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Hybridization between the Woodland Salamanders *Plethodon cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* Is Not Widespread

Shawn R. Kuchta¹, Maggie M. Hantak², Brian P. Waldron¹, Cari-Ann M. Hickerson³, Richard M. Lehtinen⁴, and Carl D. Anthony³

A recent study reported widespread hybridization between the Eastern Red-backed Salamander (*Plethodon cinereus*) and the Northern Ravine Salamander (*P. electromorphus*) in northern Ohio. In this study, DNA sequence data were obtained from three nuclear loci and 20 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were identified from the sequences. They found that 48 out of 90 individuals from 13 populations were hybrids, and in some localities every individual possessed an admixed genotype. As these results contradict our observations, and because levels of hybridization impact our interpretation of past and ongoing studies, we revisited the data. First we reanalyzed the original SNPs using STRUCTURE, then we repeated the analysis using haplotypes instead of SNPs. We found that $K = 2$ was best supported by both analyses, and they agree in recovering lower levels of hybridization than originally reported. For example, five populations in the original study identified as highly admixed or composed entirely of admixed genotypes we found to be pure *P. cinereus* or to lack evidence of extensive admixture. Similar results were obtained using NEWHYBRIDS and analyses based on gene trees. We conclude that while hybridization between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* occurs, it is much more restricted than originally reported.

A diversity of outcomes is possible when divergent groups meet, from sympatry without hybridization, to a narrow hybrid zone, to a hybrid swarm (Barton and Hewitt, 1989; Kuchta, 2007; Pereira and Wake, 2009). In extreme cases, hybridization can lead to the merger of formerly divergent lineages (Jockusch and Wake, 2002; Kleindorfer et al., 2014), resulting in the loss of biodiversity (Seehausen, 2006). While degrees of hybridization are variable across the tree of life, studies have consistently found that it is common, with at least 25% of plant species and 10% of animal species hybridizing with some other species (Mallet, 2005).

In this paper, we report on a reanalysis of hybridization between the Eastern Red-backed Salamander, *Plethodon cinereus*, and the Northern Ravine Salamander, *P. electromorphus*. Some hybridization between the species was apparent from the start, as in the original description of *P. electromorphus* Highton (1999) documented hybridization with *P. cinereus* using allozyme data. In that study, *P. cinereus* was found in 3 out of 16 localities with *P. electromorphus*. No hybridization was detected at two of the localities, but in Wayne County, Ohio, ten hybrid individuals were recovered in a sample that included ≥ 70 of each parental species. One of the hybrids was a possible F1, while the others were backcrosses. Similarly, using microsatellite data, Waldron and Hantak (2020) reported on a single F1 in a sample of 23 individuals from Lorain County, Ohio. Hybridization between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* is interesting in part because the two species are not closely related. Both are members of the “*cinereus* group” (clade) within eastern *Plethodon* (Highton, 1995; Highton et al., 2012), which includes eight other species. However, *P. cinereus* and *P.*

electromorphus are not sister taxa (Sites et al., 2004; Fisher-Reid and Wiens, 2011), and molecular clock studies suggest they diverged > 10 myr ago (Kozak et al., 2006; Wiens et al., 2006).

In an effort to better document the extent of hybridization, Lehtinen et al. (2016; hereafter “L16”) analyzed 90 individuals from 13 populations in northeastern Ohio. In contrast with Highton (1999), they found evidence for extensive and geographically widespread hybridization and speculated that “these two lineages may be in the process of merging back into a single gene pool.” In this paper, we reanalyze the data from L16 (hereafter the “linked data”) and find that the amount of hybridization is substantially lower than was originally reported.

The linked data were obtained from short DNA sequences from three nuclear loci. From these loci, 20 diagnostic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were selected and analyzed using the admixture model in the Bayesian clustering program STRUCTURE 2.3.4 (Pritchard et al., 2000). The population assignment probability (Q score) was used to assign individuals to groups: individuals were considered pure parental types if they had Q scores > 0.90 for either *P. cinereus* or *P. electromorphus*, and all remaining individuals were considered to be of mixed ancestry. Overall, 53% of the individuals analyzed had admixed genotypes, while 27% were pure *P. electromorphus* and 20% were pure *P. cinereus*. In addition, and in sharp contrast with Highton (1999), all syntopic sites in L16 were found to include hybrid individuals, and four localities were found to be composed entirely of hybrids.

The problem with linkage disequilibrium.—The linked data included 20 SNPs from three nuclear loci, but in many cases

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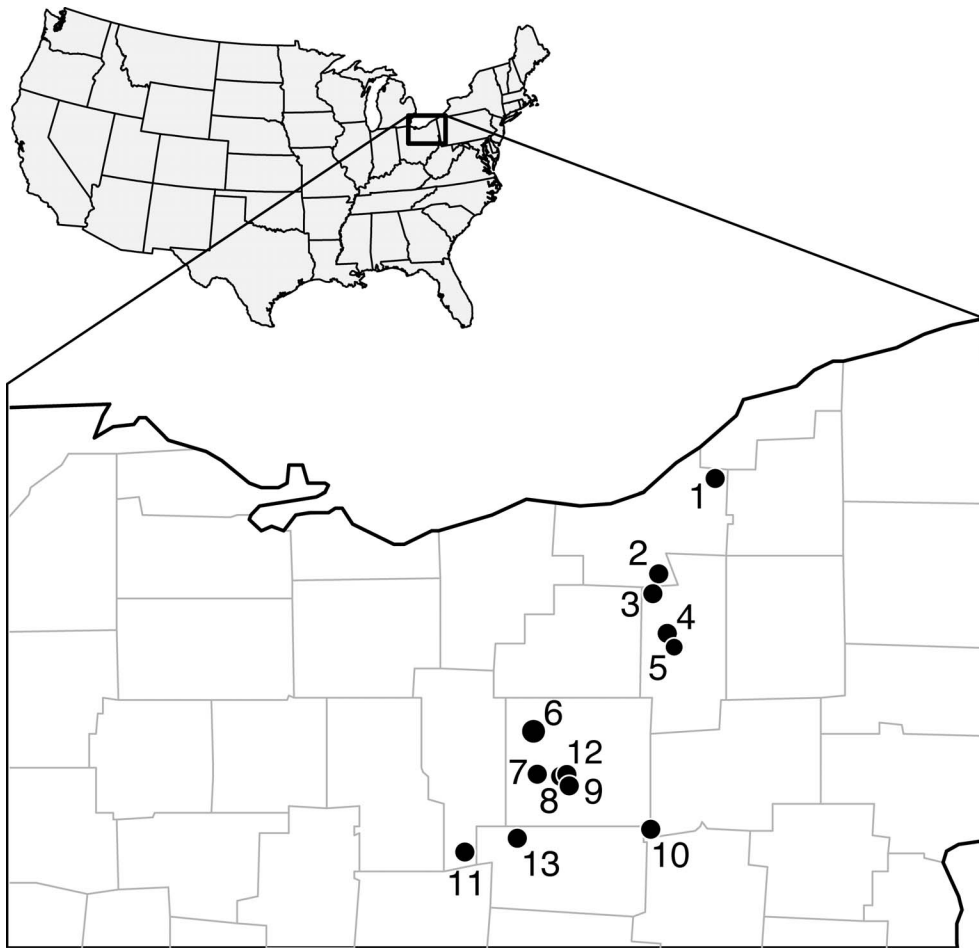


Fig. 1. Map of the sampled localities in central and northern Ohio. Localities are numbered, match Table 1, and are used throughout the text.

SNPs were only a few base pairs apart or even adjacent to one another. This is problematic because SNPs located even thousands of base pairs apart commonly exhibit high levels of linkage disequilibrium (Hohenlohe et al., 2012; Willis et al., 2017; O’Leary et al., 2018), yet most analyses assume molecular markers are statistically independent. The inclusion of tightly linked SNPs can result in false signals consistent with admixture and population structure (Willis et al., 2017; O’Leary et al., 2018). L16 inferred admixture using the program STRUCTURE, which estimates cluster membership by maximizing Hardy Weinberg equilibrium within all loci, while minimizing linkage disequilibrium between loci. That is, a key assumption of the program is that all markers provide independent information regarding ancestry. To quote the manual, “...if the data are dominated by one or a few non- or low-recombining regions, then STRUCTURE could be seriously misled” (Pritchard et al., 2010).

The problem with K.—Given genotypic data, STRUCTURE assigns individuals to K discrete clusters, where each cluster corresponds to a Mendelian population characterized by a set of allele frequencies at each locus. However, the choice of K is often not clear cut. One approach is to use Equation 12 in Pritchard et al. (2000) to calculate the estimated log probability of the data $\Pr(X|K)$ for various K , and select the K with the highest probability. Alternatively, the *ad hoc* statistic ΔK , developed by Evanno et al. (2005), can be used to infer the uppermost hierarchical level of population structure

(thus requiring nested analyses to detect substructure; Converse et al., 2015; Janes et al., 2017). Using the linked data, L16 found that $\Pr(X|K)$ and ΔK were both maximized at $K = 5$. This is a surprising result given that two divergent species were being compared, suggesting ΔK , at least, should equal two.

In this paper we report on reanalyses of the data from L16. We include analyses that do not violate the assumption of linkage disequilibrium, but at the cost of fewer loci, and we evaluate the results of $K = 2$. We also conduct complementary analyses using NEWHYBRIDS and investigations of gene trees. We conclude that while hybridization between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* occurs, it is far less extensive than reported by L16. The species are not as risk of “merging back into a single gene pool.”

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling.—The distributions of *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* in Ohio are complex (figures 19-6 and 19-7 in Pflingsten, 2013; Deitloff, 2011). For their study, L16 obtained genetic data from 13 sites (90 individuals) from central and northern Ohio (Fig. 1). At 11 of these sites, samples were collected without knowledge of whether hybridization was present or not, but during field sampling an effort was made to find specimens that had traits consistent with *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus*, as well as morphological intermediates. Sample sizes ranged from 2–8 individuals per site, except site 7, from which 36 individuals were sampled (Table 1). L16

Table 1. Locality information for samples of *Plethodon cinereus* and *P. electromorphus*. Population numbers correspond to Figure 1 and are used throughout the text.

Population	# Individuals	County	Locality	Latitude	Longitude
1	2	Lake	North Chagrin Reservation	41.563160	-81.430960
2	5	Cuyahoga	Brecksville Reservation	41.321310	-81.618270
3	2	Summit	Furnace Run Metropark	41.271000	-81.638460
4	4	Summit	O'Neill Woods Metropark	41.169900	-81.590460
5	3	Summit	Sand Run Metropark	41.135000	-81.567860
6	4	Wayne	Pee Wee Hollow Boy Scout Camp	40.921770	-82.035920
7	36	Wayne	Wooster Memorial Park	40.812350	-82.023230
8	3	Wayne	Christmas Run Park	40.806610	-81.945230
9	5	Wayne	Secrest Arboretum	40.783270	-81.916750
10	6	Stark	The Wilderness Center	40.672240	-81.645090
11	6	Ashland	Mohican State Park	40.615220	-82.264520
12	8	Wayne	College of Wooster Golf Course	40.811480	-81.924310
13	5	Holmes	Fern Valley Field Station	40.649470	-82.089660

sequenced up to three nuclear loci from each individual, and from these loci 20 putatively diagnostic SNPs were selected: recombination activation gene-1 (RAG1; 385 base pairs; 5 SNPs), pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC; 451 bp; 6 SNPs), and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPD; 590 bp; 9 SNPs).

In our reanalyses, all individuals used to construct the linked data were included except for RML 128 (population 11), from which the data has been lost. Before conducting analyses, we tested for intragenic recombination in all three loci using the difference in sum-of-squares (DSS) test implemented in TOPALi (Milne et al., 2009), including a ten-base-pair increment, a window size of 100, and 500 parametric bootstraps. We did not detect recombination at any locus, indicating that the SNPs from each locus are in complete linkage disequilibrium. We tested for hybridization by examining gene trees, as well as using STRUCTURE and NEWHYBRIDS.

Gene trees.—Prior to inferring gene trees from each locus, we phased the sequence data using PHASE v2.1.1 (Stephens et al., 2001). PHASE was run for 1000 iterations, with a thinning interval of two steps and a burn-in of 100 iterations. Homozygous loci were doubled in our files so that each individual included two haplotypes.

After each locus was phased, gene trees were inferred. In preliminary analyses, we included sequences from *P. cinereus* from GenBank and from Radomski et al. (2020) to distinguish between the *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* clades, but for our final analyses these extra sequences were omitted. Sequence data were aligned using default conditions in MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004). For the introns POMC and GAPD, models of evolution were inferred using jModelTest 2.1.10 (Darriba et al., 2012), with the best model selected using AICc. For POMC, the best model was K80 + I, and for GAPD the best model was TPM2. For the exon RAG1, we selected a best-fit partitioning scheme using PartitionFinder v2.1.1 (Lanfear et al., 2012), with codon positions input as separate data blocks. The best scheme according to AICc combined all codons, and the JC model was selected. For the GAPD gene tree, sequences from RML 135 were omitted in the final analyses, and for RAG1 sequences from RML165 were omitted. This is because in both cases the haplotypes were recovered as distantly related to *P. cinereus* and *P. electro-*

morphus and thus were not informative for the present analysis. The source of these divergent sequences is unclear.

We inferred gene trees separately for each locus using BEAST v.2.6.3 (Drummond and Bouckaert, 2015). Multiple preliminary analyses were conducted to explore a diversity of priors. For all gene trees, a constant coalescent tree prior and a strict molecular clock were used. We ran the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) for 50 million generations with parameters sampled every 1000 generations, trees sampled every 5000 generations, and a burn-in of 25%. Effective samples sizes for all parameters in all runs were > 200. The maximum clade credibility tree with common ancestor node heights was obtained using TreeAnnotator 2.4.6 (Drummond and Bouckaert, 2015).

Given the >10 myr divergence times between the two species, we expected each gene tree to form two divergent clades. For all three nuclear genes, clades were recovered that included either mostly haplotypes sampled from *P. cinereus* or mostly haplotypes sampled from *P. electromorphus* (Supplemental Figs. 1–3; see Data Accessibility). Individuals with genotypes entirely composed of alleles that corresponded with a particular species were scored as parental types (*P. cinereus* or *P. electromorphus*), while individuals with genotypes composed of any kind of mixed ancestry (e.g., five *P. cinereus* haplotypes and one *P. electromorphus* haplotype) were considered hybrids. This approach using gene trees has the advantage of accounting for phylogeny, which methods based on allele frequencies typically ignore.

Structure.—Two datasets were analyzed. First, we reanalyzed the linked data from L16. This dataset has 20 SNPs, but suffers from high levels of linkage disequilibrium. Second, we inferred haplotypes for each locus using the *haplotype* function in the 'haplotypes' package in R (Aktas, 2020) and treated these as alleles (Willis et al., 2017; Kuchta et al., 2018). This new dataset (hereafter, the "unlinked data") is free of linkage disequilibrium, but only includes three loci. For all analyses, STRUCTURE was run from $K = 1-10$ populations, with each value of K replicated ten times with randomly generated starting seeds. Each MCMC run consisted of 500,000 iterations, with the first 100,000 discarded as burn-in. The admixture model, an inferred α , and fixed $\lambda = 1$ were used, and sampling localities were used as priors. We also used a population-specific ancestry prior and an initial alpha value of 0.5 (as recommended for $K = 2$; Wang, 2017).

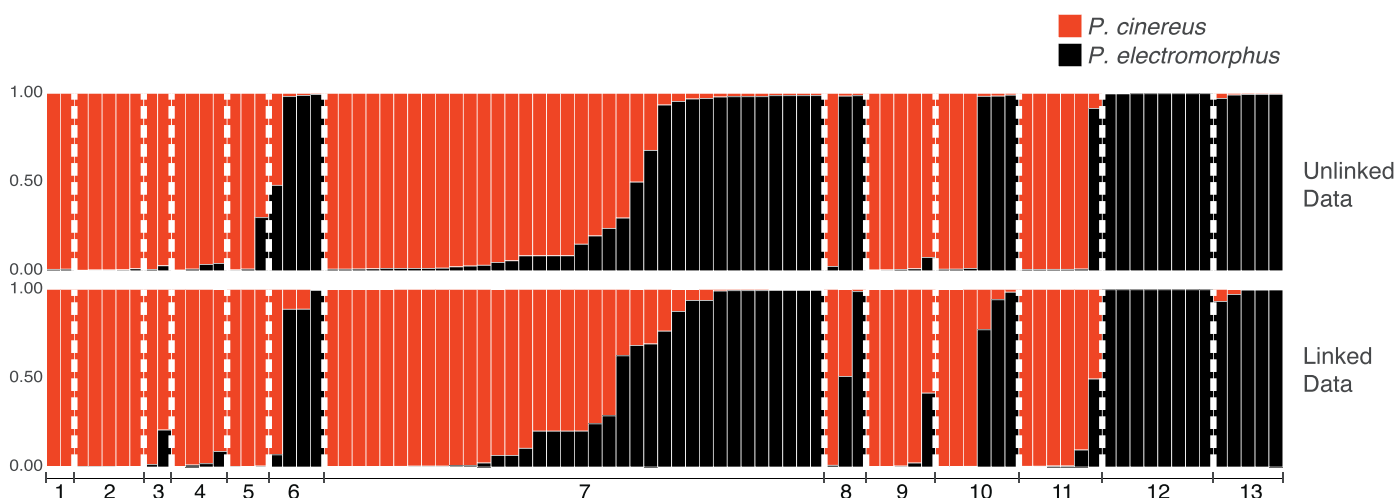


Fig. 2. STRUCTURE results using nuclear sequence data coded as haplotypes (unlinked) and as SNPs (linked). Results are for $K = 2$. The red group corresponds with *P. cinereus* and the black group corresponds with *P. electromorphus*. Individuals with Q scores < 0.9 for either parental type were scored as hybrids.

We did not use the correlated allele frequency model, as *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* represent deeply divergent populations. We used the log probability of the data $\Pr(X|K)$ and the Evanno method (Evanno et al., 2005) to select K . Our STRUCTURE results were collated, analyzed, and visualized using the R package ‘Pophelper’ (Francis, 2017). For consistency with L16, all individuals with membership coefficients (Q) > 0.90 were classified as parental types, while all others were scored as hybrids.

NEWHYBRIDS.—As an additional approach to identifying hybrid individuals, we used the program NEWHYBRIDS (Anderson and Thompson, 2002) to analyze the unlinked data. This program computes the posterior probabilities of individuals belonging to each parental type, as well as distinct hybrid classes such as parental, F1, F2, and backcrosses. After multiple preliminary analyses to evaluate the impact of alternative priors, we carried out a final analysis of 5,000,000 MCMC iterations after a burn-in of 1,000,000 iterations. Analyses used Jeffreys-like priors on allele frequencies and admixture proportions, and the default genotype frequency classes were used. Individuals with posterior probabilities ≥ 0.90 of belonging to either species were considered parental types. If the sum of the posterior probabilities of all the possible hybrid classes was ≥ 0.90 , individuals were scored as a hybrid. All other individuals were scored as unresolved. Among our analyses, only NEWHYBRIDS accounts for uncertainty in classification.

RESULTS

Linked data in STRUCTURE.—Using the linked data from L16 ($n = 20$ SNPs), we found $\Delta K = 2$ using the Evanno method and $K = 3$ using $\Pr(X|K)$; however, for the latter method the log probabilities are similar for $K = 2$ –10 (Supplemental Fig. 4; see Data Accessibility). Given that we are examining hybridization between two distinct species, we focus on $K = 2$ (see Discussion).

Our analysis recovered lower levels of admixture than reported by L16 (Fig. 2). All individuals at sites 1, 2, 4, and 5 were identified as pure *P. cinereus*, and all individuals at sites

12–13 were identified as pure *P. electromorphus*. Some admixture was found at all syntopic sites. Single hybrid individuals were identified at sites 3, 9, and 11, but otherwise these sites only included *P. cinereus*. Populations 6–8 and 10–11 included both species as well as hybrid individuals. Site 7 exhibited especially high levels of admixture, with 12 out of 36 (33%) individuals categorized as hybrids.

We also explored $K = 5$ for the linked data, as this was the K used by L16 (Supplemental Fig. 5; see Data Accessibility). Here too we found lower levels of admixture than L16, but substantially more than for $K = 2$. For example, we recovered populations 1 and 2 as pure *P. cinereus*, while L16 reported both populations as 100% admixed. Most other populations in our analyses included one or more hybrids, but generally fewer than reported in L16. One exception is all individuals in populations 12–13 in L16 were scored as pure *P. electromorphus* (by definition, as these populations were used to assign SNPs to *P. electromorphus*), but we recovered two individuals as admixed in population 13.

Unlinked data in STRUCTURE.—For comparison with L16, we analyzed DNA haplotypes in STRUCTURE, which lowers the number of loci from 20 to 3, but eliminates the problem of linkage disequilibrium. We found $\Delta K = 2$ using the Evanno method and $K = 3$ using $\Pr(X|K)$; however, for the latter method the log probabilities are similar for $K = 2$ –4 (Supplemental Fig. 4; see Data Accessibility). Again, we recovered lower levels of admixture than L16 (Fig. 2). All individuals in populations 1–4 and 9 were pure *P. cinereus*, and all individuals in populations 12–13 were pure *P. electromorphus*. Single hybrid individuals were found in populations 5 and 6. Syntopic sites without any evidence of admixture included populations 8 and 10–11. Only population 7 exhibited high levels of admixture, with 6 out of 36 (17%) individuals categorized as hybrids.

When we analyzed the unlinked data for $K = 5$, we found less admixture than L16, but substantially more than for $K = 2$. Overall, the results were similar to $K = 5$ for the linked data, though the hybrid classes differ (Supplemental Fig. 5; see Data Accessibility).

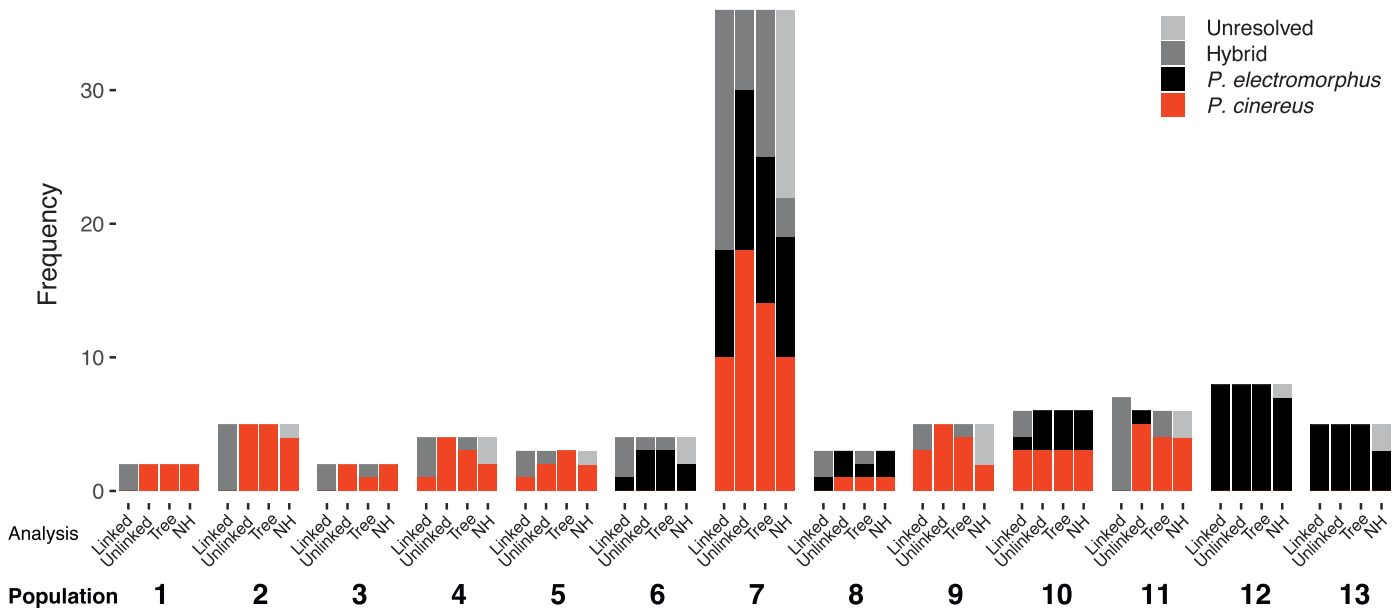


Fig. 3. Bar chart summarizing the assignments of individuals to parental and hybrid classes. Analyses include the linked data in STRUCTURE ($K = 5$; L16), unlinked data (haplotypes) in STRUCTURE ($K = 2$; this paper), analysis of gene trees (Tree), and unlinked data in NEWHYBRIDS (NH). For the last analysis, some individuals were not assigned to any class (parental or hybrid) with confidence ('Unresolved'). Localities correspond to Table 1 and Figure 1. See also Supplemental Table 1 (see Data Accessibility).

Gene trees.—For POMC and GAPD, the basal split in the gene tree separated haplotypes belonging to *P. cinereus* from haplotypes belonging to *P. electromorphus* ($pp > 0.95$, except for the *P. electromorphus* clade in POMC, which was $pp = 0.82$; Supplemental Figs. 1–2; see Data Accessibility). For POMC, we had sequence data for 80 out of 89 individuals in the dataset. Of these, 37 possessed two haplotypes from the *P. cinereus* clade, 33 possessed two haplotypes from the *P. electromorphus* clade, and ten possessed one haplotype from each clade (putative hybrids). For GAPD, we had sequence data from 53 individuals. Of these, 37 possessed two haplotypes from the *P. cinereus* clade and 16 possessed two haplotypes from the *P. electromorphus* clade. No individual possessed a hybrid genotype, which suggests that our dataset did not include any F1 hybrids.

For RAG1, we had sequence data from 88 individuals. While a *P. electromorphus* clade was recovered ($pp = 0.96$), the *P. cinereus* clade lacked statistical support ($pp = 0.79$; Supplemental Fig. 3; see Data Accessibility). Within the *P. cinereus* clade, one subclade that included 13 haplotypes from six sample localities may actually belong to *P. electromorphus*. By assuming this clade belongs to *P. electromorphus*, which is possible given the low posterior probabilities, ten individuals change status from putative hybrid to parental *P. electromorphus* (all haplotypes from all loci belonging to *P. electromorphus*). Assuming this is correct, we recover 49 individuals of *P. cinereus*, 34 of *P. electromorphus*, and 5 admixed genotypes. If this is not correct, ten more admixed genotypes are recorded (far more than POMC or GAPD), but our qualitative message in this paper does not change.

We assumed that all individuals with any evidence of admixture were hybrids. Analyzed by population, our results were congruent with the STRUCTURE analysis of the unlinked data for $K = 2$ (Figs. 2, 3). Populations 1–2 were recovered as pure *P. cinereus*, and 12–13 were recovered as pure *P. electromorphus*. Single hybrid individuals were found

in populations 3–4, 6, and 8–9, while population 10 lacked evidence of hybridization. In population 7, 11 out of 36 individuals (31%) were scored as hybrids.

NEWHYBRIDS.—These results differed from the other analyses in that the status of some individuals was unresolved (the posterior probability of being either parental type or some type of hybrid was < 0.90). The NEWHYBRIDS results paralleled the analyses of the unlinked data using STRUCTURE (Figs. 2, 3). Populations 1 and 3 were recovered as pure *P. cinereus*, while populations 2, 4, and 5 were pure *P. cinereus* except for single individuals that were unresolved. For these unresolved individuals, it was unclear whether they were *P. cinereus* or some sort of hybrid, but the posterior probability of any being *P. electromorphus* was < 0.01 . Populations 9 and 11 were also composed of *P. cinereus* and unresolved genotypes. Populations 6 and 12–13 were either pure *P. electromorphus* or included unresolved genotypes. Populations 8 and 10 were syntopic sites without evidence of admixture. Finally, 3 hybrid individuals (8%) were found in population 7, while 14 individuals (39%) were unresolved.

DISCUSSION

An earlier study (L16) quantified hybridization between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* and found that hybridization was pervasive and widespread across northern Ohio. Given such high levels of interbreeding, the authors questioned how the two species could maintain their separation. Could they be merging into a single entity? If so, it would be a remarkable example of reticulate evolution given that the two species diverged on the order of 10 myr ago (Wiens et al., 2006).

In this paper we reanalyzed the data in L16, as the results contradict our field observations and also impact our interpretation of past and ongoing research. We had two alternative hypotheses to explain why levels of hybridization

might have been overestimated: that high levels of linkage disequilibrium between sets of SNPs created a false signal of admixture (Willis et al., 2017; O'Leary et al., 2018), or that the selection of five populations instead of 2 ($K = 5$ or 2) in STRUCTURE misled the analyses.

For both the linked and unlinked data, we obtained support for $\Delta K = 2$ (Supplemental Fig. 4; see Data Accessibility). This result is intuitive given that two species are being compared and ΔK is known to identify the basal level of hierarchical population structure (Janes et al., 2017). For both datasets, the estimated log probability of the data, $\Pr(X|K)$, was similar for $K = 2-4$. Tests for substructure within either species did not provide any results that would inform this paper, but for detailed analyses of genetic variation in this region see Highton (1999), Cameron et al. (2019), Hantak et al. (2019), Waldron et al. (2019), and Radomski et al. (2020). In contrast with our results, L16 reported finding support for $K = 5$ using ΔK and $\Pr(X|K)$, and this is supported by a saved screenshot of STRUCTURE HARVESTER output (Earl and vonHoldt, 2012). We ran a number of analyses in STRUCTURE with diverse priors and were never able to replicate the $K = 5$ result.

Our analyses in STRUCTURE using the linked (L16) and unlinked (this paper) datasets for $K = 2$ gave very similar results (Fig. 2), indicating that linkage disequilibrium did not mislead STRUCTURE. Both analyses identified several populations that were pure *P. cinereus* or *P. electromorphus*. In addition, syntopic populations without hybrids were identified, or only a single hybrid individual was recovered. Only population 7 was highly admixed, yet even in this population both parental types were also present. When the unlinked data were analyzed using DNA haplotypes at each locus in NEWHYBRIDS, or when genotypes were reconstructed from gene trees, similar lower levels of hybridization were inferred (Fig. 3). No clear F1 hybrids were recovered in any population by these analyses.

In contrast with $K = 2$, when we used $K = 5$ (as in L16) on both the linked and unlinked data, high levels of admixture were inferred (Supplemental Fig. 5; see Data Accessibility). L16 postulated that $K = 5$ corresponded with pure *P. cinereus*, pure *P. electromorphus*, F1 hybrids, backcrosses to *P. cinereus*, and backcrosses to *P. electromorphus*. This represents a dubitable interpretation of the data as STRUCTURE assumes each individual has ancestry from one or more of K genetically distinct sources. For example, the expectation is that an F1 hybrid should be identified as including roughly equal membership to two groups, rather than being recovered as a third group.

In summary, our analyses indicate that the high frequency of hybridization reported in L16 is a consequence of an inappropriate selection of K and not linkage disequilibrium. When K is correctly inferred, substantially lower levels of admixture are recovered.

Indeed, the lower levels of admixture we report in this paper likely overestimate the amount of hybridization in natural populations. This is because the sampling of individuals by L16 was not random. Rather, an effort was made to find individuals of each species as well as individuals of intermediate phenotype. This maximizes the chance of detecting hybridization, which is a reasonable starting point for such a study; however, one cannot use this data to infer the frequency of hybridization within natural populations. The exception is population 7, where most individuals were

randomly sampled. In that population, L16 reported 50% hybrids. In our analyses, population 7 included between 8% and 31% hybrids, depending on the analysis (Fig. 2, 3; Supplemental Table 1; see Data Accessibility). Highton's (1999) analyses of this same population, which included "over 70 specimens" of both parental types and ten hybrid individuals, recovered a maximum of $10/150 = 7\%$ hybrids.

In conclusion, though sample sizes are limited at many sites, it appears from our analyses as well as Highton (1999) that *P. electromorphus* and *P. cinereus* are largely reproductively isolated, with occasional hybridization. The exception is population 7, where levels of hybridization are relatively high. The cause of this shift in reproductive isolation is unknown and presents a fruitful avenue for future research.

Study limitations.—While analyzing 20 SNPs as three loci avoids the problems associated with linkage disequilibrium (Willis et al., 2017; O'Leary et al., 2018), studying hybridization with three nuclear loci is statistically dubious. For example, NEWHYBRIDS only detected three hybrid genotypes with posterior probability > 0.90 (all in population 7); no other individual in any other population was classified as a hybrid with confidence. On the other hand, the program could not assign 28 individuals to any category (parental or hybrid), including some individuals in populations that STRUCTURE and the gene tree approach inferred to be composed entirely of *P. cinereus* or *P. electromorphus*. These results highlight a fundamental deficiency of the study: there are not enough loci to address levels of admixture with statistical confidence. Even 20 independent SNPs is insufficient for many scenarios. More data are needed, and the analyses in this paper should be interpreted with caution.

A confounding factor in both studies is separating hybridization from introgression. Hybridization is the crossing of genetically distinguishable groups that produces individuals with admixed genotypes, such as F1s and backcrosses. Introgression occurs when one entity incorporates alleles from another entity into its genome. Introgression is thus a relative term: alleles at one locus introgress with respect to alleles at other loci. The process of introgression is initiated by hybridization, but such hybridization may have occurred in the distant past. In animals, the introgression of mtDNA has been best studied (Weisrock et al., 2005; Kuchta and Tan, 2006; McGuire et al., 2007), but alleles at nuclear loci can also introgress (Edelman et al., 2019). Our method of examining gene trees to infer genotypes may overestimate hybridization because it cannot distinguish between hybridization and introgression. For instance, if RAG1 alleles introgressed from *P. cinereus* into the genome of *P. electromorphus* thousands of years ago, our method would score this as evidence of hybridization. Indeed, within our RAG1 gene tree, one subclade within the *P. cinereus* clade appears to be composed entirely of individuals of *P. electromorphus* (Supplemental Fig. 3; see Data Accessibility). This could reflect historical introgression instead of hybridization; however, there are other viable explanations (e.g., phylogenetic error) and more data are needed to distinguish among them.

The importance of hybridization.—Why levels of hybridization between *P. electromorphus* and *P. cinereus* at Wooster Memorial Park (population 7) are more extensive than elsewhere is unclear. More importantly, is hybridization rampant across

northern Ohio? This is crucial to understand because the amount of hybridization between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* impacts the interpretation of many past and ongoing studies. Multiple color morphs of *P. cinereus* exist, one of which—the unstriped morph, which like *P. electromorphus* has a black dorsum—is tricky to distinguish from *P. electromorphus*. In northern Ohio, *P. cinereus* has long been studied as an exemplar of color polymorphism, including studies of diet (Stuczka et al., 2016; Hantak et al., 2020), mating (Anthony et al., 2008; Acord et al., 2013; Jaworski et al., 2018), territoriality (Reiter et al., 2014; Anthony et al., 2017), predation (Venesky and Anthony, 2007; Hantak and Kuchta, 2018), and many other axes of differentiation. If unstriped salamanders were often genetically admixed individuals, alternative explanations for the results of this work on polymorphism would need to be invoked.

Fortunately, our reanalysis of the data collected by L16, as well as Highton (1999), indicate that hybridization between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus* is not pervasive or geographically widespread. That said, our understanding of the amount of hybridization and introgression remains incomplete. Future work should take advantage of next generation sequencing technologies to obtain many loci (hundreds or thousands, not three) to quantify the reproductive interactions between *P. cinereus* and *P. electromorphus*. Ideally, such a study should include populations where the two species are syntopic, as well as regions where the two species present a distributional patchwork with contacts along range edges, as both patterns are found in Ohio (Pfingsten, 2013).

DATA ACCESSIBILITY

Supplemental material is available at <https://www.ichthyologyandherpetology.org/h2021081>. Unless an alternative copyright or statement noting that a figure is reprinted from a previous source is noted in a figure caption, the published images and illustrations in this article are licensed by the American Society of Ichthyologists and Herpetologists for use if the use includes a citation to the original source (American Society of Ichthyologists and Herpetologists, the DOI of the *Ichthyology & Herpetology* article, and any individual image credits listed in the figure caption) in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution CC BY License.

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