



32 **Abstract**

33           The depth-differentiation hypothesis proposes that the bathyal region is a source  
34 of genetic diversity and an area where there is a high rate of species formation. Genetic  
35 differentiation should thus occur over relatively small vertical distances, particularly  
36 along the upper continental slope (200-1000 m) where oceanography varies greatly over  
37 small differences in depth. To test whether genetic differentiation within deepwater  
38 octocorals is greater over vertical rather than geographic distances, *Callogorgia delta* was  
39 targeted. This species commonly occurs throughout the northern Gulf of Mexico at  
40 depths ranging from 400-900 m. We found significant genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}=0.042$ )  
41 across seven sites spanning 400 km of distance and 400 m of depth. A pattern of isolation  
42 by depth emerged, but geographic distance between sites may further limit gene flow.  
43 Water mass boundaries may serve to isolate populations across depth; however, adaptive  
44 divergence with depth is also a possible scenario. Microsatellite markers also revealed  
45 significant genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}=0.434$ ) between *C. delta* and a closely-related  
46 species, *C. americana*, demonstrating the utility of microsatellites in species delimitation  
47 of octocorals. Results provided support for the depth-differentiation hypothesis,  
48 strengthening the notion that factors co-varying with depth serve as isolation mechanisms  
49 in deep-sea populations.

50

51 Key Words: deep sea, population genetics, connectivity, adaptive divergence, octocoral,  
52 Gulf of Mexico

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55 **1. Introduction**

56         The depth-differentiation hypothesis proposes that the majority of genetic  
57 differentiation and biodiversity in the deep sea is generated across the relatively narrow  
58 continental slope [1]. Not only do water mass characteristics, pressure, and food supply  
59 change rapidly with increasing depth across the continental slope, but this region can also  
60 exhibit topographic complexity (e.g., submarine canyons, bioherm formation, authigenic  
61 carbonates), experience rapid fluctuations in current patterns, be subjected to low levels  
62 of dissolved oxygen, and contain high levels of hydrocarbon seepage [2]. Strong  
63 environmental gradients with depth coupled with high habitat heterogeneity [3-4] in the  
64 bathyal region can create different selective regimes, thus potentially promoting adaptive  
65 divergence in deep-sea species.

66         Several studies have demonstrated high levels of genetic differentiation across  
67 relatively small depth ranges in the deep sea, particularly across depth horizons of 1000  
68 and 3000 m [5-9]. Population divergence over relatively narrow bathymetric gradients  
69 may be due to either historical patterns in colonization or the environmental changes  
70 (e.g., pressure, temperature, dissolved oxygen) that occur with changes in depth [6-7, 9].  
71 Few studies, however, have addressed the depth-differentiation hypothesis on species  
72 inhabiting the upper continental slope (200-1000 m), yet this region is where  
73 environmental changes occur most rapidly. Furthermore, this bathymetric zone may be a  
74 source of genetic diversity to down slope areas [1,10] leading to the formation of deeper-  
75 occurring populations and species. Thus, it could be expected that isolation by depth and  
76 increased genetic diversity would occur over relatively small vertical distances. In  
77 contrast to population differentiation with depth, numerous examples have demonstrated

78 high connectivity across expansive geographic distances (100s to 1000s km) in the deep  
79 sea [11-12].

80 Deep-sea corals (including scleractinians, antipatharians, and octocorals) occur  
81 along the continental slope in a diversity of marine habitats worldwide. These foundation  
82 species create habitat for numerous other species and are long-lived and slow-growing  
83 [13-14]. Most species reproduce sexually either by broadcast spawning or brooding [15].  
84 Brooding of larvae can occur internally within the polyps or externally on the surface of  
85 the colonies [16-17]. Deep-sea corals are susceptible to anthropogenic disturbances,  
86 including fishing, hydrocarbon extraction, and mining [18-19]. Their prevalence and  
87 importance in creating habitat on the continental slope necessitate a better understanding  
88 of the level of connectivity among populations occurring across depth and geographic  
89 boundaries.

90 Previous studies have examined population differentiation in mesophotic corals  
91 (50-200 m) on the continental shelf [20] and in deep-sea (> 200 m) corals on the  
92 continental slope [21] and seamounts [22]. These studies have indicated different degrees  
93 of population connectivity, which can be related to differences in both the reproductive  
94 biology and the specific region and depth of sampling of the coral species. Populations of  
95 the scleractinian coral *Lophelia pertusa*, a broadcast spawner, were differentiated across  
96 regions (e.g., Gulf of Mexico, southeastern US, northeastern Atlantic), while populations  
97 were panmictic in similar depth ranges within each region [21]. In comparison, *Oculina*  
98 *varicosa*, although also a broadcast spawner, exhibited pronounced population  
99 divergence across the continental shelf off Florida at a depth of 50 m [20].

100           In the northern Gulf of Mexico (GoM), at least 162 species of octocorals  
101 contribute to habitat heterogeneity across the continental slope to depths of  
102 approximately 3000 m. In particular, species within the genus *Callogorgia* (Family  
103 Primnoidae) are the most abundant octocorals inhabiting the upper continental slope in  
104 this region [23]. Strong niche segregation with depth occurs within the genus, with three  
105 *Callogorgia* spp. [*C. delta* Cairns & Bayer 2002, *C. americana* Cairns & Bayer 2002, *C.*  
106 *gracilis* (Milne Edwards & Haime 1857)] occupying distinct depth zones. Thus depth  
107 (and the co-factors that vary with depth) significantly influences the evolution and  
108 ecology of these deep-sea octocorals [23].

109           *Callogorgia delta* commonly occurs in the northern GoM at depths of 400-900 m,  
110 providing an ideal system in which to examine the depth differentiation hypothesis at a  
111 finer scale within a species inhabiting the bathyal region. If the bathyal region is a source  
112 of increased genetic differentiation in the deep sea, then it could be expected that genetic  
113 differentiation within *Callogorgia delta* exists on the upper continental slope and is  
114 greater over vertical rather than geographic distances. This study also provided the  
115 opportunity to examine the level of genetic differentiation between *Callogorgia delta* and  
116 *C. americana*; two species only recently elevated to species status [24]. Closely related  
117 octocorals can be difficult to identify visually, and inclusion of samples from several  
118 species in a population genetic dataset can lead to erroneous inferences of population  
119 connectivity [25]. We thus tested whether the here developed microsatellite markers  
120 could distinguish between *Callogorgia delta* and *C. americana*, yielding a molecular  
121 method for delimiting *Callogorgia* species.

122

123 **2. Material and Methods**

124 (a) Field methods

125 In the GoM, 116 specimens of *Callogorgia delta* and 29 specimens of *C.*  
126 *americana* were collected across nine sites at depths between 340 and 848 m using  
127 remotely operated vehicles (i.e., ROVs *Jason II*, *SeaEye Falcon*) and the human occupied  
128 vehicle (HOV) *Johnson-Sea-Link* (JSL) during five cruises from 2008-2010 (Fig. 1).  
129 Surveyed sites were named in accordance with the GoM planning areas and lease blocks  
130 (managed by the Bureau of Ocean Energy Management) in which they occur: e.g. Viosca  
131 Knoll (VK) 826 and 862/906, Mississippi Canyon (MC) 751, and 885, Green Canyon  
132 (GC) 235, 246, 249, 338, and Garden Banks (GB) 299 (Fig. 1).

133 Photographs were taken of each coral colony prior to sampling, and branches  
134 were subsampled from each colony using the ROV manipulator arm. On the research  
135 vessel, branches were divided into 2-3 cm sections and tissue subsamples were  
136 subsequently frozen at -80°C, preserved in 95% ETOH (stored at -20 °C) and placed in a  
137 high-salt EDTA preservative (stored at -80 °C). Voucher specimens of each individual  
138 colony were preserved in 95% ETOH or dried. Morphological characters and DNA  
139 barcodes were used to identify species [see 23]. A subset of representative voucher  
140 specimens were accessioned at the National Museum of Natural History of the  
141 Smithsonian Institution, Washington DC, USA (USNM1202708-1202713).

142

143 (b) Molecular methods

144 DNA was extracted using a Qiagen DNeasy kit. Genomic DNA from two  
145 individuals of *C. delta* was sequenced on a half plate on Roche-454 (Engencore,

146 Columbia SC) following [26]. Roche 454 reads (Table S1) were input into the software  
147 program QDD v2 [27], enabling microsatellite selection and subsequent primer design  
148 (see supplemental material). Thirty-nine primer pairs predicted to produce products >120  
149 bp were then tested for amplification across *Callogorgia delta* and *C. americana*  
150 collected from different sites. Of the 39 primer pairs tested, 10 amplified in both species  
151 across all sites in the GoM (Table S2). PCR products were analyzed on an ABI 3130XL  
152 Genetic Analyzer (University of Pennsylvania) with a Gene Scan 500LIZ size standard.

153

#### 154 (c) Microsatellite analyses

155       The quality and applicability of microsatellite markers were assessed using a  
156 variety of analyses. First, fragments were sized using the microsatellite plug-in for  
157 Geneious v6 (created by Biomatters, <http://www.geneious.com/>) with Gene Scan 500LIZ  
158 size standards (Applied Biosystems, Inc.). MICROCHECKER v2.2 [28] was used to  
159 check for genotyping errors across all individuals. INEst v2 [29] was used to check for  
160 null alleles while taking into account the possibility of inbreeding within a population.  
161 INEst was run using both ‘nfb’ (accounting for null alleles, inbreeding and genotyping  
162 errors) and ‘nb’ (null alleles and genotyping errors) models on the entire dataset and for  
163 each population (ngen=500,000, burnin=5,000). The Deviance Information Criterion  
164 (DIC) was used to determine which model performed better, and thus whether inbreeding  
165 was significant in the populations. Linkage Disequilibrium was tested using Fisher’s  
166 Exact Test (GENEPOP on the Web) [30] followed by a Bonferroni adjustment among all  
167 pairs of loci across all populations to determine if the loci were non-randomly associated  
168 with one another. Departures from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium and observed and

169 expected heterozygosity at each locus and among populations were tested (GenALEx v  
170 6.5) [31]. The statistical power of the microsatellite data was assessed for each species  
171 using PowSim v 4.1 [32]. Because of the low statistical power for *C. americana* (see  
172 supplemental material), this species was not used to test the depth-differentiation  
173 hypothesis.

174 We searched for duplicate genotypes among the samples (GenALEx). Duplicate  
175 multi-locus genotypes were subsequently removed from the dataset for further analyses  
176 (five total matching genotypes). Probability of identity ( $PI$  and  $PI_{sibs}$ ) was calculated to  
177 determine the probability of multilocus genotypes matching at random with increasing  
178 numbers of loci (GenALEx).

179 We also searched for outlier loci potentially under selection in *C. delta* using two  
180 programs (LOSITAN [33-34] and BAYESCAN[35]), following [36]. LOSITAN  
181 implements an  $F_{ST}$  outlier test. Simulations were run under infinite allele and stepwise  
182 mutation models for 10,000 replications. The Bayesian program BAYESCAN, based on  
183 the multinomial Dirichlet model, calculates differences in allele frequencies in each  
184 subpopulation from a common migrant gene pool. Default parameters were used and  
185 acceptance rates were between 0.25 and 0.45.

186 STRUCTURE v 2.3 [37], a Bayesian model-based clustering approach, was used  
187 to determine the number of populations (designated by  $K$ ) both within *C. delta* and  
188 between *C. delta* and *C. americana* by assigning the probability of membership of  
189 individuals iteratively to each  $K$ . For *C. delta*, model priors included location information  
190 [38], an admixture model (i.e., individuals having mixed ancestry), and correlated allele  
191 frequencies [39]. The location prior does not bias detecting structure when no actual

192 structure is present, but values of  $r \leq 1$  (Fig. S1) signify that the locations are informative  
193 to population structure [38]. 1,000,000 MCMC generations were run following a burnin  
194 of 250,000 generations. Five independent chains were run to test each value of K (K=1-8  
195 for *C. delta*). The level of genetic admixture between *C. delta* and *C. americana* was  
196 examined using STRUCTURE with parameters as above without a location prior and  
197 K=1-3. STRUCTURE Harvester v0.6 [40] was used to choose K with the delta K  
198 criterion [41]. For the chosen K, results from each of the five iterations were aligned  
199 using CLUMPP v1.1 [42] and plotted in DISTRUCT v 1.1 [43].

200 To examine the amount of genetic differentiation among populations,  $F_{ST}$  [44]  
201 was calculated between sites and/or species (GENALEx). Based on the STRUCTURE  
202 results for *C. delta*, two sites (GC338 and GC249) located only ~ 5km apart in similar  
203 depths, were pooled for these analyses. An Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA)  
204 [45] was conducted to test for significance among pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values across all sites  
205 (GenALEx). Additionally, AMOVA was re-calculated after removing two sites (GC235,  
206 GC246) that had small sample sizes. If AMOVA results were significant for *C. delta*,  
207 partial mantel tests were used to test for significant correlations between  $F_{ST}$  [linearized  
208 to  $F_{ST}/(1 - F_{ST})$ ] values with vertical distance given geographic distance and with  
209 geographic distance given vertical distance (IBD on the Web v3.5, 1,000 randomizations)  
210 [46]. Vertical and geographic distances were log transformed. Partial mantel tests were  
211 also performed without GC235 and GC246. All analyses were repeated for both  
212 candidate neutral loci only and candidate selective loci.

213 BOTTLENECK v 1.2 [47] was used to determine if any *C. delta* populations  
214 experienced a recent reduction in population size at putative neutral loci. Bottleneck was

215 calculated under three mutation models, including the infinite alleles model (IAM), two-  
216 phase model (TPM), and the stepwise mutation model (SMM). A Wilcoxon Sign-Rank  
217 Test and the relative distribution of allele frequencies (mode-shift indicator) were used to  
218 assess whether any of the populations experienced a recent bottleneck.

219

### 220 **3. Results**

#### 221 (a) Microsatellite marker data

222 Of 39 primer pairs that were tested for amplification across individuals, 10 loci  
223 were polymorphic and consistently amplified in either *C. delta* (n=116) or *C. americana*  
224 (n=29) (Tables S2-S3). However, CA3 did not amplify well in *C. americana* and CA1  
225 did not amplify well in *C. delta* (Tables S2-S3). No loci were in linkage disequilibrium  
226 (all loci,  $p > 0.05$ , Fisher's Exact Test). Three of the same multi-locus genotypes (MLGs)  
227 of *C. delta* were found at VK826 and two were found at GC249. Two of the same *C.*  
228 *americana* MLGs were found at GB299. Removing these individuals resulted in 113 *C.*  
229 *delta* and 28 *C. americana* for further analyses. With at least eight loci, the probability of  
230 identifying identical multi-locus genotypes at random decreased to 0-0.05% for both  
231 species at both probability calculations. Estimates of null allele frequencies ranged from  
232 0-5% across all loci (INEST, 'nb' model best for each species, Table S4). Except, the null  
233 allele estimate was 25% for CA3; however, this locus did not amplify in all individuals.  
234 Both BAYESCAN and LOSITAN indicated that two loci (CA3, CA7) were outliers and  
235 thus potentially under selection.

236 The number of alleles per locus ranged from 3 to 22, and the majority were  
237 private alleles within a species (Table S2). With the exception of CA3, CA7, and CA10  
238 (14 to 22 alleles per locus), there were few alleles at each of seven loci (3 to 7 alleles per

239 locus). Including all loci, the mean number of alleles per locus ranged from  $5.2 \pm 0.84$  SE  
240 in *C. americana* to  $7.50 \pm 1.85$  SE in *C. delta*. Without the three loci with the higher  
241 number of alleles, the mean number of alleles per locus ranged from  $3.86 \pm 0.55$  SE in *C.*  
242 *americana* to  $4.14 \pm 0.40$  SE in *C. delta*.

243 Several loci showed negative fixation ( $F$ ) indices, suggesting heterozygote excess;  
244 however, departures from HWE were not significant in most cases (Table S3). Three loci  
245 showed significant departures from HWE within a particular site for *C. delta*: CA3 at  
246 MC751 and MC885 (Chi Square,  $p < 0.005$ ), CA5 at GC235, MC751 and MC885 (Chi  
247 Square,  $p < 0.005$ ), and CA9 at MC751 for *C. delta* (Chi Square,  $p < 0.005$ ). CA5 and CA9  
248 were in heterozygote excess at the specific sites. Two loci showed significant departures  
249 from HWE for *C. americana*: CA2 and CA7 at GB299 (Chi Square,  $p < 0.005$ ); however,  
250 CA3 only amplified in five individuals collected from GB299 and was thus not used in  
251 analyses.

252 Power analysis indicated that the probability of detecting genetic differentiation in  
253 *C. delta* when  $F_{ST} \geq 0.0250$  was 100%. The probability of identifying significant genetic  
254 structure when the true  $F_{ST} = 0$  was  $< 6\%$  in all simulations (Table S5).

255  
256 (b) Genetic differentiation between *Callogorgia delta* and *C. americana*

257 STRUCTURE indicated little to no genetic admixture between *C. delta* and *C.*  
258 *americana* at eight loci (CA2, CA4-10). Two populations ( $K=2$ ) corresponded to the two  
259 species (Fig. 2). In addition, there was high genetic differentiation between the two  
260 species ( $F_{ST}=0.434$ ,  $p=0.001$ ; AMOVA, Table S6) and no evidence of hybridization. The  
261 proportion of membership to one of the species clusters for each individual was  $>99\%$ .

262

263 (c) Genetic differentiation within *Callogorgia delta*

264 Genetic differentiation was apparent within *C. delta* sampled from seven sites  
265 across the northern GoM using nine loci (CA2-10) (Fig. 2). The  $F_{ST}$  value among  
266 populations was significant ( $F_{ST}=0.042$ ,  $p=0.001$ ) (AMOVA, Table S6). Removing the  
267 two sites that had few individuals (GC235 and GC246) from AMOVA analyses still  
268 yielded significant overall  $F_{ST}$  ( $F_{ST}=0.042$ ,  $p=0.001$ ). The overall inbreeding coefficient  
269 was low (Avg $F_i=0.0065$ ) and not a significant component of the model (DIC=3493 for  
270 the 'nfb' model, DIC=3491 for the 'nb' model). Inbreeding coefficients were also low for  
271 each population (Avg $F_i=0.011-0.041$ ) and not a significant component of the model for  
272 any population based on DIC (INEst, Table S4).

273 Bayesian clustering analysis (STRUCTURE) with a location prior converged  
274 well. Delta K (STRUCTURE Harvester) indicated that the most likely number of  
275 population clusters (K) present in the dataset was four (Fig. S2). Membership in each of  
276 these four clusters corresponded well to most of the sites from which individuals were  
277 collected: GC249 and GC338, MC751, MC885, and VK826 (Table S7). However, at  
278 some sites, multiple lineages were represented. A high proportion of individuals from  
279 GC235 were assigned to both the VK826 cluster and the MC885 cluster and a high  
280 proportion of individuals from GC246 were assigned to both the GC249/338 cluster as  
281 well as the MC885 cluster.

282 Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values among sites harboring *C. delta* ranged between 0.021 and  
283 0.078 with p-values ranging from 0.002 to 0.126 (AMOVA, Table 1). After a Bonferroni  
284 correction,  $F_{ST}$  values between only a few pairs of sites remained significant ( $p<0.003$ ,  
285 AMOVA, Table 1). The strongest differences were observed between MC751 with

286 VK826, MC885, and GC249/338 ( $F_{ST}$  =0.033-0.053,  $p$ <0.003). Relatively high  $F_{ST}$   
287 values were also found between VK826 and MC885 ( $F_{ST}$  =0.040,  $p$ =0.004) and VK826  
288 and GC249/338 ( $F_{ST}$  =0.052,  $p$ =0.007); however, these results did not remain significant  
289 after the Bonferroni adjustment. Greater genetic differentiation was evident at increasing  
290 differences in depth, given geographic distance (partial mantel test,  $r$ =0.61 ,  $p$ =0.002,  
291 Fig. 3). In contrast, no significant correlation was found with  $F_{ST}$  and geographic distance  
292 given vertical distance ( $r$ =0.21,  $p$ =0.22). Partial mantel tests were also conducted  
293 following the removal of the two sites with low sample sizes (GC235 and GC246). In this  
294 analysis, a relatively high, but non-significant ( $r$ =0.68,  $p$ =0.08) correlation was found  
295 with  $F_{ST}$  and vertical distance given geographic distance. However, a significant  
296 correlation in  $F_{ST}$  with geographical distance given vertical distance was also evident  
297 ( $r$ =0.78,  $p$ =0.03).

298         Because both BAYESCAN and LOSITAN indicated that two loci were outliers  
299 and thus potentially under selection, we re-analyzed the  $F_{ST}$  data using either the two  
300 candidate loci under selection or the seven putative neutral loci. Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values at  
301 the two candidate loci were much higher ( $F_{ST}$  =0.012-0.166) compared with the putative  
302 neutral loci ( $F_{ST}$  =0.000-0.086) (Table S8). After a Bonferroni correction, numerous  $F_{ST}$   
303 values between pairs of sites at the two candidate loci were significant ( $p$ <0.003,  
304 AMOVA) whereas none were significant at the neutral loci ( $p$ >0.003, AMOVA). Greater  
305 genetic differentiation with increasing vertical distance given geographic distance was  
306 evident at the two candidate loci (partial mantel test,  $r$ =0.56,  $p$ =0.008, Fig. 3). No genetic  
307 differentiation with geographic distance given vertical distance was evident at these loci  
308 ( $r$ =0.25,  $p$ =0.24). Removing the two sites with small sample sizes revealed a significant

309 correlation of  $F_{ST}$  with both vertical distance ( $r=0.97$ ,  $p=0.04$ ) and geographic distance  
310 ( $r=0.93$ ,  $p=0.04$ ). In comparison, no significant genetic divergence with vertical distance  
311 given geographic distance ( $r=0.33$ ,  $p=0.08$ ) or geographic distance given vertical distance  
312 ( $r=-0.05$ ,  $p=0.57$ ) was evident at the seven neutral loci. Removing the two sites with  
313 small sample sizes resulted in no significant correlations of  $F_{ST}$  with vertical distance  
314 ( $r=0.33$ ,  $p=0.27$ ) or geographic distance ( $r=-0.11$ ,  $p=0.72$ ).

315 BOTTLENECK results indicated that there was a shifted mode distribution of  
316 allele frequencies for *C. delta* at GC235 and GC249/338. In addition, there was  
317 significant heterozygote excess (Wilcoxon Sign-Rank Test,  $p<0.05$ ) at both sites  
318 calculated under the IAM, TPM, and SMM models.

319

#### 320 **4. Discussion**

321 The hypothesis that there is no genetic differentiation within *Callogorgia delta*  
322 across the northern Gulf of Mexico (GoM) can be rejected. Rather, results indicated that  
323 there is weak, but significant genetic differentiation across the sites surveyed. Different  
324 evolutionary processes could lead to the genetic differentiation observed within *C. delta*,  
325 including genetic drift due to a past reduction in population size, limited gene flow  
326 among sites, and adaptive divergence in the presence of gene flow across a gradient of  
327 depth. Regardless of the precise mechanism, depth is an important factor influencing the  
328 population structure of *C. delta* across the slope in the northern GoM. A higher degree of  
329 genetic differentiation over vertical rather than geographic distance within *C. delta* re-  
330 enforces the importance of the environmental factors associated with depth as important  
331 abiotic gradients influencing the evolution of deep-sea populations and species.

332

333 (a) Utility of microsatellite markers in species delimitation

334           Determining species boundaries within octocorals has been problematic due to  
335 morphological gradations [48], phenotypic plasticity [48], the slow evolutionary rate of  
336 mitochondrial genomes [49] and the lack of phylogenetically informative, single copy  
337 nuclear loci that can be amplified across the clade [50]. Our microsatellite analyses  
338 indicated the utility of these loci in resolving species boundaries of octocorals that have  
339 been separated for millions of years. *Callogorgia delta* and *C. americana* were only  
340 recently elevated from sub-species to species status [24], with an estimated time since  
341 divergence of approximately 19 MYA [23]. Yet, the majority of microsatellite markers  
342 consistently amplified across *C. delta* and *C. americana*, resulting in a high  $F_{ST}$  value  
343 (0.434,  $p=0.001$ ) between species. Previous studies have also indicated the utility in using  
344 similar numbers of microsatellite loci to delimit species of scleractinian corals [51-52].

345

346 (b) Genetic differentiation across the GoM continental slope

347           The results from STRUCTURE analyses suggested that genetic differentiation  
348 occurs among populations of *C. delta* across 400 m of depth and 400 km of distance in  
349 the northern GoM, with population clusters apparent at MC751, VK826, MC885, and  
350 GC249/338 (in order from shallowest to deepest). The remaining two sites, GC246 and  
351 GC235, contained individuals that were admixed across a few other populations, but this  
352 could be indicative of the low sample sizes ( $n<7$ ) collected from these two sites. This  
353 population structure pattern was further supported by  $F_{ST}$  results, as numerous pairwise  
354 comparisons showed significant differentiation between sites.

355 Our results also indicated that *C. delta* is more strongly isolated by depth rather  
356 than by geographic distance in the GoM.  $F_{ST}$  values were significantly correlated with  
357 larger differences in vertical rather than horizontal distances. This is further supported by  
358 the STRUCTURE analyses and the low and non-significant,  $F_{ST}$  value (0.021,  $p=0.126$ )  
359 between two sites (VK826 and GC235) that were located 400 km apart yet in similar  
360 depth ranges. In comparison, MC751 (440 m) and MC885 (629 m) were significantly  
361 divergent ( $F_{ST}=0.033$ ,  $p=0.002$ ), despite the fact that these two sites were spatially only  
362 separated by 15 km. When the sites with small sample sizes were excluded from the  
363 analysis, high correlations with both depth and geographic distance were found,  
364 suggesting that geographic distance also has a role in isolating populations. These results,  
365 however, are confounded by the fact that the deeper site, GC249/338, was also the  
366 furthest from Viosca Knoll (VK) and Mississippi Canyon (MC) areas.

367 We acknowledge that few *C. delta* individuals were sampled in the GC area.  
368 Obtaining samples from multiple localities in the deep sea is more difficult than in  
369 shallow-water environments [53], particularly as depth of sampling increases. We stress  
370 that more samples are needed to corroborate the pattern of isolation by depth in this  
371 study. However, if these results hold in the presence of additional samples, then  
372 the observed patterns of isolation by depth would strongly indicate that depth is a  
373 significant factor shaping populations in the deep sea. Recent studies [8, 12] using  
374 microsatellite markers to distinguish populations of *Lamellibrachia* tubeworms in the  
375 deep (300-2600 m) northern GoM yielded similar results as those presented in this study.  
376 Depth-dependent gene flow was evident in *Lamellibrachia* spp. whereas continuous gene  
377 flow was apparent across 650 km in the GoM.

378 Gene flow in *C. delta* may be limited across the GoM through a number of  
379 different mechanisms. If long-distance dispersal via horizontal transport occurs, suitable  
380 substrate may not be available within a given depth range. Lack of habitat availability  
381 would result in a lack of successful recruitment. Sub-optimal habitat would lead to  
382 increased mortality, thus limiting gene flow. Alternatively, shorter larval life spans along  
383 with slow current flow or mesoscale circulations (e.g., eddies) may result in local  
384 retention [54], thereby limiting connectivity. Although reproduction has not been studied  
385 in the genus *Callogorgia*, species within the family Primnoidae either broadcast spawn  
386 (e.g., *Primnoa* spp. [55]) or internally brood their larvae (e.g., *Thouarella*, *Fannyella*,  
387 [17, 56]. Most planula larvae of brooding octocorals appear to settle shortly after release  
388 [16, 56]. Thus, the dispersal distance of brooding species could be reduced if larvae settle  
389 close to the colonies, ultimately leading to limited gene flow between sites. If  
390 *Callogorgia* also brood larvae, this could contribute to limited larval dispersal among  
391 sites. However, if this were the case, we would suspect that either inbreeding would be  
392 significant at some sites or that isolation by distance would be evident using the putative  
393 neutral loci.

394 Limited gene flow could also occur across depth in the GoM due to the existence  
395 of water mass boundaries. In the GoM, four water masses dominate the continental slope.  
396 Sargasso Sea Water is predominant from 200-400 m; Tropical Atlantic water (TAW)  
397 dominates depths ranging from 400-600 m; Antarctic Intermediate water (AAIW)  
398 dominates depths ranging from 600-1000 m; and a mixture of North Atlantic Deep water  
399 and Caribbean water occurs below 1000 m [57]. These water mass boundaries  
400 (particularly across TAW to AAIW) could create a barrier to gene flow within

401 *Callogorgia* by entraining larvae and inhibiting the relatively simplistic planula larvae  
402 from physically settling out of the water column. In addition, dispersing larvae may not  
403 be able to physiologically tolerate environmental parameters (pressure, temperature,  
404 dissolved oxygen) that change at water mass boundaries. Physiological intolerances of  
405 echinoderm larvae to temperature and/or pressure have been shown to limit distribution  
406 of bathyal species into either shallower or deeper depths depending upon their adult depth  
407 ranges [58-59].

408 Larvae that pass through water mass barriers and successfully form adult colonies  
409 may have a different range of physiological tolerances to environmental conditions than  
410 their source population. This could lead to selection, and thus adaptive divergence among  
411 populations occupying different depths [60]. Pre-reproductive selection could be common  
412 in sessile animals, as sessile species are not able to move away from environmental  
413 pressures once settled [60]. For *Callogorgia* occupying this area of the continental slope,  
414 variability in temperature and dissolved oxygen may be major factors influencing either  
415 larval or post-settlement survival. Where *C. delta* occurred, temperatures ranged from  
416 5.0-10.0°C and dissolved oxygen from 1.5-3.5 ml/l [see 23]. Changes in only a few  
417 degrees of temperature could lead to adaptive protein changes and thus could influence  
418 species distributions [61]. The potential presence of microsatellite markers under  
419 selection (or linked to loci under selection) supports the idea that these processes may be  
420 at work here. Therefore, adaptive divergence in the presence of gene flow could lead to  
421 the weak, but significant genetic differentiation with depth observed in *C. delta* across the  
422 continental slope of the northern GoM.

423 *Callogorgia delta* may also have undergone a recent population bottleneck, as  
424 indicated by the low allelic diversity and heterozygote excess at several loci, specifically  
425 at the Green Canyon (GC) sites. Allelic diversity can often be reduced faster than  
426 heterozygosity, particularly if heterozygotes have a selective advantage [47, 62]. It is  
427 possible that there was a decrease in the effective population size at sites in the GC region  
428 in the past. This region experienced fluctuations in the amount of freshwater discharge  
429 and water depth during glacial and inter-glacial periods over at least the past 16,000  
430 years, which could have led to habitat fragmentation in the region through anoxic events  
431 or temperature and salinity fluctuations [63-64]. Alternative to the population bottleneck  
432 scenario, it is possible that the significant results are spurious due to poor sampling of  
433 individuals at the GC sites as statistical power increases with more loci and more  
434 individuals.

435 Disentangling the evolutionary mechanisms (e.g., selection vs. limited gene flow)  
436 causing genetic differentiation across the GoM in *C. delta* will likely require additional  
437 data, as any of the scenarios described above could result in the pattern observed.  
438 Determining whether species in the genus *Callogorgia* are brooders or broadcast  
439 spawners would provide insight into their effective dispersal distances and whether  
440 reproductive mode could limit gene flow. However, our results indicated that the most  
441 likely scenario for the genetic differentiation in *C. delta* across depth is adaptive  
442 divergence in the presence of gene flow. First, there was no evidence for significant  
443 inbreeding within any site. Second,  $F_{ST}$  values calculated using only the candidate  
444 selective loci revealed much higher genetic differentiation between sites whereas no  
445 genetic differentiation was evident at the seven neutral loci. In a similar study that

446 examined population differentiation in the deep-sea fish *Coryphaenoides rupestris*, one  
447 microsatellite locus (out of 16 total) was found to be under selection with genetic  
448 differentiation greater at this locus across a depth boundary of 1200 m [36]. In our study  
449 two loci, CA3 and CA7, were designated as outliers and thus potential candidates for  
450 selection; however, it is noted that these two loci had much higher allelic diversities and  
451 larger motif sizes than the putative neutral loci. Including more loci spread across the  
452 genome would help resolve whether CA3 and CA7 are in fact under selection or linked to  
453 loci under selection. Increasing the number of loci used would yield a more robust  
454 estimate of the average genetic differentiation among loci, and thus allow for more  
455 confidence when designating outliers. Nevertheless, our results provide evidence that  
456 environmental conditions are shaping the pattern of genetic differentiation in *C. delta*  
457 across a gradient of depth.

458         The pattern of genetic differentiation with depth has emerged as an important  
459 feature of coral population structure. Population differentiation across depth has been  
460 indicated in several species of shallow and mesophotic corals that exhibit different  
461 reproductive modes. This includes three species of broadcast spawning corals: *Oculina*  
462 *varicosa* across the Florida continental shelf (<2 to 80 m) [20], *Eunicea flexuosa* across  
463 the Caribbean basin (<5 to 25 m) [60], and *Montastraea cavernosa* off Florida (<10 to 25  
464 m) [26]. Similarly, populations of the octocoral *Paramuricea clavata*, a brooding species,  
465 were differentiated over both markedly short vertical (10 to 40 m) and horizontal (<400  
466 km) distances in the Mediterranean [65]. In comparing these examples with this study, a  
467 stronger pattern of isolation by depth compared with distance further suggests that

468 adaptive divergence in the presence of gene flow is could lead to depth differentiation in  
469 *Callogorgia* across the upper continental slope of the GoM.

470

471 (c) Further considerations

472 Adaptive divergence with depth is becoming increasingly recognized as an  
473 important process shaping population and species evolution in the deep sea [7-9]. Our  
474 data and results from recent studies [7-9] reveal the importance of considering different  
475 environmental conditions associated with depth that could lead to population isolation in  
476 the deep sea. These depth-related patterns necessitate additional research to disentangle  
477 the mechanisms responsible for population divergence in the deep-sea environment.  
478 Furthermore, our results have significant implications for conservation efforts. With the  
479 increasing potential for anthropogenic impacts to deep-sea communities [18-19], future  
480 design of protected areas in the deep sea could beneficially incorporate a variety of depth  
481 ranges and habitat types in order to capture the diversity within and among vulnerable  
482 marine ecosystems.

483

#### 484 **Data Accessibility**

485 Microsatellite allele calls are deposited in Dryad (doi:10.5061/dryad.fq7d1)

486

#### 487 **Competing Interests**

488 We have no competing interests.

489

490

491 **Author Contributions**

492 AMQ and EEC conceived and designed the study. AMQ performed the research,  
493 analyzed the data and wrote the article with contributions from E.E.C. IBB helped with  
494 microsatellite marker design. IBB, TMS, and CLM helped with population genetic  
495 analyses and edited the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

496

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513

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697

698 **Figure Captions**

699 Figure 1. Map of sampling locations of *Callogorgia americana* (blue symbols) and *C.*  
700 *delta* (all other colored symbols). Colors denote clusters identified by STRUCTURE (see  
701 Fig. 2). Number of samples (n) and depth range of collections are noted.

702

703 Figure 2. Average probability of membership graphs (STRUCTURE) for (a) *Callogorgia*  
704 spp. (K=2, n=141), and (b) *Callogorgia delta* (n=113, K=4). Mean depth of collections  
705 for each site is included.

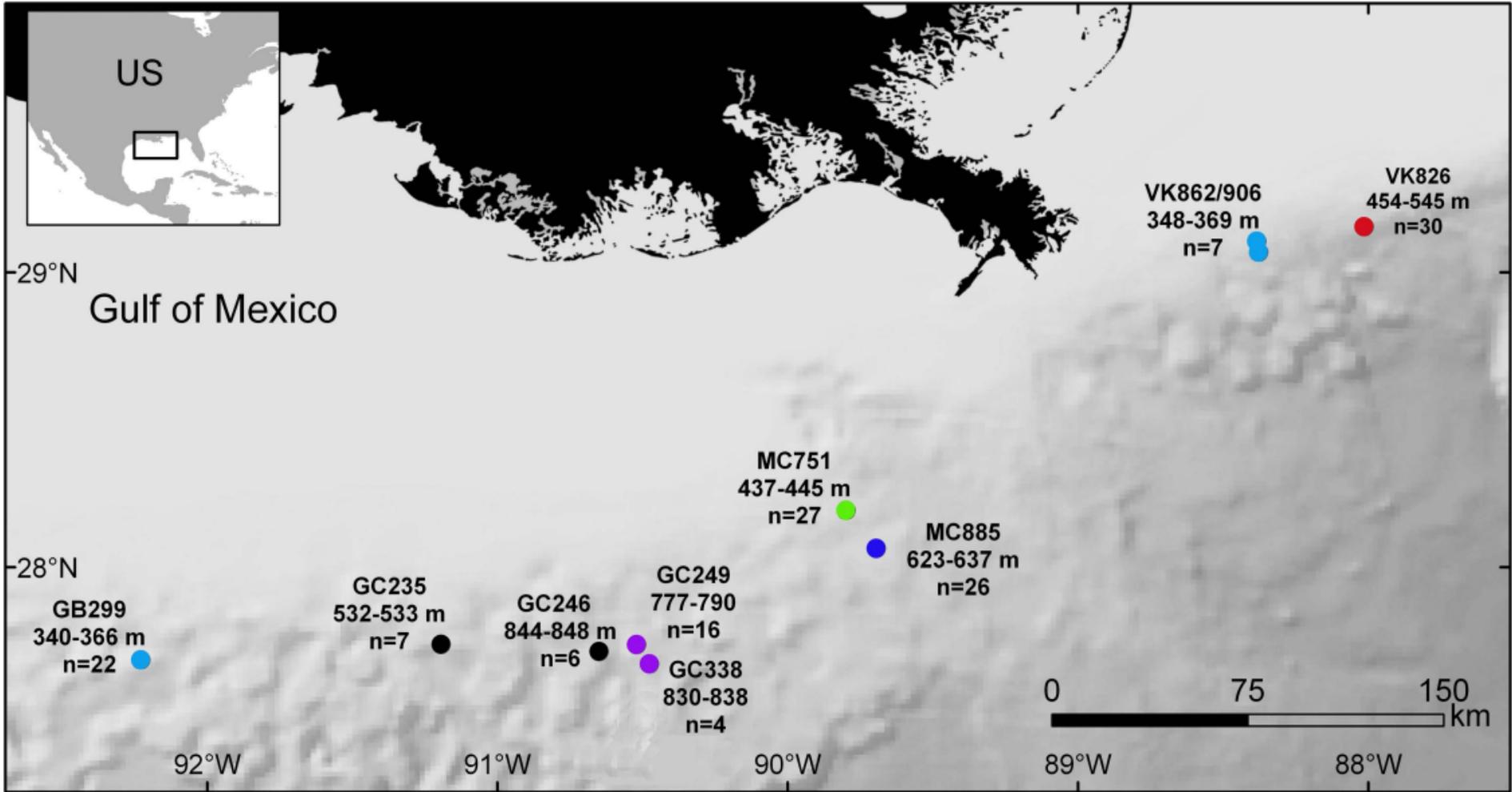
706

707 Figure 3. Scatterplots of pairwise  $F_{ST}$  for *Callogorgia delta* with respect to vertical and  
708 geographic distance at (a-b) all nine loci; (c-d) two loci candidates for selection; and (e-f)  
709 seven putative neutral loci.

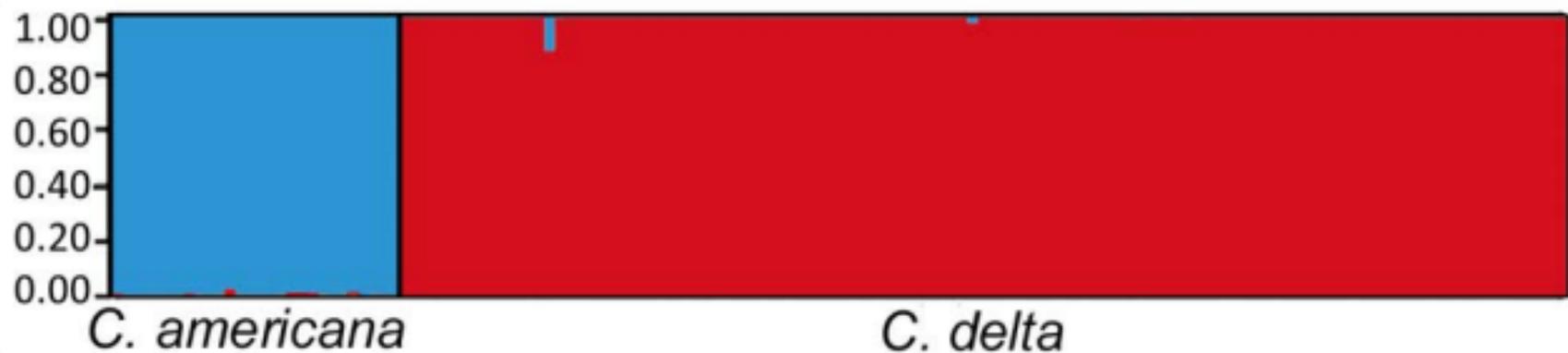
Table 1. Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values for *Callogorgia delta* among sites at all loci.  $F_{ST}$  values **in bold** are significant (AMOVA, Bonferroni adjustment,  $p \leq 0.003$ ). p-values are indicated above diagonal. n=number of unique multi-locus genotypes used in analyses. Depth range of collected specimens is noted.

	GC235 532-533 m n=7	GC246 844-848 m n=6	GC249 777-790 m n=15	GC338 830-838 m n=4	GC249/338 777-838 m n=19	MC751 437-445 m n=27	MC885 623-637 m n=26	VK826 454-545 m n=28
GC235	--	0.109	0.058	0.123	0.081	0.044	0.029	0.126
GC246	0.039	--	0.048	0.257	0.071	0.010	0.073	0.029
GC249	0.038	0.048	--	0.239	--	0.004	0.021	0.001
GC338	0.051	0.026	0.020	--	--	0.016	0.043	0.056
GC249/338	0.035	0.038	--	--	--	0.002	0.007	0.007
MC751	0.038	0.078	0.048	0.078	<b>0.053</b>	--	0.002	0.002
MC885	0.041	0.032	0.029	0.057	0.034	<b>0.033</b>	--	0.006
VK826	0.021	0.054	<b>0.056</b>	0.056	0.052	<b>0.044</b>	0.040	--





(a)



(b)

