Phylogeography of *Dictyota fasciola* and *Dictyota mediterranea* (Dictyotales, Phaeophyceae): unexpected patterns on the Atlantic-Mediterranean marine transition and taxonomic implications (#34112)

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Phylogeography of *Dictyota fasciola* and *Dictyota mediterranea* (Dictyotales, Phaeophyceae): unexpected patterns on the Atlantic-Mediterranean marine transition and taxonomic implications

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The Atlantic-Mediterranean marine transition is a fascinating biogeographic region, but still very poorly studied from the point of view of seaweed phylogeography. Dictyota fasciola and D. mediterranea (Dictyotales, Phaeophyceae) are two currently recognized sister species that share a large part of their distribution along the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean, representing a unique study model to understand the diversification processes experienced by macroalgae during and after Messinian at this marine region. In this study, we sampled 102 individuals of *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea* from 32 localities along their distribution range and sequenced the mitochondrial cox1 and the chloroplast rbcL-rbcS DNA regions for all the samples. Our data do not support the occurrence of two sister species but a morphologically variable and highly genetic diverse species or a complex of species. Most of the observed genetic diversity corresponds to the Mediterranean populations, whereas the Atlantic ones are much more homogeneous. The early-diverged lineages inferred from both mtDNA and cpDNA phylogenetic reconstructions were constituted by samples from the Mediterranean Sea. Together, these results suggest that the Mediterranean Sea acted as a refugium for the D. fasciola - D. mediterranea lineage during the geologic and climatic changes occurred on the region since the Miocene, subsequently dispersing to the Atlantic Ocean.

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- 1 Phylogeography of Dictyota fasciola and Dictyota
- 2 mediterranea (Dictyotales, Phaeophyceae):
- **3 unexpected patterns on the Atlantic-Mediterranean**
- 4 marine transition and taxonomic implications

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Abstract

- 22 The Atlantic-Mediterranean marine transition is a fascinating biogeographic region, but still very
- 23 poorly studied from the point of view of seaweed phylogeography. *Dictyota fasciola* and *D*.
- 24 mediterranea (Dictyotales, Phaeophyceae) are two currently recognized sister species that share
- 25 a large part of their distribution along the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean,
- 26 representing a unique study model to understand the diversification processes experienced by
- 27 macroalgae during and after Messinian at this marine region. In this study, we sampled 102
- 28 individuals of *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea* from 32 localities along their distribution range
- and sequenced the mitochondrial cox1 and the chloroplast rbcL-rbcS DNA regions for all the
- 30 samples. Our data do not support the occurrence of two sister species but a morphologically
- 31 variable and highly genetic diverse species or a complex of species. Most of the observed genetic
- 32 diversity corresponds to the Mediterranean populations, whereas the Atlantic ones are much
- 33 more homogeneous. The early-diverged lineages inferred from both mtDNA and cpDNA
- 34 phylogenetic reconstructions were constituted by samples from the Mediterranean Sea. Together,
- 35 these results suggest that the Mediterranean Sea acted as a refugium for the D. fasciola D.
- 36 mediterranea lineage during the geologic and climatic changes occurred on the region since the
- 37 Miocene, subsequently dispersing to the Atlantic Ocean.



Introduction

- 41 In the last decades, the increase of DNA sequencing data has been a key step to achieve a better
- 42 understanding of biodiversity, constituting the basis of modern fields like integrative taxonomy
- 43 and molecular systematics (Dayrat, 2005; Will et al., 2005; Hajibabaei et al., 2007; Maddison,
- 44 Schulz & Maddison, 2007; Schlick-Steiner et al., 2010). This source of information is
- 45 particularly important to improve our knowledge of organisms such as macroalgae, frequently
- showing poor diagnostic phenotypical characters (Verbruggen, 2014). In this way, many studies
- 47 based on DNA have contributed to recognizing phenotypically cryptic seaweed species (Leliaert
- 48 et al., 2014 and references therein) or to redefining classifications of some lineages, establishing
- 49 evolutionarily natural groups (Brodie & Lewis, 2007, and references therein). The advances in
- 50 these fields also served as a basis to phylogeography, a discipline where seaweeds have
- 51 experienced increasing relevance during recent years (Hu, Duan & Lopez-Bautista, 2016).
- 52 Comparative phylogeography on diverse marine organisms has demonstrated to be a useful tool
- 53 to unravel evolutionary and ecological patterns across marine provinces and biodiversity
- 54 hotspots (Bowen et al., 2016). However, the relevance of seaweed studies on some geographical
- 55 regions such as the Atlantic-Mediterranean transition is still very poor compared to other
- organisms like animals or land plants (Patarnello et al., 2007; Hu, Duan & Lopez-Bautista,
- 57 2016). For instance, most data concerning the diversification processes on this region during the
- 58 key Miocene-Pliocene boundary come from marine animals (e.g. crustacean, Rastorgueff et al.,
- 59 2014; echinoderms, Taboada & Pérez-Portela, 2016; or vertebrates, Valsecchi et al., 2005).
- According to the most accepted hypothesis, no true marine organisms could have survived in the
- brackish-water or hypersaline lakes that remained in the Mediterranean Basin during the
- 62 Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC; 7.25-5.33 Ma) (Taviani, 2002). Consequently, the
- 63 Mediterranean Sea would have been recolonized by species occurring in the Atlantic Ocean
- 64 following the flooding after the MSC (Hsü et al., 1977). In contrast, other studies suggest some
- 65 true marine enclaves persisted in the deeper areas of the Mediterranean and served as refugia for
- some "Messinian" species (e.g. Boudouresque, 2004; Sotelo, Morán & Posada, 2009; Reuschel,
- 67 Cuesta & Schubart, 2010).
- 68 Climatic changes during Plio-Pleistocene also had a great impact on the Atlantic-Mediterranean
- 69 marine transition and the organisms inhabiting this region (Patarnello, Volckaert & Castilho,
- 70 2007). Several investigations have reported that latitudinal and sea-level shifts associated with
- 71 Pleistocene glacial-interglacial cycles fuelled important range changes and vicariance events on
- 72 Atlantic-Mediterranean marine protists (e.g. Lowe et al., 2012), animals (e.g. Xavier et al., 2011)
- and seagrasses (e.g. Alberto et al., 2008; Arnaud-Haond et al., 2007). To our knowledge, the
- only phylogeographic study involving a native seaweed from the Mediterranean Sea focuses on
- 75 the red coralline algae *Lithophyllum byssoides* (Lamarck) Foslie (Pezzolesi et al., 2017). Based
- on the genetic differences found among Atlantic and Mediterranean specimens, the authors
- 77 suggested that MSC and Plio-Pleistocene climatic changes shaped genetic structure of this
- 78 species. However, the sampling of the study –restricted to the central Mediterranean populations



79	(Italy and Croatia) plus two Atlantic specimens from Spair-limited the inference of further
80	phylogeographic patterns.
81	Dictyota fasciola (Roth) J.V. Lamouroux is a relatively common species of eulittoral pools and
82	the shallow subtidal zones in the NE Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea. Dictyota mediterranea
83	(Schiffner) G.Furnari is a rarer species, endemic to the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea where it
84	occupies a similar habitat to that of the preceding species. As occurs in the majority of <i>Dictyota</i>
85	species, these two taxa are notoriously difficult to identify based on morphological, anatomical,
86	or reproductive characters. In this way, D. mediterranea was formerly reduced to a synonym of
87	D. fasciola by Feldmann (1937) on the basis of similarities in color, width of the axes, and shape
88	of the apices. However, subsequent authors do to follow this opinion and consider D.
89	mediterranea as a different species (Coppejans, 1983; Ribera et al., 1992; Pena, Gómez &
90	Crespo, 2004; Cormaci et al., 2012). Present, D. mediterranea is look as an accepted
91	taxonomical entity (Guiry & Guiry, 2019). Indeed, D. mediterranea shows a terete thallus at the
92	base and the apex – but complanate in the middle part – and a multilayered medulla; whereas
93	axes of <i>D. fasciola</i> are all complanate, and a multilayered medulla is restricted to the basal parts
94	of the thallus (Pena, Gómez & Crespo, 2004; Cormaci et al., 2012). Previous molecular
95	phylogenetic studies indicated that these species are closely related (Tronholm et al., 2010), but
96	results of the same study pointed out a noticeable genetic differentiation among them. The
97	divergence between <i>D. fasciola</i> and <i>D. mediterranea</i> was estimated to occur c. 6.5 Ma [10 Ma –
98	4 Ma; 95% highest density probability) according to a time calibrated multigene phylogeny of
99	the genus <i>Dictyota</i> (Tronholm et al., 2012), partially overlapping with the start of the MSC
100	(Krijgsman et al., 1999). Based on these former data, Tronholm et al. (2010) speculated that <i>D</i> .
101	fasciola - D. mediterranea lineage would have an Atlantic origin, subsequently colonizing the
102	Mediterranean basin – either before or after the divergence of both species – after the MSC. As
103	the only example of two sister <i>Dictyota</i> species occurring along the Mediterranean Sea and the
104	Atlantic Ocean, these two taxa represent a unique study model to understand the
105	phylogeographic processes experienced by macroalgae during and after Messinian at this marine
106	region.
107	In this study, we use a broad sampling along the distribution range of these <i>Dictyota</i> species to
108	investigate their diversification process. Based on the sequences obtained from two variable
109	mitochondrial (cox1) and chloroplast (rbcL-rbcS) DNA regions, we address three main goals.
110	First, we aim to validate the taxonomic differentiation among <i>D. fasciola</i> and <i>D. mediterranea</i>
111	observed in previous phylogenetic studies of the genus. Second, we will test whether our
112	phylogeographic data fit well to the former "Atlantic to Mediterranean proposed to
113	explain the evolutionary history of this lineage. Finally, we discuss the contribution of our results
114	to the knowledge about the Atlantic-Mediterranean transition during the Messinian and the Plio-
115	Pleistocene periods.

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Materials & Methods

Sampling and sequencing



- 119 We sampled 102 individuals of *D. fasciola* (67 specimens) and *D. mediterranea* (35 specimens)
- 120 from 32 sampling sites along their main distribution range (see Tronholm et al., 2010) in the
- 121 Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean (Table 1; Fig. 1). Specimens were identified first in
- the field and later in the laboratory. Representative samples from all localities were preserved on
- herbarium sheets and deposited in the BCN-Phyc (Centre de Documentació de Biodiversitat
- 124 Vegetal, Universitat de Barcelona, Spain) and GENT (Ghent University, Belgium) herbaria.
- Geographic coordinates for each sampling site are shown in Table S1. The CTAB method
- 126 (Doyle & Doyle, 1987) with modifications (Soltis et al., 1991; Cullings, 1992) was used to
- 127 extract total genomic DNA from silica-dried material derived from fresh tissue. The
- mitochondrial cox1 and the chloroplast rbcL-rbcS regions were amplified and sequenced for all
- the samples. Amplification procedure was performed as described in Aragay et al. (2017). Direct
- 130 sequencing of the amplified DNA segments was performed with Big Dye Terminator Cycle
- 131 Sequencing v 3.1 (PE Biosystems, Foster City, California, U.S.A.) at the Unitat de Genòmica,
- 132 Centres Científics i Tecnològics, Universitat de Barcelona (CCiTUB) on an ABI PRISM 3700
- DNA analyser (PE Biosystems). The sequencing primers used were the same as the amplification
- ones. Sequences were edited and assembled using Chromas Lite v 2.01 (Technelysium PTy,
- 135 Tewantin, Queensland, Australia) and Bioedit v 7.0.9 (Ibin Riosciences, Carlsbad, California,
- 136 U.S.A.), aligning with Clustal W (Thompson, Higgins & Vibson, 1994) and finally adjusting by
- hand. GenBank accession numbers are given in Table S1.

Phylogenetic analyses of D. fasciola and D. mediterranea

- 140 __ecular phylogenetic reconstruction within the *D. fasciola D. mediterranea* group was
- performed by Bayesian inference (BI) with MrBayes v 3.2 (Ronquist et al., 2012), independently
- 142 for both chloroplast and mitochondrial markers. *Dictyota guineënsis* (Kützing) P.Crouan &
- 143 H.Crouan was chosen as outgroup according to unpublished phylogenetic analyses at the genus
- level (Olivier de Clerck, Ghent University, pers. comm.). Despite *Dictyota* presents maternal
- inheritance for chloroplast and mitochondrial organelles (Motomura, Nagasato & Kimura, 2010),
- we analysed separately both datasets since their DNA loci may undergo independent evolution,
- potentially generating incorrect phylogenetic inferences based on concatenated datasets (Degnan
- 48 & Rosenberg, 2009). Partitioning strategies eselected with Partitionfinder v 2.1.1 (Lanfear et
- al., 2016). A partitioning scheme with 3 partitions organized by codon position was chosen for
- the mitochondrial genic region cox1 (SYM+G, HKY and HKY+G models for the first, second
- and third positions, respectively), while one single partition (HKY+G model) was applied for the
- chloroplast *rbc*L-*rbc*S intergenic spacer. Two independent Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
- analyses with four Metropolis-coupled chains each were run for 10 million generations, sampling
- every 1000 generations. The first 25% of the trees were discarded as "burn-in", after confirming
- that the average standard deviation of the split frequencies was < 0.01, and the potential scale
- reduction factor approached 1.0 for all parameters. The remaining trees were pooled to construct
- 157 50% majority-rule consensus trees that approximate the posterior distribution of the phylogenetic
- reconstructions, and to obtain clade posterior probabilities. also performed maximum



likelihood (ML) analyses using RAxML-HPC v.8 (Stamatakis, 2014), partitioning by codon 159 position cox1 dataset and one single partition for rbcL-rbcS. We employed the GTRCAT 160 nucleotide substitution model for all partitions, with the default settings for the optimisation of 161 individual per site substitution rates. The best-scoring ML tree with clade support values was 162 163 obtained from 10 independent runs, with 1000 rapid bootstrap replicates each run. All these analyses were performed within the CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller, Pfeiffer & Schwartz, 164 2010), and the resulting summary trees were visualised in FigTree v.1.4.2 165 (https://github.com/rambaut/figtree). 166

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Genetic variability of D. fasciola and D. mediterranea

- For analyses taking into account phylogeographic structuring of populations, the samples were assigned to three main biogeographic marine regions (i.e. Atlantic Ocean, West Mediterranean and East Mediterranean; Coll et al., 2010). Haplotype minimum-spanning networks (Bandelt, Forster & Röhl, 1999) were reconstructed using PopArt (Leigh & Bryant, 2015), independently for each marker under study, using default settings (i.e. parameter $\varepsilon = 0$) to consider multifurcations and/or reticulations in a phylogenetic network approach.
- Haplotype (Hp) and nucleotide (p) diversities were calculated separately for each marker using DnaSP v 5.0 (Rozas & Rozas, 1995). Haplotype richness (R(n)) was computed with RAREFAC (Petit, El Mousadik & Pons, 1998) a software that uses a rarefaction approach to standardize the haplotype richness to a fixed sample size to facilitate comparisons across groups of samples. In this case, the rarefaction value (n = 18) was set according to the sample size of the smallest group of populations (i.e. East Mediterraean group).

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182 Results

Phylogenetic analyses of D. fasciola and D. mediterranea

Both the mitochondrial cox1 and the chloroplast rbcL-rbcS sequences showed a noticeable level 184 of polymorphism among the 102 samples of D. fasciola and D. mediterranea analysed in this 185 study. Specifically, 60 and 46 variable sites were observed for the mtDNA (584bp) and the 186 cpDNA (510bp) markers, respectively. The trees inferred from Bayesian (Fig. 2) and ML (Fig. 187 188 S1-S2) approaches resulted on congruent topologies. These phylogenetic reconstructions inferred 189 the existence of several highly supported monophyletic lineages (PP > 0.95; BS > 90) within the complex of D. fasciola and D. mediterranea. The analysed specimens were not clustered in two 190 clades according to their taxonomic assignation, but subdivided in multiple nested lineages 191 192 which did not correspond to a clear-cut differentiation between both species. While some of these lineages were exclusively constituted by specimens of one of the species, a few comprised 193 samples of both D. fasciola and D. mediterranea intermixed. Specifically, early diverging clades 194 of the trees were mainly constituted by D. mediterranea specimens (with a few D. fasciola 195 196 samples intermingled) while more derived clades were basically composed of D. fasciola specimens (with one or two D. mediterranea samples admixed). Comparing the trees obtained 197 198 from mtDNA (Fig. 2A) and cpDNA (Fig. 2B), their topology showed overall congruence, except



for a few (i.e 4 out of 102) samples which appeared in non-equivalent clades. From a geographic point of view, the Atlantic specimens of *D. fasciola* were all clustered in highly derived clades of both the trees inferred from mtDNA and cpDNA markers. However, these derived clades also contained several samples from the Mediterranean Sea, including a few representatives of *D. mediterranea*.

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Genetic variability of D. fasciola and D. mediterranea

The number of haplotypes found in our study was 22 for cox1 region and 18 for rbcL-rbcS 206 region. The minimum spanning networks of both markers revealed a similarly complex 207 evolutionary structure (Fig. 3), with some groups of closely related haplotypes (connected by 208 one-two mutation steps) loosely distanced to other groups of haplotypes (>3 mutation steps). The 209 geographic distribution of the haplotypes among the different regions did not show a clear 210 211 pattern. Only the two (cpDNA) or three (mtDNA) haplotypes present on the Atlantic region were 212 all closely related among them, whereas those from the Western and Eastern Mediterranean 213 appeared distributed all over the network. As occurred on the phylogenetic trees, the haplotype networks did not show a simple taxonomic pattern congruent with a clear differentiation 214 involving two species (Fig. S3). 215 216 The result of genetic variability analyses is summarized in Table 2. Haplotype diversity (Hd) values was slightly higher for cox1 than for rbcL-rbcS, while nucleotide diversity (π) was very 217 similar among the chloroplast and the mitochondrial regions. From a phylogeographic point of 218 219 view, the samples from the Mediterranean Sea contained higher genetic variability – in terms of number of haplotypes, haplotype diversity and nucleotide diversity – than those from the Atlantic 220 Ocean (Table 2). Haplotype richness calculated after rarefaction $R_{(18)}$ was also several times 221 higher in each of the Mediterranean groups than in the Atlantic one. Regarding the genetic 222 variability within the Mediterranean groups, the Western samples showed more haplotypes (15 223 and 12 for mtDNA and cpDNA, respectively) than the Eastern ones (8 haplotypes for both 224 225 mtDNA and cpDNA). However, the rest of genetic diversity indexes resulted in similar values among both regions of the Mediterranean Sea. In all cases, the results derived from both the 226 227 mitochondrial and the chloroplast markers yielded congruent patterns of genetic variability.

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Discussion

Systematic and taxonomic implications

Bayesian inference and ML trees show the occurrence of several statistically supported groups within *D. fasciola - D. mediterranea* complex, which do not seem to correspond to a clear-cut differentiation between the two species. Our data indicate that this group of *Dictyota* harbours more genetic diversity and complexity than previously envisaged. Earlier phylogenetic studies by Tronholm et al. (2010; 2012) analysed several specimens of both species, which were placed in two independent clades in agreement with the taxonomic assignation of the samples. In our study, the expanded sampling along the distribution range of *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea*,



238 together with the use of more variable markers, reveal additional lineages structured in a nested topology, which rejects a simple scenario with two monophyletic species. 239 Additionally, as explained above, several lineages in our phylogenetic reconstructions (Fig. 2) 240 are constituted by samples of both species intermixed. These results may suggest that D. fasciola 241 242 and D. mediterranea should not be segregated into the current two taxonomic units, but they could constitute a larger complex of cryptic species. Alternatively, the observed diversity could 243 correspond to a single morphologically variable species, as already proposed by Feldmann 244 (1937). There are well-documented examples of *Dictyota* species showing considerable 245 morphological plasticity (e.g. *Dictyota ciliolata* Sonder ex Kützing, Tronholm et al. (2013); 246 Dictvota dichotoma (Hudson) J.V.Lamouroux, Tronholm et al. (2008)) so this could also be the 247 case in the D. fasciola-D. mediterranea complex. The concordance among the trees derived from 248 loci located in separate compartments of the genome (i.e. mtDNA and cpDNA; Fig. 2A-B) 249 suggests that this phylogenetic pattern – which disagrees with taxonomic delimitation – is not the 250 251 product of incomplete lineage sorting processes (Leliaert et al., 2014). The only possibility to accept the two currently recognized species would suppose considering 252 D. mediterranea as a paraphyletic taxon. Anacladogenetic speciation processes – often rendering 253 ancestral paraphyletic taxa— have already been proposed to explain similar phylogenetic patterns 254 (e.g. Hörandl, 2006; Crawford, 2010; Kuchta et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2018). In this scenario, 255 some taxonomy-genetic conflict should be taken into account: a few individuals of both species 256 are nested with individuals of the other species (Fig. 2). Most of these cases occurs in sampling 257 sites where the two species cohabit (e.g. Banyuls-sur-mer, in France; or Ladiko Bay, in Rhodes), 258 so misplacements could potentially be caused by identification problems. However, a careful 259 260 taxonomic determination was performed on each collected individual. Considering as well the close evolutionary relationship within the members of this group, we speculate that 261 hybridization/introgression events between the different lineages are more likely explanations for 262 these cases of taxonomy-genetic discordance. Future studies encompassing more comprehensive 263 264 sampling, nuclear variable markers and thorough morphological analyses should be undertaken to disentangle the taxonomy of this *Dictyota* complex. 265

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Phylogeography and diversification within D. fasciola – D. mediterranea complex

The hypothesis formulated by Tronholm et al. (2010) to explain the diversification of *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea* complex do not fit well with the phylogeographic and genetic differentiation results obtained in our study. The scenario proposed by these authors considered that this group of seaweeds would have an Atlantic origin, colonizing the Mediterranean Sea posteriorly to the MSC. However, the genetic diversity values (Table 2) and the haplotype networks (Fig. 3) unambiguously show that the Mediterranean Sea contains much higher genetic diversity than the Atlantic Ocean. Similarly, the phylogenetic trees indicate that the early diverging lineages are always constituted by the Mediterranean specimens, whereas Atlantic samples are all clustered in a single younger lineage, indicating the derived character of the Atlantic distribution (Fig. 2). Even admitting that our sampling in the Atlantic Ocean is



2/8	considerably incomplete, the extremely low genetic variability (Table 2) found among sampling
279	sites distanced by several hundred kilometres results striking. These combined phylogeographic
280	evidences suggest that the Mediterranean Sea could be the source area of diversification of the D .
281	fasciola – D. mediterranea complex.
282	According to the time-calibrated phylogeny of the genus by Tronholm et al. (2012), this
283	divergence process could have predated the MSC. By that time, the Mediterranean Sea showed a
284	great geographical complexity, with some sub-basins mainly isolated among them (Piller,
285	Harzhauser & Mandic, 2007). Surviving the MSC in these isolated Mediterranean refugia may
286	have been accompanied by a reduction of population sizes, thereby enhancing divergence in
287	allopatry of the isolated populations (Hörandl & Stuessy, 2010; Calvo et al., 2015). This scenario
288	could explain the notably genetic differentiation observed within the D . $fasciola - D$.
289	mediterranea complex in the Mediterranean Sea, as well as the low variability present in the
290	Atlantic Ocean, which would have been putatively colonized after the reopening of the Gibraltar
291	Strait connection. Our phylogenetic reconstructions are not time-calibrated – so we cannot
292	precisely date when the colonization of Atlantic Ocean occurred but our results clearly show
293	this happened late in the diversification history of the complex.
294	However, as in the case of other Mediterranean organisms (e.g. vertebrates, Domingues et al.,
295	2005; echinoderms, Taboada and Pérez-Portela, 2016; or cnidarian, Pilczynska et al. 2017) we
296	cannot discard the hypothesis that the ancestors of the D. fasciola-D.mediterranea complex
297	survived the MSC in the Atlantic Ocean. In this scenario, the arrival of this group of seaweeds to
298	the Mediterranean basin would have happened after the Zanclean re-flooding with Atlantic
299	waters. Assuming the genetic drift occurring at the wave front of an expanding population
300	(Excoffier & Ray, 2008), this phenomenon should have led to higher genetic diversity in Atlantic
301	populations compared to the Mediterranean ones (i.e. exactly the opposite of what was observed
302	in our results). To fit this hypothesis to the low genetic diversity and the derived phylogenetic
303	position of the Atlantic samples found in our study, we should assume the subsequent extinction
304	of most of the relict oceanic diversity after the colonization of the Mediterranean. Several studies
305	have stated that Pleistocene glacial cycles erased Atlantic populations of marine organisms,
306	while the isolated Mediterranean Sea offered a more stable persistence for some of them (e.g.
307	Alberto et al., 2008; Lowe et al., 2012). The habitat fragmentation occurring in the
308	Mediterranean during colder marine regression periods could have further enhanced genetic
309	differentiation processes in this region (e.g. Arnaud-Haond et al., 2007; Rastorgueff et al., 2014).
310	Therefore, a postglacial colonization of the Atlantic from Mediterranean sources would be an
311	alternative or complementary explanation for phylogeographical patterns observed on <i>D</i> .
312	fasciola-D. mediterranea complex.
212	•

Conclusions

- 315 Our results indicate that *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea* are not monophyletic species.
- 316 Conversely, we inferred a complex phylogenetic history challenging previous taxonomic and
- 317 evolutionary hypotheses on this group of macroalgae. This study also highlights the key role



- 318 played by the Mediterranean Sea as a refugium for these seaweeds during the major climatic
- 319 changes occurred since the Miocene in this region of the planet. The limited number of sampling
- 320 sites included in our study and the fact that some analysed populations consisted of few
- 321 individuals prevent stablishing more detailed phylogeographic hypotheses. Hence, more research
- 322 focusing on this *Dictyota* complex -as well as on other algal groups- is needed to unravel the
- 323 precise evolutionary and biogeographic response of seaweeds to the geological and climatic
- events that the Mediterranean experienced during and after the Messinian.

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Table 1(on next page)

Summary of sampling locations, geographic circumscription, number of individuals (N) and haplotype information of *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea* specimens used in this study.

1 Table 1. Summary of sampling locations, geographic circumscription, number of individuals (N) and haplotype information of D.

Taxonomic assignation Geographic region Sampling site		Sampling site	Code	N	mtDNA haplotype	cpDNA haplotype		
Dictyota fasciola	WM	Spain: Alicante, Cabo de Huertas	F-Alac	2	M1	C1/C5		
		Spain: Almería, La Isleta	F-Isle	4	M6(1),M18(3)	C12(3)/C13(1)		
		Spain: Catalonia, Llançà	F-Llan	5	M1(2),M4(1),M5(1),M7(2)	C1(1),C3(1), C4(2), C8(1)		
		Spain: Castellò, Serra d'Irta	F-Cast	6	M1(3),M7(3)	C1(3)/C5(3)		
		France: Côte Vermeille, Cerbère	F-Cerb	5	M12	C1		
		France: Côte Vermeille, Banyuls-sur-mer	F-Bany	5	M1(2),M12(1),M15(2)	C1		
		France: Nice	F-Nice	5	M1(1),M12(4)	C1		
		Italy: Sardegna, Isola Rosa	F-SaIR	2	M14	C1(1)/C11(1)		
		Italy: Sardegna, Porto Ferro	F-SaPF	4	M12(1),M17(2),M20(1)	C1(1)/C11(3)		
	EM	Greece: Central Macedonia	F-CeMa	2	M1(1)M16(1)	C1(1)/C15(1)		
		Greece: Karpathos, Agios Nikolaos	F-Karp	2	M1(1),M19(1)	C7(1)/C10(1)		
		Greece: Rhodes, Ladiko Bay	F-RhoL	2	M19	C5(1)/C10(1)		
		Greece: Rhodes, Fourni	F-RhoF	1	M9	C7		
		Italy: Sicily, Aci Castello	F-Sici	1	M11	C1		
	ATL	Portugal: Porto Covo	F-Port	3	M1	C1		
		Portugal: Madeira, Ponta do Sao Lourenço	F-MaPo	1	M2	C1		
		Portugal: Madeira, Reis Magos	F-MaRe	1	M1	C1		
		Spain: Cádiz, Tarifa	F-Tari	5	M1	C1		
		Spain: Canary Is., Lanzarote, Famara	F-LaFa	1	M1	C1		
		Spain: Canary Is., Lanzarote, Puerto del Carmen	F-LaPC	1	M1	C1		
		Spain: Canary Is., La Graciosa	F-Grac	1	M1	C1		
		Spain: Canary Is., Gran Canaria, Medio Almud	F-GCMA	1	M1	C1		
		Spain, Canary Is., Gran Canaria, Maspalomas	F-GCPM	1	M1	C1		
		Spain: Canary Is., Tenerife, Punta Hidalgo	F-TePH	3	M1	C1(2)/C2(1)		
		Spain: Canary Is., Tenerife, Buenavista	F-TeBu	1	M1	Cl		
		Spain: Canary Is., El Hierro	F-ElHi	2	M1(1),M3(1)	C1		
Dictyota mediterranea	WM	Spain: Alacant, Cabo de Huertas	M-Alac	4	M7(2),M10(2)	C5		
,		Spain: Mallorca, Alcúdia	M-Mall	1	M7	C5		
		Spain: Almería, La Isleta	M-Isle	2	M10	C5		
		Spain: Catalonia, Llançà	M-Llan	9	M16	C14(3),C15(6)		
		France: Côte Vermeille, Banyuls-sur-mer	M-Bany	8	M21(6),M22(1),M12(1)	C1(1),C16(6),C17(1)		
		Italy: Sicily, Capo di Milazzo	M-SiCM	1	M7	C5		
	EM	Italy: Sicily, Giardini Naxos	M-SiGN	1	M13	C18		
		Italy: Sicily, Aci Castello	M-SiCi	2	M7	C5		
		Greece: Rhodes, Ladiko Bay	M-RhoL	3	M1(1), M7(2)	C5		
		Greece: Rhodes, Agios Thomas	M-RhoA	2	M9	C5(1),C6(1)		
		Greece: Karpathos, Kastellia Bay	M-KarK	1	M8	C9		
		Greece: Karpathos, Christou Pigadi	M-KarC	1	M8	C5		

² fasciola and D. mediterranea specimens used in this study.



Table 2(on next page)

Genetic variability values for each molecular marker in the geographical groups of populations defined in the study.

#P, number of sampling sites; N, number of individuals; Hp, number of haplotypes; Hd, haplotype diversity; $R_{(18)}$, allelic richness after rarefaction; π , nucleotide diversity.

Table 2. Genetic variability values for each molecular marker in the geographical groups of populations defined in the study.

2		#P	N	cox1			rbcL-rbcS				
3											
4				Нр	Hd	$R_{(18)}$	π	Нр	Hd	$R_{(18)}$	π
5	Western Mediterranean	11	63	15	0.897	8.05	0.0175	12	0.804	6.27	0.0175
6	T 10	0	10		0.000	- 00	0.04.00	0		- 00	0.0121
7	Eastern Mediterranean	9	18	8	0.882	7.00	0.0128	8	0.797	7.00	0.0131
8	Atlantic	12	21	3	0.186	1.71	0.0003	2	0.095	0.86	0.0002
9						- 1-					
10	Total	32	102	22	0.862	9.12	0.0142	18	0.753	7.14	0.0150
11											

Figure 1

Geographic distribution of the samples analyzed in this study (sample code according to Table 1).

The color of the square indicates the geographic circumscription to three main biogeographic marine regions (i.e. Atlantic Ocean, in green; Western Mediterranean Sea, in red; and Eastern Mediterranean Sea, in violet).

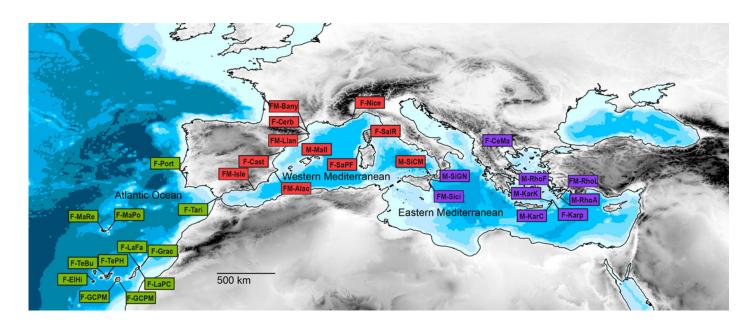




Figure 2(on next page)

Consensus tree based on Bayesian inference of (A) the mitochondrial *cox1* region and (B) the chloroplast *rbcL-rbcS* intergenic spacer.

The color of the labels indicates their geographic origin following the Figure 1. The samples marked with * show incongruent placement between the two phylogenetic reconstructions.

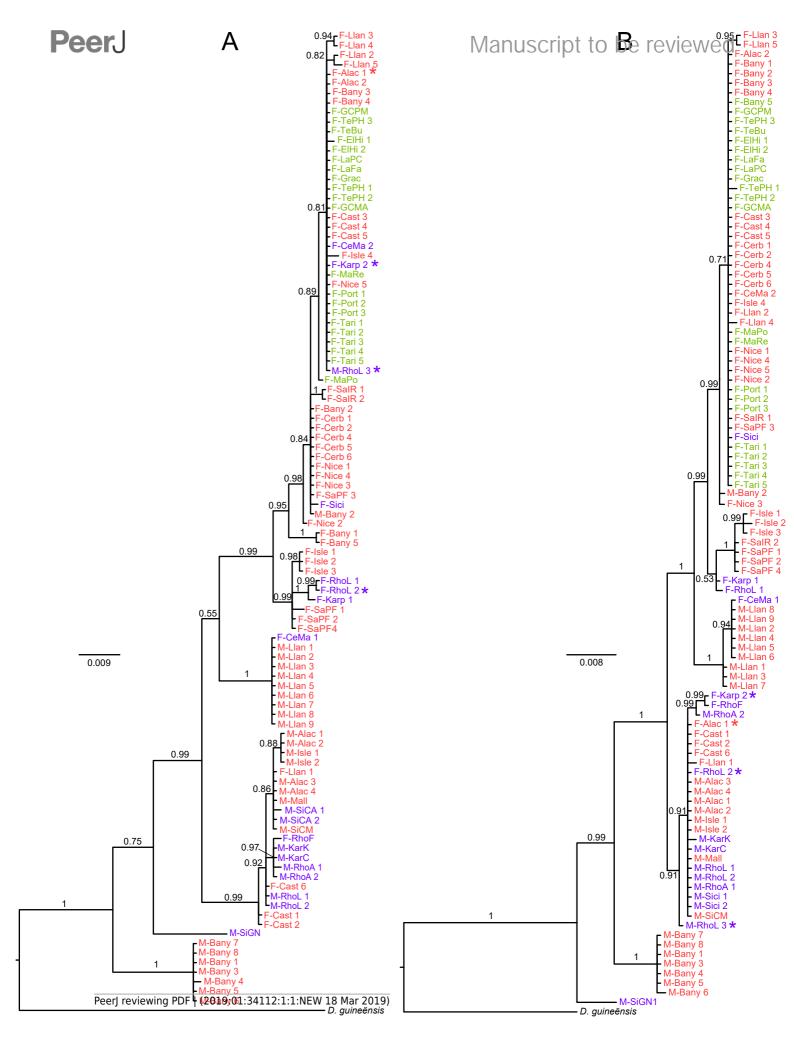




Figure 3(on next page)

Minimum spanning network representing the haplotypes of *D. fasciola* and *D. mediterranea* sampling inferred from (A) *cox1* and (B) *rbcL-rbcS* markers.

Black stripes represent un-sampled intermediate haplotypes, one base mutation distant. The size of the circles represents the number of individuals and the color indicates their geographic circumscription. The number of unsampled mutation steps are shown when there are more than 5.

