# Scorched mussels (BIVALVIA: MYTILIDAE: BRACHIDONTINAE) from the temperate coasts of South America: Phylogenetic relationships, trans-Pacific connections and the footprints of Quaternary glaciations 

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#### Abstract

This study addresses aspects of the phylogeny and phylogeography of scorched mussels (BIVALVIA: MYTILIDAE: BRACHIDONTINAE) from southern South America (Argentina and Chile), as well as their ecophylogenetic implications. Relationships were inferred from sequences of two nuclear (28S and 18 S ) and one mitochondrial (COI) genes, using Bayesian and maximum likelihood analyses. Our results indicate that the monophyletic BRACHIDONTINAE include three well supported clades: [i] Brachidontes Swainson (=Hormomya Mörch), [ii] Ischadium Jukes-Browne + Geukensia van de Poel, and [iii] Austromytilus Laseron + Mytilisepta Habe (usually considered a member of the SEPTIFERINAE) + Perumytilus Olsson. Species of clade [iii] are distributed along the temperate coasts of the Pacific Ocean. Available evidence supports divergence between Austromytilus (Australia) and Perumytilus (South American) following the breakup of Australian, Antarctic and South American shelves. Four brachidontins occur in southern South America: Brachidontes rodriguezii (d’Orbigny), B. granulatus (Hanley), and two genetically distinct clades of Perumytilus. The latter are confined to the Chile-Peru (North Clade) and Magellanic (South Clade) Biogeographic Provinces, respectively warm- and cold-temperate. The South Clade is the only brachidontin restricted to cold-temperate waters. Biogeographic considerations and the fossil record prompted the hypothesis that the South Clade originated from the North Clade by incipient peripatric differentiation, followed by isolation during the Quaternary glaciations, genetic differentiation in the non-glaciated coasts of eastern Patagonia, back-expansion over southern Chile following post-LGM de-glaciation, and development of a secondary contact zone between the two clades in south-central Chile. Evidence of upper Pleistocene expansion of the South Clade parallels similar results on other organisms that have colonized coastal ecosystems from eastern Patagonia since the LGM, apparently occupying free ecological space. We emphasize that the assembly of communities cannot be explained solely in terms of environmental drivers, as history also matters.


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## 1. Introduction

A fundamental question in evolutionary and conservation biology concerns the degree to which extant patterns of biological diversity and species abundance reflect the action of contemporary ecological processes vs. historical contingencies. This is the realm of the emerging field of ecophylogenetics, which incorporates the historical dimension into the ecological research agenda through

[^0]the widespread use of phylogenetic data (Mouquet et al., 2012). Here we investigate phylogenetic diversity in intertidal beds of "scorched mussels", small-sized mytilid bivalves belonging to Brachidontes and related genera (BIVALVIA: MYTILIDAE: BRACHIDONTINAE; Supplementary Materials SM1), which are the dominant species in the mid-intertidal zone of rocky shores along extended stretches of coastline on both sides of temperate South America (Silliman et al., 2011; Tanaka and Magalhães, 2002; Thiel and Ullrich, 2002). While similar in appearance, these scorched mussel-dominated communities vary significantly in structure and organization. Predation by benthic invertebrates (e.g. starfish, snails), has been shown to be a main structuring factor on the Pacific (Navarrete and Castilla, 2003), but appears to be
of negligible significance on the Atlantic (Bertness et al., 2006; Olivier et al., 1966a), where the default hypothesis to explain weak predation invokes climate harshness. Also intriguing is the fact that scorched mussel beds are composed of different species that, when mixed, can be difficult to separate on the basis of phenotypic characters alone (Adami et al., 2013; van der Mollen et al., 2012), even if they belong to lineages with a long history of divergence (Trovant et al., 2013). Uniformity in the appearance of these communities may lead to a deceptive appearance of "community convergence" (Paine and Suchanek, 1983; Smith and Wilson, 2002), concealing a diversity of interactions between structuring ecological factors and historical drivers.

The three species of scorched mussels known to occur along the coasts of southern South America (Argentina and Chile; Fig. 1; Supplementary Materials SM2) belong to two genera: Brachidontes Swainson (two species) and the nominally monotypic Perumytilus Olsson. The monophyletic Brachidontes includes many species, all distributed in warm and warm-temperate seas world-wide (Lee and Ó Foighil, 2005; Trovant et al., 2013). Perumytilus, originally erected on the basis of ill-defined conchological characters (Adami et al., 2013), has been either retained as valid (e.g. Coan and Valentich-Scott, 2012, and many ecological studies) or considered as a junior synonym of Brachidontes s.l. (e.g. Huber, 2010; Adami et al., 2013).

The two species of Brachidontes s.s. that occur in southern South America are restricted to warm-temperate regions (Fig. 1): B. rodriguezii (d'Orbigny) on the Atlantic ( $32^{\circ}$ to $43^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$; Scarabino et al., 2006; Trovant et al., 2013) and B. granulatus (Hanley) on the Pacific ( $9^{\circ}$ to $43^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$; Bernard, 1983). The range of the third scorched mussel, Perumytilus purpuratus (Lamarck), spans the warm-temperate sector of the southeast Pacific (south of $3^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ ) and cold-temperate southern South America (north to $41^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ on the Atlantic), respectively known as the Chile-Peru and Magellanic biogeographic provinces (Briggs and Bowen, 2013; Fig. 1). This is the only brachidontin known to inhabit cold-temperate waters. Brachidontes rodriguezii and P. purpuratus occur sympatrically between $41^{\circ}$ and $43^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ in the southwestern Atlantic, with one or the other dominating extensive intertidal beds respectively north and south of that latitudinal range. South of $50^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$, as average monthly sea surface temperature drops below $12^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and $5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ during the warmest and coldest month, respectively, Perumytilus is replaced by Mytilus as the dominant component of intertidal mussel beds (M. Adami and S. Gordillo, pers. comm.). Brachidontes granulatus and P. purpuratus co-occur along the coasts of the Perú-Chile Province, but occupy different microhabitats. While P. purpuratus forms dense monocultures in the mid-intertidal zone over much of its latitudinal range, except in sectors where it is presumably controlled by predators, B. granulatus typically occurs in the intertidal and sub-


Fig. 1. Latitudinal range of scorched mussels present along the coasts of Chile and Argentina. Sampled locations: [1] San Marcos (Iquique), [2] La Chimba (Antofagasta), [3] Coquimbo, [4] Coliumo (Concepción), [5] La Misión, [6] Huinay, [7] Puerto Madryn, [8] Caleta Carolina, [9] Puerto Deseado, [10] Surfer Bay, [11] Bahía Ensenada (see Table 1 for more information).
tidal zones (down to 15 m ), mostly in cryptic microhabitats: under rocks, in crevices, or among algal holdfasts.

While the distribution pattern of Brachidontes is consistent with hypothetical diversification in tropical marine regions (Briggs and Bowen, 2013), the phylogeographic relations of Perumytilus remain uncertain. The ecological literature indicates a remarkable similarity between intertidal mussel beds dominated by the monotypic South American Perumytilus and Australian Austromytilus Laseron, prompting the hypothesis of a phylogenetic relation between the two lineages. The relationships of Austromytilus, however, have not been investigated with molecular information. Connections of the southern South American biota have been influenced by major historical contingencies: the breakup-up of Gondwanaland (Sanmartín and Ronquist, 2004), the opening of the Drake Passage during the middle Eocene (Scher and Martin, 2006), the late Eocene opening of the Tasman gateway (Nelson and Cooke, 2001) and the subsequent establishment of a full circum-Antarctic circulation during the Oligocene, the consequent cooling of the Southern Ocean, and the Quaternary glaciations (Fraser et al., 2012). This suite of historical events defines the scenarios in which the phylogenetic and phylogeographic relations of Perumytilus are to be considered. An eventual relationship between Perumytilus and Austromytilus could be explained by early dispersion of a common ancestor followed by the breakup of southern shelves and their concomitant differentiation, or late dispersal by rafting once the circum-Antarctic circulation was established.

The geographical distribution of $P$. purpuratus around southern South America is puzzling for two reasons. First, P. purpuratus is the only species among the BRACHIDONTINAE that ranges extensively into cold-temperate waters. Second, while it ranges over the warm-temperate Pacific coasts of South America, this is not the case for the Atlantic coast, where it does no extend into the warm-temperate Argentine Biogeographic Province. At the time of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, ca. 23-25 cal. ka) the coasts of Chile south of approximately $43^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ were covered by ice (Ruzzante et al., 2008, their Fig. 1). Glacial ice probably extended westward to the edge of the continental shelf, and likely extirpated many populations of rocky shore organisms. At the same time the coastline of the southwest Atlantic was located 200-400 km east of its current position depending on latitude (Ponce et al., 2011). Such contrasts in geological history between the coast of Chile and Argentina appear to be reflected in the phylogeography of taxa occurring across both regions (Ceballos et al., 2012; de Aranzamendi et al., 2011; González-Wevar et al., 2011, 2010; Ruzzante et al., 2011), including P. purpuratus (Trovant et al., 2013). We hypothesize that occurrence of Perumytilus in the cold-temperate Magellanic Province is indicative of a lineage adapted to a cold-temperate regime, followed by expansion into eastern Patagonia and incipient speciation. Trovant et al. (2013) found low genetic differentiation in P. purpuratus in the southwestern Atlantic, perhaps indicating late Quaternary population expansion, while the possibility of $P$. purpuratus actually including cryptic species was implied by Briones et al. (2012).

In this study we focus on the historical drivers underlaying the apparent uniformity of scorched mussel-dominated intertidal assemblages around southern South America. Using one mitochondrial and two nuclear markers, we first evaluate a hypothetical sister relationship between Austromytilus and Perumytilus, which in turn demanded the clarification of phylogenetic relations among the BRACHIDONTINAE. Next we consider alternative phylogeographic hypotheses plausibly explaining the historical origin of Perumytilus. In third place we investigate the paradox of a species (P. purpuratus) spreading over two biogeographic provinces along the Pacific coast of South America, and only one on the Atlantic side. Evidence supporting the hypothesis of the existence of two genetically distinct clades and their recent demographic expansion
is presented, and a hypothesis is introduced to explain their historical origination and current distribution. Finally, using our study case as an illustrative example, we discuss the relevance of attending to historical contingencies when interpreting ecological processes.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Specimens

Perumytilus individuals were collected from eleven locations ( $N=89$, Fig. 1, Table 1), six spread along the southeast Pacific from northern Chile (San Marcos, $20^{\circ} 12^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ) to the Chiloé area (Huinay, $42^{\circ} 01^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ), and five in the southwestern Atlantic, from the Beagle Channel (Bahía Ensenada, $54^{\circ} 49^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ) and the Malvinas/Falkland Islands (Surfer Bay, $51^{\circ} 41^{\prime}$ S) to Puerto Madryn ( $42^{\circ} 46^{\prime}$ S, Argentine Patagonia). The samples from the Atlantic were used in an earlier study (Trovant et al., 2013). Specimens of the following species were also obtained for sequencing and observation of shell phenotypic characters (Supplementary Materials SM3): Austromytilus rostratus (W.R. Dunker) (Tasmania), Brachidontes darwinianus (d’Orbigny) (Uruguay), B. erosus (Lamarck) (Tasmania), B. "exustus II" sensu Lee and Ó Foighil (2005) (Venezuela), B. granulatus (Hanley) (Chile), B. rodriguezii (d’Orbigny) (Argentina), Mytilisepta virgata (Wiegmann) (Japan and Hong Kong), and M. bifurcata (Conrad) (California). All samples were fixed in 95\% ethanol. In addition, sequences from related taxa were downloaded from GenBank (Table 2).

### 2.2. DNA extraction, amplification, sequencing and alignment

Doubly uniparental inheritance (DUI), whereby paternally inherited mitochondrial genome is present in the male germ line, has been shown to occur in several mytilids (Skibinski et al., 1994a, 1994b; Zouros et al., 1992; Rawson and Hilbish, 1995) but not in Perumytilus (Vargas Millacheo, 2009). Following Lee and Ó Foighil, 2004, we targeted DNA from the posterior adductor muscle to minimize the risk of confounding in the case of species where DUI cannot be disregarded. DNA was isolated using the phenolchloroform protocol (modified from Sambrook et al., 1989, no final washing with chloroform). We used LCO1490/HCO2198 (Folmer et al., 1994) and CO1aF/CO1aR (Trovant et al., 2013), D23F/D6R (Park and Ó Foighil, 2000) and 22F/1789R (Medlin et al., 1988) to amplify one mitochondrial gene, cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI), of 559 bp (aligned length), and two nuclear genes: the large ribosomal subunit (28S), of 813 bp (aligned length), and the small subunit rRNA (18S), of 1627 bp (aligned length). Additional primers $-18 \mathrm{~S}-1 \mathrm{~F}, 18 \mathrm{~S}-2 \mathrm{~F}, 18 \mathrm{~S}-3 \mathrm{~F}, 18 \mathrm{~S}-4 \mathrm{~F}, 18 \mathrm{~S}-1 \mathrm{R}, 18 \mathrm{~S}-2 \mathrm{R}$ and $18 \mathrm{~S}-3 \mathrm{R}$ (Goto et al., 2011)- were used for sequencing the 18 S rRNA gene. When possible we sequenced ten specimens per locality for COI and two specimens per locality for 28 S and 185 . In total we obtained 88 sequences ( 55 for COI, 21 for 28 S and 12 for 18 S ). To amplify the genes we used Tsg polimerase (Bio Basic Inc., Canada). The protocol used included an initial denaturing temperature of $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min ; followed by 30 cycles of $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 45 s ; an annealing temperature of $45^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for COI, and $52^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 28 S and 18 S for $1 \mathrm{~min} ; 72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min ; and a final extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min . After extraction and amplification the DNA was visualized by UV transillumination in $1 \%$ agarose gels stained with green gel (BIOTUM). Extractions and amplifications of DNA samples were performed in the Gene Probe Laboratory of Dalhousie University (Nova Scotia, Canada) and in the Laboratory of Molecular Biology (CENPAT, Argentina), while the purification of PCR products and sequencing of both strands of DNA were done at CENPAT or by Macrogen Inc. (Maryland, USA), using for COI and 28S the same

Table 1
Locations where samples were collected for this study, including those of Trovant et al. (2013).

| Species | Sample location | Latitude/Longitude |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Brachidontes exustus | Laguna Chacopata, Peninsula de Araya, Venezuela | $10^{\circ} 39^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 63^{\circ} 49^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
| Brachidontes erosus | Taroona, Tasmania, Australia | $42^{\circ} 56^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 147^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ |
| Brachidontes granulatus | Coquimbo, Region IV, Chile | $29^{\circ} 57^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 71^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
| Brachidontes rodriguezii | Santa Clara del Mar, Buenos Aires, Argentina | $37^{\circ} 50^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 57^{\circ} 3^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Bahia San Blas, Buenos Aires, Argentina | $40^{\circ} 32^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 62^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Bahia Rosas, Río Negro, Argentina | $41^{\circ} 01^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 64^{\circ} 06^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Puerto Madryn, Chubut, Argentina | $42^{\circ} 46^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 65^{\circ} 00^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | San Marcos, Iquique, Region I, Chile | $20^{\circ} 12^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 70^{\circ} 09^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | La Chimba, Antofagasta, Region II, Chile | $23^{\circ} 33^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 70^{\circ} 23^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Coquimbo, Region IV, Chile | $29^{\circ} 57^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 71^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Coliumo, Concepción, Region VIII, Chile | $36^{\circ} 49^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 73^{\circ} 03^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | La Misión, Valdivia, Región X, Chile | $39^{\circ} 47^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 73^{\circ} 23^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Huinay, Chiloé, Region X, Chile | $42^{\circ} 01^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 72^{\circ} 42^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Puerto Madryn, Chubut, Argentina | $42^{\circ} 46^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 65^{\circ} 00^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Caleta Carolina, Camarones, Chubut, Argentina | $44^{\circ} 47^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 65^{\circ} 43^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Puerto Deseado, Santa Cruz, Argentina | $47^{\circ} 44^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 65^{\circ} 53^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Surfer Bay, Malvinas/Falkland I. | $51^{\circ} 41^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 57^{\circ} 46^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Bahía Ensenada, Tierra del Fuego, Argentina | $54^{\circ} 49^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 68^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |
|  | Taroona, Tasmania, Australia | $42^{\circ} 56^{\prime} \mathrm{S}, 147^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ |
| Mytromytiliseptas rostratus | $22^{\circ} 13^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 114^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ |  |
|  | Shek O, Hong Kong | $26^{\circ} 38^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 128^{\circ} 01^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ |
| Mytilisepta bifurcata | Okinawa Prefecture, Japan | $34^{\circ} 28^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 120^{\circ} 17^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ |

primers as in the amplification. DNA sequence data were edited in CodonCode Aligner v 2.0.4 and aligned using default parameters with Clustal W (Thompson et al., 1994). All DNA sequences were deposited in GenBank under the Accession Numbers KJ453810KJ453888 and KJ598044-KJ598052.

### 2.3. Phylogenetic analyses and divergence time estimation

Prior to analyses, we tested for third codon saturation of mitochondrial sequences; a test of substitution saturation (Xia and Lemey, 2009) was performed in DAMBE v5 (Xia, 2013). Subsequently, tree phylogenies of the BRACHIDONTINAE based on a mitochondrial (COI) and two nuclear (18S and 28S rDNA) markers were constructed. Non-mytilid pteriormorphs (Atrina, PINNIDAE, and Crassostrea, OSTREIDAE) and Mytilus spp. (MYTILINAE) were selected as outgroups (Table 2). Also included in our analyses were two species of Mytilaster (Monterosato, 1884), Ischadium recurvum (as MYTILINAE in Huber, 2010) and Geukensia spp. (BRACHIDONTINAE), the latter two used as outgroups by Lee and Ó Foighil (2005) in their study of the Brachidontes 'exustus' complex.

Two methods were utilized for phylogenetic reconstruction: Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference (BI). The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), implemented in jModelTest v 2.1.5 (Darriba et al., 2012), was applied to find the models of evolution that best fit the data. The selected models were used in ML analyses of nuclear and mitochondrial datasets, conducted with RAxML 7.4.2 (Stamatakis, 2006), implemented in raxmlGUI 1.3 (Silvestro and Michalak, 2012); a rapid bootstrapping analysis with 1000 replicates was conducted. Phylogenies reconstructed with BI were estimated with different substitution (HKY+G+I, Hasegawa et al., 1985, and GTR+G+I, Tavaré, 1985) and clock (strict and relaxed) models. The marginal-likelihood scores of the posterior distributions were compared using Bayes Factors (BFs, Kass and Raftery, 1995) with two different methods: harmonic mean estimation (HME, Newton and Raftery, 1994) and a posterior simulation-based analog of the Akaike information criterion through Markov chain Monte Carlo analysis (AICM, Raftery et al., 2007) implemented in Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014). Bayesian reconstructions were conducted under two tree priors (Yule and birth-death processes) using BEAST v. 1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012) with a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation for 20 million of generations for
the two nuclear phylogenies and 80 million generations for the mitochondrial dataset, sampling trees every 1000 generations with a burn-in of $25 \%$. Convergence diagnostics were conducted in Tracer and reliable ESS values (>200) were ensured. Then, the maximum credibility tree was generated from the combined trees in TreeAnnotator v 1.6.1 (Drummond et al., 2012). Finally, the edition of the trees was carried out in Figtree v 1.4 (Morariu et al., 2008).

The substitution rate and divergence times among Austromytilus, Perumytilus and Mytilisepta, and between Perumytilus clades were estimated from the COI dataset using BEAST, together with the phylogenetic reconstruction. We used two calibrations points, the closure time of the Panama Isthmus (Lessios, 2008) and the divergence time between the $M$. edulis species complex and M. californianus (Ort and Pogson, 2007). Isthmian calibrations assume that morphologically similar 'geminate' species living now on either side of the isthmus were isolated geographically by the latest stages of seaway closure (Marko, 2002). This calibration point was applied by setting the time of the split between Brachidontes ‘exustus II’ (Lee and Ó Foighil, 2005) and B. semilaevis geminate lineages at 3.1-3.5 Mya [prior distribution = normal, mean = 3.3 Mya, $\log (S D)=0.2$ ]. Ort and Pogson (2007) estimated the divergence time between the $M$. edulis complex and $M$. californianus at 7.61 Mya for COX3. To estimate the node age for our mitochondrial gene (COI) we followed the same steps, using the COI sequences available in Genbank. Assuming a divergence time of 3.5 million years between $M$. trossulus and $M$. edulis/M. galloprovincialis (Wares and Cunningham, 2001), we estimate a first and second positions substitution rate of $1.78 \mathrm{E}-8$ for $\mathrm{COI}(\mu=1 / 2 d / 3.5 \mathrm{E} 6$ Mya, $d=0.125$, genetic distance). Using the genetic distance between the $M$. edulis complex and $M$. californianus $(d=0.333)$ and the calculated $\mu$, we estimated a divergence time between the $M$. edulis complex and M. californianus of 9.35 Mya for COI. This calibration point was applied by setting the time of the split between $M$. edulis and $M$. californianus lineages [prior distribution = normal, mean $=9.35$ Mya, $\log (S D)=1]$.

### 2.4. Genetic structure and diversity of Perumytilus

A maximum-parsimony COI haplotype network was constructed to represent the spatial distribution of haplotypes, using the median joining algorithm (Bandelt et al., 1999) with the MP

Table 2
Sequences used in this study.

| Species | CO1 | 28S rRNA | 18S rRNA | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Atrina pectinata | HM015792.1 | HM015782.1 | EF613241.1 | Xue et al. (2012) (COI and 28S) and Wang and Gao (unpublished) |
| Crassostrea gigas | DQ659371.1 | AB105362.1 | AB064942.1 | Cardoso et al. (unpublished), Hosoi et al. (2004), and Itoh et al. (unpublished) |
| Austromytilus rostratus | KJ453834.1, KJ453835.1 | KJ453828.1-KJ453829.1 | KJ453811.1-KJ453812.1 | This study |
| Brachidontes adamsianus I | AY825164.1 | AY825086.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2005) |
| Brachidontes adamsianus II | - | AY825100.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2005) |
| Brachidontes darwinianus | KC844414.1 | KC844370.1 | - | Trovant et al. (2013) |
| Brachidontes dominguensis | - | - | AF117736.1 | Distel (2000) |
| Brachidontes erosus | - | KJ453827.1 | KJ453810.1 | This study |
| Brachidontes exustus I | AY825216.1 | AY825104.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2005) |
| Brachidontes exustus II | AY621900.1 | AY825104.1 | AF229623.1 | Lee and Ó Foighil (2004) and Campbell (2000) |
| Brachidontes exustus III | AY621913.1 | AY621993.1 | KJ453813.1 | Lee and Ó Foighil (2004); This study |
| Brachidontes granulatus | KJ453888.1 | KJ453823.1 | DQ640532.1 | This study, Santaclara et al., (2006) |
| Brachidontes modiolus | AY621916.1 | AY622002.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2004) |
| Brachidontes mutabilis | GQ480310.1 | AB103124.1 | AB201233.1 | Liu and Li, unpublished; Hashimoto and Matsumoto, unpublished; Owada (2007) |
| Brachidontes pharaonis | DQ836013.1 | - | - | Terranova et al. (2006) |
| Brachidontes rodriguezii | $\begin{aligned} & \text { КС844478.1, КС844455.1, } \\ & \text { KС844463.1, КС844474.1 } \end{aligned}$ | KC844460.1 | DQ640530.1 | Trovant et al. (2013) and Santaclara et al. (2006) |
| Brachidontes semilaevis | AY825117.1 | AY825089.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2005) |
| Brachidontes variabilis | DQ836021.1 | AY825102.1 | AJ389643.1 | Terranova et al. (2006), Lee and Ó Foighil (2005), and Steiner and Hammer (2000) |
| Geukensia granossisima | AY621927.1 | AY622006.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2004) |
| Geukensia demissa | - | - | L33450.1 | Lee and Ó Foighil (2004) |
| Ischadium recurvum | AY621928.1 | AY622008.1 | - | Lee and Ó Foighil (2004) |
| Mytilaster minimus | DQ836022.1 | - | - | Terranova et al. (2006) |
| Mytilaster solidus | JF496771.1 | - | - | Plazzi et al. (2011) |
| Mytilisepta bifurcata | - | KJ453830.1-KJ453831.1 | KJ453814.1-KJ453815.1 | This study |
| Mytilisepta virgata | AB076941.1 | KJ453832.1-KJ453833.1 | KJ453816.1-KJ453817.1 | Matsumoto (2003); This study |
| Mytilus edulis | AY484747.1 | Z29550.1 | L33448.1 | Boore et al. (2004), Littlewood (1994), and Kenchington et al. (1995) |
| Mytilus californianus | U68777.1 | - | - | Hoeh et al. (1997) |
| Mytilus galloprovincialis | - | AB105357.1 | L33451.1 | Hosoi et al. (2004) and Kenchington et al. (1995) |
| Perumytilus purpuratus | KC844415.1-KC844453.1; <br> KJ453836.1-KJ453887.1 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { KC844374.1-KC844388.1; } \\ & \text { KJ453824.1-KJ453826.1, } \\ & \text { KJ598044.1-KJ598052.1 } \end{aligned}$ | KJ453818.1-KJ453821.1 | Trovant et al. (2013); This study |
| Septifer bilocularis | - | AJ307535.1 | AF229622.1 | Steiner and Hammer (2000) and Campbell (2000) |

calculation to reduce unnecessary median vectors and links, and a ratio of transversions/transitions of 3:1 (recommended for mitochondrial DNA); default values in Network v 4.6.1 (Polzin and Daneschmand, 2003) were kept for the rest of the parameters. In addition, to determine the partition that maximizes the differences among groups an analysis of molecular variation (AMOVA; Excoffier et al., 1992) was implemented in Arlequin v 3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer, 2010). The AMOVA was performed based on a distance matrix of pairwise differences. The significance of $\Phi_{\mathrm{ST}}, \Phi_{\mathrm{SC}}$ and $\Phi_{\mathrm{CT}}$, the covariance components associated with the different possible levels of genetic structure (within individuals, among populations, among groups), was tested using non-parametric permutation procedures with 10,000 iterations.

After identifying lineages using phylogenetic methods, standard diversity indices such as the number of polymorphic sites ( $S$ ), number of haplotypes ( $k$ ), haplotype diversity (Hd), nucleotide diversity $(\pi)$ and mean number of pairwise differences ( $\Pi$ ) were estimated for each population and clade using Arlequin. Since sampling sites are far enough apart from each other, each sampling site was taken as a distinct population. In addition, to test levels of among-population genetic differentiation, pairwise $\Phi_{\text {ST }}$ for mtDNA COI based on 10,000 permutations was estimated within each clade with Arlequin. The significance of pairwise comparisons between populations was tested applying Holm's (1979) sequential Bonferroni correction. Estimates of evolutionary divergence over sequence
pairs within and between groups were calculated using $p$-distance in MEGA v5 (Tamura et al., 2011).

### 2.5. Demographic history of Perumytilus

The hypothesis of neutrality, assuming constant population size and neutral variation, was examined with three tests: Fu's Fs (Fu, 1997), Tajima's $D$ (Tajima, 1989) and $R_{2}$ (Ramos-Onsins and Rozas, 2002), performed on COI sequences using DnaSP v 5.10 (Librado and Rozas, 2009). Although only little structure was found within groups, indexes were calculated by both population and clade. Selective sweeps and selection against slightly deleterious mutations can result in a pattern of haplotype diversity similar to that produced by population expansion (Bertorelle and Slatkin, 1995). Since these analyses cannot differentiate between the effects of demographic processes and natural selection, a Mc Don-ald-Kreitman test (Mc Donald and Kreitman, 1991) was performed. This test is based on a contingency table of counts of polymorphic (within species) and fixed (between species) sites involving both non-synonymous and synonymous sites. By directly comparing the number of detected differences, the test indirectly compares the rate of evolution on the between-species tree with the rate on the within-species trees. If the nonsynonymous ratio is much higher than the synonymous one, then there is an excess of nonsynonymous fixed differences, indicative of positive selection,
while a deficit indicates negative selection. In addition, mismatch distribution analysis (Rogers and Harpending, 1992) was used to visualize the signature of the expansion, and the Harpending's raggedness index ( $r$ ) (Harpending et al., 1993) was calculated to quantify the smoothness of the observed distribution. In a population that has been stationary for a long time these distributions from non-recombinant DNA sequences become ragged and erratic, whereas a population that has been growing generates mismatch distributions that are smooth and unimodal (Harpending, 1994). In expanding populations the raggedness value is low and non-significant, while it is usually high and significant in stationary populations. Furthermore, past population dynamics through time was estimated in Perumytilus using a Bayesian skyline plot method implemented in BEAST. The number of discrete changes allowed in the population history ("groups") was 7 and 9 for North and South clades respectively, and the skyline model chosen was piece-wise-linear. The length of the chain was 80 million of generations and was sampled every 8000 . A relaxed clock model using the estimated mutation rate for the Perumytilus clade was computed for each clade with a burn-in of $10 \%$. The convergence of runs and reliable ESS values ( $>200$ ) were confirmed in Tracer. Additionally, in order to test the potential pattern of isolation by distance (Slatkin, 1993), a Mantel test (Mantel, 1967) was conducted for each clade using the software XLSTAT v 2013.4 (Addinsoft, 2013).

### 2.6. Latitudinal gradients of sea-surface temperature

Latitudinal profiles of climatological sea-surface temperature (SST) were compiled for both coasts of southern South America, from $56^{\circ}$ S (Cape Horn) to $20^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ using the online PO.DAAC Ocean ESIP Tool (POET). Monthly average SST was calculated for the warmest and coldest months (respectively February and August) of 2008-2010. The two extreme monthly means are denoted, respectively, as $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {max }}$ and $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {min }}$.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Phylogeny of the BRACHIDONTINAE

The General Time Reversible model (GTR+G+I) was selected for ML estimation with the mitochondrial dataset based on the AIC criterion. The AIC weight of the selected model was 0.99 . Comparing the first two models of substitutions in the rank generated by jModeltest ( $\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$ and $\mathrm{TVM}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$ ) with the decision table of Kass and Raftery (1995), we obtained decisive evidence against $T V M+G+I(\Delta A I C=16)$. For the 18 S dataset, the model with the lowest AIC in the rank was the GTR $+G G T R+G+I$ with a weight of 0.35 . Comparing the first two models of substitutions in the rank ( $\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$ and $\mathrm{SYM}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$ ) we obtained a $\Delta$ AIC of 1.45 , implying strong evidence against $\mathrm{SYM}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$. In the case of the 28 S dataset, the GTR $+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$ (third position in the AIC rank produced by jModeltest) was chosen; the two models ranking at the top are not available in raxmlGUI. In the case of Bayesian inference, Bayes factors based on HME and AICM favored the GTR $+G+I$ and the relaxed clock models over the HKY+G+I and the strict clock models for the three genes (Supplementary Materials SM4). Divergence times were estimated using the COI dataset for the selected models, GTR+G+I and relaxed clock, under two different tree priors (Yule and birth-death processes).

The trees based on maximum likelihood and Bayesian analyses of the 18 S and 28 S sequences (Fig. 2) and the mithocondrial COI gene (Supplementary Materials SM5) show three well supported clades: [i] Austromytilus + Mytilisepta + Perumytilus ("AMP clade"), [ii] Geukensia + Ischadium, and [iii] Brachidontes s.l. (including Hormomya). While the separation of the three genera in the AMP clade is well supported, no clear genus-level groups are supported within the Brachidontes s.l. clade. The divergence time estimated for the AMP clade was relatively insensitive to the prior of choice: 13.35 Mya ( $95 \%$ HPD: $4.07-27.97$ Mya) under the Yule prior, and


Fig. 2. Bayesian trees for the BRACHIDONTINAE based on nuclear genes 18 S and 28 S rDNA, using Atrina pectinata, Crassostrea gigas, Mytilus edulis and M. gallopronvicialis as outgroups. Numbers above the branches represent the Bayesian posterior probabilities/ML bootstrap values ( $>60$ only) for the supported nodes. In the case of Perumytilus, numbers in parentheses following species name indicate the code of the locality of the sequences (see Fig. 1, Table 1). Three well supported clades are highlighted: Austromytilus-Mytilisepta-Perumytilus (AMP), Geukensia-Ischadium and Brachidontes s.s.
11.10 Mya ( $95 \%$ HPD: $1.23-27.73 \mathrm{Mya}$ ) under a birth-death tree prior. These estimates place the expected divergence among Austromytilus, Mytilisepta and Perumytilus in the Middle Miocene.

### 3.2. Genetic structure and diversity of Perumytilus

We used a total of 89 sequences of the COI mitochondrial gene ( 52 sequences newly generated for this study and 37 previously used in Trovant et al., 2013) and 27 sequences of the 28 S rRNA gene ( 12 sequences newly generated for this study and 15 from Trovant et al., 2013). These samples originated from eleven localities spread over the species' distribution range. Among the 559 bp of the alignment length of COI we found 81 polymorphic sites (14.5\%); of those, 30 were singleton variable sites (37\%) and 47 were parsimony informative sites ( $63 \%$ ). A total of 66 haplotypes were obtained from all the sequences. Concerning the saturation test, the observed saturation indices ( Iss $_{0}$ ) were significantly lower than the expected indices ( $\mathrm{Iss}_{\mathrm{e}}$ ) ( $\mathrm{Iss}_{\mathrm{o}}: 0.18-0.20<\mathrm{Iss}_{\mathrm{e}}$ : 0.68-0.78; $p<0.05$ ) suggesting that saturation on the mitochondrial dataset was negligible. Based on this result we proceeded with analyses using the complete alignments. No indels or stop codons were detected in the complete data set. The sampled haplotypes clustered in two groups separated by 19 substitutions (Fig. 3). From here on, we will refer to these two groups as the North and South clades. The North Clade includes sequences from San Marcos ( $20^{\circ} 12^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ) to Coliumo ( $36^{\circ} 49^{\prime}$ S) (Chile), and the South Clade includes sequences from La Misión ( $39^{\circ} 47^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ) (Chile) to Puerto Madryn ( $42^{\circ} 46^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ) (Argentine Patagonia). The genealogies of the two clades were star-like (Fig. 3), with one very frequent central haplotype (number 3) in the case of the North Clade, and more expanded, with two very frequent haplotypes (number 26 and 39) in the South Clade.

Results of the AMOVA conducted with mitochondrial (COI) and nuclear (28S) markers were consistent with each other; the null hypothesis of panmixia was rejected in both cases. AMOVA
analyses indicated that $82.48 \%$ (COI) and $98.22 \%$ (28S) of Perumytilus genetic variation was due to the partition into North and South clades, suggesting genetic structuring within Perumytilus. The fraction of genetic variation explained by partition among populations was only $0.61 \%$ for COI and $1.78 \%$ for 28 S rDNA; partition within populations explained $16.91 \%$ of the genetic variation for COI, and $0.00 \%$ for 28 S rDNA. The geographic groups recovered in this analysis (i.e. North and South clades) were considered in all the demographic analyses described below.

Although haplotype diversity was comparable between clades, the number of polymorphic sites and haplotypes, nucleotide diversity and mean number of pairwise differences were slightly higher in the South Clade (Table 3). Only the most isolated populations in the North Clade showed some genetic differentiation suggested by the significant $\Phi_{\text {ST }}$ values (San Marcos and Coliumo, Table 4). Within the South Clade, populations showed low and non-significant pairwise $\Phi_{\text {St }}$ values (Table 5). The North and South clades showed an interlineage divergence of $5.8 \%$ (S.E. $=0.010$ ) and an intralineage divergence of $0.8 \%$ (S.E. $=0.001$ ) and $1.5 \%$ (S.E.= 0.002 ), respectively.

### 3.3. Demographic history of Perumytilus

Neutrality (constant population size and neutral variation) was tested in each clade at the population level. However, due to lack of structuring within groups, and given the low number of specimens sequenced per population, only the results calculated at the clade level were further considered (Table 6). The indices agree in the rejection of the neutrality hypothesis for both clades. Fu's Fs values were negative and significant, evidence for an excess number of allele classes, as would be expected from a recent population expansion or from gene hitchhiking. In the case of Tajima's D test, the observed negative values suggest either population expansion or purifying selection. In addition, low values of $R_{2}$ also suggest recent population expansion. A mismatch distribution analysis


Fig. 3. Median joining haplotype network of Perumytilus based on COI mitochondrial gene. Each haplotype is represented by a circle whose size is proportional to its frequency; colors indicate locality of origin. See Fig. 1 and Table 1 for information about locations. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 3
Genetic diversity indices of Perumytilus based on mtDNA (COI) sequences. $N$ : number of specimens analyzed; S : number of polymorphic sites; $k$ : number of haplotypes; Hd: haplotype diversity; $\pi$ : nucleotide diversity; $\Pi$ : mean number of pairwise differences; SD: standard deviation.

| Locality | $N$ | S | k | $\mathrm{Hd} \pm$ SD | $\pi \pm$ SD | $\Pi \pm$ SD |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1-San Marcos | 11 | 9 | 8 | $0.94 \pm 0.05$ | $0.004 \pm 0.003$ | $2.32 \pm 1.37$ |
| 2- La Chimba | 9 | 18 | 9 | $1.00 \pm 0.04$ | $0.010 \pm 0.006$ | $4.83 \pm 2.60$ |
| 3- Coquimbo | 8 | 15 | 8 | $1.00 \pm 0.06$ | $0.009 \pm 0.005$ | $4.53 \pm 2.49$ |
| 4- Coliumo | 8 | 13 | 4 | $0.89 \pm 0.11$ | $0.007 \pm 0.004$ | $3.89 \pm 2.18$ |
| North Clade | 36 | 35 | 25 | $0.97 \pm 0.01$ | $0.008 \pm 0.001$ | $3.69 \pm 1.30$ |
| 5- La Misión | 8 | 17 | 8 | $0.98 \pm 0.007$ | $0.010 \pm 0.006$ | $5.57 \pm 2.99$ |
| 6- Huinay | 8 | 16 | 7 | $0.96 \pm 0.07$ | $0.009 \pm 0.005$ | $4.35 \pm 2.40$ |
| 7- Pto. Madryn | 4 | 10 | 4 | $1.00 \pm 0.17$ | $0.010 \pm 0.007$ | $5.33 \pm 3.25$ |
| 8- Caleta Carolina | 9 | 14 | 8 | $0.97 \pm 0.06$ | $0.008 \pm 0.005$ | $4.44 \pm 2.41$ |
| 9- Pto. Deseado | 6 | 15 | 6 | $1.00 \pm 0.09$ | $0.010 \pm 0.006$ | $5.40 \pm 3.02$ |
| 10-Surfer Bay | 10 | 22 | 8 | $0.97 \pm 0.05$ | $0.011 \pm 0.007$ | $6.35 \pm 3.29$ |
| 11- Bahía Ensenada | 8 | 17 | 8 | $1.00 \pm 0.06$ | $0.009 \pm 0.006$ | $4.92 \pm 2.68$ |
| South Clade | 53 | 56 | 41 | $0.98 \pm 0.007$ | $0.011 \pm 0.0008$ | $5.16 \pm 1.78$ |

Table 4
Perumytilus, North Clade. Pairwise $\Phi_{\mathrm{ST}}$ comparisons (below diagonal) and approximate distance among populations, in km (above diagonal). In the case of the pairwise $\Phi_{\mathrm{ST}}$ comparisons, $p$-values uncorrected and after Holm-Bonferroni corrections are shown to the left and right of the slashbar, respectively. (*): Statistically significant differences ( $p$ value lower than its corrected value).

| North Clade | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 1- San Marcos | - | 383.12 | 1090.59 |
| 2- La Chimba | $0.037(0.10 / 0.01)$ | - | 707.91 |
| 3- Coquimbo | $0.000(0.41 / 0.05)$ | $-056(0.05 / 0.03)$ | 0.1859 .40 |
| 4- Coliumo | $0.097 *(0.006 / 0.008)$ | $0.028(0.16 / 0.02)$ | 1477.72 |

was used to visualize evidence of the population expansion suggested by the other indices. The two clades showed smooth unimodal distributions (Fig. 4), a frequent pattern under a population expansion model. These outcomes were also supported by low and non-significant Harpending's Raggedness indices. The estimated mutation rate of the Perumytilus clade was 0.19 substitutions/Myr. Assuming this rate, the population expansion of the North Clade would have started 15 ka (end of the Pleistocene), and continued through Holocene and Recent times (Fig. 4). In the case of the South Clade, the largest change in population size would have occurred during the Holocene, 11.5 to 3.5 ka before present (Fig. 4).

The MacDonald Kreitman (MK) test could not be conducted among Perumytilus clades (North Clade, $n=36$, and South Clade, $n=53$ ) due to the low number of non-synonymous fixed and polymorphic sites ( 0 and 5 , respectively). A MK test was instead conducted between each clade and another brachidontin, $B$. rodriguezii ( $n=14$, Trovant et al., 2013). The ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous changes in the between species comparison (fixed differences) was higher than the same ratio in the within species comparison (polymorphic sites) (North Clade - B. rodriguezii: $21 / 54>5 / 59$; South Clade - B. rodriguezii: $21 / 52>2 / 61$ ) suggesting strong directional selection acting at a deepest scale
in the phylogeny. Notice, though, that the MK test is biased towards the detection of ancient selection (Parsch et al., 2009).

The Mantel's test suggested no correlation among genetic and geographic distance for any of the clades (North Clade, $r=0.15$, $p>0.05$; South Clade, $r=0.06, p>0.05$ ).

### 3.4. Distribution of the two clades of Perumytilus relative to latitudinal thermal gradients

Latitudinal profiles of climatological sea-surface temperature were used to characterize the latitudinal distribution of Perumytilus clades along both coasts of southern South America. The latitudinal range of distribution of the two clades along the Pacific coast is clearly associated with SST (Fig. 5): individuals of the North Clade were not found where $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {min }}$ (August) drops below $10^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, whereas individuals of the South Clade can be found at a $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {min }}$ as low as $2.82^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (Surfer Bay, Malvinas/Falkland I.). The distribution of the two Perumytilus clades also appears to correlate with temperature during the warmest month. Individuals of the South Clade were found only where $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {max }} \leqslant 14.2^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on the Pacific side and $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {max }} \leqslant 17.6^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on the Atlantic side (Puerto Madryn, $43^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ ), while those of the North Clade can be found in waters as warm as $21.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on the Pacific side (San Marcos, $20^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ ).

Table 5

 significant.

| South Clade | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5- La Misión | - | 290.19 | 3107.51 | 2874.89 | 2548.49 | 2418.13 | 1745.70 |
| 6- Huinay | 0.043 (0.19/0.0036) | - | 2820.20 | 2587.58 | 2261.18 | 2130.82 | 1458.39 |
| 7- Puerto Madryn | 0.016 (0.34/0.0063) | 0.080 (0.07/0.0025) | - | 233.41 | 559.88 | 1088.84 | 1361.81 |
| 8- Caleta Carolina | 0.000 (0.65/0.012) | 0.138 (0.01/0.0024) | 0.068 (0.11/0.0028) | - | 329.21 | 1914.16 | 1129.19 |
| 9- Puerto Deseado | 0.001 (0.45/0.0071) | 0.021 (0.22/0.0038) | 0.000 (0.90/0.050) | 0.025 (0.22/0.0042) | - |  | 802.79 |
| 10- Surfer Bay | 0.000 (0.74/0.016) | 0.000 (0.48/0.0083) | 0.049 (0.19/0.0033) | 0.039 (0.17/0.0031) | 0.017 (0.31/0.0056) | - | 672.43 |
| 11- Bahía Ensenada | 0.023 (0.28/0.0050) | 0.038 (0.12/0.0029) | 0.000 (0.63/0.010) | 0.042 (0.101/0.0026) | 0.000 (0.77/0.025) | 0.021 (0.27/0.0045) | - |

Table 6
Perumytilus: neutrality tests by location and clade. (*) Statistically significant differences. Fs is considered significant when $p<0.02$, while the other tests are considered significant when $p<0.05$.

| Locality | Fs | Tajima's $D$ | $R^{2}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1- San Marcos | $-3.89^{*}(p<0.01)$ | $-1.01(p=0.18)$ | $0.10^{*}(p=0.01)$ |
| 2- La Chimba | $-5.00^{*}(p<0.01)$ | $-1.32(p=0.10)$ | $0.10^{*}(p=0.01)$ |
| 3- Coquimbo | $-4.20^{*}(p<0.01)$ | $-1.10(p=0.14)$ | $0.09^{*}(p<0.01)$ |
| 4- Coliumo | $1.58(p=0.80)$ | $-1.13(p=0.14)$ | $0.17(p=0.34)$ |
| North Clade | $-20.22^{*}(p<0.01)$ | $-1.99^{*}(p=0.01)$ | $0.04^{*}(p<0.01)$ |
| 5- La Misión | $-3.60^{*}(p=0.01)$ | $-0.77(p=0.21)$ | $0.12^{*}(p=0.04)$ |
| 6- Huinay | $-2.24(p=0.05)$ | $-1.51(p=0.06)$ | $0.15(p=0.21)$ |
| 7- Pto. Madryn | $-0.43(p=0.21)$ | $-0.22(p=0.55)$ | $0.09^{*}(p=0.01)$ |
| 8- Caleta Carolina | $-3.06(p=0.03)$ | $-0.65(p=0.28)$ | $0.11^{*}(p=0.03)$ |
| 9- Pto. Deseado | $-2.01(p=0.06)$ | $-1.09(p=0.14)$ | $0.09^{*}(p<0.01)$ |
| 10- Surfer Bay | $-1.36(p=0.18)$ | $-0.86(p=0.20)$ | $0.12(p=0.11)$ |
| 11- Bahía Ensenada | $-3.95^{*}(p=0.01)$ | $-1.28(p=0.11)$ | $0.16(p=0.53)$ |
| South Clade | $-41.40^{*}(p<0.01)$ | $-2.03^{*}(p<0.05)$ | $0.05^{*}(p<0.01)$ |

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Phylogenetic and phylogeographic relations of the brachidontins from southern South America

Our analyses recovered three well-supported clades within the BRACHIDONTINAE: [i] Austromytilus + Mytilisepta + Perumytilus (the AMP clade), [ii] Ischadium + Geukensia, and [iii] Brachidontes s.l. Mytilisepta has usually been considered a member of the SEPTIFERINAE by non-Japanese authors (including Huber, 2010), and even a junior synonym of Septifer Récluz. A phylogeny based on the mitochondrial gene COI (Matsumoto, 2003) early indicated that Mytilisepta virgata and Septifer excisus belong to different clades, supporting the retention of Mytilisepta as a distinct genus
placed among the BRACHIDONTINAE, as confirmed by our results. Nesting of Mytilisepta among the BRACHIDONTINAE implies that the septum serving for the insertion of the adductor muscle in Septifer and Mytilisepta (Supplementary Materials SM3) is a homoplasy that evolved independently in the two lineages.

Members of the AMP clade are distributed in temperate regions around the Pacific Ocean: Austromytilus in the southwest, Perumytilus in the southeast and Mytilisepta in the north. According to our results Perumytilus branched off first, and Austromytilus and the phenotypically apomorphic Mytilisepta split later. Given that scorched mussels are absent from New Zealand and are not represented there in the fossil record either (Fleming, 1959; Beu, 2006), brachidontins are likely to have radiated in the Southern Hemisphere after New Zealand broke away from Gondwana during the late Cretaceous (80 Mya; Sanmartín and Ronquist, 2004). Estimated divergence time places the radiation of the AMP clade in the Middle Miocene. Divergence times were estimated with two calibration points, one of them corresponding to the time of closure of the Panama Isthmus. The timing of this event and its biogeographic implications have been a subject of recent debate (Stone, 2013). While the commonly held Pliocene closure time hypothesis (3.1-3.5 Mya, used in our calibration) is supported by a substantial body of evidence (e.g. Jackson and O' Dea, 2013), recent studies have advocated a much earlier closure (Montes et al., 2012). However, even advocates of an early closure admit that shallow inter-oceanic links may have persisted during Pliocene times. Brachidontes species occur in the intertidal zone and mangrove swamps, habitats to be expected in a scenario of shallow inter-oceanic connections (Lee and Ó Foighil, 2005).

Although there is much uncertainty associated with our estimates of divergence times based on molecular data, those estimates are consistent with biogeographic patterns and ecological


Fig. 4. Perumytilus clades. Mismatch distribution analysis (left) and Bayesian skyline plots (right). Mismatch distributions: observed frequencies (dotted line) and values expected under a sudden expansion model (continuous line); Harpending's raggedness index ( $r$ ) and $p$-values shown. Bayesian skyline plots show estimated log effective population size per generation time, through time (Mya); dotted line: median values, shaded band: $95 \%$ confidence interval. Top: North Clade, Bottom: South Clade.
information in supporting the hypothesis of a split between the two lineages before middle Miocene times, and after the opening of the Tasman Gateway during the Oligocene (ca. 31 Mya ; Nelson and Cooke, 2001), once circum-Antarctic circulation was established. There is a growing body of evidence demonstrating the role of the West Wind Drift (WDD), the surface current driven by strong westerly winds circling Antarctica, in the trans-Pacific dispersal of marine organisms (Waters, 2008). Dispersal of benthic organisms along the WWD is largely facilitated by rafting on kelp adrift (Fraser et al., 2013; Nikula et al., 2010; Zuccarello et al., 2008). Perumytilus and Austromytilus, however, do not appear to be prime candidates for rafting, in part because they are commonly found in the mid-intertidal zone of rocky shores, above the tide level where kelp usually attach. Thiel and Gutow (2005) compiled a list of 1205 species for which rafting was confirmed or inferred. Perumytilus was not recorded, even when the authors examined rafting in detail along the coasts of Chile. Also indicative of limited potential for medium to long range dispersal is the absence of Austromytilus from New Zealand and of Perumytilus from the Juan Fernandez Archipelago, 580-720 km west of the central Chilean coast. The latter has been colonized by other invertebrates originating in nearby South America, has plenty of rocky intertidal habitat, and the thermal regime is well within the bounds suitable to Perumytilus (Ramírez and Osorio, 2000). In the case of New Zealand, the ecological space typically occupied by members of the AMP clade in the intertidal zone of rocky shores is occupied by Limnoperna pulex (Lamarck) (Subfamily ARCUATULINAE), also present in the Antipode Islands, Tasmania and around the south coasts of Australia (but see Colgan and da Costa, 2013); Limnoperna has been well represented in New Zealand since the Miocene (Beu, 2006). With the exception of the Malvinas/Falkland Islands (relatively close to southern South America), brachidontins are absent as well from all the subantarctic islands under the influence of the WWD.

Vicariance, the default hypothesis for animals showing a southern Gondwanic pattern (SGP, Sanmartín and Ronquist, 2004), provides an alternative to dispersal. Vicariance would invoke a common ancestor distributed along the coasts of southern Australia, West Antarctica and southwest South America prior to the loss of shallow connection between the shelves of those continents and
following the incipient opening of the Drake Passage during the middle Eocene (ca. 41 Mya, Scher and Martin, 2006). Such a hypothesis would assume that brachidontins once existed in Antarctica, but got extinct later. Two fossil brachidontins have been reported from the Eocene of Antarctica (Beu, 2009), but based on conchological characters they do not appear to be related to the AMP clade.

While the hypothesis of trans-Pacificic dispersal of Austromytilus or Perumytilus (or a putative common ancestor) is not supported in present scenarios, the fossil record does not offer support for a Gondwanic connection involving Antarctica either. A third alternative would be dispersal in an early WWD scenario during the late Oligocene or early Miocene, post-dating Gondwanan fragmentation events (Burridge et al., 2012).

### 4.2. North and South clades of Perumytilus

The analysis of mithocondrial (COI) and nuclear (28S and 18S) sequences showed that the monotypic genus Perumytilus includes two divergent lineages designated here as North and South clades. Samples from the Chilean coast between $20^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ and $36^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ correspond to the North Clade, while those from locations south of $39^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ on the Pacific (Chile) and of $42^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ on the Atlantic (Argentina) correspond to the South Clade. These results were supported by haplotype network and genetic distance analyses (COI), and AMOVA (COI and 28 s ). Our findings lend support to the hypothesis that $P$. "purpuratus" actually consists of two genetically distinct clades, implied by Briones et al. (2012) as a possible explanation for their discovery of "intraspecific" sperm polymorphism. Based on samples from three locations on the Chilean coast, they showed geographic coherence in variation of sperm morphology and one molecular marker (16S). Their northern (Antofagasta and Valparaiso) and southern (Valdivia) groups fit into the latitudinal range for the two clades identified in our study, which are supported by three additional markers and samples from an extensive geographic range. Solving the taxonomic problem introduced by the two clades of $P$. "purpuratus" (Supplementary Materials SM6) is beyond the scope of this study.

Considering that the BRACHIDONTINAE, with the exception of the South Clade of Perumytilus, are distributed in warm and


Fig. 5. Latitudinal gradients of climatological sea-surface temperature (SST, 2008-2010) for the warmest (February, top) and coldest (August, bottom) months, with indication of locations where Perumytilus was sampled.
warm-temperate seas, we hypothesize that Perumytilus originated in the warm-temperate region of the southeast Pacific, matching the latitudinal range of the extant North Clade. This hypothesis is consistent with the paleontological record; the earliest fossil records of Perumytilus correspond to the late Pliocene-early Pleistocene of North-Central Chile, from Coquimbo to Antofagasta (Herm, 1969; Kiel and Nielsen, 2010; Ortlieb et al., 1996; Fig. 6A and Supplementary Materials SM7). Differentiation of the South Clade may have been initiated by a gradual range expansion into southern South America (the so called Magellanic Biogeographic Province) and concurrent adaptation of marginal populations to a cold-temperate thermal regime, leading to incipient peripatric differentiation (Fig. 6B). The molecular clock estimation of divergence time between the two clades at the Pliocene-Pleistocene transition is compatible with that hypothesis. Isolation of the two clades during Quaternary times is likely to have occurred as a result of extirpation of Perumytilus from much of southern Chile, when that region was repeatedly glaciated (Rabassa et al., 2005), resulting in a split between populations from non-glaciated coastlines in Central Chile and Atlantic Patagonia (Fig. 6C and Supplementary Materials SM7). Besides being vulnerable to ice scouring, like other epibenthic intertidal invertebrates, its thermal preferendum would limit occurrence even in non-glaciated pockets within glaciated areas. The South Clade presently thrives in regions where $\mathrm{SST}_{\text {min }}$ is above $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Along colder coastlines, Perumytilus is replaced by Mytilus sp. and Aulacomya ater as the dominant species in intertidal mussel beds (M. Adami, unpublished results), and is not ubiquitous in Holocene units around the Fuegian region (Gordillo, 1999; Gordillo et al., 2005). Furthermore, it is absent from a cold-temperate assemblage attributable to the last interglacial of the Fuegian region (Navarino Island, $54^{\circ} 56^{\prime}$ S), which has been well documented by Gordillo et al. (2010). A refugium in the coasts of Atlantic Patagonia, which were never glaciated (Rostami et al., 2000), is consistent with the earliest reliably dated records of Perumytilus from that region, which correspond to the last interglacial (Sangamon, Upper Pleistocene, ca. 110-130 Kya) from many sites between Cabo Raso ( $44^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ) and San Julián ( $49^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ); the mollusks of those sites are still living in the cold-temperate Magellanic Province (Aguirre et al., 2009, 2006, 2005; Feruglio, 1950).

We hypothesize that the South Clade expanded into southeastern Chile from the non-glaciated coasts of the southeast Atlantic as ice receded during interglacial periods (Fig. 6D), the latest one following the LGM, $\sim 18-20$ Kya (Rabassa et al., 2000). This should have resulted in a secondary contact zone between the two clades
in the relatively narrow latitudinal range where replacement between the clades takes place (Fig. 6D). That putative contact zone has not been investigated, but differences in sperm morphology described by Briones et al. (2012) may be indicative of reproductive isolation. Development of secondary contact or hybrid zones following range contraction into refugia during glacial maxima, and subsequent expansion during interglacials, is a well documented phenomenon, mostly in the Northern Hemisphere (Waters, 2011; Waters et al., 2013, p. 79). The contact region between the two Perumytilus clades is coincidental with two other well documented cases, both rocky shore algae. Two species-level lineages of Durvillea "antarctica" have a phylogeographic break between $36^{\circ} 36^{\prime}$ S and $39^{\circ} 49^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ (Fraser et al., 2009). One of the lineages ranges along the warm-temperate coasts of central Chile, while the other has a wide circum-subantarctic distribution, including southern Chile and most subantarctic islands (Fraser et al., 2010). The boundary between two putative sibling species of the red alga Mazzaella laminarioides is located within the range $37^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ to $38^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ (Montecinos et al., 2012). The south lineage is hypothesized to have originated in a glacial refugium area during the Pleistocene, from where it colonized the coasts of South Chile during the last post-glacial; unlike Perumytilus, the extant range of Mazzaella does not extend over the southwestern Atlantic (Boraso de Zaixso, 2013). These three cases illustrate a suite of plausible paths leading to a contact zone between cold and warm-temperate lineages in the southeast Pacific, following deglaciation of southern South America. Cases differ in the putative location of refugia for the cold-temperate lineages during glacial maxima: the southwestern Atlantic (Perumytilus, this study), pockets within glaciated southern Chile (Mazzaella; Montecinos et al., 2012), and non-glaciated areas outside South America, with propagules arriving via the West Wind Drift (Durvillea; Fraser et al., 2009). No single model is likely to explain the phylogeographic patterns resulting from the Quaternary glaciations of southern South America.

The finding that the supposedly monotypic Perumytilus actually consists of two clades adapted to different thermal regimes solves the apparent paradox of a species ranging over the warm-temperate region of the southeast Pacific but not along its Atlantic counterpart. The latitudinal/thermal range of Perumytilus' South Clade is consistent along both coasts of southern South America, with its northern limit defined by a median SST of approximately $13^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. It must be emphasized, however, that SST, usually treated as a surrogate of the thermal regimes experienced by marine organisms, is a


Fig. 6. Hypothetical events leading to speciation in Perumytilus. (A) Late Pliocene/early Pleistocene: North Clade confined to the warm-temperate region of the southeast Pacific. (B) initiation of peripatric differentiation of the South Clade following expansion into the cold-temperate Magellanic Province. (C) Pleistocene glaciations of southern Chile isolate the two clades, leading to speciation of the South Clade in the non-glaciated coasts of eastern Patagonia. (D) following de-glaciation of southern Chile the South Clade expands back to southern Chile; a secondary contact zone (SCZ) is established between the two clades.
coarse indicator in the case of intertidal organisms (Helmuth, 2009). North of its approximate thermal boundaries, the South Clade is replaced by the North Clade on the Pacific and by the warm-temperate Brachidontes rodriguezii on the Atlantic (Trovant et al., 2013), where the two species intermix in the same beds within the range $41^{\circ}-43^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ (Trovant et al., 2013). The latter replacement may prove a case of "high density blocking" (Waters, 2011; Waters et al., 2013), given that the lineage leading to the extant B. rodriguezii seems to have been present in that region since at least the upper Miocene (Trovant et al., 2013). This could explain why Perumytilus did not expand its range northwards on the Atlantic, even when there are no barriers to dispersal and it appears to be adaptable to a broad range of temperate thermal regimes.

### 4.3. Intra-clade genetic diversity in Perumytilus

Whereas the South Clade did not exhibit genetic structure across a wide geographical area, there was some indication of genetic differentiation betwween the northernmost (San Marcos) and southernmost sampled location (Coliumo) of the North Clade, as suggested by the significant $\Phi_{\mathrm{ST}}$ value. Expanded sampling, including the Peruvian coasts, will be required to fully understand geographic differentiation in the North Clade. Populations from warm-temperate regions have greater phylogeographical structure due to survival and divergence at times when populations at higher latitudes were exposed to glaciation. In many cases the low latitude end of a species range functioned as a refugium, from where populations expanded back during postglacial recolonization (Provan and Bennett, 2008). In general, temperate species are less genetically diverse at the higher latitudes into which they expanded during deglaciation, but this varies with niche and geographical setting (Hewitt, 2004; Provan and Bennett, 2008). There is growing evidence indicating that during the last glacial maximum the central/northern coasts of Chile provided a refuge for several marine taxa (Fraser et al., 2010), possibly including the North Clade of Perumytilus, as discussed earlier.

Lack of structure, as observed in the South Clade, could be also explained as the result of gene flow, even in the absence of recent expansion and separation into sub-populations. While advective environments and pelagic larvae are expected to facilitate extensive gene flow (Kelly and Palumbi, 2010; Selkoe and Toonen, 2011), recent studies suggest that larval retention is more frequent than previously thought (Levin, 2006). Furthermore, low and nonsignificant $\Phi_{\text {ST }}$ values, low nucleotide diversity coupled with high haplotype diversity, lack of correlation between genetic and geographic distance, and the rejection of null hypotheses by three tests of neutrality (or population expansion) with no evidence of selection in the COI marker, all suggest that the lack of structure of the South Clade of Perumytilus is due to a recent population expansion.

The hypothesis of rapid expansion of populations in Perumytilus in the southwestern Atlantic after the LGM is well supported in two other cases: the rocky-shore limpet Nacella magellanica (de Aranzamendi et al., 2011; González-Wevar et al., 2011) and Eleginops maclovinus, a fish common in the coastal zone (Ceballos et al., 2012). At the time of the LGM the coasts of the southwestern Atlantic, which were never glaciated during the Quaternary, run far to the east of their present location (Rostami et al., 2000); most of the Patagonian Shelf was exposed, forming extensive plains (Ponce et al., 2011). As the latter were gradually flooded in postLGM times, coastscapes were dominated by low coastlines and depositional environments (Fray and Ewing, 1963). Geographically restricted rocky shores were novel habitats, presumably populated by unsaturated assemblages. This was the likely ecological scenario encountered by expanding populations of rocky shore organisms, like Perumytilus and Nacella, during post-LGM times. Unsaturation
appears to persist into present days, as attested by conspicuous absences noticed by community ecologists (Olivier et al., 1966a, 1966b). A flurry of recent, ecologically significant invasions of rocky shore habitats (Hidalgo et al., 2005; Orensanz et al., 2002; Schwindt et al., 2008), may be the most recent chapter of the rapid post-LGM population expansions discussed above.

## 5. Conclusions

Phylogenies based on two nuclear (28S and 18S) and one mitochondrial (COI) genes revealed that the monophyletic BRACHIDONTINAE consist of three well supported clades: [i] Brachidontes Swainson (including Hormomya Mörch) + Mytilaster Monterosato, [ii] Ischadium Jukes-Brown + Geukensia van de Poel, and [iii] Austromytilus Lasseron + Mytilisepta Habe (often considered a member of the SEPTIFERINAE) + Perumytilus Olsson. Members of the latter clade are distributed along the temperate coasts of the Pacific Ocean. Split between Perumytilus (South American) and Austromytilus (Australian) could possibly have involve [i] vicariance following the breakdown of shelf connections between southern Australia, Antarctica and southern South America during the Eocene, and [ii] dispersal (most likely by algal rafting) after cir-cum-Antarctic circulation was established during the Oligocene, although the two genera appear to be poor rafters. Perumytilus is shown to include two genetically distinct clades, one confined to the warm-temperate Chile-Peru Province and the other to the cold-temperate Magellanic Biogeographic Province; the latter is the only brachidontin restricted to cold-temperate waters. Consistent with the fossil record, it is hypothesized that differentiation of the cold-temperate clade originated from budding-off from rangeedge populations of the warm-temperate clade, adaptation to a colder thermal regime, and gradual expansion along the coasts of Patagonia. During Quaternary glacial maxima populations from southern Chile were likely extirpated, and populations from central Chile and the southwest Atlantic remained separated by long periods (the last culminating in the LGM) from those in non-glaciated eastern Patagonia. After ice receded, the range of the South Clade presumably expanded back, a secondary contact zone being established between the two clades within a relatively narrow latitudinal range between Valdivia ( $39^{\circ} 48^{\prime}$ S ) and Concepcion ( $36^{\circ} 49^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ ). Northwards expansion into the warm-temperate region of the southwestern Atlantic may have been constrained by high-density blocking involving interaction with Brachidontes rodriguezii.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2014. 10.002 .

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