Mitochondrial DNA variation of the striped hyena (*Hyaena hyaena*) in

Algeria and further insights into the species' evolutionary history

Authors: Louiza Derouiche[a*], Mónica Rodrigues[b,c], Hafida Benameur-Hasnaoui[d],

Ridah Hadj Aissa[e], Yasaman Hassan-Beigi[b], Seyed Massoud Madjdzadeh[f], Zuhair

Amr[g], Aimee Cokayne[h], Paul Vercammen[i], Carlos Rodríguez Fernandes[b,c*]

Affiliations: [a]École Supérieure des Sciences de l'Aliment et Industries

Agroalimentaires (ESSAIA), Avenue Ahmed Hamidouche, route de Beaulieu, El

Harrach, 16200 Algiers, Algeria; [b]CE3C - Centre for Ecology, Evolution and

Environmental Changes & CHANGE - Global Change and Sustainability Institute,

Departamento de Biologia Animal, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de

Lisboa, 1749-016 Lisboa, Portugal; [c]Faculdade de Psicologia, Universidade de

Lisboa, Alameda da Universidade, 1649-013 Lisboa, Portugal; [d]Parc National de

Tlemcen, Plateau Lalla Setti, 13000 Tlemcen, Algeria; [e]Département des Sciences

Vétérinaires de l'Université de Blida, BP 27, 09000 Blida, Algeria; [f]Zoological

Museum and Department of Biology, Faculty of Sciences, Shahid Bahonar

University of Kerman, 76169-14111 Kerman, Iran; [g]Department of Biology,

Jordan University of Science and Technology, Jordan; [h]Sir Bani Yas Island, P.O

Box 126888, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates; [i]Breeding Centre for Endangered

Arabian Wildlife, P.O. Box 29922, Sharjah, United Arab Emirates

[*]**Corresponding authors**

E-mail: derouiche_fatma@yahoo.fr; cafernandes@fc.ul.pt

Abstract

The striped hyena (*Hyaena hyaena*) occurs in a wide range from north and east

Africa, through southwest Asia to India, but its distribution is increasingly patchy

and many of its populations are in decline due to intense human pressure. Its

genetic diversity and structure, phylogeography, and evolutionary history,

remain poorly understood. In this study, we investigated mitochondrial DNA

variation in Algerian striped hyenas, by sequencing a fragment of the

cytochrome *b* gene encompassing the one used in a pioneering study that

remains the only one in which individuals from across the range of the species

were analysed, to allow for comparisons. With the aim of contributing to our

understanding of the evolutionary history of the species, we also examined

samples from geographic regions not included in that study, and using a larger

global dataset we performed a wide range of analyses of demographic history

and estimation of the age of the extant mitochondrial DNA variation. The

Algerian population sample was monomorphic. Overall, the global patterns of

genetic diversity and the results of some demographic history analyses

supported a scenario of population growth in the species, estimated to have

occurred in the Late Pleistocene, but many of the analyses did not detect a

significant signal of growth, most likely a result of the limited power provided by

a small number of segregating sites. The estimates, from three different methods,

for the time to the most recent common ancestor (TMRCA) of the mitochondrial

DNA variation hovered around 400 ka, coinciding with one of the longest and

warmest interglacials of the last 800,000 years, with environmental conditions

similar to the Holocene.

Keywords: striped hyenas, phylogeography, demographic history, TMRCA,

subspecies, hyaenid

Introduction

The striped hyena *Hyaena hyaena* (Linnaeus, 1758), the only extant representative of its genus (Werdelin and Solounias, 1991; Koepfli et al., 2006), is a large mammalian carnivore distributed from north and east Africa, through southwest Asia to India (Rieger, 1981; Mills and Hofer, 1998; Kingdon, 2001; Holekamp and Kolowski, 2009; Abi-Said and Dloniak, 2015). Although once abundant and widespread across this range, its distribution is now mostly patchy, with the species extinct in many areas and the remaining populations generally in decline (Mills and Hofer, 1998; Low Cunningham, 2004; Kasparek et al., 2004; Khorozyan et al., 2011; Tourani et al., 2012; Abi-Said and Dloniak, 2015; Akash et al., 2021; Bhandari et al., 2021; Çoğal et al., 2021). The global population is estimated at less than 10,000 individuals and, given the intense human pressure (persecution, poaching, poisoning, conflict with pastoralists, target of negative feelings and superstitious fears, prey base depletion, use as folk medicine, road mortality) to which it is subject, it is listed as 'Near Threatened' on the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Threatened Species (Abi-Said and Dloniak, 2015).

The striped hyena is one of the four living species in the family Hyaenidae, the other three being the brown hyena (*Parahyaena brunnea*), the spotted hyena (*Crocuta crocuta*), and the aardwolf (*Proteles cristata*). The latter represents the oldest lineage of extant hyaenids, being quite distinct from the other three (Werdelin and Solounias, 1991; Jenks and Werdelin, 1998; Koepfli et al., 2006; Westbury et al., 2019). It has been estimated that the lineage ancestral to *Crocuta* diverged from the lineage ancestral to *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena* 9-11 Ma (Koepfli

et al., 2006; Westbury et al., 2019, 2020), while the latter two lineages diverged

from each other about 4-5 Ma (Rohland et al., 2005; Koepfli et al., 2006; Hu et al.,

2021; Westbury et al., 2021). Traditionally, based on differences in body size and

skull and pelage characteristics (Pocock, 1934), the following five subspecies

were accepted (Rieger, 1979, 1981; Mills and Hofer, 1998; Kasparek et al., 2004):

barbara in Northwest Africa (type locality: Oran, Algeria); *dubbah* in East Africa

(type locality: Atbara, Sudan); *syriaca* in Syria and Anatolia (type locality:

Antakya, Turkey); *sultana* in southern Arabia (type locality: Mt. Qara, Oman); and

hyaena from Iran to India (type locality: Benna Mountains, Larestan, Iran). Jenks

and Werdelin (1998) noted that molecular data could be very useful for

assessing subspecies designations in the striped hyena. In fact, a study that

sequenced a 340-bp fragment of the mitochondrial Cytochrome b (*Cyt b*) gene in

13 striped hyena samples from scattered locations throughout the historical and

current distribution of the species, found low genetic diversity (four haplotypes

with two variable sites) and a general lack of obvious phylogeographic structure,

with three of the four haplotypes shared between Africa and Eurasia (Rohland et

al., 2005). Thus, although the species exhibits marked geographic variation in

size and coat colour patterns, the currently accepted view is that there is no

evidence for the recognition of subspecies (Kingdon, 2001; Wozencraft, 2005).

In Algeria, the striped hyena had the same history of decline over the past few

centuries as observed in many other regions of its distribution, and the species

remains vulnerable and threatened by anthropogenic causes of mortality and in

need of conservation efforts, but it has managed to persist throughout much of

the country (Kowalski and Rzebik-Kowalska, 1991; Derouiche et al., 2020).

In this study, we sequenced a large sample of striped hyenas from Algeria (i.e.,

representing the traditional subspecies *barbara*) for a *Cyt b* fragment containing

the shorter region analysed by Rohland et al. (2005) to allow comparisons. We

also examined samples from geographic regions and traditional subspecies not

included in that study, such as southern Arabia (subspecies *sultana*) and

southern Iran (subspecies *hyaena*). Our objectives were to assess mitochondrial

DNA (mtDNA) diversity of striped hyenas in Algeria and, expanding on the

pioneering and seminal study of Rohland et al. (2005), contribute to increase our

knowledge of the evolutionary history of the species.

Materials and methods

Sampling and laboratory procedures

To investigate the mtDNA diversity of the striped hyena in Algeria, we collected

samples from 25 specimens found dead on roads or in the field. We also analysed

samples of striped hyenas from Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Oman, and Iran (Fig. 1 and

Table 1). DNA was extracted from muscle tissue and blood samples using the

EZNA Tissue DNA kit (Omega Bio-Tek), while that from dry hair samples was

extracted following a simple polymerase chain reaction (PCR) buffer-based

extraction protocol (Allen et al. 1998; Vigilant 1999). We amplified a fragment of

753 base pairs (bp) of the *Cyt b* gene with the primers L14724 (5'-

TGATATGAAAAACCATCGTTG-3'; Irwin et al., 1991) and H15791 (5'-

AATGTAGTTGTCTGGGTC-3'; Fernandes et al., 2008). For a few hair samples we

were unsuccessful in amplifying this fragment, which we interpreted as a result

of DNA degradation. Thus, for these samples we amplified a 363-bp part of the

fragment, containing the 340-bp region analysed by Rohland et al. (2005), in two

overlapping pieces, using respectively the two following primer pairs: Hyena

Cytb   F1   (5'-CCAATGACCAACATTCGA-3')/Hyena   Cytb   R1   (5'-

TCAGCCATAGTTGACGTC-3') (for a fragment of 198 bp) and Hyena Cytb F2 (5'-

AACCGCCTTTTCATCAGT-3')/Hyena Cytb R2 (5'-GACGTAACCTATGAATGC-3')

(for a fragment of 181 bp). PCRs were carried out in volumes of 15 µl with 1x

PCR Buffer (NZYTech), 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.2 mM of each dNTP (Bioline), 0.5 µM of

each primer, 0.75 U of of Supreme NZYTaq DNA Polymerase (NZYTech), and 3 µl

of DNA extract. Thermal cycling conditions consisted of an initial denaturation at

95 °C for 5 min, followed by 45 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 50 °C, 30 s at 72 °C,

and a final extension of 7 min at 72 °C. The results of the PCR amplifications were

visualized on 2% agarose gels to verify PCR quality, and the PCR products were

purified with an Exo-SAP protocol (Hanke and Wink, 1994; Werle et al., 1994)

and sequenced by the Sanger method on a 3730 xl DNA Analyzer (Applied

Biosystems) at Macrogen Inc.

Data analyses

Sequences were edited, assembled, aligned, and checked for the absence of

indels and stop codons using SEQUENCHER 4.7 (Gene Codes Corporation) and the

TRANSLATE program of the SEQUENCE MANIPULATION SUITE 2 (Stothard 2000). We

downloaded available striped hyena *Cyt b* sequences from GenBank and included

these in our alignments (Table 1). Trimming our sequences to 648 bp allowed us

to include some Iranian striped hyena sequences from GenBank, but in order to

incorporate other shorter sequences from diverse geographic origins, in

particular those from Rohland et al. (2005), we created a smaller alignment of

340 bp (Table 1). Sequence alignments were analysed with FABOX 1.5 (Villesen,

2007) to identify samples with identical sequences. File format conversions of

sequence alignments for use in different computer programs were done using

ALTER (Glez-Peña et al., 2010).

To characterize patterns of mitochondrial genetic diversity, and what they

suggest in terms of demographic history of the striped hyena, we computed the

number of polymorphic or segregating sites (S), the number of haplotypes (n_H),

haplotype diversity (h), nucleotide diversity (π), the mismatch distribution

(Rogers and Harpending 1992; Schneider and Excoffier 1999), Tajima's D

(Tajima, 1989), Fu's F_S (Fu, 1997) and the R_2 statistic (Ramos-Onsins and Rozas

2002) in ARLEQUIN 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010) and DNASP 5.10.1

(Librado and Rozas 2009). We also computed Fu and Li's (1993) D* and F* tests,

as they are particularly powerful for detecting background selection (Fu 1997). If

only these tests are significant, this suggests the action of background selection;

if, on the contrary, they are not significant, but, for example, the Fu's F_S test is,

then this is more compatible with a history of population growth (Fu 1997).

To visualize and examine the genealogical and geographical relationships among

haplotypes, we estimated haplotype networks using the integer neighbour-

joining method (IntNJ) in POPART 1.7 (Leigh and Bryant, 2015). The IntNJ

method was run with the reticulation tolerance parameter α set to zero. We used

outgroup rooting (Jansen et al., 2002; Cassens et al., 2003; Dubach et al., 2013) to

estimate the ancestral node of the ingroup. The outgroups used here, and in the

phylogenetic tree reconstructions described next, were the brown hyena (*P.*

brunnea) and the spotted hyena (*C. crocuta*).

To infer evolutionary relationships among haplotypes and assess the presence of

clades within *H. hyaena*, we constructed phylogenetic trees. The tree

reconstructions were conducted with the data partitioned by codon position, as

this was the best-fit partitioning scheme according to the corrected Akaike

information criterion (AICc) (Akaike, 1974; Sugiura, 1978; Hurvich and Tsai,

1989) in PARTITIONFINDER 2.1.1 (Lanfear et al., 2017) using PHYML (Guindon et al.,

2010). Phylogenetic analyses were performed using Bayesian inference (BI) and

maximum likelihood (ML) as implemented in MRBAYES 3.2.6 (Ronquist et al.,

2012) and IQ-TREE 1.6.12 (Nguyen et al., 2015), respectively. Analyses in

MRBAYES were conducted with two parallel Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

runs, each with four Markov chains (one cold and three heated), default heating

parameter (t = 0.1), and 20 million generations. The first five million generations

were discarded as burn-in and, thereafter, chains were sampled every 500

generations. The entire general time-reversible (GTR; Lanave et al., 1984)

substitution model space was sampled within the analyses (Huelsenbeck et al.,

2004). Convergence was indicated by an average standard deviation of split

frequencies between parallel runs of less than 0.01. For all model parameters,

the effective sample size (ESS) was greater than 700 and the potential scale

reduction factor (PSRF) was 1.0. Support for tree nodes was determined

according to the values of Bayesian posterior probability (BPP) obtained in a

majority-rule consensus tree (Holder et al., 2008; Huggins et al., 2011). In IQ-

TREE we used the nucleotide substitution models estimated as best fit for each

codon position, according to the Bayesian information criterion (BIC; Schwarz

1978), by ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017), a model-selection method

implemented in IQ-TREE (648 bp dataset, according to codon position: Kimura

two-parameter model (K2P; Kimura 1980); Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano model

(Hasegawa et al. 1985) with a proportion of invariable sites (HKY+I); HKY) (340

bp dataset, according to codon position: K2P+I; HKY; Tamura-Nei model (TN93;

Tamura and Nei 1993)). Tree search runs were performed using IQ-TREE default

settings, with the exception of the '-allnni' option which turns on a more

thorough Nearest Neighbour Interchange (NNI) tree search, and support for each

node was evaluated by 1000 non-parametric bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein,

1985). Majority-rule consensus trees (Berry and Gascuel, 1996; Holder et al.,

2008) were computed with SUMTREES 4.5.2 of the DendroPy library version 4.5.2

(Sukumaran and Holder, 2010) and visualized and edited with FIGTREE 1.4.4

(available at https://github.com/rambaut/figtree/releases).

To try to learn more about the recent evolutionary history of the species, we

performed several analyses specifically on demographic history. In these

analyses we used only the 648 bp dataset (76 striped hyenas; 13 segregating

sites), as the 340 bp dataset (50 individuals) only contains five segregating sites.

We constructed skyline plots (Ho and Shapiro 2011), which do not depend on a

prespecified parametric model of demographic history, using the following four

MCMC sampling-based methods: Bayesian Skyline Plot (BSP; Drummond et al.

2005), Extended Bayesian Skyline Plot (EBSP; Heled and Drummond, 2008),

Bayesian Skyride (Minin et al. 2008), and Bayesian Skygrid (Gill et al. 2013).

These skyline plot methods were performed in BEAST 1.10.4 ('Bayesian

Evolutionary Analysis Sampling Trees'; Suchard et al. 2018), using the BEAGLE

3.1.0 library (Ayres et al. 2019), with the data partitioned by codon position. All

BEAST input files were created in BEAUti, available in the BEAST package. In the

BSP analysis we used four groups and performed analyses with both the

piecewise-constant and piecewise-linear models, and for the substitution rate

parameter we tested normal, exponential, and uniform prior distributions. The

lengths of the MCMC chains were 200 million generations, sampled every

20000th after a pre-burn-in of 20 million. In the EBSP analysis we performed

runs with both the stepwise and linear models, and for the substitution rate

parameter we tested normal and uniform prior distributions. A uniform

distribution was used for the population prior mean. The lengths of the MCMC

chains were 200 million generations, sampled every 20000th after a pre-burn-in

of 20 million. For the Skyride model, we used time-aware smoothing, a normal

prior distribution for the substitution rate parameter, and MCMC chains with

200 million generations, sampled every 20000th after a pre-burn-in of 20 million.

For Skygrid, we used 75 grid points, a cutoff value of 1 Ma, a normal prior

distribution for the substitution rate parameter, and MCMC chains with 200

million generations, sampled every 20000th after a pre-burn-in of 20 million. For

each of the four types of MCMC sampling-based skyline plot analyses, we used

TRACER 1.7.2 (Rambaut et al. 2018), with a default burn-in of 10% of the chain

length, to assess convergence of the chain to the stationary distribution, plot

marginal posterior densities, and obtain estimates and ESS of parameters. To

draw the skyline plots we also used TRACER, and the Python script

popGraphFromCSV.py (obtained from https://github.com/benb/beast-

mcmc/tree/master/doc/EBSP/scripts). We compared different skyline models,

and also simple parametric models (such as constant population size or

exponential growth) (see Villanea et al. 2020), in terms of their relative fit to the

data, using the Bayes factor (Jeffreys 1935; Kass and Raftery 1995), the ratio of

the marginal likelihoods of the two models under comparison. The marginal

likelihoods were estimated in BEAST with path sampling (Lartillot and Philippe

2006) and stepping-stone sampling (Xie et al. 2011), based on 100 path steps

and a chain length of two million iterations. We also tested skyline plot methods

based on a single tree (Ho and Shapiro 2011): classical (Pybus et al. 2000),

generalized (Strimmer and Pybus 2001), and Bayesian multiple-change-point

(MCP; Opgen-Rhein et al. 2005). The required ultrametric binary tree was a

maximum clade credibility tree (MCCT) from an analysis in MRBAYES. MCMC in

MRBAYES was performed as described above. The analysis used a strict clock

model with a uniform prior probability distribution on branch lengths, a

normally distributed clock rate prior with mean 0.01 and standard deviation

0.0025 (in substitutions per site per Ma) (how we obtained this substitution rate

estimate is explained below), and a truncated normal prior probability

distribution on the tree age with a mean of 0.4 Ma and a standard deviation of

0.15 (the choice of these values reflects the estimates obtained for the age of the

mtDNA diversity, presented below). The single-tree skyline plot analyses were

performed in the R package APE version 5.7.1 (Paradis and Schliep 2019).

Bayesian MCP analyses were performed assuming both a constant population

size prior demographic function (Felsenstein 1992) and a skyline plot prior

demographic function (Opgen-Rhein et al. 2005). We also estimated the fit of

different demographic models (constant population size, exponential growth,

expansion growth, logistic growth, with both continuous and piecewise variants)

(Pybus and Rambaut 2002) to the MCCT in the R package genieR version 0.1.0

(Xiang et al. 2019). We also used the Monte Carlo likelihood approach of Weiss

and von Haeseler (1998), as implemented in IPHULA 1.16 (Schmidt et al. 2007),

for inference on demographic history. In this analysis we used the HKY model,

which was selected as best-fitting the 648 bp alignment by BIC in ModelFinder

and also in JMODELTEST 2.1.10 (Darriba et al. 2012), and a transition/transversion

rate ratio (kappa, κ) of 28 estimated in TREE-PUZZLE 5.3.rc16 (Schmidt et al.

2002). The method of Weiss and von Haeseler (1998) involves a model with

three parameters (theta, θ: mutation-scaled effective population size (N_e) in the

past ('initial'), i.e. before an eventual N_e change; tau, τ: mutation-scaled time

since N_e started to change exponentially; rho, ρ: ratio of current to initial N_e),

which are estimated based on the number of segregating sites and the mean

number of pairwise nucleotide differences (k). The method approximates the

likelihood surface for the three parameters by coalescent simulations on a three-

dimensional grid. After preliminary simulations to explore the likelihood surface

and find the parameter ranges that enclose the global maximum likelihood peak,

we ran 10 replicate runs, zoomed into grid areas of high likelihoods, for

parameter estimation. In these final runs we defined five grid points, equally

spaced between 1 and 20, for ρ, 10 grid points, equally spaced between 0.1 and 5,

for θ, and 10 grid points, equally spaced between 0.1 and 2, for τ. We ran 50,000

simulations for each grid point (i.e. parameter combination), and the maximum

allowed difference between simulated and observed k was set to less than 0.03

(i.e. ± 1% around the observed mean k of 1.72). Inference on demographic

history parameters was also performed with the MCMC coalescent genealogy

sampler LAMARC 2.1.10 (Kuhner 2006; Kuhner and Smith 2007), assuming

either an exponential growth or shrinkage model or a simpler model of constant

population size. We used the Bayesian version of LAMARC, with a default

starting value of θ per site of 0.01 and a logarithmic prior between 10^{-5} and 10;

in the growth model analysis, we specified for the growth rate parameter (g) a

starting value of 1 and a linear prior bounded between -500 and 5000. Percentile

profile likelihoods were computed for both θ per site and g. The HKY model is

not implemented in LAMARC, so we used the closest model available,

Felsenstein84 (F84; Felsenstein and Churchill 1996), which in any case is very

closely related to the HKY model. We ran four replicates of two final chains, in

which for each chain we used an initial burn-in period of 200,000 discarded

genealogies, followed by two million genealogies sampled every 50 for

parameter estimation. We used adaptive heating, with four tree search

temperatures (initial values: 1, 1.2, 1.5, 2) in each chain, and tree swapping

between temperatures attempted at every step of the chain. TRACER was used to

analyse the resulting trace files, assess run convergence, and calculate summary

statistics and ESS values of parameters. We also tested constant population size

and exponential growth models in GENETREE 9.01, which implements a Markov

chain technique for ancestral inference that simulates gene trees conditional on

the mutation pattern in a sample of DNA sequences (Griffiths and Tavaré

1994a,b,c, 1995). GENETREE requires data compatible with the infinite sites model

(Kimura 1969; Griffiths and Tavaré 1995). To meet this requirement, in the 648

bp dataset we needed to remove one polymorphic site (site 546) inconsistent

with the model, which caused the haplotypes H1 and H3, as well as H7 and H10,

to no longer differ from each other. In the constant population model, after

preliminary runs with different values of the generating parameter for θ to

optimize settings and identify the region of maximum likelihood of θ, we

generated likelihood surfaces for θ based on 10 million simulations and 1000

points for the empirical distribution. In the exponential growth model, after

preliminary runs to identify the likelihood surface regions of θ and growth rate

yielding the highest joint likelihood, as the two parameters are not independent

of each other, we generated likelihood surfaces separately for θ and growth rate,

in both cases based on 100,000 simulations and 1000 points for the empirical

distribution. A likelihood ratio test (LRT) was used to determine whether there

was a significant difference in the fit to the data between the simpler constant

population size model and the exponential growth model.

To estimate the time to the most recent common ancestor (TMRCA) of the

observed mitochondrial genetic variation, we obtained an estimate of the

substitution rate for the analysed *Cyt b* fragment as follows. Given our observed

Cyt b divergence between striped hyena and its closest relative, the brown hyena,

and the divergence between the two lineages that the fossil record suggests may

have occurred 4-5.2 Ma ago (Werdelin and Solounias 1991; Werdelin et al. 1994;

Werdelin 2003; Werdelin and Manthi 2012; Westbury et al. 2020, 2021), an

estimate of the substitution rate can be obtained using equation $d_{xy} = 2\mu T$ (Nei

1985, 1987), where d_{xy} is the mean sequence divergence per site, μ is the mean

substitution rate per site, and T is the time since divergence. Genetic estimates of

divergence time between *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena* also fall at about 4-5 Ma

(Rohland et al., 2005; Koepfli et al., 2006; Hu et al., 2021; Westbury et al., 2021).

We confirmed the assumption of nucleotide substitution rate homogeneity

among the striped hyena haplotypes and between these and *Parahyaena*, using

Crocuta as outgroup, via generalized relative rate tests with topological

weighting (Robinson et al. 1998) in RRTREE 1.1.11 (Robinson-Rechavi and

Huchon 2000), and with Tajima's relative rate test (1993) as implemented in

MEGA 11.0.9 (Tamura et al. 2021). In RRTREE, statistical significance ($P < 0.05$) of

rate heterogeneity among lineages was assessed using both synonymous

substitution rates (Ks) and nonsynonymous substitution rates (Ka). The d_{xy}

between striped hyenas and *Parahyaena* was computed in MEGA using the

substitution model that best fits the data, according to the BIC in both IQ-TREE

and MEGA, among the models available in MEGA for distance estimation (TN93 for

the 648 bp alignment; K2P for the 340 bp alignment), and the standard error

was estimated using 1000 bootstrap replicates. As a point value for the

divergence time between *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena* we used 4.6 Ma, the midpoint

in the 4-5.2 Ma interval suggested by the fossil record. Similar point values have

been used or estimated for the divergence of the two lineages in recent genetic

studies of hyaenids (Westbury et al. 2020; Hu et al. 2021; Westbury et al. 2021).

The d_{xy} estimate for the 648 bp alignment was 0.091 ± 0.013, and for the 340 bp

alignment was 0.086 ± 0.017. Approximating 95% confidence intervals (CIs)

based on 1.96 standard errors yields 95% CIs of [0.066, 0.116] and [0.053,

0.119], respectively. Using the above equation $d_{xy} = 2\mu T$ with T = 4.6 Ma, the d_{xy}

estimates yield substitution rate estimates of 0.99% per Ma (95% CI: 0.72-

1.26%) and 0.93% per Ma (95% CI: 0.58-1.29%), respectively; i.e. ≈ 1% per Ma,

the traditional average rate for mtDNA (Brown et al. 1979; Wilson et al. 1985).

Also integrating the uncertainty in the fossil record about the divergence time

between *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena* results, respectively, in the following CIs: 0.63-

1.45% and 0.51-1.49%.

We estimated the TMRCA of the extant striped hyena mitochondrial genetic

variation, based on both 648-bp and 340-bp datasets and using different

methods implemented in Thomson's estimator (Thomson et al 2000), GENETREE

and BEAST. An attractive feature of Thomson's estimator is that it does not rely

on a specific population genetic model (Thomson et al 2000). On the other hand,

the estimator requires data consistent with the infinite sites model. Accordingly,

as mentioned above for the GENETREE analysis, in the 648 bp dataset we removed

a polymorphic site (site 546). In the 340 bp dataset it was also necessary to

remove one polymorphic site incompatible with the said model (site 317), which

caused the haplotypes H1 and H7, as well as H4 and H5, to no longer differ from

each other. We computed Thomson's estimator and its variance (the latter

according to equation 4 in Hudson 2007) using NumPy code kindly provided by

Dr. Helmut Simon (https://github.com/helmutsimon), and 95% CIs (as in

equation 5 in Hudson 2007). The required estimate of the unfolded site

frequency spectrum was obtained using the site.spectrum function of the R

package PEGAS (Paradis 2010) and an estimate of the ancestral sequence of the

ingroup. We estimated this ancestral sequence using the two outgroups (*P.*

brunnea and *C. crocuta*) in two different computer programs, FASTML

(http://fastml.tau.ac.il/; Ashkenazy et al 2012) and IQ-TREE, for comparison

purposes, and both provided the same estimate of the ingroup's ancestral

sequence for each of the two datasets. In GENETREE, we used both the constant

population model and the exponential growth model, with the ML estimates of θ

and growth rate (obtained as described above) as generating parameters. Both

the 648-bp and 340-bp datasets were made compatible with the infinite sites

model by removing one inconsistent site in each dataset, as described above. The

ingroup's ancestral sequences used, one for each of the two datasets, were those

mentioned above, estimated using FASTML and IQ-TREE. We ran 100 million

simulations to obtain TMRCA estimates and likelihood surfaces with 10,000

points. In BEAST we ran analyses with both outgroups and only with *P. brunnea*.

The outgroups correspond to the molecular clock calibrations used: i) the

divergence between the *Crocuta* lineage and the lineage ancestral to *Hyaena* and

Parahyaena, for which we used a normally distributed calibration prior with

mean 9.5 Ma and standard deviation 2 Ma (Jenks and Werdelin 1998; Rohland et

al. 2005; Westbury et al. 2019, 2020; Hu et al. 2021); and ii) the split between

Hyaena and *Parahyaena*, with a normal calibration prior with mean 4.6 Ma and

standard deviation 0.3 Ma (Rohland et al. 2005; Koepfli et al. 2006; Hu et al.

2021; Westbury et al. 2020, 2021). The datasets were partitioned by codon

position. We used the piecewise-constant skyline tree prior (Drummond et al.

2005), which has been shown to perform well in molecular dating analyses

involving a mixture of inter- and intraspecific data (Ritchie et al. 2017; Mello et al.

2021), and the approximate continuous time Markov chain (CTMC) rate

reference prior (Ferreira and Suchard 2008). In the analyses of the 648 bp

dataset with two outgroups, we used relaxed clock models (uncorrelated

lognormal model, UCLN, Drummond et al. 2006; random local clocks model, RLC,

Drummond and Suchard 2010) because a LRT (performed in Mega) of the strict

molecular clock hypothesis rejected it (P = 1.8 x 10^{-5}). In contrast, this hypothesis

was not rejected (P = 0.06) for the dataset with only *P. brunnea* as outgroup, in

agreement with the results from RRTree and Tajima's relative rate test, and

therefore we assumed a strict molecular clock in the analysis of this dataset.

Similarly, the strict clock hypothesis was rejected for the 340 bp dataset with

two outgroups (P = 0.007), but not for the one with only *P. brunnea* as outgroup

(P = 0.226). For each BEAST analysis, we ran four independent replicate MCMC

simulations, each with 50 million generations and sampled every 5000

generations following a pre-burnin of 10%. We also ran two replicate

simulations without data to obtain estimates from the prior distribution and test

the influence of priors on posterior distributions (Drummond et al., 2006; Brown

and Smith, 2018). For each analysis, we used TRACER with the default burn-in to

assess convergence of the chain to the stationary distribution, obtain estimates

and ESS of parameters, and plot marginal posterior densities. After verifying

convergence, and confirming that posterior distributions of estimates were

markedly different from the prior distributions, the tree files from the four runs

with data were combined using SUMTREES, with the first 25% (2500) trees from

each run discarded as burn-in, into a MCCT with median node ages. This method

has a good overall performance, in terms of accuracy in estimating ages and

model fit, compared to other tree summary approaches (Morrison 2008;

Battistuzzi et al. 2010; Heled and Bouckaert, 2013; Bromham et al., 2018). After

analysing the results of the runs with the relaxed clock models, we noticed that

in general the TMRCA estimates for the striped hyena mitochondrial variation

seemed too high (> 800 ka) when compared with those obtained with Thomson's

estimator (range of mean estimates: ~ 410-420 ka) and with GENETREE (range of

mean estimates: ~ 240-330 ka) and the only previously published estimate that

we are aware of (340 ka; Rohland et al 2005). Thus, we considered these high

estimates likely to be erroneous. The apparent poor performance of the UCLN

clock model does not seem to be due to the presence of significant rate

autocorrelation among lineages, since, for both datasets with two outgroups, the

95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval of the covariance between parent

and child branch rates contained zero (Drummond et al., 2006). The CorrTest

method (Tao et al 2019), implemented in MEGA, also did not reject the hypothesis

of independent evolutionary rates among lineages ($P > 0.05$). However, we also

noted that the standard deviation of the UCLN clock (ucld.stdev parameter) was

low in the analyses of both datasets (648 bp dataset: mean = 0.049, median =

0.010, 95% HPD interval = [3.7 x 10^{-7}, 0.243]; 340 bp dataset: mean = 0.138,

median = 0.055, 95% HPD interval = [9.9 x 10^{-6}, 0.557]), which suggests that the

data is quite clock-like. The same indication was given by the results for the

posterior distribution of the number of rate changes (K) (rateChangeCount

parameter) in the RLC analyses, as a greater posterior than prior probability for

$K = 0$ supports the global clock hypothesis, while small or negligible posterior

probability for $K = 0$ strongly rejects the hypothesis (Drummond and Suchard

2010). In the analysis with the 648 bp dataset, the posterior distribution for K

(mean: 0.619; median and mode: 0; 95 % HPD interval: [0,2]) showed a higher

probability for $K = 0$ than the prior distribution. This was not so with the 340 bp

dataset (mean: 0.769; median and mode: 1; 95 % HPD interval: [0,2]), for which

43% of the probability mass of the posterior distribution was for $K = 1$, but yet

42% of the probability was for $K = 0$. In such cases, a strict clock (SC) may

perform better in dating estimation (Ho et al 2005; Brown and Yang 2011).

Marginal likelihood estimates, obtained using stepping-stone sampling in BEAST

with 100 path steps and a chain length of 500,000, also supported the use of a SC

(648 bp dataset: log marginal likelihood = -1344.5; 340 bp dataset: log marginal

likelihood = -711.2), compared with the RLC (648 bp dataset: log marginal

likelihood = -1344.5; 340 bp dataset: log marginal likelihood = -711.1) and the

UCLN (648 bp dataset: log marginal likelihood = -1347.4; 340 bp dataset: log

marginal likelihood = -713.2). Therefore, we decided to also use the SC in the

analyses with two outgroups.

Results

Genetic variation, haplotype relationships and phylogenetic analyses

The new striped hyena DNA sequences discovered in this study were deposited
in GenBank under accession numbers PP328974-PP328975 (Table 1). Several
observations indicate that the generated sequences are mitochondrial and not
nuclear-integrated copies of mtDNA (Arctander 1995; Zhang and Hewitt, 1996;
Bensasson et al., 2001). First, PCRs consistently yielded single products of the
expected size. Second, independent replicate PCRs produced identical sequences.
Third, the sequences were unambiguous and did not contain indels or stop
codons (Smith et al. 1992; Mirol et al. 2000; Triant and DeWoody 2007).

Genetic diversity measures and results of mutation-drift equilibrium tests, for
both the 648 bp and 340 bp alignments of striped hyenas, are presented in Table
2. In the longer alignment the number of polymorphic sites was 13, with nine
being parsimony-informative and four singletons, and in the shorter alignment
the number of polymorphic sites was five, four of them parsimony-informative
and one a singleton. In both datasets, none of the mutation-drift equilibrium
tests used rejected at the 95% confidence level the null hypothesis of a constant
size population under the neutral model; note that in the F_S statistic test, an α =
0.02 corresponds to a 5% significance level (Fu 1997). The D* and F* statistics
were respectively -0.739 (P = 0.233) and -0.983 (P = 0.180) for the 648 bp
alignment, and 0.134 (P = 0.529) and -0.228 (P = 0.396) for the 340 bp alignment.
Analysis of the mismatch distribution for the 648 bp dataset under a model of
sudden demographic expansion (Schneider and Excoffier 1999), implemented in

ARLEQUIN, did not reject the expansion hypothesis (P = 0.678; 20,000 bootstrap

replicates). In agreement, the Harpending's (1994) raggedness index was low

(0.032; P = 0.552). The model parameter for the expansion time was estimated at

1.877 (in mutational time units) (95% CI: 0.715-3.736), which, assuming a

nucleotide substitution rate of 1% per Ma, translates into 144,830 years (95%

CI: 55,170-288,272). For the 340 bp dataset, the analysis of the mismatch

distribution under the sudden expansion model failed to converge, possibly due

to the low number of polymorphic sites in this dataset. However, analyses in

DNASP showed that the observed mismatch distribution fits better with the

expected distribution under a sudden expansion model (Rogers and Harpending

1992) than under a model of constant population size (Fig. S1). We also

attempted in ARLEQUIN to test the mismatch distribution under a model of spatial

expansion (Ray et al 2003; Excoffier 2004), but the least-square procedure to fit

the expected and observed mismatch distributions did not converge.

Both the haplotype networks (Fig. 2) and the BI and ML phylogenetic trees (Figs.

S2-S4), for both the 648 bp and 340 bp datasets, indicate a shallow genetic

divergence among the striped hyena haplotypes, and essentially an overall lack

of phylogeographic structure.

Demographic simulations

The different MCMC sampling-based skyline plot analyses conducted in BEAST

did not identify signs of significant population size change in the Late Quaternary

demographic history of the striped hyena. In the BSP analyses using a normally

distributed prior for the substitution rate with mean 0.01 and standard deviation

0.0025 (in substitutions per site per Ma), truncated to be positive

(corresponding to a 95% interquantile range of 0.005-0.015), the estimated

mean tree root height was 281 ka (median: 248 ka; 95% HPD interval: 61-571

ka) for the piecewise-constant model (ESS > 1500 for all parameters), and 264

ka (median: 232 ka; 95% HPD interval: 60-536 ka) for the piecewise-linear

model (ESS > 2200 for all parameters). The respective BSPs for the two models

are shown in Fig. S5, in which it can be observed that the rise of the population

size curve at the left end of the plots never exceeds the 95% HPD limits along the

rest of the graph (Ho and Shapiro 2011; Grant 2015), where the curve is

essentially flat. The results of analyses using either a uniformly or exponentially

distributed prior for the substitution rate exhibited a similar pattern of no

significant population size changes (not shown). In the EBSP analyses using the

same normally distributed prior for the substitution rate as above, the estimated

mean tree root height was 363 ka (median: 331 ka; 95% HPD interval: 85-717

ka) for the stepwise model (ESS > 2200 for all parameters), and 341 ka (median:

304 ka; 95% HPD interval: 58-688 ka) for the linear model (ESS > 2800 for all

parameters). For the 'population size changes' parameter in each model, the

estimated mean was 0.867 (median and mode were 1, and the 95% HPD interval

was 0-2) and 1.024 (median and mode were 1, and the 95% HPD interval was 0-

3), respectively. The respective EBSPs for the two models are presented in Fig.

S6. Results of analyses using a uniformly distributed prior for the substitution

rate also did not indicate significant population size changes in recent

demographic history (not shown). The skyride (ESS > 6500 for all parameters)

and skygrid (ESS > 650 for all parameters) analyses also yielded the same result

(Fig. S7); their respective mean tree root height estimates were 72 ka (median:

66 ka; 95% HPD interval: 24-133 ka) and 277 ka (median: 245 ka; 95% HPD

interval: 67-564 ka). In the analyses with the constant population size (uniform

population size prior; ESS > 4700 for all parameters) and exponential growth

(uniform population size and growth rate priors; ESS > 1500 for all parameters)

models, the estimated mean tree root heights were 419 ka (median: 349 ka; 95%

HPD interval: 111-809 ka) and 508 ka (median: 349 ka; 95% HPD interval: 103-

814 ka). The 95% HPD interval of the posterior distribution of the exponential

growth rate parameter ([-1.803, 4.018]) included zero, i.e. did not reject a

constant population size. The skygrid model was the one with the highest log

marginal likelihood estimate (stepping-stone sampling MLE = -1096; path

sampling MLE = -1095), but not significantly different from that of the piecewise-

linear version of the BSP (MLE = -1097 by both stepping-stone sampling and

path sampling). Still using Bayes factors, the skygrid model had positive support

against the piecewise-constant version of the BSP (stepping-stone sampling MLE

= -1099; path sampling MLE = -1098) and very strong support (2 ln Bayes factor

> 10) against other models. The results of the single-tree skyline plot analyses

done in APE suggested population growth during the Late Pleistocene (Figs. S8-

S9). The fit of the different demographic models tested in genieR was compared

using the Akaike information criterion (AIC). The constant population size model

was rejected (ΔAIC = 90), while the exponential growth (AIC = -1575.919) and

expansion growth (AIC = -1573.919) models were equally supported (ΔAIC $\leq$ 2).

The implementation of Weiss and Von Haeseler's (1998) method in IPHULA

estimated a maximum likelihood model parameter combination (ρ = 10, θ = 2.8,

τ = 0.3) that suggests slow exponential growth since the mid-Holocene.

Specifically, assuming a nucleotide substitution rate of 1% per Ma and a

generation time for the striped hyena of 9.2 years (Pacifici et al 2013), a τ of 0.3

translates to about 5 ka. In turn, a θ of 2.8 corresponds to a female N_e of 23484 at

that time. However, the 95% confidence set of models, based on the likelihood

ratio of each combination of demographic parameters tested and the maximum

likelihood model, included scenarios of constant population size.

In LAMARC, analyses using the exponential growth or shrinkage model

suggested a slow exponential growth scenario. The highest likelihood estimate of

g was 910 (95% HPD interval: [-83, 4704]; ESS > 700 in all individual replicate

runs). Therefore, the 95% HPD interval crossed zero, not ruling out scenarios of

constant population size or even contraction. Moreover, LAMARC estimates of *g*

tend to be biased upwards when only a few loci are analysed (Kuhner et al.

1998). The highest likelihood estimate of current θ per site was 0.008 (95% HPD

interval: [0.002, 0.020]; ESS > 350 in all individual replicate runs), which

corresponds to a θ of 5.2 for the 648 bp fragment and, again assuming a

nucleotide substitution rate of 1% per Ma and a generation time of 9.2 years, can

be translated into a female N_e (N_ef) of 43478. However, LAMARC estimates of θ

in the varying population size model may also be slightly biased upward, due to

correlation with *g*, when only a few loci are analysed (Kuhner et al. 1998). In the

analyses with the constant population size model, the highest likelihood estimate

of θ per site was 0.004 (95% HPD interval: [0.002, 0.006]; ESS > 850 in all

individual replicate runs), which corresponds to a θ of 2.6 for the 648 bp

fragment and, assuming a nucleotide substitution rate of 1% per Ma and a

generation time of 9.2 years, can be translated into a N_ef of 21739. This θ

estimate was very similar to that obtained using Watterson's (1975) estimator

based on the number of segregating sites: 2.7.

In GENETREE, the analyses using the constant population size model also yielded a

ML θ estimate of 2.7 (thus, a N_ef of 22645), while in the exponential growth

model the ML θ estimate was 3.1 (i.e. N_ef = 26000); the latter model suggested a

slow exponential growth rate. However, a LRT did not detect a significant

difference in the fit to the data between the simpler constant population size

model and the exponential growth model (P = 0.46).

Time to most recent common ancestor (TMRCA)

Thomson's method estimates for the TMRCA of the observed genetic variation in

H. hyaena were 419 ± 112 ka (mean ± standard error; 95% CI: 225-672 ka)

based on the 648 bp dataset and a nucleotide substitution rate of 1% per Ma, and

410 ± 160 ka (mean ± standard error; 95% CI: 153-793 ka) based on the 340 bp

dataset and a nucleotide substitution rate of 0.93% per Ma (Table 3). Adding the

uncertainty in the fossil record and in the d_{xy} estimate for the divergence

between *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena* into the nucleotide substitution rate estimate

(i.e. 95% CIs of 0.63-1.45% and 0.51-1.49% for the 648 bp and 340 bp datasets,

respectively) yields the following respective 95% CIs for the TMRCA: [155, 1066]

and [95, 1447]. In GENETREE, analyses of the 648 bp dataset with the constant

population size model and the ML estimate of θ of 2.7 gave a TMRCA estimate, in

coalescent time units, of 1.6 ± 0.5 (mean ± standard deviation), which, using a

nucleotide substitution rate of 1% per Ma and a generation time of 9.2 years,

corresponds to 333 ± 104 ka; approximating the 95% CI by ± 2 standard

deviations (Harding et al 1997) gives 125-542 ka (86-860 ka including

uncertainty in the fossil record and in the d_{xy} estimate for the divergence

between *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena* in the nucleotide substitution rate estimation).

With the exponential growth model and the respective ML estimate of θ of 3.1,

the TMRCA estimate in coalescent time units was 1.27 ± 0.35, i.e. 304 ± 84 ka

(95% CI: 136-471 ka) (94-748 ka incorporating the aforementioned uncertainty

in the nucleotide substitution rate estimate). Analyses of the 340 bp dataset with

the constant population size model and a ML estimate of θ of 0.9 yielded a

TMRCA estimate in coalescent time units of 1.9 ± 0.8, which, using a nucleotide

substitution rate of 0.93% per Ma and a generation time of 9.2 years, translates

into 279 ± 118 ka (95% CI: 44-515 ka) (28-939 ka considering the uncertainty in

the nucleotide substitution rate estimate). Analyses of the same dataset with the

exponential growth model and a ML estimate of θ of 1.1 resulted in a TMRCA

estimate in coalescent time units of 1.38 ± 0.45, i.e. 240 ± 78 ka (95% CI: 83-397

ka) (52-723 ka considering the uncertainty in the nucleotide substitution rate

estimate) (Table 3). The fact that GENETREE TMRCA estimates using two very

different demographic models were quite similar suggests a minor effect of the

underlying demographic model on the estimates. TMRCAs estimates from the

BEAST analyses for different combinations of dataset, calibrations, and clock

model, are given in Table 3; ESS values were > 3000 for all parameters in all

individual runs under the strict clock, and > 200 under a random local clock.

Across the different analyses, the TMRCA point estimate for the observed mtDNA

variation in striped hyenas ranged from 330-480 ka, with the clock rate point

estimate between 1.1% and 1.6% per Ma, hovering around 1.3% per Ma (Table

3), which is quite close to the rate estimates of ≈ 1% that we inferred based on

the d_{xy} distance estimate between *Hyaena* and *Parahyaena*.

Discussion

Topics such as genetic diversity and structure, phylogeography, and evolutionary history of the striped hyena remain poorly investigated (Wilkinson et al. 2023). To date, our knowledge of the mitochondrial genetic diversity and phylogeographic structure of the striped hyena comes essentially from the analysis of a 340-bp *Cyt b* fragment in 13 individuals from across the historical and present distribution of the species, which was part of a ground-breaking study on the evolutionary history of extant hyenas (Rohland et al. 2005). That analysis found low genetic diversity and no evident geographic structure of this diversity. In our study we wanted to investigate the mitochondrial genetic variation of the striped hyena in Algeria, using for this purpose a *Cyt b* fragment encompassing the one analysed by Rohland et al. (2005). It was also our objective, with the addition of samples from the Arabian Peninsula and Iran (regions not covered in Rohland et al. (2005) and where classic morphological subspecies have been described) and using a diverse set of demographic history and coalescence time inference analyses, to conduct a more exhaustive and better-sampled global analysis of the species than in Rohland et al. (2005). The finding that a sample of 24 Algerian striped hyenas was monomorphic for a 753-bp *Cyt b* fragment was striking, and agrees with the notion of low mitochondrial diversity in the species. The apparent absence of phylogeographic structure in the species seemingly extends also to southern Arabia and Iran (Figs. 2 and S2-S4), with for example haplotype sharing between Oman and Iran for the 648-bp

fragment (Fig. 2a), which therefore also calls into question the validity of the

sultana and *hyaena* subspecies.

Demographic history

The observed patterns of moderate haplotype diversity and low nucleotide

diversity (Table 2) are compatible with a historical population bottleneck in the

species, followed by demographic growth and the appearance/accumulation of

new haplotypes (Grant and Bowen 1998). Moreover, the mismatch distributions

for both 648 bp and 340 bp datasets showed a significant fit with expected

distributions under a sudden expansion model. Nevertheless, it should be taken

into account that tests based on the mismatch distribution have been noted as

conservative in rejecting the null hypothesis of population expansion (Ramos-

Onsins and Rozas 2002; Fahey et al. 2014). On the other hand, none of the

mutation-drift equilibrium tests used rejected the hypothesis of constant

population size (Table 2). A reduced number of segregating sites, as is the case

here, can limit the power of these tests (Ramos-Onsins and Rozas, 2002). In

particular, the values of the F_S statistic were clearly negative, a result consistent

with expectations in a scenario of population growth, which may suggest a lack

of power in the datasets due to a small number of segregating sites. However, a

limited number of segregating sites does not necessarily prevent significant

results in those tests (Pilkington et al. 2008; Kvist et al. 2011; Cabanne et al.

2013; Álvarez-Varas et al. 2015; Hassan-Beigi et al. 2022). These tests also have

less power if the demographic expansion is historically very recent (e.g.

Holocene), especially if it was not very intense (Fu 1997; Ramos-Onsins and

Rozas 2002). Rohland et al. (2005) also did not detect a statistical signal of

demographic expansion in their data (the authors did not report which analyses

and tests of demographic history were performed), but the observed

phylogeographic pattern was inferred to be the result of a recent and rapid range

expansion, probably within the last 100 ka and possibly as recently as the

Holocene, from a small refuge population, most likely located in Africa as,

according to Werdelin and Solounias (1991), no Late Pleistocene fossils of

striped hyenas are know outside of Africa. The results of the single-tree skyline

plot analyses and demographic model fit comparisons all supported the

population growth hypothesis. However, these single-tree methods have the

limitation of not taking into account uncertainty in the tree topology (Strimmer

and Pybus 2001; Pybus and Rambaut 2002); we attempted to mitigate this

problem by obtaining the tree to be used by Bayesian analysis and summarizing

the posterior into a MCCT, the tree that maximizes the product of the posterior

clade probabilities. All the most sophisticated demographic inference methods

used (MCMC sampling-based skyline plots, IPHULA, LAMARC, GENETREE) could

not reject with high confidence (> 95%) the hypothesis of constant population

size. MCMC sampling-based skyline methods may allow to correctly identify

demographic trajectories based on single-locus data (Gill et al. 2013), but such

datasets may also lack the power to reject the hypothesis of constant

demography (Heled and Drummond 2008). For example, although the sample

size we analysed cannot be considered small (n=76), it has been noted in the

literature that the BSP method may lack the power to correctly detect

demographic expansions using single locus mitochondrial data when the sample

size is < 100 (Grant 2015). Again, also for those more complex methods it is

obviously preferable that the number of segregating sites is not small (Ho and

Shapiro 2011), but they have been applied to datasets with numbers of

segregating sites similar to our data, and produced significant results (e.g.

Griffiths and Tavaré 1994b, 1999; Kvist et al. 2011; Cabanne et al. 2013; Horreo

et al. 2013; Kuo et al. 2014; Álvarez-Varas et al. 2015; Ely et al. 2017). A small

number of segregating sites may not be the only challenge for the methods

implemented in IPHULA, LAMARC, and GENETREE. Another factor is the assumed

population growth model, which in the case of these three methods is the

exponential model. It is conceivable that the hypothesis of constant population

size may not be rejected with confidence if an exponential growth model is very

far from the true demographic history, which could be, for example, one of slow,

more or less linear growth, or a complex history alternating recurrent episodes

of expansion, stability, and/or decline (e.g. Excoffier and Schneider 1999;

Strimmer and Pybus 2001). For example, in the BEAST analysis with the

exponential growth coalescent model as tree prior, the marginal posterior

distribution of the exponential growth rate parameter included zero, implying

that a contrasting model of constant population size could not be rejected.

Overall, the observed patterns of haplotype and nucleotide diversity, the

mismatch distributions, and the single-tree skyline plot analyses and

demographic model fit comparisons supported the hypothesis of population

growth, confirming the inference by Rohland et al. (2005). This hypothesis was

not statistically significant in the more sophisticated and exacting methods used,

probably largely as a result of the limited power provided by a small number of

segregating sites.

It was surprising to observe only one haplotype in 24 individuals from Algeria,

whereas for example 41 animals from Iran showed eight haplotypes (648 bp

fragment; Table 1, Fig. 2a). It is therefore possible that the post-bottleneck

demographic growth within Africa was not as rapid and intense as that

associated with the colonization of Eurasia. If this was the case, then signatures

of demographic expansion will perhaps be easier to detect using large Asian

population samples. In the same way that in the human species, signatures of

demographic expansion are easier to detect in non-African populations than in

African ones (Ingman et al. 2000; Atkinson et al. 2008) or in pooled or global

datasets (e.g. Atkinson et al. 2009). Given the typical substitution rates in

mitochondrial DNA, it is expected that recent demographic expansions (e.g.

postglacial), particularly in organisms whose generation time is not short, may

be difficult to detect with data from relatively short mtDNA fragments (e.g. <

1000 bp), even using efficient methods in extracting the information present in

the data (Felsenstein 1992). Data from mitogenomes can be very useful in such

cases (Keis et al. 2013; Jensen et al. 2018). Future mitogenomic studies will likely

help to clarify open questions regarding the nature and age of the Late

Quaternary striped hyena demographic and geographic expansion(s) suggested

by the currently available mitochondrial data.

Age of the extant mitochondrial DNA variation

For the estimation of the TMRCA of the sampled genetic variation we also used

very different methods, always based on the same rationale that if different

analytical approaches yield congruent results, this increases our confidence in

them. The Thomson's estimator is simple and does not require the assumption of

a model for the demographic history of the population. GENETREE computes

TMRCA likelihood distributions conditional on the gene tree mutation structure,

a given value of θ, and the assumed model of population size history. For both

approaches the TMRCA estimates were translated into absolute time using the

estimated substitution rates for each fragment (340 bp and 648 bp). In contrast,

in BEAST the time information to calculate the TMRCA in years was derived from

fossil calibrations for the divergence between the striped hyena lineage and the

brown hyena and spotted hyena lineages. The TMRCA point estimates of the

observed genetic variation ranged between about 300 and 420 ka based on the

648 bp dataset, and between about 240 and 480 ka based on the 340 bp dataset

(Table 3); hence there was relative agreement between the estimates from the

two datasets. The variability of the estimates was lower for the dataset with

longer sequence length and more segregating sites, as would perhaps be

expected. For both datasets, estimates were higher with the Thomson's method

(648 bp: 419 ka; 340 bp: 410 ka) and with BEAST (648 bp: 334-387 ka; 340 bp:

441-484 ka) than with GENETREE (648 bp: 304-333 ka; 340 bp: 240-279 ka). This

pattern is in line with arguments that GENETREE results should be interpreted as

estimated lower bounds for the true values (Hammer et al. 1998; Karafet et al.

1999). In fact, most estimates from Thomson's method and BEAST tended to

hover around 400 ka, coinciding with one of the longest and warmest

interglacials of the last 800,000 years (within Marine Isotope Stage 11, MIS 11:

374-424 Ka, Lisiecki and Raymo 2005), with environmental conditions similar to

the Holocene (Howard 1997; Kleinen et al. 2014; Tzedakis et al. 2022). Rohland

et al. (2005), using the phylogenetic program r8s (Sanderson 2003) and a point

estimate of 10 Ma for the divergence between spotted and striped/brown

hyenas as a calibration date, estimated the TMRCA of striped hyenas at about

340 ka, which is quite congruent with our estimates. One of our goals in this

study was precisely to provide additional estimates, using different methods, for

comparison with that one obtained with r8s. For instance, it has been suggested

that BEAST may be more accurate than r8s for clade age estimation, particularly

with single locus mitochondrial data (Mulcahy et al. 2012).

Nuclear DNA perspective

A recent whole nuclear genome sequencing study on the evolutionary histories

of extant hyenas (Westbury et al. 2021), in which the striped hyena was

represented by a single captive individual of unknown geographic origin,

indicated a very low genetic diversity also in the nuclear genome of the species,

and estimated a demographic growth in the lineage starting ∼ 500 ka that was

eventually followed by a sharp decline since ∼ 100 ka. A priority in the near

future should be a genome-wide study with a broad geographic sampling

throughout Africa and Asia to allow a better characterization of genetic diversity,

and the impact on it of the anthropogenic reduction of the species in the last

centuries, and a more powerful and informative assessment of population

structure and demographic history, as already attempted for its closest extant

species, the brown hyena (Westbury et al. 2018).

Figures and Tables

Fig. 1. Map showing the geographic range of the striped hyena according to Abi-Said and
Dloniak (2015). The plotted dots indicate the origin of the samples and sequences
analysed; black dots in the case of our samples and dark grey dots for Genbank
sequences (see Table 1 for details).

Table 1. Information on the samples and previously published *Cyt b* sequences of striped hyenas and outgroups used in this study.

Sample code	Country	Location	Haplotype (648 bp alignment)	Haplotype (340 bp alignment)	GenBank accession number	Reference
Hy1	Algeria	Chlef	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy2	Algeria	Batna	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy3	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy4	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy5	Algeria	Médéa	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy6	Algeria	Bouïra	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy7	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy9	Algeria	Biskra	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy10	Algeria	Chlef	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy11	Algeria	Bouïra	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy13	Algeria	Constantine	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy16	Algeria	Bouïra	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy18	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy21	Algeria	Médéa	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy22	Algeria	Batna	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy27	Algeria	Batna	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy28	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy29	Algeria	Batna	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy30	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1		PP328974	This study
Hy31	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1		PP328974	This study

Sample code	Country	Location	Haplotype (648 bp alignment)	Haplotype (340 bp alignment)	GenBank accession number	Reference
Hy32	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy33	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy34	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Hy35	Algeria	Tlemcen	H1	H1	PP328974	This study
Belezma_YRhigi	Algeria	Batna		H1	= PP328974	This study
	Algeria	Algiers		H1	DQ157581	Rohland et al., 2005
	Libya	Tripoli		H1	DQ157585	Rohland et al., 2005
	Cameroon			H1	DQ157579	Rohland et al., 2005
	Angola	Luanda		H7	DQ157582	Rohland et al., 2005
	Tanzania	NE Tanzania		H4	DQ157583	Rohland et al., 2005
	Tanzania		H11	H5	AY048787	Albert, 2001
	Somalia	Somaliland		H5	DQ157584	Rohland et al., 2005
Hyena_Amr1	Jordan	Qatraneh		H3	= KP789314	This study
Hyena_Amr2	Jordan	Abu Nusair		H3	= KP789314	This study
	Syria			H4	DQ157577	Rohland et al., 2005
	Greece	Thebes		H5	DQ157578	Rohland et al., 2005
00-01C7-1926	Saudi Arabia	Taif	H2		PP328975	This study
00-01C7-F7AE	Saudi Arabia	Taif		H2	= PP328975	This study
Phiri	Saudi Arabia	Taif	H2		PP328975	This study
Arnold	Oman		H3	H1	= MT893967	This study
Buwayter	Oman		H3	H1	= MT893967	This study

Sample code	Country	Location	Haplotype (648 bp alignment)	Haplotype (340 bp alignment)	GenBank accession number	Reference
Dopey	Oman		H3	H1	= MT893967	This study
Luna	Oman		H3	H1	= MT893967	This study
Sirius	Oman		H3	H1	= MT893967	This study
	Oman			H3	KP789314	Unpublished
Hh1_Massoud	Iran	Kerman	H4	H6	= MT893978	This study
20_5_7_Massoud	Iran	Kerman	H4	H6	= MT893978	This study
	Iran	Razavi Khorasan	H3		MT893967	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Qorveh	H3		MT893969	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Khash	H3		MT893970	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Bushehr	H3		MT893972	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Nishapur	H3		MT893973	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Damghan	H3		MT893974	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Khuzestan	H3		MT893975	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Kerman	H3		MT893984	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Qom	H3		MT893989	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Qazvin	H3		MT893991	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Tehran	H3		MT893993	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Qom	H3		MT893994	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Hamedan	H3		MT893997	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Razavi Khorasan	H4		MT893978	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Razavi Khorasan	H4		MT893979	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022

Sample code	Country	Location	Haplotype (648 bp alignment)	Haplotype (340 bp alignment)	GenBank accession number	Reference
	Iran	Sabzevar	H4		MT893983	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Joghatai	H4		MT893988	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	North Khorasan	H4		MT893990	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Bardsir	H4		MT893996	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Khatam	H4		MT893998	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Bijar	H4		MT893999	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Kerman	H4		MT894000	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Khatam	H4		MT894001	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Bam	H4		MT894002	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Yasuj	H5		MT893965	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Ardestan	H5		MT893966	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Ardabil	H5		MT893968	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	East Azerbaijan	H5		MT893971	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Khamir	H5		MT893976	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Fars	H5		MT893977	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Semnan	H5		MT893981	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	East Azerbaijan	H5		MT893985	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Ardabil	H5		MT893987	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Hamedan	H5		MT893992	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Razavi Khorasan	H6		MT893980	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Taft	H7		MT893982	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022

Sample code	Country	Location	Haplotype (648 bp alignment)	Haplotype (340 bp alignment)	GenBank accession number	Reference
	Iran	Khatam	H8		MT893986	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Shahdad	H9		MT893995	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Iran	Hamedan	H10		MT894003	Dadashi-Jourdehi et al., 2022
	Azerbaijan			H1	DQ157587	Rohland et al., 2005
	Russia	Vladikavkaz		H1	DQ157576	Rohland et al., 2005
	Russia	Siberia		H1	DQ157586	Rohland et al., 2005
	India			H1	DQ157580	Rohland et al., 2005
		Tierpark Berlin	H5	H3	AY048788	Albert, 2001
		San Diego Zoo	H5	H3	AY928678	Koepfli et al., 2006
		Cerza Zoo	H5	H3	JF894376	Bon et al., 2012
Outgroups						
Parahyaena brunnea				Parahyaena_brunnea	NC038159	Westbury et al. 2018
Crocuta crocuta				Crocuta_crocuta	NC020670	Bon et al., 2012

Table 2. Estimates of mitochondrial genetic diversity and mutation-drift equilibrium tests in striped hyenas, based on the two *Cyt b* alignments with different sequences and lengths

	S	n_H	h	π	*D*	F_s	R_2
648 bp dataset (n = 76)	13	11	0.794 ± 0.022	0.0026 ± 0.0017	-0.993 (P = 0.166)	-2.662 (P = 0.126)	0.064 (P = 0.181)
340 bp dataset (n = 50)	5	7	0.498 ± 0.082	0.0020 ± 0.0017	-0.922 (P = 0.198)	-3.345 (P = 0.02)	0.071 (P = 0.149)

n, number of samples; S, number of segregating sites; n_H, number of haplotypes; h, haplotype diversity (mean and standard deviation); π, nucleotide diversity (mean and standard deviation); *D*, Tajima's *D* statistic (Tajima, 1989); F_S, Fu's F_S statistic (Fu, 1997); R_2, Ramos-Onsins and Rozas' R_2 statistic (Ramos-Onsins and Rozas, 2002); P, *p*-value of the test.

a)

b)

Fig. 2. IntNJ networks of (a) 648-bp and (b) 340-bp striped hyena *Cyt b* haplotypes, rooted with two outgroups (brown hyena and spotted hyena). The first contains 76 striped hyena sequences and the second contains 50. Circles represent haplotypes and their size is proportional to frequency. Circles are coloured according to where haplotypes were found and to their relative frequency. Small black circles represent hypothetical haplotypes. Dashes on lines connecting haplotypes represent the number of nucleotide substitutions separating them. Haplotype designations and further information are given in Table 1.

Table 3. TMRCA estimates for the striped hyena and between striped hyena and the outgroups used for time calibrations in the phylogenetic dating analyses

	Hyaena hyaena	*H. hyaena / P. brunnea*	*(H. hyaena + P. brunnea) / C. crocuta*
Thomson's estimator			
648 bp dataset	418.938 ka[a] (95% CI: 225.273-672.201)		
340 bp dataset	410.256 ka[b] (95% CI: 152.578-792.834)		
GENETREE			
648 bp dataset			
Constant population size model	333.334 ka[a] (95% CI: 125.000-541.668)		
Exponential growth model	303.784 ka[a] (95% CI: 136.344-471.224)		
340 bp dataset			
Constant population size model	279.418 ka[b] (95% CI: 44.118-514.718)		
Exponential growth model	240.043 ka[b] (95% CI: 83.493-396.593)		
BEAST[c]			
648 bp dataset; calibration with two outgroups[d]			
Strict clock (estimated clock rate: mean = 1.3% median = 1.3% 95% HPD = [0.9%, 1.8%])	377.8 ka (mean: 395.9 ka) (95% HPD: 172.7-657.2)	4.598 Ma (mean: 4.599 Ma) (95% HPD: 4.015-5.164)	9.323 Ma (mean: 9.393 Ma) (95% HPD: 6.808-12.118)
Random local clock (estimated clock rate: mean = 1.3% median = 1.3% 95% HPD = [0.9%, 1.8%])	387.3 ka (mean: 422 ka) (95% HPD: 161.5-711.9)	4.600 Ma (mean: 4.602 Ma) (95% HPD: 4.010-5.163)	9.304 Ma (mean: 9.369 Ma) (95% HPD: 6.705-12.070)

	Hyaena hyaena	H. hyaena / P. brunnea	(H. hyaena + P. brunnea) / C. crocuta
648 bp dataset; calibration with one outgroup[e]			
Strict clock (estimated clock rate: mean = 1.6% median = 1.5% 95% HPD = [0.8%, 2.5%])	333.8 ka (mean: 353.1 ka) (95% HPD: 135.0-613.3)	4.605 Ma (mean: 4.605 Ma) (95% HPD: 4.028-5.199)	
340 bp dataset; calibration with two outgroups[d]			
Strict clock (estimated clock rate: mean = 1.3% median = 1.2% 95% HPD = [0.8%, 1.8%])	440.7 ka (mean: 472.1 ka) (95% HPD: 143.4-872.3)	4.567 Ma (mean: 4.569 Ma) (95% HPD: 3.973-5.136)	9.874 Ma (mean: 9.940 Ma) (95% HPD: 6.908-13.058)
340 bp dataset; calibration with one outgroup[e]			
Strict clock (estimated clock rate: mean = 1.1% median = 1.1% 95% HPD = [0.6%, 1.7%])	483.8 ka (mean: 522.3 ka) (95% HPD: 150.8-974.3)	4.603 Ma (mean: 4.604 Ma) (95% HPD: 4.010-5.183)	

[a] Estimate using a substitution rate of 1% per Ma

[b] Estimate using a substitution rate of 0.93% per Ma

[c] For each of the analyses carried out in BEAST we also present the respective estimated clock rate in % per Ma

[d] Two calibration points: *Hyaena hyaena / Parahyaena brunnea* (4.6 Ma; 95% interquantile range: 4.012-5.188 Ma) and *(H. hyaena + P. brunnea) / Crocuta crocuta* (9.5 Ma; 95% interquantile range: 5.58-13.42 Ma) (normally distributed calibration densities)

[e] One calibration point: *Hyaena hyaena / Parahyaena brunnea* (4.6 Ma; 95% interquantile range: 4.012-5.188 Ma) (normally distributed calibration density)

Supplementary Material

a)

b)

Fig. S1. DNASP graphs of mismatch distributions for the striped hyena 340 bp dataset comparing the observed distribution with (a) the expected values under a model of population growth or decline (Rogers and Harpending 1992), and (b) the expected values under a model of constant population size

Parahyaena_brunnea

H1_Algeria

H2_KSA

H3_Oman_Iran

0.99

H5_Iran_UnknownProvenance

0.86

H4_Iran

0.84

H8_Iran

H6_Iran

0.78

H9_Iran

H11_Tanzania

0.72

H7_Iran

0.91

H10_Iran

Crocuta_crocuta

0.02

b)

Parahyaena_brunnea

H1_Algeria_Libya_Oman_Azerbaijan_Russia_India_Cameroon

H2_KSA

H4_Syria_Tanzania

0.97

H5_Greece_Somalia_Tanzania

H7_Angola

H3_Oman_Jordan_UnknownProvenance

0.94

H6_Iran

Crocuta_crocuta

0.03

Fig. S2. Majority-rule consensus phylograms (cut-off 0.7) from the Bayesian inference analyses of the (a) 648-bp and (b) 340-bp *Cyt b* datasets, with two outgroups (*Parahyaena brunnea* and *Crocuta crocuta*). See Table 1 for haplotype information. Numbers above branches are Bayesian posterior probabilities.

Parahyaena_brunnea

H1_Algeria

H7_Iran

H10_Iran

H11_Tanzania

H2_KSA

H3_Oman_Iran

H5_Iran_UnknownProvenance

H4_Iran

H8_Iran

H9_Iran

H6_Iran

Crocuta_crocuta

0.03

Fig. S3. Majority-rule consensus phylogram (cut-off 70%) of the maximum likelihood analysis of the 648 bp dataset with two outgroups (*Parahyaena brunnea* and *Crocuta crocuta*). See Table 1 for haplotype information. Numbers above branches are bootstrap values.

Parahyaena_brunnea

H1_Algeria_Libya_Oman_Azerbaijan_Russia_India_Cameroon

H3_Oman_Jordan_UnknownProvenance

H6_Iran

H4_Syria_Tanzania

H5_Greece_Somalia_Tanzania

H7_Angola

H2_KSA

Crocuta_crocuta

0.04

Fig. S4. Majority-rule consensus phylogram (cut-off 70%) of the maximum likelihood analysis of the 340 bp dataset with two outgroups (*Parahyaena brunnea* and *Crocuta crocuta*). See Table 1 for haplotype information. Numbers above branches are bootstrap values.

a)

b)

Fig. S5. BSPs for the sample of 76 striped hyena 648-bp *Cyt b* sequences, using the a) piecewise-constant and b) piecewise-linear models, and a normally distributed

prior for the substitution rate with mean 0.01 and standard deviation 0.0025 (in substitutions per site per Ma). The thicker solid dark blue line is the median estimate

of population size, and the lighter blue shaded region represents the 95% HPD envelope. Maximum time is the root height median, and the black vertical dotted line

indicates the lower 95% HPD estimate. The Y-axis is in logarithmic scale and the X-axis in linear scale.

a) b)

Fig. S6. EBSPs for the sample of 76 striped hyena 648-bp *Cyt b* sequences, using the a) stepwise and b) linear models, and a normally distributed prior for the substitution rate with mean 0.01 and standard deviation 0.0025 (in substitutions per site per Ma). The thicker dashed line is the median estimate of population size, and the shaded region represents the 95% HPD envelope. The Y-axis is in logarithmic scale and the X-axis in linear scale.

a)

b)

Fig. S7. Skyline plots for the sample of 76 striped hyena 648-bp *Cyt b* sequences, using the a) skyride and b) skygrid methods, and a normally distributed prior for the substitution rate with mean 0.01 and standard deviation 0.0025 (in substitutions per site per Ma). The thicker solid dark blue lines are the median estimates of population size, and the lighter blue shaded regions represent 95% HPD envelopes. Maximum time is the root height median, and the black vertical dotted lines indicate the lower 95% HPD estimates. The Y-axes are in logarithmic scale and the X-axes in linear scale.

Fig. S8. Generalized skyline plot (black line), and classic skyline plot (grey line) in the background. Time is zero at the present.

a)   b)

Fig. S9. Bayesian MCP plots estimated using a) a constant population size prior and b) a skyline plot prior. The thicker black lines are the median of the posterior distribution of population size, and the thinner lines represent the 95% confidence intervals. In both figures, for comparison, the classic skyline plot is shown in the background (dashed lines). Time is zero at the present.

Competing Interests and Funding

On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest. This work was supported by Portuguese National Funds provided by FCT (Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia) through strategic projects granted to CE3C: UID/BIA/00329/2019, UIDB/00329/2020 (https://doi.org/10.54499/UIDB/00329/2020), and UIDP/00329/2020 (https://doi.org/10.54499/UIDP/00329/2020).

Acknowledgments

The costs associated with the sampling were supported by the private resources of Louiza Derouiche. Carlos Rodríguez Fernandes thanks the support of CE3C through an assistant researcher contract (FCiência.ID contract #366) and FPUL for a contract of invited assistant professor. This study was financed by Portuguese National Funds, through FCT - Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia, within projects granted to CE3C: UID/BIA/00329/2019, UIDB/00329/2020 (https://doi.org/10.54499/UIDB/00329/2020), and UIDP/00329/2020 (https://doi.org/10.54499/UIDP/00329/2020). We thank Yassine Righi for a striped hyena sample from Belezma National Park, Algeria. We are extremely grateful to Dr. Helmut Simon for all his advice on TMRCA estimation, and for the NumPy code to compute Thomson's estimator. We thank Professor Robert Griffiths for his advice on running GENETREE and analysing the results. We thank Dr. Emmanuel Paradis for his advice on how to compute the

unfolded site frequency spectrum in his R package PEGAS. Lastly, we would like to

thank Dr. Heiko A. Schmidt for his advice in installing the IPHULA software.

References

Abi-Said, M., Dloniak, S.M.D. 2015. *Hyaena hyaena*. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. https://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2015-2.RLTS.T10274A45195080.en.

Akaike, H., 1974. A new look at the statistical model identification. IEEE Trans. Automat. Contr. 19, 716–723. https://doi.org/10.1109/TAC.1974.1100705

Akash, M., Dheer, A., Dloniak, S.M., Jacobson, A.P., 2021. The faded stripes of Bengal: a historical perspective on the easternmost distribution of the striped hyena. Eur. J. Wildl. Res. 67, 108. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10344-021-01552-9

Allen, M., Engström, A.-S., Meyers, S., Handt, O., Saldeen, T., Von Haeseler, A., Pääbo, S., Gyllensten, U., 1998. Mitochondrial DNA sequencing of shed hairs and saliva on robbery caps: sensitivity and matching probabilities. J. Forensic Sci. 43, 453-464. https://doi.org/10.1520/JFS16169J

Álvarez-Varas, R., González-Acuña, D., Vianna, J.A., 2015. Comparative phylogeography of co-distributed *Phrygilus* species (Aves, Thraupidae) from the Central Andes. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 90, 150–163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2015.04.009

Arctander, P., 1995. Comparison of a mitochondrial gene and a corresponding nuclear pseudogene. Proc. Biol. Sci. 262, 13–19. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.1995.0170

Ashkenazy, H., Penn, O., Doron-Faigenboim, A., Cohen, O., Cannarozzi, G., Zomer, O., Pupko, T., 2012. FastML: a web server for probabilistic reconstruction of ancestral sequences. Nucl. Acids Res. 40, W580–W584. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gks498

Atkinson, Q.D., Gray, R.D., Drummond, A.J., 2009. Bayesian coalescent inference of major human mitochondrial DNA haplogroup expansions in Africa. Proc. Biol. Sci. 276, 367–373. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2008.0785

Atkinson, Q.D., Gray, R.D., Drummond, A.J., 2008. mtDNA variation predicts population size in humans and reveals a major Southern Asian chapter in human prehistory. Mol. Biol. Evol. 25, 468–474. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msm277

Ayres, D.L., Cummings, M.P., Baele, G., Darling, A.E., Lewis, P.O., Swofford, D.L., Huelsenbeck, J.P., Lemey, P., Rambaut, A., Suchard, M.A., 2019. BEAGLE 3: improved performance, scaling, and usability for a high-performance computing library for statistical phylogenetics. Syst. Biol. 68, 1052–1061. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syz020

Battistuzzi, F.U., Filipski, A., Hedges, S.B., Kumar, S., 2010. Performance of relaxed-clock methods in estimating evolutionary divergence times and their credibility intervals. Mol. Biol. Evol. 27, 1289–1300. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msq014

Bensasson, D., Zhang, D.-X., Hartl, D.L., Hewitt, G.M., 2001. Mitochondrial pseudogenes: evolution's misplaced witnesses. Trends Ecol. Evol. 16, 314–321. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0169-5347(01)02151-6

Berry, V., Gascuel, O., 1996. On the interpretation of bootstrap trees: appropriate threshold of clade selection and induced gain. Mol. Biol. Evol. 13, 999–1011. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/13.7.999

Bhandari, S., Youlatos, D., Thapamagar, T., Bhusal, D.R., 2021. Shrinking striped hyena (*Hyaena hyaena* Linnaeus, 1758) distribution in Nepal. Eur. J. Wildl. Res. 67, 10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10344-020-01437-3

Bromham, L., Duchêne, S., Hua, X., Ritchie, A.M., Duchêne, D.A., Ho, S.Y.W., 2018. Bayesian molecular dating: opening up the black box. Biol. Rev. 93, 1165–1191. https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12390

Brown, J.W., Smith, S.A., 2018. The past sure is tense: on interpreting phylogenetic divergence time estimates. Syst. Biol. 67, 340–353. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syx074

Brown, R.P., Yang, Z., 2011. Rate variation and estimation of divergence times using strict and relaxed clocks. BMC Evol. Biol. 11, 271. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-11-271

Brown, W.M., George, M., Wilson, A.C., 1979. Rapid evolution of animal mitochondrial DNA. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 76, 1967–1971. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.76.4.1967

Cabanne, G.S., Sari, E.H.R., Meyer, D., Santos, F.R., Miyaki, C.Y., 2013. Matrilineal evidence for demographic expansion, low diversity and lack of phylogeographic structure in the Atlantic forest endemic Greenish Schiffornis *Schiffornis virescens* (Aves: Tityridae). J Ornithol. 154, 371–384. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10336-012-0901-8

Cassens, I., Van Waerebeek, K., Best, P.B., Crespo, E.A., Reyes, J., Milinkovitch, M.C., 2003. The phylogeography of dusky dolphins (*Lagenorhynchus obscurus*): a critical examination of network methods and rooting procedures. Mol. Ecol. 12, 1781–1792. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294X.2003.01876.x

Çoğal, M., Ilemin, Y., Sözen, M., 2021. Status and distribution of the Striped Hyaena, *Hyaena hyaena*, in Turkey: an updated assessment (Carnivora: Mammalia). Turk. J. Zool. 45, 131–141. https://doi.org/10.3906/zoo-2007-8

Darriba, D., Taboada, G.L., Doallo, R., Posada, D., 2012. jModelTest 2: more models, new heuristics and parallel computing. Nat. Methods 9, 772. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2109

Derouiche, L., Irzagh, A., Rahmouni, R., Tahri, R., Hadjeloum, M., Bouhadad, R., Fernandes, C., 2020. Deep mitochondrial DNA phylogeographic divergence in the threatened aoudad *Ammotragus lervia* (Bovidae, Caprini). Gene 739, 144510. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2020.144510

Drummond, A.J., 2005. Bayesian coalescent inference of past population dynamics from molecular sequences. Mol. Biol. Evol. 22, 1185–1192. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msi103

Drummond, A.J., Ho, S.Y.W., Phillips, M.J., Rambaut, A., 2006. Relaxed phylogenetics and dating with confidence. PLoS Biol. 4, e88. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0040088

Drummond, A.J., Suchard, M.A., 2010. Bayesian random local clocks, or one rate to rule them all. BMC Biol. 8, 114. https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7007-8-114

Dubach, J.M., Briggs, M.B., White, P.A., Ament, B.A., Patterson, B.D., 2013. Genetic perspectives on "Lion Conservation Units" in Eastern and Southern Africa. Conserv. Genet. 14, 741–755. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10592-013-0453-3

Ely, C.R., Wilson, R.E., Talbot, S.L., 2017. Genetic structure among greater white-fronted goose populations of the Pacific Flyway. Ecol. Evol. 7, 2956–2968. https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.2934

Excoffier, L., 2004. Patterns of DNA sequence diversity and genetic structure after a range expansion: lessons from the infinite-island model. Mol. Ecol. 13, 853–864. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294x.2003.02004.x

Excoffier, L., Lischer, H.E.L., 2010. Arlequin suite ver 3.5: a new series of programs to perform population genetics analyses under Linux and Windows. Mol. Ecol. Resour. 10, 564–567. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-0998.2010.02847.x

Excoffier, L., Schneider, S., 1999. Why hunter-gatherer populations do not show signs of pleistocene demographic expansions. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A 96, 10597–10602. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.96.19.10597

Fahey, A.L., Ricklefs, R.E., Dewoody, J.A., 2014. DNA-based approaches for evaluating historical demography in terrestrial vertebrates. Biol. J. Linn. Soc. Lond. 112, 367–386. https://doi.org/10.1111/bij.12259

Felsenstein, J., 1992. Estimating effective population size from samples of sequences: inefficiency of pairwise and segregating sites as compared to phylogenetic estimates. Genet. Res. 59, 139–147. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0016672300030354

Felsenstein, J., 1985. Confidence limits on phylogenies: an approach using the bootstrap. Evolution 39, 783–791. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.1985.tb00420.x

Felsenstein, J., Churchill, G.A., 1996. A Hidden Markov Model approach to variation among sites in rate of evolution. Mol. Biol. Evol. 13, 93–104. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a025575

Fernandes, C.A., Ginja, C., Pereira, I., Tenreiro, R., Bruford, M.W., Santos-Reis, M., 2008. Species-specific mitochondrial DNA markers for identification of non-invasive samples from sympatric carnivores in the Iberian Peninsula. Conserv. Genet. 9, 681–690. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10592-007-9364-5

Ferreira, M.A.R., Suchard, M.A., 2008. Bayesian analysis of elapsed times in continuous-time Markov chains. Can. J. Statistics 36, 355–368. https://doi.org/10.1002/cjs.5550360302

Fu, Y.-X., 1997. Statistical tests of neutrality of mutations against population growth, hitchhiking and background selection. Genetics 147, 915–925. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/147.2.915

Fu, Y.X., Li, W.H., 1993. Statistical tests of neutrality of mutations. Genetics 133, 693–709. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/133.3.693

Gill, M.S., Lemey, P., Faria, N.R., Rambaut, A., Shapiro, B., Suchard, M.A., 2013. Improving Bayesian population dynamics inference: a coalescent-based model for multiple loci. Mol. Biol. Evol. 30, 713–724. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mss265

Glez-Peña, D., Gómez-Blanco, D., Reboiro-Jato, M., Fdez-Riverola, F., Posada, D., 2010. ALTER: program-oriented conversion of DNA and protein alignments. Nucl. Acids Res. 38, W14–W18. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkq321

Grant, W.A.S., Bowen, B.W., 1998. Shallow population histories in deep evolutionary lineages of marine fishes: insights from sardines and anchovies and lessons for conservation. J. Hered. 89, 415–426. https://doi.org/10.1093/jhered/89.5.415

Grant, W.S., 2015. Problems and cautions with sequence mismatch analysis and Bayesian skyline plots to infer historical demography. J. Hered. 106, 333–346. https://doi.org/10.1093/jhered/esv020

Griffiths, R.C., Tavaré, S., 1994a. Simulating probability distributions in the coalescent. Theor. Popul. Biol. 46, 131–159. https://doi.org/10.1006/tpbi.1994.1023

Griffiths, R.C., Tavaré, S., 1994b. Sampling theory for neutral alleles in a varying environment. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B. Biol. Sci. 344, 403–410. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.1994.0079

Griffiths, R.C., Tavaré, S., 1994c. Ancestral inference in population genetics. Stat. Sci. 9, 307–319. https://doi.org/10.1214/ss/1177010378

Griffiths, R.C., Tavaré, S., 1995. Unrooted genealogical tree probabilities in the infinitely-many-sites model. Math. Biosci. 127, 77–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/0025-5564(94)00044-Z

Griffiths, R.C., Tavaré, S., 1999. The ages of mutations in gene trees. Ann. Appl. Prob. 9, 567–590. https://doi.org/10.1214/aoap/1029962804

Guindon, S., Dufayard, J.-F., Lefort, V., Anisimova, M., Hordijk, W., Gascuel, O., 2010. New algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing the performance of PhyML 3.0. Syst. Biol. 59, 307–321. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syq010

Hammer, M.F., Karafet, T., Rasanayagam, A., Wood, E.T., Altheide, T.K., Jenkins, T., Griffiths, R.C., Templeton, A.R., Zegura, S.L., 1998. Out of Africa and back again: nested cladistic analysis of human Y chromosome variation. Mol. Biol. Evol. 15, 427–441. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a025939

Hanke, M., Wink, M., 1994. Direct DNA sequencing of PCR-amplified vector inserts following enzymatic degradation of primer and dNTPs. Biotechniques 17, 858–860.

Harding, R.M., Fullerton, S.M., Griffiths, R.C., Bond, J., Cox, M.J., Schneider, J.A., Moulin, D.S., Clegg, J.B., 1997. Archaic African and Asian lineages in the genetic ancestry of modern humans. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 60, 772–789.

Harpending, H.C., 1994. Signature of ancient population growth in a low-resolution mitochondrial DNA mismatch distribution. Hum. Biol. 66, 591–600.

Hasegawa, M., Kishino, H., Yano, T., 1985. Dating of the human-ape splitting by a molecular clock of mitochondrial DNA. J. Mol. Evol. 22, 160–174. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02101694

Hassan-Beigi, Y., Rodrigues, M., Adibi, M.A., Madjdzadeh, S.M., Vercammen, P., Farhadinia, M.S., Fernandes, C.R., 2023. Mitochondrial DNA variation of the caracal (*Caracal caracal*) in Iran and range-wide phylogeographic comparisons. Mamm. Biol. 103, 83–106. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42991-022-00328-1

Heled, J., Bouckaert, R.R., 2013. Looking for trees in the forest: summary tree from posterior samples. BMC Evol. Biol. 13, 221. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-13-221

Heled, J., Drummond, A.J., 2008. Bayesian inference of population size history from multiple loci. BMC Evol. Biol. 8, 289. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-8-289

Ho, S.Y.W., Phillips, M.J., Drummond, A.J., Cooper, A., 2005. Accuracy of rate estimation using relaxed-clock models with a critical focus on the early metazoan radiation. Mol. Biol. Evol. 22, 1355–1363. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msi125

Ho, S.Y.W., Shapiro, B., 2011. Skyline-plot methods for estimating demographic history from nucleotide sequences. Mol. Ecol. Resour. 11, 423–434. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-0998.2011.02988.x

Holder, M.T., Sukumaran, J., Lewis, P.O., 2008. A justification for reporting the majority-rule consensus tree in Bayesian phylogenetics. Syst. Biol. 57, 814–821. https://doi.org/10.1080/10635150802422308

Holekamp, K.E. and Kolowski, J.M., 2009. Hyaenidae. In: Wilson, D.E., Mittermeier R.A. (Eds.), Handbook of the mammals of the world. Volume 1: Carnivores. Lynx Edicions, Madrid, Spain, pp. 234–260.

Horreo, J.L., Palacín, C., Alonso, J.C., Milá, B., 2013. A link between historical population decline in the threatened great bustard and human expansion in Iberia: evidence from genetic and demographic data. Biol. J. Linn. Soc. Lond. 110, 518–527. https://doi.org/10.1111/bij.12152

Howard, W.R., 1997. A warm future in the past. Nature 388, 418–419. https://doi.org/10.1038/41201

Hu, J., Westbury, M.V., Yuan, J., Zhang, Z., Chen, S., Xiao, B., Hou, X., Ji, H., Lai, X., Hofreiter, M., Sheng, G., 2021. Ancient mitochondrial genomes from Chinese cave hyenas provide

insights into the evolutionary history of the genus *Crocuta*. Proc. R. Soc. B. 288, 20202934. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2020.2934

Hudson, R.R., 2007. The variance of coalescent time estimates from DNA sequences. J. Mol. Evol. 64, 702–705. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00239-006-0261-1

Huelsenbeck, J.P., Larget, B., Alfaro, M.E., 2004. Bayesian phylogenetic model selection using reversible jump Markov chain Monte Carlo. Mol. Biol. Evol. 21, 1123–1133. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msh123

Huggins, P.M., Li, W., Haws, D., Friedrich, T., Liu, J., Yoshida, R., 2011. Bayes estimators for phylogenetic reconstruction. Syst. Biol. 60, 528–540. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syr021

Hurvich, C.M., Tsai, C.-L., 1989. Regression and time series model selection in small samples. Biometrika 76, 297–307. https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/76.2.297

Ingman, M., Kaessmann, H., Pääbo, S., Gyllensten, U., 2000. Mitochondrial genome variation and the origin of modern humans. Nature 408, 708–713. https://doi.org/10.1038/35047064

Irwin, D.M., Kocher, T.D., Wilson, A.C., 1991. Evolution of the cytochrome *b* gene of mammals. J. Mol. Evol. 32, 128–144. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02515385

Jansen, T., Forster, P., Levine, M.A., Oelke, H., Hurles, M., Renfrew, C., Weber, J., Olek, K., 2002. Mitochondrial DNA and the origins of the domestic horse. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 99, 10905–10910. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.152330099

Jeffreys, H., 1935. Some tests of significance, treated by the theory of probability. Math. Proc. Camb. Phil. Soc. 31, 203–222. https://doi.org/10.1017/S030500410001330X

Jenks, S.M., Werdelin, L. 1998. Taxonomy and systematics of living hyaenas (Family Hyaenidae). In: Mills, M.G.L., Hofer, H. (Compilers), Hyaenas: Status Survey and

Conservation Action Plan. IUCN/SSC Hyaena Specialist Group, IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, pp. 8–17.

Jensen, E.L., Miller, J.M., Edwards, D.L., Garrick, R.C., Tapia, W., Caccone, A., Russello, M.A., 2018. Temporal mitogenomics of the Galapagos giant tortoise from Pinzón reveals potential biases in population genetic inference. J. Hered. 109, 631–640. https://doi.org/10.1093/jhered/esy016

Kalyaanamoorthy, S., Minh, B.Q., Wong, T.K.F., Von Haeseler, A., Jermiin, L.S., 2017. ModelFinder: fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. Nat. Methods 14, 587–589. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4285

Karafet, T.M., Zegura, S.L., Posukh, O., Osipova, L., Bergen, A., Long, J., Goldman, D., Klitz, W., Harihara, S., de Knijff, P., Wiebe, V., Griffiths, R.C., Templeton, A.R., Hammer, M.F., 1999. Ancestral Asian source(s) of new world Y-chromosome founder haplotypes. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 64, 817–831. https://doi.org/10.1086/302282

Kasparek, M., Kasparek, A., Gözcelioğlu, B., Çolak, E., Yiğit, N., 2004. On the status and distribution of the striped hyaena, *Hyaena hyaena*, in Turkey. Zool. Middle East 33, 93–108. https://doi.org/10.1080/09397140.2004.10638068

Kass, R.E., Raftery, A.E., 1995. Bayes Factors. J. Am. Stat. Assoc. 90, 773–795. https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1995.10476572

Keis, M., Remm, J., Ho, S.Y.W., Davison, J., Tammeleht, E., Tumanov, I.L., Saveljev, A.P., Männil, P., Kojola, I., Abramov, A.V., Margus, T., Saarma, U., 2013. Complete mitochondrial genomes and a novel spatial genetic method reveal cryptic phylogeographical structure and migration patterns among brown bears in north-western Eurasia. J. Biogeogr. 40, 915–927. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12043

Khorozyan, I., Malkhasyan, A., Murtskhvaladze, M., 2011. The striped hyaena *Hyaena hyaena* (Hyaenidae, Carnivora) rediscovered in Armenia. Folia Zool. 60, 253–261. https://doi.org/10.25225/fozo.v60.i3.a10.2011

Kimura, M., 1980. A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. J. Mol. Evol. 16, 111–120. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01731581

Kimura, M., 1969. The number of heterozygous nucleotide sites maintained in a finite population due to steady flux of mutations. Genetics 61, 893–903. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/61.4.893

Kingdon, J., 2001. The Kingdon Field Guide to African Mammals. Academic Press, London.

Kleinen, T., Hildebrandt, S., Prange, M., Rachmayani, R., Müller, S., Bezrukova, E., Brovkin, V., Tarasov, P.E., 2014. The climate and vegetation of Marine Isotope Stage 11 – Model results and proxy-based reconstructions at global and regional scale. Quatern. Int. 348, 247–265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2013.12.028

Koepfli, K.-P., Jenks, S.M., Eizirik, E., Zahirpour, T., Valkenburgh, B.V., Wayne, R.K., 2006. Molecular systematics of the Hyaenidae: Relationships of a relictual lineage resolved by a molecular supermatrix. Mol. Phylogenet, Evol. 38, 603–620. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2005.10.017

Kowalski, K., Rzebik-Kowalska, B., 1991. Mammals of Algeria. Polish Academy of Science, Institute of Systematics and Evolution of Animals, Wroclaw.

Kuhner, M.K., 2006. LAMARC 2.0: maximum likelihood and Bayesian estimation of population parameters. Bioinformatics 22, 768–770. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btk051

Kuhner, M.K., Smith, L.P., 2007. Comparing likelihood and Bayesian coalescent estimation of population parameters. Genetics 175, 155–165. https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.106.056457

Kuhner, M.K., Yamato, J., Felsenstein, J., 1998. Maximum likelihood estimation of population growth rates based on the coalescent. Genetics 149, 429–434. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/149.1.429

Kuo, H.-C., Chen, S.-F., Fang, Y.-P., Flanders, J., Rossiter, S.J., 2014. Comparative rangewide phylogeography of four endemic Taiwanese bat species. Mol. Ecol. 23, 3566–3586. https://doi.org/10.1111/mec.12838

Kvist, L., Giralt, D., Valera, F., Hoi, H., Kristin, A., Darchiashvili, G., Lovaszi, P., 2011. Population decline is accompanied by loss of genetic diversity in the Lesser Grey Shrike *Lanius minor*. Ibis 153, 98–109. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1474-919X.2010.01091.x

Lanave, C., Preparata, G., Sacone, C., Serio, G., 1984. A new method for calculating evolutionary substitution rates. J. Mol. Evol. 20, 86–93. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02101990

Lanfear, R., Frandsen, P.B., Wright, A.M., Senfeld, T., Calcott, B., 2016. PartitionFinder 2: new methods for selecting partitioned models of evolution for molecular and morphological phylogenetic analyses. Mol. Biol. Evol. 34, 772–773. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msw260

Lartillot, N., Philippe, H., 2006. Computing Bayes factors using thermodynamic integration. Syst. Biol. 55, 195–207. https://doi.org/10.1080/10635150500433722

Leigh, J.W., Bryant, D., 2015. POPART: full-feature software for haplotype network construction. Methods Ecol. Evol. 6, 1110–1116. https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12410

Librado, P., Rozas, J., 2009. DnaSP v5: a software for comprehensive analysis of DNA polymorphism data. Bioinformatics 25, 1451–1452. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp187

Lisiecki, L.E., Raymo, M.E., 2005. A Pliocene-Pleistocene stack of 57 globally distributed benthic $\delta^{18}O$ records. Paleoceanography 20, PA1003. https://doi.org/10.1029/2004PA001071

Low Cunningham, P., 2004. Checklist and status of the terrestrial mammals from the United Arab Emirates. Zool. Middle East 33, 7–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/09397140.2004.10638059

Mello, B., Tao, Q., Barba-Montoya, J., Kumar, S., 2021. Molecular dating for phylogenies containing a mix of populations and species by using Bayesian and RelTime approaches. Mol. Ecol. Resour. 21, 122–136. https://doi.org/10.1111/1755-0998.13249

Mills, M.G.L., Hofer, H., 1998. Hyaenas: status survey and conservation action plan. IUCN/SSC Hyaena Specialist Group, IUCN, Gland, Switzerland.

Minin, V.N., Bloomquist, E.W., Suchard, M.A., 2008. Smooth skyride through a rough skyline: Bayesian coalescent-based inference of population dynamics. Mol. Biol. Evol. 25, 1459–1471. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msn090

Mirol, P.M., Mascheretti, S., Searle, J.B., 2000. Multiple nuclear pseudogenes of mitochondrial cytochrome *b* in *Ctenomys* (Caviomorpha, Rodentia) with either great similarity to or high divergence from the true mitochondrial sequence. Heredity 84, 538–547. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2540.2000.00689.x

Morrison, D.A., 2008. How to summarize estimates of ancestral divergence times. Evol Bioinform 4, 75-95. https://doi.org/10.4137/EBO.S545

Mulcahy, D.G., Noonan, B.P., Moss, T., Townsend, T.M., Reeder, T.W., Sites, J.W., Wiens, J.J., 2012. Estimating divergence dates and evaluating dating methods using phylogenomic and mitochondrial data in squamate reptiles. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 65, 974–991. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2012.08.018

Nei, M., 1985. Human evolution at the molecular level. In: Ohta, T., Aoki, K. (Eds.) Population Genetics and Molecular Evolution. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, pp. 41–64.

Nei, M., 1987. Molecular Evolutionary Genetics. Columbia University Press, New York.

Nguyen, L.-T., Schmidt, H.A., Von Haeseler, A., Minh, B.Q., 2015. IQ-TREE: A fast and effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. Mol. Biol. Evol. 32, 268–274. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msu300

Opgen-Rhein, R., Fahrmeir, L., Strimmer, K., 2005. Inference of demographic history from genealogical trees using reversible jump Markov chain Monte Carlo. BMC Evol. Biol. 5, 6. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-5-6

Pacifici, M., Santini, L., Marco, M.D., Baisero, D., Francucci, L., Marasini, G.G., Visconti, P., Rondinini, C., 2013. Generation length for mammals. Nature Conservation 5, 89–94. https://doi.org/10.3897/natureconservation.5.5734

Paradis, E., 2010. pegas: an R package for population genetics with an integrated–modular approach. Bioinformatics 26, 419–420. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp696

Paradis, E., Schliep, K., 2019. ape 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics and evolutionary analyses in R. Bioinformatics 35, 526–528. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bty633

Pilkington, M.M., Wilder, J.A., Mendez, F.L., Cox, M.P., Woerner, A., Angui, T., Kingan, S., Mobasher, Z., Batini, C., Destro-Bisol, G., Soodyall, H., Strassmann, B.I., Hammer, M.F.,

2008. Contrasting signatures of population growth for mitochondrial DNA and Y chromosomes among human populations in Africa. Mol. Biol. Evol. 25, 517–525. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msm279

Pocock, R.I., 1934. The races of the striped and brown hyaenas. P. Zool. Soc. Lond. 104, 799–825. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1096-3642.1934.tb01667.x

Pybus, O.G., Rambaut, A., 2002. GENIE: estimating demographic history from molecular phylogenies. Bioinformatics 18, 1404–1405. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/18.10.1404

Pybus, O.G., Rambaut, A., Harvey, P.H., 2000. An integrated framework for the inference of viral population history from reconstructed genealogies. Genetics 155, 1429–1437. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/155.3.1429

Rambaut, A., Drummond, A.J., Xie, D., Baele, G., Suchard, M.A., 2018. Posterior summarization in Bayesian phylogenetics using Tracer 1.7. Syst. Biol. 67, 901–904. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syy032

Ramos-Onsins, S.E., Rozas, J., 2002. Statistical properties of new neutrality tests against population growth. Mol. Biol. Evol. 19, 2092–2100. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a004034

Ray, N., Currat, M., Excoffier, L., 2003. Intra-deme molecular diversity in spatially expanding populations. Mol. Biol. Evol. 20, 76–86. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msg009

Rieger, I., 1979. A review of the biology of the striped hyaenas, *Hyaena hyaena* (Linné, 1758). Saugetierkd. Mitt. 27, 81–95.

Rieger, I., 1981. *Hyaena hyaena*. Mammalian Species 150, 1–5. https://doi.org/10.2307/41353899

Ritchie, A.M., Lo, N., Ho, S.Y.W., 2017. The impact of the tree prior on molecular dating of data sets containing a mixture of inter- and intraspecies sampling. Syst. Biol. 66, 413–425. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syw095

Robinson, M., Gouy, M., Gautier, C., Mouchiroud, D., 1998. Sensitivity of the relative-rate test to taxonomic sampling. Mol. Biol. Evol. 15, 1091–1098. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a026016

Robinson-Rechavi, M., Huchon, D., 2000. RRTree: Relative-Rate Tests between groups of sequences on a phylogenetic tree. Bioinformatics 16, 296–297. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/16.3.296

Rogers, A.R., Harpending, H., 1992. Population growth makes waves in the distribution of pairwise genetic differences. Mol. Biol. Evol. 9, 552–569. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a040727

Rohland, N., Pollack, J.L., Nagel, D., Beauval, C., Airvaux, J., Pääbo, S., Hofreiter, M., 2005. The population history of extant and extinct hyenas. Mol. Biol. Evol. 22, 2435–2443. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msi244

Ronquist, F., Teslenko, M., Van Der Mark, P., Ayres, D.L., Darling, A., Höhna, S., Larget, B., Liu, L., Suchard, M.A., Huelsenbeck, J.P., 2012. MrBayes 3.2: Efficient Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space. Syst. Biol. 61, 539–542. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/sys029

Sanderson, M.J., 2003. r8s: inferring absolute rates of molecular evolution and divergence times in the absence of a molecular clock. Bioinformatics 19, 301–302. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/19.2.301

Schmidt, H.A., Strimmer, K., Vingron, M., Von Haeseler, A., 2002. TREE-PUZZLE: maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis using quartets and parallel computing. Bioinformatics 18, 502–504. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/18.3.502

Schmidt, H.A., Von Haeseler, A., Buschbom, J., 2007. pIPHULA—parallel inference of population parameters using a likelihood approach. Bioinformatics 23, 2636–2637. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btm391

Schneider, S., Excoffier, L., 1999. Estimation of past demographic parameters from the distribution of pairwise differences when the mutation rates vary among sites: application to human mitochondrial DNA. Genetics 152, 1079–1089. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/152.3.1079

Schwarz, G., 1978. Estimating the dimension of a model. Ann. Stat. 6, 461–464.

Smith, M.F., Thomas, W.K., Patton, J.L., 1992. Mitochondrial DNA-like sequence in the nuclear genome of an akodontine rodent. Mol. Biol. Evol. 9, 204–215. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a040714

Stothard, P., 2000. The Sequence Manipulation Suite: JavaScript programs for analyzing and formatting protein and DNA sequences. BioTechniques 28, 1102–1104. https://doi.org/10.2144/00286ir01

Strimmer, K., Pybus, O.G., 2001. Exploring the demographic history of DNA sequences using the generalized skyline plot. Mol. Biol. Evol. 18, 2298–2305. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a003776

Suchard, M.A., Lemey, P., Baele, G., Ayres, D.L., Drummond, A.J., Rambaut, A., 2018. Bayesian phylogenetic and phylodynamic data integration using BEAST 1.10. Virus Evol. 4, vey016. https://doi.org/10.1093/ve/vey016

Sugiura, N., 1978. Further analysis of the data by Akaike's information criterion and the finite corrections. Commun. Stat. – Theor. M. 7, 13–26. https://doi.org/10.1080/03610927808827599

Sukumaran, J., Holder, M.T., 2010. DendroPy: a Python library for phylogenetic computing. Bioinformatics 26, 1569–1571. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq228

Tajima, F., 1993. Simple methods for testing the molecular evolutionary clock hypothesis. Genetics 135, 599–607. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/135.2.599

Tajima, F., 1989. Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA polymorphism. Genetics 123, 585–595. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/123.3.585

Tamura, K., Nei, M., 1993. Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. Mol. Biol. Evol. 10, 512–526. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a040023

Tamura, K., Stecher, G., Kumar, S., 2021. MEGA11: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis version 11. Mol. Biol. Evol. 38, 3022–3027. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msab120

Tao, Q., Tamura, K., U. Battistuzzi, F., Kumar, S., 2019. A machine learning method for detecting autocorrelation of evolutionary rates in large phylogenies. Mol. Biol. Evol. 36, 811–824. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msz014

Thomson, R., Pritchard, J.K., Shen, P., Oefner, P.J., Feldman, M.W., 2000. Recent common ancestry of human Y chromosomes: Evidence from DNA sequence data. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 97, 7360–7365. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.97.13.7360

Tourani, M., Moqanaki, E.M., Kiabi, B.H., 2012. Vulnerability of Striped Hyaenas, *Hyaena hyaena* , in a human-dominated landscape of Central Iran. Zool. Middle East 56, 133–136. https://doi.org/10.1080/09397140.2012.10648948

Triant, D.A., DeWoody, J.A., 2007. The occurrence, detection, and avoidance of mitochondrial DNA translocations in mammalian systematics and phylogeography. J Mammal 88, 908–920. https://doi.org/10.1644/06-MAMM-A-204R1.1

Tzedakis, P.C., Hodell, D.A., Nehrbass-Ahles, C., Mitsui, T., Wolff, E.W., 2022. Marine Isotope Stage 11c: An unusual interglacial. Quaternary Sci. Rev. 284, 107493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2022.107493

Vigilant, L., 1999. An evaluation of techniques for the extraction and amplification of DNA from naturally shed hairs. Biol. Chem. 380, 1329–1331. https://doi.org/10.1515/BC.1999.169

Villanea, Kitchen, Kemp, 2019. Applications of Bayesian skyline plots and approximate Bayesian computation for human demography. Human Biology 91, 279. https://doi.org/10.13110/humanbiology.91.4.04

Villesen, P., 2007. FaBox: an online toolbox for fasta sequences. Mol. Ecol. Notes 7, 965–968. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-8286.2007.01821.x

Watterson, G.A., 1975. On the number of segregating sites in genetical models without recombination. Theor. Popul. Biol. 7, 256–276. https://doi.org/10.1016/0040-5809(75)90020-9

Weiss, G., Von Haeseler, A., 1998. Inference of population history using a likelihood approach. Genetics 149, 1539–1546. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/149.3.1539

Werdelin, L., 2003. Carnivora from the Kanapoi hominid site, Turkana Basin, northern Kenya, in: Harris, J.M., Leakey, M.G. (Eds.), Geology and Vertebrate Paleontology of the Early Pliocene Site of Kanapoi, northern Kenya. Contrib. Sci. 498, 115–132.

Werdelin, L., Manthi, F.K., 2012. Carnivora from the Kanapoi hominin site, northern Kenya. J. Afr. Earth Sci. 64, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jafrearsci.2011.11.003

Werdelin, L., Solounias, N., 1991. The Hyaenidae: taxonomy, systematics and evolution, Fossils and Strata. 30, 1-104. https://doi.org/10.18261/8200374815-1991

Werdelin, L., Turner, A., Solounias, N., 1994. Studies of fossil hyaenids: the genera *Hyaenictis* Gaudry and *Chasmaporthetes* Hay, with a reconsideration of the Hyaenidae of Langebaanweg, South Africa. Zool. J. Linn. Soc. 111, 197–217. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1096-3642.1994.tb01483.x

Werle, E., Schneider, C., Renner, M., Völker, M., Fiehn, W., 1994. Convenient single-step, one tube purification of PCR products for direct sequencing. Nucl. Acids Res. 22, 4354–4355. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/22.20.4354

Westbury, M.V., Cahsan, B.D., Dalerum, F., Norén, K., Hofreiter, M., 2019. Aardwolf population diversity and phylogenetic positioning inferred using complete mitochondrial genomes. Afr. J. Wildl. Res. 49, 27-33. https://doi.org/10.3957/056.049.0027

Westbury, M.V., Hartmann, S., Barlow, A., Preick, M., Ridush, B., Nagel, D., Rathgeber, T., Ziegler, R., Baryshnikov, G., Sheng, G., Ludwig, A., Wiesel, I., Dalen, L., Bibi, F., Werdelin, L., Heller, R., Hofreiter, M., 2020. Hyena paleogenomes reveal a complex evolutionary history of cross-continental gene flow between spotted and cave hyena. Sci. Adv. 6, eaay0456. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aay0456

Westbury, M.V., Hartmann, S., Barlow, A., Wiesel, I., Leo, V., Welch, R., Parker, D.M., Sicks, F., Ludwig, A., Dalén, L., Hofreiter, M., 2018. Extended and continuous decline in effective population size results in low genomic diversity in the world's rarest hyena species, the brown hyena. Mol. Biol. Evol. 35, 1225–1237. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msy037

Westbury, M.V., Le Duc, D., Duchêne, D.A., Krishnan, A., Prost, S., Rutschmann, S., Grau, J.H., Dalén, L., Weyrich, A., Norén, K., Werdelin, L., Dalerum, F., Schöneberg, T., Hofreiter, M., 2021. Ecological specialization and evolutionary reticulation in extant Hyaenidae. Mol. Biol. Evol. 38, 3884–3897. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msab055

Wilkinson, C.E., Dheer, A., Zett, T., Torrents-Ticó, M., Yarnell, R.W., Bar Ziv, E., Bhandari, S., Jacobson, A., Dloniak, S.M., 2023. Review of the global research on Hyaenidae and implications for conservation and management. Mammal Rev. mam.12337. https://doi.org/10.1111/mam.12337

Wilson, A.C., Cann, R.L., Carr, S.M., George, M., Gyllensten, U.B., Helm-Bychowski, K.M., Higuchi, R.G., Palumbi, S.R., Prager, E.M., Sage, R.D., Stoneking, M., 1985. Mitochondrial DNA and two perspectives on evolutionary genetics. Biol. J. Linn. Soc. 26, 375–400. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8312.1985.tb02048.x

Wozencraft, W.C., 2005. Order Carnivora. In: Wilson, D.E., Reeder, D.M. (Eds.), Mammal Species of the World: A Taxonomic and Geographic Reference (3rd edition). Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, pp. 532–628.

Xiang, F., Dearlove, B., Frost, S., 2019. genieR: An R package for inference of demographic history of phylogenies. JOSS 4, 634. https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.00634

Xie, W., Lewis, P.O., Fan, Y., Kuo, L., Chen, M.-H., 2011. Improving marginal likelihood estimation for Bayesian phylogenetic model selection. Syst. Biol. 60, 150–160. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syq085

Zhang, D.X., Hewitt, G.M., 1996. Nuclear integrations: challenges for mitochondrial DNA markers. Trends Ecol. Evol. 11, 247–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-5347(96)10031-8