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# High unexpected genetic diversity of a narrow endemic terrestrial mollusc

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A large array of species and species complexes from the Iberian Peninsula display strong genetic subdivisions indicative of past population isolation in separate glacial refugia as a result of survival throughout the Pleistocene ice ages. We used mitochondrial and nuclear sequence data to analyse phylogeographic patterns in a group of endemic land snails of the genus Candidula from a valley of central Portugal (Vale da Couda) showing an exceptionally narrow distributional range. Phylogenetic analyses recovered Vale da Couda specimens in two main clades that do not share a common ancestry. Considering the restricted geographic distribution, an unusual high number of haplotypes was found. These haplotypes were unevenly distributed among the sampling sites. Our results show a departure from the expectation that species with restricted distributions have low genetic variability. The putative past and contemporary models of geographic distribution of Vale da Couda lineages are compatible with a scenario of species co-existence in more southern locations during the last glacial maximum (LGM) followed by a post-LGM northern dispersal tracking the species optimal thermal, humidity and soil physical conditions. Mismatch analysis indicated a population expansion during the LGM, which corroborates our biogeographic scenario.

1	High-unexpected genetic diversity of a narrow endemic terrestrial mollusc
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#### 23 Abstract

24 A large array of species and species complexes from the Iberian Peninsula display strong genetic 25 subdivisions indicative of past population isolation in separate glacial refugia as a result of 26 survival throughout the Pleistocene ice ages. We used mitochondrial and nuclear sequence data 27 to analyse phylogeographic patterns in a group of endemic land snails of the genus *Candidula* 28 from a valley of central Portugal (Vale da Couda) showing an exceptionally narrow 29 distributional range. Phylogenetic analyses recovered Vale da Couda specimens in two main 30 clades that do not share a common ancestry. Considering the restricted geographic distribution, 31 an unusual high number of haplotypes was found. These haplotypes were unevenly distributed 32 among the sampling sites. Our results show a departure from the expectation that species with 33 restricted distributions have low genetic variability. The putative past and contemporary models 34 of geographic distribution of Vale da Couda lineages are compatible with a scenario of species 35 co-existence in more southern locations during the last glacial maximum (LGM) followed by a post-LGM northern dispersal tracking the species optimal thermal, humidity and soil physical 36 37 conditions. Mismatch analysis indicated a population expansion during the LGM, which 38 corroborates our biogeographic scenario.

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#### 42 Introduction

43 Phylogeography combines evidence from both population genetics and phylogeny, to understand 44 the evolutionary processes that shape geographic population structure (Avise 2000). These 45 evolutionary processes include divergence between gene pools, demographic changes in 46 populations, and migrations between metapopulations, generally promoted or constrained by 47 geological and/or climate events. If genetic isolation is in place by whatever mechanism (e.g. 48 allopatry or sexual selection), it is possible that, in time, local variants of a species turn into 49 endemic species. Endemic species are usually found in relatively small areas (Gaston 1994), 50 occupying specialized habitats with small population sizes that are more susceptible to local 51 extinctions (Primack 2006). Endemic species constitute therefore a model to explore population 52 genetics in what effectively can be seen as an island setting. The geographic and demographic 53 components interact with the genetic dynamics of the species, often determining species 54 viability. Genetic diversity is essential to ensure that populations can withstand environmental 55 fluctuations during short timeframes and also serves as the basis for selection and capacity to 56 adapt to changes in the environment in the long run (Frankham 2005; Laikre et al. 2009). It is 57 therefore important to assess the genetic properties of the populations of those species, such as 58 genetic diversity and connectivity, as well as historical demography.

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Identifying the drivers of species distribution patterns is also essential to understand the species
dynamics in space and time. Species distribution modeling (SDM) allows relating statistically
the identified presence records of a species with the environmental characteristics of these
locations. From the inferred relationship it is possible to estimate the response, function and
contribution of environmental variables (Austin et al. 2006), and predict the potential

65 geographical range of a species (Elith & Leathwick 2009). Recently, there has been a growing 66 trend towards the integration of SDM hindcasts with phylogeography as a useful approach to 67 obtain consistent eco-evolutionary hypotheses. This combination allows getting insights how the 68 distribution of climatic refuges and postglacial colonization pathways may have influenced 69 genetic diversity of current populations (see e.g. Hewitt 2004).

70

Land snails are good models for evolutionary studies, since phylogeographic patterns are often preserved due to their limited dispersal capabilities and specific habitat requirements (Pfenninger et al. 2007). Also, snails display an unusual high intraspecific genetic variation, ca. 10-30% in mtDNA sequences (Bond et al. 2001; Hayashi & Chiba 2000; Pinceel et al. 2005; Shimizu & Ueshima 2000), which renders the taxa appropriate to understand processes shaping the partitioning of genetic variation in space. Additionally, many land snail examples in the literature show the existence of cryptic species in sympatry (Köhler & Burghardt 2015).

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79 The land snails of the genus *Candidula* present in Europe, from eastern Canary Islands to the 80 Balkans and northwards to Scotland and southernmost Sweden are represented by 24 putative 81 species. Portugal has 8 endemic species (C. coudensis, C. setubalensis, C. scabiosula, C. 82 arrabidensis, C. belemensis, C. carrapateirensis, C. codia and C. strucki) from a total of 12 (C. 83 gigaxii, C. intersecta, C. ponsulensis, C. olisippensis) (Holyoak & Holyoak 2014) (see Figure 1 84 for details on geographic distribution). Most species are hard to distinguish using only conchological characters and it takes a combination of morphological characters, such as the size 85 86 of the penial flagellum or shell shape, to classify the specimens (Holyoak & Holyoak 2014). 87 Nevertheless, a clear, comprehensive, taxonomic assessment based on both morphological and

88 molecular data has not been previously done. Most *Candidula* species prefer open and dry 89 habitats, usually with calcareous substrate. In Portugal, species can be found in a variety of 90 habitats, ranging from rocky limestone grasslands to sand dunes. There are records of coexisting 91 Candidula species in Portugal: C. coudensis and C. olisippensis in Vale da Couda, and C. 92 setubalensis and C. arrabidensis in Serra da Arrábida, C. belemensis and C. olisippensis in 93 various locations of Beira Litoral, such as Serra do Sicó, and C. gigaxii and C. ponsulensis in 94 eastern Baixo Alentejo (Holyoak & Holyoak 2014) (see Figure 1A). Candidula coudensis (Candidula coudensis Holyoak & Holyoak, 2010) is a recently described 95 96 endemismwith a highly restricted geographic distribution of ca. 13.5 km2 in Vale da Couda, 97 Leiria, Portugal (inset Figure 1) (Moreira et al. 2015). The species can be found in open rocky 98 limestone substrata, olive tree grounds, areas of natural vegetation, in roadside areas or even in 99 stone-walls in nearby houses (Moreira et al. 2015). The extremely constrained geographic 100 distribution is somewhat rare and there are several possible non-exclusive reasons that would 101 justify such circumscribed distribution: (i) active dispersal may be very small with individuals 102 hardly moving; (ii) very strict environmental and ecological requirements; (iii) present-day 103 individuals of the species are remnants of an older wide-spread haplogroup that range-contracted 104 due to reduction of humidity levels after the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, c. 20 ka), and/ or (iv) 105 present-day habitat disturbance processes. Specifically, we tested the following hypotheses based on premises that are likely to shape the phylogeographic structure of the land snails from Vale da 106 107 Couda: (1) Vale da Couda individuals may form a monophyletic clade, indicative of a single 108 population on a restricted area in the absence of major phylogeographic breaks (e.g. rivers or 109 large mountains); (2) the population from Vale da Couda may show reduced levels of haplotype 110 and nucleotide diversities, consistent with isolated population on a limited geographical area, and

(3) the population from Vale da Couda may have undergone demographic expansion after theLGM, similarly to many other terrestrial species.

113 Using a combination of DNA sequences (fragment of the cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI) 114 mitochondrial gene and of the first nuclear intron - ITS1) and geo-referenced field records of the 115 species we sought to address the above hypotheses by (1) reconstructing the phylogenetic 116 relationship of C. coudensis regarding other Portuguese Candidula species from different 117 locations; (2) revealing the genetic diversity and geographic structure of contemporary C. 118 *coudensis*, and (3) reconstructing the demographic history of the species. Using Iberian 119 environmental data relative to past and current conditions retrieved from public repositories, we inferred locations of the putative refugia during the LGM and provided estimates of relative 120 121 environmental suitability of C. coudensis that can assist future fieldwork.

122

#### 123 Material and Methods

124 **Taxon sampling.** Sampling in Vale da Couda resulted in 73 individuals collected from 4 125 different sites (Figure 1). In order to place the Vale da Couda samples in a broader phylogenetic 126 context (see Phylogenetic estimation section below) a few Candidula spp. individuals were 127 collected in different locations (Table 1). We received field permit from the Nature and Forests 128 Conservation Institute (ICNF), Portugal (identifier: 81S0/201S/DCNF-LVT/DPAP) for sampling 129 in Arrábida Natural Parque. Immediately after collection, whole shells containing the individual 130 were stored in ethanol 70%. DNA was extracted from the samples using a CTAB protocol 131 (Doyle & Doyle 1987). Universal primers (Folmer et al. 1994) were used in PCRs to amplify 600 132 bp of the COI gene. PCR amplifications were performed in 25 µl total volume, using 5 µl 5X 133 PCR Colorless Buffer (pH 8.5), 2 mM (of a 1.5 µl 25 mM MgCl2 solution), 0.2 mM (0.5 µl of a

134 20 mM dNTP stock), 0.2 µl 5u/µl 1U GoTaq DNA polymerase Promega (Madison, USA) and 135 0.2 µM (0.5 µl of a 10 µM stock) of each primer. The COI PCR profile consisted of 2 minutes at 136 95°C, 35 cycles of 30 seconds at 94°C, 30 seconds at 53°C followed by an extension for 1 minute 137 at 72°C and a final one with 5 minutes. ITS1 gene was amplified by PCR with forward primer 138 ITS1 - 5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGGAAGGAT-3' (White et al. 1990) and reverse primer 139 5.8c - 5'-TGCGTTCAAGATATCGATGTTCAA-3' modified from (Hillis & Dixon 1991). PCR 140 amplifications were performed in 25 µl total volume, using 5 µl 5X PCR Colorless Buffer (pH 141 8.5), 2 mM (of a 1.5 μl 25 mM MgCl2 solution), 0.2 mM (0.5 μl of a 20 mM dNTP stock), 0.2 μl 142 5u/µl 1U GoTaq DNA polymerase Promega (Madison, USA) and 0.2 µM (0.5 µl of a 10 µM 143 stock) of each primer. The ITS1 PCR profile consisted of 3 minutes at 97°C, 35 cycles of 1 144 minute at 95°C, 1 minute at 55°C and 2 minutes at 72°, followed by a final extension of 5 145 minutes at 72°C. The PCR results were purified by ethanol precipitation (Sambrook & Russell 146 2001). Sequencing was performed on an ABI 3130xl (Applied BIOsystems) automated 147 sequencer at CCMAR facilities. 148 COI sequences were aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar 2004), implemented in Geneious version 149 7.0.4 (Kearse et al. 2012), and contained no gaps. Heterozygous ITS1 sequences were fed into 150 Mixed Sequence Reader (MSR) (http://msr.cs.nthu.edu.tw), which separates the information 151 from the chromatogram into a major and minor sequence, corresponding to each allele, while 152 comparing the sequence information with a given reference sequence (Chang et al. 2012). Major 153 and minor sequences for each sample were recovered and posteriorly aligned using MAFFT

154 default options (Katoh & Standley 2013).

Phylogenetic estimation. In this study we used phylogenetic inference with the sole purpose toascertain the monophyly of the individuals from Vale da Couda. It is not our intention to produce

157 a phylogeny for the genus *Candidula*. We followed Holyoak and Holyoak (2014) taxonomy to 158 identify specimens based on morphology. The partial sequences of the mitochondrial (mtDNA) 159 COI gene including 73 *Candidula* from Vale da Couda, produced a data set of 464 nucleotide 160 positions. The Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike 1974) implemented in MODELTEST selected 161 the K81uf+I+G as the evolutionary model that best fits the data set. Since this model is not 162 available in PHYML v.3.0 (Guindon et al. 2003), we selected the second best-fit model, the 163 HKY+G. The selected model and model parameters were used in the ML analysis performed 164 with PhyML. The robustness of the inferred trees was tested by nonparametric bootstrapping 165 (BP) using 1000 pseudoreplicates. ML analysis was carried out at the Mobyle platform 166 (http://mobyle.pasteur.fr/cgi-bin/portal.py). 167 **Population genetics.** Molecular diversity indices, including nucleotide ( $\pi$ ) (Nei 1987) and 168 haplotype (H) (Nei & Tajima 1981) diversities, were estimated using DnaSP v5.10 (Librado & 169 Rozas 2009). To evaluate the level of population differentiation among four Vale da Couda sites, 170 we used  $F_{\rm ST}$  genetic fixation (Weir & Cockerham 1984) and  $D_{\rm est}$  genetic differentiation (Jost 171 2008) statistics were estimated with the modelling package 1.9.5 (Keenan et al. 2013). The 172 variance of each statistic was assessed through the calculation of 10 000 pairwise bootstrapped 173 95% confidence limits using a bias corrected method that basically re-centers the confidence 174 interval (CI) around the initial parameter estimate. We employed both genetic estimators as they 175 present advantages and drawbacks in quantifying population structure (for a discussion see Bird 176 et al. 2011; Jost 2008; Meirmans & Hedrick 2011; Ryman & Leimar 2009; Whitlock 2011).

177 Phylogeographic relationships among haplotypes of COI and ITS1 alleles were represented using

178 the Median Joining Network method (Bandelt et al. 1999) implemented in Network (version

179 4.6.1.0; fluxus-engineering.com) that infers the most parsimonious branch connections between

180 sequences. Net divergences between and within mtDNA and nuclear DNA (nuDNA) 181 haplogroups were calculated using MEGA6 (Tamura et al. 2013) using the Tamura-Nei model 182 (Tamura & Nei 1993) for both data sets. 183 Mismatch analysis was used to explore the demographic history of C. coudensis with the 184 raggedness index (rg, Harpending 1994), the sum of squared deviations (SSD, Schneider & 185 Excoffier 1999) and R2 (Ramos-Onsins & Rozas 2002) a statistic based on the difference 186 between the number of singleton sites and the average number of nucleotide differences. Demographic mismatch analysis was based on the null hypothesis of expansion; thus, non-187 188 significant values mean non-rejection of population expansion. DnaSP (Librado & Rozas 2009) 189 was used to obtain observed and expected distributions under the constant population model and 190 the growth population model. 191 Initial and final  $\theta$  estimates (before and after population growth or decline) and  $\tau$  values were 192 calculated with Arlequin v. 3.5.1.3 (Excoffier & Lischer 2010). Time of inferred population 193 expansion were determined by  $Texp = \tau / (2 \mu n)$ , where  $\mu = COI$  substitution rate per base and 194 per generation, and n = number of bases of the COI fragment (Rogers & Harpending 1992), 195 assuming a generation time of 1 year (Pfenninger et al. 2003). 196 **Environmental niche modelling.** The study area considered was the Iberian Peninsula. 197 Bioclimatic variables for current conditions were retrieved from WorldClim dataset (Hijmans et 198 al. 2005) in 30 arc seconds (~1 km), resolution used for all modelling analyses. In addition, 199 because of the species preference for limestone soils, where is most frequently found (Moreira et

al. 2015), we extracted the distribution of carbonate sedimentary rocks (e.g. limestone, dolomite

and marl) from a global lithological map (Hartmann & Moosdorf 2012). The percentage of this

202 lithological class was calculated for each grid cell of the Iberian Peninsula to be included as a

203 quantitative variable in the models. Assuming that no significant change on the Iberian

204 distribution of continental rock lithology was produced during the last 21k years, we used the

205 same lithological variable for the LGM projections. LGM climatic variables were obtained from

206 Schmatz *et al.* (2015) in 30 arc seconds resolution according to four general circulation models

207 (GCMs) pertaining to the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5: http://cmip-

208 pcmdi.llnl.gov/cmip5/): CCSM, CNRM, IPSL and MIROC3.2.

As the distribution of this recently discovered species is restricted (Moreira et al. 2015), the

210 spatial autocorrelation of the variables is high, thus we limited the number of variables to a

211 maximum of three to avoid over-parameterization. To select the variables, we firstly performed a

212 Pearson correlation analysis using a threshold of  $r = |\pm 0.7|$ . Then, we performed an Ecological

213 Niche Factor Analysis (ENFA, Hirzel et al. 2002) with the preselected uncorrelated variables.

214 ENFA computes factors accounting for the position of the occurrence data in the

215 multidimensional environmental space of the study area. These factors describe the

216 environmental niche of the species by computing the distance between the mean habitat for the

217 species in relation to the study area (marginality) and the variance of the species' niche

218 (specialization). Thus, ENFA can be an exploratory analysis to select the most relevant variables

describing the niche of the species (see e.g. Chefaoui et al. 2015; Lobo et al. 2010).

220 To model the distribution of Vale da Couda individuals under current and LGM conditions we

used Maxent (Phillips et al. 2006), a maximum entropy algorithm which uses presence and

background data. This technique allows a "clamping" process, which handle predictors outside

the training range as if they were at the limit. We selected ten times more background points than

224 presences at random in order to set a prevalence of 0.1, as this proportion was used before with

225 good results (e.g., Chefaoui et al. 2015; Chefaoui & Lobo 2008). We split data (n=89) into a

226 training (80%) and a test set (20%) to perform a cross-validation during 100 iterations. To 227 validate the models, we obtained the area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) 228 curve (AUC), the sensitivity (presences correctly predicted) and the specificity (absences 229 correctly predicted) scores using three different thresholds for validation: the prevalence (= 0.1), 230 the value which maximizes the sum of the sensitivity and specificity, and the highest threshold at 231 which there is no omission. An ensemble of predictions was obtained for current conditions by 232 computing the average of the 100 iterations. For LGM projection, we produced a hindcast using 233 the average of the four GCMs. All analyses were performed in R (R Development Core Team 234 2013) using "adehabitat" and "dismo" packages.

235

#### 236 Results

**Phylogenetic estimation.** The ML analysis (-  $\ln L = -1622.11$ ) based on the COI data set yielded the topology depicted in Figure 2. Specimens from Vale da Couda grouped into two main clades that did not cluster together. One clade included three lineages supported by high BP values (A, B, C). Lineage I grouped with specimens assigned to *C. olisippensis*. The other clade included the fourth lineage (D) and a group of eight specimens from Vale da Couda that showed an unresolved phylogenetic position. These specimens grouped with the clade of *C. setubalensis* from Arrábida (Fig. 2).

244

Population genetics. MtDNA sequence data of 73 putative *C. coudensis* individuals generated a 560-bp fragment alignment with a total of 142 polymorphic sites, 124 of which were parsimony informative. These polymorphisms defined 42 haplotypes with an overall haplotype diversity and mean nucleotide diversity of  $h = 0.964 \pm 0.011$  and  $\pi = 0.084 \pm 0.004$ , respectively (Table 2A).

249 These haplotypes were organized into five main divergent haplogroups, with 22 to 63 mutation 250 steps apart (Figure 3A). Net sequence divergence between haplogroups ranged from 11.8 to 251 47.5%, while within net sequence divergence ranged from 0.1-2.1% (Supplementary information 252 Figure S1). A large proportion of individuals (45%) possess unique haplotypes. The majority of 253 haplotypes (88%) is found in only one location (i.e. 'private' haplotypes), and only five 254 haplotypes are shared among sites (12%). In spite of the existence of these distinct haplogroups, 255 there is no obvious phylogeographic pattern, and no evidence for closely related haplotypes (i.e., 256 same haplogroup) to come from the same location (Figures 3 and 4). 257 NuDNA sequence data was only obtained from 35 individuals from Vale da Couda, generating a 258 503-bp fragment alignment with a total of 39 polymorphic sites, 17 of which were parsimony 259 informative. The sequences defined 13 haplotypes with an overall haplotype diversity and mean 260 nucleotide diversity of  $h = 0.822 \pm 0.050$  and  $\pi = 0.009 \pm 0.002$  respectively (Table 2A). These 261 haplotypes constitute two haplogroups separated by 12 mutation steps (Figure 3B). Net sequence 262 divergence between haplogroups was 2.3%, while within net sequence divergence ranged from 263 0.6-1.6%. Only 26% of the individuals have a unique haplotype. Of the total 13 haplotypes, 10 264 were private and three (23%) were shared between locations. 265 MtDNA haplotypes are unevenly distributed among the four sampling sites. Sites 1 and 3 have 266 representatives from all groups while site 2 has no representation of haplogroup C and in site 4

267 only haplogroups B and D are represented. The two ITS-1 haplogroups are just present in two

sampled sites, 1 and 2. We found no association between nuDNA and mtDNA haplogroups. All

- 269 COI haplogroups, except haplogroup C, are represented within ITS-1 haplogroups with
- 270 individuals from haplogroup R of ITS-1 belonging to COI haplogroups A, B, D and group of 8

271 non monophyletic individuals, while ITS-1 S haplogroup individuals belong to the most common
272 COI haplogroup (D) (Figure 4).

273 The mismatch analysis for Vale da Couda haplogroup D shows signs of historical demographic 274 expansion. The frequency of pairwise differences between haplotypes of lineage A showed a 275 distribution consisting of a unimodal curve, which combined with non-significant values of SDD 276 (p = 0.13) and raggedness (p = 0.08) do not reject the null hypothesis of expansion. Adding to 277 this, a low and significant value of R2 (p = 0.0035) also supports the hypothesis of population 278 growth for Vale da Couda haplogroup A. Since the population growth hypothesis is supported by the mismatch distribution we can use the estimated  $\tau$  to calculate the time of the expansion, 279 280 according to the formula  $\tau = 2ut$ , where t is time and u is the mutation rate for the gene in study. 281 We detected a clear signal of demographic expansion for lineage D (Fig. 5). For a population 282 expansion of this clade to be compatible with LGM, the mutation rate would have to be between 283 ca. 15%/MY, consistent with the high-end mutation rates observed in some gastropods (Chiba 284 1999; Davison et al. 2009; Haase et al. 2003; Thomaz et al. 1996).

285 **Niche modelling.** Eight uncorrelated climatic variables were used to perform ENFA analysis, 286 which finally distinguished lithology, isothermality (BIO3), and the annual precipitation (BIO12) 287 as the three most relevant variables defining the niche for Vale da Couda lineages (Table 3). 288 ENFA marginality factor revealed that the lithology (grid cells with high percentage of carbonate 289 sedimentary rocks) was the most relevant predictor of its distribution, an expectable result as the 290 species has been found exclusively on limestone (Moreira et al 2015). Besides, ENFA showed 291 that the species has a preference for locations where the isothermality and the annual 292 precipitation are higher than the mean conditions of the Iberian Peninsula (Table 3). Maxent 293 models produced a strong discrimination between presence and background data regardless of

294 the threshold used (Table 4). Overall validation scores of models calibrated under current 295 conditions were: mean AUC =  $0.981 \pm 0.002$ , mean sensitivity =  $0.979 \pm 0.017$ , and mean 296 specificity =  $0.982 \pm 0.012$  (Table 4). The resulting ensemble for the current distribution showed 297 two main areas with high probability of presence of Vale da Couda lineages: (1) one around the 298 presently known distribution, and (2) different patches at the north of the Iberian Peninsula 299 (Figure 6A). LGM projection indicates that past distribution of suitable habitats could have been 300 wider, with also appropriate conditions in the Andalusian region and in a smaller area in the 301 Central System (Figure 6B).

302

#### 303 Discussion

304 The mitochondrial marker used in this study supports an unequivocal Vale da Couda complex 305 phylogeny, with four highly divergent and genetically diverse lineages. Our results show a 306 departure from the expectation that species with restricted distributions have low genetic 307 variability, adding to a list of exceptions that keeps growing (e.g. Coates et al. 2006; Ellis et al. 308 2006; Gevaert et al. 2013; Young et al. 1996). The maintenance of diversity in rare species can 309 be explained by the existence of a large effective population size (Ellstrand & Elam 1993), which 310 is likely the case with *Candidula* from Vale da Couda that are usually locally abundant. The 311 distribution models obtained for Vale da Couda lineages should be interpreted as regions with 312 environmental conditions analogous to those where the species presently occurs (Pearson et al. 313 2007) and represent a probability of occurrence of the species.

314 **Population genetics.** Studies have shown populations with high genetic structure existing during

315 the LGM in the Iberian Peninsula (Gómez & Lunt 2007). The particular geographical

316 characteristics of this Peninsula (the existence of multiple mountain ranges with an east-west

317 orientation creating a wide array of microclimatic changes, the influence of both the North 318 Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea, and existence of different climates ranging from 319 Mediterranean, alpine, desert and Atlantic) foster the perfect conditions for the isolation of 320 populations creating the "refugia within refugia" (Gómez & Lunt 2007). Even though the LGM 321 distribution model suggests a larger distribution area for Vale da Couda lineages, it is possible 322 that populations have endured geographical fragmentation at a micro-geographical level, 323 compatible with the observed patterns of highly divergent lineages (Byrne et al. 2014). Due to 324 effects of genetic drift in geographically limited species we would expect that our results showed lineages from Vale da Couda to be genetically depauperated but each sampled location displayed 325 326 high levels of genetic diversity (Table 2B). The four highly divergent mtDNA clades found in 327 Vale da Couda may have resulted from multiple colonizations by different populations of the 328 same species that extended their distribution towards more southern locations during the LGM. 329 There are two main explanations for the maintenance of high genetic diversity in rare species: (1) 330 large effective population sizes and/ or (2) gene flow between fragmented subpopulations. Large 331 effective population sizes diminish the loss of genetic diversity due to genetic drift (Ellstrand & 332 Elam 1993), and this is likely to be the case, as *Candidula* species tend to be locally abundant as 333 suggested by recent surveys of Vale da Couda populations (Moreira et al. 2015). The existence 334 of four highly divergent mtDNA lineages grouping in different clades suggests the absence of 335 gene flow between populations.

336

337 Species distribution modeling. Two distribution models were produced for specimens found in
338 Vale da Couda: a present-day model and a LGM model (c. 20 ka). The LGM model shows a
339 wider area that extends to the south with higher probability of occurrence compared with the

340 present-day distribution of the individuals from Vale da Couda (Fig. 6B). This predicted 341 distribution implies a co-occurrence between Vale da Couda lineages and other species of the 342 genus (e.g. C. setubalensis and C. belemensis) currently occupying these southern locations. The 343 differences between the paleo-model and the contemporary model are somewhat unexpected 344 considering that most of the northern hemisphere terrestrial organisms have contracted their 345 geographic distributions to the south during the harsher glacial climate conditions, and have 346 expanded their distribution by re-colonizing former northern territories after deglaciation (Hewitt 347 1999). However, mountainous regions of the north of the Iberian Peninsula (i.e. Pyrenees and 348 Cantabrian Range) are known to have been covered by ice during Pleistocene glaciations, though 349 the precise position of the ice sheet in the LGM remains uncertain (see e.g. Palacios et al. 2015). 350 Thus, most of those northern regions found suitable by our LGM model could not have been 351 occupied by these terrestrial land snails because of the existent ice sheet before deglaciation. 352 According to ENFA results (Table 3) the present-day distribution of lineages from Vale da 353 Couda is mainly driven by the presence of carbonate-dominated lithological units under rainy 354 and isothermal climatic conditions. These specific requirements seem to be in agreement with 355 those shown by other terrestrial mollusc species (Hermida et al. 2000; Kadmon & Heller 1998; 356 Tattersfield et al. 2001; Tsoar et al. 2007).

Given the putative low dispersal capacity of this group, the most plausible hypothesis is that during Quaternary glaciations Vale da Couda lineages might have dispersed towards suitable habitat located in south-central Portugal (Lisbon and northeast of Lisbon, including Leiria), where LGM hindcast suggests appropriate conditions for these organisms. A postglacial change of climatic conditions towards lower precipitation in the Lisbon area may have caused its contraction to its actual distribution using the suitable Mesozoic calcareous rock as a corridor.

363 Despite we have addressed some common hindcasting uncertainties by using different GCMs 364 and a clamping mask hindcast approach, we could not solve the lack of accurate lithological data 365 for emerged coastal land in the LGM. Thus, further appropriate habitats not depicted in our 366 models could have existed in regions near the coast.

367

368 **Biogeographic scenario.** The putative past and contemporary models of distribution of Vale da 369 Couda lineages are compatible with a biogeographic LGM scenario of species co-existence in 370 more southern locations followed by a northern dispersal tracking the species optimal thermal, 371 humidity and soil physical conditions. This co-existence is plausible given the fact that C. 372 setubalensis and C. arrabidensis occur in sympatry, as well as C. olisippensis and C. coudensis 373 (Holyoak & Holyoak 2014) and share habitat requirements with Vale da Couda lineages (Figure 374 2). Moreover, Roucoux (2001) shows low but fluctuating tree pollen through the LGM, along 375 with abundant grass and some herb pollen, indicating likely widespread suitability of the grassy 376 habitats for *Candidula* species throughout the LGM. Similar events have already been detected 377 for other land snail species (Harl et al. 2014; Sauer & Hausdorf 2010; Shimizu & Ueshima 378 2000). After the LGM, environmental conditions during deglaciation were such that promoted 379 northward dispersal of land snails and the establishment of populations in locations of suitable 380 isothermality and precipitation like Vale da Couda. C. setubalensis and C. arrabidensis 381 maintained a southern distribution, in the Setubal Peninsula. Specifically, we hypothesize that 382 Pleistocene conditions may have isolated populations into pockets of suitable habitats in more 383 southern locations, which promoted population differentiation and intra-specific diversification 384 without apparent geological barriers.

385

386 **Taxonomic implications.** Divergence between COI sequences has been used as a tool to 387 identify new species based on the premise that there is a "DNA barcoding gap", meaning that the genetic differences between intra- and inter-specific individuals do not overlap, with the 388 389 latter being bigger than the former (Bucklin et al. 2011). Several studies have shown that high 390 levels of mtDNA divergence are extremely common within land snail species, reaching values 391 as high as 30% (Chiba 1999; Davison et al. 2009; Haase et al. 2003; Thomaz et al. 1996), and 392 values between species going as low as 1% (Davison et al. 2009). These findings preclude the 393 application of the DNA barcoding approach to land snails because there is no known "barcoding 394 gap" and as such species cannot be discriminated solely based on a threshold value of sequence 395 divergence. Nevertheless, a conservative approach to our results imply the existence in Vale da 396 Couda of at least two species, represented by the two most divergent lineages (Figure 2). These 397 lineages are likely to display the highest genetic variability of the two species that according to 398 Holyoak (2014) coexist in that region, C. coudensis and C. olisippensis. As discussed before, 399 patterns of high mitochondrial divergence can be attributed to the maintenance of ancient 400 polymorphisms from past isolations (Dillon Jr & Robinson 2009) combined with the effects of 401 present large overall population size and gene flow between fragmented sub-populations. 402

403 Conclusions. The genetic survey presented here revealed the existence of four lineages in Vale
404 da Couda with independent evolutionary histories. These results do not corroborate previous
405 morphological studies that considered the existence of a single species, *Candidula coudensis*.
406 LGM hindcasts revealed the existence of putative glacial refugia south of the current
407 distribution of the lineages of Vale da Couda. We hypothesize a biogeographic scenario, which
408 is consistent with the inferred LGM distribution and the high genetic diversity observed in a

409	terrestrial snail with an extremely narrow known distributional range. Although unexpected in
410	organisms with such a restricted distribution, the high genetic diversity found in Vale da Couda
411	lineages adds to the growing list of exceptions where low-dispersal species show high levels of
412	genetic variability. These findings have implications for the understanding of the genetic
413	characteristics of rare and endemic species. From a conservation perspective, Vale da Couda
414	lineages do not seem to be endangered, with high genetic diversity within and between lineages
415	maintained by putative large effective population sizes.
416	
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418	earlier versions of this manuscript and David and Geraldine Holyoack for critical remarks.
419	
420	
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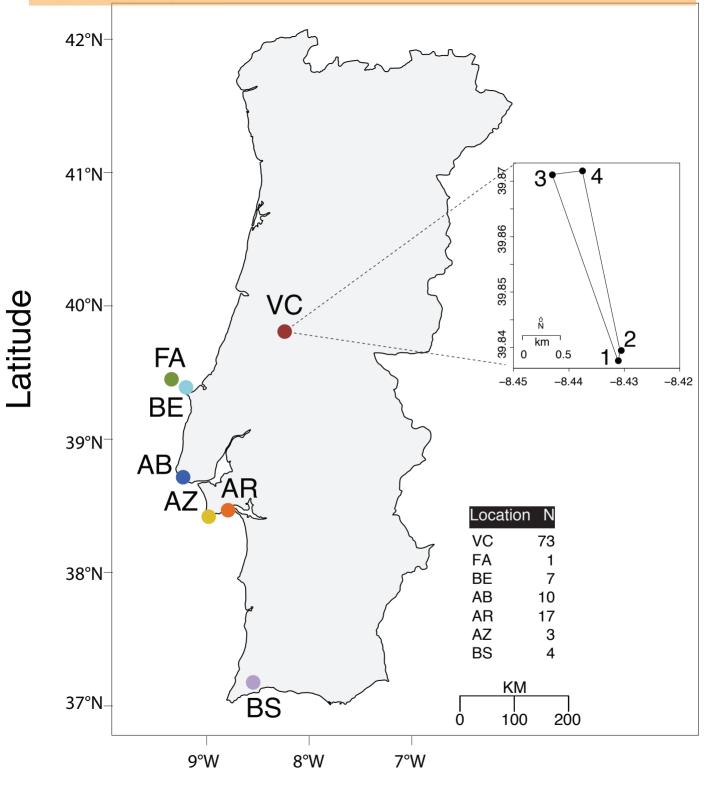
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### Figure 1(on next page)

Distribution of Candidula sampling sites.

Figure 1. Distribution of *Candidula* sampling sites in mainland Portugal and number of samples. Inset: detail of Vale da Couda collection sites.

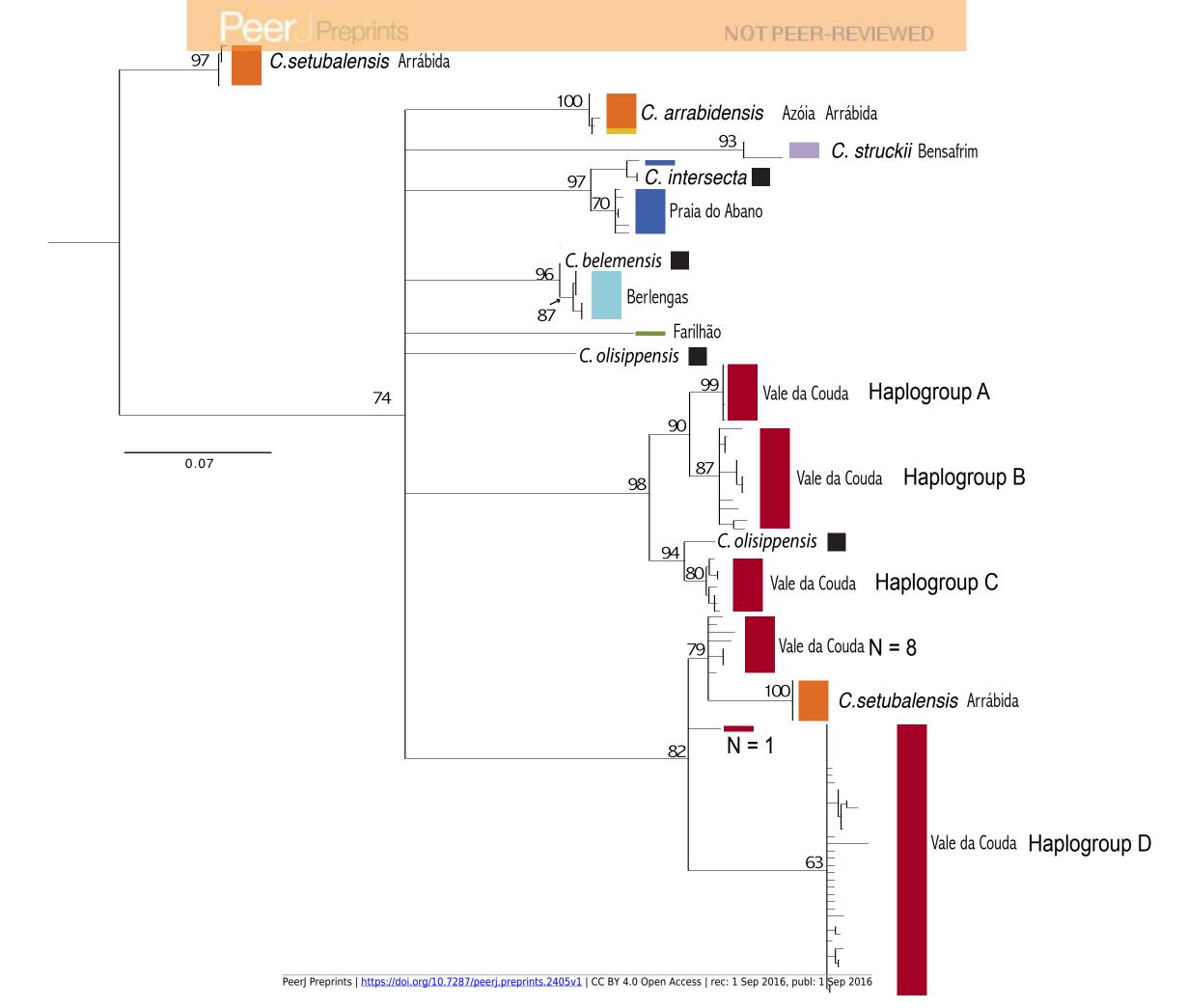
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#### Figure 2(on next page)

Phylogenetic relationships between individuals from Vale da Couda (in red) and other locations.

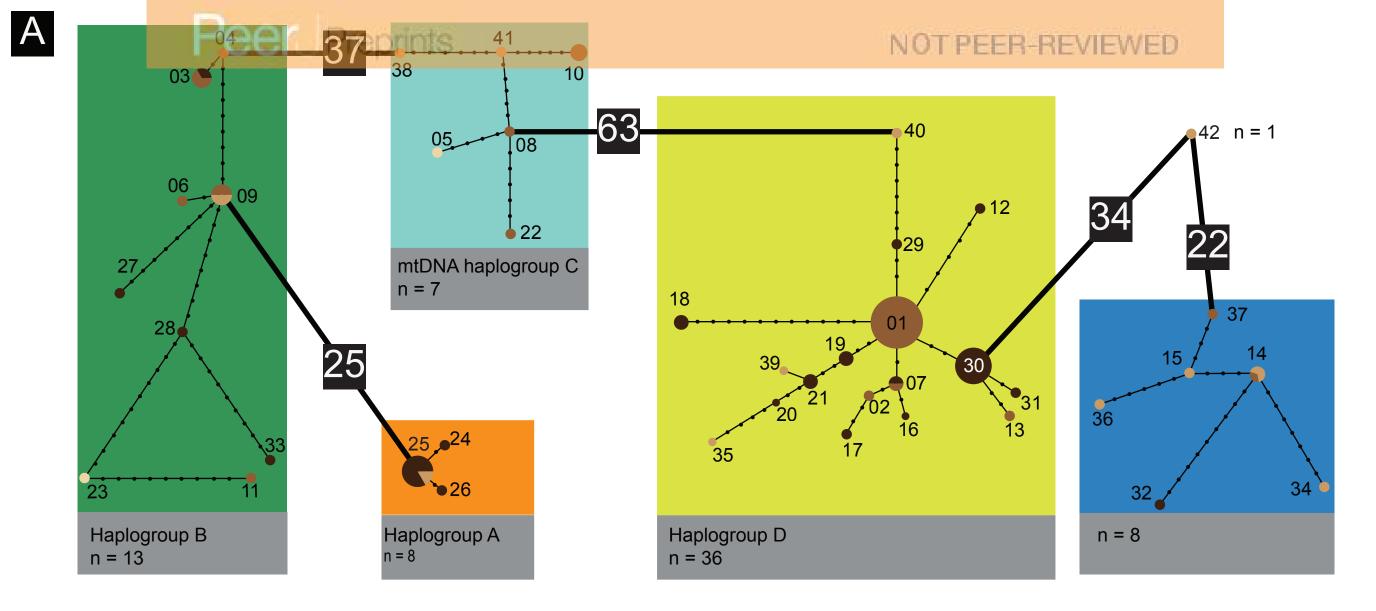
Figure 2. Phylogenetic relationships between *Candidula* individuals from Vale da Couda (in red) and other locations. Black squares represent individuals identified morphologically and anatomically. Colours of locations as in Figure 1. Outgroups removed from figure for illustrative purposes.



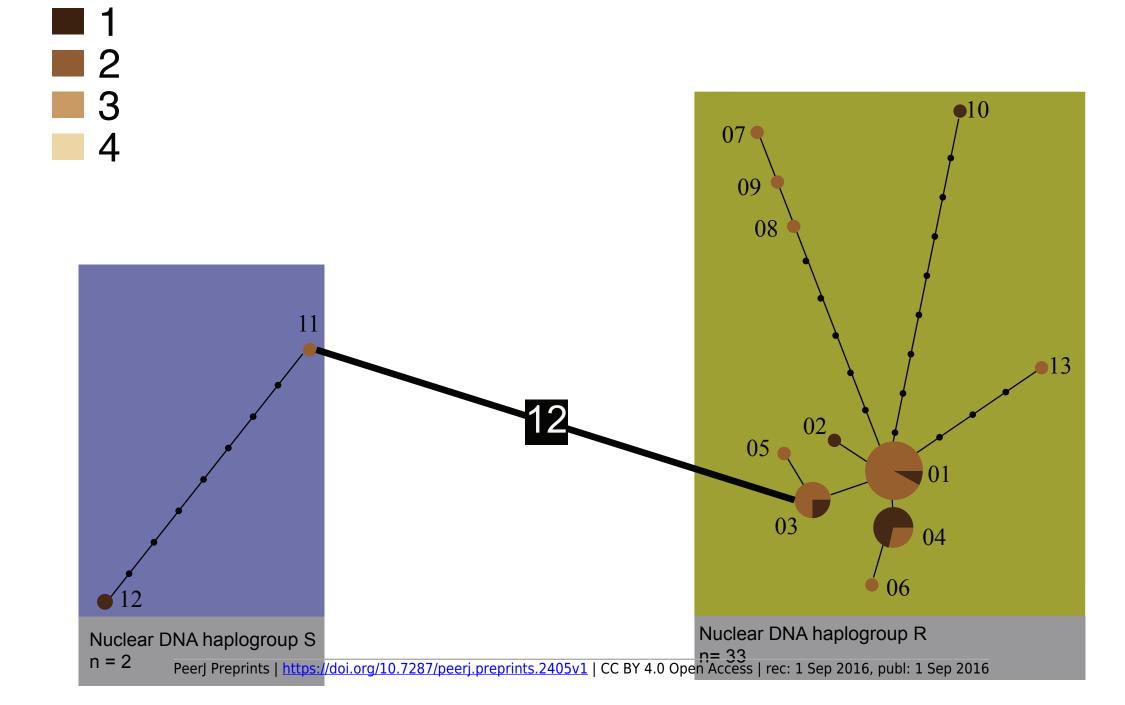
#### Figure 3(on next page)

Statistical parsimony haplotype networks for Vale da Couda individuals.

Figure 3. (A) MtDNA COI statistical parsimony haplotype network for Vale da Couda individuals. (B) Nuclear ITS1 statistical parsimony haplotype network for Vale da Couda individuals. Each branch represents one inferred mutational step; small black circles on branches represent additional inferred mutational steps; numbers in black squares denote more than twenty mutations.





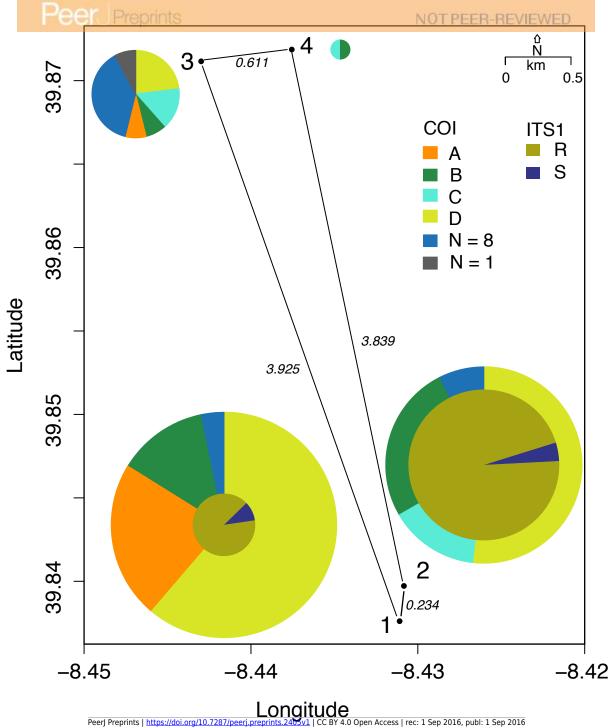


B

# Figure 4(on next page)

Distribution of mtDNA lineages in Vale da Couda sites.

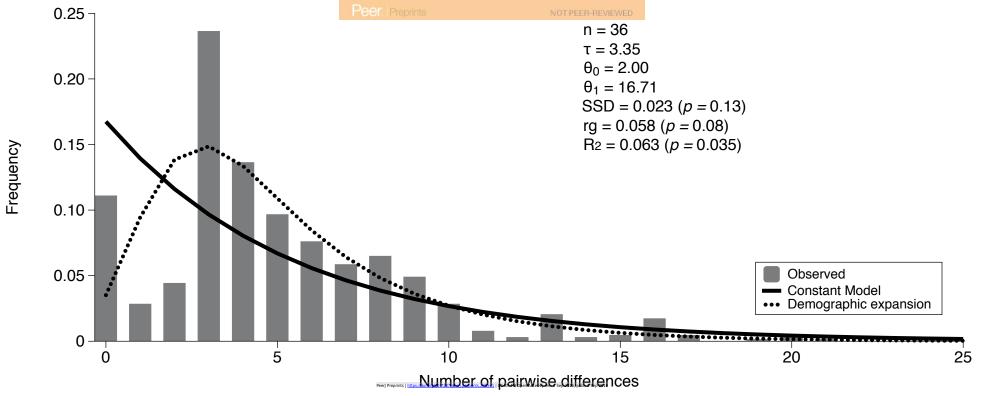
Figure 4. Distribution of mtDNA lineages in Vale da Couda sites. Numbers represent sites; numbers in italic represent distance in km between sites. Size of circles is proportional to the number of individuals. Colors depicting haplogroups are the same as in Figure 3.



#### Figure 5(on next page)

Mismatch distribution of lineage D from Vale da Couda

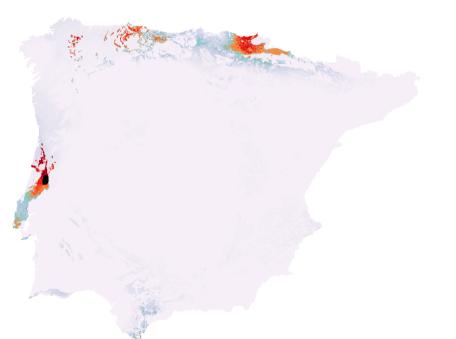
Figure 5. Mismatch distribution of lineage D from Vale da Couda, indicating number of individuals in the analysis (n), Fu's FS test of selective neutrality and population expansion, evolutionary expansion age in mutational units ( $\tau$ ), effective population size before ( $\theta$ 0) and after ( $\theta$ 1) population expansion, and mean expansion time in units of thousand years (ka). Note that the range in expansion age corresponds to the 95% confidence interval of (s). SSD represents the sum of squares deviations, *rg* the raggedness statistics and R2.

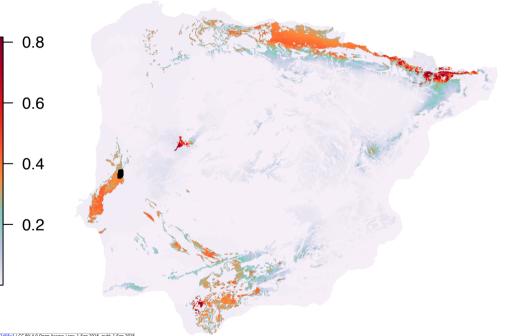


#### Figure 6(on next page)

LGM and current climate predicted geographic distributions.

Figure 6. Predicted geographic distribution built with presences of Vale da Couda individuals and based on (A) current climate, and (B) Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) conditions. Colour scale represents high probability of occurrence in red and low levels in blue. Black dots represent the present-day known occurrences in the Vale da Couda. Ice sheet existing during LGM in the north of the Iberian Peninsula is not depicted. а





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# Table 1(on next page)

Sample location and summary statistics for Candidula.

Sample location and summary statistics for Candidula.

Location	Code	Long	Lat	N	nh	$h \pm s.d$	$\pi \pm s.d.$	
Arrábida	AR	38.5	-9.0	17	9	$0.860 \pm 0.068$	$0.108 \pm 0.009$	
Azoia, Espichel	AZ	38.4	-9.2	3	3	$1.000 \pm 0.272$	$0.105 \pm 0.047$	
Berlengas	BE	37.2	-8.7	7	2	$0.571 \pm 0.119$	$0.004 \pm 0.000$	
Bensafrim	BS	39.4	-9.4	4	3	$0.833 \pm 0.222$	$0.116 \pm 0.054$	
Farilhão	FA	39.5	-9.5	1	1	0.000		
Praia do Abano	AB	38.7	-9.5	10	9	$0.978 \pm 0.054$	$0.025 \pm 0.006$	
Vale da Couda	VC	39.8	-8.4	73	42	$0.964 \pm 0.011$	$0.084 \pm 0.004$	
Total				115	69	$0.972 \pm 0.009$	$0.122 \pm 0.004$	

2 3

*N*: number of individuals; *Nh*: number of haplotypes; *h*: haplotype diversity; ?: nucleotide diversity; *s.d.*: standard deviation.

4

5

# Table 2(on next page)

Vale da Couda lineages and sites statistics.

Vale da Couda lineages, sample sizes and summary statistics for COI and ITS1 sequence fragments (A). Vale da Couda site sample sizes, lineages present and summary statistics for COI and ITS1 (B).

#### 1 2 (A)

		СОІ						ITS-1				
	Lineages	N	Nh	Locations	$\mathbf{h} \pm \mathbf{s.d.}$	? ± s.d.	N	Nh	Locations	$\mathbf{h} \pm \mathbf{s.d.}$	? ± s.d.	
	А	36	17	1, 2, 3	$0.889 \pm 0.001$	$0.009 \pm 0.001$	33	11	1,2	0.799 0.054	$0.006 \pm 0.001$	
	В	7	6	2, 3, 4	$0.952 \pm 0.096$	$0.010 \pm 0.096$	2	2	1,2	1.000 0.500	$0.016 \pm 0.008$	
	С	8	3	1, 3	$0.464 \hspace{0.1in} \pm \hspace{0.1in} 0.040$	$0.001 \pm 0.000$						
	D	13	9	1, 2, 3, 4	$0.936 \pm 0.051$	$0.018 \pm 0.002$						
		8	6	1, 2, 3	$0.893 \pm 0.111$	$0.013 \pm 0.003$						
3												
4 5	(B)											
		СОІ						ITS-1				
	Locations	N	Nh	The Lineages $h \pm s.d.$		? ± s.d.	N	Nh	Lineages	$\mathbf{h} \pm \mathbf{s.d.}$	? ± s.d.	
	1	31	18	A, C, D, E	$0.927 \pm 0.031$	$0.075 \pm 0.008$	10	6	R, S	$0.778 \pm 0.137$	$0.011 \pm 0.005$	
	2	27	15	A, B, D, E	$0.863 \pm 0.062$	$0.081 \pm 0.007$	25	10	R, S	$0.763 \pm 0.007$	$0.007 \pm 0.002$	
	3	13	12	A, B,C, D, E	$0.987 \pm 0.035$	$0.091 \pm 0.009$						
	4	2	2	B, D	$1.000 \pm 0.500$	$0.083 \pm 0.042$						

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7 N, Sample size; Nh, number of haplotypes; h, haplotype diversity;  $\pi$ , nucleotide diversity; s.d., standard deviation

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# Table 3(on next page)

Environmental Niche Factor Analysis

Environmental Niche Factor Analysis (ENFA) results showing marginality and specialization factors scores. The three variables with higher marginality scores (in bold) were selected for subsequent analyses.

	1	1
		I

Variable	Marginality	Specialization
bio1	0.19	0.40
bio3	0.47	0.00
bio7	-0.40	0.10
bio8	-0.10	0.05
bio12	0.45	0.07
bio9	0.07	-0.91
bio17	-0.10	0.03
lithology	0.59	0.00

2 3

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### Table 4(on next page)

Summary of Maxent models

Mean AUC, sensitivity and specificity scores obtained from the 100 Maxent models according to the three thresholds used. (Spec\_sens: threshold that maximizes the sum of the sensitivity and specificity).

1

Model validation	Threshold	Mean ± standard deviation
_	Prevalence	$0.983\pm0.007$
AUC _	No omission	$0.980 \pm 0.019$
	Spec_sens	$0.980 \pm 0.018$
	Prevalence	$0.999 \pm 0.006$
Sensitivity	No omission	$0.971 \pm 0.037$
	Spec_sens	$0.969 \pm 0.038$
	Prevalence	$0.968 \pm 0.013$
Specificity	No omission	$0.989 \pm 0.020$
	Spec_sens	$0.990 \pm 0.010$

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