briefly, FOvI-L values 221 were divided into 10 intervals (0.1 width), and mean favourability values at each 222 interval were calculated for each pair of species. Throughout the gradient defined by 223 FOVI-L, and consistent with the favourableness-severity hypothesis (Richerson & Lum 224 1980), it can be assumed that competition between species increases and competitive 225 exclusion decreases as FOvI-L increases. Subsequently, we divided the curve into fixed 226 intervals: FOvI-L < 0.2 (areas that were unfavourable for at least one species) and 227 FOvI-L > 0.8 (areas simultaneously highly favourable to the two species). According to 228 the favourableness-severity hypothesis, the area with 0.2 < FOvI-L < 0.8 is where biotic 229 interactions could limit species occurrence (Acevedo et al. 2010).

230 Assessing changes in distribution patterns between climatic scenarios

We used the fuzzy logic indices described in Real *et al.* (2010) to calculate the increases in favourability (*I*), the favourability overlap (*O*), favourability maintenance (*M*) and the predicted shift in favourability (*S*) between present-future climate scenarios (date₁– date₂, respectively) for each hare species and between-parapatric species interaction:

235
$$I = \frac{cF_{date2} - cF_{date1}}{cF_{date1}} \qquad O = \frac{c(F_{date2} \cap F_{date1})}{c(F_{date2} \cup F_{date1})} \quad M = \frac{c(F_{date2} \cap F_{date1})}{cF_{date1}}$$

236
$$S = \frac{Min\left[cF_{date1} - c\left(F_{date2} \cap F_{date1}\right), cF_{date2} - c\left(F_{date2} \cap F_{date1}\right)\right]}{cF_{date1}}$$

237 Where *cX* is the cardinality of the *X* fuzzy set, i.e., the sum of all squares' favourability 238 and Min is the minimum value. The fuzzy intersection is the minimum value between 239 the favourability of two scenarios and the fuzzy union the maximum value between 240 them (Zadeh 1965). These indices are useful tools to describe the magnitude and 241 direction of the changes in distribution patterns between two scenarios such as those 242 driven by climate (Real et al. 2010) or land use changes (Acevedo et al. 2011). FOvI-L 243 can be also included in fuzzy logic operations due to its conceptual characteristics, and 244 thus variations can be also assessed in the distribution pattern of the FOvI-L when 245 models are projected into a future climate change scenario.

247 **RESULTS**

248 Logistic regression procedure selected variables related to spatial situation, climate, 249 topography and land uses to explain the European distribution of L. granatensis, L. 250 *europaeus* and *L. timidus* at 50×50 km spatial resolution (Table 2). By applying the 251 favourability function, maps were obtained for the studied species (Figure 2) which 252 determine the localities with ecogeographical characteristics that favour or constrain the 253 presence of the species (F > 0.5 or F < 0.5, respectively). The models showed a high 254 discrimination capacity (Se, Sp and AUC were 1, 0.950 and 0.987 for L. granatensis; 255 0.821, 0.787 and 0.877 for L. europaeus; 0.908, 0.935 and 0.970, for L. timidus). 256 When the favourability functions were projected into the future (2080), different 257 situations for each species were observed (Figure 2). Our results suggest that whereas 258 the L. granatensis and L. europaeus ranges will slightly shift to the north/northeast, the 259 L. timidus distribution range will notably decrease. Based on the maps, these 260 interpretations are also supported by the fuzzy logic indices summarized in Table 3. 261 The relationships between parapatric species in terms of favourability and their trends 262 over the gradient defined by FOVI-L are displayed in Figure 3 (see also Table 3). 263 Localities that are simultaneously highly favourable to both L. granatensis and L. 264 *europaeus* (FOvI-L > 0.8), i.e., with ecogeographical conditions that actually favour the 265 presence of both species, do not exist at present and are not expected to exist in future 266 scenarios. Both species overlapped with FOvI-L > 0.2 in only 3.2% of the study area 267 (82 squares); this means that 96.8% of the study area is highly unfavourable (F < 0.2) 268 to, at least, one of the species, i.e., they are territories with ecogeographical conditions 269 that constraint the presence of, at least, one of the species. In the intervals with 270 intermediate values of FOvI-L, L. granatensis attained higher favourability values than 271 L. europaeus, suggesting that given equal population status (e.g., balanced densities) for 272 both species, if competitive relationships were established in these localities the former 273 species may have some advantages over the latter. This situation is maintained in the 274 future climatic scenario, although favourability for L. granatensis is expected to 275 decrease slightly, with a subsequent reduction in overlap between species (Table 3). 276 Regarding the biogeographical relationship between L. europaeus and L. timidus, the 277 current favourability maps for these species overlapped by more than double compared 278 to those for the previous pair of species. L. timidus attained higher favourabilities than 279 L. europaeus in the intervals with intermediate values of FOvI-L. When models for 280 these species were projected into the future climatic scenario, the situation was similar 281 to that obtained for the present period, except for the areas with FOvI-L > 0.8 that 282 generally shifted northward. 283 If the results of the interspecific interactions are considered, an uncertain area could be 284 delineated where biotic interactions could limit species occurrence; this is the area with 285 0.2 < FOvI-L < 0.8 (see Figure 3). This assumes 3.2% of the study area for L. 286 granatensis/L. europaeus and 29.5% for L. europaeus/L. timidus in the models for the present period, and 2.2% and 21.5%, respectively, for models projected into the future. 287 288 Two extreme values can be estimated when assessing the sensitivity of the species to

assuming non-negative relationships between parapatric species, that is, those ratesexclusively modulated by abiotic factors (see Table 3). When biotic interactions are

climate change. The first is defined by the rates of change for each single species

considered, the other extreme value can be obtained by assuming that each speciescould be competitively excluded from the uncertainty area (see Table 3).

294

295 **DISCUSSION**

296 Our results focus on two issues: the methodology used and the conservation of the 297 studied species in Europe. On the one hand, the analytical approach followed in this 298 study is useful for a deeper assessment of the biogeographical relationship between 299 parapatric species and its expected shifts under new scenarios according to global 300 change. Even though this approach is based on the favourableness-severity hypothesis 301 (Richerson & Lum 1980) and it was used in the context of competing species, under 302 other theoretical frameworks it can be useful for exploring the biogeographical 303 relationships of species, for example, when species are positively related (Callaway et 304 al. 2002). On the other hand, the effects of climate change on the distribution of L. 305 timidus predicted for 2080, especially when combined with potential exclusion by L. 306 europaeus, should drive managers to consider global climate change as one of the factors involved in L. timidus decline in Europe, as already appears to be occurring in 307 308 some contact areas (see Thulin 2003).

309 The methodological approach

310 A key step in SDM involves taking into account biotic interaction; thus, changes in 311 climate may not only directly alter the distribution of a species, but also indirectly alter 312 it through affecting the distribution of other interactive species (Meier et al. 2011). Our 313 study offers a new perspective on the role of interspecific interactions on shaping future 314 distribution ranges in response to climate change. The methodological approach, 315 previously described by Acevedo et al. (2010), allowed us: i) to determine the areas 316 where the probability of competition between species is higher; and assuming equal 317 population status for the species involved in the interaction, ii) to infer a directional 318 hypothesis on the role of each species; and iii) to explore the spatial shifts in species 319 interactions pattern under different scenarios, that is, to assess interspecific interactions and how they would evolve under climate change scenarios (see Klanderud & Totland
2005). It is an improvement over other approaches previously used in the context of
SDM and climate change assessment which are mainly based on including the
distribution data of the interacting species as predictors during the modelling processes.
Clearly, the critical issue is not to determine whether biotic interactions have effects at
biogeographical scales, but to quantify their magnitude (e.g., Leathwick & Austin
2001). This key question is difficult to answer mainly because there is no validation

327 data available by which to assess the predictions of the models under climate change 328 conditions (Araújo et al. 2005). It is also often very difficult to distinguish spatial 329 patterns generated by interspecific interactions from those caused by abiotic causes, 330 historical factors or dispersal barriers (Wiens 1989). With our approach two extreme 331 situations for each species can be determined, one in which no effects of interspecific 332 interaction were considered when assessing shifts in the species distribution area due to 333 climate changes, and another in which it was assumed that the species was totally 334 excluded from potentially competitive exclusion areas (see also Araújo & Luoto 2007). 335 In other words, it presents a range between no effects and the full effects of interspecific 336 interactions. The real situation is likely to be between these extremes, although the exact 337 outcome cannot be determined. The approach used allows the identification and 338 mapping of the most probable areas for competitive exclusion, and so would be of use 339 when designing subsequent studies on biotic interactions at local scales (Anderson et al. 340 2002; Jiménez-Valverde et al. 2007). Even when the real distribution of the species in 341 the future is unknown, with this approach a more detailed assessment can be made of 342 the expected species distribution in response to change, based on the directional 343 hypothesis about the role of each species and, when available, on previous knowledge Page 17 of 36

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344 of species' relationships obtained from local studies. This is the case for hare species in

Europe (see below), although this may not be possible for every species.

346 **On the hare species in Europe**

347 Our results on the effects of climate change on L. granatensis and L. europaeus 348 distributions indicate slight northward shifts in their ranges by 2080 according to the A2 349 emissions scenario. However, this situation does not apply to L. timidus, as the 350 predictions suggest that its range will undergo notable reductions because of climate 351 changes (Figure 2). First, these results are consistent with studies which have 352 documented differences in sensitivity to climate change in relation to the ecoregion 353 inhabited by the species; i.e., species from the Boreo-Alpine region were more sensitive 354 to climate change than those inhabiting more temperate regions (Thuiller *et al.* 2005). 355 Thus, species occurring in colder regions should be affected by climate change because 356 of a loss of suitable habitat. Given this context, and consistent with previous studies, the 357 future range of L. timidus in Europe is highly dependent on climate (Jansson & Pehrson 358 2007; Anderson et al. 2009). When interspecific interactions were considered the 359 expected effects of climate change on these species were even more pronounced (Table 360 3); the real situation probably lies between these extremes, but unfortunately this cannot 361 be determined at present as no validation data exist regarding the future.

We can interpret the predicted interactions based on previous knowledge about the ecology of the studied species. On the one hand, *L. granatensis* is expected to have some advantage over *L. europaeus* in their contact area since it is more favourable to the former (Figure 3A). In addition, data obtained from population monitoring has described an increasing population trend for *L. granatensis*, whereas *L. europaeus* is declining in their contact area (Gortázar *et al.* 2007), thus enhancing the potential advantage of *L. granantensis* over *L. europaeus*. In this context, the effects of biotic

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369 interactions on L. granatensis could be considered negligible when the models are 370 projected onto future scenarios. Therefore, the future distribution of L. europaeus is 371 predicted to be negatively affected by L. granatensis, although it should be noted that L. 372 *europaeus* has been suggested as a competitor able to force the exclusion of L. *timidus* 373 in border distribution areas (Thulin 2003, and references therein). Thus, it is expected 374 that L. europaeus would display an intermediate pattern between the reported extremes 375 (Table 3), since even if the viability of the southern European populations from the 376 Iberian Peninsula may be compromised, it is not expected that those of the north will be 377 constrained by competition. Nevertheless, the last interpretation is not directly 378 supported by our analysis; when the population status of both species was expected to 379 be similar, then L. timidus seemed to be favoured over L. europaeus in their contact area 380 (Figure 3B). In our opinion, a plausible explanation would be related to unbalanced 381 densities between these species when they co-occur; L. timidus is usually found at lower 382 densities than L. europaeus (Jansson & Pehrson 2007). Even if a territory is more 383 favourable to L. timidus, differences in densities could drive a situation in which this 384 species is disadvantaged compared to L. europaeus when resources become limited 385 (Thulin 2003). However, in addition to resources, exclusion mediated by hybridization 386 (see Rhymer & Simberloff 1996) can occur when species differ in density, especially in 387 highly unbalanced situations. This was also suggested as a potential factor mediating the 388 L. europaeus/L. timidus interactions (Thulin 2003; but see Jansson et al. 2007), and 389 even explaining the ancestral local extinction of L. timidus in the Iberian Peninsula due 390 to displacement by L. granatensis (e.g., Melo-Ferreira et al. 2007). These range 391 replacements with hybridization have also important implications on the genetic composition of the involved species, as gene introgression should predominantly occur 392 393 from the resident into the invading species (Currat et al. 2008). Finally, future

394	predictions for the distribution of L. timidus cannot be viewed with optimism; it is
395	expected that by 2080 the distribution of this species will be reduced to 30% of its
396	current range (72% under the most optimistic predictions) due to climate changes.
397	According to our results, the future of this species will be compromised by climate
398	change especially when biotic interactions with L. europaeus are taken into account.
399	Thus, we suggest that climate change should be included among the factors to be
400	monitored when addressing the conservation of <i>L. timidus</i> (Smith & Johnston 2008).
401	

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Code	Description
LONG	Longitude (decimal degrees)
LAT	Latitude (decimal degrees)
ALT	Mean altitude (masl)
BIO1	Annual mean temperature
BIO2	Mean diurnal range (mean of monthly (max temp - min temp))
BIO3	Isothermality (BIO2/BIO7) (* 100)
BIO4	Temperature seasonality (standard deviation *100)
BIO5	Max temperature of warmest month
BIO6	Min temperature of coldest month
BIO7	Temperature annual range (BIO5-BIO6)
BIO10	Mean temperature of warmest quarter
BIO11	Mean temperature of coldest quarter
BIO12	Annual precipitation
BIO13	Precipitation of wettest month
BIO14	Precipitation of driest month
BIO15	Precipitation seasonality (coefficient of variation)
BIO16	Precipitation of wettest quarter
BIO17	Precipitation of driest quarter
T11	Post-flooding or irrigated croplands
T14	Rainfed croplands
T20	Mosaic Cropland (50-70%) / Vegetation (grassland, shrubland, forest) (20-50%)
T30	Mosaic Vegetation (grassland, shrubland, forest) (50-70%) / Cropland (20-50%)
T50	Closed (>40%) broadleaved deciduous forest (>5m)
T70	Closed (>40%) needleleaved evergreen forest (>5m)
T90	Open (15-40%) needleleaved deciduous or evergreen forest (>5m)
T100	Closed to open (>15%) mixed broadleaved and needleleaved forest (>5m)
T110	Mosaic Forest/Shrubland (50-70%) / Grassland (20-50%)
T120	Mosaic Grassland (50-70%) / Forest/Shrubland (20-50%)
T130	Closed to open (>15%) shrubland (<5m)
T140	Closed to open (>15%) grassland

562	Table 1	. Explanatory	variables us	sed to model	the hare	species	distributions.
		1 2				1	

T150	Sparse (>15%) vegetation (woody vegetation, shrubs, grassland)
T180	Closed to open (>15%) vegetation (grassland, shrubland, woody vegetation) on
1100	regularly flooded or waterlogged soil - Fresh, brackish or saline water
T190	Artificial surfaces and associated areas (urban areas >50%)
T200	Bare areas
T210	Water bodies

- 564 Table 2. Variables included in the logistic regressions for the studied hare species in
- 565 Europe (estimate / Wald test values / *p-value*: *<0.05; **<0.01; ***<0.001). Variables

566 marked with "FDR" were those excluded after false discovery rate analyses, and thus

567 were not included in the final models. Variables coded as in Table 1.

Variables	Lepus granatensis	L. europaeus	L. timidus
LONG	-0.609 / 45.529 / ***	0.156 / 120.858 / ***	-0.056 / 6.237 / *
LAT	-0.736 / 17.019 / ***		0.167 / 25.16 / ***
BIO1			-0.098 / 87.23 / ***
BIO3	-0.486 / 18.955 / ***	FDR	
BIO4		-0.001 / 21.676 / ***	
BIO5			0.041 / 23.355 / ***
BIO6		FDR	
BIO7	FDR		
BIO11		FDR	
BIO12		FDR	
BIO15	-0.205 / 45.482 / ***	-0.088 / 185.019 / ***	
BIO17	-0.042 / 13.173 / ***		0.011 / 24.01 / ***
T11	0.144 / 7.02 / ***	FDR	
T14	FDR	0.023 / 17.361 / ***	-0.107 / 59.053 / ***
T30	0.076 / 3.99 / *		
T50	0.045 / 7.025 / ***		-0.026 / 5.458 / *
T70		FDR	-0.05 / 9.457 / **
Т90		-0.019 / 12.244 / ***	
T100		FDR	
T110	FDR		
T120	-0.163 / 11.238 / ***		-0.1 / 20.997 / ***
T140		FDR	FDR
T150		-0.085 / 119.854 / ***	-0.104 / 107.186 / ***
T180		-0.065 / 22.62 / ***	
T190	FDR	FDR	
T200	FDR		

T210		-0.041 / 21.278 / ***	-0.053 / 17.13 / ***
Intercept	63.519 / 39.387 / ***	3.399 / 50.549 / ***	-8.854 / 9.167 / **

- 570 Table 3. Rates of increase (*I*, expansion [+] or net loss [-]), overlap (*O*), maintenance
- 571 (M) and shifting (S) of favourability predicted for the future projection (2080 and A2

572 emissions scenario) in relation to models calibrated for the present period. Lepus

- 573 granatensis/L. europaeus and L. europaeus/L. timidus represent the fuzzy overlap index
- 574 between these species.

Model	Without biotic interaction			With biotic interaction				
	Ι	0	M	S	Ι	0	M	S
L. granatensis	0.065	0.866	0.959	0.041	-0.064	0.911	0.889	0.047
L. europaeus	-0.052	0.835	0.886	0.062	-0.281	0.842	0.688	0.031
L. timidus	-0.283	0.717	0.717	0.000	-0.696	0.646	0.304	0.000
L. granatensis /	-0.227	0.418	0.523	0.250			1	
L. europaeus								
L. europaeus /	-0.228	0.593	0.660	0.112				
L. timidus								

575

577	FIG	URE	LEG	ENDS

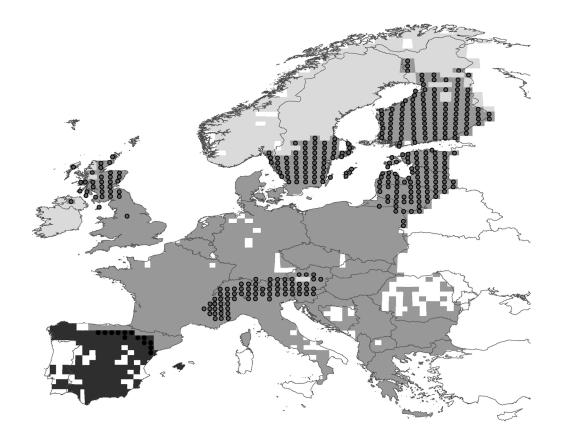
578 Figure 1. Distribution areas (from dark grey to bright grey) of Lepus granatensis, L.

579 *europaeus* and *L. timidus* in Europe. Points depict areas where more than one species

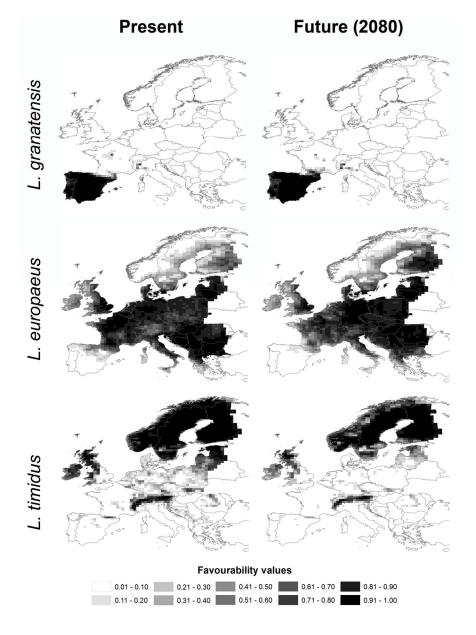
- 580 co-occurs, L. granatensis and L. europaeus (black points) or L. europaeus and L.
- 581 timidus (grey points). Data were obtained from The Atlas of European Mammals
- 582 (Mitchell-Jones et al. 1999).
- Figure 2. Favourability and projections of favourability (for 2080) in Europe for *Lepus granatensis*, *L. europaeus* and *L. timidus*. Colours are graduated from black (the most

585 favourable areas) to white (the most unfavourable areas).

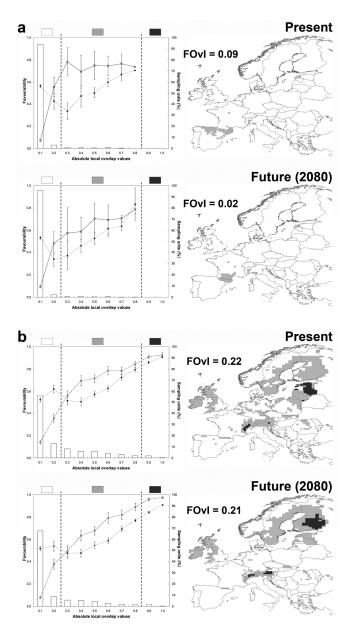
Figure 3. Biogeographical relationships between parapatric hare species in Europe: a) 586 587 Lepus granatensis (squares and solid line) versus L. europaeus (black squares and 588 dotted line), and b) L. europaeus (black squares and dotted line) versus L. timidus 589 (circles and dotted line). Variations of mean favourability scores along the gradients defined by the absolute local overlap values are displayed. The gradients are divided 590 591 into natural intervals, and mean favourability values (95% confidence intervals) are 592 shown. The number of sampling sites at each interval is also shown in columns. 593 Intervals are defined (intermittent vertical lines) in the charts and mapped.



Distribution areas (from dark grey to bright grey) of Lepus granatensis, L. europaeus and L. timidus in Europe. Points depict areas where more than one species co-occurs, L. granatensis and L. europaeus (black points) or L. europaeus and L. timidus (grey points). Data were obtained from The Atlas of European Mammals (Mitchell-Jones et al. 1999). 150x120mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Favourability and projections of favourability (for 2080) in Europe for Lepus granatensis, L. europaeus and L. timidus. Colours are graduated from black (the most favourable areas) to white (the most unfavourable areas). 108x150mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Biogeographical relationships between parapatric hare species in Europe: a) Lepus granatensis (squares and solid line) versus L. europaeus (black squares and dotted line), and b) L. europaeus (black squares and dotted line) versus L. timidus (circles and dotted line). Variations of mean favourability scores along the gradients defined by the absolute local overlap values are displayed. The gradients are divided into natural intervals, and mean favourability values (95% confidence intervals) are shown. The number of sampling sites at each interval is also shown in columns. Intervals are defined (intermittent vertical lines) in the charts and mapped. 150x279mm (300 x 300 DPI)