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6 **Cryptic species and colonization processes in *Ophryotrocha* (Annelida,**

7 **Dorvilleidae) inhabiting vertebrate remains the shallow-water Mediterranean**

8 **Abstract**

9 Taboada, S., Leiva, C., Bas, M., Schult, N. & McHugh D. (2016). Cryptic species and
10 colonization processes in *Ophryotrocha* (Annelida, Dorvilleidae) inhabiting vertebrate
11 remains the shallow-water Mediterranean. *Zoologica Scripta*, 00, 000000.

12 Over the past several years, there has been growing interest in how bones of decaying
13 mammals are colonized in the marine seabed. One of the most common opportunistic
14 taxa occurring worldwide on bones are dorvilleid polychaetes of the genus
15 *Ophryotrocha*. In a recent study in the Mediterranean, *Ophryotrocha puerilis* and
16 *Ophryotrocha alborana* were two of the most abundant species occurring in
17 experimentally deployed bones. These species have direct development and this make
18 them a suitable model to study the mechanisms and processes allowing organisms
19 lacking a dispersive larval phase to colonize new substrates. Here we address the
20 colonization processes at the molecular level for the populations of *O. puerilis* and *O.*
21 *alborana* on experimentally deployed mammal bones in the shallow-water
22 Mediterranean collected over a year at 3-month intervals. High genetic distances
23 between some of the *O. puerilis* organisms collected, indicated the occurrence of at least
24 two cryptic sibling species (*O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’) apart from *O.*
25 *puerilis sensu stricto*. This was corroborated after phylogenetic analyses using an
26 alignment of three concatenated genes (*COI*, *16S*, *H3*) and after implementing species
27 delimitation analyses using *COI*. The haplotype network inferred from *COI* sequences
28 for *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’, identified a few common haplotypes shared between the two
29 trimesters analyzed and several other less represented haplotypes only present in one
30 trimester. Thus, colonization of these experimental bones may have been achieved by a
31 few organisms that arrived to the bones and were able to reseed, and by several
32 individuals arriving to the experimental bones and not persisting across time.
33 Contrastingly, *O. alborana* haplotype network revealed that none of the haplotypes
34 present in three different trimesters were shared, suggesting that the populations
35 arriving at the bones during each trimester were totally replaced by new individuals
36 during the subsequent trimesters. Our study suggests that different species of shallow-
37 water *Ophryotrocha* occurring in the Mediterranean may have different patterns of
38 substrate colonization despite sharing similar life histories.

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48 **Introduction**

49 In the marine benthos, the establishment and maintenance of populations and
50 assemblages of invertebrates on new free substrates typically rely on larval recruitment,
51 or colonization by juveniles or adults in species that lack larval dispersal. For organisms
52 with very specific habitat requirements, which narrow their possibilities to thrive to a
53 limited range of habitats, the timing and sequence in which species appear in
54 assemblages have been documented in some cases (*e.g.* Vrijenhoek *et al.* 2008;
55 Fukasawa *et al.* 2015), but there is only limited understanding of the processes and
56 dynamics of dispersal and colonization patterns by individual species. This is the case,
57 for example, for organisms adapted to live in organically enriched habitats. Whether
58 anthropogenically induced (*e.g.* sediment beneath fish farms, harbours) or naturally
59 occurring (*e.g.* decaying mammal bones), organically enriched habitats harbour a
60 plethora of opportunistic and specialist species that differ from those commonly found
61 in background communities (Pearson & Rosenberg 1978; Rouse *et al.* 2004; Taboada *et al.*
62 *et al.* 2016).

63 Over the past several years, there has been growing interest in marine
64 invertebrates associated with decaying mammal bones (*e.g.* whale-falls) and how the
65 bones are colonized by a diversity of microbial and macrofaunal species (*e.g.* Rouse *et al.*
66 *et al.* 2004; Goffredi *et al.* 2005; Treude *et al.* 2009; Vrijenhoek *et al.* 2008; Wiklund *et al.*
67 *et al.* 2009a, b; Taboada *et al.* 2013, 2015b, 2016; Silva *et al.* 2016). Submerged bone
68 remains of large whale carcasses become long-lasting islands of organic matter in an
69 otherwise oligotrophic environment, giving shelter and providing nutrition to a variety
70 of marine invertebrates (Smith 2006). Rich chemoautotrophic communities, including
71 sulphide-oxidizing free-living bacteria and endosymbionts, thrive on these bones,
72 making the organic matter retained in the bones available to a variety of macrofaunal
73 invertebrates, the majority of which are polychaete annelids (Goffredi *et al.* 2005; Smith
74 2006; Treude *et al.* 2009). Due to the sparse and unpredictable occurrence of these
75 substrates, several of these polychaete species rely on their larval dispersal capacities to
76 colonize them and thus ensure their continuation in other distant habitats. Perhaps one
77 of the most prominent examples of this are species of the genus *Osedax*. These
78 siboglinid polychaetes, commonly known as bone-eating worms, are specialist
79 organisms associated with bones; they have lecithotrophic trochophore larvae, that

80 presumably disperse across long distances to colonize bone habitats up to thousands of
81 kilometers apart (Vrijenhoek *et al.* 2008; Taboada *et al.* 2015b).

82 Apart from specialists, bones are also known to harbour several opportunistic
83 polychaete species from different families (see Smith 2006; Wiklund *et al.* 2009a, b;
84 Taboada *et al.* 2013, 2015a, 2016; Silva *et al.* 2016). Many of these opportunistic
85 species seem adapted to thrive in extreme conditions of low oxygen and elevated H₂S
86 concentrations. They often reach large population sizes, likely due to the fact that they
87 usually reach sexual maturity relatively rapidly, have short generation times and
88 undergo direct development (Pearson & Rosenberg 1978). Once they colonize a suitable
89 habitat, these opportunistic species are able to exploit very efficiently organically rich
90 substrates, which are often widely separated and ephemeral, thanks to their life history
91 features. However, the mechanisms and processes that allow opportunistic organisms
92 lacking a dispersive larval phase to colonize new substrates are not well understood.

93 One of the most common opportunistic taxa occurring worldwide on bones are
94 members of the dorvilleid polychaete genus *Ophryotrocha*, which mostly feed on
95 filamentous *Beggiatoa*-like bacteria developing on bones (Wiklund *et al.* 2009a, 2012;
96 Taboada *et al.* 2013, 2016). In the Mediterranean, different species of *Ophryotrocha*
97 have recently been reported in mammal bones (Taboada *et al.* 2016), although most of
98 them are well known dwellers of anthropogenically enriched habitats (*e.g.* Simonini *et*
99 *al.* 2010; Paxton & Åkesson 2011). In a recent study, Taboada *et al.* (2016) monitored
100 the invertebrate communities colonizing experimentally deployed mammal bones in the
101 shallow-water Mediterranean Sea over the course of a year, and found that
102 *Ophryotrocha puerilis* Claparède & Metschnikow, 1869 and *Ophryotrocha alborana*
103 Paxton & Åkesson, 2011 were two of the most abundant species occurring in the bones.
104 *Ophryotrocha puerilis* appeared in the bones as an early colonizer, while the recently
105 described *O. alborana* seemed to replace the former between the second and fourth
106 trimesters after bone deployment. Interestingly, both species appeared to differ in the
107 way they colonized bones: while *O. puerilis* appeared to colonize bones through
108 multiple colonization events over the course of the year, only one independent event of
109 colonization was inferred for *O. alborana* from the size-frequency analyses performed
110 for both species (Taboada *et al.* 2016). *Ophryotrocha puerilis* is a protandrous, species
111 with direct development and parental care, able to perform sex reversal several times

112 during its life (Åkesson 1973), while *O. alborana* is a simultaneous hermaphroditic
113 species with direct development originally described from the SW Mediterranean Sea
114 (Paxton & Åkesson 2011).

115 Here, we address the colonization processes of the populations of *O. puerilis* and
116 *O. alborana* collected during the study by Taboada *et al.* (2016) using a molecular
117 approach. Due to the lack of a larval phase, both species are presumed to have limited
118 dispersal capabilities and represent an interesting case to investigate the patterns of
119 colonization of new substrates. Drawing on phylogeographic analyses of a fragment of
120 the mitochondrial cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I (*COI*) gene for worms sampled from
121 experimentally deployed bones at several sites across time, we aimed: (i) to establish
122 whether both *O. puerilis* and *O. alborana* appeared in the experimentally deployed
123 bones after one or more events of colonization; and (ii) to determine whether
124 populations of these two species changed over time in the bones. Due to the relatively
125 high genetic distances between some of the *O. puerilis* organisms collected for the
126 molecular study, we also carried out species delimitation analyses to investigate the
127 occurrence of cryptic species and performed phylogenetic analyses using three genes
128 (*COI*, *16S* rDNA –*16S*–, *Histone H3* –*H3*–) to place them within their phylogenetic
129 context.

130 **Material and Methods**

131 *Sample collection and preservation*

132 Details about the experimental design to obtain *Ophryotrocha puerilis* and
133 *Ophryotrocha alborana* specimens associated with mammal bones are found in
134 Taboada *et al.* (2016). Briefly, bones from a caudal fin of a common minke whale
135 (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata* Lacépède, 1804) [Wh], and vertebrae from cows (*Bos*
136 *taurus* Linnaeus, 1758) [Cw] and pigs (*Sus domesticus* Erxleben, 1777) [Pg] were
137 experimentally deployed at about 20 m depth on the seabed of the Mediterranean coast
138 of Blanes (NW Mediterranean, 41° 40.536' N, 2° 48.839' E) in March 2011 (Fig. 1,
139 Table 1). Bones were deployed on three different habitats: rocky bottoms [Ro], sandy
140 bottoms [Sa], and a *Posidonia oceanica* (Linnaeus) Delile, 1813 meadow [Po], and
141 three replicates per type of bone were removed every three months (trimester 1–4 [T1–
142 4]) at each of the substrates (Table 1). Bone samples were collected by SCUBA-diving
143 and taken to the laboratory at the Department of Evolutionary Biology, Ecology and
144 Environmental Science, Faculty of Biology, Universitat de Barcelona (Spain). Once
145 there, bones were placed into individual containers with filtered seawater (0.22- μ m)
146 without supplementary oxygen forcing the system to become anoxic in order to force
147 the animals to leave the bones and be easily collected. Individuals of *O. puerilis* and *O.*
148 *alborana* inhabiting the bones were collected, transferred to petri dishes with filtered
149 seawater and left overnight to eliminate gut content. Prior to preservation, organisms
150 were anesthetized in a 7 % solution of MgCl₂ in freshwater, observed *in vivo* and
151 photographed under a stereo-microscope, and finally fixed in absolute ethanol and
152 stored at -20 °C. Not every sampling event yielded *Ophryotrocha* (see Table 1).

153 Although to our knowledge there is no information available about the duration
154 of the life cycle for *O. puerilis* and *O. alborana*, for other congeneric species sexual
155 maturity is attained after 18–51 days (*e.g.* Åkesson 1970; Paavo *et al.* 2000; Simonini &
156 Prevedelli 2003). Hence it is likely that sampling every three-months would ensure that
157 at least one new generation of worms was surveyed.

158 In addition, *O. puerilis* was collected from other either naturally-occurring or
159 experimentally deployed bones (Fig. 1; Table 1). This included a seagull bone [Sg]
160 collected in 2013 [13] at ~10 m on a sandy bottom [Sa] by SCUBA-diving close to the
161 area where experimentally bones were deployed 41° 40.407' N, 2° 48.308' E (Seagull

162 Control: Fig. 1, Table 1). It also included whale bones [Wh] inside wire cages
163 experimentally deployed at ~ 10 m in Blanes Harbour [Ha] in 2014 [14] and 2015 [15]
164 41° 40.468' N, 2° 47.943' E in July 2014 and January 2015, respectively (Harbour
165 Control 14–15: Fig. 1 Table 1). Finally, whale bones [Wh] were also deposited at 53 m
166 at the head of Blanes submarine canyon [Sc] 41°40.258' N 2°53.388' E in October 2013
167 (Blanes submarine canyon Control: Fig. 1, Table 1). Preservation of specimens was
168 carried out as described above.

169 All the specimens identified as *O. puerilis* shared a similar body shape, two
170 antennae and two palps, two slanted and bright eyes, a similar shape of parapodial
171 lobes, and two anal cirri without median stylus. All the specimens identified as *O.*
172 *alborana* also shared a similar body shape, two small antennae, two slanted red eyes, a
173 similar shape of parapodial lobes, mammillate rosette glands in the posterior segments,
174 and two anal cirri without median stylus.

175

176 *DNA extraction and amplification*

177 Total DNA was extracted using QIAamp DNA Micro Kit (Qiagen, www.qiagen.com)
178 or the REDExtract-N-Amp kit (Sigma-Aldrich, www.sigma.com) from a few segments
179 of the mid part of the body of *O. puerilis* and *O. alborana* (Table 1). About 600 bp of
180 *cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI)* were amplified for 155 individuals of *O. puerilis*
181 and 33 for *O. alborana* to conduct demographic analysis (see below). Primers used were
182 those of Folmer *et al.* (1994) or the following previously unpublished primers:
183 MegaCO1-F [5'-TAYTCWACWAAAYCAYAAAGAYAATGG-3'] and MegaCO1-R
184 [5'-TAKACTTCTGGRTGMCCAAARAATC-3']. In addition, for 28 individuals of *O.*
185 *puerilis* and *O. alborana*, about 360 bp of *Histone H3 (H3)* (Colgan *et al.* 2000) and
186 460 bp of *16S rDNA (16S)* (Palumbi 1996) were amplified and sequenced to
187 corroborate their taxonomic identification and compared with the existing
188 *Ophryotrocha* sequences available in the NCBI database (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). Each
189 PCR reaction mix contained 4 µl MgCl₂, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 1 µl PCR buffer, 0.5 µl Taq
190 DNA polymerase (Invitrogen), 0.125 µg/µl BSA, 1 µl primers (F and R), and H₂O to
191 reach a final reaction volume of 10 µl; 2 µl of genomic DNA was used in each reaction.
192 For amplification, the following PCR protocols were used for *COI* [94 °C/3 min – (94
193 °C/30 s – 48 °C/1 min – 72 °C 1 min) x 40 cycles – 72 °C/5 min], for *H3* [94 °C/3 min –

194 (94 °C/30 s – 60–53 °C/1 min – 72 °C 1 min) x 7 cycles – (94 °C/30 s – 53 °C/1 min – 72
195 °C 1 min) x 20 cycles 72 °C/5 min], and for *16S* [94 °C/3 min – (94 °C/30 s – 60–48
196 °C/1 min – 72 °C 1 min) x 12 cycles – (94 °C/30 s – 48 °C/1 min – 72 °C 1 min) x 20
197 cycles 72 °C/5 min]. PCR products were sequenced at the facilities of the Scientific and
198 Technological Centers, Universitat de Barcelona (CCiT-UB) and at Colgate University
199 on an ABI 3130A Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems), using the primers mentioned
200 above. All the new sequences obtained in this study used for phylogenetic and
201 demographic analyses are deposited in NCBI GenBank (accession numbers KY378402–
202 KY378645).

203

204 *Phylogenetic analysis*

205 Molecular phylogenetic analyses of *Ophryotrocha* were conducted using data sets for
206 *COI*, *16S*, and *H3* using sequences available in NCBI and sequences obtained in this
207 study (Suppl. Mat. Table S1). In total, 67 terminal taxa were used in the analysis
208 including 59 *Ophryotrocha*, *Iphitime hartmanae* Kirkegaard, 1977 and *Exallopus*
209 *jumarsi* Blake, 1985; seven taxa representing the dorvilleid genera *Parougia*, *Dorvillea*,
210 and *Protodrovillea*; and the eunicid *Eunice pennata* (Müller, 1776) as an outgroup for
211 tree rooting. For *O. puerilis* and *O. alborana* in our study we selected the organisms
212 displaying the most divergent *COI* haplotypes to be included in the phylogenetic
213 analyses. Overlapping sequence fragments were assembled into consensus sequences
214 using the software Geneious vs. 8.1.7 (Drummond *et al.* 2010), and aligned using Q-
215 INS-I option of MAFFT (Kato *et al.* 2002). The most appropriate evolutionary model
216 for each gene (GTR+I+G for all the markers genes) was obtained by running the
217 alignments in jModelTest (Posada 2008) via the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). A
218 combined analysis using the three concatenated genes was conducted using Maximum
219 Likelihood analyses (ML) with RAxML (Stamatakis 2006; Stamatakis *et al.* 2008) and
220 Bayesian inference analyses (BI) with MrBayes 3.1.2 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck
221 2003). ML were run using 10 heuristic searches (SPR and NNI) and robustness of the
222 nodes was determined with 10 runs and 500 replicates using the GTR+I+G evolutionary
223 model; concatenated sequences were partitioned by gene and protein coding genes (*H3*
224 and *COI*) were partitioned into codon positions. BI analyses were run twice for each
225 dataset with four chains for 2.5 million generations (25 % trees discarded as burn-in)

226 sampling a tree every 1,000 generations; partition codons were used for *H3* and *COI*
227 and the best evolutionary models previously inferred for every gene were applied.
228 Convergence among chains, mixing within chains (i.e., ESS values) and the number of
229 burn-in generations were monitored with the program TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut *et al.*
230 2014). Results were visualized in FigTree v.1.4.2 (Rambaut 2006).

231

232 *Species delimitation analysis*

233 Since our phylogenetic results pointed to the possible occurrence of three different
234 species among the specimens identified as *O. puerilis* (*O. puerilis sensu stricto*, *O.*
235 *puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’; see Results section), we tested the molecular
236 boundaries of these groups of organisms through two commonly used species
237 delimitation analyses: the Poisson Tree Processes model (PTP; Zhang *et al.* 2013) and
238 the Automatic Barcode Gap Discovery (ABGD; Puillandre *et al.* 2012). For PTP
239 analyses we used a rooted BI phylogenetic tree (analyses were run twice for each
240 dataset with four chains for 10 million generations, 25 % trees discarded as burn-in,
241 sampling a tree every 1,000 generations) for the *COI* partition including all the terminal
242 taxa included in the phylogenetic analyses, all the haplotypes of *O. puerilis* and *O.*
243 *alborana* used in our study, and a selection of *COI* sequences for the species
244 *Ophryotrocha cyclops* Salvo, Wiklund, Dufour, Hamoutene, Pohle & Worsaae, 2014,
245 *O. orensanzi*, and *Ophryotrocha labronica* Bacci & La Greca, 1961 available in NCBI;
246 for *O. labronica* we also included three *COI* sequences from individuals collected in
247 Blanes harbour (*O. labronica* WhHa14_13-15). PTP was run in the bPTP server
248 (<http://species.h-its.org/ptp/>), a Bayesian implementation of the PTP model for species
249 delimitation, using 100,000 generations for the Markov chains with a thinning of 100
250 and a burn-in of 0.1. Convergence was checked using the log likelihood for the MCMC
251 iterations after thinning in the above mentioned web server. For ABGD analyses we
252 used an unrooted alignment including all the haplotypes of *O. puerilis* and *O. alborana*
253 used in our study, together with all the available *Ophryotrocha COI* sequences in NCBI
254 having more than one sequence per species (also including the three individuals of *O.*
255 *labronica* collected in Blanes harbour mentioned earlier). ABGD was run in the ABGD
256 web server (<http://wwwabi.snv.jussieu.fr/public/abgd/abgdweb.html>) using the default

257 values for the Jukes-Cantor and Kimura distances and also applying a relative gap width
258 (X) of 10.

259 In addition, minimum genetic distances based on uncorrected p -distance and
260 Kimura 2 parameters (K2p) models were calculated using MEGA vs. 5.2.2 (Tamura *et al.*
261 *al.* 2011); the default parameters were used to calculate distances between and within
262 the three lineages originally identified as *O. puerilis* but phylogenetically separated (*O.*
263 *puerilis sensu stricto*, *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’) and within *O.*
264 *alborana*. Also, genetic distances were calculated for the three lineages of *O. puerilis*
265 with respect to the other species of *Ophryotrocha* in the analysis. These distances were
266 calculated using the *COI* alignment used in the phylogenetic analyses and also the *COI*
267 alignment used for the demographic analysis (see Demographic analysis section below).

268

269 *Demographic analysis*

270 *COI* sequences of *O. alborana* and *O. puerilis* (including separately *O. puerilis sensu*
271 *stricto*, *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’; see *Species delimitation analysis*
272 section above) were aligned in Geneious vs. 8.1.7 using Q-INS-I option of MAFFT and
273 checked manually. Polymorphic sites and levels of DNA polymorphism were calculated
274 for each lineage on each substrate using DnaSP vs. 5.10.1 (Librado & Rozas 2009), and
275 included number of haplotypes (H), private haplotypes (H_p), haplotype diversity (H_d),
276 and nucleotide diversity (π). Haplotype richness (H_r) was also calculated with the
277 program CONTRIB (Petit *et al.* 1998) after rarefaction using the minimum sample size
278 for each population.

279 *COI* alignments of *O. alborana*, *O. puerilis sensu stricto*, *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’
280 and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ were used to construct unrooted haplotype networks with the
281 program PopART (<http://popart.otago.ac.nz>) using the Median Joining network option
282 (Bandelt *et al.* 1999).

283 A hierarchical analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) using genetic distances
284 was used to assess differentiation between the trimesters in *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’
285 samples from the first and second trimester (WhRoT1 and WhSaT1; WhRoT2 and
286 CwRoT2). Significance was tested by running 20,000 permutations in *Arlequin* vs.
287 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier & Lischer 2010) using the standard AMOVA computation.

288 Finally, in order to test whether bones from the head of the Blanes canyon

289 (WhSc13) had a different pattern of number of individuals per haplotype we ran a set of
290 one-way ANOVAs using the program *StatPlus:mac* vs. 5.9.92 (AnalystSoft Inc.
291 www.analystsoft.com/en/products/statplusmac/). Comparisons were made after (i)
292 aggregating the haplotypes from the different bones for the three lineages (*O. puerilis*
293 *sensu stricto*, *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’), (ii) considering all bones
294 from the different lineages separately, and (iii) considering all bones from the different
295 lineages separately but only using the ones with more than 10 individuals per bone.

296 **Results**

297 *Phylogenetic analysis*

298 The consensus tree obtained from the Bayesian (BI) analysis of the concatenated
299 alignment (Fig. 2) also summarizes the support recovered from the Maximum
300 Likelihood (ML) analysis. The concatenated alignment consisted of 1,309 bp (528 bp of
301 *COI*, 460 bp of *16S*, and 321 bp of *H3*). Both BI and ML analyses recovered similar
302 topologies and the three major clades previously defined within *Ophryotrocha*, namely
303 ‘*labronica*’, ‘*hartmanni*’ and ‘*lobifera*’ clades (see Taboada *et al.* 2013), were
304 recovered, although with moderate support. The newly sequenced *O. alborana*
305 specimens included in our study clustered together with the previously available
306 sequence for the species. Samples morphologically identified here as *O. puerilis* formed
307 a monophyletic group of three distinct well-supported lineages, with *Ophryotrocha*
308 *eutrophila* as the sister group (Fig. 2). All the samples collected from the Blanes
309 harbour and one sample from the shallow experimental bones clustered together with *O.*
310 *puerilis* from NCBI (lineage ‘*O. puerilis sensu stricto*’), and this group was sister to *O.*
311 *puerilis siberti* (Fig. 2). The lineage ‘*O. puerilis sensu stricto*’ together with *O. puerilis*
312 *siberti* formed the sister group to the majority of the samples collected from the shallow
313 experimental bones and the ones from the Seagull control –SgSa13– (lineage ‘*O.*
314 *puerilis* Shallow’). Finally, the lineage ‘*O. puerilis sensu stricto*’ together with *O.*
315 *puerilis siberti* and the subclade ‘*O. puerilis* Shallow’ formed the sister group to the
316 lineage ‘*O. puerilis* Deep’, which comprised all the samples collected at the head of the
317 Blanes submarine canyon –WhSc13– (Fig. 2).

318

319 *Species delimitation analysis*

320 To test the possible occurrence of different species within the *O. puerilis* complex
321 identified in the phylogenetic tree (lineages ‘*O. puerilis sensu stricto*’, ‘*O. puerilis*
322 *Shallow*’ and ‘*O. puerilis* Deep’; Fig. 2), we used ABGD, bPTP, and also calculated
323 pairwise genetic distances within and between the lineages. ABGD clearly
324 differentiated the three lineages of *O. puerilis* identified in our phylogenetic tree as
325 three different species and also supported all individuals of *O. alborana* as members of
326 the same species. ABGD additionally recovered other *Ophryotrocha* species included
327 in the analyses as separate species, and separated as two different species the two

328 lineages of *O. labronica* corresponding to the two haplogroups defined by Cossu *et al.*
329 (2015) including also the three individuals we collected in Blanes harbour (*O. labronica*
330 Wh-Ha-14_13-15). Interestingly, these two *O. labronica* species inferred here do not
331 cluster together with the original *COI* sequence available in NCBI for *O. labronica*
332 (GQ415479) (Suppl. Mat. Table S2).

333 bPTP analysis identified *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ as a separate species with
334 moderate support, and displayed low support identifying two different species within *O.*
335 *puerilis* ‘Deep’ and eight within *O. puerilis sensu stricto* (Suppl. Fig. 1). bPTP also
336 recovered up to eight species within *O. alborana* with moderate support. As for the rest
337 of the *Ophryotrocha* species included in the analyses, bPTP consistently recovered all
338 the species as separate species (with moderate support) except for the case of *O.*
339 *labronica*. In this case, the two species inferred here corresponded to the two
340 haplogroups identified in the study by Cossu *et al.* (2015) and also include the three
341 individuals of specimens collected in Blanes harbour (*O. labronica* Wh-Ha-14_13-15).
342 As for ABGD analyses, these two *O. labronica* species inferred here do not cluster
343 together with the original *COI* sequence available in NCBI for *O. labronica*
344 (GQ415479) (Suppl. Fig. 1).

345 The within-species genetic divergence was the lowest for individuals of *O.*
346 *puerilis* ‘Shallow’ (ranging from 0.0 to 2.6 % –average 0.85 %– and from 0.0 to 2.5 % –
347 average 0.83 %– for K2p and *p*-distance, respectively), while it was the highest for
348 individuals of *O. puerilis sensu stricto* (ranging from 0.0 to 8.5 % –average 3.52 %–
349 and from 0.0 to 7.4 % –average 3.16– for K2p and *p*-distance, respectively) (Table 2).
350 Average pairwise genetic distances (K2p and *p*-distance, respectively) were 28.3 % and
351 19.8 % between *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis sensu stricto*, 30.3 % and 21.0 %
352 between *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’, and 34.5 % and 22.8 % between
353 *O. puerilis sensu stricto* and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ (Table 2). This leaves gaps in genetic
354 distances within and between these lineages of greater than 25 % (K2P) or 15 % (*p*-
355 distance). When comparing these three species with their closest phylogenetically
356 related taxa, the lowest genetic distances were detected between *O. puerilis siberti* and
357 *O. puerilis sensu stricto* (25.5 % and 18.4 %), and *O. eutrophila* and *O. puerilis sensu*
358 *stricto* (29.5 % and 20.7 %), while the highest genetic distances were detected between

359 *O. puerilis siberti* and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ (34.7 % and 23.0 %) and *O. eutrophila* and *O.*
360 *puerilis* ‘Shallow’ (31.4 % and 21.6 %) (Table 2).

361

362 *Demographic analysis*

363 A 573 bp fragment (571 bp excluding missing data) of *COI* was analyzed for 33
364 individuals of *O. alborana* collected from three experimental bones from three different
365 trimesters (PgRoT2, CwPoT3, CwRoT4; Table 3). In total, 27 polymorphic sites (4.7
366 %), 13 of them parsimony informative, and 18 different haplotypes were found in the
367 dataset: H1–H5, H7–H8, H10–H11 (private haplotypes in PgRoT2), H12 (private
368 haplotype in CwPoT3), and H9 (2 individuals in CwRoT4) (Fig. 3A). The five most
369 common haplotypes accounted for 66 % of the total number of individuals and were
370 particular from each substrate (H1 and H2 in CwPoT3, H4 in CwRoT4, and H11 and
371 H17 in PgRoT2; Fig. 3A). Haplotype diversity was 0.936 ± 0.024 and nucleotide
372 diversity 0.009 ± 0.001 (Table 3).

373 A total of 482 bp of *COI* were obtained from 100 individuals of *O. puerilis*
374 ‘Shallow’ from four experimental bones from two different trimesters (WhSaT1,
375 WhRoT1, WhRoT2 and CwRoT2) and two controls (SgSa13 and WhHa15; Table 3). In
376 total, 57 polymorphic sites (10.8 %), 25 of them parsimony informative, and 41
377 different haplotypes (28 of which were private: 18 in the organisms from the
378 experiments and 10 in the controls; Table 3) were found in the dataset. The five most
379 common haplotypes in *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ (H1–H5), all of them having more than 5
380 individuals per haplotype, accounted for 52 % of the total sample (Fig. 3B). Three of
381 the most common haplotypes (H1–H3) were present in the majority of substrates from
382 both experiments (sharing samples from different trimesters) and controls, while the
383 other two (H4 and H5) were present only in two substrates; haplotypes H1–H4 were
384 present in samples from the two trimesters (Fig. 3B). Haplotype diversity ranged from
385 0.930 ± 0.015 to 0.965 ± 0.024 when considering separately the samples from the
386 experiments and the controls, and was 0.937 ± 0.013 for the whole dataset (Table 3).
387 Nucleotide diversity was 0.008 ± 0.001 in the experiments, 0.009 ± 0.001 for the controls,
388 and 0.008 ± 0.001 for the whole dataset (Table 3). AMOVA results comparing the
389 samples from the two trimestres (WhRoT1 and WhSaT1; WhRoT2 and CwRoT2)

390 showed no significant structuring across sites or trimesters and the greatest genetic
391 variability was retained within samples (89.62 %; $p < 0.00001$).

392 For *O. puerilis sensu stricto* a *COI* alignment of 482 bp was obtained from a
393 total of 30 individuals, three of which belonged to one experimental bone (WhRoT1)
394 and the rest to the controls at Blanes harbour (WhHa14 and WhHa15; Table 3). A total
395 of 64 polymorphic sites (13.3 %), 37 of them parsimony informative and 13 haplotypes
396 were found in the dataset. Two haplotypes (H1–H2) accounted for 50 % of the total
397 individuals in the sampling and only H3 was shared between two different substrates
398 but from the same locality (WhHa14 and WhHa15; Fig. 3C). Haplotype diversity and
399 nucleotide diversity varied greatly between samples from the experimental bone and the
400 controls and was 0.871 ± 0.043 , and 0.0311 ± 0.00468 for the whole dataset (Table 3).

401 Finally, for *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ a *COI* alignment of 482 bp was obtained from a
402 total of 25 individuals collected from a single whale bone (WhSc13; Table 3). A total of
403 29 polymorphic sites (6.0 %), 25 of them parsimony informative, and five haplotypes
404 were found. Two of the haplotypes were private (H4 and H5) and the most common
405 haplotype (H1) accounted for 60 % of the total individuals (Fig. 3D). Haplotype
406 diversity and nucleotide diversity was 0.610 ± 0.094 and 0.017 ± 0.005 , respectively
407 (Table 3). No significant difference was found when comparing the pattern in the
408 number of haplotypes between *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ and the rest of samples from the two
409 other species.

410 **Discussion**411 *Phylogenetic and species delimitation analyses*

412 Both our phylogenetic and species delimitation analyses unambiguously indicate that
413 two new *Ophryotrocha* species closely related to *O. puerilis* occur in the shallow NW
414 Mediterranean. On the basis of our results, we propose that the two reciprocally
415 monophyletic lineages referred to here as *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’
416 represent two new cryptic species of the genus *Ophryotrocha*. These two new
417 *Ophryotrocha* species should be regarded as sibling species of *O. puerilis* and *O.*
418 *puerilis siberti* based on the strongly supported sister-species relationships among them
419 (Fig. 2), which suggests relatively early divergence within *Ophryotrocha*. To our
420 knowledge, this brings the number of *Ophryotrocha* species known from the
421 Mediterranean (excluding the introduced species *Ophryotrocha adherens* Paavo,
422 Bailey-Brock & Åkesson, 2000, *Ophryotrocha diadema* Åkesson, 1976 and
423 *Ophryotrocha japonica* Paxton & Åkesson, 2010; see Simonini *et al.* 2009) to nine and
424 includes, apart from the four species studied here (*O. alborana*, *O. puerilis sensu*
425 *stricto*, *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’), the shallow-water *O. labronica*,
426 *Ophryotrocha macrovifera* Paxton & Åkesson, 2010, *Ophryotrocha robusta* Paxton &
427 Åkesson, 2010 and *Ophryotrocha rubra* Paxton & Åkesson, 2010, and the deep-water
428 *Ophryotrocha mediterranea* Martin, Abello & Cartes, 1991 (La Greca & Bacci 1962;
429 Martin *et al.* 1991; Paxton & Åkesson 2007, 2010; Paxton *et al.* 2011).

430 Future studies will reveal whether the new sibling cryptic species within *O.*
431 *puerilis* species complex (*O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’) that we inferred
432 based on molecular data have in fact distinct diagnostic morphological characters. Our
433 preliminary examination of several preserved individuals of the different species did not
434 identify any clear macroscopical/microscopical difference, but we cannot discard that
435 SEM imaging might show microscopical differences in the jaw apparatus and/or ciliary
436 patterns along their bodies. Other than morphological differences, recognition through
437 chemical signals might play an important role in mate choice for these species, which is
438 especially relevant for closely related species sharing habitat (see Knowlton 1993). In
439 this sense, previous studies in the hermaphroditic *O. diadema* showed that group size is
440 assessed by chemical cues and that a reduction in the number of eggs is induced when
441 the number of partners increases, which suggests that these hermaphroditic worms

442 perceive social cues and adjust sex allocation accordingly (Schleicherová *et al.* 2006,
443 2010). It is thus possible that given the hermaphroditic condition of *O. puerilis*, a
444 condition likely shared with the undescribed sibling species identified here, chemical
445 recognition might also occur in these species, something that should be investigated in
446 future studies.

447

448 *Closely related species living in sympatry*

449 The different substrates analyzed in this study harboured several different species of
450 *Ophryotrocha* occurring in sympatry. Apart from *O. alborana*, *O. puerilis sensu stricto*
451 and the two proposed cryptic species (*O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’), at
452 least *Ophryotrocha labronica*, *Ophryotrocha robusta* and another potential species from
453 the ‘*labronica*’ clade (authors’ pers. obs.), also appeared in the bones. Species co-
454 occurrence is not uncommon in *Ophryotrocha* and has been previously reported in
455 different studies using mammal bones from a range of geographic areas (*e.g.* Wiklund *et al.*
456 2009; Taboada *et al.* 2013; Ravara *et al.* 2015). Just focusing on the *O. puerilis*
457 species complex uncovered here, two species (*O. puerilis sensu stricto* and *O. puerilis*
458 ‘Shallow’) appear to be syntopic *sensu* Rivas (1964) since they occur in the same
459 locality and share the same habitat, while *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ should be considered as a
460 parapatric species with respect to the other two since its distribution does not
461 significantly overlap although it is immediately adjacent to the distribution of the
462 shallower species. Although further similar studies in other areas and depths should be
463 conducted to confirm this, it appears that there may be a bathymetric and/or
464 temperature-related segregation between *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’ and the other two sibling
465 species (*O. puerilis sensu stricto* and *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’). The proximity of *O.*
466 *puerilis* ‘Deep’ to the Blanes submarine canyon (Fig. 1), an area influenced by deeper
467 and colder water masses (Ahumada *et al.* 2013), suggests that this species might be
468 more common in deeper and colder habitats. Examples of cryptic species with a
469 bathymetric segregation of a few hundred meters are not rare in polychaetes (*e.g.*
470 Nygren *et al.* 2005, 2010), although this contrasts with the recently reported wide
471 bathymetric range up to 1,000 m for *Ophryotrocha scutellus* (Ravara *et al.* 2015).
472 Importantly, the co-occurrence of *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis sensu stricto* in

473 the same bones challenges previous identifications of *O. puerilis* in the shallow-water
474 Mediterranean.

475 Cryptic species living in sympatry has been well documented in the past in a
476 plethora of organisms and it is quite common for marine invertebrates in general and for
477 polychaetes in particular (Knowlton 1993; Bickford *et al.* 2007; Nygren 2014). For
478 example within *Ophryotrocha*, *O. japonica* and *Ophryotrocha notoglandulata*
479 Pfannenstiel, 1972 (the first time cryptic speciation was reported for the genus) occur in
480 sympatry at least in Japanese waters and appear to only differ morphologically in their
481 maximum size and the number of rosette glands (the latter character only noticeable
482 using SEM; Paxton & Åkesson 2010). Interestingly, these species showed *ca.* 5 % of
483 K2p *COI* divergence (Wiklund *et al.* 2009), less than five times the average divergence
484 reported for the *O. puerilis* sibling species reported in our study (see Table 2). This
485 divergence threshold reported for *O. japonica* and *O. notoglandulata*, though, does not
486 seem to hold for *O. labronica*. In their recent study, Cossu *et al.* (2015) demonstrated
487 that *O. labronica* populations along the Italian coast can be in fact subdivided in two
488 highly divergent haplogroups (average 17.2 % K2p distance for *COI*), which was
489 suggested to be the result of allopatric divergence followed by secondary contact.
490 Remarkably, cross-breeding experiments showed that individuals from the two
491 haplogroups were inter-fertile (Massamba-N'Siala *et al.* 2011), thus indicating that
492 these haplogroups are in fact two separate lineages of the species *O. labronica* (Cossu *et al.*
493 *et al.* 2015). However, given that no nuclear markers were sequenced for these
494 haplogroups (neither for the haplogroups nor for the resulting 'hybrids' after cross-
495 breeding), we can not dismiss the possibility that these two lineages in fact correspond
496 to two different species whose reproductive prezygotic isolation is incomplete at least in
497 *in vitro* conditions, as it has been reported for different species of echinoderms (*e.g.*
498 Muths *et al.* 2006, 2010). In our study, the molecular divergences for sympatric lineages
499 of *Ophryotrocha* within the *O. puerilis* clade (Table 2) follow the approximate ratio of
500 interspecific/intraspecific variation of 10x *COI* divergence proposed to delimit species
501 boundaries (Hebert *et al.* 2004; Carr *et al.* 2011) and also exceed the 15 % *COI* distance
502 observed for other cryptic species of polychaetes (Nygren 2014).

503

504 *Demographic analysis*

505 Our molecular analyses of the two predominant taxa appearing in the experimental
506 bones in the study by Taboada *et al.* (2016), *i.e.*, *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. alborana*,
507 showed contrasting demographic patterns. For *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’, the most common
508 organism in the experimental bones during the first two trimesters (Taboada *et al.*
509 2016), four of the most common haplotypes found were shared between samples from
510 both trimesters (H1–H4; 54 %), while the rest of individuals were only present at bones
511 from one trimester (Fig. 3B). Based on this, we propose that colonization of the
512 experimental bones by external populations may have been achieved by a combination
513 of (i) a few organisms (the ones presenting the most common haplotypes shared across
514 time) that arrived to the bones and were able to reseed, and (ii) by several individuals
515 arriving to the experimental bones and not persisting across time. Thus, our results are
516 partially in agreement with what was already inferred from size-frequency analyses by
517 Taboada *et al.* (2016): most of the bones they analyzed appeared to harbour various
518 cohorts of individuals presumably from various colonization events, although some of
519 the bones appeared to have a single cohort of individuals. Stable or ephemeral
520 populations developing in the different habitats we considered in our study (*e.g.* Blanes
521 harbour, seagull bones) might be the sources for colonization of experimental bones
522 deployed, although other non-investigated habitats such as sewage pipelines and
523 riverine discharges (quite common in the area) may also play an important role.

524 Interestingly, the *O. alborana* haplotype network showed that none of the
525 haplotypes present in the three different bones (= three different trimesters) was shared,
526 suggesting that there was not a prevalence of the populations of this species in the bones
527 across time (Fig. 3A). These results corroborate what was observed by Taboada *et al.*
528 (2016), who suggested that only one event of colonization per bone could be inferred
529 from the size-frequency histograms after analyzing four bones and a total of ca. 500
530 individuals. All this may suggest that, in contrast to *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’, colonization
531 of the bones by *O. alborana* occurred *via* multiple independent events. In other words,
532 the populations of *O. alborana* arriving to the bones during the second trimester were
533 totally replaced by new individuals during the third and fourth trimesters. This
534 statement fits with the metapopulation scenario invoked for the congeneric *O.*
535 *labronica*, a species subdivided into many local populations that proliferate under
536 favourable conditions and may rapidly go extinct to be replaced by new populations

537 (Åkesson & Paxton 2005; Prevedelli *et al.* 2005). However, our results for *O. alborana*
538 must be considered as very preliminary due to the relatively low number of individuals
539 per population analyzed in the study (10–12 individuals per population; Table 1).

540 *Ophryotrocha puerilis* ‘Deep’ showed a similar haplotype pattern when
541 compared with the other two sibling species considered in the study. Although it was
542 less clear for the case of *O. puerilis* ‘Deep’, there were no significant differences among
543 the haplotype patterns among *O. puerilis* species; they all had a few high-frequency
544 haplotypes and either a few (*O. puerilis* ‘Deep’) or many low-frequency haplotypes (*O.*
545 *puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. puerilis sensu stricto*) (Fig. 3B–D). This suggests that in the
546 study area there are diverse and stable populations of the three different species in
547 naturally occurring and/or anthropogenically derived potential habitats that provided
548 recruits to the bones. Further studies should be directed to investigate deeper water
549 habitats (*e.g.* Blanes submarine canyon), where suitable substrates for the development
550 of these organisms might be more sparse and scarce and hence the demographic patterns
551 observed might also be different. In fact, to our knowledge the only examples
552 investigating the genetic structure over time of marine invertebrates colonizing whale-
553 falls come from deep waters of the Pacific Ocean and include one siboglinid polychaete
554 from the genus *Osedax* and two mytilid molluscs (Vrijenhoek *et al.* 2008; Fukasawa *et*
555 *al.* 2015). The two mytilid mussels colonizing deep-water whale carcasses off the
556 Japanese coast seemed to maintain an unchanged poorly structured genetic composition
557 over the course of years (Fukasawa *et al.* 2015), which is similar to what was observed
558 for the polychaete *Osedax rubiplumus* Rouse, Goffredi & Vrijenhoek, 2004
559 in deep-water whale remains off the Monterey Bay in California (Vrijenhoek *et al.*
560 2008). In both studies, large and probably distant common pools of individuals were
561 hypothesized to be responsible for the demographic patterns observed, which reflect
562 recruitment of larvae with high dispersal ability (Vrijenhoek *et al.* 2008; Fukasawa *et al.*
563 2015). *Ophryotrocha puerilis* ‘Shallow’ in our study showed a similar demographic
564 pattern to that observed for the two mytilids and the siboglinid but, as explained above,
565 common pools of individuals in *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ are likely to be located nearby.

566 In conclusion, our study provides a new example on cryptic speciation in annelid
567 polychaetes in well-known taxa from well-studied areas (see Nygren 2014).
568 Importantly, the discovery of a species complex in *Ophryotrocha puerilis* poses some

569 doubts about previous morphologically-based identifications of this species which is
570 commonly occurs in Mediterranean harbours (Simonini et al. 2010) and is used as a
571 bioindicator of organically-enriched habitats. Future studies should be directed to
572 morphologically describe the two cryptic species found in our phylogenetic and species
573 delimitation analyses. As for the colonization processes inferred from *COI* sequences
574 for *O. puerilis* ‘Shallow’ and *O. alborana*, although contrasting results were observed
575 for the two species, caution should be taken when interpreting these results due to the
576 limited number of specimens and the limited number of locations investigated in our
577 study. Anyway, still several questions remain unsolved related to the colonization
578 patterns of these and other *Ophryotrocha* species occurring in ephemeral habitats such
579 as mammal bones. In our view, further studies should address how deeper and sparser
580 habitats are colonized and which of the dispersal phases of these organisms (males,
581 females –gravid or not– and/or juveniles) are the ones in charge of looking for new
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761

762 **Figure Legends**

763 **Fig. 1.** Map of the study area indicating the location of the Bone Experiments and the
764 Controls (Harbour Control-14, Harbour Control-15, Seagull Control and Blanes
765 submarine canyon Control). Adapted from Vila & Serra (2015).

766

767 **Fig. 2.** Phylogenetic tree of *Ophryotrocha* based on the concatenated analyses of *COI*,
768 *16S* and *H3* from Bayesian inference analysis (BI). Left circles on the nodes refer to BI
769 while right circles refer to Maximum Likelihood analysis (ML). Red circles indicate
770 posterior probability values (PP) > 0.95 or bootstrap support (BS) > 75. Blue circles
771 indicate PP < 0.95 or BS < 75. White circles indicate that this topology was not
772 recovered in ML. Three major clades ('labronica', 'lobifera' and 'hartmanni') are
773 highlighted (see Taboada *et al.* 2013) and the new individuals included in our analyses
774 are in bold. For *O. puerilis* and *O. alborana* collected in this study only specimens
775 displaying the most divergent *COI* haplotypes were included.

776

777 **Fig. 3.** *COI* haplotype networks for **A** *Ophryotrocha alborana*, **B** *O. puerilis* 'Shallow',
778 **C** *O. puerilis sensu stricto*, and **D** *O. puerilis* 'Deep'. Circles are proportional to the
779 number of individuals for each haplotype. Number of mutations between haplotypes is
780 indicated with crossed lines. Color coding is indicated for every species; in black
781 missing inferred haplotypes.