Haplotype-resolved genome and population genomics of the threatened garden dormouse in Europe

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Abstract

Genomic resources are important for evaluating genetic diversity and supporting conservation efforts. The garden dormouse (*Eliomys quercinus*) is a small rodent that has experienced one of the most severe modern population declines in Europe. We present a high-quality haplotype-resolved reference genome for the garden dormouse, and combine comprehensive short and long-read transcriptomics datasets with homology-based methods to generate a highly complete gene annotation. Demographic history analysis of the genome revealed a sharp population decline since the last interglacial, indicating that colder climates caused severe population declines prior to anthropogenic influence. Using our genome and genetic data from 100 individuals, largely sampled in a citizen-science project across the contemporary range, we conducted the first population genomic analysis for this species to investigate patterns of connectivity between regions and factors explaining population declines. We found clear evidence for population structure across the species' core Central European range. Notably, our data provide strong evidence that the Alpine population, characterized by strong differentiation likely due to habitat isolation, represents a differentiated evolutionary significant unit (ESU). Our data also show that the predominantly declining Eastern European populations show signs of recent isolation, a pattern consistent with a range expansion from Western to Eastern Europe during the Holocene, leaving relict populations now facing local extinction. Overall, our findings suggest that garden dormouse conservation may be enhanced in Europe through designation of ESUs.

Introduction

As genomic sequencing technology advances and costs decrease, high-quality reference genomes are becoming increasingly recognized as an essential resource for conservation genomics (Formenti et al. 2022; Brandies et al. 2019; Theissinger et al. 2023; Paez et al. 2022). When aligned to a reference genome assembly, high throughput genomic data can contribute to the understanding of past and contemporary population demographics (Gautier et al. 2016; du Plessis et al. 2023; Luo et al. 2023; Campana et al. 2016), reveal evolutionary patterns such as adaptive differentiation (Szarmach et al. 2021; Martchenko and Shafer 2023), and provide information about the current conservation status of wildlife species of conservation concern (Talla et al. 2023; Viluma et al. 2022). While reduced-representation sequencing (RRS) methodologies continue to be the more cost-effective and efficient means of generating genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) datasets for large numbers of samples (Wright et al. 2020; Peterson et al. 2012), alignment of RRS reads to a high-quality reference genome improves both the precision of SNP calls and the quantity of SNPs recovered when compared to *de novo* read alignment without a genome assembly (Rochette et al. 2019; Brandies et al. 2019). Reference genomes are also useful for data of closely-related species, with cross-species alignment shown to be highly effective (Takach et al. 2023; DeSaix et al. 2019; Burri et al. 2015; Nieto-Blázquez et al. 2022). Given the value of reference genome assemblies for population and conservation genomic analyses, sequencing of reference genomes for wildlife groups should be a focus of ongoing conservation efforts.

Highly informative sources of data such as reference genomes can have particular value for investigating understudied wildlife groups, as genomic data can contribute to baseline knowledge necessary for conservation planning. Within mammals, such foundational knowledge is lacking for many small-bodied mammal taxa such as rodents and insectivores, which have a known deficit of research (Verde Arregoitia 2016; Kennerley et al. 2021) that can be seen even in well-studied regions such as Central Europe (Pérez-Espona 2017). Indeed, general population trends of small mammals are not well understood in Europe (Lang et al. 2022; Pérez-Espona 2017; Gippoliti and Amori 2007; Bertolino et al. 2015), even though many species appear to be declining (Rammou et al. 2022; Gippoliti and Amori 2007; Lang et al. 2022; Reiners et al. 2014). Population genomic analysis could expand our understanding of population structure and the factors contributing to declines, but with the exception of a few flagship species such as the Eurasian beaver (*Castor fiber*; (Halley et al. 2021) it remains a limited tool in European rodent conservation.

The garden dormouse (*Eliomys quercinus*) is a small rodent species that exemplifies the small mammal conservation crisis in Europe. Once distributed across the

continent, the garden dormouse is now recognized to have experienced one of the most extensive modern population declines on the European continent, with an approximate 51% range contraction since the 1970s (Bertolino 2017). Currently, it is only considered common in five of the 26 countries that once comprised its historical range, and even within these refuge countries its distribution is patchy and highly localized (Bertolino 2017). Despite its known imperiled status, research on the garden dormouse has been limited, even in comparison to the three other European species in its family Gliridae (Lang et al. 2022)). In particular, the causes of its population decline are still unclear. Changing climate and intensification of land use have been suggested as possible influences; however, the demographic shift appears to have started prior to major 20th century landscape-level changes (Meinig and Büchner 2012; Bertolino 2017). Despite this possible influence of habitat loss, the garden dormouse also shows signs of being a habitat generalist, and this forest species has also adapted well to urban areas in some parts of its range while essentially vanishing from others (Meinig and Büchner 2012), making its decline an ongoing mystery.

Population genetic analysis has been identified as a major research need in garden dormouse conservation (Meinig and Büchner 2012), as genetic data could aid in understanding patterns of connectivity and gene flow between regions and uncover past population processes that may help explain current declines. Prior karyotyping and mitochondrial DNA analyses suggested the existence of four genetically distinct clades within Europe (Perez et al. 2013; Libois et al. 2012), although the existence of hybrid individuals indicated gene flow between clades (Perez et al. 2013). A better understanding of the population structure and genetic diversity within the hypothesized clades could help guide future management priorities and inform both regional and European-wide conservation efforts. Here, we present a high-quality reference genome for the garden dormouse, representing the first such complete genome for both the species and its genus. We then demonstrate the utility of the genome by conducting the first genome-wide analysis of population differentiation across the contemporary range of the garden dormouse.

Results

Haplotype-resolved genome assembly

To generate a reference-quality assembly for the garden dormouse, we used long-read sequencing on two PacBio Revio SMRT cells, producing a total of 124.4 Gb of High-Fidelity (HiFi) reads with a HiFi N50 read length of 14 kb. We used the Arima HiC protocol to generate 117 Gbp in long-range read pairs for scaffolding. Assuming a genome size

similar to other dormice (Zoonomia Consortium 2020; Böhne et al. 2023) of 2.5 Gb, the HiFi and HiC data have a coverage of ~50X and ~47X, respectively.

We used hifiasm (Cheng et al. 2021) in HiC mode to obtain two haplotype-resolved contig assemblies (Fig. S1). The contig N50 values of the two haplotypes are 51.7 and 45.4 Mb, respectively. This contiguity is at least 2.8-fold higher compared with other Sciuromorpha genome assemblies (Fig. 1A,B, Table S1). Scaffold N50 values are 108.1 and 107.5 Mb. Haplotype 1 contains the X chromosome, which was assembled as a chromosome-level scaffold. We identified 24 autosomes, inferring that the sequenced individual has a karyotype of 50 chromosomes (2*24 + 2 sex chromosomes) (Fig. 1C,D), which matches the range of 48 to 54 chromosomes identified for *Eliomys* so far (Perez et al. 2013). Overall, 99.4 and 99.6% of haplotype 1 and 2 are contained in chromosome-level scaffolds. These metrics exceed the standards set by the Vertebrate Genome Project (Rhie et al. 2021).

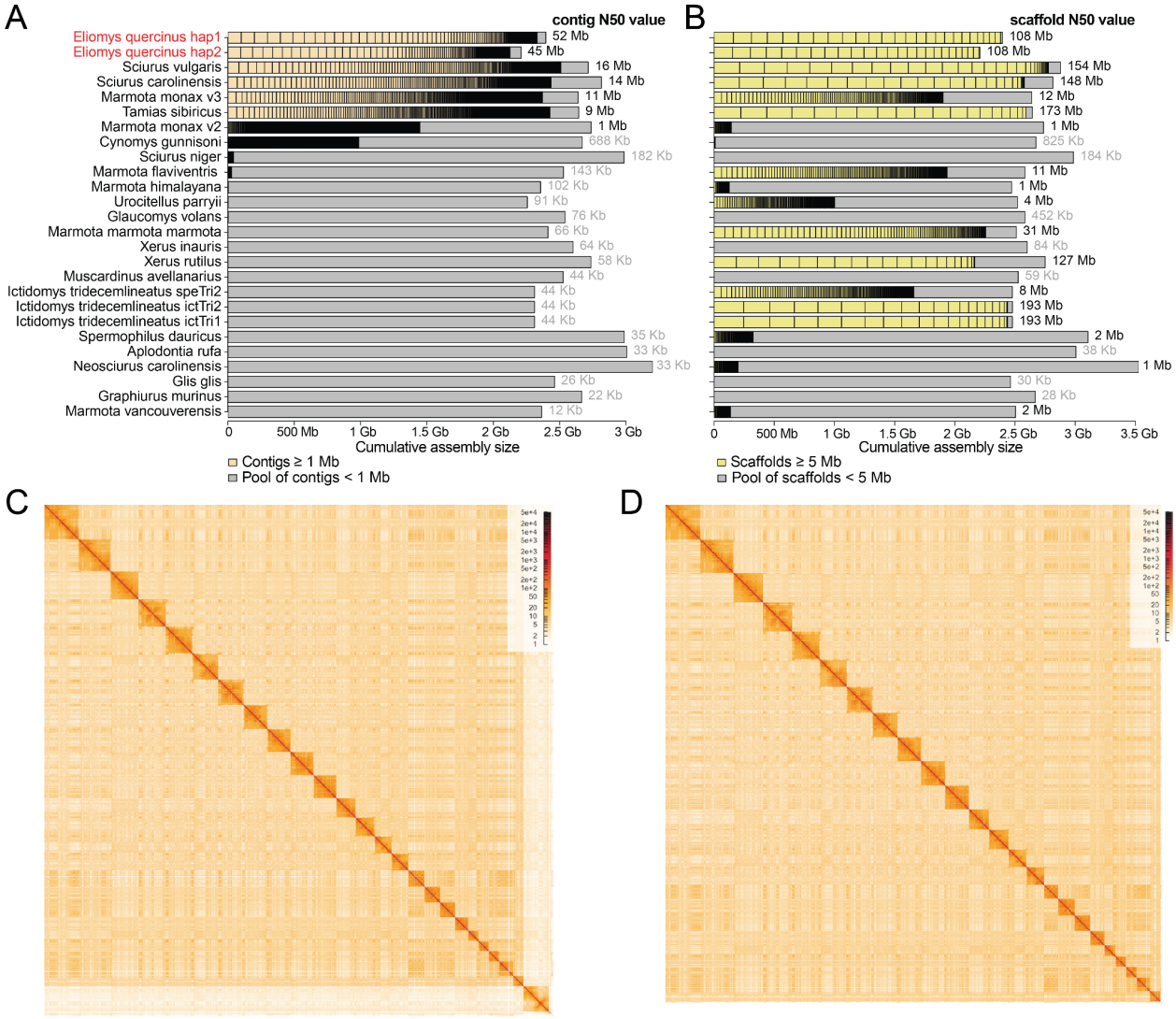

Figure 1: Contiguity and HiC maps of both haplotype assemblies. (A, B) Visualization of contig (A) and scaffold (B) sizes of the garden dormouse haplotype 1 and 2 (red font) and other Sciuromorpha genome assemblies. The N50 values are given on the right side. Contigs shorter than 1 Mb and scaffolds shorter than 5 Mb are not visualized individually, but shown as the grey portion of each bar.
(C, D) HiC density maps for haplotype 1 (C) and haplotype 2 (D).

Assembly quality and completeness

To estimate the assembly base accuracy, we used Merqury (Rhie et al. 2020) with the HiFi reads. Haplotype 1 and 2 have a QV (consensus quality) value of 60.46 and 60.24, indicating only one error per megabase. While these QV estimates represent an upper bound as they are based on the HiFi reads used for assembly, these values indicate a very high base accuracy in our assemblies.

To assess gene completeness, we first used compleasm 0.2.2 (Huang and Li 2023) with the odb10 set of 9,226 near-universally conserved mammalian genes. Counting completely detected genes present in a single copy, our assemblies contained 98.3% such genes for haplotype 1 and 90.16% for haplotype 2 that lacks the X chromosome. In comparison to other Sciuromorpha genome assemblies, our garden dormouse haplotype 1 is the second best in terms of this metric after the *Sciurus carolinensis* assembly (Mead et al. 2020) (Fig. 2A, Table S1). Second, we used TOGA (Kirilenko et al. 2023) to compare the status of 18,430 ancestral placental mammal coding genes across the garden dormouse and other Sciuromorpha assemblies. TOGA explicitly distinguishes between the two major assembly issues (incompleteness and base errors) by classifying genes into those that have an intact reading frame, those that have gene-inactivating mutations (frameshifts, stop codons, splice site mutations, exon or gene deletions) and those that have missing sequences due to assembly incompleteness or fragmentation. We found that 94.1% of the ancestral genes are intact and only 1.1% have missing exons (Fig. 2B, Table S1). In comparison to other assemblies in the order Sciuoromorpha, our garden dormouse haplotype 1 is the third best in terms of intact genes. Despite being top-ranked in the compleasm metric, the TOGA analysis reveals that the *S. carolinensis* assembly has substantially more genes with inactivating mutations, indicating a lower base accuracy (Fig. 2B).

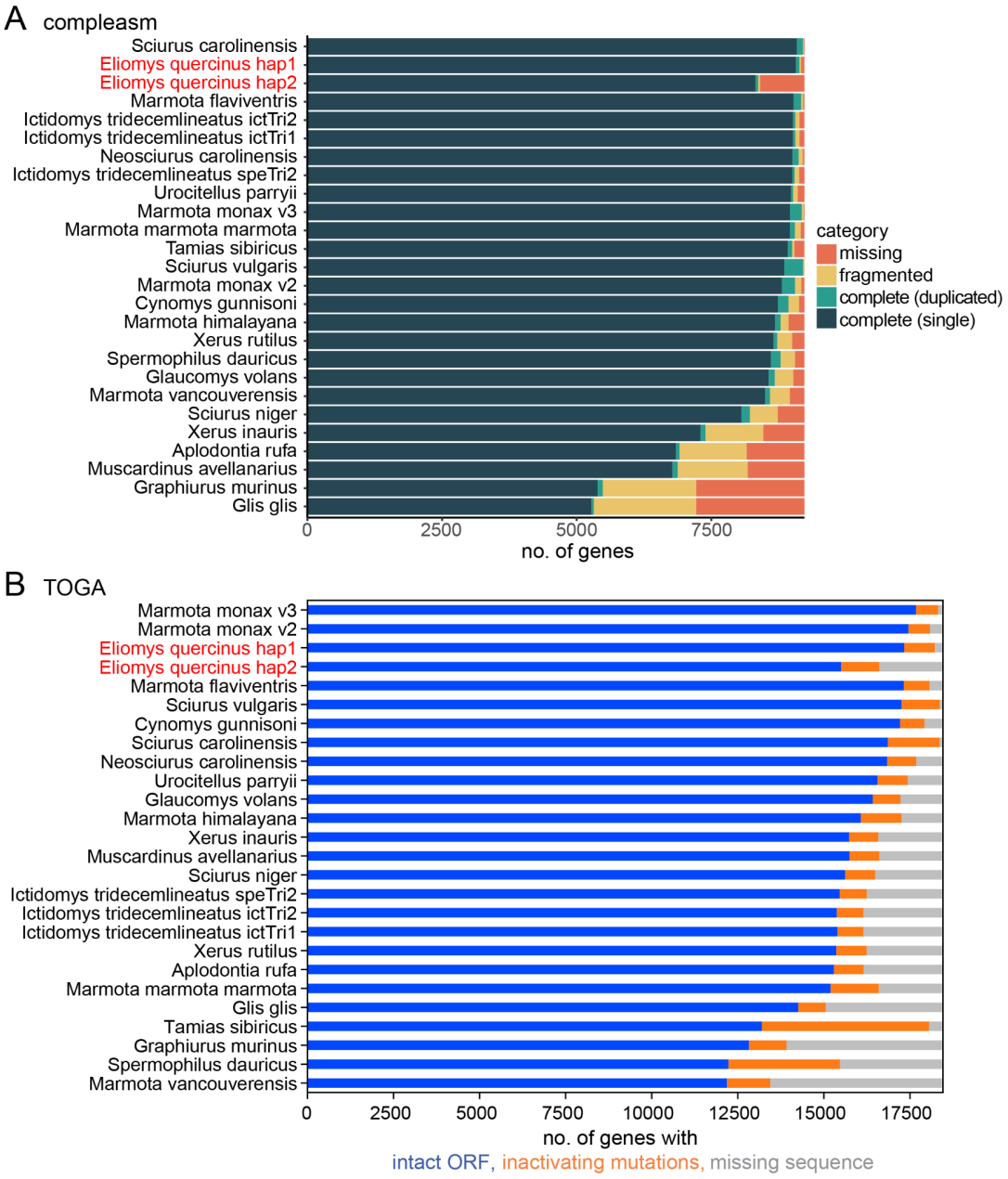

Figure 2: Comparison of gene completeness between our haplotype-resolved garden dormouse and other Sciuromorpha genomes.

(A) Fractions of detected, fragmented, and missing BUSCO genes (mammalian odb10 dataset, 9,226 genes), as classified by compleasm v.0.2.2 (Huang and Li 2023) across Sciuromorpha assemblies.

(B) TOGA classification of 18,430 ancestral placental mammal genes across Sciuromorpha assemblies.

Assemblies are ranked by the number of completely-detected (A) and by the number of intact (B) genes. For the garden dormouse, we show both haplotypes in red font and next to each other, but the X chromosome is only contained in haplotype 1. Species and assembly accessions are listed in Table S1.

Gene Annotation

To comprehensively annotate genes of the garden dormouse genome, we generated both short-read (RNA-Seq) and long-read (Iso-Seq) transcriptomics data. For RNA-Seq, we sequenced ~4.2 billion reads from eight different organs (heart, testis, liver, lung, spleen, muscle, kidney, and bladder) and for Iso-Seq, we sequenced ~1.6 million reads from six organs (heart, testis, liver, lung, kidney, and bladder) that often cover entire transcripts. The two types of transcriptome data were combined (see Methods) to produce transcript models. In addition to evidence from transcriptomics data, we generated genome alignments and used TOGA (Kirilenko et al. 2023) with the human GENCODE 38 and the mouse GENCODE M25 annotation (Frankish et al. 2021) as the reference to provide a homology-based annotation of the garden dormouse. Both types of transcript evidence were joined, which resulted in an annotation comprising 19,374 coding genes. Using compleasm in protein mode, we found that our gene annotation completely contains 99.91% of the mammalian BUSCO genes, indicating a very high completeness.

Demographic history of the garden dormouse

To gain insight into the demographic history of the garden dormouse and investigate potential effects of climatic changes in the Pleistocene, we inferred the effective population size (Ne) using pairwise sequentially Markovian coalescence (PSMC) (Li and Durbin 2011). We used a generation time of 1.5 years and a mutation rate of $5.7*10^{-9}$ per generation (see Methods).

Our results indicate relatively high Ne (> 130,000) and consistent population growth from 800 kya towards the last interglacial (Fig. 3). Population sizes reached their maximum of > 200,000 individuals around the last interglacial. Subsequently, Ne rapidly declined towards the last glacial maximum, reaching an estimated minimum Ne of less than 10,000 individuals around 10 kya. Together, this indicates that the garden dormouse thrived in warm periods, while a cooling climate with longer winters caused severe population declines. Consistent with this result, the Gliridae family thrived during earlier warm periods in the Miocene (23 to 5.3 Mya) (Nadachoswki and Daoud 1995)

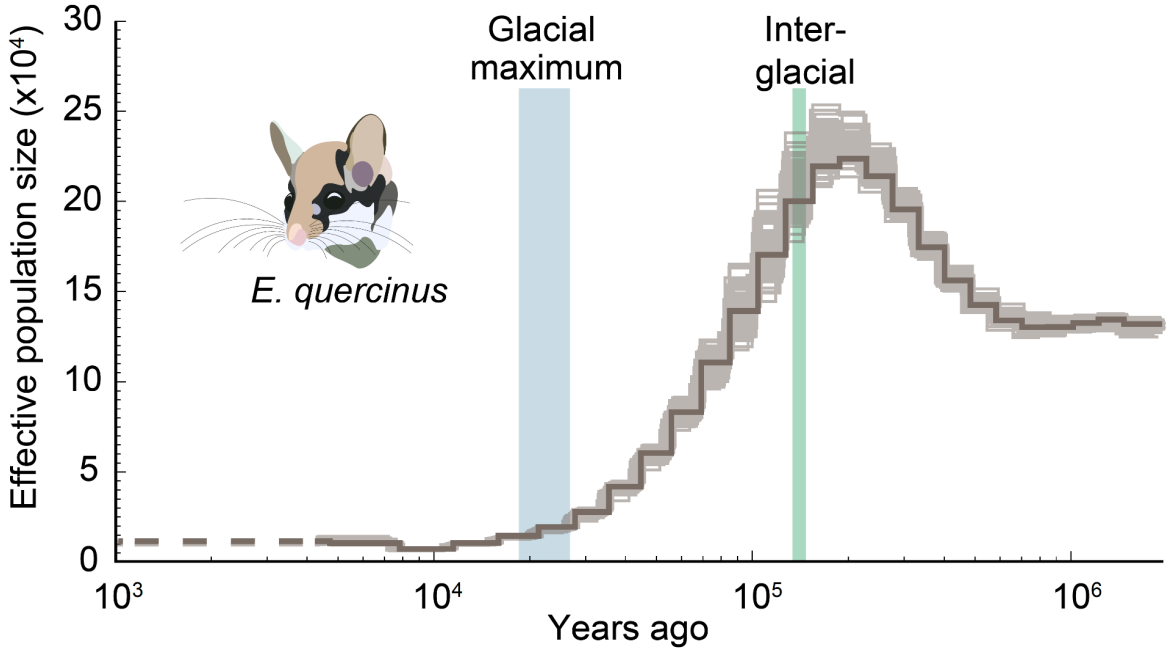

Figure 3: Demographic history of the garden dormouse.
Effective population size (Ne) of *E. quercinus* as estimated with PSMC. Ne in ten thousands is shown on the y-axis and time in years ago on the x-axis. Faint lines indicate uncertainty of inferred Ne based on 100 bootstrap replicates. Blue and green bars show the timing of the last glacial maximum and last interglacial, respectively. The most recent Ne estimate with reduced accuracy is displayed by a dotted line on the left.

Population genomics

To investigate population structure across the European range of the garden dormouse, we obtained *n* = 100 samples collected opportunistically between 1991–2020 for population genomic analyses and performed normalized Genotyping-by-Sequencing (nGBS). After sequencing, reads were aligned to the garden dormouse reference genome, and the resulting alignments were used to call single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). We assigned *a priori* population identity following in part the clades identified by (Perez et al. 2013) (Fig. 4A).

After removal of one individual with 98% missing data and one duplicate sample, we obtained data for a total of 41,175 SNPs from *n* = 98 samples with a mean per site depth of 14.75 X and mean frequency of missingness of 0.11 (Table S2). For analyses dependent upon allele frequencies, such as relatedness and PCA-based analyses, we pruned SNPs based on linkage disequilibrium, resulting in a dataset of 9,131 SNPs.

We first inferred relatedness among individual samples using the pruned SNP set and found six pairwise groups of first-order relations in the Harz population. Because

inclusion of related individuals can bias population genomic analyses, we randomly removed one individual from each pair above a kinship threshold > 0.35, which corresponds to a first-order familial relationship, for subsequent analyses (Table S2). All Russian samples were identified as second order relations (kinship > 0.20), indicating half-sibling or grandparent-offspring relationships. Therefore we removed all but one individual from Russia, retaining the sample with the lowest missing data (Table S2). As all individuals with kinship greater than the threshold were collected on the same day from the same locations, these kinship estimates likely reflect accurate estimates of relatedness between individuals. This left us with a final dataset of n = 86 samples (Table S2).

Phylogenetic analysis using RAxML showed that individuals from Northeastern Central Europe (Harz Mountains, Central, Northeast, Russia) form a single clade, separated from the Northwest, Alps, Italy, and Iberian Peninsula regions (Fig. S2). This tree conformed with the PCA of genetic distance among individuals and sampling regions. PCA showed a strong separation between the Alpine and other sampling regions, with this differentiation explaining 27.52% of the variation on PC1 (Fig. 5). Further spatial differentiation between the Northwest region and the other Central European sampling locations explained 5.20% of the variation on PC2. These results were consistent with findings of relatively high F_{ST} between most regional pairwise groupings (Table 1), suggesting that dispersal between spatially disjunct populations may be limited.

	NW	**ALP**	**HAR**	**CE**	**IB**	**NE**	**IT**
ALP	0.54						
HAR	0.15	0.69					
CE	0.08	0.68	0.21				
IB	0.28	0.62	0.44	0.32			
NE	0.13	0.69	0.16	0.11	0.39		
IT	0.43	0.64	0.61	0.53	0.36	0.58	
RUS	0.14	0.79	0.27	0.16	0.40	0.79	0.86

Table 1. Pairwise F_{ST} between eight garden dormouse sampling regions, corrected for sample size. Sampling regions are defined and abbreviated as Northwest (NW), the Alps (ALP), Harz Mountains (HAR), Central (CE), the Iberian Peninsula (IB), Northeast (NE), Italy (IT), and Russia (RUS).

However, the highest overall F_{ST} values were consistently recovered for pairwise comparisons of the Alpine group and all other populations, indicating that differentiation

between regions is not only driven by geographic distance, as the Alpine region is relatively central to other sampling sites (Fig. 4A).

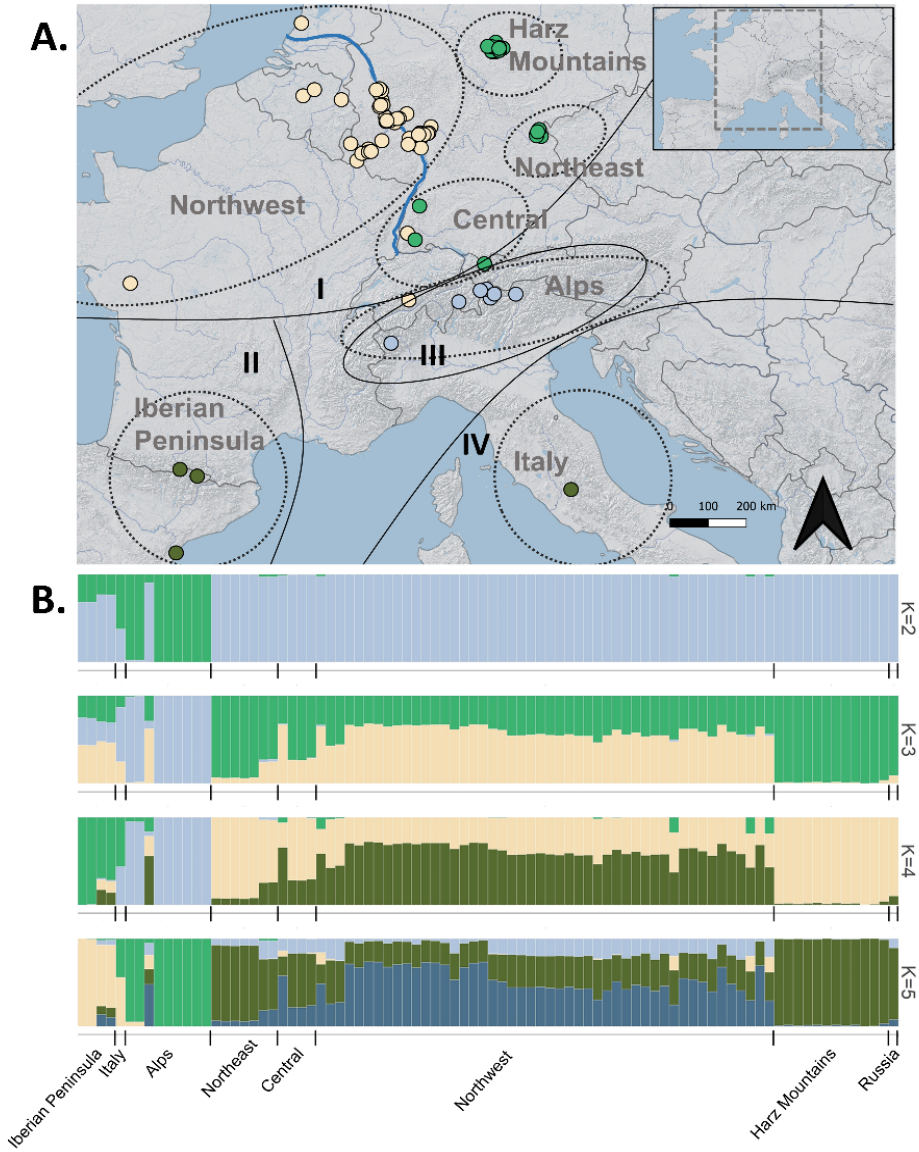

Figure 4. Garden dormouse population structure inferred from 47,115 nuclear SNP loci. (A) Group assignment via 10 PCs obtained by a discriminant analysis of principal components. (B) The predicted assignment of genetic clusters (K) 1–4 is shown by four different colors, the *a priori* sampling region identity is highlighted by dotted gray lines and text. The clades I-IV that were previously identified based on mitochondrial DNA (Perez et al. 2013) are outlined in black. One sample from Russia is not pictured. The Rhine River is outlined in blue, and the boundary of the study area is outlined in grey in the inset map.
(B) Genetic clustering inferred by Bayesian structure analysis for K ranging from 2 to 5 in STRUCTURE, with x-axes representing geographic sampling location and y-axes the proportion of group membership.

Genetic diversity was highest and inbreeding depression was lowest for the Iberian Peninsula (Table 2). Within the Central European region, genetic diversity was lower for population clusters situated east of the Rhine River (Northeast, Alps, Harz Mountains) compared to those located west of or near the river valley (Northwest, Central). This finding is consistent with the overall lower population sizes of garden dormouse populations located east of the Rhine River in Central Europe (Bertolino 2017), and suggests that eastern populations may be more susceptible to negative effects of recent population declines and range contractions, including isolation and loss of genetic diversity.

Region	*n*	A_R	H_{obs}	H_{exp}	F_{IS}
Alps	9	1.11	0.04	0.12	0.62
Central	4	1.20	0.16	0.21	0.15
Harz Mountains	12	1.14	0.13	0.14	0.08
Iberian Peninsula	4	1.24	0.22	0.25	0.06
Italy	1	1.03	0.03	–	–
Northeast	7	1.16	0.13	0.16	0.18
Northwest	48	1.22	0.17	0.22	0.2
Russia	1	1.07	0.07	–	–

Table 2. Sample size (*n*) and genetic diversity metrics among eight garden dormouse sampling regions, with observed (H_{obs}) and expected (H_{exp}) heterozygosity, allelic richness rarified by sample size (A_R), and the inbreeding coefficient F_{IS}.

We used DAPC and STRUCTURE to infer the number of genetic clusters within our samples. Both methods identified K = 4 as the most probable number of genetic clusters, although results were clearer for DAPC (Fig. S3A) than for STRUCTURE, which also suggested K = 2 and K = 3 as possible cluster numbers (Fig. S4). Cluster membership for DAPC was suggestive of relatively strong differentiation between the Northwest region versus other regions in Germany (Fig. 4A, Fig. S3B,C), while STRUCTURE indicated greater admixture among these regions at all values of K (Fig. 4B; Fig. S5). Both methods were consistent in differentiating the Alpine samples from all other regions (Fig. 4B; Fig. S5). Patterns observed for the full dataset were comparable for the STRUCTURE analysis subset by sample size (Fig. S6), indicating that our results were not influenced by unequal sample size among our sampling regions for regions where n > 1.

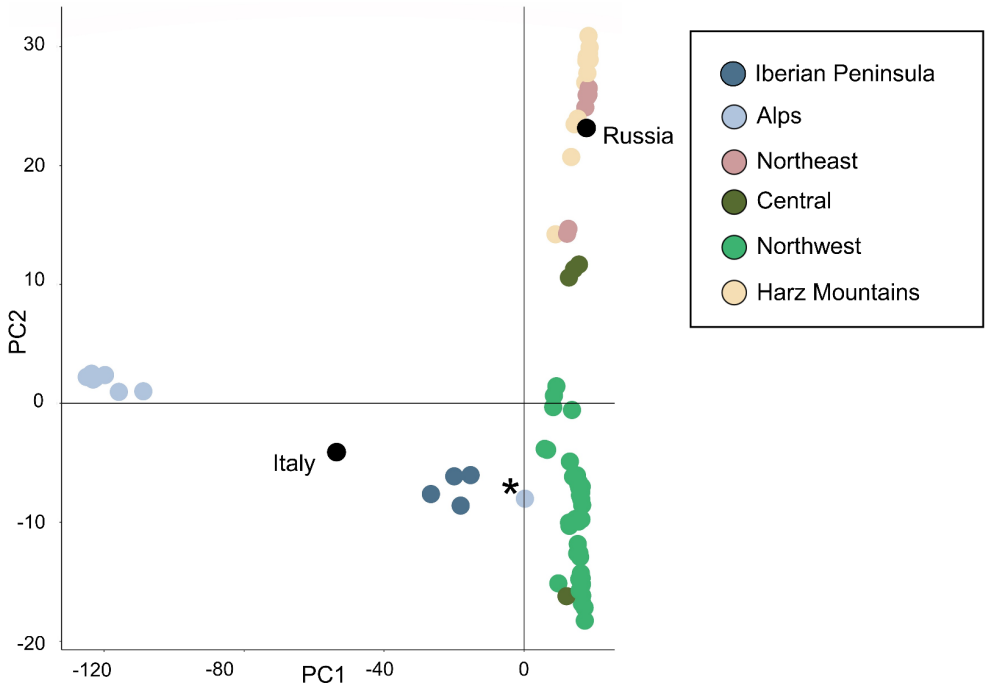

Figure 5. Principal component analysis (PCA) for the garden dormouse. The PCA is based on 9,130 nuclear SNP loci, with colors representing the geographical origin. Results are plotted on the first two principal components, with PC1 explaining 27.52% and PC2 5.20% of variation within the dataset. Regions where *n* = 1 (Italy and Russia) are indicated by black circles, with region names labeled within the plot. One individual from the Alps clustered separately from the Alpine region and is marked with a *.

Overall, population genomic analyses consistently revealed little evidence for contemporary gene flow between the Alpine region and other populations, and the high degree of differentiation in this region may indicate long-term isolation of the Alpine group. Despite the clear isolation of the Alpine group, all analyses were consistent in separating one individual from other samples collected from the Alpine region (G190088CH). This individual, which was collected north of the main Alpine ridge, instead showed strong evidence for admixture with the Northwest and Harz Mountains regions (Fig. 4; Fig. 5).

Discussion

This study makes a valuable contribution to the conservation of small mammals in Europe by providing a high-quality reference genome for the garden dormouse, the first for its genus. This study was performed in the frame of the citizen-science focused project *Spurensuche Gartenschläfer* ('In Search of the Garden Dormouse'), which is the first

356 over-regional conservation and research project for this species in Germany (Meinig et
357 al. 2023). The project aims at restoring garden dormouse populations, as the species
358 continues to decline across much of its range (Lang et al. 2022). Using this assembly and
359 population genomics data from samples across the species' range, we were able to
360 investigate garden dormouse demographic history, as well as contemporary population
361 structure and genetic diversity parameters.

362 The inferred demographic history indicates that garden dormice underwent a
363 substantial population bottleneck already prior to anthropogenic influence, with rapid
364 decline and long-term low Ne following the last interglacial. Our data suggest that warm
365 periods around the last interglacial period supported high effective population sizes, and
366 that hibernation did not save garden dormouse populations from declining during the last
367 ice age. Previous paleontological data suggested that Gliridae diversified during periods
368 of high glaciation (Lu et al. 2021). This observation has been interpreted as a sign that
369 this family thrived during cold periods, likely because hibernation was an evolutionary
370 advantage to survive cooling climates (Lu et al. 2021). In contrast, our results provide
371 evidence that garden dormouse populations declined by more than 90% as the climate
372 cooled down as it approached the last glacial maximum, raising the possibility that the
373 observed lineage diversification during glaciation might rather have resulted from
374 population fragmentation. This finding is in line with longer winters leading to reduced
375 fitness following later emergence from hibernation (Lane et al. 2012). Similar results of
376 declining populations after the last interglacial period have further been described for
377 other Sciuromorpha, including the hibernating Gunnison's Prairie Dog *Cynomys*
378 *gunnisoni* (Tsuchiya et al. 2020) and the Southern Flying Squirrel *Glaucomys volans*
379 (Wolf et al. 2022)

380 Our population genomics analysis found clear evidence for population structure
381 across the species' core Central European range, with strong differentiation in particular
382 for the Alpine region. Our findings of high genetic differentiation and four potential genetic
383 clusters confirm and extend prior genetic research, which also identified four garden
384 dormouse lineages within a similar sampling area based on mitochondrial DNA
385 haplotypes and chromosome number differences (Perez et al. 2013). We found the Alpine
386 region south of the main Alpine ridge to be strongly differentiated from all other sampling
387 regions, as evidenced by both model-based (STRUCTURE), and non-model-based
388 (PCA) approaches. We also found differentiation of regions south of the Alpine range,
389 which supports that this mountain range may act as a barrier to garden dormouse
390 dispersal (Perez et al. 2013). One specimen collected within our Alps boundary showed
391 admixture with more Northern regions, but, as this specimen was collected north of the
392 main Alpine ridge, it is probable that this region is connected to the more northern
393 populations, rather than this individual accurately representing admixture within the highly
394 differentiated Alpine population. In contrast to prior research, with our more

395 comprehensive datasets, we were also able to detect additional moderate population
396 structure within the Central European clade (Fig. 4), showing a clear pattern of
397 differentiation between east and west Central Europe. Given the varying degrees of
398 differences between these regions, it is likely that these patterns of genetic structure have
399 arisen through different forces, with the Alpine population representing a potential
400 evolutionary significant unit (ESU), while structure within Northern Europe may reflect
401 modern population pressures resulting from habitat fragmentations and population
402 isolation.

403 The range contraction of the garden dormouse is known to be centered in the
404 eastern part of its range, with the species becoming more common and populations more
405 contiguous as one moves further west (Bertolino 2017; Meinig and Büchner 2012). Fossil
406 evidence indicates that the garden dormouse originated in the Iberian Peninsula and
407 spread out into Central Europe during the Holocene, which may mean that remaining
408 garden dormice in Eastern Europe represent small, relict populations on the edge of
409 extirpation (Anděra 1986). It is possible, then, that the differentiation of these more
410 eastern populations may therefore reflect genetic drift resulting from isolation of these
411 populations in the 20th century. Support for this possibility is provided by our preliminary
412 findings of lower genetic diversity and greater rates of inbreeding for the more easterly
413 populations in Germany (Harz mountains and Northeast), while the Central population
414 shows evidence of admixture with the larger and more contiguous Northwest population,
415 thereby potentially increasing its genetic diversity through interbreeding. Larger sampling
416 efforts are required to substantiate these findings that are based on rather low sample
417 numbers. A similar east-west pattern of differentiation has also been observed in the
418 garden dormouses' spatially overlapping relative, the hazel dormouse (*Muscardinus*
419 *avellanarius*), which is distributed as two separate lineages or 'partial ESUs', delineated
420 along a similar geographic divide as the garden dormouse (Leyhausen et al. 2022;
421 Mouton et al. 2017). Unlike the hazel dormouse, however, this east-west pattern of
422 differentiation was not reflected by mtDNA in the garden dormouse (Perez et al. 2013),
423 indicating that the division among lineages may be a more recent phenomenon resulting
424 from habitat fragmentation and/or demographic changes such as population declines.

425 In contrast to the Central European regions, the Alpine population shows a strong
426 signal of genetic differentiation, which confirms prior mtDNA genetic distance estimates
427 (Perez et al. 2013). Within the Alpine region, the garden dormouse is found in both
428 subalpine and montane habitats, where it occupies coniferous as well as deciduous forest
429 habitat (Bertolino 2017). The strong genetic differentiation and the highly differentiated
430 habitat may indicate the potential for longer-term genetic separation, possibly arising from
431 adaptation to local habitat conditions or climate. Evidence for the Alpine population as a
432 potential ESU is further provided by the lower rates of genetic diversity and high estimate
433 of inbreeding indicative of reproductive isolation of the population. Perez et al. (2013) also

found lower nucleotide diversity for this region, and surmised that this may have resulted from either population bottlenecks or recent population expansion. By contrast, the relatively high genetic diversity and low inbreeding of the Iberian population likely reflect a rather large population size and contiguous breeding range of the species in the warmer Mediterranean regions, where it is still considered relatively common (Bertolino 2017). Given that we only have one sample from the Italian mainland, our data are not sufficient to infer whether the Iberian and Italian populations are differentiated, and further sampling of this region is needed to establish patterns of relatedness of garden dormouse within the Mediterranean.

Although the causes of the garden dormouse's east-to-west pattern of range contraction aren't fully understood, landscape level changes driven by land use and climate change have been partially implicated (Bertolino 2017). However, it is unclear what specific role climate might play in this contraction. For the ecologically-similar hazel dormouse, warmer and wetter winters have been found to have a negative effect on adult survivorship, possibly because warmer temperatures cause animals to wake during hibernation, thereby expending energy and causing a reduction in fat reserves (Combe et al. 2023). Garden dormice hibernate in regions of harsh winter, and their life histories appear strongly tied to winter temperatures, as well as the onset and duration of the season (Bennett and Richard 2021; Mahlert et al. 2018). Timing and duration of activity periods and hibernation vary widely based on local climate conditions, with Mediterranean populations hibernating only 1–2 months per year, if at all, while Alpine populations may hibernate for 7 months per year (Bertolino et al. 2001). While populations appear to be limited by extreme cold (Schaub and Vaterlaus-Schlegel 2001; Bertolino et al. 2001), warm weather during hibernation may also cause stressors that could inhibit population growth in regions where dormouse are more adapted to cold, particularly where winter food resources are not available (Giroud et al. 2023). Further investigation of the role of climate in shaping the garden dormouse's population structure via local adaptation may be useful in predicting the future viability of the species with ongoing climate change.

Conclusion

The garden dormouse is currently listed as "Near Threatened" in the IUCN Red List despite compelling evidence that recent range reductions necessitate relisting the species as "Vulnerable" (Bertolino 2017). Our findings provide strong evidence for the designation of the Alpine subpopulation of the garden dormouse as a separate ESU, given that it fulfills the criteria set by (Moritz 1994) of reciprocal mtDNA monophyly (Perez et al. 2013) and significant nuclear DNA divergence. Overall, findings from this study suggest that garden dormouse conservation may be enhanced in Europe through the designation of differentiated populations as ESUs. Further research is needed to

472 determine if these ESUs are experiencing local adaptation to environmental factors such
473 as temperature, and how these potential adaptations may influence future population
474 viability in the face of a changing climate. Our annotated genome will enable comparative
475 analyses and addressing open evolutionary questions of the *Eliomys* species complex,
476 as well as to inform specific conservation planning and management for the garden
477 dormouse in Europe. It is our hope that the findings outlined in this study can help guide
478 the direction of future research for the garden dormouse, while also highlighting the need
479 for further protection within regions of population isolation and/or low genetic diversity.
480
481

482 Materials and Methods

483

484 Sample collection

485 Tissue samples for nGBS were collected from across the European distribution in
486 the frame of a larger conservation project on *Eliomys quercinus* in Germany. Samples
487 originated from Germany (*n* = 66), other Central European countries (*n* = 25), and Russia
488 (*n* = 7) and were collected between 1991-2020 (see Table S2). All samples were taken
489 opportunistically from dead-found individuals brought to museums or animal shelters,
490 during monitoring, or during citizen-science activities, and all in compliance with
491 respective local and national laws.
492

493 Genome sequencing

494 To sequence a high-quality genome, we used a male individual collected in March
495 2023 in Mainz that was euthanized by a veterinarian due to injuries.
496 High molecular weight genomic DNA was extracted from heart tissue according to
497 the protocol of (Sambrook and Russell) for the first library and from lung tissue using the
498 PacBio Nanobind Tissue Kit (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA) for the second library. DNA
499 concentration and DNA fragment length were assessed using the Qubit dsDNA BR Assay
500 kit on the Qubit Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the Genomic DNA Screen
501 Tape on the Agilent 4150 TapeStation system (Agilent Technologies), respectively. A
502 SMRTbell library was prepared for each tissue according to the instructions of the
503 SMRTbell Express Prep Kit v3.0. Total input DNA was approximately 4 µg per library.
504 Quality control of the final libraries was performed on an Agilent Femto Pulse system
505 (Agilent, Waldbronn Germany). Annealing of sequencing primers, binding of sequencing
506 polymerase, and purification of polymerase-bound SMRTbell complexes were performed
507 using the Revio polymerase kit (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA). Loading concentration
508 for sequencing was 225 pM. Long-read whole-genome sequencing was performed on a
509 PacBio Revio instrument (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA), 24 h HiFi sequencing, 15 kb

510 median read length, Q30 median read quality. HiFi read BAM files (128 Gb in total) were
511 used for genome assembly.
512 To generate long-range data for scaffolding, we used the Arima High Coverage Hi-
513 C Kit v01 (Arima Genomics) according to the Animal Tissue User Guide for proximity
514 ligation using approximately 110 mg of heart tissue from the same individual. The
515 proximally-ligated DNA was then converted into an Arima High Coverage HiC library
516 according to the protocol of the Swift Biosciences® Accel-NGS® 2S Plus DNA Library
517 Kit. The fragment size distribution and concentration of the Arima High Coverage HiC
518 library was assessed using the TapeStation 4150 (Agilent Technologies) and the Qubit
519 Fluorometer and Qubit dsDNA HS reagents Assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham,
520 MA), respectively. The library was sequenced on the NovaSeq 6000 platform at
521 Novogene (UK) using a 150 paired-end sequencing strategy, resulting in an output of 180
522 Gb.
523

524 **Transcriptome sequencing**

525 Total RNA was isolated from bladder, heart, kidney, liver, lung, muscle, spleen, and
526 testis from the same individual using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen) according to the
527 manufacturer's instructions. The quality and concentration of each extraction was
528 assessed using the TapeStation 4150 (Agilent Technologies) and the Qubit Fluorometer
529 with the RNA BR Reagents Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). The RNA
530 extractions were then sent to Novogene (UK) for Illumina paired-end 150 bp RNA-seq of
531 a cDNA library (insert size: 350 bp) with a respective expected output of 9 Gb.
532 For the preparation of Iso-seq libraries using the SMRTbell Prep Kit 3.0, only RNA
533 extractions with an RNA integrity number (RIN) > 7 were used, as recommended by the
534 manufacturer's protocol. Two libraries were prepared by pooling RNA from kidney, liver,
535 lung or bladder, heart and testis at approximately 90 ng each, with the exception of lung
536 RNA at approximately 60 ng, resulting in two pooled libraries. These two Iso-Seq libraries
537 were then each loaded onto an SMRT cell sequenced in CCS mode using the Sequel
538 System IIe with the Sequel II Binding Kit 3.1 (Pacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, CA) at the
539 Genome Technology Center (RGTC) at Radboudumc (Nijmegen, The Netherlands). The
540 libraries were loaded to an on-plate concentration of 80 pM each by diffusion loading.
541

542 **Genotyping-by-Sequencing**

543 Tissue samples for nGBS were extracted using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit
544 (Qiagen) with slight protocol modifications to increase yield of RNA-free genomic DNA as
545 described in (Leyhausen et al. 2022). Extracts were quantified with fluorometry (Qubit)
546 and spectrophotometry (NanoDrop) and screened for DNA integrity using gel
547 electrophoresis to identify samples of sufficient quality for NGS. Selected samples (*n* =

548 100) with ≥ 300 ng of high molecular weight DNA were sent for nGBS at LGC Genomics
549 GmbH (www.biosearchtech.com). Details on enzymatic digestion, library preparation and
550 nGBS protocols can be found in (Leyhausen et al. 2022; Arvidsson et al. 2016).
551

552 **Genome assembly**

553 We produced haplotype-specific assemblies from HiFi reads using hifiasm
554 (v.0.19.5), integrating HiC reads for phasing (Cheng et al. 2021). Both haplotypes were
555 subject to filtering procedure using Foreign Contamination Screen Tool (FCS) (Astashyn
556 et al. 2023). Contamination free assemblies were then polished to remove unambiguous
557 heterozygous sites. Specifically, we mapped HiFi reads back to each assembly with
558 minimap2 v.2.26 (Li 2018), removed duplicates using picard MarkDuplicates tool v.3.1.0
559 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard), and called variants using DeepVariant v1.5.0
560 (Poplin et al. 2018). We then filtered for sites with genotype 1/1 and a 'PASS' filter value,
561 meaning that all or nearly all reads support an alternative sequence at this position and
562 passed DeepVariants internal filters. Finally, we corrected corresponding nucleotide sites
563 in the assembly using bcftools consensus v.1.13 (Li 2011).
564 To scaffold the polished haplotype assemblies, we first mapped the Arima HiC reads
565 to each of the two assemblies independently using chromap v.0.2.5 (Zhang et al. 2021)
566 and then processed mapped reads with yahs v1.1a (Zhou et al. 2023). Finally, we
567 performed manual curation of the two scaffolded haplotypes jointly analyzing them in
568 PretextView v.0.2.5 (https://github.com/wtsi-hpag/PretextView). To this end, we
569 remapped the HiC reads to both haplotype assemblies concatenated together using again
570 chromap but allowing for multi-mapping reads (-q 0) to avoid discarding information in
571 regions identical between two haplotypes. We also identified telomeric sequences with
572 tidk v.0.2.31 (https://github.com/tolkit/telomeric-identifier) and where necessary corrected
573 wrong contigs orientations to have telomeres in the ends of resulting scaffolds. To finalize
574 changes made via manual dual haplotype curation, as recently proposed by the
575 Vertebrate Genome and Darwin Tree of Life Project, we used the rapid curation
576 framework (https://gitlab.com/wtsi-grit/rapid-curation/-/tree/main) from the Genome
577 Reference Informatics Team (Howe et al. 2021).
578

579 **Repeat masking and whole-genome alignment**

580 RepeatModeler version 2.0.4 (default parameters) was used to generate a *de novo*
581 repeat library for the garden dormouse assembly. RepeatMasker 4.1.0 (parameters -
582 engine ncbi) was used with the resulting library to soft-mask the genome.
583 We followed our previous workflow to align the human (hg38 assembly) and the
584 mouse (mm10) assembly to both garden dormouse haplotype assemblies (Sharma and

585 Hiller 2017; Blumer et al. 2022). Briefly, we used LASTZ version 1.04.15 with sensitive
586 parameters (K = 2400, L = 3000, Y = 9400, H = 2000, and the LASTZ default scoring
587 matrix) (Harris 2007), axtChain (default parameters except linear-Gap=loose) to compute
588 co-linear alignment chains (Kent et al. 2003), RepeatFiller (default parameters) to capture
589 additional alignments between repetitive regions (Osipova et al. 2019), and chainCleaner
590 (default parameters except minBrokenChainScore = 75,000 and -doPairs) to improve
591 alignment specificity (Suarez et al. 2017).
592

593 **Gene annotation**

594 We used TOGA (Kirilenko et al. 2023) with the alignment chains and the human
595 GENCODE 38 and the mouse GENCODE M25 annotation (Frankish et al. 2021) to
596 annotate coding genes. We ran TOGA for both garden dormouse haplotypes.
597 Raw RNA-seq data were processed with fastP v0.23.4 (Chen 2023; Chen et al.
598 2018) to remove adapters and low quality (< Q15) bases. Processed reads were mapped
599 to a first haplotype assembly with hisat2 v.2.2.1 (Kim et al. 2019). For Iso-Seq reads a
600 circular consensus was generated from the subreads using ccs v.6.4.0
601 (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/pbbioconda). Adapter trimming and base quality
602 filtering was performed with lima v2.2.0
603 (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/pbbioconda). Processed reads were cleaned from
604 polyA tails and polymerase switching artifacts using 'refine' command from the isoseq
605 package v.4.0.0 (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/IsoSeq/blob/master/isoseq-
606 clustering.md) and then clustered together and aligned to generate consensus reads
607 using the 'cluster' command from the isoseq package. Additionally, reads were filtered for
608 alignment artifacts using a custom perl script. To combine transcriptome information from
609 RNA-seq and Iso-seq, we then used a hybrid option (--mix) in stringtie v.2.1.2 (Shumate
610 et al. 2022).
611 To integrate transcriptomics and homology-based transcript evidence, we first
612 merged human and mouse TOGA, keeping only transcripts with an intact reading frame.
613 We then added transcripts classified as partially intact and uncertain loss, but only if they
614 do not overlap intact transcripts. The RNA- and Iso-seq merged transcriptome data was
615 then used to add UTRs to TOGA-annotated coding transcripts with a compatible exon-
616 intron structure. Finally, we added transcriptome data for genomic loci that don't have a
617 TOGA transcript prediction to incorporate lineage-specific and non-coding transcripts into
618 the annotation.
619

620 **Demographic history**

621 We used PSMC (Li and Durbin 2011) to infer the demographic history of the garden
622 dormouse across the past one million years. Minimap2 v.2.26 (Li 2018) was used to map
623 the PacBio HiFi reads to haplotype 1. Heterozygous sites were called with DeepVariant

v1.2.0 (Poplin et al. 2018) using the PacBio model. A consensus genome sequence where the heterozygous sites were represented with IUPAC ambiguity codes was generated using bcftools v1.17 (Danecek et al. 2021). The consensus sequence was converted to the input format of PSMC by applying a bin size of 50 bp.

For PSMC, we included data from all chromosome-size scaffolds except for the X chromosome (scaffold 4). PSMC was run using the parameter settings *-N25 -t15 -r5 -p "4+25*2+4+6"*. We also explored including more parameters (*-p "4+45*2+4+6"* and *-p "4+65*2+4+6"*) as well as splitting the first parameter (e.g., *-p "2+2+25*2+4+6"*). None of these settings changed the general results, so we chose to use the default parameters. Finally, we calibrated PSMC results using a generation time of 1.5 years and a mutation rate of $5.7*10^{-9}$ per generation. This mutation rate is based on the assumption that garden dormice exhibit a similar mutation rate as mice, for which the rate is well established (Uchimura et al. 2015; Milholland et al. 2017). The mean generation time (1.57 years) was calculated based on a yearly reproductive cycle starting at age one, a maximum age of 5 years, and an average yearly survival rate of 0.38 (Schaub and Vaterlaus-Schlegel 2001).

Population genomics

The raw GBS data were trimmed using fastp v0.23.4 (Chen et al. 2018) with enabled base correction and low complexity filter to remove sequencing adaptors and polyG stretches at the end of reads. A 4 bp sliding window was employed to detect regions of poor quality (Phred score < 15). We removed reads if they fit into one of the following categories: read length below 36 bp, reads with > 40% low-quality bases, and reads with 5 or more undetermined bases (Ns). The trimmed reads were then mapped against haplotype 1 of our assembly using bwa-mem v0.7.17-r1188 (Li 2013). Mate coordinates in the resulting mapping files were filled in, the files were sorted by position, and indexed using samtools v.1.18 (Danecek et al. 2021). Variant calling was performed with the ref_map.pl pipeline for reference aligned reads in stacks v2.65 (Rochette et al. 2019) with additional filtering parameters given for the populations program: minor allele frequency of 5%, a minimum percentage of individuals per population of 80, and writing one random SNP per locus (-X "populations: -r 0.80 --min-maf 0.05 --write-random-snp"). Additional variant filtering was performed with VCFtools v0.1.16 (Danecek et al. 2011) to remove indels and only keep biallelic SNPs with a depth per individual between 6 and 50 (flags: '--remove-indels --min-alleles 2 --max-alleles 2 --min-meanDP 6 --max-meanDP 50 --minDP 6 --maxDP 50'). After filtering, we removed samples with > 75% missing data to generate our final VCF file.

Past mitochondrial DNA work has classified four distinct garden dormouse clades within its European range (Iberian, Italian, Western European, and Alpine; (Perez et al. 2013). We followed these clade designations in assigning *a priori* population identity but

663 expanded the 'Western European' category by delineating individuals within this clade as
664 Northwest, the Harz Mountains, Northeast, Central, and Russia (Fig. 4A) as aligning to
665 known garden dormouse distribution within this region (Meinig and Büchner 2012).
666 Because linkage disequilibrium (LD) can influence some analyses such as principal
667 components-based analyses (PCAs) and estimating relatedness between individuals
668 (Malomane et al. 2018), we created a pruned SNP set using the 'snpgds' function in the
669 R package SNPRelate (Zheng et al. 2012) using an LD threshold of $r^2 < 0.2$ and a sliding
670 window of 500bp, which was applied to analyses that rely on allele frequencies for
671 population inferences. We hereafter refer to the 'full' and 'pruned' SNP sets.
672 Excessive numbers of related individuals can bias some population genomics
673 analyses ((O'Connell et al. 2019); (Wang 2018)). Because our sample collection was not
674 always random, we anticipated that several individuals within our sample set were related,
675 and therefore estimated pairwise relatedness within sampling regions in the pruned SNP
676 set using the KING-robust method ((Manichaikul et al. 2010)) in SNPRelate. We then
677 removed 1 from each pair with a kinship estimate > 0.35, which corresponds to a first-
678 order familial relationship (sibling pair, parent-offspring). This sample set was used for all
679 subsequent analyses.
680 We investigated phylogenetic distance among samples and groups using the full
681 SNP set by inferring a phylogeny in RAxML version 8.2.12 ((Stamatakis 2014)) using the
682 ASC-GTRCAT model with Lewis correction for ascertainment bias with 100 bootstrap
683 replicates. We plotted the tree in the R 4.3 (R Core Team 2022) package GGTREE ((Yu
684 et al. 2017)) with a customized script formulated for SNP marker data ((Severn-Ellis et al.
685 2020)).
686 To explore population structure, we used the pruned SNP set to visualize population
687 clustering via PCA and investigated genetic differentiation by calculating pairwise F_{ST}
688 ((Weir and Cockerham 1984)) between sites with correction for sample size, both in
689 SNPRelate. We compared genetic diversity among sampling regions by calculating
690 observed (H_{obs}) and expected (H_{exp}) heterozygosity, allelic richness rarified by sample
691 size (A_R), and the inbreeding coefficient F_{IS} in Hierfstat v 0.5-11 ((Goudet and Goudet
692 2014)).
693 We estimated the most probable number of genetic clusters K within our sample set
694 using the full SNP set. First, we implemented a discriminant analysis of principal
695 components (DAPC) using the 'find.clusters' function in the R package *adegenet*
696 ((Jombart and Bateman 2008)) to estimate optimal number of K testing K = 1–8. The most
697 probable number of clusters was identified as the one with the lowest Bayesian
698 Information Criterion (BIC) value. To minimize overfitting, we first determined the optimal
699 number of principal components (PCs) using cross-validation and then ran DAPC
700 retaining the optimal number of PCs and using the identified optimal number of genetic
701 clusters as K to predict group assignment for each sample without *a priori* population

information. Ten principal components (PCs) were retained to explain approximately 52% of the total retained variation without our dataset.

We also used STRUCTURE v2.3.4 ((Pritchard 2000)) within the program *Structure_threader* ((Pina-Martins et al. 2017)) to estimate the value of K. We ran STRUCTURE with the admixture model and no prior population information, with an optimal burn-in of 10^4 steps and 10^4 additional steps, and for values of K from 1 to 8 with 10 replicates per iteration of K. We used the R package pophelper ((Francis 2017)) to align runs, plot output, and determine the most likely value of K via both ΔK ((Evanno et al. 2005)) and mean probability (MeanLn*P(K)*). STRUCTURE is known to be sensitive to differences in sample size in populations ((Puechmaille 2016)), which was a factor in our dataset. To eliminate the potential effects of sampling bias on our results, we also ran STRUCTURE using the same conditions for a random subset of n = 5–6 individuals per population, omitting the Russian and Italian samples from the dataset, for values of K from 1 to 5.

Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests.

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Data and Code Availability

Genomic and transcriptomics read data and our annotated genome is in the process of being uploaded to NCBI. The haplotype assemblies, gene and transposable element annotations are available for download at http://genome.senckenberg.de/download/GardenDormouse/. TOGA annotations are available at https://genome.senckenberg.de/download/TOGA/. We also provide a genome browser showing our genomes and all annotations at https://genome.senckenberg.de/.

Most of our analyses relied on publicly available tools and methods. New scripts are available at https://github.com/pabyerly/TBG_GardenDormouse.

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