- 1 Genetic diversity in two introduced biofouling amphipods (Ampithoe valida & Jassa
- *marmorata*) along the Pacific North American coast: investigation into molecular
 identification and cryptic diversity
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10 **Running Title: Genetic diversity of introduced** *Ampithoe* and *Jassa*

- Article Type: Biodiversity Research
- 1314 ABSTRACT

15 Aim We investigated patterns of genetic diversity among invasive populations of *A. valida* and *J.*

- 16 marmorata from the Pacific North American coast to assess the accuracy of morphological
- 17 identification and determine whether or not cryptic diversity and multiple introductions
- 18 contribute to the contemporary distribution of these species in the region.
- 19 Location Native range: Atlantic North American coast; Invaded range: Pacific North American
- 20 coast.
- 21 Methods We assessed indices of genetic diversity based on DNA sequence data from the
- 22 mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) gene, determined the distribution of COI
- haplotypes among populations in both the invasive and putative native ranges of *A. valida* and *J.*
- 24 marmorata, and reconstructed phylogenetic relationships among COI haplotypes using both
- 25 maximum parsimony and Bayesian approaches.
- 26 **Results** Phylogenetic inference indicates that inaccurate species level identifications by
- 27 morphological criteria are common among *Jassa* specimens. In addition, our data reveal the
- 28 presence of three well supported but previously unrecognized clades of A. valida among
- 29 specimens in the northeastern Pacific. Different species of Jassa and different genetic lineages of

Ampithoe exhibit striking disparity in geographic distribution across the region as well as
 substantial differences in genetic diversity indices.

Main conclusions Molecular genetic methods greatly improve the accuracy and resolution of identifications for invasive benthic marine amphipods at the species level and below. Our data suggest that multiple cryptic introductions of *Ampithoe* have occurred in the northeastern Pacific and highlight uncertainty regarding the origin and invasion histories of both *Jassa* and *Ampithoe* species. Additional morphological and genetic analyses are necessary to clarify the taxonomy and native biogeography of both amphipod genera.

38 Keywords: benthic invertebrate, cryptic species, DNA barcode, invasive species, marine
39 amphipod

40 **INTRODUCTION**

41 The taxonomy and biogeography of many coastal invertebrate taxa, particularly those 42 associated with anthropogenic range expansions, remains poorly understood (Carlton, 2009). For 43 many coastal habitats, intercoastal and transoceanic shipping predates taxonomic studies of their 44 benthic marine invertebrates by several hundred years. Faunistic studies of the benthos in these 45 locales have occurred long after many non-native fauna have successfully colonized and these 46 non-native taxa are then often mistaken as natural members of the ecosystem (Carlton, 2009). 47 Persistent questions thus remain regarding the native origins of many coastal benthic species, and 48 many still cannot reliably be assigned native or introduced status in parts of their global range 49 (Geller *et al.*, 2010). The rise in molecular DNA studies of benthic invasive invertebrates has 50 further complicated matters by uncovering cryptic species in such disparate groups as 51 hydrozoans (Folino-Rorem et al., 2009), jellyfish (Holland et al., 2004; Dawson et al., 2005), 52 mussels (Geller et al., 1994; Rawson & Hilbish, 1995; Hilbish et al., 2000), bryozoans

(Davidson & Haygood, 1999; Schwaninger, 2008), and tunicates (Caputi *et al.*, 2007). These
unanswered questions regarding taxonomy, native biogeography and cryptic diversity have
critical importance for understanding the relationships between biological invasions and
historical changes to benthic community structure.

57 The benthic marine amphipods Ampithoe valida Smith 1873 (family Ampithoidae) and 58 Jassa marmorata Holmes 1903 (family Ischyroceridae) are both tube-building biofoulers that 59 have invaded many shallow to intertidal habitats around the world (Table 1). Both are considered 60 invasive species along the Pacific coast of North America where their initial introductions are 61 presumed to have occurred in San Francisco Bay (Cohen & Carlton, 1995) followed by 62 expansion north and south along the coast. These two species can occur in very dense 63 aggregation in the benthos; populations of Jassa may have densities above 10,000 individuals/m² 64 (Franz & Mohamed, 1989). Identifying individuals of these two species requires considerable 65 taxonomic expertise as species in both Ampithoe and Jassa are often distinguished 66 morphologically by differences in the gnathopods (legs modified for grasping) of adult males 67 (Chapman, 2007). These adult males, however, may be infrequently encountered (Scinto *et al.*, 68 2007), complicating the identification of collected specimens of these taxa.

Both taxa are members of genera that have experienced unsettled taxonomy. Prior to
revision (Conlan, 1990), all species in the genus *Jassa* had been lumped into a single species
(Reid, 1951) mainly due to the difficulties of identifying juveniles and females into separate
species. Conlan's revision resurrected many *Jassa* species and described fourteen new species.
The genus *Ampithoe* has not undergone any recent revisions, but recent work on Australian
species suggests that the genus is in need of further taxonomic scrutiny. Peart (2007) moved four

75 Australian species to other genera and described seventeen new species of *Ampithoe* bringing the 76 total number of species for Australia from three to twenty.

77 Both A. valida and J. marmorata thus have the hallmarks of invasive benthic marine taxa 78 that are likely to harbour unrecognized diversity: 1) they have a history of taxonomic 79 uncertainty; 2) there are reasons to suspect that morphological criteria may be insufficient for 80 accurate species level identification except in ideal cases (e.g. presence of major males or 81 accessibility of specialized taxonomic expertise); 3) they are widespread with contemporary 82 distributions shaped in large part by anthropogenic dispersal. Given these considerations, we 83 sought to investigate the genetic diversity in non-native populations of these two amphipods 84 along the Pacific North American coast with the aim of assessing the accuracy of morphological 85 identifications and determining whether or not cryptic diversity and/or multiple introductions 86 contribute to the current distribution of these taxa in the region. Using the standard DNA 87 barcoding locus (COI), we examined whether phylogenetic reconstructions based on this locus 88 could reliably distinguish A. valida and J. marmorata from native Pacific Ampithoe and Jassa 89 species, respectively. We also examined the geographic distribution of genetic variation in each 90 species across its introduced range and compared this to genetic diversity observed in putative 91 native populations in the northwestern Atlantic. These approaches together provide strong 92 evidence for the utility of molecular genetic data in clarifying species level identifications and 93 recognizing cryptic diversity within populations of invasive marine amphipods.

94 **METHODS**

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96 Specimens of invasive amphipods were collected as part of grab samples in the summer 97 of 2006 from localities along the Pacific coast of North America (Table 2) as well as two sites 98 from the Atlantic coast (the putative native range of A. valida and J. marmorata), and were

99 stored in 95% ethanol. Although collection efforts were targeted toward A. valida and J. 100 *marmorata*, at some sites additional specimens from congeneric species were also collected. 101 Specimens were identified by morphologists as Ampithoe lacertosa (Bate) 1858, A. valida, Jassa 102 staudei Conlan 1990, or J. marmorata, although some of these identifications were considered 103 tentative due to the difficulties associated with identifying these taxa accurately to species, 104 particularly in the case of juvenile individuals (Chapman, 2007). Identifications of Jassa species 105 are most readily accomplished, although not exclusively, using major males (Conlan, 1990; 106 Chapman, 2007), which are larger males that have species-specific modifications of their 107 secondary gnathopods for male-male competitions (Fig. 1), as opposed to identifying juveniles, 108 females, or minor ("sneaker") males.

109 Prior to DNA extraction, tissue samples of large individuals or the entire specimen of 110 small juveniles were vacuum-dried. All extractions were performed with the QIAgen DNeasy 111 Tissue Kit following the manufacturer's protocol. PCR amplification of the COI locus took place 112 in 20 µL volume reactions with the following conditions: 3mM MgCl₂, 200 pM dNTPs, 1 unit of 113 Taq polymerase, 1 mM for each primer, standard PCR buffer, and approximately 20 ng of 114 template DNA. Initial amplification of COI used the standard DNA barcoding Folmer primers 115 LCO 1490F and HCO 2198R (Folmer et al., 1994). Some samples did not amplify well with the 116 standard primers, and Ampithoe- and Jassa-specific primers were designed for PCR and DNA 117 sequencing (Table 3). The PCR amplification program included an initial step of 94°C for 150 118 sec, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, 46°C for 60 sec, and 72°C for 60 sec, with a final 119 step of 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were cleaned with the QIAquick PCR kit on a BioRobot 120 3000 from QIAgen. Sequencing reactions were done with the ABI Big Dye Terminator Cycle 121 Sequencing Ready Reaction Kit 3.1. The sequenced products were purified with DyeEx 96 Kit

122 from QIAgen, dried and re-eluted with formamide, and run on an ABI Prism 3730xl DNA

123 Analyzer. All COI sequences were deposited into GenBank (see Table 2 for accession numbers).

We used Sequencher 4.6-4.8 (Gene Codes, Ann Arbor, MI) to combine forward and reverse reads into contiguous sequences and then to align the different haplotypes. Genetic distances and neighbour-joining cluster analysis (both Kimura 2-parameter—standard for DNA barcode data sets) of the data set were generated using MEGA 4.0 (Kumar *et al.*, 2004). The data set also was analyzed with Arlequin 3.11 (Excoffier *et al.*, 2005) to produce measures of haplotype and nucleotide diversity. Effective haplotype number (*k*) was calculated as:

 $k = 1 / \sum p_i^2 ,$

where p_i is the frequency of the *i*th haplotype. As outgroups were necessary for some analyses, 131 132 an Ischyrocerus COI sequence (accession number DQ889106) was chosen as an outgroup for the 133 Jassa samples (both Ischyrocerus and Jassa are members of Ischyroceridae), and Ampithoe 134 longimana (Smith 1873) and A. lacertosa COI sequences were used as outgroups for the A. 135 valida samples. Maximum parsimony analysis was run using Winclada 0.9 (Nixon, 1999) and 136 Nona 0.99 (Goloboff, 1999) with the following commands: rs 0; hold 1000; hold/100; 137 mult*30; max;. Bootstrap support (BSS) based on 1000 pseudoreplicates was generated for the data set using Nona. Models of evolution for each data set (Ampithoe: GTR + G; Jassa: GTR + I) 138 139 were determined with jModeltest 0.1 (Guindon and Gascuel, 2003, Posada, in press). Bayesian 140 analyses of each data set were performed with MrBayes 3.1 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003) 141 using the models from jModeltest with two runs of four chains each for three million generations 142 (runs converged with average standard deviation of the split frequencies below 0.01) sampled 143 every 100 generations and burn-in periods of 50,000 generations.

144 **RESULTS**

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5 Jassa spp. populations

146 For Jassa species, we generated COI sequences for 183 individuals from five sites on the 147 Pacific coast of North America along with 35 individuals from two sites on the Atlantic coast. 148 The Jassa sequences were 606-658 bp in length for most specimens, dependent upon which PCR 149 primer pair was used. Including samples from both coasts, there were 24 different COI 150 haplotypes (Table 4), which grouped into four distinct, well-supported clades (BSS = 100%, 151 posterior probability = 1.00) in neighbour-joining, maximum parsimony, and Bayesian analyses 152 (Fig. 2). The largest group (N = 143) of Pacific coast samples included most of the specimens 153 identified by morphology as J. marmorata, although 12 individuals from Coos Bay that were 154 part of this clade had been tentatively identified as J. staudei. The next largest group (N = 25) 155 comprised all individuals from Puget Sound that had been identified as J. staudei. The smallest 156 group (N = 15) included individuals from Tomales Bay and Moss Landing that had been initially 157 identified as J. marmorata. These specimens were grouped in their own clade distinct from J. 158 marmorata, and subsequent re-identification of adult major males (Fig. 1) from these sites found 159 these individuals to be Jassa slatteryi Conlan 1990. For the two Atlantic coast sites of putative 160 native J. marmorata samples, the specimens (N = 17) from Millstone Point, CT did group within 161 the J. marmorata clade, but the Charleston Harbor, SC specimens (N = 18) formed their own 162 clade distinct from the other three Jassa species.

Although 24 COI haplotypes were found among all *Jassa* specimens, only six different
haplotypes were found in the 143 individuals confirmed by phylogenetic inference as *J. marmorata*. One of these haplotypes dominated *J. marmorata* populations at all five Pacific
coast localities (Fig. 3), occurring in 81.8% of all individuals and ranging in frequency from
69.2-100% in these populations. A single haplotype was also found shared among all 17

specimens of *J. marmorata* from the Atlantic coast. Genetic distances between *J. marmorata* COI haplotypes were small and ranged from 0.2-0.6% (Table 5). The low number of haplotypes in the Pacific coast populations of *J. marmorata* was reflected in low mitochondrial diversity indices for these populations (see Table 4). No single Pacific coast population of *J. marmorata* contained more than three COI haplotypes, and effective haplotype number ranged only from 1.00 to 1.89 (mean = 1.08) (Table 4).

174 Though the two other Pacific coast Jassa species were collected in much lower numbers 175 than J. marmorata, they possessed as many or more different COI haplotypes as the J. 176 marmorata samples. The lone population of J. staudei (Puget Sound) exhibited eight COI 177 haplotypes, corresponding to an effective haplotype number of 4.56 (Table 4). We found six 178 different COI haplotypes in the two J. slatteryi populations. These populations shared a 179 dominant haplotype (Tomales Bay frequency = 45.5%; Moss Landing frequency = 75%) (Fig. 180 3), and the remaining five haplotypes were unique to their collection sites. Diversity measures 181 for both J. staudei and J. slattervi were higher than those observed for J. marmorata (Table 4). 182 Intraspecific genetic distances ranged from 0.2 to 1.6% in J. staudei and 0.2 to 1.1% in J. 183 *slatteryi* (Table 5). When compared across known *Jassa* species, genetic distances were much 184 larger than intraspecific variation, ranging from 14.6% to 16.0% (Table 5). The Charleston 185 Harbor, SC Jassa differed from J. marmorata (including both invasive and putative native 186 specimens) by at least 14.0%, suggesting that although these specimens were originally 187 identified as J. marmorata, they represent a distinct species.

188 A. valida populations

For *A. valida* species, we generated COI sequences for 314 individuals from eight sites
on the Pacific coast of North America along with 25 individuals from two sites on the Atlantic

| 191 | coast. These COI sequences were 610-658 bp in length for most specimens, dependent upon |
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| 192 | which PCR primer pair was used. We found 25 COI haplotypes among the A. valida populations |
| 193 | from the Pacific North American coast, and these haplotypes formed three separate, well- |
| 194 | supported clades in neighbour-joining, maximum parsimony, and Bayesian analyses (Fig. 4). |
| 195 | The first group (hereafter Clade A) consisted of 37 specimens, most of which ($N = 32$) were |
| 196 | collected in Humboldt Bay. The second group (Clade B) consisted of 63 specimens that were all |
| 197 | collected only in San Francisco Bay. The last group (Clade C) contained 213 individuals |
| 198 | collected from all Pacific coast sites except for San Francisco Bay (Fig. 5). The two "native" |
| 199 | (Atlantic coast) sites of A. valida ($N = 25$) contained haplotypes that grouped with Clade A. |
| 200 | Haplotype numbers, frequencies, and diversities varied between the three clades of A. |
| 201 | valida. Clade A had one dominant shared haplotype that occurred in all but one individual in |
| 202 | Humboldt Bay (frequency 96.9%) and was the sole Clade A haplotype present outside of that |
| 203 | Bay (4 individuals in San Francisco Bay and one individual in Willapa Bay). This same |
| 204 | dominant haplotype also occurred in all the "native" A. valida in Millstone Point, CT and six of |
| 205 | seven individuals in Charleston Harbor, SC. Clade B, found only in San Francisco Bay, had one |
| 206 | dominant haplotype (frequency of 90.5%) with the other six haplotypes occurring in only one |
| 207 | specimen each. Clade C was the most widespread, including a dominant haplotype found at all |
| 208 | seven Pacific coast sites with an overall frequency of 93.4% that ranged from 85.7 to 100% in |
| 209 | these populations. Clade C also had 14 other COI haplotypes, but these occurred in only 1-2 |
| 210 | specimens and were not shared among different sites. Diversity values ranged widely across |
| 211 | sites, with the highest values of H_e and k occurring at sites harbouring Clade C (Table 4). |
| 212 | Genetic distances observed within A. valida clades were much smaller (0.2-0.4%) than |
| 213 | the inter-clade distances (at least 4.1%), although the latter were still smaller than those found |

when comparing A. valida clades to the outgroups A. lacertosa (at least 18.0%) and A.

215 *longimana* (at least 21.5%) (Table 6).

216 **DISCUSSION**

217 Species level Distinctions and Morphological Mis-identification in Jassa

218 Our results show that the COI DNA barcode locus is useful for identification of Ampithoe 219 and Jassa specimens of the Pacific North American coast to species level or below. For Jassa, 220 the COI sequence data provide the first molecular corroboration of Conlan's (1990) revision of 221 the genus. Prior to this revision, the taxonomy of the genus had been in flux, with one author 222 actually synonymizing all *Jassa* of the world into a single species (Reid, 1951). The large genetic 223 distances (>10%; Table 5) between J. marmorata, J. slatteryi, and J. staudei strongly support 224 these taxa as separate species, and suggest morphological characters such as the shape of the 225 second gnathopod in adult Jassa (Conlan, 1990) indeed are useful for delineating and identifying 226 individuals to species. Rough divergence estimates based on a widely adopted molecular clock 227 for crustacean COI sequences (1.4% per million years (Knowlton & Weigt, 1998) with a 228 generation of time of ~1 year for Jassa) place the split between J. marmorata and J. slattervi at 229 least ~ 10 MYA and the split between J. marmorata + J. slatteryi and J. staudei at least ~ 11 230 MYA.

The mis-identification of some *Jassa* samples in this study, however, illustrates the difficulties associated with species level identification in the genus. The most prominent characters for species identification are found in adult major males due to enhancement of the second gnathopod for male-male competition (Borowsky, 1985; Conlan, 1990). *Jassa* species, however, lack a 1:1 sex ratio because of the male castes (Nair & Anger, 1980), and major males are rarely collected, making identification of *Jassa* populations problematic. For instance, in one year-long study, less than 2% of collected individuals of *J. falcata* were major males, with nearly
80% of the samples being juveniles (Scinto *et al.*, 2007). Male *Jassa* do not exhibit major status
until after their final moult (Kurdziel & Knowles, 2002), and although juveniles, minor males,
and females of *Jassa* can be identified to species (Conlan, 1990), such identifications require
considerable morphological and taxonomic skill relative to the ease of designating major males
to species (see Fig. 1). The molecular results of this study, however, show the COI locus to be
very useful for identifying *Jassa* specimens of any age or sex to species.

244 These challenges explain the high frequency of misidentification exhibited in the current 245 study. Our molecular genetic approach was able to correct three different errors in morphological 246 identification. First, 12 out of 143 J. marmorata specimens (8.4%) were incorrectly identified as 247 the presumed native J. staudei, although these identifications were listed as "tentative." Second, 248 15 individuals identified morphologically as J. marmorata were definitively identified by genetic 249 criteria as J. slatteryi. This case is particularly interesting, because subsequent re-evaluation of 250 diagnostic morphological criteria revealed that these specimens did indeed possess 251 morphological features consistent with J. slatteryi. Finally, all 18 individuals collected from 252 Charleston Harbor, South Carolina, were incorrectly identified as J. marmorata. Genetic criteria 253 clearly indicate that these specimens are members of a distinct *Jassa* lineage. Furthermore, given 254 that divergence at the COI locus between this lineage and other Jassa lineages is comparable to 255 divergence between lineages recognized as independent species, we believe that it may represent 256 an additional, as yet unidentified, species of Jassa. Consistent with the hypothesis of independent 257 species status for this lineage, we refer to it here as Jassa sp.

These findings offer important insights regarding the shortcomings of invasive species detection based on traditional morphological identifications. At least three of the *Jassa* species

260 involved in the current study (J. marmorata, J. staudei, and J. slatteryi) are well defined by 261 diagnostic morphological criteria, and thus technically not "cryptic" species (Conlan, 1990). 262 However, difficulties associated with identification of life stages other than major males may 263 render these species "effectively cryptic" for the generalist taxonomists typically tasked with 264 field identification of non-native taxa. This phenomenon has been observed previously for other 265 invasive marine taxa. For instance, an introduced population of the convex slippershell limpet 266 Crepidula convexa in Humboldt Bay was recently mistaken for its (also introduced) sibling 267 species C. fornicata despite existing diagnostic morphological criteria; molecular genetic 268 analysis subsequently corrected the mis-identification (McGlashan et al., 2008). Similarly, the 269 presence of the Mediterranean green crab Carcinus aestuarii in South Africa was mistaken for 270 the already recognized invasive European green crab C. maenas (Geller et al., 1997), although 271 morphological characteristics are known to clearly differentiate the two species (Yamada & 272 Houk 2000).

273 These examples and the current study all suggest that targeted collections aimed at any 274 particular invasive taxon may bias identifications toward that target when diagnostic 275 morphological criteria are subtle or absent. In the case of Jassa, most errors in identification 276 were errors of commission and the only errors of omission were accurately tagged as "tentative" 277 identifications. In fact, several errors were committed despite the presence of morphological 278 characteristics enabling correct identification on further inspection. Similarly, the presence of 279 both Crepidula convexa and Carcinus aestuarii may have been overlooked because the sibling 280 species Crepidula fornicata and Carcinus maenas were already known to be present and thus 281 expected to appear in faunal surveys. DNA-based clarification of mistaken identifications, both 282 here and in other studies, indicates that molecular genetic data can aid substantially in

283 overcoming these potential biases. Further, the problems associated with distinguishing between 284 closely related taxa in practice may derive in part from the necessity in rapid faunal surveys of 285 relying on single (or few) diagnostic characters rather than systematic statistical analysis of 286 morphological variation. Although the latter is standard for species definition and description, it 287 may be rendered difficult or impossible in situations of species identification, where resources 288 often must be spread broadly over numerous taxa and numerous sampling sites. Fortunately, by 289 helping to recognize difficulties associated with species identification, molecular data can 290 provide the impetus for future refinement of protocols adopted for morphological identification. 291 In at least one recent case species identifications based in part on molecular genetic data have led 292 researchers to question the validity of previously accepted diagnostic morphological characters 293 (Grigorovich et al., 2008).

294 Cryptic Diversity and Multiple Introductions in Ampithoe

295 Reports of previously undescribed diversity within invasive populations, particularly in 296 marine systems, is becoming a common feature of the invasion biology literature (reviewed in 297 Geller *et al.*, 2010). The observed genetic variation among invasive A. *valida* populations clearly 298 indicates the presence of three distinct well-supported evolutionary lineages that have been 299 diverging for some time. Applying the same molecular clock as above, the three clades diverged 300 ~3 MYA. Given the substantial genetic distances between clades and the fact that these distances 301 are greater than ten times those observed within clades, the divergence between A. valida 302 lineages in fact may be sufficient to warrant their consideration as separate species, especially if 303 applying either the phylogenetic species concept (Eldredge & Cracraft, 1980) or the genetic 304 species concept (Baker and Bradley, 2006). This hypothesis is further supported by the 305 observation that A. valida inter-clade distances fall into the range (greater than 4.4%) applied to

306 cryptic species within the amphipod genus Hyallela (Witt et al., 2006). Unfortunately, the 307 discovery of cryptic diversity during the study of invasive populations frequently leaves 308 unresolved issues regarding the taxonomic status of newly described evolutionary lineages 309 (Meusnier et al., 2002; Zardus & Hadfield, 2005, Folino-Rorem et al., 2009). While the 310 designation of new species is clearly beyond the scope of this work, we feel that the three A. 311 *valida* lineages described here bear further investigation by integrated genetic and morphological 312 taxonomic approaches such as the addition of data from nuclear DNA markers coupled with 313 morphometric analyses to determine if they are indeed separate species and which, if any, of the 314 three clades ought to be considered A. valida.

315 Observations of cryptic invasive lineages not only draw attention to shortcomings in our 316 understanding of the taxonomy and biogeography of numerous marine taxa, they also serve to 317 clarify the invasion histories of recipient ecosystems. Our results indicate that genetic methods 318 are crucial for assessing the full extent to which Pacific North American coastal waters have 319 been invaded by introduced Ampithoe lineages. Unlike Jassa species, there exist no known 320 morphological criteria by which the observed lineages of A. valida clades can be accurately 321 identified. Unless integrated taxonomic approaches can determine diagnostic morphological 322 criteria corresponding to the observed genetic divergence between lineages, managers tasked 323 with monitoring the spread of these invaders will require genetic methods to accurately 324 determine changes in their future distribution. The observed evolutionary divergences also 325 recommend additional studies to assess whether or not relevant ecological differences exist 326 which might help explain the widely different distributions of these lineages on the Pacific coast 327 of North America. Previous descriptions of cryptic diversity within invasive populations have 328 been accompanied by observations of apparent evolutionary divergence in ecological traits

329 (Meusnier et al., 2002; Kelly et al., 2006; Folino-Rorem et al., 2009). Such differences could 330 have dramatic implications for management strategies targeting different invasive lineages. 331 The presence of three distinct evolutionary lineages of A. valida in the northeast Pacific 332 and the non-uniform distribution of these lineages among sampling sites (Figure 5) also suggests 333 the likelihood of multiple introductions to the region. Our genetic results are clearly not 334 consistent with the hypothesis of a single introduction to San Francisco Bay followed by 335 expansion along the Pacific coast. A. valida was first recorded in the northeast Pacific from the 336 San Francisco Bay region in the early 1940's, long before populations were observed in Oregon 337 and Washington, suggesting a scenario of initial introduction to San Francisco Bay followed by 338 subsequent secondary spread to northern sites. However, the clear dominance of Clade C 339 throughout northern sites, along with its virtual absence from southern sites at Humboldt Bay 340 and San Francisco Bay (dominated instead by Clades A and B respectively), presents two 341 plausible alternative hypotheses for the invasion history of A. valida in the region. It is possible 342 that Clade C was introduced initially to the San Francisco area, whence it spread throughout the 343 region eventually reaching as far north as the Strait of Georgia. More recently, cryptic Clades A 344 and B have been introduced to California and have displaced Clade C in San Francisco and 345 Humboldt Bays. Alternatively, Clade B represents the initial introduction to San Francisco Bay, 346 but has failed to spread to northern sites. The apparent expansion of A. valida to the north has 347 occurred via cryptic secondary introduction of Clades B and C, the latter of which has spread 348 dramatically among northern sites.

Given limits to our sampling, the absence of a particular clade from a sampling site
cannot be taken as strong evidence for the general absence of that clade from a particular locale.
There is the possibility, for instance, that Clade B exists in San Francisco Bay but that the three

352 A. valida clades have largely non-overlapping spatial distributions in the Bay. More thorough 353 sampling would test the robustness of the observed disjunct distribution patterns. Nonetheless, 354 the likelihood of multiple introductions to the region is supported not only by these patterns, but 355 by the presence of well differentiated monophyletic clades among invasive populations. A. valida 356 thus joins the ranks of the numerous coastal marine taxa for which genetic evidence implicates 357 multiple introductions in the establishment of invasive populations (Geller et al., 2010), 358 providing further illustration of the importance of genetic data in fully accounting for the 359 frequency with which recipient environments suffer incursions of non-native taxa. Recognition 360 of multiple introductions can have serious implications for the management of invasive 361 populations, as a growing body of evidence suggests that admixture of previously allopatric 362 lineages can lead to increases in heritable quantitative genetic variation and the emergence of 363 novel genotypes (Dlugosch & Parker, 2008), in some cases facilitating rapid adaptive evolution 364 of introduced populations (Kolbe et al., 2007; Facon et al., 2008; Lavergne & Molofsky, 2007)

365 Historical Biogeography

366 Given the unsettled state of taxonomy for the genus Jassa prior to Conlan's revision and 367 the difficulty associated with morphological identification to species level, the fact that questions 368 remain regarding the historical biogeography of many Jassa species is perhaps not surprising. 369 Both J. marmorata and J. slatteryi are known invasive species with broad disjunct distributions 370 and established populations throughout the world, mainly at sites harbouring major commercial 371 ports (Table 1). However, the native ranges of these two species are not well characterized 372 (Chapman, 2007). Populations of J. slatteryi on the Pacific North American coast have been 373 considered either introduced or cryptogenic (Boyd et al., 2002), whereas J. staudei is considered 374 native to the region and J. marmorata invasive (Chapman, 2007). Our analysis indicates that the

| 375 | genetic diversity present in Pacific J. slatteryi populations is similar to that observed in J. |
|-----|---|
| 376 | staudei, and both species exhibit diversity measures dramatically higher than J. marmorata |
| 377 | (Table 4). Despite intensive sampling of J. marmorata, the observed number of haplotypes |
| 378 | $(N_h=6, N=143)$ remained equal to or lower than that observed in small samples of <i>J. staudei</i> |
| 379 | $(N_h=8, N=25)$ and J. slatteryi ($N_h=6, N=15$). Because introduction events transfer only a small |
| 380 | subset of native genetic diversity, invasive populations frequently exhibit lower diversity than |
| 381 | native sources (Dlugosch & Parker, 2008). The low genetic diversity found in Pacific J. |
| 382 | marmorata is thus consistent with this expected founder effect. The number of haplotypes, |
| 383 | haplotype diversity, and intraspecific genetic distances for the J. slatteryi populations, however, |
| 384 | are similar to those found for the presumed native J. staudei population, suggesting the |
| 385 | possibility that the Pacific coast of North America could represent the native range of J. slatteryi |
| 386 | However, the relationship between genetic diversity and native or introduced status is suggestive |
| 387 | at best (Roman & Darling 2007; Geller et al., 2010), and the limited sampling for both J. staudei |
| 388 | and J. slatteryi in the current study preclude high confidence in this hypothesis pending further |
| 389 | study. |

390 Atlantic coast samples of J. marmorata were included in the current study as putative 391 potential sources because the Pacific coast populations have been classified as native transfers 392 from the Atlantic (Cohen, 2004). Interestingly, we observed no genetic diversity at all in the 393 single Atlantic J. marmorata population from Millstone Point, CT, and the presumed native J. 394 marmorata population from Charleston Harbor, SC was clearly shown by DNA sequence 395 analysis to derive from a separate Jassa lineage, possibly representing a currently unidentified 396 independent species. Unfortunately, the limited sample size of these Atlantic Jassa is insufficient 397 to draw detailed conclusions regarding biogeographic patterns in the putative native range of J.

marmorata, although clearly multiple *Jassa* lineages currently inhabit this range. Whether the
 putative unidentified species from Charleston Harbor represents a second native or a recent
 introduction to the northwest Atlantic will clearly require more extensive sampling.

401 *Ampithoe valida* is similarly thought to be a native of Atlantic North America (Chapman, 402 2007). Specimens of A. valida from both Connecticut and South Carolina belong to Clade A and 403 share the dominant Clade A haplotype observed on the Pacific coast, suggesting that this clade 404 may indeed have a western Atlantic origin. As is the case of J. marmorata, Atlantic samples of 405 A. valida also show surprisingly low diversity for presumably native taxa, although sampling 406 was again limited in this range. The presence of the same dominant haplotype in both 407 Connecticut and South Carolina is also interesting. While this may reflect the absence of strong 408 native biogeographic structure in this species, anthropogenic mixing of different populations 409 along the Atlantic coast also could have homogenized genetic variation across the range, both 410 eliminating signatures of past structure and further complicating any work aimed at determining 411 which localities in the native range gave rise to the invasive populations along the Pacific coast. 412 The apparent widespread distribution of Clade A in the western Atlantic along with the absence 413 of Clades B and C from samples in that range leaves the native origins of those clades 414 unresolved. More extensive sampling in the western Atlantic may uncover native sources for 415 these clades; alternatively, observed divergence between clades is sufficient to support the 416 hypothesis that Clades A, B, and C represent multiple Ampithoe species with distinct and 417 currently unknown biogeographic distributions.

418 CONCLUSION

The results of this study illustrate the value of molecular genetic approaches for 1)
clarifying species level identifications in introduced taxa unresolved by available morphological

421 criteria; 2) recognizing multiple introductions of evolutionarily divergent but morphologically 422 cryptic invasive lineages; and 3) highlighting uncertainties regarding the historical biogeography 423 of benthic marine invertebrates with histories of anthropogenic range expansions. Unfortunately, 424 the amphipod taxa studied herein are representative of many widespread invasive marine 425 invertebrates poorly understood in terms of their taxonomy, native biogeography, and invasion 426 histories (Carlton, 2009). However, our analyses demonstrate that the DNA barcode region of 427 COI is useful for differentiating amphipod lineages, and numerous other studies suggest that it 428 may be similarly useful for many other marine invertebrates (Geller et al., 2010). Morphological 429 study alone is unlikely to untangle how human activity has radically altered the distributions of 430 invasive benthic species such as A. valida, J. marmorata and others like them. Molecular genetic 431 data can thus play a critically important role in overcoming existing impediments to 432 understanding the taxonomy and native biogeography of these taxa. 433 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

434 We would like to thank all the individuals that provided sample material for this project: John

435 Chapman, Rusty Fairy, Dean Janiak, and David Knott. We also thank three anonymous

436 reviewers for providing helpful suggestions on an earlier version of the manuscript.

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| 587 | |
| 588 | Author contributions: Both authors conceived the study; E.P. collected the data; both authors |
| 589 | analyzed the data; both authors wrote the paper. |

| | Ampithoe valida | Jassa marmorata | Jassa slatteryi |
|------------|--------------------------------|--|--|
| "Native" | Atlantic North America | Atlantic North America and Gulf of | Cryptogenic, possibly from Pacific North |
| Range | | Mexico | America |
| Introduced | Argentina | Pacific North America (Alaska to | Mexico (Sea of Cortez) |
| Range | Japan | California) | Ireland |
| C | Pacific North America (British | Mexico (Sea of Cortez) | France (Mediterranean & Atlantic) |
| | Columbia to California) | Ireland | Croatia |
| | | England | Japan |
| | | France (Mediterranean & Atlantic) | South Korea |
| | | Germany | Galapagos Islands |
| | | Sweden | Chile |
| | | Denmark | Brazil |
| | | Spain (Mediterranean & Atlantic) | South Africa |
| | | Italy | Australia (New South Wales & Tasmania) |
| | | Yugoslavia | New Zealand |
| | | China (Zhangiao Bay) | |
| | | Japan | |
| | | Russia (Sea of Japan) | |
| | | Chile | |
| | | Brazil | |
| | | Argentina | |
| | | Uruguay | |
| | | Gambia | |
| | | South Africa | |
| | | Senegal | |
| | | Australia (New South Wales & Tasmania) | |
| | | New Zealand | |

Table 1. Current* putative distributions of invasive *Ampithoe* and *Jassa*.

⁵⁹¹ *These distributions are based on past publications and therefore likely underestimate the number of introduced populations.

| Species | Locality | Latitude/Longitude | Ν | Accession Numbers |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|----|-------------------|
| Ampithoe lacertosa Bate | Willapa Bay, OR, USA | 46.54°N 123.99°W | 3 | GU048166-GU048168 |
| | Puget Sound, WA, USA | 47.94°N 122.53°W | 2 | GU048164-GU048165 |
| | Coos Bay, OR, USA | 43.41°N 124.21°W | 1 | GU048163 |
| A. longimana Smith | Millstone Point, CT | 41.30°N 72.17°W | 1 | GU048169 |
| A. valida Smith | San Francisco Bay, CA, USA | 37.72°N 122.28°W | 67 | GU048411-GU048477 |
| | Tomales Bay, CA, USA | 38.17°N 122.91°W | 31 | GU048478-GU048508 |
| | Humboldt Bay, CA, USA | 40.72°N 124.24°W | 33 | GU048378-GU048410 |
| | Coos Bay, OR, USA | 43.41°N 124.21°W | 15 | GU048179-GU048193 |
| | Yaquina Bay, OR, USA | 44.62°N 124.02°W | 9 | GU048170-GU048178 |
| | Willapa Bay, WA, USA | 46.54°N 123.99°W | 96 | GU048257-GU048352 |
| | Grays Harbor, WA, USA | 46.95°N 124.04°W | 7 | GU048250-GU048256 |
| | Puget Sound, WA, USA | 47.94°N 122.53°W | 56 | GU048194-GU048249 |
| | Charleston Harbor, SC, USA | 32.75°N 79.90°W | 7 | GU048371-GU048377 |
| | Millstone Point, CT, USA | 41.30°N 72.17°W | 18 | GU048353-GU048370 |
| Jassa marmorata Holmes | Moss Landing, CA, USA | 36.81°N 121.79°W | 66 | EU243692-EU243731 |
| | | | | GU048119-GU048144 |
| | Tomales Bay, CA, USA | 38.17°N 122.91°W | 39 | EU243732-EU243765 |
| | | | | GU048114-GU048118 |
| | Humboldt Bay, CA, USA | 40.72°N 124.24°W | 6 | EU243686-EU243691 |
| | Coos Bay, OR, USA | 43.41°N 124.21°W | 31 | EU243666-EU243670 |
| | | | | EU243671-EU243685 |
| | | | | EU243766-EU243777 |
| | Puget Sound, WA, USA | 47.94°N 122.53°W | 1 | EU243671 |
| | Millstone Point, CT, USA | 41.30°N 72.17°W | 17 | GU048097-GU048113 |
| J. slatteryi Conlan | Moss Landing, CA, USA | 36.81°N 121.79°W | 4 | EU243814-EU243815 |
| | | | | GU048095-GU048096 |
| | Humboldt Bay, CA, USA | 40.72°N 124.24°W | 11 | EU243803-EU243812 |
| J. staudei Conlan | Puget Sound, WA, USA | 47.94°N 122.53°W | 25 | EU243778-EU243802 |
| Jassa spp. | Charleston Harbor, SC, USA | 32.75°N 79.90°W | 18 | GU048145-GU048162 |

Table 2. Sample collection data.

NameSequenceAmpval COIF5'-GAC TTT ATA TTT TAT TTT AGG TGG-3'Ampval COIR5'-AAA TAA RTG TTG RTA TAA AAT AGG-3'Jasmar COIF5'-CTT TAT ATT TTA TTT TAG GTA TTT GG-3'Jasmar COIR5'-AAA TAA ATG TTG GTA TAA GAT AGG-3'

Table 3. Oligoncleotide primers developed for PCR and DNA sequencing in this study.

| | | | | | Haplotype | Shannon | | Nucleotide |
|------|-----------------------|----------------------|----|-------|-----------|-----------|------|------------|
| | Site | Clade/Species | Ν | N_h | Diversity | Diversity | k | Diversity |
| | Moss Landing | J. marmorata | 66 | 2 | 0.3021 | 0.4741 | 1.42 | 0.0009 |
| | | J. slatteryi | 4 | 2 | 0.5000 | 0.5623 | 1.60 | 0.0053 |
| p. | Tomales Bay | J. marmorata | 39 | 3 | 0.4845 | 0.8262 | 1.89 | 0.0018 |
| sp | | J. slatteryi | 11 | 5 | 0.7636 | 1.3667 | 3.27 | 0.0238 |
| ssa | Humboldt Bay | J. marmorata | 6 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| Ja | Coos Bay | J. marmorata | 31 | 3 | 0.1269 | 0.2839 | 1.14 | 0.0002 |
| | Puget Sound | J. marmorata | 1 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| | | J. staudei | 25 | 8 | 0.8133 | 1.7551 | 4.56 | 0.0105 |
| | Charleston Harbor, SC | <i>Jassa</i> sp. | 18 | 3 | 0.3922 | 0.6837 | 1.59 | 0.0022 |
| | Millstone Point, CT | J. marmorata | 17 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| | San Francisco Bay | Clade A | 4 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| | | Clade B | 63 | 7 | 0.1828 | 0.4851 | 1.22 | 0.0003 |
| | | total | 67 | 8 | 0.2754 | 0.6823 | 1.37 | 0.0053 |
| | Tomales Bay | Clade C | 31 | 4 | 0.1871 | 0.4243 | 1.22 | 0.0050 |
| | Humboldt Bay | Clade A | 32 | 2 | 0.0625 | 0.1391 | 1.06 | 0.0085 |
| sdı | | Clade C | 1 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| IJ | | total | 33 | 3 | 0.1193 | 0.2706 | 1.13 | 0.0110 |
| 50 | Coos Bay | Clade C | 15 | 2 | 0.1333 | 0.2449 | 1.14 | 0.0099 |
| lide | Yaquina Bay | Clade C | 9 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| ba | Willapa Bay | Clade A | 1 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |
| A. | | Clade C | 95 | 6 | 0.1227 | 0.3341 | 1.14 | 0.0052 |
| | | total | 96 | 7 | 0.1410 | 0.3886 | 1.16 | 0.0061 |
| | Grays Harbor | Clade C | 7 | 2 | 0.2857 | 0.4101 | 1.32 | 0.0004 |
| | Puget Sound | Clade C | 56 | 4 | 0.1052 | 0.1814 | 1.15 | 0.0002 |
| | Charleston Harbor, SC | Clade C | 7 | 2 | 0.2857 | 0.4101 | 1.32 | 0.0004 |
| | Millstone Point, CT | Clade C | 18 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.00 | 0.0000 |

Table 4. Summary population genetic statistics by species and site. Number of individuals (N), number of
haplotypes (N_h), effective number of haplotypes (k).

Table 5. COI genetic distances for *Jassa*. Ranges for intraspecific distance are shown on the diagonal; interspecific distances are shown above the diagonal.

| | Jassa sp. | J. marmorata | J. slatteryi | J. staudei |
|------------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|------------|
| <i>Jassa</i> sp. | 0.2-1.1% | 14.0-15.2% | 15.8-17.4% | 17.6-18.8% |
| J. marmorata | | 0.2-0.6% | 14.6-16.1% | 15.9-17.2% |
| J. slatteryi | | | 0.2-1.1% | 16.0-17.8% |
| J. staudei | | | | 0.2-1.6% |

Table 6. COI genetic distances for *Ampithoe*. Ranges for intra-clade distance are shown on the diagonal; inter-clade distances are shown above the diagonal. Only a single haplotype was considered for *A. longimana*.

| | | A. valida | | | |
|--------------|----------|-----------|----------|--------------|--------------|
| | Clade A | Clade B | Clade C | A. lacertosa | A. longimana |
| Clade A | 0.2-0.4% | 4.6-4.9% | 4.4-5.5% | 19.6-20.4% | 23.1-23.4% |
| Clade B | | 0.2-0.3% | 4.1-4.8% | 18.0-18.7% | 22.6-22.9% |
| Clade C | | | 0.2-0.3% | 18.4-19.7% | 21.5-21.9% |
| A. lacertosa | | | | 0.2-0.8% | 21.6-22.1% |
| A. longimana | | | | | n/a |

Figure Captions.

Figure 1. Qualitative comparison of secondary gnathopods of major males and juveniles of *Jassa*, illustrating differences in these diagnostic morphological characteristics between life stages. These gnathopods are used in male-male competitions for mating dominance and have species-specific morphologies based on the size, shape, and angle of the "thumb" (marked with arrows in A) major male *J. marmorata*, and B) major male *J. slatteryi*). In juveniles, the morphological distinction between species (C) juvenile *J. marmorata*; D) juvenile *J. slatteryi*; E) juvenile *J. staudei*) is less apparent as the "thumb" does not appear until the final moult .

Figure 2. Bayesian phylogram based on *Jassa* species COI haplotypes. Numbers before each node represent 1000 bootstrap support pseudoreplicates for neighbour-joining and maximum parsimony analyses, and posterior probabilities from Bayesian analysis, respectively. The node marked with a small asterisk was collapsed in the most parsimonious strict consensus tree. The haplotypes marked with large asterisks were found only in *Jassa* specimens collected along the Atlantic coast of North America.

Figure 3. Haplotype distribution in *Jassa* species along the Pacific Coast of North America (A) and the Atlantic Coast (B). Blue, *J. marmorata*; green, *J. slatteryi*; red; *J. staudei*; orange, unidentified *Jassa sp.* The dark blue portions of the *J. marmorata* populations represent the frequencies of the dominant shared haplotype. The light blue segments represent less frequent haplotypes that were part of the *J. marmorata* clade, and the medium blue marks the haplotype found only on the Atlantic Coast. The dark green segments of the *J. slatteryi* populations represent the frequencies of the dominant shared haplotype. The light ergreen portions are private haplotypes at those localities.

Figure 4. Bayesian phylogram based on *Ampithoe* species COI haplotypes. Numbers before each node represent 1000 bootstrap support pseudoreplicates for neighbour-joining and maximum parsimony analyses, and posterior probabilities from Bayesian analysis, respectively. The haplotype marked with the asterisk is the dominant Clade A haplotype that was found in samples from both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of North America. The haplotype marked with the cross was only found on the Pacific coast while the haplotype marked with the double cross was found only on the Atlantic coast.

Figure 5. Haplotype distribution in *Ampithoe* lineages along the Pacific Coast of North America (A) and the Atlantic Coast (B). Orange, Clade A; green, Clade B; blue, Clade C. The darker orange portions represent the frequencies of the dominant shared haplotype for Clade A. The lighter orange segments are private haplotypes to those localities. The green portions represent the haplotypes of Clade B. The dark blue portions represent the frequencies of the dominant shared haplotypes at those localities.





Figure 2.







