1 **The origins and diversification of Holarctic brown bear populations inferred from**
2 **genomes of past and present populations**
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13
14 **Abstract**
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The brown bear is one of the few surviving megafauna species that made it through
the Late Quaternary megafaunal extinctions. It is widely distributed and has become a model
organism for studying biogeographic patterns across Eurasia and North America. However,
to date, most studies have focused on the mitochondrial genome with nuclear genomes only
being used for evolutionary studies within the Ursusidae family or local population studies.
Here we present novel genomic data from two Late Pleistocene brown bears from Japan and
Siberia, and combine them with modern and ancient published genomes from across the
Holarctic range, to investigate the species' genomic evolutionary history. We uncovered four
differentiated populations corresponding to Europe, Siberia, Japan, and North America which
all diverged ~100 kya. Palaeogenomic data reveals population continuity in all populations
apart from in Europe where Late Pleistocene European individuals cluster with Siberia rather
than contemporary/mid-late Holocene European individuals. We propose a replacement
around the Pleistocene-Holocene transition in Europe, supported by results of a recent
population expansion in modern European individuals. Population continuity in Japan and
North America contrasts mitochondrial suggestions of multiple migration events. However,
the rapid population diversification and increased likelihood of gene flow and incomplete
lineage may have biased mitochondrial results. Demographic results show similar effective
population declines in all populations ~50 kya which we suggest is due to the geographic
dispersal of the newly diversified populations and a decrease of gene flow between
populations.

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37 **Introduction**
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Megafaunal extinctions were a defining feature of the Late Pleistocene [1]. Despite
this, many species still persist today, although they may have experienced local extirpations,
range reductions, and losses of genetic diversity [2,3]. The brown bear (*Ursus arctos*) is one
of the survivors of the Late Pleistocene megafauna extinctions. The species is one of the
largest extant terrestrial carnivores, and is distributed across the Holarctic [4]. The ability of
brown bears to survive may be due to their high level of ecological flexibility and extremely

broad dietary range, which has been observed in contemporary populations [5]. Brown bears
have evolved a generalist omnivore strategy; although they possess morphological traits
characteristic of carnivores, their diets in many ecosystems comprise primarily plant matter
[6]. Despite their current dietary flexibility, brown bears experienced extensive range
reductions during the Holocene, with extirpations in some geographic regions driven by
climate and environmental change, and more recently, humans [7]. For example, based on
fossil chronology, the relatively large steppe brown bear (*Ursus arctos priscus*) of Eurasia
disappeared at the end of the Late Pleistocene. Although it was presumably well-adapted for
survival in Europe during the Late Pleistocene, its size may have inhibited adaptive flexibility
after the environment drastically changed [8].
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The wide distribution, fossil chronology, and broad appeal of brown bears have led
the species to become a model organism for understanding biogeographic patterns across the
Holarctic [9]. The phylogeographic structure of contemporary brown bears in Europe has
been considered consistent with the "expansion/contraction" model of postglacial
recolonisation, where populations contracted into southern Europe during glacial periods and
later recolonised the rest of Europe after the glacial period [9]. However, ancient DNA
retrieved from Late Pleistocene brown bear fossil specimens have since questioned
population contraction into southern refugia during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), and
instead found relatively high levels of mitochondrial diversity in Late Pleistocene European
brown bears [10]. In contemporary North American brown bears, three genetically divergent
mitochondrial lineages have been described, leading to the hypothesis of three independent
colonisation events from Eurasia [9]. In addition, independent colonisation events have also
been hypothesised for Asia; timing of divergence estimated from mitochondrial genomes
retrieved from Japanese brown bears have led to suggestions that brown bears migrated from
mainland Eurasia to Japan at least twice [11]. However, the mitochondrial genome represents
just a single loci, is exclusively maternally inherited, and may be heavily confounded by gene
flow and incomplete lineage sorting [12,13], which can lead to erroneous inferences.
Furthermore, the majority of genetic clades used to form biogeographic hypotheses for brown
bears are paraphyletic and not unique to a single geographic region [9].
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Nuclear data offer an opportunity to circumvent the challenges associated with
mitochondrial genomes [12]. While nuclear genomic data are currently available for many
brown bears across their range, they have thus far been used to understand the evolutionary
relationships between brown bears and polar bears [14–16], or to elucidate local populations
[17,18], but not to understand population relationships at a range-wide scale. To fill this
knowledge gap, we investigate the evolutionary and demographic relationships among brown
bear populations sampled across their Holarctic range (Fig 1A), using a combination of
contemporary (n = 39) and ancient nuclear genomes (n = 12; including newly generated
genomic datasets from two individuals). Specifically, we investigate (i) population structure
among contemporary, Holocene, and Late Pleistocene individuals, (ii) phylogenomic
relationships between contemporary populations, and (iii) comparative long-term (~500,000
years) demographic histories of contemporary individuals.
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Methods

Data generation

We generated palaeogenomic data from a Late Pleistocene (32,719 - 32,209 cal. BP [11]) brown bear from the Japanese island of Honshu (JBB-32K [11]). Lab work was carried out in a clean room for ancient DNA at the National Institute of Polar Research, Japan. We extracted 100 mg of petrosal bone, and followed the DNA extraction procedure based on silica pellets in solution as described in Orlando et al. [19]. Double-stranded DNA was converted into an Illumina sequencing library using an NEBNext Quick DNA Library Prep Master Mix Set for 454 (New England BioLabs) with 20 μl of DNA extract without DNA fragmentation. Illumina sequencing adapters were added to the end-repair reaction. Indexing PCR was prepared in the ancient DNA laboratory, carried out in a physically separate modern laboratory. Each eluate (3 μl) was subjected to PCR amplification in 50-μl reactions containing 1 KAPA HiFi HotStart Uracil+ReadyMix (Kapa Biosystems) and 0.3 μM Dual Index primers of NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (NEB). Three independent PCR reactions from the same library were combined after PCR and purified using a NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up kit (Macherey-Nagel). Sequencing was carried out on an Illumina HiSeq XTen at Macrogen, Japan. Previously published data for this individual was downloaded from DDBJ DRA IDs: DRR308533 and DRR308534 [11].

We generated palaeogenomic data from a Late Pleistocene (aged beyond radiocarbon dating: >50 kya but molecularly dated to 61,826 years BP [HPD 95%: 27,866–96,783 years BP][20]) brown bear from eastern Siberia (CGG_1_020006 [20]). Lab work was carried out in a clean room for ancient DNA at Globe Institute, University of Copenhagen. We extracted DNA from ~50 mg of bone powder using a modified version of the protocol from [21]. Modifications included overnight incubation with the extraction buffer at 42 °C instead of at 37 °C, the bone powder was pelleted out of suspension, and the supernatant concentrated down to 150–200 μl for each sample using 30 kDa Amicon centrifugal filter unit (Millipore). The remaining supernatant was mixed with 13x its volume of binding buffer and DNA was purified with MinElute columns (Qiagen), following the manufacturer's instructions with the exception of a 15-minute incubation at 37 °C during the elution step. DNA extracts were transformed into sequencing libraries in 25 μl reactions following the protocol from Meyer and Kircher [22] with the modification that the initial DNA fragmentation was not performed as ancient DNA is already highly fragments and MinElute kit (Qiagen) was used for the purification steps. DNA libraries were indexed using KAPA HiFi uracil + premix (KAPA Biosystems). The number of cycles for index PCRs was determined from qPCR analysis. The resulting libraries were quantified on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyser, pooled at equimolar concentration and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 at the University of Copenhagen using single-end 80 base pairs (bp) reads.

We additionally downloaded the raw reads from 39 contemporary and 10 ancient brown bear individuals from across their current and past distributions [15–18,23–26] (Fig 1A and Supplementary Table 1). Samples (n = 7) from outside their current distribution are those from Ireland, Honshu, Japan, and Quebec in Canada.

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134	**Data processing and mapping**
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136	**Contemporary brown bears**
137	We processed the raw sequencing data from the contemporary brown bears
138	(excluding the Hokkaido bears, detailed below) with the PALEOMIX v.1.2.12 [27] pipeline.
139	Adapters, stretches of Ns, and low-quality bases in reads were trimmed and filtered with
140	AdapterRemovalv2 [28] using default parameters. BWA-backtrack v0.7.15 [29] was used to
141	map the cleaned reads to the polar bear pseudo-chromosome genome [14,30] (based on
142	Genbank accession: GCA_000687225.1), which includes a mitochondrial genome (Genbank
143	accession: NC003428), with default parameters. Reads with mapping quality < 30 were
144	filtered using SAMtools [31]. Duplicates were removed with Picard v2.6.0 [32]. Possible
145	paralogs were filtered using SAMtools v1.6. Finally, local realignment around indels was
146	done using GATK (v 3.3) [33].
147	The six modern Hokkaido brown bears followed a similar protocol, but using Fastp
148	v0.23.2 [34] for adapter trimming and duplicate removal using SAMtools. To be used as an
149	outgroup/ancestral sequence, the raw data for the spectacled bear (*Tremarctos ornatus*) was
150	downloaded (SRA accession code: SRR13602719) and mapped to the same polar bear
151	reference genome using the BWA mem algorithm.
152	
153	**Ancient brown bears**
154	We removed illumina adapter sequences, low-quality reads (mean q <25), short reads
155	(<30bp), and merged overlapping read pairs with Fastp. We mapped the merged reads to the
156	polar bear reference genome using BWA-backtrack v0.7.15, with the seed disabled (-l 999),
157	and otherwise default parameters. Reads with mapping quality < 30 and duplicates were
158	filtered using SAMtools [31]. Only individuals with >0.01x nuclear genome coverage were
159	retained for downstream analyses.
160	
161	**Population structure**
162	We evaluated the relationships between the contemporary and ancient brown bears
163	included in this study by performing Principal Component Analyses (PCA). We performed
164	these analyses using either pseudohaploid base calls or genotype likelihoods (GL) computed
165	with ANGSDv0.921 [35]. We computed GL in ANGSD for all individuals specifying the
166	parameters: minimum mapping and base qualities of 30 (-minmapQ 30 -minQ 30), calculate
167	genotype likelihoods using the GATK algorithm (-GL 2), output a beagle GL file (-doGlf 2),
168	calculate major and minor alleles based on GL (-doMajorMinor 1), remove transitions (-
169	rmtrans 1), only include SNPs with a p-values <1e-6 (-SNP_pval 1e-6), only consider
170	autosomal chromosomes (-rf), a minimum minor allele frequency of 0.05 (-minmaf 0.05),
171	skip triallelic sites (-skiptriallelic 1), only consider reads mapping to one region uniquely (-
172	uniqueonly 1), and only consider sites if at least 36 individuals have coverage (-minind 36).
173	The pseudohaploid base call was computed using the same parameters with the addition of -
174	doIBS 2, -doCov 1, and only included SNPs if at least two individuals had the minor allele (-
175	minminor 2). To construct covariance matrices from the GL datasets for PCA we used

176   PCAngsd v0.98 [36]. We only included a single Apennines brown bear in these analyses due
177   to their high levels of relatedness [18].
178

Phylogenetic relationships

Our PCA results suggested three or four main clusters, and to further investigate this
we performed phylogenomic analyses. We generated consensus pseudo-haploid base calls
using ANGSD (-dohaplocall 2) using the same filtering parameters as above but called all
sites (-minminor 0) from three contemporary individuals per population, apart from Siberia
which only comprised one sample. We used APP2, SPA1, and BGI-brownbear-20105434 to
represent Mainland Europe; DRR276775, DRR276776, and DRR276777 to represent Japan;
and ABC2_Lucky, BGI-brownbear-107596012, and BGI-brownbear-43157 to represent
North America. The spectacled bear was included as an outgroup.
From the pseudo-haploid file, we computed sliding window phylogenies in PhyML-
3.3.20211231 [37] using an available python script at
https://github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general (phyml_sliding_windows.py). We
specified a window size of 20kb, a slide of 1Mb, a window must contain at least 100 sites,
and PhyML to optimise the following parameters: tree topology (t), branch length (l), and
substitution rate parameters (r). To infer the overall species tree and local posterior support
values, the output trees were run through ASTRAL v5.7.8 [38] with the parameter -t 3 to
output local posterior values. To further investigate the branching pattern of the brown bear
populations, we ran ASTRAL again, but specified which individuals belonged to which
predefined population based on our first run, and with the parameter -t 32 to output the
topologies and corresponding normalised quartet scores. To test if the length of the internal
branch is zero; thus, the species tree is a polytomy we used the -t 10 in ASTRAL [39].
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Demographic analyses

We ran demographic analysis on diploid consensus genomes from single population
representatives using PSMC [40]. These included Mainland Europe - BGI-brownbear-
20105434, Japan - DRR276776, North America - ABC2_Lucky, and Siberia - S235. We first
tested the impact of mapping approach and coverage on the PSMC results (Supplementary
material). Based on these results, we remapped individual S235 using BWA mem to obtain
higher coverage and downsampled all other individuals to 12.88x using SAMtools to ensure
comparability. We called diploid genome sequences using SAMtools and BCFtools,
specifying a minimum quality score of 20 and minimum coverage of 10 and specified only to
use pseudochromosomes 1-18. We ran PSMC specifying specifying standard atomic intervals
(4+25*2+4+6), a maximum number of iterations of 25 (-N), maximum 2N0 coalescent time
of 15 (-t), and initial initial theta/rho ratio of 5 (-r), and performed 100 bootstrap replicates to
investigate support for the resultant demography. PSMC results were checked for overfitting
so that after 20 rounds of iterations, at least 10 recombinations are inferred to have occurred
in the intervals each parameter spans. We plotted the output using a mutation rate of 1.82×10^{-8}
per generation, assuming a generation time of 11 years [17,18].
217

218   We calculated Tajima's D for the three regional populations with data from multiple
219   individuals available in ANGSD [41] using the SFS as input. We limited our dataset to

contemporary individuals, 14 individuals from Europe (we only included one individual from the Apennines (APP3) to avoid their recent local population history from influencing the population-wide results), six from Japan, and 12 from North America. We calculated the SFS from allele frequencies the autosomes 1-18 in ANGSD (-doSaf 1), and specifying the following parameters: only include sites covered in all individuals (-minind), the ancestral sequence as the spectacled bear (-anc), -dosaf 1 -uniqueOnly 1 -remove_bads 1 -minMapQ 30 -minQ 30 -doMajorMinor 1 -doMaf 2 -skipTriallelic 1 -GL 2 -minind (all individuals). To control for variation across the genome, we calculated Tajima's D in 10 Mb windows and extracted the mean values. To act as the ancestral allele, we used ANGSD to generate a consensus base call fasta file (-doFasta 2) of the spectacled bear with the filters: -mininddepth 5 -minq 25 -minmapq 25. Significance from 0 was calculated using a Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction.

Heterozygosity

We estimated the genome-wide heterozygosity of each individual with >5x mean coverage based on previously published recommendations [42]. We used ANGSD to calculate site allele frequencies per individual (-doSaf 1) with the following filters: -minmapQ 30 -minQ 30 -skiptriallelic 1 -uniqueonly 1 -GL 2 -setMinDepthInd 5 -doMajorMinor 1, only use pseudochromosomes 1-18 (-rf). We specified we wanted to compute a folded SFS (-fold 1) by specifying the reference as the ancestral allele (-anc). Then we used realSFS, part of the ANGSD toolsuite to calculate the SFS in 20Mb windows. The count of heterozygous sites was divided by the total count of sites to obtain the individual estimate of genome-wide heterozygosity.

To estimate population levels of diversity, we pooled results from individuals belonging to the same population (Europe, Japan, North America - Siberia was represented by the single individual) and calculated the mean heterozygosity and standard deviations for each population using R v4.2.1 [43]. We also pooled all European individuals apart from those from the Apennine mountains due to their high levels of inbreeding and low diversity not representing their natural levels, as they were caused by human disturbances [18]. Significance of differences between the mean values in each population was calculated using a Welch unpaired two-sample t-test in R.

Runs of homozygosity

We calculated runs of homozygosity (ROH) in the modern individuals with >5x mean coverage using PLINK based on a previous approach [44]. We generated a PLINK file from the pseudochromosomes 1-18 from all individuals using ANGSD (-doPlink 2) and the following parameters: -minmapQ 30 -minQ 30 -GL 2 -doMajorMinor 1 -doMaf 2 -SNP_pval 1e-6 -minmaf 0.05 -skiptriallelic 1 -uniqueonly 1 -minind 34 -b ROH_bamlist -doPlink 2 -doGeno -4 -doPost 1 -postCutoff 0.95. We ran the resultant PLINK file in PLINK to calculate the RoH using the following parameters: --homozyg-snp 50 --homozyg-kb 500 --homozyg-density 50 --homozyg-gap 1000 --homozyg-window-snp 50 --homozyg-window-het 5 --homozyg-window-missing 5 --homozyg-window-threshold 0.05 --allow-extra-chr. We

262   filtered the output into four different ROH categories: 500kb - 1Mb, 1Mb - 2Mb, 2Mb - 5Mb,
263   >5Mb.
264
We estimated the number of generations since inbreeding occurred using the
calculation $g = 100/(2rL)$[45], where r = recombination rate, L = length of ROH in Mb, and
g= number of generations. As genome-wide recombination rates for brown bears are
unavailable, we present results based on the dog (1cM per Mb) [46]. Given this calculation,
ROH>0.5Mb equates to inbreeding occuring within the last 100 generations, ROH>1Mb
equates to inbreeding occuring within the last 50 generations, ROH>2Mb equates to
inbreeding occuring within the last 25 generations, and ROH>5Mb equates to inbreeding
occuring within the last 10 generations.
273
274   **Results**
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Population structure
In the PCA analyses we observe clusters corresponding to three broad geographic
regions consisting of Europe/Siberia, Japan and Kunashir Island, and North America,
regardless of base call method (Fig 1B and Supplementary Fig S1). Assuming three clusters,
all ancient individuals fall within the diversity of their modern counterparts, except one of the
historical samples from Kunashir Island (Kunashir2). This individual showed an intermediate
placement between Japanese and Siberian individuals in the PCA based on genotype
likelihoods (Fig 1B), which is likely driven by the relatively high sequencing and DNA
damage error rates observed in this individual, rather than reflecting a biological signal
(Supplementary Fig S2). Therefore, this individual is not considered in interpretations of
population structure.
The Europe/Siberia cluster consists of two subclusters along the PC2 axis: one cluster
comprising contemporary individuals from continental Europe and Holocene individuals
from Ireland; the other cluster containing Late Pleistocene individuals from mainland Europe,
Ireland, and Siberia, and the modern Siberian individual. However, the placement of the Late
Pleistocene Irish individuals slightly differs depending on base call methods. In the PCA
based on genotype likelihoods, they cluster closer to the Siberian individuals (Fig 1B). In the
PCA based on pseudohaploid data, they cluster intermediate between Siberian individuals
and contemporary+Holocene European individuals (Supplementary Fig S1).
Phylogenomic analyses based on data from contemporary individuals showed four
major groupings in our dataset, which group by geography; the three investigated European
individuals clustered together, the three investigated Japanese individuals clustered together,
and the three investigated North American individuals clustered together (Supplementary Fig
S3). The Siberian individual S235 did not belong to either of the three monophyletic groups.
At the root of the tree, we found low levels of local posterior support, suggesting high levels
of discordance in relation to the branching pattern of the four groups. Further investigations
into the branching pattern of the four groups, returned very similar counts for all topologies
(Fig 1C). A further test found that all four groups represent a polytomy and therefore
probably diverged at very similar times, and topologies are therefore highly influenced by
incomplete lineage sorting and/or gene flow.

Demographic analyses

Based on the PSMC analysis, the four genomes show identical demographic trajectories until ~150 kya (Fig 2). Following the split of the European lineage from the others ~100 kya, it appears all four populations started to decline at ~60 kya.

Results from the genome-wide Tajima's D returned mean values of -0.25 for Europe, 0.45 for Japan, and 0.55 for North America; a positive Tajima's D indicates a recent demographic contraction, whereas a negative value indicates a demographic expansion [47]. We could not estimate Tajima's D for Siberia, as the analysis requires multiple individuals per population. All results were significantly different from 0 (p-value < 2.2e-16) as determined by a Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction.

Genetic diversity

We found broadly overlapping levels of individual genome-wide heterozygosity across the species range (Fig 3A). The lowest heterozygosity levels were found in individuals from the Apennine mountains in Italy (Europe), which are already known to have very low diversity [18]. With their exclusion, the remaining European individuals had a relatively high mean heterozygosity (0.00204; SD=0.00059), second only to the Siberian individual (0.00232; SD=0.00037). The Japanese individuals had a mean value of 0.00188 (SD=0.00035), and the North American individuals had the lowest level of heterozygosity (0.00171; SD=0.00044). All populations had significantly different (p>>0.01) mean levels of heterozygosity (Supplementary table S2).

All individuals contained some levels of ROH, but some had more than others (Fig 3B). The highest levels of recent inbreeding events (ROH >5Mb) were found in European individuals from the Apennine mountains (Italy) and from Spain. The Siberian individual had the lowest levels of ROH.

Discussion

By combining contemporary and ancient (Late Pleistocene and Holocene) genomic data from brown bears sampled across their Holarctic range (Fig 1A), we uncover new patterns in the historical biogeography of Eurasia and North America. Utilising population structure (PCA), phylogenomic, and demographic analyses, we show clear phylogeographic subdivision in contemporary individuals, which comprises geographically structured populations: Europe, Siberia, Japan, and North America. Phylogenomic analyses suggest these four populations represent a polytomy, with demographic results indicating they diverged 150-100 kya. The age of diversification of the contemporary brown bear populations is relatively young, compared to the estimated divergence of brown bears from polar bears between ~1Ma [48] and ~400 kya [14], and brown bear fossils aged 500 kya recovered in Europe [49]. Therefore, the modern populations likely represent only a remnant of prior lineages that went extinct between the emergence of brown bears >400 kya and the divergence of contemporary populations ~150 kya. The timing of the contemporary population split is broadly consistent with the onset of the last glacial period ~115 kya [50], which witnessed significant environmental change, which may have led to a decline in the

global diversity of brown bears. The loss of brown bear lineages and the subsequent emergence of new areas of habitat may have led to the synchronous diversification of contemporary brown bears populations from a common ancestor. The origin of the modern North American population ~100 kya is in accordance with the fossil record; brown bears have a limited history in North America, appearing in eastern Beringia only ~70 kya [51,52]. Fossils in Eurasia are much older (~500 kya), suggesting a Eurasian origin of brown bears [53,54].

Late Pleistocene individuals from Japan and Siberia, and early Holocene North America, fall within or very close to their contemporary counterparts (Fig 1B). This suggests population continuity in these regions over at least the last 11,000 to 50,000 years. Population continuity in North America and Japan is in contrast with previous hypotheses of multiple migration events based on mitochondrial genomes [9,11]. However, as we uncovered large numbers of phylogenomic discordances across the genome (Fig 1C), likely linked to the synchronous divergence of contemporary lineages, the mitochondrial genome is very limited in resolution as it only represents a single loci and can be heavily biased by gene flow and incomplete lineage sorting.

A pattern of population continuity is not obvious in Europe, where Late Pleistocene individuals are more closely related to the modern Siberian individual than to their modern European counterparts (Fig 1B). This suggests the modern Siberian population may have been more widely distributed than today, and suggests a population replacement in Europe towards the end of the Late Pleistocene. This is in line with the previous hypothesis of Central Asia as the central point of origin and diversification of brown bears [55], and of bears from the Carpathian mountains recolonising Europe after the LGM. More genomes from western/central Asian brown bears, both contemporary and ancient, will help to resolve the origin of contemporary European bears.

Despite uncertainty in the geographic origin of contemporary European brown bears, the differences in the clustering of the Irish individuals based on their age (mid-late Holocene and Late Pleistocene) allows us to make inferences about the timing of their origins. Although our PCA results present the Late Pleistocene Irish individuals as either the same population as the Siberian/Late Pleistocene Austrian cluster (Fig 1B) or as intermediate between the contemporary European/Holocene Irish and the Siberian/Late Pleistocene Austrian clusters (Supplementary Fig S1) depending on base call method, making us uncertain of their exact position, it still shows them as different from the Holocene Irish individuals. Therefore, our findings indicate the population replacement in Europe occurred after the end of the Pleistocene, and before the mid-Holocene. The Late Pleistocene-Holocene transition was a period of major climatic upheaval, which influenced the diversity and distribution of extant taxa [56]. Higher δ^{15}N values, indicating more carnivorous diets, have been commonly documented in Late Pleistocene brown bears [20]. However, lower levels of δ^{15}N have also been uncovered towards the end of the Late Pleistocene and into the Holocene in Europe, which has been proposed to be due to a shift toward increasing herbivory [10]. Based on our findings, we suggest that instead of a shift in diet of Late Pleistocene

394 individuals, it may instead have been a shift in individuals themselves to another population,
395 with a different diet that was more suited to the new environment. This theory is supported by
396 our Tajima's D results showing a population expansion in Europe. This also supports
397 previous results that brown bears recolonised Europe at the end of the Last Glacial Maximum
398 (LGM) faster than any other carnivore of the Holocene fauna [57].
399
Our demographic results show a decrease in effective population size shortly after the
divergence of the four modern populations ~50 kya. While this could be the result of climate
change induced population declines, it could also be due to the reduction of gene flow
between populations as they geographically separated from one another. In general,
contemporary European individuals have the highest levels of genetic diversity, with
relatively low levels of inbreeding, apart from a few outliers that were most impacted by
humans [18] (Fig 3). High levels of diversity may have been key in adapting to the Holocene,
allowing them to outcompete other bears. Unfortunately, we only had data from one
contemporary Siberian individual, and can therefore only make population-level assumptions
based on it. However, one of the highest levels of heterozygosity and the lowest levels of
ROH are found in this individual, which could indicate a continually large effective
population size. This is also supported by our PSMC, which shows higher recent effective
population size than in the other populations.
413

414 **Data accessibility**
415 The raw Illumina sequence data for individual JBB-32K are available under DDBJ DRA ID:
416 DRA015631. The raw Illumina sequence data for individual CGG_1_020006 are available
417 under Bioproject PRJNA930648 on NCBI.
418
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Figures:

Figure 1: Population structure and phylogenomic results. A) Map showing the localities of the brown bear genomes included in this study. Ages of ancient samples are listed next to their locality. 'Late Pleistocene' indicates a direct age is unknown but it is listed as Late

Pleistocene in the original publication [23]. Sample >50 kya was dated to beyond the limit of radio carbon dating. B) PCA generated from genotype likelihoods. Percentage values in parentheses on the X and Y axes show the percentage of variation explained by the principal component. Colours and shapes represent geography and age respectively. C) Sliding window phylogenomic tree results using three individuals per population except for Siberia which was a single individual. Percentages show the proportion of windows supporting that topology. Colours in B and C align with the corresponding colours on the map.

Figure 2: Effective population sizes over the past 500,000 years calculated using PSMC on single individual representatives for each population. Faded lines show the 100 bootstrap replicates produced for each species.

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Fig 3: Genetic diversity and runs of homozygosity estimates. (A) Autosome-wide
heterozygosity calculated using ANGSD for each individual with >5x mean coverage.
Variation was calculated using 20Mb windows of covered bases. (B) Autosomal runs of
homozygosity split into different ROH sizes for all individuals with >5x mean coverage
calculated using PLINK.