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Population structure and connectivity in the Atlantic scleractinian coral Montastraea cavernosa (Linnaeus, 1767)

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Abstract

Coral reefs are increasingly threatened worldwide by a variety of biological and physical factors, including disease, bleaching and ocean acidification. Understanding levels of connectivity among widespread populations can assist in conservation efforts and the design of marine protected areas, as larval dispersal scales affect population demography. This study examined genetic connectivity and morphological variation of the broadcast spawning coral Montastraea cavernosa (L., 1767) among five locations in the Caribbean and Western Atlantic. Analysis of mtDNA and nuclear rRNA internal transcribed spacers, at both the local and regional scale, revealed that the majority of variation existed within locations rather than among them. Likewise, the majority of pairwise comparisons were non-significant between sites and locations. These results suggest that moderate to high gene flow occurs within and among populations of *M. cavern*osa in the Western Atlantic. The phylogeographic signature and significant pairwise comparisons among several locations, however, indicate that populations are also partially maintained through self-seeding and that gene flow may be restricted over large geographic distances. Additionally, while some anatomical variation is likely attributable to phenotypic plasticity, variations in skeletal morphology between Jamaica and other locations correspond with significant pairwise genetic distances and the presence of private sequence types (limited to a single location), suggesting selection to local environmental conditions.

Introduction

The ability of a coral reef to recover from disturbance events is contingent on the continued recruitment of coral larvae from local and distant populations. Understanding patterns of population connectivity, therefore, increases our understanding of reef resilience. Previous estimates of population connectivity were based on potential larval dispersal capabilities inferred from basic life-history information and ocean current variables (Thorson 1950; Veron 1995; Bohonak 1999; White et al. 2010). The incorporation of genetic information, however, has shown high amounts of genetic structure among locations for several species of corals regardless of the duration of their larval phase (Ayre & Hughes 2000; Baums et al. 2005; Underwood et al. 2007; Vollmer & Palumbi 2007; Miller & Ayre 2008; Goodbody-Gringley et al. 2010). For example, in the Caribbean, restricted gene flow has been reported in the broadcasting acroporid corals Acropora palmata and Acropora cervicornis (Baums et al. 2005; Vollmer & Palumbi 2007) and in the brooding faviid coral Favia fragum (Goodbody-Gringley et al. 2010). Alternatively, Neves et al. (2008) found continuous gene flow along the Brazilian coast in the brooding siderastreid corals Siderastrea stellata and Siderastrea radians, and evidence also exists for panmictic populations of some broadcasting corals spanning over hundreds of kilometers (Ayre et al. 1997; Ayre & Hughes 2000; Ridgway et al. 2001; Marquez et al. 2002; Ng & Morton 2003; Takabayashi et al. 2003). Such differences imply that levels of population connectivity are not only a function of the duration of the larval pre-competent phase

but likely involve other physical, biological and behavioral factors as well.

Montastraea cavernosa (Linnaeus, 1767) is a common reef-building coral on fore-reef slopes throughout the Caribbean and Western Atlantic, extending from Bermuda to Brazil and the West African coast (Szmant 1986; Veron 2000; Nunes et al. 2009). Colonies of M. cavernosa can form massive boulders or flat plates that typically occur in green, brown, gray or orange (Veron 2000). Like its congeneric species in the Montastraea annularis complex, M. cavernosa is a broadcast spawner, releasing sperm and eggs into the water column where fertilization and development subsequently take place (Szmant 1986). The minimum development period for broadcasting corals is thought to be 4–6 days; however, larvae of broadcastspawning corals are documented to survive in the laboratory for up to 105 days and still remain competent to settle (Wilson & Harrison 1998). The potentially long larval duration of broadcasting corals could facilitate wide-scale dispersal, as evidenced by the long-distance dispersal documented for this species (Nunes et al. 2009). However, the high degrees of endemism and genetic structure documented for populations of endosymbiotic zooxanthellae (Symbiodinium spp.) associated with broadcasting corals, may be indicative of similar structure in host populations, as host-symbiont pairings are highly specific (Santos et al. 2003; Kirk et al. 2005, 2009; Howells et al. 2009; Thornhill et al. 2009).

This study examines the population genetic structure of M. cavernosa across five locations in the Western Atlantic: Barbados, Bermuda, the Flower Garden Banks (USA), Jamaica and the Caribbean coast of Panama. Nunes et al. (2009) recently looked at the structure of this species throughout its distribution range using two fragments of the nuclear β -tubulin gene. These authors found high levels of gene flow among the majority of populations, but restricted connectivity across the Atlantic Ocean to geographically isolated populations (Nunes et al. 2009). Here we focus on Caribbean and Western Atlantic populations to explore population genetic structure among distantly related locations as well as within each region to examine local recruitment at neighboring sites just a few kilometers apart. We incorporated one of the two β -tubulin fragments used by Nunes et al. (2009), a fragment of the nuclear ribosomal internal spacer region, and a non-coding mitochondrial marker to compare diversity among markers with varying evolutionary histories. Using standard population genetic analyses in concert with haplotype networks, we explore spatial patterns of diversity and the potential for population expansion based on low frequency sequence types. In addition, we analyzed variations in skeletal morphology at a regional scale to compare with genetic variation. Four morphological features were examined, corallite diameter, columella diameter, length of longest septum, and distance to nearest neighboring polyp, as these features are documented to be taxonomically informative for this species (Ruiz Torres 2004). Given the relatively long planktonic life stage of broadcast spawning corals, M. cavernosa is expected to have a broad dispersal capability resulting in high levels of genetic diversity and gene flow among and within populations. We expect, therefore, to find little evidence of local recruitment and a broad distribution of high-frequency haplotypes. Furthermore, patterns of genetic structure and diversity are hypothesized to vary among markers based on their different evolutionary rates.

Material and Methods

Collection

Samples from a total of 290 Montastraea cavernosa colonies were collected from five locations within the Caribbean and Western Atlantic: Barbados, Bermuda, Flower Garden Banks, Jamaica, and Panama (Fig. 1). Within each location, small fragments were collected from 10 in situ colonies along fore-reef zones at five sites (nine sites in Bermuda) for a total of 50 sampled colonies per location (90 in Bermuda). Collection sites in Barbados, Bermuda, Jamaica, and Panama ranged in depth from 5 to 10 m, were separated by a minimum of 100 m, and were spread across five linear km in Jamaica, 15 linear km in Barbados, 100 km² in Panama and 450 km² in Bermuda (Fig. 1). Collection sites at the deep reefs of the Flower Garden Banks ranged in depth from 20 to 30 m, were separated by a minimum of 100 m, and spread across 30 km² . In the lab a small portion (one to two polyps) of each sample was removed and placed in a 1.5-ml microcentrifuge tube filled with 96% ethanol. Remaining fragments were bleached with a 10% solution of sodium hypochlorite (NaOCl) to expose the bare skeletons for morphological analysis. Collecting expeditions took place in summer 2005 to Bermuda, and spring/summer 2006 to Barbados, Flower Garden Banks, Jamaica, and Panama. Appendix 1 lists all localities and sites included in this study and detailed collecting and permitting information. All skeletons, tissue samples, and DNA extractions were deposited in the collection of the Department of Invertebrate Zoology, Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University.

Morphological analysis

Bleached skeletons (50 per location, 90 in Bermuda) were photographed with a Nikon D70S camera attached to a dissecting microscope outfitted with an optical micrometer

Fig. 1. Map of the Caribbean and Western Atlantic indicating sampling locations in Barbados, Bermuda, Flower Garden Banks, Jamaica, and Panama.

for scale, and analyzed using NIH IMAGE J version 1.34s software (http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/). Corallite diameter, columella diameter, length of longest septum and distance to nearest neighbor were measured on four central corallites per colony (Fig. 2). These characters were chosen based on their utility in intraspecific comparisons for Montastraea cavernosa (Ruiz Torres 2004), and are easily analyzed using macro-photography. The maximum number of corallites on the smallest bleached fragment determined the number of corallites examined. Data for corallite and columella diameter and septa length met the assumptions of equal variance and normality and were analyzed with a single factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the effects of location. Data for distances between neighboring polyps did not meet the assumptions of homoscedasticity and were therefore analyzed for differences in parameters by location using a Wilcoxon– Mann–Whitney test. Post hoc analysis for each parameter between locations was done using pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum W tests (Dytham 2003).

DNA extraction and sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from all samples for each location with an AutoGenprep 965 automated extraction robot following the manufacturer's protocol at the Bauer Center for Genomic Research at Harvard University. A 896-bp region of the ribosomal internal spacer region including internal transcribed spacer 1–5.8S ribosomal RNA – internal transcribed spacer 2 (ITS hereafter) was amplified using the 'anthozoan-universal' primer pairs 1S (5¢-GGT ACC CTT TGT ACA CAC CGA CCG TCG CT-3¢) and 2SS (5¢-GCT TTG GGC GGC AGT CCC AAG CAA CCC GAC TC-3') (Odorico & Miller 1997) and a 576-bp region of β -tubulin (β -tub hereafter) previously used for coral phylogenetics using the primers Tub F (5'-GCA TGG GAA CGC TCC TTA TTT-3') and Tub R (5'-ACA TCT GTT GAG TCA GTT CTG-3') (Fukami et al. 2004; Nunes et al. 2008, 2009). A 634-bp region of the mitochondrial inter-genomic spacer between cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (cox1) and the formylmethionine

Fig. 2. Images of Montastraea cavernosa: colony in situ (left), colony close-up (center) and bleached skeleton (right) indicating corallite diameter (A), columella diameter (B), length of longest septum (C), and distance to nearest neighbor (D).

transfer RNA gene (tRNA-Met) (IGR hereafter) was amplified using primers IGR F (5¢-TGT GTG ACA TAT AGG TTA TGA ACT TG-3[']) and IGR R (5'-GTT CTT GGG TTG CAT GGT TT-3'). Primers for IGR were developed for this study with PRIMER3 (Rozen & Skaletsky 2000) using pre-existing complete coral mitochondrial genome sequences available on GenBank. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplifications were done in a $25-\mu$ l reaction volume containing a bottom mix of 3μ 3.3× PCR buffer, 1.5 μ l MgOAc, 2 μ l dNTPs (10 mm), 1.25 μ l of each primer (100 mm), and 1 μ l of DNA template and a top mix of 4.5 μ l 3.3× PCR buffer, 10.4 μ l H₂O and 0.1 μ l of rTth polymerase XL (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's protocol with thermocycling parameters of 35 cycles of 94 °C/30 s, 49 °C/30 s, $72 °C/150 s.$

The double-stranded PCR products were visualized by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and vacuum-purified using 96-well Millipore Multiscreen[®] plates. When double bands were visualized $(\beta$ -tub only) amplifications were repeated at an annealing temperature of 50 °C to increase stringency. The purified PCR products were sequenced directly using ABI BigDye Terminator version 3.0 (Applied Biosystems) following standard protocols described by the manufacturer. The BigDye-labeled PCR products were then analyzed using an ABI PRISM 3730 Genetic Analyzer. Sequences were edited and aligned in SEQUENCHER 4.7 (Gene Codes Corporation 1991– 2007). Sequenced individuals and accession numbers are listed in Appendix 2; all sequences are available on Gen-Bank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank).

Population genetic and phylogeographic analyses

The ITS region is part of the ribosomal nuclear array and thus multiple copies occur per nuclear genome (Long & Dawid 1980). However, no more than a single polymorphic site was found within any individual through direct sequencing of amplified products. As such, each sequence that contained a polymorphic site was separated into two sequence types to account for each represented nucleotide. The β -tub sequences, on the other hand, contained several heterozygous sites. Haplotypes for β -tub were therefore estimated using PHASE 2.1 (Stephens et al. 2001) on DNASP v.5 (Librado & Rozas 2009), which implements a coalescent-based Bayesian method to infer haplotypes. Population genetic analyses were performed using ARLEQUIN version 3.01 (Excoffier et al. 2005). To assess diversity among and within each location, standard diversity indices, including number of haplotypes (Nh), number of polymorphic sites (Np), haplotypic diversity (h) (Nei 1987), nucleotide diversity (pn) (Tajima 1983; Nei 1987), and mean number of pairwise differences (pd)

between haplotypes (Tajima 1983) were calculated for each gene. An unweighted analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA; Excoffier et al. 1992) was performed to test hierarchical models of genetic variance using pairwise differences among haplotypes as a measure of divergence. Analyses were run with regional subdivisions of Barbados $(n = 14$ for ITS, 28 for β -tub, 7 for IGR), Bermuda (n = 30 for ITS, 16 for β -tub, 43 for IGR), Flower Garden Banks (n = 18 for *ITS*, 24 for β -tub, 22 for *IGR*), Jamaica (n = 18 for *ITS*, 20 for β -tub, 25 for *IGR*), and Panama $(n = 21$ for *ITS*, 18 for β *-tub*, 28 for *IGR*), as well as local subdivisions of sites within each location (see Appendix 1 for additional site details). Population (location) pairwise F_{ST} (Hudson *et al.* 1992) and N_{ST} (Lynch & Crease 1990) values, whose significances were assessed through 10,000 permutation tests, were used to calculate differentiation between locations and between sites within each location using DNASP v.5 (Librado & Rozas 2009).

To test for the possibility of recent population expansion in Montastraea cavernosa, Tajima's D (Tajima 1989) and Fu's F_S (Fu 1997) were calculated for all specimens considered as one group and also separately for each location ($\alpha = 0.05$). Although Tajima's *D* was originally designed to test for selection, a negative value suggests the presence of an excess of low-frequency haplotypes, which would be expected under an expansion scenario (Aris-Brosous & Excoffier 1996).

Haplotype networks were estimated for each gene with TCS version 1.18 (Clement et al. 2000), which implements the statistical parsimony procedure (Templeton et al. 1992; Crandall 1994). This method estimates an unrooted tree and provides a 95% plausible set for the relationships among haplotypes.

Concatenated sequences were created with Phyutility (Smith & Dunn 2008) and used to construct strict consensus trees on POY version 4 (Varón et al. 2010) with local and regional subdivisions (Appendix 3). Bootstrap values indicating branch support were calculated based on 1000 pseudoreplications.

Results

Three genomic regions totaling almost 3 kb of DNA information were amplified. Alignments of all three genes were trivial and required no insertion/deletion events. The complete ITS region was sequenced for 101 individual colonies (Table 1). Over 892 aligned positions, 43 sequence types were recovered with 31 polymorphic sites (3.48% variable). A total of 106 individual sequences were estimated for the β -tub region, which contained 25 sequence types with 24 polymorphic sites over 575 aligned positions (4.17% variable) (Table 1). The IGR region was sequenced for 125 individual colonies

Table 1. Standard diversity measures for populations of Montastraea cavernosa including number of colonies sampled (n), number of haplotypes (Nh), number of polymorphic sites (Np), haplotype diversity (h), nucleotide diversity (pn), the mean number of pairwise differences (pd), and Tajima's D and Fu's F_s statistics.

Location	Gene	\sqrt{n}	Nh	Np	h	pn	pd	Tajima's D	Fu's F_s
ALL	ITS	101	43	31	0.9600 ± 0.0080	0.005451 ± 0.002969	4.862574 ± 2.391205	-0.2403	-25.3866
Barbados		14	9	12	± 0.0624 0.9011	0.004780 ± 0.002829	4.263736 ± 2.248018	-0.30909	-1.90789
Bermuda		30	15	24	0.9287 ± 0.0247	0.004904 ± 0.002773	4.374712 ± 2.223050	-0.54521	-4.62676
Flower Gardens		18	13	16	0.9608 ± 0.0301	0.005517 ± 0.003151	4.921568 ± 2.513760	0.22144	-4.68244
Jamaica		18	13	18	$0.9477 + 0.0392$	0.005114 ± 0.002948	4.562091 ± 2.351357	0.224	-5.84276
Panama		21	15	20	0.9667 ± 0.0236	0.005392 ± 0.003061	4.809524 ± 2.445947	-0.15755	-5.23433
ALL	β -tub	106	25	24	0.8246 ± 0.0293	$0.007002 + 0.003904$	4.025876 ± 2.026876	-0.33861	-7.75442
Barbados		28	10	15	0.7778 ± 0.0655	0.006524 ± 0.003776	3.751323 ± 1.950182	0.01518	-0.94405
Bermuda		16	11	13	0.9417 ± 0.0406	0.008797 ± 0.005048	5.058333 ± 2.591521	0.99498	-3.26727
Flower Gardens		24	10	11	0.8841 ± 0.0432	0.007202 ± 0.004140	4.134058 ± 2.131579	1.36638	-0.90792
Jamaica		20	7	10	0.5842 ± 0.1270	$0.003961 + 0.002535$	2.273684 ± 1.302596	-0.67615	-0.81599
Panama		18	4	9	0.6275 ± 0.0733	0.006809 ± 0.004005	3.908497 ± 2.055473	1.74955	4.00616
ALL	IGR	125	5	21	0.1085 ± 0.0379	0.002467 ± 0.001641	1.564129 ± 0.939638	-1.69633	2.2727
Barbados		7	$\mathbf{1}$	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω
Bermuda		43	2	20	0.0465 ± 0.0439	0.001467 ± 0.001145	0.930233 ± 0.653484	-2.60992	3.49608
Flower Gardens		22	2	19	0.0909 ± 0.0809	0.002724 ± 0.001840	1.727273 ± 1.045633	-2.47287	4.90299
Jamaica		25	4	21	0.2300 ± 0.1095	0.002766 ± 0.001851	$1.753333 + 1.052873$	-2.48684	1.73017
Panama		28	2	20	0.1376 ± 0.0837	0.004340 ± 0.002639	2.751323 ± 1.502545	-1.6411	7.76304

Significant comparisons are given in bold ($\alpha = 0.05$).

(Table 1). Over 634 aligned positions, five haplotypes were recovered with 21 polymorphic sites (3.31% variable).

Haplotype diversity, nucleotide diversity, and the mean number of pairwise differences were higher for ITS and β -tub than for IGR based on non-overlapping standard errors (Table 1). Higher diversity measure for nuclear markers compared to mitochondrial markers is expected given the known rates of evolution for nrRNA versus mtDNA in basal metazoans (Hellberg 2007). Diversity measures did not differ among locations in ITS and β -tub; however, diversity in Barbados was lower than that in all other sites for IGR (Table 1).

Tajima's D values were negative for all three markers but results were only significant in IGR (Table 1). Although Tajima's D values varied for each marker within each location, all were negative and significant for IGR. Significance for a negative value explains the presence of an excess of low-frequency sequence types and may also provide evidence for recent population growth (e.g. Baker et al. 2007). Fu's F_S values, however, were non-significant in IGR, but were significant in ITS and β -tub, indicating that there is not enough evidence for accepting or rejecting an expansion scenario (Table 1).

Haplotype diversity, nucleotide diversity, and the number of pairwise differences varied considerably in ITS and β -tub among sites ranging across a linear distance of 15 km in Barbados (Appendix 4). However, no variation was detected in IGR. These parameters also differed among

Marine Ecology (2011) 1–17 \odot 2011 Blackwell Verlag GmbH 5

sites sampled across 450 km^2 in Bermuda for ITS and IGR, with the lowest diversity for ITS found at the North East Breakers (NEB), and highest diversity for IGR at Hog Breakers (HOG). Diversity measures did not differ among locations for β -tub. At the Flower Garden Banks, diversity varied among sites across roughly 30 km^2 for all three markers. Diversity was lowest for ITS at the West Bank South (WBS) and at the West Bank East (WBE) for β -tub, while diversity in IGR was highest at the East Bank North site (EBN). In Jamaica, haplotype diversity, nucleotide diversity, and pairwise differences varied across a 5-km linear distance for ITS and IGR; however, there were no differences among sites in β -tub. Haplotype diversity, nucleotide diversity and mean number of pairwise differences did not vary significantly among sites within a 100 $km²$ region of Panama for ITS. These parameters did vary among sites in β -tub, however, and in IGR site Crawl Caye (CC) had higher diversity than any other location.

Phylogeographic distribution of alleles

Networks were constructed separately for each marker analyzed (Fig. 3). Within ITS, several high-frequency sequences observed are shared among multiple locations: Barbados, Bermuda, Flower Garden Banks, Jamaica, and Panama, one of which was shared among all five locations (Fig. 3). Likewise, the β -tub network contained a single high-frequency sequence shared among all five locations, with several additional sequences shared among two or

Fig. 3. Haplotype networks for ITS, β -tubulin, and IGR where each line or hatch mark indicates a single nucleotidic change. Area of each circle corresponds to the number of sequence types it represents, and color of circle represents the location where it was found. BB = Barbados; BDA = Bermuda; FGB = Flower Garden Banks; JA = Jamaica; PA = Panama.

Table 2. Number of private sequence types found within each location (Barbados, Bermuda, Flower Garden Banks, Jamaica, and Panama) for each genetic marker (ITS, β -tub, and IGR).

Location	Gene	Private haplotypes
Barbados (BB)	ITS	3
	β -tub	3
	IGR	Ω
Bermuda (BDA)	ITS	9
	β -tub	4
	IGR	1
Flower Garden Banks (FGB)	ITS	7
	β -tub	4
	IGR	Ω
Jamaica (JA)	ITS	$\overline{4}$
	β -tub	3
	IGR	$\overline{2}$
Panama (PA)	ITS	8
	β -tub	
	IGR	Ω

more sites (Fig. 3). IGR contained a single high-frequency sequence shared among all five locations and one sequence shared between Bermuda, Jamaica, and Panama (Fig. 3). Private sequence types (found only at a single location) were also present in all three markers (Table 2). Barbados contained three private sequence types for ITS, Bermuda contained nine, the Flower Garden Banks contained seven, Jamaica contained four, and Panama contained eight. In β -tub, Barbados contained three private sequence types, Bermuda and the Flower Garden Banks each contained four private sequence types, Jamaica had three private sequence types, and Panama contained a single private sequence type. Jamaica also contained two private haplotypes and Bermuda a single private haplotype in IGR.

Population genetic structure

An analysis of molecular variance was used to test for hierarchical population structure with each location expressed as a separate group (Table 3). AMOVA results detected significant genetic structure within populations for ITS and β -tub, where 92.79% (ITS) and 92.51% $(\beta$ -tub) of variation is explained within locations, respectively, as well as a small degree of genetic structure among locations (7.21% in ITS; 7.49% in β -tub) (Table 3). Furthermore, although significant genetic structure was not identified in IGR, all of the variation is explained within localities.

Pairwise F_{ST} and N_{ST} values varied by marker due to their different evolutionary rates (Table 4). Comparisons were significant between samples from Barbados and all other locations in ITS for both analyses. In β -tub, pairwise comparisons using both analyses were significant for samples from Jamaica compared with those from Bermuda, Flower Garden Banks and Panama, and between samples from Barbados and the Flower Garden Banks (Table 4). Significant pairwise N_{ST} comparisons were also found between samples from Barbados and Bermuda in β -tub; however, F_{ST} comparisons for these locations were non-significant. All other comparisons in ITS and β -tub, as well as all comparisons in IGR were non-significant.

Within Barbados, Bermuda, the Flower Garden Banks, Jamaica, and Panama, AMOVA analyses indicate that no genetic structure exists among sample sites at each location (α = 0.05), with the majority of variation explained within sites. Significant F_{ST} comparisons were found between sites SB and AB for ITS in Barbados, between site WB and sites CH and WAR for ITS in Bermuda, between site WBE and sites WBN and WBS for β -tub in the Flower Garden Banks, and between sites DB and DL for β -tub in Jamaica; however, pairwise F_{ST} values were non-significant for the majority of comparisons between sites at each location across all three markers ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Morphology

Skeletal analysis revealed significant differences among populations in columella diameter $(P < 0.0001)$, corallite diameter (P < 0.0001), distance to nearest neighbor

Gene	Source of Variation	df	Sum of squares	Variance components	Percent of total variation	Fixation indices		
ITS	AMOVA grouping by population							
	Among populations	4	23.28	0.17784 Va	7.21	F_{ST} : 0.07206		
	Within populations	96	219.85	2.29015 Vb	92.79			
	Total	100	243.13	2.46798				
β -tub	AMOVA grouping by population							
	Among populations	4	20.41	0.15314 Va	7.49	F_{ST} : 0.07493		
	Within populations	101	190.94	1.89054 Vb	92.51			
	Total	105	211.36	2.04368				
IGR	AMOVA grouping by population							
	Among populations	4	1.12	-0.02190 Va	-2.82	F_{ST} : -0.02819		
	Within populations	120	95.85	0.79878 Vb	102.82			
	Total	124	96.98	0.77689				

Table 3. AMOVA. Each population was considered as a separate group.

Significance at the $P < 0.05$ level is indicated in bold.

Table 4. Pairwise F_{ST} (below diagonal lines) and N_{ST} (above diagonal lines) values among locations for each gene.

	Barbados	Bermuda	Flower Gardens	Jamaica	Panama
ITS					
Barbados		0.24289	0.08946	0.15223	0.10179
Bermuda	0.24269		0.05128	0.00053	0.07391
Flower Gardens	0.08946	0.05128		0.01466	-0.00298
Jamaica	0.15211	0.00049	0.01475		0.04553
Panama	0.10169	0.0738	-0.00291	0.04545	
β -tub					
Barbados		0.06897	0.09589	-0.00642	0.0462
Bermuda	0.05739		-0.01995	0.17096	-0.06093
Flower Gardens	0.09104	-0.01271		0.22061	-0.02545
Jamaica	0.00213	0.16683	0.21857		0.16144
Panama	0.03874	-0.04386	-0.02068	0.14924	
IGR					
Barbados		0	Ω	0.00371	0.03704
Bermuda	0		-0.0312	-0.02742	-0.00741
Flower Gardens	0	-0.03117		-0.94159	-0.0325
Jamaica	0.00379	0.02736	-0.04153		-0.02913
Panama	0.03704	-0.00741	-0.03249	-0.02913	

Significant comparisons at the $P < 0.05$ level are indicated in bold.

 $(P < 0.0001)$, and septum length $(P < 0.0001)$ between locations (Fig. 4). Pairwise comparisons showed that specimens from Jamaica have significantly larger columella diameters and significantly shorter septa than all other locations. Specimens from Flower Garden Banks have significantly larger corallite diameters and significantly longer septa than specimens from any other location, as well as significantly smaller columella diameter than specimens from Barbados, Bermuda or Jamaica. Distance to nearest neighboring polyps was significantly higher in Panama than in any other location and significantly lower in Barbados and Bermuda than at other locations. Columella and corallite diameter differed significantly by site within Barbados, Bermuda, and Panama $(\alpha < 0.05)$, length of longest septum differed significantly by site within Bermuda, the Flower Garden Banks, and Panama (α < 0.05), and polyp distance to nearest neighbor differed significantly between sites in Barbados, Bermuda, Jamaica, and Panama (α < 0.05). Given the few variables available, formal correlations with genetic variance were not attempted.

Discussion

Samples of Montastraea cavernosa collected in the Caribbean and nearby Atlantic for this study show that the majority of variation occurs within locations, rather than among them. This indicates that gene flow among

Fig. 4. Comparisons of colony skeletal morphology by location, including columella diameter, corallite diameter, length of longest septum, and distance to nearest neighboring polyp. Statistically similar locations are grouped by letter; locations not represented by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

locations is not restricted, possibly due to the presence of a long-lived larva in the life cycle of the coral. Likewise, no genetic structure was found locally among reefs in each location and pairwise comparisons among reefs in each location revealed non-significant F_{ST} values for the majority of comparisons, indicating high degrees of local genetic connectivity. Although significant differences in skeletal morphology were found between some sites within each location, the lack of genetic structure in such locations indicates that differences in morphology are likely due to phenotypic plasticity. This is in contrast to the brooding coral species Favia fragum, where a correlation between genetic and morphometric structure has been shown (Goodbody-Gringley et al. 2010). Additionally, non-significant and inconsistent results for Tajima's D and Fu's F_S imply that M. cavernosa has a stable demographic history throughout the geographic range studied here. These data, as those of Nunes et al. (2009), suggest that populations of M. cavernosa throughout the Caribbean and Western Atlantic are connected and readily share genetic information. Significant F_{ST} and N_{ST} values for several comparisons in ITS and β -tub coupled with the presence of extensive private sequence types, however, indicate that local recruitment is also important in determining the genetic structure of this species.

Local recruitment is particularly evident in Barbados, where all comparisons with other locations in ITS revealed significant pairwise F_{ST} and N_{ST} values. Additionally, several private sequence types were found in Barbados for both ITS and β -tub. Populations in Barbados may, therefore, experience decreased gene flow from populations within the Caribbean. Barbados is the southernmost location sampled in this study and lies on the border of the Caribbean and South American plates. Topographical features associated with plate boundaries may restrict dispersal across these regions, resulting in

reduced genetic exchange. Evidence of local recruitment was also found in Jamaica, which contained private haplotypes for all three markers. Furthermore, significant pairwise F_{ST} and N_{ST} values were found in β -tub for the majority of comparisons between Jamaica and other locations. Samples from Jamaica differed anatomically as well, having significantly larger columella diameters and significantly shorter septa than those from all other locations. Significant pairwise comparisons coupled with significant anatomical differences imply that despite the potential for long-distance dispersal and the central location of Jamaica within the Caribbean, populations of M. cavernosa in Jamaica are partially maintained through self-seeding and may have undergone selective adaptation in response to local environmental conditions. However, we cannot discard the possibility of this being an expression of phenotypic plasticity. These findings contrast with those of Nunes et al. (2009), who document a high degree of genetic exchange among several Caribbean locations. Differences between results found in the latter study and ours, however, may be due to variation in mutational rates among the genes used for analyses.

Although the Flower Garden Banks is often considered an isolated reef system due to its location in the Northern Gulf of Mexico and deeper depth, non-significant pairwise comparisons indicate that high degrees of genetic exchange occur among Caribbean populations. Samples from the Flower Garden Banks varied significantly, however, in three of the four morphological characters analyzed. These anatomical differences do not appear to be linked to genetic differences and variation in skeletal morphology may therefore be due to depth-specific phenotypic plasticity, a feature that is known to be high in scleractinian corals (Bruno & Edmunds 1997). The depth of reefs at the Flower Garden Banks required collection at 20–30 m, compared with collections at 5– 10 m from all other locations. Depth differences between the Flower Garden Banks and other tested locations are likely responsible for the variation found in skeletal morphology.

Although M. cavernosa in the Caribbean likely experiences moderate to high gene flow among locations, genetic exchange may be limited over wider geographic distances (>1500 km) and local populations may also be partially maintained through self-seeding. At the local scale, no genetic structure was found among sites within each location, indicating that reefs separated by tens of kilometers readily exchange genetic information. These results correspond with the findings of Nunes et al.

(2009) who found that M. cavernosa populations within the Caribbean and Western Atlantic experience high genetic connectivity, whereas peripheral populations have low genetic diversity and are genetically isolated from the Caribbean populations. Likewise, Ayre & Hughes (2000) found several brooding and broadcasting corals on the Great Barrier Reef which rely on self-seeding for population maintenance but also have sufficient gene flow among reefs to prevent accumulation of fixed genetic differences. Additionally, several phylogeographic studies of broadcasting corals in the Pacific have found high levels of gene flow among populations at the local scale, but restricted gene flow over greater distances (Yu et al. 1999; Rodriguez-Lanetty & Hoegh-Guldberg 2002; Magalon et al. 2005). For example, Magalon et al. (2005) found evidence of panmixia among Pocillopora meandrina populations in the South Pacific at scales below 10 km, but restricted gene flow at scales over 2000 km. This observation is further supported by the findings of Underwood et al. (2009), which suggest that although many coral reefs are genetically differentiated, panmixia can occur at scales of tens of kilometers or less.

The use of ribosomal RNAs (rRNA) in phylogeographic studies is often contested due to the faster rate of speciation in corals relative to the concerted evolution of rRNA resulting in shared ancient rRNA lineages, obscuring processes such as introgressive hybridization (Vollmer & Palumbi 2004). The rate of homogenization and the rate of new mutation, however, vary from species to species (Ohta & Dover 1983) and thus problems associated with concerted evolution and introgressive hybridization may only exist in certain coral genera such as Acropora (Chen et al. 2004; see Harris & Crandall 2000). While this study incorporated multiple genetic markers and morphology to examine population structure in order to avoid the putative pitfalls associated with the ITS marker, the use of ITS sequences as a molecular marker relies on the assumption that the rRNA array evolves as a single molecule and results should be interpreted cautiously (Avise 2004; Hellberg 2007; Baums 2008). It is possible, therefore, that concerted evolution may have resulted in a biased assessment of variation, giving us either an overor under-estimate of diversity and connectivity. However, inclusion of ITS sequences in this study revealed patterns of diversity that were not detected by β -tub or IGR, and thus may be useful for future intraspecific population studies. Additional examination of these samples should include higher resolution markers, such as microsatellites, as well as greater coverage of locations throughout the species distribution.

Gene flow among coral reef populations becomes particularly relevant in light of recent declines in scleractinian abundance on reefs throughout the Caribbean. According to Hughes et al. (2003), human impacts on coral reefs such as overfishing, eutrophication, and climate change are threatening coral reefs around the globe. The resilience of coral reefs depends in large part on their ability to re-colonize disturbed areas. Whether planulae that settle at such sites come from local populations or distant locations is critical to our understanding of the corals' ability to recover from environmental perturbations (Brazeau et al. 2005; Magalon et al. 2005). The present study indicates that while gene flow occurs among populations of M. cavernosa within the Caribbean and near Atlantic, populations also rely on local recruitment, and dispersal may be limited across wider geographic distances. Benefits of conservation efforts at any scale will likely extend beyond the target population; however, successful management should address local populations independently, as the degree of self-seeding may vary among locations.

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Appendix 2: Individual colony locations, identity and accession numbers. All sequences with a corresponding accession number are available in GenBank.

Appendix 2: (Continued)

Appendix 2: (Continued)

Appendix 3: Strict consensus trees with regional (A) and local (B) subdivisions. Bootstrap values based on 1000 pseudoreplications indicate branch support.

Appendix 4: Jamaica and Panama for ITS, β -tub and IGR, including: number of individual colonies sequenced (N), number of haplotypes (Nh), number of polymorphic sites (Np), haplotype diversity (h), nucleotide diversity (pn) and the mean number of pairwise differences (pd)

Appendix 4: (Continued)

