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Detecting the True Extent of Introgression during Anthropogenic Hybridization

1   Detecting the true extent of introgression during anthropogenic hybridization

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8

9   **Abstract**

10   Hybridization among naturally separate taxa is increasing due to human impact,

11   and can result in taxon loss. Previous classification of anthropogenic

12   hybridization has largely ignored the case of bimodal hybrid zones, in which

13   hybrids commonly mate with parental species resulting in many backcrossed

14   individuals with a small proportion of introgressed genome. Genetic markers can

15   be used to detect such hybrids, but until recently too few markers have been

16   used to detect the true extent of introgression. Recent studies of wolves and

17   trout have used thousands of markers to reveal previously undetectable

18   backcrosses. This improved resolution will lead to increased detection of late

19   generation backcrosses, shed light on the consequences of anthropogenic

20   hybridization, and pose new management issues for conservation scientists.

21

Anthropogenic hybridization

Anthropogenic hybridization (see Glossary), in which human disturbance leads to range overlap and **hybridization** of previously reproductively isolated populations or species is a growing conservation concern [1-3]. With increased human-generated movement of species into new ranges, there is an increasing number of cases of hybridization between species that were historically **allopatric** [4]. Disturbance of habitats can also result in a breakdown of reproductive isolation between previously isolated, **sympatric** species [1]. **Introgression** is usually hard to detect from phenotypes and there is growing evidence that backcrossing has often proceeded further than is detectable by low density genetic marker panels. In this article we make the case that genomic approaches are essential and increasingly available to disentangle late generation backcrosses from parental populations after introgression has occurred.

The benefits of anthropogenic hybridization

There are possible benefits of anthropogenic hybridization. Policy makers can use hybridization as a management tool to help endangered populations. In 'genetic rescue' programs (i.e. breeding programs designed to release small populations from inbreeding depression), individuals from a closely related population or subspecies are introduced to an inbred population to manage inbreeding depression. For example, when Florida panthers (*Puma concolor coryi*) were threatened due to inbreeding depression, eight Texas panthers (*P. concolor cougaur*) were introduced. The **hybrid** kittens survived better, and the population is now recovering [5]. Approximately 90% of such genetic rescue attempts have been successful, showing that anthropogenic hybridization is a viable conservation method [6]. Adaptive introgression ('evolutionary rescue') in which beneficial alleles from an introduced population are selected for in hybrid individuals is another possible benefit of anthropogenic hybridization. For example, a segment of chromosome 15 that has naturally introgressed from *Populus balsamifera* into *P. trichocarpa* appears to allow *P. trichocarpa* to live in colder, drier areas than *P. trichocarpa* individuals without this haplotype [7]. This suggests that there is potential for adaptive introgression to facilitate

55   evolutionary rescue of populations at risk of extinction due to climate change [8],

56   although such genomic management of at risk populations much enabling

57   research, and should be approached with caution [9, 10].

58

59   **The problems with anthropogenic hybridization**

60   Anthropogenic hybridization can cause problems for native species. When no

61   offspring or sterile offspring are produced, reproductive effort is wasted [11].

62   When fertile F1s are formed, introgression between the two previously diverged

63   species is possible. There are two reasons why even low levels of introgression

64   of non-native alleles are of concern from a conservation perspective. First, if all

65   individuals of a species are hybrids then the species as it was is extinct. This has

66   been termed 'extinction by hybridization' [11-15]. Note, however, that there may

67   still be many copies of the native alleles represented in the population, so long as

68   the population itself is large enough, and from a 'gene view point' we may be

69   content with this mode of conservation [16].

70

71   The second problem with hybridization is that introgression and recombination

72   break up linked gene complexes, and non-native alleles that are favoured (or no

73   longer in linkage with deleterious alleles) can be swept to fixation [17]. While

74   this leads to an initial increase in biodiversity (because alleles from both the

75   native and non-native populations are present) as non-native alleles sweep to

76   fixation, native alleles are lost. If we again take a gene view point of biodiversity,

77   any alleles lost from the native population are a loss in biodiversity from the

78   system. For example, non-native alleles at three out of 68 genetic markers have

79   gone to fixation in some populations of California Tiger Salamanders

80   (*Ambystoma californiense*) after hybridization with Barred Tiger Salamanders (*A.*

81   *mavortium*) [18]. This has occurred in California Tiger Salamander populations

82   that are nearly 100km from the original Barred Tiger Salamander introduction

83   site, suggesting that these alleles have higher fitness than the native, California

84   Tiger Salamander alleles that they have replaced [18].

85

86   **Goals of studies of anthropogenic hybridization**

87   Studies of anthropogenic hybridization have different goals. A researcher might

88   be interested to know if hybridization has occurred at all in a population to

89   determine whether it should provide the breeding stock for new populations,

90   and or whether it should be quarantined because of hybridization. Relatively few

91   informative markers are needed to detect individuals of hybrid origin in any

92   particular population, as the detection of any non-native allele is a clear

93   indication of hybridization [19].

94

95   However, if a researcher wishes to understand more about the underlying

96   process of hybridization and introgression, then many more markers are

97   required. Specific goals might include: to select individuals for breeding

98   programs; to understand the relationship between genotype and phenotype; to

99   understand the type of hybrid system involved (see next section); and to

100   investigate mating patterns and fitness. For any of these goals, it is ideal to

101   quantify individual **admixture** accurately, and to do this this hundreds or

102   thousands of informative markers may be required (see below).

103

104   **Classifying hybridization**

105   To assist researchers and policy makers in addressing anthropogenic

106   hybridization, Allendorf and colleagues [11] categorized hybridization outcomes.

107   Types 1-3 applied to naturally-occurring hybridization while Types 4-6 applied

108   to anthropogenic hybridization. Type 4 results in few or sterile F1 hybrids, and is

109   characterized by wasted reproductive effort. Type 5 results in a **hybrid swarm**

110   with widespread introgression into particular populations, but some populations

111   do not experience hybridization at all. Finally, Type 6 results in a complete

112   hybrid swarm following break down of reproductive isolation between species

113   across all populations [11].

114

115   Three axes of variation determine the outcome of anthropogenic hybridization:

116   differences in hybrid fitness, time since **secondary contact**, and mating patterns

117   of hybrids. Time since secondary contact and mating patterns of hybrids were

118   not explicitly considered in Allendorf et al's original categorization. Type 4

119   differs from Types 5 and 6 along an axis of hybrid fitness, where intrinsic post

120 zygotic isolation affects hybrids in Type 4, but not in Types 5 or 6. This results in

121 little to no backcrossing in Type 4 hybrid zones, as hybrids are extremely unfit

122 compared to parental species. This decrease in hybrid fitness must be extreme,

123 as even with a 90% decrease in fitness, the proportion of hybrids in a hybridizing

124 population is expected to increase [20].

125

126 We suggest that the only difference between Allendorf et al's [11] Type 5 and

127 Type 6 is time since secondary contact. When an F1 reproduces, all of its

128 offspring and descendants are admixed to some extent [20]. If Type 5

129 characterizes a system where only one or few populations have introgression,

130 Type 6 is the logical outcome of this same system, assuming random mating and

131 sufficient time for migration between populations. Thus, we consider Type 5 and

132 Type 6 to be the same, both hybrid swarms with a breakdown of assortative

133 mating, in which hybrids have the same mating success as either of the parental

134 species individuals, and common enough that hybrid x hybrid matings occur.

135

136 When there is a preference among hybrids for parental species phenotypes, or

137 hybrids are very rare, we expect a different pattern of introgression.

138 Backcrossing into the parental species leads to an increasingly large number of

139 individuals with a small proportion (<10%) of their genome that is from the

140 opposite species. As backcrossing continues, morphological differences between

141 parental species and backcrossed individuals lessen, making it more and more

142 difficult to detect a backcross using only phenotypic traits. This results in many

143 hybrid individuals with very small proportions of another genome, although

144 with a maintained bi-modal distribution of trait values between the two parental

145 species (Figure 1). From a conservation perspective we consider this to be a

146 worst-case scenario as these introgressed individuals are very difficult to detect.

147 This can be contrasted with a general lack of assortative mating, in which hybrid

148 individuals are as likely to breed with other hybrid individuals as with parental

149 species (leading to a hybrid swarm), or, in the unlikely event of true assortative

150 mating, where hybrid individuals preferentially breed with each other, which

151 would lead to the eventual formation of a hybrid species e.g. [21]. The contrast

152 between hybrid zones with unimodal distributions of traits and admixture

153 scores and those with bimodal distributions has previously been described in the
154 context of naturally occurring hybrid zones [22], but does not yet seem to inform
155 studies of anthropogenic hybridization.

156

157 The distribution of hybrid scores in a system at equilibrium varies depending on
158 ecological factors that can affect hybrid fitness, and hybrid encounter rate.
159 Extrinsic post zygotic isolation can vary according to ecological factors, affecting
160 the ability of hybrids to successfully mate and reproduce [23]. Further, stochastic
161 factors, particularly when hybrids are rare, or management might alter the
162 reproductive success of hybrid individuals in wild systems. However, if hybrids
163 are fertile, the proportion of hybrid individuals in all populations should increase
164 [20], leading to the extreme end points of majority hybrid populations which
165 either follow a hybrid swarm or **bimodal hybrid zone** distribution.

166

167

168 **Key considerations for genetic analyses of anthropogenic**
169 **hybridization**
170 Published studies of anthropogenic hybridization generally follow a similar
171 protocol. Researchers use codominant marker genotypes to estimate divergence
172 between the two species [24] and then use a clustering approach such as
173 STRUCTURE [25-28], or ADMIXTURE [29, 30] to partition individuals into
174 different genetic groups (K). Those individuals with an admixture score (Q)
175 intermediate to the extreme admixture scores associated with parental species
176 individuals are designated hybrids. Many studies then use HYBRIDLAB [31, 32]
177 or similar methods to simulate hybrid genotypes from the sampled genotypes to
178 assess the **efficiency** (i.e. type II error rate, rate of assigning hybrid individuals
179 as parental species), and **accuracy** (i.e. type I error rate, rate of erroneously
180 assigning parental species individuals as hybrids; [33]). The 'overall
181 performance' of an analysis is the product of efficiency and accuracy and this
182 performance can be used to assess the reliability of the study itself [33]. Here we
183 outline some best practices and points to consider in order to avoid
184 underestimation of the extent of hybridization.

185

186

Divergence between parental species

It is highly relevant to have an estimate of divergence between the focal species in the absence of hybridization. F_{st} is often reported in studies of anthropogenic hybridization, but is rarely used to motivate the marker density deployed for estimates of individual admixture, typically because the same markers are used to determine both F_{st} and individual Q estimates. Simulations have clearly shown that species (or subspecies) with lower divergence will require more markers to accurately estimate admixture, because of shared polymorphisms between them, leading to fewer **diagnostic markers** [33]. While it might not be practical to use markers to estimate F_{st} and then determine how many markers are needed to estimate individual admixture scores, an initial assessment of F_{st} will hint at how much power a system has to detect advanced backcrosses.

Historical admixture

Many systems have a history of repeated secondary contact and hybridization. Documenting historical admixture using genomic resources can determine whether the introgression found is due to recent, anthropogenic forces, or to natural causes, which will change the conservation status of the situation [34, 35]. There are techniques for detecting historical admixture. For example, the ABBA-BABA test can be used to determine if there has been historical introgression from a third species or population into each of two closely related sister taxa, to explain variation that is not well explained by a null assumption of bifurcating phylogeny [36]. This technique can be applied to either sequences of single individuals from each population, or to multiple individuals from each population [37], and can be used to indicate historical (hundreds to thousands of generations before present) admixture. Similarly, $\delta a \delta i$ analyses can be used to determine how well different demographic models fit the pattern of variation in the data, where demographic models can include admixture at different time points [38]. For example demographic modeling was used to demonstrate that hybridization between golden-winged (*Vermivora chrysoptera*) and blue winged warblers (*V. cyanoptera*) has probably been occurring since the original species split, and is not solely due to anthropogenic forces [39]. Finally, researchers can

219 examine the length of haplotype blocks that are identical by descent, as linkage

220 disequilibrium decays over time due to recombination [40, 41]. The distribution

221 of haplotype block lengths should follow a Poisson distribution [41] and

222 deviation from this distribution can be used to infer population admixture over

223 both short (tens of generations) [42] and long time spans [41]. These and other

224 techniques for disentangling historical and contemporary admixture are

225 reviewed in [43].

226

227 **Generations since secondary contact and recombination rates**

228 It is important to estimate the number of generations since secondary contact to

229 estimate the potential number of backcross generations in a system. This

230 estimate might have substantial uncertainty, but in many cases of anthropogenic

231 hybridization there are historical records that suggest when a non-native species

232 was first introduced or sighted that can be combined with typical generation

233 times for the taxa involved. The expected proportion of invasive genome in a

234 backcrossed individual halves with each successive generation of backcrossing

235 [44].

236

237 Recombination each generation leads to less linkage disequilibrium between

238 non-native loci, which means that genotype at a species-specific marker in one

239 position is less informative about surrounding, un-sampled loci. For example,

240 genomic regions with high recombination rates were found to be associated with

241 more introgression of the non-native genome in replicate swordtail (*Xiphophorus*

242 *birchmanni and X. malinche*) hybrid zones [17]. Due to obligatory crossing over,

243 which is expected to occur once per chromosome arm [45], at least twice as

244 many markers as there are chromosome arms are needed to cover each

245 independent section of the genome. In some cases, there is a species-specific

246 estimate of recombination (e.g. [46]), or one can refer to taxon-specific patterns.

247 For example, there is as much as 10 times more recombination in avian genomes

248 than in mammalian genomes [47]. Additionally, information on recombination

249 rate can be combined with genomic methods examining haplotype block lengths

250 to date introgression events (as discussed above). We discuss how many

251 markers are needed further in Box 1.

Assessing the power of markers

Many studies of anthropogenic hybridization assess the power of genetic
markers used by simulating hybrid genotypes and then determining the power
the markers have to detect these hybrid genotypes [48]. When assessing the
power of markers in this way, it is important to ensure that the biology of the
system is reflected in the simulation. In particular, if the two species of interest
have been in contact for many generations and F1s are thought to be fertile
(Figure 1), then simulations should account for the possibility of many
generations of backcrossing. This is rarely done in conservation genetic studies -
many studies simulate backcrosses to assess the power of their markers, and
find low power to detect even first generation backcrosses, for example finding
less than 80% of first generation backcrosses are properly assigned [49, 50].
Further information obtained from laboratory or field studies, such as
asymmetry in hybrid fertility (e.g. between sexes, Haldane's Rule [51] or
according to the species of the mother of the F1, Darwin's Corollary [52]), should
also be included in simulations. For example, if previous laboratory work has
established that backcrossing is largely unidirectional because of decreased
fitness of hybrid individuals in the opposite direction (as expected by Darwin's
Corollary) or due to the relative abundance of the parental species, then
mitochondrial markers should be integrated into future analyses to add power to
detect hybrids.

Defining hybrid individuals

To be defined as a hybrid, a focal individual must be genetically differentiated
from both parental species. Parental species are assumed to have an admixture
(Q) score of 0 or 1, although because of error (e.g. non-diagnostic markers,
genotyping errors), very few individuals will have an estimated score of exactly 0
or 1. Any score in between indicates a hybrid [25]. It is typical for a researcher to
set a Q score as a cut-off for hybrid individuals, so any individual above (or
below) this score is considered parental. Thresholds are determined either by
power, specifically, at what level can the markers differentiate between hybrids
and parental species, or by the number of acceptably mis-matched markers, e.g.

one allele indicative of the other species might be an error, but two markers

suggest hybridization [53]. These thresholds can range widely between studies,

from 0.8 [54] to 0.999 [30] in relation to a parental species score of 1.0.

Determination of the threshold is a balancing act between Type I and Type II

errors, in which the researcher must decide whether it is better to mistakenly

assign a parental species individual as a hybrid (Type I; too low 'accuracy'; [33])

or assign hybrid individuals as parental types (Type II; too low 'efficiency'; [33]).

If the researcher accepts a higher level of Type II errors, they consider advanced

backcrosses as parental species. For example, an admixture score threshold of

0.8 would include most second-generation backcrosses (87% of the genome is

species A, 13% of the genome is species B on average) as parental species.

Similarly, with a Q score of 0.9, third-generation backcrosses (average of 93%

species A) would be included as parental species individuals.

There are two ways to ameliorate error introduced in species assignment using

thresholds. One obvious way is to employ more markers (Box 1), which

increases the power of a study and allows the setting of thresholds approaching

0 and 1. Studies that have used thousands of markers use the most stringent

thresholds e.g. [30]. A second solution to the threshold problem is to do away

with them entirely. Rather than assigning individuals to species classes based on

point estimates, it is more appropriate to use **credible** or **confidence intervals**

around point estimates which capture uncertainty in the marker system

appropriately (Box 2). In this scenario any individual with a credible interval

overlapping 0 or 1 is considered a parental species and all others are considered

hybrids.

An additional problem in separating hybrid individuals from parental species is

that some hybrids, particularly later generation of backcrosses, will be

homozygous for all sampled diagnostic loci by chance. This is due to increased

variation around the proportion of genome inherited from each parental species

with each generation of backcrossing ([44]; Box 1). The hybrid nature of these

individuals will be undetectable, and they will be classified as parental species,

even though unmarked genome regions may be introgressed. Increasing the

318   number of markers increases the probability of sampling a hybrid individual at

319   loci that are heterozygous or homozygous for alleles representative of both

320   parental species (Box 1).

321

Higher density markers to identify bimodal hybrid zones

323   When researchers apply higher density marker panels to examples of

324   anthropogenic hybridization, they generally uncover more backcrossed

325   individuals compared to studies using low-density panels, and can draw more

326   accurate conclusions about the system. These newly-detected backcrosses are

327   often genetically very similar to the parental species, with less than 10%

328   introgression, indicative of a bimodal hybrid zone. For example, in a study of

329   Italian wolves that hybridize with domestic dogs, use of 170,000 SNPs found that

330   hybridization had occurred 3 -5 generations prior to sampling [30]. This multi-

331   generation backcrossing was not detectable in the population when 18

332   microsatellite markers were used [49]. Further, while very few individuals were

333   found to have Q scores between 0.25 and 0.75, as would be expected in a hybrid

334   swarm with a complete breakdown of reproductive isolation, 62% of sampled

335   Eurasian wolves had a small proportion (<5%) of admixture with domestic dogs

336   [55]. The Eurasian wolf – domestic dog system has the distribution of admixture

337   scores and phenotypes that characterizes a bimodal hybrid zone with some

338   degree of mating preference for parental phenotypes, or rare intermediate

339   hybrids. In this system, most individuals are either phenotypically dog-like with

340   extreme Q scores at one end of the distribution, or phenotypically wolf-like with

341   Q scores at the other end of the distribution. There are few individuals with

342   intermediate Q scores and phenotypes. This can be contrasted with the

343   westslope cutthroat (*Oncorhynchus clarki lewisi*) – rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*)

344   system, which has also recently been genotyped using 3180 diagnostic SNPs

345   [56]. While the increase in number of markers did lead to increased detection of

346   advanced backcrosses, there were also many individuals with intermediate Q

347   scores and phenotypes [56, 57]. This suggests that the westslope cutthroat-

348   rainbow trout system is a hybrid swarm that has little assortative mating.

349

350   **Designing an ideal study of an anthropogenic hybrid zone**

351   When embarking on a study of anthropogenic hybridization, there are many

352   considerations in deciding on the genetic resources to be used (Box 1). As whole

353   genome sequencing (WGS) becomes cheaper [58], conservation biologists should

354   consider whether WGS is the best way forward. Firstly, WGS data allows for

355   detection of heterogeneity of introgression across the genome. If conservation

356   biologists truly adopt a 'gene view point' of hybridization [16] then individuals

357   ought to be classified based on whether they carry specific alleles at identified

358   loci, rather than by overall Q scores (but see [10] for a discussion of the difficulty

359   of implementing this approach). Secondly, WGS enables the researcher to

360   distinguish between historical and contemporary introgression. Finally, we

361   anticipate that the use of WGS will result in more diagnostic or **ancestry**

362   **informative markers** being detected, and thus make studies more powerful.

363   Researchers will be more confident in their estimates of individual admixture,

364   and will report the power and confidence associated with their analyses (Box 2).

365   While the bioinformatics skills required to assemble a genome and call SNPs may

366   seem intimidating, we believe that 1) these are skills are now routinely taught in

367   universities and 2) WGS presents an additional opportunity for conservation

368   biologists to collaborate with speciation geneticists (Box 3). Another

369   consideration is that high quality DNA is needed for the most accurate

370   assemblies, although progress is being made towards high quality sequences

371   from poor quality samples (e.g. [59]). While the use of WGS is more expensive

372   than microsatellite marker studies, when the cost of microsatellite markers,

373   including the cost of labour, was compared to the use of SNP markers in

374   European wolves, SNPs were less expensive if at least 24 samples were

375   genotyped [60]. This suggests that the use of thousands of variable genome wide

376   markers (e.g. from ddRAD [61]) may represent a practical middle ground for

377   conservation biologists, depending on the history and biology of the system.

378   Taken together, we believe that the best way forward to accurately detect

379   backcrossing in studies of anthropogenic hybrid zones is to routinely use higher

380   density markers, including WGS when possible.

381

382   **Concluding Remarks**

383 Advanced backcrosses are unlikely to have been detected with many of the

384 methods that biologists studying anthropogenic hybridization have used to date.

385 Most studies of anthropogenic hybridization have used fewer than 20 markers

386 [13], too few to reliably detect individuals that are more than two generations

387 backcrossed [33], unless markers are perfectly species diagnostic [44]. For this

388 reason, it is rare for studies to consider backcrossed individuals past the second

389 generation of backcrossing, regardless of the number of generations that have

390 passed since secondary contact. Here, we suggest that studies should attempt to

391 go much further. By accounting for the number of generations since secondary

392 contact and increasing the density of genetic markers accordingly, many more

393 backcrossed individuals will become distinguishable from the parental

394 populations. We echo the call for more genetic markers to be used in these

395 studies to allow for higher accuracy and efficiency [1, 3, 13, 33, 62], particularly

396 since we have now entered the genomics era, making tens or hundreds of

397 thousands of markers obtainable even in non-model systems [58]. It seems likely

398 that anthropogenic hybridization will only increase in frequency and result in

399 increased gene flow between previously isolated species [1]. The increase in

400 number of markers and associated power will also open up the opportunity to

401 ask new questions in these systems, parallel to those speciation biologists

402 explore in natural hybrid zones (Box 3). There are new challenges with

403 increased marker density, but a genomic approach to studying these systems will

404 help researchers to detect backcrosses and make the best policy

405 recommendations.

406

411   **Additional Elements**

412

413   **Glossary**

- **Anthropogenic hybridization:** the breakdown of reproductive isolation between two species due to human action, including but not limited to, species introduction, habitat disturbance or escape of domestic species.
- **Accuracy:** the proportion of identified hybrids that are actually of hybrid ancestry [33]. A low accuracy suggests a high rate of type I errors, in which parental species individuals are erroneously assigned as hybrids.
- **Admixture**: the mixing of genomes from structured or diverged populations
- **Allopatry**: species in non-overlapping ranges
- **Ancestry informative markers:** genetic markers with substantial allele frequency differences across populations, which can be used to assign individuals to each population [63]
- **Bimodal hybrid zone:** a hybridizing population in which preference for parental phenotypes, or scarcity of hybrids with which to mate, results in a population that includes few F1 hybrids, and many backcrossed individuals with a low level of introgression that often resemble the parental species in phenotype. Can be unimodal (if backcrossing is into just one parental species) or bimodal (backcrossing into both parental species) [22]
- **Credible interval:** the range of possible values surrounding a point estimate, representing the uncertainty in the estimate
- **Diagnostic markers:** markers with fixed allele differences across populations
- **D_{xy}:** an absolute measure of genetic differentiation, calculated as the proportion of nucleotides that differ between two homologous sequences within the same or different population.
- **Efficiency**: Proportion of correctly identified individuals in each group [33]. If the null hypothesis is that an individual is from the parental species rather than a hybrid individual, then low efficiency suggests a

443 high rate of type II errors, in which hybrid individuals are incorrectly
444 assigned as parental species.

445 • **F$_{ST}$** –A measure of genetic differentiation between populations based on
446 the difference in allele frequencies within and between populations [64]

447 • **Hybridization:** mating of individuals from diverged populations

448 • **Hybrid:** an individual that has an intermediate genotype between two
449 diverged, parental populations, as the result of interbreeding between
450 these populations

451 • **Hybrid swarm:** a hybridizing population that includes F1 hybrids and
452 various backcrosses, due to a total breakdown of assortative mating. Also
453 known as a unimodal hybrid zone [22].

454 • **Introgression:** the movement of alleles between genetically
455 differentiated forms (including populations, species, etc), mediated by
456 backcrossing [65]

457 • **Secondary contact:** Occurs when two (or more) species that have been in
458 allopatry come back into sympatry

459 • **Sympatry**: species in overlapping ranges

460

461   Figure 1: Anthropogenic hybridization falls into three main categories. These are
462   1) systems with inviable or infertile hybrids, 2) bimodal hybrid zones in which
463   there is either mating preference for parental species phenotypes or the relative
464   abundance of parental species means most matings are backcrosses and 3)
465   hybrid swarms in which there is random mating and many hybrid individuals. In
466   this schematic figure we illustrate for each type of anthropogenic hybridization
467   system how many individuals of each admixture (Q) score might be found and
468   typical distributions of mating success across Q scores according to whether
469   there is a high likelihood of hybrid individuals mating with the parental species
470   phenotypes present. While we represent hybrid swarms and bimodal hybrid
471   zones as categorically different, these are probably ends of a continuum and
472   some systems may be intermediate between them. Note that we have
473   represented (2) as a bimodal hybrid zone due to backcrossing into both parental
474   species. Alternatively there can be a single (i.e. unimodal) hybrid zone due to
475   unidirectional backcrossing.

Box 1 – How many markers do I need to discover backcrossed individuals in my system?

Substantial power is needed to detect individuals that are the result of repeated generations of backcrossing. General rules have been suggested, including that for each additional generation twice as many markers are needed [44], and that at least 48 markers would be needed to consistently detect first generation backcrossing in hybrids with parental species that have an F_{st} =0.21 [33]. However, we are now in the age of genomics, when the cost of increasing marker density is dramatically decreasing [58], and thus marker numbers should be less of a barrier than previously. So, how many markers does a study need to reliably detect backcrossed individuals?

To maximize detection of backcrossed individuals, researchers can increase their power in three ways; through increased divergence, the use of diagnostic markers, or with increased numbers of markers. Studies with high divergence between hybridizing species have high power [33]. However, as many conservation biologists choose their study system based on conservation concerns and not to maximize power, this advice is not helpful. Diagnostic markers have fixed allelic differences between parental species and are the most powerful for backcross detection [25]. Ancestry informative markers, those with strong allele frequency divergence between species, are also very powerful [63]. Loci with weak allele frequency divergence between species are least useful. Diagnostic and ancestry informative markers can be determined based on genotyping and contrasting known parental species individuals, although this is not always feasible (e.g. [55]). Additionally, the diagnostic properties of markers are a function of the populations and individuals that have been sampled; more extensive sampling sometimes demonstrates that selected markers are not diagnostic for all populations [66]. Generally speaking, the more markers used, the higher the chance of detection of admixture in an individual [33, 44].

Assuming diagnostic markers, it is ideal to know the number of elapsed generations since the initial hybridization, as, for every further generation of

509   backcrossing, the proportion of introgressed genome halves [44]. The number of

510   generations since hybridization should be interpreted with an eye to policy.

511   After some number of generations of uni-directional backcrossing, policy will

512   dictate that we consider an individual to be parental species (again) [67]. It's

513   best to make this decision prior to marker selection, as it is impossible to apply

514   policy decisions regarding the acceptability of backcrossed individuals without

515   sufficient detection power.

516

517   If we are interested in all generations of backcrossing, then we can extend the

518   deterministic model developed by Boecklen and Howard ([44]; Equation 2) for

519   the genomics era. We made the same assumptions, specifically that backcrossing

520   is unidirectional, loci are independent and Mendelian, all markers are diagnostic,

521   all backcrossing is between the previous generation of backcrosses and parental

522   species, and all genotypes are equally fecund [44]. We asked what proportion of

523   backcrossed individuals are undetectable because they are homozygous for all

524   diagnostic markers. We modeled 10 generations of backcrossing, and each of 10,

525   100 and 1000 diagnostic markers (Figure I). When using 10 diagnostic markers,

526   52% of 4th generation backcrosses are homozygous for one parental species at

527   all loci, and thus undetectable as backcrosses. In contrast, 1000 diagnostic

528   markers allow for powerful (85%) detection of 9th generation backcrosses.

529

530

531

532   Figure I: An extension of the deterministic model presented by Boecklen and

533   Howard [44]. The proportion of hybrid individuals that are homozygous at all

534   the (diagnostic) markers, and are hence indistinguishable from the parental

535   species that is being introgressed, increases with each generation of

536   backcrossing, but decreases with increased marker density. This demonstrates

537   that more markers than are typically used in studies of anthropogenic

538   hybridization are needed to detect advanced backcrosses.

539

Box 2 – Reporting Error

Credible (or confidence) intervals (CIs) are a powerful, intuitive way to assess confidence in the estimates being presented [68, 69]. Measures of uncertainty are not always presented in estimates of anthropogenic hybridization (although see [53, 70-73] for exceptions), perhaps because the uncertainty is so high where estimated. Credible intervals can be calculated using STRUCTURE [25] and standard errors can be calculated using ADMIXTURE [29], so reporting of error estimates is easily implemented in a routine workflow.

There are practical implications of the reporting of credible intervals, particularly for individuals with very low or very high admixture values (Q). Cut-off thresholds have been used to determine if individuals are members of the parental populations or are admixed, but these thresholds are usually based on the detection power of a study (see main text). Since these are hard cut-offs, individuals with very similar levels of admixture can be assigned to very different populations. For example, with a Q cut-off of 0.80, if individual 1 is assessed as Q=0.79, it is determined to be admixed and, depending on the management of the system, may be culled. In contrast, if individual 2 is estimated to have Q=0.81, it would be considered a parental species individual and be retained for breeding. There may be no substantive difference between these individuals, although this is impossible to tell using only point estimates.

We recommend that credible intervals should also be included in visual depictions of admixture. Typically, the key figure from a paper on anthropogenic hybridization is the characteristic "STRUCTURE Bar Plot" [25], that uses stacked colours to denote genetic contributions from different source populations. These plots show the point estimates for each individual, and allow the author to determine thresholds for inclusion in each group. While such figures are compelling and easily interpreted, they do not convey the uncertainty around individual point estimates.

Allendorf and colleagues [11] noted that it is very difficult to make policy decisions when comparing different low point estimates of admixture. We

19

573   recommend that researchers should focus on the uncertainty around Q estimates

574   when making decisions about the genetic group each individual belongs to. It has

575   been pointed out that the use of credible intervals demonstrates the high levels

576   of uncertainty researchers are facing [70]. As they should! This problem will of

577   course be substantially alleviated by using more markers (see Box 1).

578

579   **Box 3: Lessons from Natural Systems**

580

581   Naturally occurring hybrid zones have long been used as 'natural laboratories' to

582   study the speciation process [74]. The field of speciation genomics works to

583   understand how genomic differences build up to cause eventual reproductive

584   isolation [75-78]. Recently, population geneticists have used genome wide

585   markers to ask questions regarding the genomic architecture of reproductive

586   isolation and speciation, and how the genomes of diverged populations change in

587   the face of on-going gene flow [43, 78, 79]. Further, many studies of natural

588   hybrid zones have focused on isolating signals from historical vs. contemporary

589   hybridization (main text 2.1.1, [78]). These questions that speciation biologists

590   ask using hybrid zones could equally be asked in anthropogenic hybrid zones,

591   particularly in studies that used whole genome sequence data. Indeed, studies of

592   anthropogenic hybrid zones may even have more power than those with

593   naturally occurring secondary contact as in some cases of introduced or escaped

594   heterospecifics, phenotypic divergence is more extreme, meaning that fewer

595   individuals would need to be sampled for, for example, admixture mapping [78].

596

597   Use of genomic data allows speciation geneticists to examine heterogeneity in

598   divergence across the genome. Indeed, the questions we noted above are most

599   interesting when heterogeneity is found. Genome scans look for regions of high

600   divergence between species (F_{st} or $\mathbf{d_{xy}}$) which may indicate regions that resist

601   introgression, also known as 'speciation islands' [80], or 'islands of

602   differentiation' [79]. While such signals are not without controversy [81], and in

603   some cases may represent phylogenetically derived regions of low

604   recombination, rather than reproductive isolation [82], they represent

605   interesting candidate regions for fixed differences between hybridizing species,

606   and thus could be used diagnostically by conservation biologists. For example,

607   golden-winged (*Vermivora chrysoptera*) and blue-winged warblers (*V.*

608   *cyanoptera*), which hybridize in eastern North America are phenotypically

609   distinct but undistinguishable when using low density, microsatellite marker

610   panels [83]. Only with the use of whole genome sequencing were six small

611   divergent regions of the genome discovered, four of which are associated with

612   either pigmentation or feather development genes and explain more than 90% of

613   the variation in plumage [39]. This demonstrates that a focus on the use of high

614   density markers to explore heterogeneity across the genome allows for higher

615   power to both distinguish between closely related, hybridizing species

616   genetically, and to associate genomic regions with diverged phenotypes, two

617   possible goals of conservation biologists working on anthropogenic hybrid

618   zones. We echo the call of [1] that conservation biologists can take a cue from

619   speciation biologists that have, in many cases, developed methods that use

620   genomics to ask interesting questions of hybrid zones.

621

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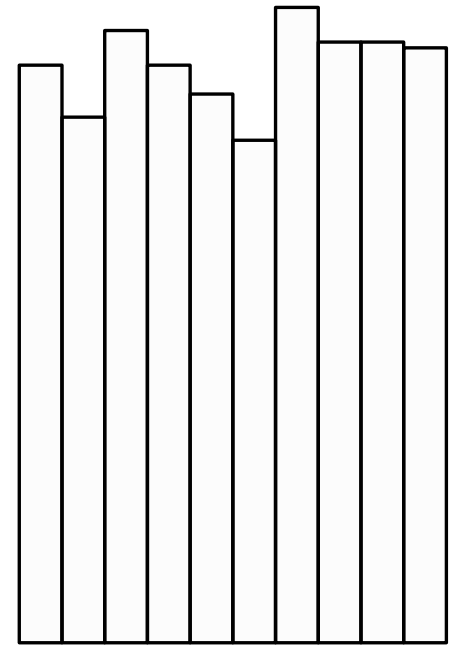832   Molecular Ecology 16 (10), 2017-2029.
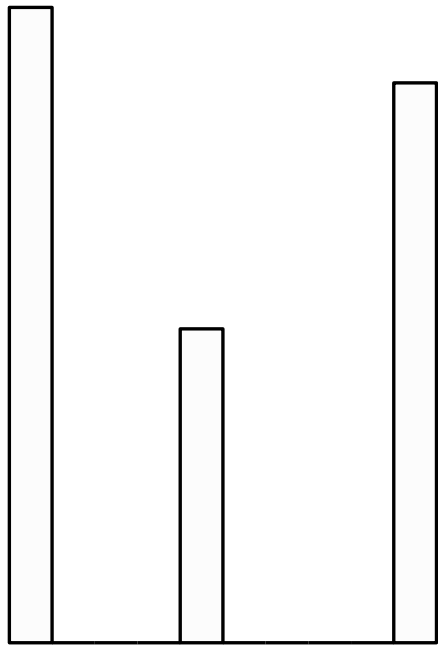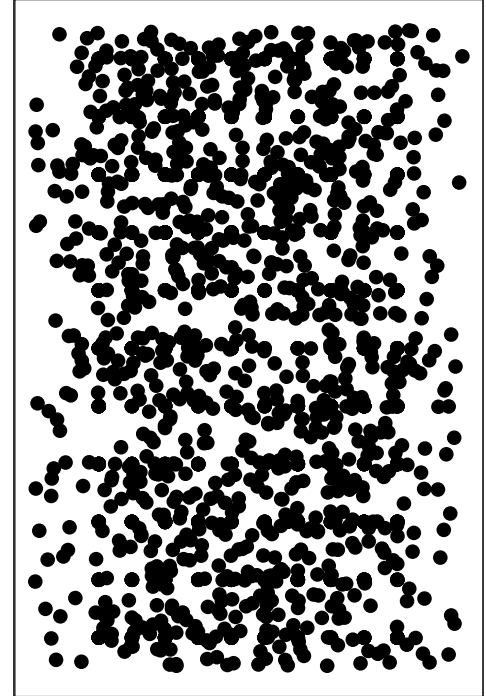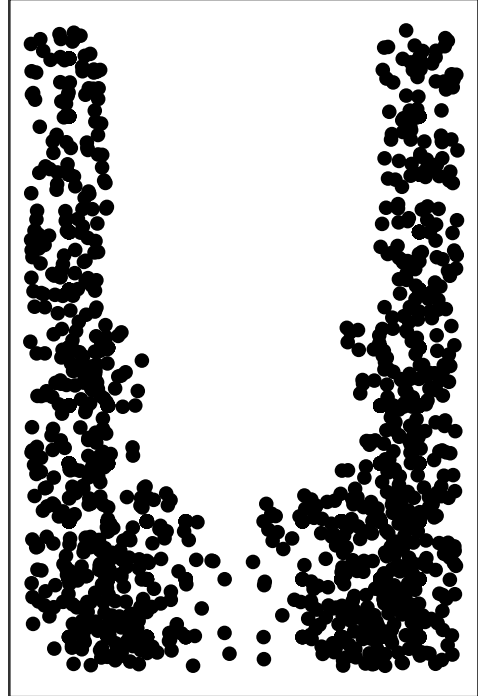
Figure Inviable or Sterile F1s — Bimodal Hybrid Zone — Hybrid Swarm

Number of Individuals
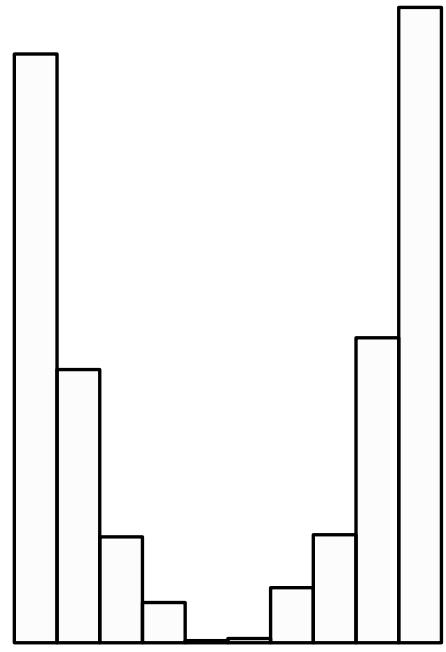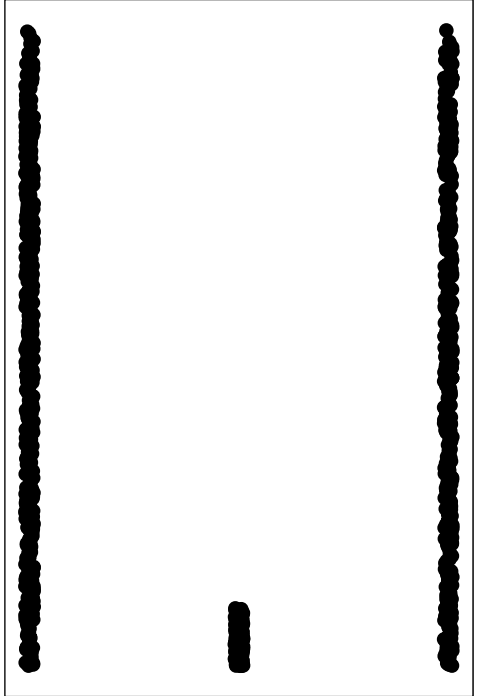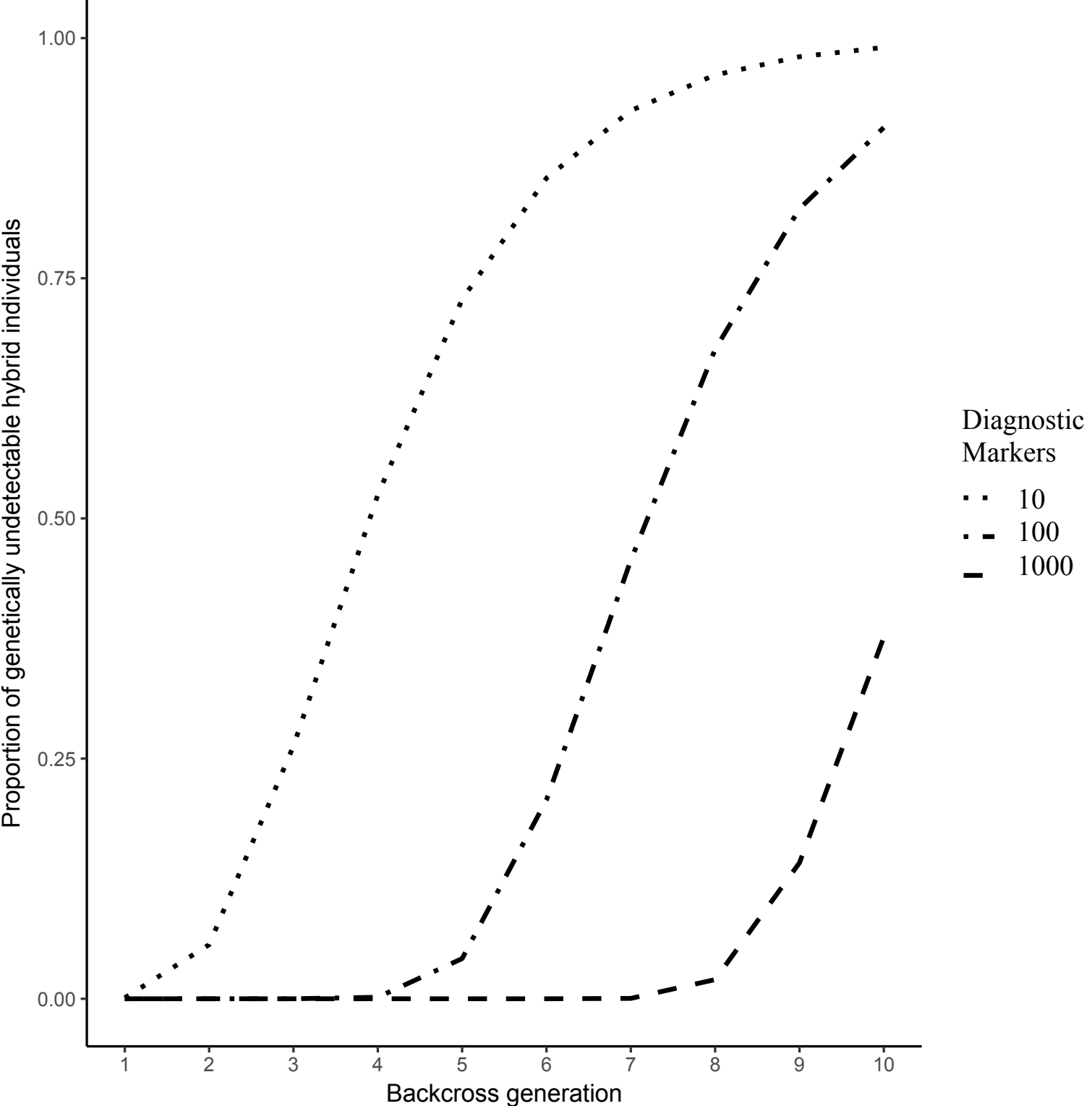
Mating Success

Admixture (Q) scores from 0 - 1

Figure

Outstanding questions:

1) Do replicate anthropogenic hybrid zones show similar patterns of introgression?

There are big evolutionary questions that could be answered by the sorts of data that conservation biologists working on anthropogenic hybridization could answer. For example, there are multiple replicate hybrid zones occurring in the wolf/dog, wild cat/domestic cat, red deer/sika deer, westslope cut throat trout/rainbow trout systems. But in many cases, there is limited communication and collaboration between researchers, or different markers are used across studies [60]. Clearly this isn't a problem unique to this field, but it is the case that collaboration between researchers would be made easier with standardized genome wide data aligned to a common genome. Genomic data make cross study comparisons easier, and would allow for easier comparison between studies.

2) Once there has been a breakdown of reproductive isolation characterized as hybridization, how common is maintenance of within parental species assortative mating? Is the strength of assortative mating stronger when species are more diverged, or perhaps between closely related species that have recently evolved reproductive isolation?

3) What is the relative frequency of hybrid swarms vs bimodal hybrid zones? We expect that the prevalence of bimodal hybrid zones has been underestimated because of the difficulty of detecting highly introgressed backcrosses. Increased use of high-density markers will make these cases easier to detect and would enhance our understanding of the systems that are bimodal hybrid zones.

Highlights:

Anthropogenic hybridization is increasingly common and likely to result in a breakdown of reproductive isolation between 'good' species.

Backcrossed individuals that have only a small proportion of one parental genome are difficult to differentiate from parental individuals using the most common current technologies.

Bimodal hybrid zones are characterized by introgression and backcrossing. The majority of hybrid individuals in these systems have low levels of introgression. The problems posed by bimodal hybrid zones have been largely overlooked in the literature.

Genome wide sampling of genetic markers at high densities allow for increased precision in the estimate of admixture proportions, which makes it feasible to detect multi-generation backcrosses, and will thus make it easier to differentiate bimodal hybrid zones from hybrid swarms or systems without introgression.