RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Phylogeny and geographic differentiation of Atlanto–Mediterranean species of the genus *Xantho* (Crustacea: Brachyura: Xanthidae) based on genetic and morphometric analyses

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Abstract The crab genus Xantho Leach, 1814 is restricted to the northeastern Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. It consists of four species, Xantho hydrophilus (Herbst, 1790), X. poressa (Olivi, 1792), X. pilipes A. Milne-Edwards, 1867, and X. sexdentatus (Miers, 1881). X. hydrophilus has been divided into two geographic forms, of which one, X. h. granulicarpus (Forest, 1953), is postulated to be endemic to the Mediterranean Sea. In this study, we reconstruct phylogenetic relationships of the genus Xantho and related genera from the Atlantic Ocean or Mediterranean Sea and compare different geographic populations of *Xantho hydrophilus* and, to a lesser extent, of X. poressa by means of population genetic and morphometric analyses. The molecular phylogeny is based on two mitochondrial genes (large subunit rRNA and cytochrome oxidase I) and indicates that X. poressa, X. hydrophilus and X. sexdentatus form a monophyletic group, the latter two species sharing identical haplotypes. On the other hand, X. pilipes shows affinities to Xanthodius denticulatus. Population genetics based on the COI gene reveal genetic differentiation within X. hydrophilus. Morphometric results also give evidence for distinct geographic forms in X. hydrophilus with a clear discrimination. In comparison, morphometric discrimination between different geographic populations of X. poressa is less clear, but still significant. We therefore suggest a recent/ongoing morphological and genetic differentiation within Xantho hydrophilus, restricted gene flow between its Atlantic and Mediterranean populations (not allowing subspecific differentiation) and possible mtDNA introgression between the species X. hydrophilus and X. sexdentatus.

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Introduction

Population genetic studies of marine invertebrate species have shown that high-dispersal potential due to planktonic larvae is often associated with only mild genetic differentiation over large scales as for example in the stone crabs Menippe mercenaria and Menippe adina from the Gulf of Mexico and western Atlantic (Williams and Felder 1986; Schneider-Broussard et al. 1998), the batillarid snail Batillaria multiformis occurring along the Japanese coast (Kojima et al. 2003) and the calyptraeid snail Crepidula depressa from the east coast of North America (Collin 2001). This implies high levels of gene flow within marine coastal megapopulations. However, despite the high-dispersal potential of most marine invertebrates, a variety of mechanisms can prevent gene flow between populations. These mechanisms may act at different levels, even among closely related species. While some species show sufficiently high rates of gene flow to reproduce panmictically, the genetic exchange becomes so remarkably low in other species, that natural selection and genetic drift may occur more or less independently in each deme (Slatkin 1981). Thereby, population structure depends strongly on the dispersal potential of the corresponding larval stages. Within the genus Littorina, Kyle and Boulding (2000) found examples for high as well as low population genetic structure in accordance to the duration of larval development. Furthermore, nonobvious barriers, isolation by distance, local genetic drift, introgression due to hybridization and incomplete lineage sorting are additional factors to be taken into account when studying dispersal of marine species (Palumbi 1994; Avise 1994; Zane et al. 2000).

The genus *Xantho* Leach, 1814 has an exclusive Mediterranean–Atlantic distribution and shows a great interspecific as well as intraspecific morphological variability (d'Udekem d'Acoz 1999). All four species of the genus as currently defined (Guinot 1967), i.e. *Xantho hydrophilus* (Herbst, 1790) (= *Xantho incisus* Leach,

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1814, see Sakai 1999), X. poressa (Olivi 1792) X. pilipes A. Milne-Edwards, 1867 and X. sexdentatus (Miers 1881) are restricted to the northeastern Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. While X. sexdentatus is only found in the tropical and subtropical Atlantic, the other three species are distributed in the northeastern Atlantic as well as in the Mediterranean Sea. In the literature, these species have often been confused, due to their morphological similarity and complex taxonomic history (Holthuis 1954; García Raso et al. 1987). For the Mediterranean populations of X. hydrophilus, Forest (in Drach and Forest 1953) described a variety called granulicarpus, which subsequently was often used as a subspecies name. X. h. granulicarpus is characterized by more acute lateral carapace spines, stronger granulated carapace and pereiopods, and a dark pigmentation on the chelar dactyls of the adult males extending onto the palm region. Transitional forms have been reported from the western Mediterranean Sea and therefore the exact geographic boundaries of the two subspecies of X. hydrophilus always remained unclear and the taxonomic status of X. h. granulicarpus doubtful (Almaça 1985; d'Udekem d'Acoz 1999).

The western Mediterranean is connected to the Atlantic Ocean through the Strait of Gibraltar. This narrow oceanic strait and the Almería-Oran front have been shown to represent natural gene flow barriers between Atlantic and Mediterranean populations in different marine species and therefore to cause and maintain allopatric separation. Several studies have revealed a restricted gene flow between Atlantic and Mediterranean populations in different marine invertebrate and vertebrate species, e.g. in the barnacle genus Chthamalus (see Pannacciulli et al. 1997), the cuttlefish Sepia officinalis (see Pérez-Losada et al. 2002), the sea bass Dicentrachus labrax (see Naciri et al. 1999) and the mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis (see Quesada et al. 1995). In the history of the Mediterranean Sea, there have been numerous instances in which its waters have been isolated from the Atlantic Ocean during extended periods. In the late Miocene, for example, a sea level regression isolated the Mediterranean Sea from the Atlantic, leading to almost complete desiccation of the Mediterranean (Messinian Crisis, e.g. Hsü 1983). Also, during the Quaternary glacial periods, sea level regressions limited the biotic exchange through the Strait of Gibraltar (Vermeij 1978). These historic separations with complete isolation as well as the continuing potential gene flow barrier of the Strait of Gibraltar might have shaped the genetic structure of the Mediterranean fauna. An endemic crab fauna could have originated by isolation from Atlantic populations, repeated recolonizations with adaptation to specialized habitats, or adaptive radiation (Almaça 1985). The allopatric speciation between the morphologically similar Atlantic Carcinus maenas and Mediterranean Carcinus aestuarii as suggested by Demeusy (1958), and later confirmed with genetic analyses of the 16SrRNA gene by Geller et al. (1997) and with the COI gene by Roman and

Palumbi (2004), represents such an Atlanto–Mediterranean separation event.

The present study is designed to reconstruct phylogenetic relationships within the genus *Xantho* and to determine whether Atlantic and Mediterranean populations of *X. hydrophilus* and *X. poressa* can be separated by morphometric and genetic methods. Thereby, we address the question whether the Strait of Gibraltar has a measurable influence on gene flow of xanthid crabs between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea, or if other separating mechanisms may be involved. The results may provide an answer to the question of the validity of the subspecies *X. h. granulicarpus* and if this taxon can be considered a Mediterranean endemic.

Materials and methods

Samples for this study were obtained from field trips to Giglio (Italy, 2001), Ibiza (Spain, 2001 and 2003), Parga (Greece, 2003), Corsica (France, 2004), Istra (Croatia, 2001 and 2004) (all Mediterranean), Cádiz (Spain, 2004) (Atlantic), and from colleague donations and museum collections of the Senckenberg Museum Frankfurt (SMF) and Naturalis Museum Leiden (RMNH) (see Table 1).

For the morphometric comparisons, 436 specimens of *Xantho* were included in this study. The sample size per population ranged from 22 to 101 individuals. Material from various geographic areas from the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean including both sexes was examined. Specimens were taken from the intertidal zone to a depth of 10 meters by snorkeling and occasionally by scuba-diving. The following populations were used: from the Atlantic Ocean, Portugal and Bretagne (France) for *X. hydrophilus*, Cádiz (Spain) for *X. poressa*; from the western Mediterranean, Ibiza for both species, Corsica for *X. poressa*; from the central Mediterranean, Greece for both species, and from the Adriatic Sea, Croatia for *X. poressa* only (see Table 1).

For the genetic analyses, genomic DNA was extracted from the muscle tissue of the walking legs using the Puregene kit (Gentra Systems). A total number of 82 specimens of the genus Xantho and additional seven species of the family Xanthidae were thereby genetically examined (Table 1). The selective amplification of an approximately 520 basepair fragment from the large subunit rRNA (16S) and a 640 basepair fragment from the cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI) (in both cases excluding primers) genes was carried out by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (40 cycles; 45 s $94^{\circ}/1 \text{ min } 48-50^{\circ}/1$ 1 min 72° denaturing/annealing/extension temperatures) with the primers listed in Table 2. In the case of COI, new internal primers to COIf and COIa were designed to allow amplification of X. poressa and older museum specimens (see Table 2). The PCR products were purified with Millipore Montage PCR Centrifugal Filter Devices (Millipore, Corp) and both strands were used for cycle sequencing. The products were precipitated

Table 1Localities, dates of collection, numbfamily Xanthidae	ber of specimens used for genetic (N_g) and morphometric ((N _m) com	parisons	and genetic database a	ccession number of t	he specimens of the
Species	Collection site	$N_{ m g}$	$N_{ m m}$	Catalouge No.	EMBL No.16S	EMBL No. COI
Actacinae Alcock, 1898 Paractea monodi Guinot, 1969	Greece: Crete, 2001			SMF 30114	AM076773	AM076801
Monodaeus couchii (Couch, 1851) Monodaeus couchii (Couch, 1851) Monodaeus guinotae Forest, 1976	France: Roscoff W 345, 43°54.2'N 02°10.9'W, 1970 Ibero-Moroccan Gulf, 38°41'N 06°30'W, 1984			MNHN B29631 MNHN B24145	AM076771 AM076772	AM076799 AM076800
Xanthnae MacLeay, 1838 Xantho hydrophilus (Herbst, 1790)	Portugal: Azores: Fayal, 1991 Spain: Canary Island, Tenerife, 1975 France: Bretagne, 1999			SMF 20457 SMF 6721 SMF 27535	AM076788	AM076916-27
	Italy: Giglio Campese, 2001 Spain: Ibiza, 2001	13	24	SMF 10235 SMF 27525-27 SMF 27531-32	AM076787	AM076805
	Greece: Parga, 2003	20	53	SMF 30115	AM076786	AM076903-15 AM076804
	Portugal: Setubal, 2004	20	31	SMF 30116-17		AM076803 AM076803
Xantho pilipes A. Milne-Edwards, 1867	Fortugal: Fraia das Avencas, 2001 Portugal: Praia das Avencas, 2001 Fronco: Careiro: Calvi, Area, 1988			SMF 20118 SMF 30119 SMF 30121	AM076775 AM076776	AM706806 AM706807
	Western Greece: Parga, 2003			SMF 30120	AM076777	AM076938
Xantho poressa (Olivi, 1792)	Croatia: Istra, 2001 Snain: Canary Islands			SMF 27533 R MNH 38643	AM076937 AM076779	AM076808 AM076810
	Spain: Ibiza, 2001		ł	SMF 27529-30	AM076778	AM076809
Xantho sexdentatus (Miers, 1881)	Croatta: Istra, 2004 Western Greece: Parga, 2003 Spain: Cádiz, 2004 Ibiza (Spain) France: Corsica, 2002 Mauritania, 1978	15	61 10 22 22 24	SMF 30122 SMF 30122 SMF30123 SMF30124 RMNH 38635	AM076780-81	AM076811-12
Xanthodius denticulatus (White, 1848)	Belize: Carrie Bow Bay, 2002	 .		ULLZ 5519	AM076782	AM0/6928-36 AM076813
Xanthodius inaequalis (Dana, 1852) Xanthodius sternberghii Stimpson, 1859	Fuerto Rico: Maunaoo, 2004 Principe and São Tomé: Bom Bom, 2004 Mexico: Mulegé, 2001			SMF 20122 RMNH 51206 ULLZ 3936	AM076785 AM076784 AM076785	AM076815 AM076815 AM076815
Platypodiella picta (Milne Edwards, 1869)	Principe and São Tomé: Bom Bom, 2004	1		RMNH D51198	AM076774	AM076802
Abbreviations of museums: RMNH Natura	ilis Mussum I aidan: SMF Sanchanhara Mussum Ed	mudaan	inctitut	Eronbfiirt a M IIII	7 Ilmiversity of I on	iciana at Lafawatta

Abbreviations of museums: RMNH Naturalis Museum Leiden; SMF Senckenberg Museum und Forschungsinstitut, Frankfurt a. M. ULLZ University of Louisiana at Lafayette Zoological Collection, Lafayette; MNHN Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris

Table 2 Primers used for PCR amplification and sequencing of the 16S rRNA and the mitochondrial COI genes

Name	Primer sequence 5'-3'	References		
COIf	CCT GCA GGA GGA GGA GAY CC	Palumbi et al. 1991		
COL3	ATR ATT TAY GCT ATR HTW GCM ATT GG	New internal		
COla	AGT ATA AGC GTC TGG GTA GTC	Palumbi et al. 1991		
1013	AAT CAR TOD GCA ATW CCR SCR AAA AT	New internal		
16L2 16H3	CCG GTT TGA ACT CAA ATC ATG T	New		

with ethanol, resuspended in water and sequenced with the ABI BigDye terminator mix (Big Dye Terminator v 1.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit; Applied Biosystems) in an ABI Prism automated sequencer (ABI Prism 310 Genetic Analyzer; Applied Biosystems). The sequences were analyzed with the program ABI Sequencing Analysis 3.4 (Applied Biosystems) and manually aligned with BioEdit (Hall 1999). The two mitochondrial genes 16S rRNA and COI were combined for the phylogeny. Panopeus herbstii H. Milne Edwards, 1834 sequences were obtained from the molecular database and used as outgroup (16S: AJ130815; COI: AJ274699). A Chisquare test of homogeneity of base frequencies across taxa was carried out as implemented in PAUP* (Swofford 1998). Test for homogeneity among partitioned datasets was also performed using PAUP* (Swofford 1998), with COI and 16S as predefined partitions.

Three methods of phylogenetic inference were applied to our data set: maximum parsimony (MP) and minimum evolution (ME) using the software package PAUP* (Swofford 1998), and Bayesian analysis (BI) as implemented in MrBayes v. 3.0b4 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist 2001). The model of DNA substitution that fitted our data best was chosen using the software Modeltetst 3.6 (Posada and Crandall 1998). This approach consists in successive pairwise comparisons of alternative substitution models by hierarchical likelihood ratio tests. The ME and BI trees were obtained with the suggested model of evolution and the corresponding parameters. MP trees were obtained by a heuristic search with 100 replicates of random sequences addition and tree-bisection-reconnection as branch swapping options. Gaps were treated as fifth state. Subsequently, confidence values for the proposed groups within the inferred trees were calculated with the bootstrap method (2,000 pseudoreplicates) with 10 replicates of stepwise random sequence addition and the treebisection-reconnection (TBR) branch swapping algorithm, keeping multiple trees (MulTrees). Otherwise, the default options of PAUP* were used. Only minimal trees were retained and zero length branches were collapsed. A second MP bootstrap analysis was carried out, this time giving transversions five times more weight than transitions and treating gaps as missing, since MP otherwise does not account for different substitution rates. The Bayesian analysis was run with four MCMC chains for 2,000,000 generations, saving a tree every 500 generations (with a corresponding output of 4,000 trees). The -lnL converged on a stable value between 5,000 and

7,500 generations ("burn in phase"). The first 10,000 generations were therefore not included in the analysis to avoid the possibility of including random and suboptimal trees. The posterior probabilities of the phylogeny were determined for the remaining trees. Consensus trees were constructed using the "sumpt" option in MrBayes.

For genetic comparisons of populations, we used a 622 bp fragment of the COI gene. Parsimony networks were built with TCS (estimating gene genealogies version 1.13; Templeton et al. 1992). The F_{ST} value (the genetic differentiation between any two subpopulations) was calculated by means of an AMOVA (Excoffier et al. 1992) to determine the degree of genetic differentiation amongst the populations of X. hydrophilus (software Arlequin 2.0; Schneider et al. 1999). First, genetic differentiation was tested between the Mediterranean Sea (Greece and Ibiza: N=33) and the Atlantic (Portugal: N=20). Subsequently, the Mediterranean Sea was subdivided into two populations, central Mediterranean (Greece; N = 20) and West Mediterranean (Ibiza; N = 13) and the genetic differentiation was tested between the three populations and between the two species X. hydrophilus (N = 53) and X. sexdentatus (N = 15). Genetic heterogeneity within populations was estimated as haplotype diversity ($h = 1 - \sum_{i} f_{i}^{2}$; where f_{i} is the frequency of the *i*th haplotype).

For the morphometric analyses the following morphological measurements were used: (1) carapace width (cw); (2) carapace length (cl); (3) body height (bh); (4) frontal width (fw); (5) ventral leg length of the fourth leg. Measurements of the chelae and abdomen were not included in the analyses because of sexual dimorphism. The data were tested for normal distribution by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-test (software Statistica 6.0; StatSoft). Patterns of morphometric relationships can be influenced by the effect of allometric growth and size in species of undetermined age. To reduce the influence of allometry, all measurements were log-transformed, and ratios were arcsine-transformed. The comparison of morphometric ratios of different populations was carried out with a 1-Factor-ANOVA and a post hoc Schefe test for the comparison within species. We also included a Levene test to test the homogeneity of the data. The equality of variance-covariance matrices were tested with a Box's M-test (Box 1953). In addition, discriminant analysis was used for a more accurate differentiation between populations using log-transformed morphometric variables.

Results

Genetics

The genetic dataset consisted of an alignment of 1,167 basepairs after removal of the primer regions (640 of COI and 527 of 16S). Out of these, 424 positions were variable and 351 parsimony-informative. The test for homogeneity of base frequencies composition indicated homogeneity within the combined COI and 16S dataset (P = 0.249) as well as across taxa ($\chi^2 = 34.236$, df = 57, P = 0.993). Application of the likelihood ratio tests revealed that the selected model of DNA substitution by Akaike for the combined data was the general time reversible model GTR + I + G (Rodríguez et al. 1990) with an assumed proportion of invariable sites of 0.5445 and the rates following a gamma distribution with a shape parameter of 1.0464. The heuristic search of MP resulted in three most parsimonious trees with a length of 1,013 (CI = 0.596, RI = 0.731, RC = 0.436). Bayesian inference, maximum parsimony (with weighted transversions), and minimum evolution analyses resulted in a similar topology without conflicting branching patterns and are therefore presented together in Fig. 1. The resulting 16S-COI gene tree suggests that the genus *Xantho* Leach, 1814 is not necessarily a monophyletic group, since Xanthodius denticulatus possibly represents the sister species of Xantho pilipes (low confidence values) and is not closely related to other members of the genus Xanthodius Stimpson, 1859, including the type species Xanthodius sternberghii Stimpson, 1859. The other three species of the genus Xantho do form a well supported monophyletic clade (1.0/100/85 posterior probability or bootstrap values in BI/MP/ME). Surprisingly, X. sexdentatus cannot be separated from X. hydrophilus. Also, the two postulated subspecies of X. hydrophilus X. h. hydrophilus and X. h. granulicarpus) cannot be distinguished with this approach. Consequently, X. hydrophilus from the Atlantic and Mediterranean Sea and X. sexdentatus form a genetically wellsupported clade (1.0/100/100). The sister species to this clade is Xantho poressa. Similar as in X. hydrophilus, also in X. pilipes and X. poressa all Mediterranean and Atlantic specimens are very closely related and grouped together (1.0/100/100 in both cases). Xanthodius inaequalis (Olivier 1791) from Africa and Xanthodius sternberghii Stimpson, 1859 from the eastern Pacific form another monophyletic group (1.0/100/100), representing the genus Xanthodius and the two species of Monodaeus are also placed in a common clade with strong support (1.0/100/100), supporting the validity of the genus. Platypodiella picta and Paractaea monodi are characterized by long branches and cannot be placed in phylogenetic vicinity of any other species included in this phylogeny. Panopeus herbstii represents the designated outgroup (Fig. 1).

The comparison of multiple sequences of 520 basepairs of 16S mtDNA (16S) and 622 basepairs of COI in X. hydrophilus revealed the existence of most common haplotypes for both genes. Because of the close relationship between X. sexdentatus and X. hydrophilus in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1), we included X. sexdentatus in the subsequent network construction. For the 16S gene, 12 out of 19 specimens share a common haplotype (seven X. hydrophilus from the Mediterranean, four from the Atlantic and one X. sexdentatus). Five additional haplotypes of X. hydrophilus were found (four being separated by one transition and one from Ibiza by two transitions), but occurred only once in our analysis. Two specimens of X. sexdentatus are separated by different transitions. In contrast, X.poressa is separated from this complex by at least 20 transitions and one transversion. Within X. poressa, five out of six specimens share a common haplotype and one additional haplotype from Italy occurs with one transition.

Due to the higher variability and thus separating potential of the COI gene, we included many more specimens of the X. hydrophilus complex (N = 53) in the intraspecific comparisons together with 15 specimens of X. sexdentatus. The minimum spanning tree shows a star-like shape, with most haplotypes being connected by very few mutation steps. The populations from Greece, Ibiza and Portugal of X. hydrophilus and X. sexdentatus share one most frequent haplotype (HT1) which was present in 18 specimens, six from Greece, three from Ibiza, six from Portugal and three representing X. sexdentatus (Fig. 2). A large number of rare haplotypes have diverged from the common haplotype. They are generally present in not more than one individual per population: 14 haplotypes with one mutation, 11 with two mutations and 8 with three mutations were found. Eight other haplotypes form a more differentiated group: one haplotype with four (HT20 from Ibiza), one X. sexdentatus with five (HT39), one haplotype with six (HT12 from Portugal), one with seven (HT11 from Protugal), two with eight (HT30 from Greece and HT40 representing one X. sexdentatus), one haplotype with nine (HT41 representing one X. sexdentatus) and one with 11 substitutions (HT13 from Portugal) relative to HT1. Eight of the 15 sequenced specimens of X. sex*dentatus* share one position, always distinguishing them from HT1, the corresponding haplotype is termed HT42. Relative to HT42 one X. sexdentatus diverged with one (HT43) and two with three (HT45, 44) transitions. However, also some of the Mediterranean and Atlantic haplotypes of X. hydrophilus are derived from HT42 (Fig. 2). These results therefore demonstrate the lack of obvious diagnostic differences in the 16S rRNA and COI genes between the species *Xantho hydrophilus* and X. sexdentatus and give evidence that Atlantic and Mediterranean populations of X. hydrophilus share a most common haplotype (Fig. 2, Table 3). Nevertheless, the existence of genetic structure correlated with geography could be shown by F-statistics. The analysis of variance of 622 basepairs of COI between all Atlantic and Mediterranean representatives of X. hydrophilus revealed a highly significant genetic differentiation and



Fig. 1 Bootstrap 50% majority-rule consensus tree of phylogenetic relationships within the genus *Xantho* and other *Xanthidae* with *Panopeus herbstii* as outgroup. Bayesian inference, maximum parsimony and minimum evolution (with GTR+I+G model of evolution) topologies. Confidence values from 2,000 bootstrap

replicates (BI/MP/ME confidence values) based on 1,167 basepairs of the 16S and COI mitochondrial genes; only bootstrap values above 50 are shown. *C-Med*: Central Mediterranean; *W-Med*: West Mediterranean; *ATL*: Atlantic



Fig. 2 Minimum parsimonious spanning network constructed with TCS of *X. hydrophilus* (N=53) and *X. sexdentatus* (N=15) of a 622-basepair fragment from the COI gene. Each line represents one substitution; cross lines on lines indicate additional substitutions

separating two haplotypes, a double line stands for transversions. The size of the circle is representative for the frequency of the haplotypes (small: N=1; medium: N=2-3, large: N>10). Shading corresponds to geographic origin

an F_{ST} -value of 0,07 (P < 0.001). Moderate genetic differentiation is indicated by values between 0.05 and 0.15 (Wright 1978). To study the degree of homogeneity within the Mediterranean Sea, we further divided the Mediterranean samples into the two corresponding subpopulations; representing Greece and Ibiza (see Material and methods). The F_{ST} values were lower (and less significant) between the populations of Portugal and Ibiza (F_{ST} : 0.05, P = 0.006), the populations of Greece and Ibiza (F_{ST} : 0.05; P = 0.005) than between the populations of Portugal and Greece with a highly significant F_{ST} -value of 0.08 ($P \le 0.001$). An F_{ST} -value of 0.04 was estimated between X. hydrophilus and X. sexdentatus, but with relatively low significance (P = 0.004). The haplotype diversity (h) of the COI gene within Atlantic and Mediterranean populations is relatively high (0.72 vs. 0.54) (see Table 3).

Morphometrics

There are significant morphometric differences between the four populations of *X. hydrophilus* and *X. sexdentatus* (here included because of its genetic similarity) in single character ratios as well as in overall discriminant analyses. Two geographic forms and transitional forms of Xantho hydrophilus could be distinguished, in addition to the separation of X. sexdentataus. Most distant are the populations from the Bretagne and Greece while the populations of Ibiza and Portugal represent transitional forms. The 1-Factor-ANOVA analyses of the ratios of X. hydrophilus and X. sexdentatus revealed significant differences between all the populations of the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean of X. hydrophilus and X. sexdentatus in carapace length to carapace width (df 4; F = 26.469; P < 0.001), body height to carapace width (df 4; F = 39.364; P < 0.001) and frontal width to carapace width (df 4; 26.407; P < 0.001). The post hoc Schefe test for the ratio carapace length to carapace width showed significant differences for the population of the Bretagne and X. sexdentatus in comparison to all the other populations (P < 0.001), except between X. sexdentatus and the population of Ibiza (P > 0.1).Furthermore, significant differences (P < 0.001) were detected in the ratio body height to carapace width between Greece and all other populations. For this ratio, there were no significant differences between the population of Ibiza and X. sexdentatus (P > 0.1), between X. sexdentatus and the population of the Bretagne (P > 0.1) and between the population of the

locality Haploty	vpes
1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 n nHT h
6	1 1 1 1 1 20 14 0.72
ŝ	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
3 6	1 1 1 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 20 14 0.48
Y. s. 3	
Fotal 18	1111111111111111111111111111111111110840 0.99
	1111113111 5 6 9 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 2 3 6 1 1 2 3 3 3 6 2 3 1 1 1 2 3 2 3 6 7 1 2 4 4 1
1	
V Sub	11111232217611112233423611233362311123235712441

HT is the number of different hap of years found in each population and h is the haplotype diversity according to Nei and Tajima, 1981. The number of substitutions (N Sub), transitions (S) and transversions (V) are defined in comparison to the most common haplotype 1 **Table 3** *Xantho hydrophilus* haplotype distribution within the Mediterranean Sea: Greece (G) and Ibiza (D; and the Atlantic Ocean: Portugal (P); also including X. sexdentatus (X. s.). n

Bretagne and Portugal (P > 0.1). Only the population of the Bretagne showed significant differences (P < 0.001) in the ratio frontal width to carapace width to Greece, Ibiza, Portugal and *X. sexdentatus*.

In order to test the overall differentiation of the different populations of X. hydrophilus and the population of X. sexdentatus, a discriminant analysis was carried out using the five log-transformed variables carapace length, carapace width, body height, frontal width and leg length. The dataset were subjected to canonical analyses shown in Fig. 3. The group dispersions were not homogeneous (Box's *M*-test: M = 188, $F_{45, 8,208} =$ 3.908, P < 0.0001) and the discrimination between the groups was highly significant (Wilks' Lambda: 0.11, F (20.538) = 25.271, P < 0.00001; 80.11% correct classification). The population of Greece is correctly classified with a likelihood of 90.7%, the population of the Bretagne with 90%, the population of Portugal with 77.42% and X. sexdentatus with 92.8% likelihood. In addition, the classification matrix showed that individuals belonging to Ibiza were only correctly classified in less than 50%, (Table 4). The Mahalanobis distances (D^2) of the population of Greece revealed the shortest distance to the population of Ibiza $(D^2 2.2)$ followed by Portugal $(D^2 6.9)$, X. sexdentatus $(D^2 11.5)$ and the most distant Bretagne (D^2 19.9). The population of Ibiza has a close relationship to its neighbouring populations of Greece $(D^2 2.2)$ and Portugal $(D^2 2.6)$. X. sexdentatus has the smallest distance to the population of Portugal $(D^2 5.5)$, followed by the population of Ibiza $(D^2 8.4)$, Bretagne $(D^2 9.6)$ and at last Greece $(D^2 11.5)$. The population of the Bretagne shows high distances to the population of Ibiza $(D^2 20.6)$, Greece $(D^2 19.9)$ and Portugal $(D^2 14.1)$ (Table 4). The first canonical function (root1) accounted for 64.57% of the explained variance. The first and the second canonical function explained 87.15% of the total variance.

The four geographic groups of Xantho poressa are not as clearly separable, despite significant differences in two character ratios and overall differences in discriminant analysis. Interestingly, most distant is the Adriatic population from two other Mediterranean populations, while it is morphologically closer to the Atlantic population. The 1-Factor-ANOVA analysis of the ratios revealed no significant difference in the ratio body height to carapace width (df 3; F=1.433; P=0.223), but significant differences in the ratios carapace length to carapace width (df 3; F = 10.835; P < 0.001) and frontal width to carapace width (df 3; F = 15.890; P < 0.001). The post hoc Schefe-test was always nonsignificant between the populations of Ibiza, Corsica and Greece and between the populations of the Adria and the Atlantic. However, the analysis revealed significant differences (P < 0.001) in the ratios frontal width to carapace width and carapace length to carapace width for both the Atlantic and the Adriatic populations versus the population of Greece, Ibiza and Corsica.

For the discriminant analysis four log transformed variables were used: carapace length, carapace width,

Fig. 3 Canonical analysis depicting discrimination by morphometric measurements between *X. sexdentatus* and *X. hydrophilus* from Bretagne (France), Portugal, Ibiza (Spain), and Parga (Greece); plot of the first discriminant function (root 1) against the second (root 2)



body height and frontal width. Leg length was excluded from this analysis, because it was not normally distributed. The four groups are not as clearly separated as the populations of X. hydrophilus but also show that the group dispersion was not homogenous (Box's M-test: M=292, $F_{30, 1,236} = 9,117$, P < 0.001) and highly significant differences (Wilks' Lambda: 0.49, F(16.837) = 13.414, P < 0.00001; 56.38% correct classification) (Fig. 4). The canonical analysis showed that the significance was mostly due to the following differentiation: the population of Ibiza and Corsica grouped together with the population of Greece and the Adria population with the Atlantic one. In addition, the classification matrix showed that individuals belonging to Ibiza and

Table 4 Numbers and percentage correct classification to the different populations (in bold letters) and Mahalanobis distances (D^2) based on the morphometric classification function for the four populations of *X. hydrophilus* and *X. sexdentatus*, and five populations of *X.poresssa*

Populations of X. hydrophilus	Bre	etagne	Por	tugal	Ibi	za	Gre	ece	X. se	xdentatus	Correct classification (%)
Bretagne Portugal	18 1	D^2 14 1	1 24		0 2		0 2		1 2		90 77.4
Ibiza	0	$D^{2} 14.1$	5	$D^2 26$	7		10		2		29.2
Greece	0	$D^{2} 10.0$	2	$D^{2} 6.9$	1	$D^2 2 2$	49		0		90.7
X. sexdentatus	0	D^{2} 9.6	1	$D^{2} 5.5$	1	$D^{2} 2.2$ $D^{2} 8.4$	1	D^2 11.5	39		92.8
Populations of X. poressa	Atlan	tic	Cor	sica	Ι	biza		Greece		Adria	Correct classification (%)
Atlanitc Corsica	23 1	D^{2} 3.6	0 1		0 2			17 17		17 1	40.35 4.5
Ibiza	4	$D^{2} 2.5$	0	$D^2 = 0.5$	1			20		2	3.7
Greece	9	$D^2 2.9$	0	$D^2 0.3$	0	$D^{2} 0$	7	86		6	85.1
Adria	9	$D^2 0.8$	0	$D^2 4.8$	0	D^2 3	.9	18 D ²	² 3.1	48	64

Fig. 4 Canonical analysis depicting discrimination by morphometric measurements of *X. poressa* from Cádiz (Spain), Ibiza (Spain), Croatia (Adria) and Parga (Greece); a plot of the first discriminant function (root 1) against the second (root 2)



Corsica were only correctly classified in less than 10%. Instead, they correspond more often to the population from Greece (Table 4). The Mahalanobis distances (D^2) reveal that populations of Ibiza and Greece $(D^2 \ 0.7)$ and the populations of Corsica and Greece $(D^2 \ 0.3)$ are closer to each other than the Atlantic population to Ibiza $(D^2 \ 2.5)$, Corsica $(D^2 \ 3.6)$ and Greece $(D^2 \ 2.9)$. On the other side, the population from the Adria is very similar to the Atlantic $(D^2 \ 0.8)$ and shows higher distances to Greece $(D^2 \ 3.1)$, Ibiza $(D^2 \ 3.9)$ and Corsica $(D^2 \ 4.8)$ (Table 4). The first canonical function (root1) accounted for 82% and the first and second (root2) for 98% of the explained variance.

Discussion

Population structure, as estimated by neutral molecular markers, is determined by the interactions between gene flow and genetic drift (Wright 1943; Kimura and Weiss 1964; Slatkin 1985). Interpretation of the level of structure can be difficult, because historical events and a variety of nonobvious mechanisms can be involved in the separation processes that eventually lead to future speciation.

The 16S rRNA and the more variable COI mitochondrial genes have been shown to be variable enough for population studies in marine crabs (Schubart et al. 2000a; Fratini and Vannini 2002). In this study, no single nucleotide position along 1167 basepairs of mtDNA corresponding to the 16S rRNA or COI genes, could be used to consistently distinguish different pop-

ulations within X. hydrophilus or X. poressa nor to separate X. sexdentatus from X. hvdrophilus. However, the analyses of frequencies of haplotype distributions in the X. hydrophilus-X. sexdentatus complex and morphometric comparisons separate X. sexdentatus and allows distinction of geographic forms in X. hydrophilus, with the geographically most distant populations from the Atlantic (Bretagne) and the Mediterranean (Greece) also being most distinct and the other two populations representing transitional forms. This could be the result of recent separation followed by incomplete lineage sorting and occasional gene flow in neighbouring populations (e.g. Ibiza and Portugal). The geographic separation may have been caused or maintained by the Strait of Gibraltar acting as a gene flow barrier. On the other hand, this study shows that there is also restricted gene flow within the Mediterranean Basin, for which the barriers and exact patterns still need to be determined.

Triantafyllidis et al. (2005) showed that the Aegean population of the European lobster *Homarus gammarus* differ significantly from the Atlantic samples, as well as from the ones from the Adriatic and West Mediterranean based on haplotype frequencies and F_{st} of a 3-kb mitochondrial DNA segment. Duran et al. (2004) using 644 basepairs of the COI gene, detected a slight but significant pattern of genetic differentiation between the Atlantic and Mediterranean populations of the sea urchin *Paracentrotus lividus*. Zane et al. (2000) also observed a genetic cline between both sides of the Gibraltar Strait for the pelagic crustacean *Meganyctiphanes norvegica* based on a 200 basepair fragment of the mitochondrial NADH subunit I. Borsa et al. (1997) carried out analyses of allozyme variation showing fixed allele differences among populations from the Atlantic, the western Mediterranean, the Adriatic Sea and the Aegean Sea for the fish species *Platichthys flesus* and *P. stellatus*. Furthermore, comparing samples with enzyme electrophoresis, Monteiro et al. (1997) revealed extensive genetic divergence between populations of the common intertidal sea anemone Actinia equina from Britain and the Mediterranean. Additional examples for Atlanto-Mediterranean differentiation were already enumerated in the Introduction (Quesada et al. 1995; Geller et al. 1997; Pannacciulli et al. 1997; Naciri et al. 1999; Pérez-Losada et al. 2002). On the other hand, in the literature we also find examples of closely related pairs of brachyuran crabs, that are treated as distinct taxa, but for which genetic separation has not been demonstrated so far. For example, two Mediterranean species of the varunid genus Brachynotus, B. sexdentatus and Brachynotus gemmellari, (see Froglia and Manning 1978), the stone crabs Menippe mercenaria and Menippe adina (Menippidae) from the Gulf of Mexico and western Atlantic (Williams and Felder 1986), the panopeid crabs Panopeus herbstii and P. stimpsoni from the northwestern Atlantic (Schubart et al. 2000b) and the varunid crabs Cyrtograpsus altimanus and C. affinis from the Argentinian coast (Spivak and Schubart 2003) lack consistent differences in the 16S mtDNA and can only be separated on the basis of colour, morphometry or bathymetry, indicating recent separation or phenotypic variability (Schneider-Broussard et al. 1998; Schubart et al. 2001; Spivak and Schubart 2003). These could represent additional examples for the recent insight that morphological differences between regional populations may be independent from the genetic discontinuities between lineages (see also Flowers and Foltz 2001; Wilding et al. 2000). On the other hand, none of these examples have been addressed with population genetic methods. Comparison of a few individuals with the 16S rRNA gene would also have been insufficient in our case study to reveal genetic structure within X. hydrophilus and differences in haplotype frequencies between X. sexdentatus and X. hydrophilus.

The stepping stone model of Kimura and Weiss (1964) assumes a negative correlation between genetic relatedness and geographic distance. In our case, it is possible that gene flow occurs only among adjacent populations of X. hydrophilus and therefore the F_{st} is largest between the most distant populations and transitional stages of X. hydrophilus exist in the vicinity of the Strait of Gibraltar, all this reflecting isolation by distance. This could be favoured by the relatively short larval development of X. hydrophilus, because the genetic structure of populations of marine animals is often correlated with different potential of dispersal in their larval stages (Kyle and Boulding 2000). The larval development of Xantho consists of four zoeal stages (Ingle 1983), which is relatively short in comparison to for example the larval development of Pachygrapsus marmoratus, another Mediterranean littoral species,

with eight zoeal stages (Cuesta et al. 1994). Pogson et al. (2001) recognized isolation by distance in the Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua*, Planes et al. (1996) in the surgeonfish *Acanthurus triostegus* and Ketmaier (2002) in the central Italian *Porasellus coxalis* isopod group. Palma and Andrade (2002) found a clear geographic gradient within the fish genus *Diplodus* between Atlantic and Mediterranean samples using morphometric comparsions.

The discriminant analysis of our morphometric data revealed geographic differences for Xantho hydrophilus and less pronounced also for X. poressa. The classification matrix of four populations of X. hydrophilus shows that the population from Greece and the population from the Bretagne can be classified correctly with a high likelihood and thus form morphometrically well separable groups. In contrast, the populations from Ibiza and Portugal do not represent such distinct groups. For the population from Ibiza the Mahalanobis distances indicate a high similarity to the neighbouring populations from Greece and Portugal. Furthermore, the F_{st} values also show that the population from Greece has a larger distance to the population from Portugal than to the intermediate population from Ibiza. In conclusion, also in morphometry the population from Ibiza represents a transitional form between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea. This is exactly what has been postulated in the literature concerning the separating morphological characters of the two subspecies of X. hydrophilus: transitional forms in the western Mediterranean Sea were recognized by Almaça (1985) and d'Udekem d'Acoz (1999). In our case, also X. hydro*philus* from Portugal forms a transitional form in morphometry between the Bretagne and the Mediterranean Sea. Therefore, it remains impossible to define the exact boundaries of the two variations of X. hydrophilus, especially when trying to define the ranges of the possible subspecies.

We therefore consider Xantho hydrophilus from the Atlantic and the Mediterranean one single species and suggest not to use X. hydrophilus granulicarpus as a distinct subspecies. It possibly represents a morphological variant (forma granulicarpus) which seems to be more common in the Mediterranean, but with no taxonomic value. The other taxonomic problem turns out to be the status of Xantho sexdentatus. With the current lack of results from nuclear DNA, we suggest that X. sexdentatus and X. hydrophilus should still be considered as two different species (due to their consistent remarkably different morphologies), between which mitochondrial introgression may occur. Introgression refers to gene movement between species or genetic populations mediated by hybridization or backcrossing (Avise 2004). Thus, introgression of mtDNA between taxa can cause two species that were monophyletic to become para- or even polyphyletic with respect to mtDNA. Rawson and Hilbish (1998) have shown that Mytilus edulis mtDNA haplotypes appear in mussel populations from the Baltic Sea, which have predominanty M. trossulus nuclear genotypes, indicating that introgressive hybridization is prevalent among European mussel populations. Alternatively, a lack of concordance between species delineation and mito-chondrial gene genealogies can be the result of incomplete lineage sorting (Avise et al. 1984).

It has been suggested that in the marine environment many species may be organized into large panmictic populations (Palumbi 1992, 1994). Our genetic and morphometric data show that X. hydrophilus cannot be classified as panmictic. In the case of X. poressa, there was only low variability in the morphometric data, but so far population genetic data are lacking. The morphometrically distinct population of the Adria is similar to the Atlantic population and shows larger distances to the western and central Mediterranean populations. The Adria holds an exceptional position within the Mediterranean Sea, because of its different temperature and salinity regimes as well as for its unusual tidal influence. However, the effect of the Adriatic Sea on the morphometry of xanthid crabs is not consistent. A single individual of X. hydrophilus obtained from the northern Adria clustered morphometrically with the central Mediterranean and not Atlantic. It has to be considered, however, that in the Mediterranean the two species distribute at different depths: X. poressa lives in the shallow subtidal zone (0-2 m) and thus under direct tidal influence, whereas X. hydrophilus is more common in deeper rocky areas (1.5–10 m), and less influenced by tides. We therefore propose that the similar morphometry of X. poressa from the Adria and the Atlantic Ocean may reflect phenotypic plasticity or convergence and not genetic similarity. This, however, remains to be tested genetically. Similarly, in the study of Schubart et al. (2001), it was suggested that Brachynotus gemmellari and Brachynotus sexdentatus possibly represent different ecophenotypes of a single species at different depths. Also in Cyrtograpsus affinis and C. altimanus, molecular and morphometric comparisons revealed no genetic structure, but two different morphs that were always associated with subtidal versus intertidal habitats (Spivak and Schubart 2003). Phenotypic plasticity influenced through the tides was also found in the snail Littorina saxatilis, in which a Venice sample and a Swedish sample, both with weak tidal influence, show morphological similarity but are distinct from a British sample and another Swedish with strong tidal influence (Janson 1985). Besides allopatric separation, clinal variation thus represents an alternative explanation for local mechanisms of adaptation (Quesada et al. 1995).

In order to determine (1) how consistently Mediterranean and Atlantic forms can be separated, (2) if the closely related species X. sexdentatus hybridises with X. hydrophilus, (3) how many genetic and morphometric subunits of X. hydrophilus can be recognized and (4) where their exact boundaries are in the Mediterranean Sea, many more specimens of the genus Xantho from other areas of its distribution, i.e. Canary Islands, eastern Mediterranean Sea, and Black Sea need to be included in the analysis. More variable markers (e.g. microsatellites or AFLP) would help to resolve questions concerning local gene flow. In addition, population genetic studies of species with similar distributions and life histories (*X. poressa, Brachynotus sexdentatus* complex) shall be carried out for comparative purposes.

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