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Multiple transgressions and slow evolution shape the phylogeographic pattern of the blind cave-dwelling shrimp *Typhlocaris*

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Background. Aquatic subterranean species often exhibit disjunct distributions, with high level of endemism and small range, shaped by vicariance, limited dispersal, and evolutionary rates. We studied the disjunct biogeographic patterns of an endangered blind cave shrimp, *Typhlocaris*, and identified the geological and evolutionary processes that have shaped its divergence pattern.

Methods. We collected *Typlocaris* specimens of three species (*T. galilea*, *T. ayyaloni*, and *T. salentina*), originating from subterranean groundwater caves by the Mediterranean Sea, and used three mitochondrial genes (12S, 16S, COI) and four nuclear genes (18S, 28S, ITS, H3) to infer their phylogenetic relationships. Using the radiometric dating of a geological formation (Bira) as a calibration node, we estimated the divergence times of the *Typhlocaris* species and the molecular evolution rates.

Results. The multi-locus ML/Bayesian trees of the concatenated seven gene sequences showed that *T. salentina* (Italy) and *T. ayyaloni* (Israel) are more closely related than *T. galilea* (Israel). The divergence time of *T. ayyaloni* and *T. salentina* from *T. galilea* was according to COI – 6.0 [4.5-7.2] Ma and according to 16S – 5.9 [3.6-7.4] Ma. The computed interspecific evolutionary rates for COI – 0.0074 substitutions/Myr and for 16S – 0.0041 substitutions/Myr.

Discussion. Two consecutive vicariant events have shaped the phylogeographic patterns of *Typhlocaris* species. First, *T. galilea* was tectonically isolated from its siblings in the Mediterranean Sea by the arching uplift of the central mountain range of Israel ca. 7 Ma. Secondly, *T. ayyaloni* and *T. salentina* were stranded and separated by a marine transgression ca. 6 Ma, occurring just before the Messinian Salinity Crisis. Our estimated molecular evolution rates were in one order of magnitude lower than the rates of closely related crustaceans, as well as of other stygobiont species. We suggest that this slow evolution reflects the ecological conditions prevailing in the highly isolated subterranean enclosures inhabited by *Typhlocaris*.

1 TITLE:

2	Multiple transgressions and slow evolution shape the phylogeographic
3	pattern of the blind cave-dwelling shrimp Typhlocaris
4	Short title: Mediterranean stygobiont phylogeography
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21 ABSTRACT

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23 of endemism and small range, shaped by vicariance, limited dispersal, and evolutionary rates.

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and identified the geological and evolutionary processes that have shaped its divergence pattern.

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27 salentina), originating from subterranean groundwater caves by the Mediterranean Sea, and used

three mitochondrial genes (12S, 16S, COI) and four nuclear genes (18S, 28S, ITS, H3) to infer

29 their phylogenetic relationships. Using the radiometric dating of a geological formation (Bira) as

30 a calibration node, we estimated the divergence times of the *Typhlocaris* species and the

31 molecular evolution rates.

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33 that *T. salentina* (Italy) and *T. ayyaloni* (Israel) are more closely related than *T. galilea* (Israel).

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35 [4.5-7.2] Ma and according to 16S – 5.9 [3.6-7.4] Ma. The computed interspecific evolutionary

36 rates for COI - 0.0074 substitutions/Myr and for 16S - 0.0041 substitutions/Myr.

37 Discussion. Two consecutive vicariant events have shaped the phylogeographic patterns of

38 Typhlocaris species. First, T. galilea was tectonically isolated from its siblings in the

39 Mediterranean Sea by the arching uplift of the central mountain range of Israel ca. 7 Ma.

40 Secondly, *T. ayyaloni* and *T. salentina* were stranded and separated by a marine transgression ca.

41 6 Ma, occurring just before the Messinian Salinity Crisis. Our estimated molecular evolution

42 rates were in one order of magnitude lower than the rates of closely related crustaceans, as well

43 as of other stygobiont species. We suggest that this slow evolution reflects the ecological

44 conditions prevailing in the highly isolated subterranean enclosures inhabited by *Typhlocaris*.

45 KEYWORDS: cave, divergence time, Mediterranean Sea, Messinian Salinity Crisis, stygofauna,
46 subterranean, transgression, *Typhlocaris*.

47 INTRODUCTION

48 The biogeographic distribution patterns of populations of aquatic subterranean organisms 49 (stygobionts) are characterized by a small range and high degree of endemism, originating from 50 limited dispersal abilities and vicariant events, isolating the subterranean basins (Christman et al. 51 2005; Culver & Holsinger 1992; Culver et al. 2009; Culver & Sket 2000; Gibert & Deharveng 52 2002; Porter 2007). Sometimes the entire distribution of a stygobiont species is restricted to a 53 single subterranean enclosure, exposing it to a substantial risk of extinction due to natural and 54 anthropogenic pressures such as salt water intrusion, pollution, climate change, and 55 overexploitation of groundwater for drinking and agricultural purposes, resulting in habitat 56 destruction (Culver & Pipan 2009; Danielopol et al. 2003; Gibert et al. 2009).

57 The aquatic subterranean fauna of the Levant is comprised of typical stygofauna. Among them 58 are at least four crustaceans, found in sites located along the Dead Sea Rift valley with 59 congeneric taxa found in the Mediterranean coastal plain and even in brackish groundwater in 60 the south of Israel. These obligate stygobionts are regarded as relicts of extinct marine fauna of 61 ancient Mediterranean transgressions (Por 1963). The most prominent member of this faunal 62 assemblage is the large blind prawn of the genus *Typhlocaris*. Four species of this genus are 63 known from four localities around the east Mediterranean Sea (Figure 1). Each locality is 64 inhabited by a different species with no congenerics in the open sea. Two species are known 65 from Israel: T. galilea (Calman 1909) from the Tabgha spring on Lake Kinneret shore, and the 66 recently discovered T. avyaloni (Tsurnamal 2008), found in the karstic underground basin near 67 Ramla, named Ayyalon cave, about 200 km south of Tabgha. The third species - T. salentina 68 Caroli, 1923 was described from the Zinzulusa cave in Southern Italy and was recently found in 69 other two caves in southern Italy (Froglia & Ungaro 2001). The fourth species, T. lethaea Parisi, 70 1921 is known from Libya near Benghazi. In the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, T. 71 galilea and T. avvaloni are defined as endangered, and T. salentina as vulnerable. No data later 72 than 1960 on *T. lethaea* is available (De Grave 2013).

73 *Typhlocaris* and the other marine taxa survived the regression of the Mediterranean Sea that

74 occurred during the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC), 5.96 to 5.33 Ma, in caves and groundwater

75 basins. Most probably, they were extirpated from the Mediterranean Sea waters when the

76 Mediterranean desiccated and transformed to small hypersaline basins. During this crisis, the

77 Mediterranean Sea lost almost all its Miocene tropical fauna, including those able to colonize

subterranean waters (Por 1975; Por 1986; Por & Dimentman 2006). Therefore, the stranding of

79 the *Typhlocaris* species and the separation from their common ancestor have likely preceded the

80 MSC.

81 Two scenarios were proposed to explain the disjunct distribution of *Typhlocaris* (H1 and H2,

82 Figure 2). Por (1963; 1975; 2006) suggested that *Typhlocaris* species have been stranded along

83 the shores of a peri-Mediterranean Pliocene transgression. The timing of this scenario contradicts

84 the pre-MSC stranding described above. Accordingly, the *Typhlocaris* species expanded their

85 distribution into the Jordan valley when it was submerged for a brief period during the Zanclean

86 marine transgression. The coastal plain was also submerged by this transgression that possibly

also covered a part of the south of Israel (Por 1963). Those faunal elements were left behind

88 when the shore has retreated during the regression that followed the regression in the early

89 Pliocene. Similarly, Horowitz (2001) suggested that during the Pliocene, two successive

90 transgressive cycles have occurred in the Zanclean and the Piacenzian, separated by a regression.

91 Thus, according to this scenario, *T. galilea* and *T. ayyaloni* were separated together or at

92 successive events from the Mediterranean fauna, and are thus sister taxa (H1, Figure 2).

A recent study of the eastern Galilee (Rozenbaum et al. 2016) suggests a second scenario (H2, 93 94 Figure 2). The marine transgression into the Dead Sea valley, bringing along *T. galilea*, was 95 associated with a subsidence of the eastern Galilee. The Dead Sea rift valley, accommodating 96 several water bodies, became tectonically isolated from the Mediterranean by the arching uplift 97 of the central mountain range of Israel. This uplift also divided the groundwater basins of the 98 Dead Sea basin from those associated with the Mediterranean. Contrastingly, the other three 99 *Typhlocaris* species are found in coastal to inland aquifers that are not isolated from the 100 Mediterranean by a tectonic barrier. They could be stranded in the coastal aquifers by an 101 ingression that was not necessarily associated with a tectonic event. This hypothesis is supported 102 by the finding of marine macrofossils within the late Miocene Bira Formation of the SE Galilee-103 Jordan valley indicating its association with a marine transgression (Shaked-Gelband et al. 104 2014). Ar-Ar dates of volcanics interbedded within the Bira Formation show that the earliest 105 marine invasion into the SE Galilee-Jordan valley happened between 11 and 10 Ma (Rozenbaum

106 et al. 2016; for earlier dating see Shaliv 1989). Ongoing subsidence of the SE Galilee basin, 107 coupled with rising sea level, resulted in the invasion of the Mediterranean water and 108 establishment of a seaway that connected it to the evolving Dead Sea Rift in the east, as represented by parts of the Bira Formation. Seawater could have flowed to the SE Galilee basin 109 110 either due to global sea level rise above the low barrier near the coastline or due to tectonic subsidence of the Yizre'el Valley which had already started to develop. The detachment of this 111 112 region from the Mediterranean occurred ca. 7Ma, when the Mediterranean Sea level started falling during the Messinian, followed by freshwaters gradually replacing the saline waters of the 113 Bira lagoon. Thus, the main marine ingression is constrained to the Tortonian, prior to the MSC. 114 Further to the NE, within the Hula valley, Syria and Lebanon, there is no indication of this 115 marine transgression, demonstrating that the marine water came from the Mediterranean and not 116 117 from the NE (Rozenbaum et al. 2016). This is consistent with the circum-Mediterranean

118 distribution of the four *Typhlocaris* species.

119 The main objectives of our study were: (1) to reveal phylogenetic relationship of the *Typhlocaris*

120 species, and (2) to infer the geological processes that have shaped their divergence pattern.

121 MATERIALS & METHODS

122 Species sampling, genes and outgroup selection

123 Specimens of *T. galilea* were collected by us, in the covered pool collecting the water of Tabgha spring (32°52'20"N 35°33'00"E) on Lake Kinneret shore (NPA permit 37920). T. ayyaloni was 124 collected from the underground groundwater pond in Ayyalon cave (31°54'37"N 34°55'39"E), 125 126 two specimens of T. salentina were provided by Dr. G. Messana Firenze – Italy from two caves in the vicinity of Bari, Italy, Lu Bissu cave (39°59'42"N 15°57'58"E) and Mola di Bari cave 127 128 (41°03'36"N 17°05'24"E). All samples were fixed and stored in 95% ethanol at -20°C until 129 DNA extraction. The locality of the fourth species, T. lethaea, is restricted to Lete Cave, near 130 Benghazi, Libya, and is not accessible. The two specimens of T. lethaea, collected by Parisi a 131 century ago (1921), and stored in the Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, did not yield 132 DNA.

133

134 DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

- 135 DNA was extracted using Macherey-Nagel genomic DNA isolation kit, following the
- 136 manufacturer's recommended protocol. The primers used for gene amplification are detailed in
- 137 the Supplemental Information, including both primers from former studies and newly designed
- 138 primers for this study (*Table S1*). REDTaq ReadyMix R2523 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO)
- 139 was used for sequence amplification by PCR (Saiki et al. 1988). Amplification was carried out in
- 140 a personal combi-thermocycler (Biometra, Germany) according to the profiles listed in *Table S1*.
- 141 PCR products were purified by centrifugation using a High Pure PCR product purification kit
- 142 (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) or by Mclab laboratories (San Francisco,
- 143 California). PCR products were sequenced on both strands using an ABI PRISM 3100 Genetic
- 144 Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) by McLab laboratories (San Francisco, US).
- 145 Three mitochondrial genes (12S rRNA; 16S rRNA; Cytochrom oxygnese subunit 1 (COI)) and
- 146 four nuclear genes (18S rRNA; 28S rRNA, Internal transcribed spacer (*ITS*); Histon 3 (*H3*))
- 147 were chosen for analysis. For phylogenetic inference of all seven gene partitions, we used
- 148 Ephyrina figueirai Crosnier & Forest, 1973, and Palaemon elegans Rathke, 1837, as outgroup
- 149 species, belonging to the same infraorder of *Typhlocaris*, Caridae. For divergence time
- 150 estimation, we used two transisthmian pairs of *Alpheus: A. estuarensis A. colombiensis*, and *A.*
- 151 anepenulitimus A. chacei (Knowlton & Weigt 1998; Williams et al. 2001).
- 152 The sequences were deposited in the GenBank under accession numbers KY593415-KY593454.
- 153 In addition to the newly generated sequences, two sequences of *T. salentina* were obtained from
- 154 GenBank and included in the molecular analysis. The list of taxa, localities and GenBank
- accession numbers included in the analysis is detailed in Supplemental Information (*Table S2*).

156 Phylogenetic analyses

- 157 Sequence alignment was conducted using ClustalX embedded in MEGA v6.0 (Tamura et al.
- 158 2013). The sequences were concatenated to form a multi-gene matrix using Geneious v7.1 (http://
- 159 www.geneious.com/), including the three *Typhlocaris* sequences and two outgroups, delimited
- 160 into seven partitions, one for each gene. MEGA v6.0 (Tamura et al. 2013) was used in order to

select the best fitting substitution model for each partition according to the Bayesian InformationCriterion (*Table 1*).

Maximum likelihood analysis of the aligned partitions was conducted using RAxML v8.2.9
(Stamatakis 2014) on XSEDE server in the CIPRES Science Gateway portal (Miller et al. 2010)
using a GTRCAT model of evolution with 50 rate categories with 1000 bootstrapping replicates.
Bayesian Metropolis coupled Markov chain Monte Carlo (B-MCMC) analyses were conducted
with MrBayes v3.2 on XSEDE with GTR model (Ronquist et al. 2012). Search was conducted
with four chains (three cold, one hot) with trees sampled every 100 generations. Three 100

169 generations analyses were conducted to verify likelihood convergence and burn-in parameter.

170 Divergence time analysis

171 Since the molecular clock calculations for cave-dwelling species are often contentious (Page et 172 al. 2008), we used multiple genes and a relaxed molecular clock approach (Drummond et al. 173 2006). The top of Bira formation, dated to 7 Ma (Rozenbaum et al. 2016), marks the end of the 174 marine connection between the Mediterranean and the Dead Sea valley. Therefore we assume that this event indicates the isolation of T. galilea from its sister taxa, and we used it as a 175 176 calibration node. A relaxed-clock MCMC approach using the uncorrelated log-normal model 177 was implemented in BEAST v2.4 (Drummond & Bouckaert 2015) on XSEDE server in the 178 CIPRES Science Gateway portal (Miller et al. 2010), using 10 million generations, and sampling 179 every 1000th generation. Models of sequence evolution for each gene were determined using the 180 corrected Akaike information criterion in JModelTest v2.1 (Darriba & Posada 2014, Table 2) on 181 XSEDE server. The Yule process was chosen as speciation process for both genes. Log files 182 were analyzed with Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al. 2015), to assess convergence and confirm that 183 the combined effective sample sizes for all parameters were larger than 200, in order to ensure 184 that the MCMC chain had run long enough to get a valid estimate of the parameters (Drummond & Rambaut 2007). All resulting trees were then combined with LogCombiner v1.8.2, with a 185 186 burn-in of 25%. A maximum credibility tree was then produced using TreeAnnotator v2.1.2 (Rambaut & Drummond 2015). 187

188

189 **RESULTS**

- 190 The concatenated alignment of the seven genes was 7761 bp long, out of which 1645 were
- 191 parsimonious informative. The substitution models selected for all the genes/partitions with the
- 192 corrected Akaike Information Criterion and the Bayesian Information Criterion scores is
- 193 presented in Table 1. Figure 3 presents a maximum likelihood (ML) tree of the concatenated
- 194 sequences, showing that *T. salentina* and *T. ayyaloni* are more closely related than *T. galilea*.
- 195 Neighbour-Joining multi-gene trees of the three species of *Typhlocaris* showed the same
- 196 topology. Also, out of the seven genes used for the analysis, five gene sequences (ITS, 28S, COI,
- 197 12S, 16S) presented this topology. The remaining gene trees, of 18S and H3, had slightly
- 198 different topology. However, the bootstrap support of the nodes connecting Typhlocaris species
- in these trees was less than 50%.

200 Our analyses support the hypothesis suggesting that *T. galilea* was separated from its presumed

- 201 marine ancestor earlier than *T. ayyaloni* and *T. salentina* (H2, Figure 2).
- 202 Using 7 Ma as the detachment time that isolated *T. galilea* from the Mediterranean Sea (top Bira
- formation), the divergence time of *T. avyaloni* and *T. salentina* was according to COI gene 6.0
- [4.5-7.2] Ma and according to the 16S gene -5.9 [3.6-7.4] Ma (*Table 2*), suggesting that these
- are relicts of the last high level of the Mediterranean Sea before the MSC. The computed
- 206 evolutionary rates for COI 0.0074 substitutions/Myr and for 16S 0.0041 substitutions/Myr,
- are notably lower than the molecular clock rates found in previous crustacean studies (*Table 3*).
- 208 The evolutionary rates of ITS, 28S, and 12S were 0.0104, 0.0184, 0.0115 substitutions/Myr,
- 209 respectively.

210 **DISCUSSION**

- 211 Marine regressions are the most significant vicariant events structuring stygoboint speciation
- 212 (Culver et al. 2009; Porter 2007). Using molecular techniques, we showed that two vicariant
- 213 events have shaped the phylogeographic patterns of *Typhlocaris* species. First, *T. galilea* was
- 214 tectonically isolated from the Mediterranean Sea by the arching uplift of the central mountain
- 215 range of Israel, ~7 Ma. Later, *T. ayyaloni* and *T. salentina* were stranded and separated by a
- 216 marine transgression ~6 Ma, as a result of the Messinian Salinity Crisis.

217 Commonly, the final closure of the Isthmus of Panama that has occurred approximately 3 Ma 218 (Coates et al. 1992; Keigwin 1982; Keigwin 1978; O'Dea et al. 2016) is used for estimation and 219 calibration of divergence time of crustaceans. Knowlton and Weigt (1998) and Williams et al. 220 (2001) found that the substitution rate of COI is 0.0140 per Myr. This finding is based on the 221 pairs of transisthmian snapping shrimp Alpheus from Panama: A. estuarensis – A. colombiensis, 222 and A. nepenulitimus – A. chacei. Schubart et al. (1998) calibrated the substitution rate of 16S 223 rDNA using trans-isthmian pairs of crabs of the genus Sesarma (Grapsidae) and then used this 224 rate to estimate a date for the origin of the Jamaican lineage *Sesarma*, the substitution rate of Sesarma was 0.0065 per Myr. Sturmbauer et al. (1996) used the same gene from populations of 225 226 the fiddler crab Uca vocator, from either side of the Isthmus of Panama to estimate divergences 227 rates of Uca. The sequence divergence rate was 0.0090 per Myr; this rate was used to estimate 228 the time divergence between clades of terrestrial *Uca* from different parts of the globe.

229 Craft et al. (2008) and Page et al. (2008) that studied the phylogeography of atyids did not use 230 the rates of transisthmian organisms to calibrate the molecular clock but estimated it independently for the studied taxa. Craft et al. (2008) studied Halocaridina from the Hawaiian 231 232 Archipelago. To calibrate the molecular clock, they used the age of the earliest eruption 233 of Kilauea volcano in Hawaii, 50–100 Ka, and the genetic data of the groups of 234 Halocaridina that occur along the flank of this volcano. They found an exceptionally high divergence rate of 0.2 per Myr in COI gene of *Halocaridina*. They noted that this rate is 235 236 in sharp contrast to the commonly utilized evolution rates for arthropods 0.0140-0.0170 per Myr 237 (Williams et al. 2001). Page et al. (2008) studied the cave atvids Stygiocaris from Cape Range 238 area in Western Australia. It is accepted that the emergence of the Cape Range Anticline in the 239 Miocene isolated Stygiocaris lancifera and S. stylifera, leading to their speciation, therefore, 240 Page *et al.* (2008) used this event, 7–10 Ma, as a calibration point to estimate rates of molecular 241 divergence. This yielded a wide range of evolutionary rates for the *S. lancifera / stylifera* node: 242 0.0133-0.0516 substitutions/Myr in COI and 0.0055-0.0103 substitutions/Myr in 16S, relatively 243 lower than other atyid studies, but still higher than the rate we found for *Typhlocaris*.

244 Zakšek et al. (2009) studied the phylogeography the cave shrimp Troglocaris anophthalmus. To

- estimate the divergence time they referred to the divergence rate of COI used for transisthmian
- 246 species of *Alpheus* across the Isthmus of Panama (Knowlton and Weigt, 1998). Zakšek *et al.*

247 (2009), therefore, stated that for *Troglocaris*, the rate calculated by Knowlton and Weigt (1998)

- can be used only for estimation of the order of magnitude of divergence time because it is the
- 249 most commonly used rate for decapods. Nonetheless, they found COI patristic distances between
- 250 phylogroups that are much lower (0.05-0.08) than the accepted patristic COI distance of 0.16
- 251 substitutions per nucleotide position found to optimally separate intra-from interspecies
- 252 divergence in other crustaceans (Lefébure et al. 2007).

253 The rates found by us are in one order of magnitude lower than those found for *Alpheus*, the

common crustacean used for calibration of divergence time, as well as the rates of other

stygobionts (Page et al. 2008). Corresponding with our analysis, the low COI patristic distance

found in several phylogroups of a cave shrimp by Zakšek et al. (2009), may indicate a lower

257 evolution rate. Unlike *Typhlocaris* species that are each restricted to a limited isolated

subterranean enclosure, Zakšek *et al.* (2009) studied 50 isolated populations of the stygobiont

shrimp *Troglocaris anophthalmus*, whose range of distribution is more than 500 km. In the

260 Balkan Peninsula, this taxon is composed of four or possibly five monophyletic, geographically

261 defined phylogroups. It is assumed that during periodical floods, the cave dwelling *Troglocaris*

- are frequently washed out of their subterranean habitat and reach other caves. Eventually each
- was genetically adapted to the ecological condition of the new subterranean environmental

264 conditions.

265 The evolutionary rates, even of the same gene, differ in different genera within the same order – 266 indicating that evolutionary rates are not related only to the taxonomic position but also, or 267 mainly, to ecological conditions. We therefore did not use the previously reported substitution 268 rate but the known geological data of the area where *Typhlocaris* occurs. The lower divergence 269 rates found for *Typhlocaris* compared with other crustaceans lead us to the suggestion that the 270 low rates are related to the ecological conditions of the *Thyplocaris* habitat. *Typhlocaris* and 271 other stygobionts are found in isolated subterranean enclosures where species diversity is very 272 low, relative to the regional diversity (Gibert et al. 2009), potentially reducing interspecific 273 competition. The environmental factors in these enclosures are stable, lacking fluctuations. 274 Predators are typically missing in subterranean habitats, resulting in truncated food webs (Gibert 275 & Deharveng 2002). Additionally, evolution rates were correlated with metabolic rates (Martin & Palumbi 1993). Species with low metabolic rates (e.g., deep-sea fauna) are generally 276

characterized by reduced nucleotide substitution rates. It was hypothesized that limited light

- 278 reduces visual predation pressure and selects for reduced locomotory ability and metabolic
- 279 capacity (da Silva et al. 2011). This may be just as well the case of stygobiont evolution. Thus,
- 280 the combined unique ecological and biological conditions (dark habitat, environmental stability,
- 281 low richness, lack of interspecific competition) lead to stability and low rate of gene divergence.
- 282 This is in agreement with the statement of Mayer (1963) that competition and allopatry are
- 283 important elements of speciation and evolutionary divergence.

284 Culver (1976) noted that the most striking feature of the organization of Appalachian cave-

- stream communities is the reduction in intensity of competition. One of the suggested
- 286 explanations is that, with increasing time in caves, species evolve a life-history strategy of high
- 287 metabolic efficiency and low reproductive rate, a strategy that may itself reduce interspecific
- 288 competition. We assume that the higher divergence rate found in other crustacean is related to
- 289 competition. The classical taxa used for calibration of molecular dating are the18 species of
- 290 Alpheus at both sides of the Isthmus of Panama (Knowlton and Weigt, 1998). Knowlton (1993)
- 291 observed aggressive behavior among species including individuals that belong to a nominal
- 292 species from both sides of the Isthmus of Panama, supporting our assumption on the role of
- 293 competition in delimiting evolutionary rates.

Using evolutionary biology, we can identify processes that promote or maintain phenotypic and genetic diversity in natural populations. This is of a great importance particularly when the studied organisms are under high risk of becoming extinct. While many studies confirmed that interspecific competition and environmental variation drive genetic diversification, there is little phylogeographic evidence linking environmental stability with low genetic variation. Further molecular investigations of stygobionts and other organisms of stable environments will shed light on universality of their temporal mode of speciation.

301 CONCLUSIONS

- 302 Our results indicated that two separate vicariant event shaped the distribution patterns of the
- 303 blind cave-dwelling shrimp *Typhlocaris*. During the late Miocene, *T. galilea* was tectonically
- 304 isolated from the Mediterranean Sea by the arching uplift of the central mountain range of Israel,

305 ca. 7 Ma. During the Messinian Salinity Crisis, *T. ayyaloni*, geographically adjacent to *T. galilea*,

- 306 and *T. salentina* were stranded and separated by a marine transgression. A future investigation of
- 307 the divergence time of *T. lethaea* may shed more light on the transgression events leading to the
- 308 disjunct phylogeographic pattern of *Typhlocaris*. Furthermore, the evolutionary rates of
- 309 Typhlocaris estimated in this study (0.0074 substitutions/Myr in Cytochrome Oxidase Subunit 1
- 310 (COI) and 0.0041 substitutions/Myr in 16S rRNA) were in one order of magnitude lower than
- 311 the rates of closely related crustaceans, and lower than other stygobiont species. These low rates
- 312 may result from the low predation stress and the low diversity, leading to low interspecific
- 313 competition, which characterizes the highly isolated subterranean enclosures inhabited by
- 314 Typhlocaris.

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- 320 for helping with map preparation.

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438 FIGURE LEGENDS

439 Figure 1. Distribution map of *Typhlocaris* species (colored in red) based on spatial data from

440 NatureServe and IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature). The IUCN Red List of

441 *Threatened Species. Version 2014.1.* (<u>http://www.iucnredlist.org</u>). Downloaded on 28 January

442 2018. Map made using Natural Earth data (<u>http://www.naturalearthdata.com</u>).

443 Figure 2. Schemes describing the two hypotheses of development of the disjunct distribution of

444 *Typhlocaris*. H1: the peri-Mediterranean transgression scenario. H2: tectonic isolation of the

445 eastern Galilee from the Mediterranean followed by stranding to the coastal aquifers by

446 ingressions.

447 **Figure 3.** Multi-locus Maximum Likelihood tree of the genus Typhlocaris, based on combined

448 12S rRNA + 16S rRNA + COI + 18S rRNA + 28S rRNA + ITS + H3 genes (total 7761 bp). At

each node, the number above the branch indicates the percentage of ML bootstrap support (1000

450 replicates) from RAxML analysis with the GTRCAT model of evolution. The number below the

451 branch at each node indicates the Bayesian posterior probability expressed as a decimal fraction

452 for nodes that received at least 50% support in at least one analysis. The scale bar denotes the

453 estimated number of nucleotide substitutions per site.

454 TABLE LEGENDS

Table 1. Nucleotide analysis and substitution models selected (out of 24 candidate models) for
all the genes/partitions with the corrected Akaike Information Criterion and the Bayesian
Information Criterion.

Table 2. Divergence times (and 95% CI) for Typhlocaris species as estimated using Bayesian
evolutionary analysis method based on COI and 16S genes and calibrated based on Bira
formation.

- 461 **Table 3.** Comparison between the COI and 16S molecular evolution rates estimated in this and
- 462 previous crustacean studies: ^[1] this study, ^[2] Knowlton & Weigt (1998), ^[3] Page et al. (2008), ^[4]
- 463 Schubart et al. (1998), ^[5] Sturmbauer et al. (1996), ^[6] Ketmaier et al. (2003), ^[7] Craft et al.
- 464 (2008).

465 SUPPLEMETAL INFORMATION - TABLE LEGENDS

- 466 **Table S1.** List of the primers used for gene amplification in this study and PCR profiles.
- 467 **Table S2.** GenBank accession numbers of *Typhlocaris*.

468 DATA ACCESSIBILITY STATEMENT

469 The authors confirm that all data underlying the findings are fully available without restriction.

470 All DNA sequences generated in this research were deposited in the GenBank. The list of

471 primers used and designed for this study and the list of taxa, localities and GenBank accession

472 numbers are detailed in the Supplemental Information (Table S1 and S2, respectively) and will

473 be made available in the data repository PANGAEA.

Figure 1(on next page)

Distribution map of *Typhlocaris* species (colored in red) based on spatial data from NatureServe and IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature).

The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2014.1. (http://www.iucnredlist.org). Downloaded on 28 January 2018. Map made using Natural Earth data (http://www.naturalearthdata.com).



Figure 2(on next page)

Schemes describing the two hypotheses of development of the disjunct distribution of *Typhlocaris*.

H1: the peri-Mediterranean transgression scenario. H2: tectonic isolation of the eastern Galilee from the Mediterranean followed by stranding to the coastal aquifers by ingressions.

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Figure 3(on next page)

Multi-locus Maximum Likelihood tree of the genus Typhlocaris, based on combined 12S rRNA + 16S rRNA + COI + 18S rRNA + 28S rRNA + ITS + H3 genes (total 7761 bp).

At each node, the number above the branch indicates the percentage of ML bootstrap support (1000 replicates) from RAxML analysis with the GTRCAT model of evolution. The number below the branch at each node indicates the Bayesian posterior probability expressed as a decimal fraction for nodes that received at least 50% support in at least one analysis. The scale bar denotes the estimated number of nucleotide substitutions per site.





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Table 1(on next page)

Nucleotide analysis and substitution models selected (out of 24 candidate models) for all the genes/partitions with the corrected Akaike Information Criterion and the Bayesian Information Criterion 1

Partition	Length (bp)	Informative Positions	Variable Positions	Model	Nst-rates	BIC	AICc
12S	394	161	236	T92+G	6 - Gamma	2572	2465
16S	972	160	221	HKY+G	2 - Gamma	4179	3062
COI	663	254	286	GTR+G+I	6 - Gamma	5366	5008
18S	1914	263	342	K2+G	2 - Gamma	6750	6640
28S	2059	306	659	T92+G	6 - Gamma	5194	5117
ITS	1795	612	1523	T92+G	6 - Gamma	4185	4014
Н3	358	50	97	K2+G	2 - Gamma	1736	1572

2

Table 2(on next page)

Divergence times (and 95% CI) for *Typhlocaris* species as estimated using Bayesian evolutionary analysis method based on COI and 16S genes and calibrated based on Bira formation.

1

Clade divergence	Calibration node	Gene	Node age (Myr) [range]	Posterior probability
Turklooguig	-	COI	25.3 [20.1-26.4]	0.48
Typniocaris	-	16S	40.9 [35.3-47.5]	1.00
(T. ayyaloni + T. salentina) -	7.0 (Bira)	COI	7.0 [5.7-8.5]	1.00
T. galilea		16S	7.0 [4.9-9.2]	1.00
T annaloni T a glouting	-	COI	6.0 [4.5-7.2]	0.76
1. ayyaloni - 1. saleniina	-	16S	5.6 [3.4-7.3]	0.76

2

Table 3(on next page)

Comparison between the COI and 16S molecular evolution rates estimated in this and previous crustacean studies.

^[1] this study, ^[2] Knowlton & Weigt (1998), ^[3] Page et al. (2008), ^[4] Schubart et al. (1998), ^[5] Sturmbauer *et al.* (1996), ^[6] Ketmaier et al. (2003), ^[7] Craft et al. (2008).

1

Gene	Stygofa	auna	Non-Stygofauna		
_	Species Substitutions /M		Species Substitutions		
COI mtRNA	<i>Typhlocaris</i> spp. ^[1]	0.0074	Alpheus spp. ^[2]	0.0140	
	Stygiocaris spp. ^[3]	0.0133-0.0516	Halocaridina spp. ^[7]	0.2000	
	Stenasellus spp. [6]	0.0125			
16S rRNA	Typhlocaris spp. [1]	0.0041	Sesarma spp. ^[4]	0.0065	
	Stygiocaris spp. [3]	0.0055-0.0103	<i>Uca</i> spp. ^[5]	0.0090	

2

3