

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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

Gretchen Goodbody-Gringley, Robert M. Woollacott & Gonzalo Giribet

Museum of Comparative Zoology, Department of Organismic and Evolutionary Biology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA, USA

Keywords

Bermuda; Cnidaria; Caribbean; geneflow; morphology.

Correspondence

Dr Gretchen Goodbody-Gringley, Mote Marine Laboratory – Tropical Research Laboratory, 24244 Overseas Highway, Summerland Key, FL 33042, USA. E-mail: gggringley@mote.org

Accepted: 14 March 2011

doi:10.1111/j.1439-0485.2011.00452.x

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. cavernosa 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 3 μ l 3.3× PCR buffer, 1.5 µl MgOAc, 2 µl dNTPs (10 mm), 1.25 µl 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 (β -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 $(n = 14 \text{ for } ITS, 28 \text{ for } \beta$ -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 $(n = 21 \text{ for } ITS, 18 \text{ for } \beta$ -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 $F_{\rm S}$ (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	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	0.9011 ± 0.0624	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	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
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 © 2011 Blackwell Verlag GmbH

sites sampled across 450 km² 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 km² 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 100km² 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	0
Bermuda (BDA)	ITS	9
	β-tub	4
	IGR	1
Flower Garden Banks (FGB)	ITS	7
	β-tub	4
	IGR	0
Jamaica (JA)	ITS	4
	β-tub	3
	IGR	2
Panama (PA)	ITS	8
	β-tub	1
	IGR	0

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

6

detected significant genetic structure within populations for *ITS* and β -tub, where 92.79% (*ITS*) and 92.51% (β -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 ($\alpha = 0.05$), 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 p	opulation				
	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 p	opulation				
	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 p	opulation				
	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	0	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 ($\alpha < 0.05$), and polyp distance to nearest neighbor differed significantly between sites in Barbados, Bermuda, Jamaica, and Panama ($\alpha < 0.05$). 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 $F_{\rm S}$ 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.

Acknowledgements

The authors are especially grateful to B. Precht for organizing and assisting with collections at the Flower Garden Banks, to S. Vollmer for collection assistance in Panama, S. de Putron for help with collections in Bermuda, and W. Gringley for support and collection assistance at all field locations. The editors Lisa Levin and Ken Halanych and four anonymous reviewers kindly provided comments that helped to improve this manuscript. We also thank the Bermuda Institute of Ocean Science, Bellairs Research Institute, Discovery Bay Marine Laboratory, Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary, and the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute for help with field collections and permits. This work was supported by the Museum of Comparative Zoology Putnam Expedition Grant, internal funds from Harvard University, and the PADI Project AWARE Foundation Fellowship. This work is part of the PhD thesis work of G. Goodbody-Gringley.

References

- Aris-Brosous S., Excoffier L. (1996) The impact of population expansion and mutation rate heterogeneity on DNA sequence polymorphism. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 13, 494–504.
- Avise J.C. (2004) *Molecular Markers*, Natural History, and *Evolution*. Sinauer Associates Inc., Sunderland, MA.
- Ayre D.J., Hughes T.P. (2000) Genotype diversity and gene flow in brooding and spawning corals along the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Evolution*, **54**, 1590–1605.
- Ayre D.J., Hughes T.P., Standish R.J. (1997) Genetic differentiation, reproductive mode, and gene flow in the brooding

coral *Pocillopora damicornis* along the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **159**, 175–187.

Baker J.M., Funch P., Giribet G. (2007) Cryptic speciation in the recently discovered American cycliophoran *Symbion americanus*: genetic structure and population expansion. *Marine Biology*, **151**, 2183–2193.

Baums I.B. (2008) A restoration genetics guide for coral reef conservation. *Molecular Ecology*, **17**, 2796–2811.

Baums I.B., Miller M.W., Hellberg M.E. (2005) Regionally isolated populations of an imperiled Caribbean coral, *Acropora palmata*. *Molecular Ecology*, 14, 1377–1390.

Bohonak A. (1999) Dispersal, gene flow, and population structure. *Quarterly Review of Biology*, **74**, 21–45.

Brazeau D.A., Sammarco P.W., Gleason D.F. (2005) A multilocus genetic assignment technique to assess sources of *Agaricia agaricites* larvae on coral reefs. *Marine Biology*, 147, 1109–1120.

Bruno J.F., Edmunds P.J. (1997) Clonal variation for phenotypic plasticity in the coral *Madracis mirabilis*. *Ecology*, **78**, 2177–2190.

Chen C.A., Chang C.C., Wei N.B., Chen C.H., Lein Y.T., Lin H.E., Dai C.F., Wallace C.C. (2004) Secondary structure and phylogenetic utility of the ribosomal internal transcribed spacer 2 (ITS2) in scleractinian corals. *Zoological Studies*, **43**, 759–771.

Clement M., Posada D., Crandall K.A. (2000) TCS: a computer program to estimate gene genealogies. *Molecular Ecology*, **9**, 1657–1659.

Crandall K.A. (1994) Intraspecific cladogram estimation: accuracy at higher levels of divergence. *Systematic Biology*, **43**, 222–235.

Dytham C. (2003) *Choosing and Using Statistics: A Biologist's Guide*. Blackwell Publishing, Waltham, MA.

Excoffier L., Smouse P., Quattro J. (1992) Analysis of molecular variance inferred from matrix distances among DNA haplotypes: application to human mitochondrial DNA restriction data. *Genetics*, **131**, 479–491.

Excoffier L., Laval G., Schneider S. (2005) ARLEQUIN version 3.0: an integrated software package for population genetic data analysis. *Evolutionary Bioinformatics Online*, 1, 47–50.

Fu Y.X. (1997) Statistical tests of neutrality of mutation against population growth, hitchhiking, and background selection. *Genetics*, **147**, 915–925.

Fukami H., Budd A.F., Levitan D., Jara J., Kersanach R., Knowlton N. (2004) Geographic differences in species boundaries among members of the *Montastraea annularis* complex based on molecular and morphological markers. *Evolution*, 58, 324–337.

Goodbody-Gringley G., Vollmer S.V., Woollacott R.M., Giribet G. (2010) Limited gene flow in the brooding coral *Favia fragum* (Esper, 1797). *Marine Biology*, **157**, 2591–2602.

Harris D.J., Crandall K.A. (2000) Intragenomic variation within ITS1 and ITS2 of crayfish (Decapoda: Cambaridae): implications for phylogenetic and microsatellite studies. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 17, 284–291. Hellberg M.E. (2007) Footprints on water: the genetic wake of dispersal among reefs. *Coral Reefs*, **26**, 463–473.

Howells E.J., van Oppen M.J.H., Willis B.L. (2009) High genetic differentiation and cross-shelf patterns of genetic diversity among Great Barrier Reef populations of *Symbiodinium. Coral Reefs*, 28, 215–225.

Hudson R.R., Slatkin M., Maddison W.P. (1992) Estimation of levels of gene flow from DNA sequence data. *Genetics*, 132, 583–589.

Hughes T.P., Baird A.H., Bellwood D.R., Card M., Connolly S.R., Folke C., Grosberg R., Hoegh-Guldberg O., Jackson J.B.C., Kleypas J., Lough J.M., Marshall P., Nyström M., Palumbi S.R., Pandolfi J.M., Rosen B., Roughgarden J. (2003) Climate change, human impacts, and the resilience of coral reefs. *Science*, **301**, 929–933.

Kirk N.L., Ward J.R., Coffroth M.A. (2005) Stable *Symbiodinium* composition in the sea fan *Gorgonia ventalina* during temperature and disease stress. *Biological Bulletin*, **209**, 227–234.

Kirk N.L., Andras J.P., Harvell C.D., Santos S.R., Coffroth M.A. (2009) Population structure of *Symbiodinium* sp. associated with the common sea fan, *Gorgonia ventalina*, in the Florida Keys across distance, depth, and time. *Marine Biol*ogy, **156**, 1609–1623.

Librado P., Rozas J. (2009) DnaSP v5: a software for comprehensive analysis of DNA polymorphism data. *Bioinformatics*, 25, 1452–1452.

Long E.O., Dawid I.B. (1980) Repeated genes in eukaryotes. Annual Review of Biochemistry, **49**, 727–764.

Lynch M., Crease T.J. (1990) The analysis of population survey data on DNA sequence variation. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, **7**, 377–394.

Magalon H., Adjeroud M., Veuille M. (2005) Patterns of genetic variation do not correlate with geographical distance in the reef-building coral *Pocillopora meandrina* in the South Pacific. *Molecular Ecology*, **14**, 1861–1868.

Marquez L.M., van Oppen M.J.H., Willis B.L., Miller D.J. (2002) Sympatric populations of the highly cross-fertile coral species *Acropora hyacinthus* and *Acropora cytherea* are genetically distinct. *Science*, **269**, 1289–1294.

Miller K.J., Ayre D.J. (2008) Population structure is not a simple function of reproductive mode and larval type: insights from tropical corals. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **77**, 713–724.

Nei M. (1987) *Molecular Evolutionary Genetics*. Columbia University Press, New York.

Neves E.G., Andrade S.C.S., da Silveira F.L., Solferini V.N. (2008) Genetic variation and population structuring in two brooding coral species (*Siderastrea stellata* and *Siderastrea radians*) from Brazil. *Genetica*, **132**, 243–254.

Ng W., Morton B. (2003) Genetic structure of the scleractinian coral *Platygyra sinensis* in Hong Kong. *Marine Biology*, **143**, 963–968.

Nunes F., Fukami H., Vollmer S.V., Norris R.D., Knowlton N. (2008) Re-evaluation of the systematics of the endemic corals of Brazil by molecular data. *Coral Reefs*, 27, 423–432. Nunes F., Norris R.D., Knowlton N. (2009) Implications of isolation and low genetic diversity in peripheral populations of an amphi-Atlantic coral. *Molecular Ecology*, **18**, 4283–4297.

Odorico D.M., Miller D.J. (1997) Variation in the ribosomal internal transcribed spacers and 5.8S rDNA among five species of *Acropora* (Cnidaria; Scleractinia): patterns of variation consistent with reticulate evolution. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, **14**, 465–473.

Ohta T., Dover G.A. (1983) Population genetics of multigene families that are dispersed into two or more chromosomes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of the United States of America*, **80**, 4079–4083.

Ridgway T., Hoegh-Guldberg O., Ayre D.J. (2001) Panmixia in *Pocillopora verrucosa* from South Africa. *Marine Biology*, 139, 175–181.

Rodriguez-Lanetty M., Hoegh-Guldberg O. (2002) The phylogeography and connectivity of latitudinally widespread scleractinian coral *Plesiastrea versipora* in the Western Pacific. *Molecular Ecology*, **11**, 1177–1189.

Rozen S., Skaletsky H.J. (2000) PRIMER3 on the www for general users and for biologist programmers. In: Krawetz S., Misener S. (Eds), *Bioinformatics Methods and Protocols: Methods in Molecular Biology*. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ: 365–386.

Ruiz Torres H.J. (2004) Morphometric examination of corallite and colony variability in the Caribbean coral *Montastraea cavernosa*. M.S. thesis, University of Puerto Rico, Mayaguez, PR: 79 pp.

Santos S.R., Gutiérrez-Rodríguez C., Lasker H.R., Coffroth M.A. (2003) Symbiodinium sp. associations in the gorgonian Pseudopterogorgia elisabethae in the Bahamas: high levels of genetic variability and population structure in symbiotic dinoflagellates. Marine Biology, 143, 111–120.

Smith S.A., Dunn C. (2008) Phyutility: a phyloinformatics utility for trees, alignments, and molecular data. *Bioinformatics*, 24, 715–716.

Stephens M., Smith N., Donnelly P. (2001) A new statistical method for haplotype reconstruction from population data. *American Journal of Human Genetics*, **68**, 978–989.

Szmant A.M. (1986) Reproductive ecology of Caribbean coral reefs. *Coral Reefs*, **5**, 43–53.

Tajima F. (1983) Evolutionary relationships of DNA sequences infinite populations. *Genetics*, 105, 437–460.

Tajima F. (1989) Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA polymorphism. *Genetics*, **123**, 619–633.

Takabayashi M., Carter D.A., Lopez J.V., Hoegh-Guldberg O. (2003) Genetic variation of the scleractinian coral *Stylophora pistillata*, from western Pacific reefs. *Coral Reefs*, **22**, 17–22.

Templeton A.R., Crandall K.A., Sing C.F. (1992) A cladistic analysis of phenotype associations with haplotypes inferred from restriction endonuclease mapping and DNA sequence data. III. Cladogram estimation. *Genetics*, **132**, 612–633.

Thornhill D.J., Xiang Y., Fitt W.K., Santos S.R. (2009) Reef endemism, host specificity and temporal stability in populations of symbiotic dinoflagellates from two ecologically dominant Caribbean corals. *PLoS ONE*, **4**, e6262.

Thorson G. (1950) Reproductive and larval ecology of marine bottom invertebrates. *Biological Reviews*, **25**, 1–45.

Underwood J.N., Smith L.D., van Oppen J.H., Gilmour J.P. (2007) Multiple scales of genetic connectivity in a brooding coral on isolated reefs following catastrophic bleaching. *Molecular Ecology*, **16**, 771–784.

Underwood J.N., Smith L.D., van Oppen M.J.H., Gilmour J.P. (2009) Ecologically relevant dispersal of corals on isolated reefs: implications for managing resilience. *Ecological Applications*, **19**, 18–29.

Varón A., Vinh L.S., Wheeler W.C. (2010) POY version 4: phylogenetic analysis using dynamic homologies. *Cladistics*, 26, 72–85.

Veron J. (1995) Corals in Space and Time: the Biogeography and Evolution of the Scleractinia. University of New South Wales Press, Sydney.

Veron J. (2000) *Corals of the World*, Volume 3. Australian Institute of Marine Science, Townsville.

Vollmer S.V., Palumbi S.R. (2004) Testing the utility of internally transcribed spacer sequences in coral phylogenetics. *Molecular Ecololgy*, 13, 2763–2772.

Vollmer S.V., Palumbi S.R. (2007) Restricted gene flow in the Caribbean staghorn coral *Acropora cervicornis*: implications for the recovery of endangered reef. *Journal of Heredity*, 98, 40–50.

White C., Selkoe K.A., Watson J., Siegel D.A., Zacherl D.C., Toonen R.J. (2010) Ocean currents help explain population genetic structure. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 277, 1685–1694.

Wilson J.R., Harrison P.L. (1998) Settlement-competency periods of larvae of three species of scleractinian corals. *Marine Biology*, **131**, 339–345.

Yu J.K., Wang H.Y., Lee S.C., Dai C.F. (1999) Genetic structure of a scleractinian coral, *Mycedium elephantotus*, in Taiwan. *Marine Biology*, 133, 21–28.

Appendix 1: Collection	locations an	d permit	information.
------------------------	--------------	----------	--------------

Location	Site	Abbrev.	Coordinates	CITES permit	Collecting permit
Bermuda	Chub head Crescent reef Gurnet rock Hog breaker Tynes Bay Three Hills Shoals Whalebone Bay Warwick North east breakers	CH CRES GR HOG TB THS WB WAR NEB	32°21'25.69''N, 64°55'08.43''W 32°22'48.13''N, 64°45'15.66''W 32°20'21.33''N, 64°39'48.67''W 32°28'14.98''N, 64°49'21.70''W 32°18'45.84''N, 64°46'58.25''W 32°25'26.39''N, 64°42'07.93''W 32°21'58.11''N, 64°42'53.41''W 32°15'00.43''N, 64°48'09.48''W 32°28'58.76''N, 64°41'48.03''W	BDA 05-17	SP060801
Barbados	St James Pier Bridgetown Allynes Bay Speightstown	PIER BT AB ST SB	13°16'49.84''N, 59°39'02.20''W 13°07'11.12''N, 59°38'11.58''W 13°11'31.09''N, 59°38'29.56''W 13°13'15.75''N, 59°38'45.34''W	1236	No #, approved by coastal zone 4/20/2006
Flower Garden Banks	West Bank – East West Bank – North West Bank – South East Bank – South East Bank – North	WBE WBN WBS EBS EBN	27°52′31.30″N, 93°48′51.30″W 27°52′35.10″N, 93°48′54.10″W 27°52′27.50″N, 93°49′00.40″W 27°54′27.00″N, 93°35′57.40″W 27°54′39.90″N, 93°35′55.60″W	N/Awithin USA	FGBNMS-2006-009
Panama	Isla Solarte North Isla Solarte South Isla Cristobal Crawl Caye Bocas Airport	ISN ISS ICN CC AIR	9°19′50.67″′N, 82°12′36.50″W 9°19′19.73″N, 82°13′06.04″W 9°16′54.05″N, 82°15′17.15″W 9°15′48.14″N, 82°07′19.40″W 9°20′27.42″N, 82°15′36.68″W	SEX/A-84-06	SE/A-17-06
Jamaica	Dancing lady Mooring 1 Rio Bueno Dairy Bull Columbus Park	DL M1 RB DB CP	18°28'28.20''N, 77°25'05.18''W 18°28'24.02''N, 77°24'37.19''W 18°28'58.75''N, 77°27'24.86''W 18°28'02.10''N, 77°23'16.00''W 18°28'02.89''N, 77°24'52.52''W	JM 1646	18/27

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

Location	ID	ITS	β-tub	IGR	Location	ID	ITS	β-tub	IGR
Barbados	AB1a	HM447251	HM447539		Jamaica	CP1a	HM447313	HM447479	
	AB1b		HM447540			CP1b	HM447314	HM447480	
	AB2a		HM447551			CP2a		HM447502	HM447428
	AB2b		HM447552			CP2b		HM447503	
	AB3a		HM447541			CP3	HM447315		
	AB3b		HM447542			CP4a		HM447525	HM447424
	AB4a		HM447549			CP4b		HM447526	
	AB4b		HM447550			CP5	HM447316		HM447425
	AB5a		HM447545			CP6			HM447426
	AB5b		HM447546			CP7			HM447427
	BT1a	HM447252	HM447543			DB1a	HM447317	HM447487	HM447433
	BT1b		HM447544			DB1b	HM447318	HM447488	
	BT2a		HM447559			DB4a	HM447319	HM447530	HM447434
	BT2b		HM447560			DB4b		HM447531	

Appendix 2: (Continued)

Location	ID	ITS	β-tub	IGR	Location	ID	ITS	β-tub	IGR
	BT3a BT3b BT4a BT4b	HM447253 HM447254	HM447555 HM447556 HM447557 HM447558			DB5a DB5b DB6a DB6b	HM447320 HM447321	HM447514 HM447515	HM447429
Barbados	BT5a BT5b PIERIa PIERIb PIER2a PIER4 PIER5 PIER9 PIER10 SB1A SB1B	HM447256 HM447255 HM447257 HM447258	HM447553 HM447554 HM447498 HM447499 HM447516	HM447352 HM447353 HM447354 HM447355	Jamaica	DB7 DB8 DL1 DL3 DL4 DL5a DL5b DL6 M11a M11b M12	HM447322 HM447323 HM447324 HM447325 HM447326 HM447327 HM447328	HM447535 HM447536 HM447489 HM447490	HM447430 HM447433 HM447434 HM447435 HM447436 HM447437 HM447438 HM447439
	SB2 SB4 SB5a SB5b ST1b	HM447259 HM447260 HM447261	HM447547 HM447548 HM447506	HM447356		M13 M14 M16 RB2a RB2b		HM447517 HM447518	HM447440 HM447441 HM447442 HM447445
	ST1a ST2 ST3 ST5 ST7 ST8	HM447262 HM447263 HM447264	HM447505	HM447357 HM447358		RB4 RB5a RB5b RB6 RB7	HM447329 HM447330	HM447500 HM447501	HM447446 HM447443 HM447444
Bermuda	CH2 CH3a CH3b	HM447265	HM447494 HM447495	HM447359	Panama	AIR1 AIR2 AIR3	HM447331		HM447447 HM447448 HM447449
	CH5a CH5b	HM447266	HM447527 HM447528	HM447360		AIR4a AIR4b		HM447481 HM447482	HM447450
	CH7a CH7b	HM447267	HM447509 HM447510	HM447362		AIR6 AIR7	HM447332 HM447333		HIVI447451
	CH9 CRESIa CRES2	HM447268 HM447269	HM447522	HM447363 HM447364		AIR8a AIR8b AIR9a	HM447334	HM447511 HM447512 HM447475	HM447452 HM447453
	CRES3 CRES4	HM447270		HM447365		AIR9b ICN2	HM447341	HM447476	HM447461
	CRES9 GR1 GR2			HM447367 HM447369 HM447368		ICN7 ICN8 ICN10	HM447343 HM447344 HM447344 HM447340		HM447462 HM447463 HM447464 HM447460
	GR3 HOG3 HOG4	HM447271 HM447272		HM447370		ISN2a ISN2b ISN4	HM447346	HM447533 HM447534	HM447466
	HOG5 HOG6 ISN9	HM447273		HM447373 HM447372 HM447469		ISN8	HM447348		HM447468
	HOG7 HOG8 HOG9			HM447374 HM447375 HM447376		ISN10 ISS1	HM447345 HM447349	HM447507	HM447465
	HOG 10			HM447371		ISS2b		HM447508	⊓เvi447470

Appendix 2: (Continued)

Location	ID	ITS	β-tub	IGR	Location	ID	ITS	β-tub	IGR
	NEB4 NEB8	HM447274		HM447378		ISS4 ISS7a	HM447350	HM447496	HM447471 HM447472
	NEB9 NEB10			HM447379 HM447377		ISS7b ISS8		HM447497	HM447473
Bermuda	TB1	HM447275		HM447380	Panama	1559	HM447351		HM447474
	TB2			HM447381		CC1	HM447335		
TB	TB6			HM447382		CC2	HM447336		
	TB7	HM447277		HM447383		CC3	HM447337		HM447455
	TB9	HM447278		HM447385		CC4	HM447338		HM447456
	TB10	HM447276		HM447384		CC5a	HM447339	HM447483	HM447457
	THS4	HM447279		HM447386		CC5b		HM447484	
	THS5a	HM447280		HM447392		CC8a		HM447485	HM447458
	THS5b	HM447281				CC8b		HM447486	
	THS6	HM447282		HM447387		CC9			HM447459
	THS7			HM447388		CC10a		HM447477	HM447454
	THS8a		HM447504	HM447389		CC10b		HM447478	
	THS9a		HM447505	HM447390					
	THS 10			HM447391	Flower Garden Banks	EBN1			HM447403
	WAR1a	HM447283	HM447513			EBN2	HM447295	HM447492	HM447404
	WAR2a	HM447284				EBN4	HM447296		HM447402
	WAR2b	HM447285				EBN5	HM447297		HM447405
	WAR3	HM447286				ER21			HM447406
	WAR4	HM447287				EB229		HIVI447519	HM447407
	WAR5a	HM447288	HM447524			ER23		111 4 4 7 5 2 0	HIVI447408
	WAR5b	HM447289				EB229		HIVI447520	HIVI447409
	WAR6			HM447394		EB22D		HIVI447521	1104447410
	WAR8			HM447395		EBS0a	HIVI447299		HIVI447410
	WAR9			HM447396		EB209	HIVI447300		
	WAR10			HM447393		EB2/d		HIVI447521	
	WB1			HM447397			HIVI447301		
	WB4	HM447290		HM447398		VVBEI	HIVI447303		HIVI447411
	WB5	HM447291				VVBEZ			HIVI447412
	WB6			HM447399		VVBE4			HIVI447413
	WB8	HM447292		HM447400			HIVI447502	HIVI447556	HIVI447414
	WB9a	HM447293		HM447401		VVDE7			
	WB9b	HM447294							
						WBN2			HM447415

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)

Barbados	Site	Ν	Nh	Np	h	pn	pd
ITS	BT	3	3	6	1.0 ± 0.2722	0.004484 ± 0.003811	4.000000 ± 2.725541
	AB	1	1	0	0	0	0
	PIER	2	2	7	1.0 ± 0.5	0.007848 ± 0.008389	7.000000 ± 5.291502
	SB	4	2	1	0.5 ± 0.2652	0.000561 ± 0.000695	0.500000 ± 0.519115
	ST	4	4	9	1.0 ± 0.1768	0.005792 ± 0.004231	5.166667 ± 3.160166
β-tub	AB	10	7	10	0.9111 ± 0.0733	0.007459 ± 0.004562	4.288889 ± 2.319238
	BT	10	4	8	0.7778 ± 0.0907	0.006117 ± 0.003845	3.511111 ± 1.951332
	PIER	4	3	9	0.8333 ± 0.2224	0.009872 ± 0.007146	5.666667 ± 3.435029
	SB	2	2	7	1.00 ± 0.50	0.012195 ± 0.013037	7.00 ± 5.291502
	ST	2	1	0	0	0	0
IGR	PIER	4	1	0	0	0	0
	ST	3	1	0	0	0	0
Bermuda	Site	Ν	Nh	Np	h	p	np
ITS	СН	3	3	10	1.0000 ± 0.2722	0.007474 ± 0.006051	6.666667 ± 4.327835
	CRES	3	2	4	0.6667 ± 0.3143	0.002990 ± 0.002683	2.666667 ± 1.918994
	HOG	3	2	7	0.6667 ± 0.3143	0.005232 ± 0.004372	4.666667 ± 3.126944
	NEB	1	1	0	0	0	0
	TB	4	4	9	1.0000 ± 0.1768	0.005605 ± 0.004108	5.000000 ± 3.068482
	THS	4	3	4	0.8333 ± 0.2224	0.004297 ± 0.003247	3.833333 ± 2.425439
	WAR	7	6	7	0.9524 ± 0.0955	0.003577 ± 0.002403	3.190476 ± 1.871442
	WB	5	5	9	1.0000 ± 0.1265	0.004933 ± 0.003419	4.400000 ± 2.608429
β-tub	CH	6	5	9	0.9333 ± 0.1217	0.007085 ± 0.004743	4.066667 ± 2.357494
	CRES	2	2	6	1.00 ± 0.50	0.010453 ± 0.011290	6.00 ± 4.582576
	THS	4	3	9	0.8333 ± 0.2224	0.009855 ± 0.007134	5.666667 ± 3.435029
	WAR	4	4	7	1.00 ± 0.1768	0.006377 ± 0.004846	3.666667 ± 2.333333
IGR	CH	5	1	0	0	0	0
	CRES	4	1	0	0	0	0
	GR	3	1	0	0	0	0
	HOG	6		20	0.333 ± 0.2152	0.010515 ± 0.006678	6.666667 ± 3.666667
	NEB	3	1	0	0	0	0
	ТВ	6	1	0	0	0	0
	THS	7	1	0	0	0	0
	WAR	4	1	0	0	0	0
	WB	5	1	0	0	0	0
Flower Garden Banks	Site	Ν	Nh	Np	h	p	np
ITS	EBN	4	4	9	1.0000 ± 0.1768	0.005419 ± 0.003985	4.833333 ± 2.976762
	EBS	3	2	7	0.6667 ± 0.3143	0.005232 ± 0.004372	4.666667 ± 3.1269
	WBE	4	4	10	1.0000 ± 0.1768	0.006353 ± 0.004598	5.666667 ± 3.435029
	WBN	6	5	10	0.9333 ± 0.1217	0.005157 ± 0.003400	4.600000 ± 2.626785
	WBS	1	1	0	0	0	0
β-tub	EBN	2	2	7	1.00 ± 0.50	0.012195 ± 0.013037	7.00 ± 5.291502
	EBS	6	4	9	0.8667 ± 0.1291	0.009175 ± 0.005960	5.266667 ± 2.962732
	WBE	2	1	0	0	0	0
	WBN	6	4	9	0.800 ± 0.1721	0.006272 ± 0.004267	3.60 ± 2.121320
	WBS	8	6	9	0.9286 ± 0.0844	0.006035 ± 0.003918	3.464286 ± 1.974020
IGR	EBN	4	2	19	0.500 ± 0.2652	0.014984 ± 0.010429	9.500000 ± 5.537065
	EBS	5	1	0	0	0	0
	WBE	4	1	0	0	0	0
	WBN	6	1	0	0	0	0
	WBS	3	1	0	0	0	0

Appendix 4: (Continued)

Jamaica	Site	Ν	Nh	Np	h	pn	pd
ITS	СР	4	4	12	1.0000 ± 0.1768	0.007287 ± 0.005211	6.500000 ± 3.892634
	DB	7	7	8	1.0000 ± 0.0764	0.004324 ± 0.002827	3.857143 ± 2.201334
	DL	4	3	5	0.8333 ± 0.2224	0.002990 ± 0.002381	2.666667 ± 1.778499
	M1	1	1	0	0	0	0
	RB	2	2	7	1.0000 ± 0.5000	0.007848 ± 0.008389	7.000000 ± 5.291502
β-tub	CP	6	2	7	0.3333 ± 0.2152	0.004065 ± 0.002969	2.333333 ± 1.475730
	DB	6	3	7	0.600 ± 0.2152	0.004065 ± 0.002969	2.333333 ± 1.475730
	DL	2	2	6	1.00 ± 0.50	0.010453 ± 0.011290	6.00 ± 4.582576
	M1	2	2	1	1.00 ± 0.50	0.001742 ± 0.002464	1.00 ± 1.00
	RB	4	2	3	0.50 ± 0.2652	0.002613 ± 0.002332	1.50 ± 1.120934
IGR	CP	6	1	0	0	0	0
	DB	4	3	2	0.8333 ± 0.2224	0.001577 ± 0.001563	1.000000 ± 0.829646
	DL	5	1	0			
	M1	5	2	20	0.400 ± 0.2373	0.012618 ± 0.008266	8.000000 ± 4.483030
	RB	5	1	0	0	0	0
Panama	Site	Ν	Nh	Np	h	p	np
ITS	AIR	4	4	9	1.0000 ± 0.1768	0.005792 ± 0.004231	5.166667 ± 3.160166
	CC	5	4	10	0.9000 ± 0.1610	0.005157 ± 0.003556	4.600000 ± 2.712932
	ICN	5	5	12	1.0000 ± 0.1265	0.006278 ± 0.004239	5.600000 ± 3.234570
	ISN	4	4	7	1.0000 ± 0.1768	0.004297 ± 0.003247	3.833333 ± 2.425439
	ISS	3	2	5	0.6667 ± 0.3143	0.003737 ± 0.0032	3.333333 ± 2.323107
β-tub	AIR	6	2	7	0.5333 ± 0.1721	0.006504 ± 0.004403	3.733333 ± 2.188861
	CC	6	2	7	0.3333 ± 0.2152	0.004065 ± 0.002969	2.333333 ± 1.475730
	ISN	2	2	6	1.00 ± 0.50	0.010453 ± 0.011290	6.00 ± 4.582576
	ISS	4	3	8	0.8333 ± 0.2224	0.007259 ± 0.005429	4.166667 ± 2.609437
IGR	AIR	7	1	0	0	0	0
	CC	6	2	20	0.5333 ± 0.1721	0.016824 ± 0.010331	10.666667 ± 5.672546
	ICN	5	1	0	0	0	0
	ISN	5	1	0	0	0	0
	ISS	5	1	0	0	0	0