# Influence of the North Equatorial Current on the population genetic structure of *Tridacna crocea* (Mollusca: Tridacnidae) along the eastern Philippine seaboard

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ABSTRACT: Tridacna crocea populations were sampled from 15 locations throughout the eastern Philippine seaboard and screened for allozyme variation at 7 polymorphic loci in order to examine the influence of the North Equatorial Current (NEC) bifurcation on population genetic structure. Significant genetic differentiation among all populations was detected ( $F_{\rm ST} = 0.065$ ). Ordination methods and cluster analysis revealed 2 regional groups and a north-south spatial genetic structure broadly concordant with the bifurcation of the NEC into the Kuroshio and Mindanao current branches. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) indicated greater partitioning of genetic variance among groups ( $F_{CT} = 0.049$ ) than among populations within groups ( $F_{SC} = 0.029$ ). An isolation-by-distance signal across the entire Philippine seaboard and marked geographical variation of allele frequencies between Kuroshio and Mindanao Current regions suggested that genetic differentiation is likely due to limited larval exchange and genetic drift. The Mindanao current populations are characterized by greater genetic diversity and differentiation (observed heterozygosity,  $H_0 = 0.298$ ;  $F_{ST} = 0.056$ ) than the Kuroshio populations ( $H_{\rm O}$  = 0.152;  $F_{\rm ST}$  = 0.025), attributable to variable atmospheric and hydrographic regional conditions. Weaker connectivity among Mindanao current populations are attributed to complex patterns of hydrographic circulation south of the NEC bifurcation, which may translate to greater entrainment potential, in turn influencing dispersal and recruitment of planktonic propagules at varying spatial and temporal scales. Fine-scale genetic differentiation was also detected within Kuroshio and Mindanao current populations, indicating the influence of small-scale temporal and spatial physical processes that affect larval dispersal and recruitment along the eastern Philippine seaboard.

KEY WORDS: *Tridacna* · Genetic structure · Gene flow · North Equatorial Current · Oceanography · Giant clam

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## INTRODUCTION

The eastern Philippine reefs situated along the western boundary of the Pacific Ocean consist of various reef habitat types exposed to wind-driven surface currents. Upon encountering the western boundary along the eastern Philippine seaboard, the westward flowing North Equatorial Current (NEC) in the Pacific Ocean bifurcates into narrow, fast-flowing western boundary currents: the northward flowing Kuroshio and the southward flowing Mindanao Current (Nitani 1972, see Fig. 1). The bifurcation latitude is estimated to lie between 11 and 14.5° N (Nitani 1972), and exhibits seasonal meridional shifting, from 14.8 up to 17° N in summer and winter, respectively (Qiu & Lukas 1996). The divergent current pattern generated by the NEC bifurcation has been suggested as one of the primary determinants in the north-south geographical differentiation of reef fish species composition along the eastern Philippines (Aliño & Gomez 1993). Population genetic studies provide an opportunity to test the hypothesis that the NEC bifurcation significantly affects larval dispersal and gene flow of reef organisms along the Pacific coast of the Philippines.

Tridacna crocea is the smallest giant clam species. It is widely distributed in the Indo-Pacific region and is the most abundant giant clam among shallow water reefs on the eastern Philippine seaboard. Like other tridacnid species, it is a broadcast spawner and has an estimated planktonic larval period of 7 to 10 d (Lucas 1988), after which the larvae metamorphose into shelled pediveligers, acquiring a foot for attachment and subsequently burrowing into suitable substrate. Despite the dispersal potential mediated by a planktonic larval phase, previous studies reported broadscale genetic differentiation among populations from the South China Sea, Sulu Sea, northern Palawan, and southern Palawan (Yu et al. 2000, Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003), with genetic connectivity between regions mediated by larval dispersal via predominant surface currents. Fine-scale differentiation among reefs within each region was reported and attributed to stochastic patterns of larval dispersal and recruitment influenced by small-scale (local) physical processes and diverse oceanographic conditions (Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003).

Large-scale oceanic currents like the NEC may play a significant role in shaping the genetic structure of marine populations along the eastern Philippines. As well as the physical, geological and biological oceanographic characteristics that give rise to perceived biogeographic boundaries, the concordance of genetic divergence of broad-ranging reef species with patterns of ocean currents could provide insights into the processes governing species' patterns of larval dispersal and gene flow in the areas influenced by the the Kuroshio and Mindanao Current. Previous studies on other tridacnid species revealed patterns of genetic connectivity that were not consistent with present-day major surface currents (Macaranas et al. 1992, Benzie & Williams 1995, 1997). In contrast, fine-scale genetic structure in the order of tens to hundreds of kilometers was reported for Philippine populations of Tridacna crocea in the South China Sea and Sulu Sea (Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003), and along the southeastern Philippine reefs (Magsino et al. 2002).

The present study tests the hypothesis that the NEC bifurcation influences gene flow among *Tridacna crocea* populations along the entire length of the eastern Philippine seaboard. Estimates of genetic diversity and variability were based on allozyme markers, which allowed some degree of comparison with earlier studies that also employed allozymes. Specifically, spatial patterns of genetic differentiation were examined to test whether the NEC bifurcation is a dispersal barrier, restricting larval dispersal and gene flow among *T. crocea* reef populations along the eastern Philippine seaboard.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Sample collection.** Mantle biopsies allowed nondestructive sampling of 630 *Tridacna crocea* clams from 15 reef sites (26 to 75 clam per population) along the eastern Philippine seaboard. Sampling sites were selected to include representative reefs north and south of the NEC bifurcation (Fig. 1). Reef sites sampled included Cagayan (CAG), Isabela (ISA), Aurora (AUR), 3 sites at Polillo (POL-1, POL-2, POL-3), Catanduanes (CAT), Masbate (MAS), Balicuatro (BAL), Div-



Fig. 1. Tridacna crocea. Sampling sites on the eastern Philippine seaboard. Significant oceanographic features are shown. Average current speed and width are 1.5 m s<sup>-1</sup> and 100 to 150 km for the Kuroshio (Nitani 1972), and ~1 m s<sup>-1</sup> (max.) and 200 km for the Mindanao Currents (Wijffels et al. 1995). Classification of sites into either Kurushio ( $\bullet$ ) or Mindanao (O) groups reflects spatial structure based on our results

inubo (DIV), Homonhon (HOM), 2 sites at Dinagat (DIN-1, DIN-2), Lianga (LIA) and Mati (MAT). Collections from most sites were conducted during April and May in 2000 and 2001, with the exception of Cagayan, which was sampled in October 2001. At each reef site, 2 SCUBA divers searched reef areas of approximately 200 to 400 m<sup>2</sup>, collecting mantle tissue from clams with shell lengths of ~4 to 8 cm as they were encountered. Tissue samples collected from individual clams were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-70^{\circ}$ C until electrophoretic analysis.

Allozyme electrophoresis. Processing of mantle tissues and horizontal starch-gel electrophoresis of tissue homogenates followed the procedures of Magsino et al. (2002). Histochemical methods for detecting specific enzyme systems followed protocols of Shaw & Prasad (1970). Pilot screening of 20 enzyme systems revealed 7 polymorphic loci resolved using Tris-Citric acid pH 7 buffer: adenylate kinase (AK\*, E.C. 2.7.4.3), glucose-6phosphate isomerase (GPI\*, E.C. 5.3.1.9), isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH\*, E.C. 1.1.1.42), lactate dehydrogenase (LDH\*, E.C. 1.1.1.27), malate dehydrogenase (MDH-1\* and MDH-2\*, E.C. 1.1.1.37), and mannose phosphate isomerase (MPI\*, E.C. 5.3.1.8). Allozymes were numbered in order of decreasing anodal mobility. Electromorphs were equated with alleles and assigned numerical designations relative to the mobility of the most common allele (Allele 100). Enzyme names and numbers followed the recommendations of the Commission on Biochemical Nomenclature (Shaklee et al. 1990).

Statistical analysis. Allele frequencies and measures of genetic variability (observed and expected heterozygosity, mean number of alleles, percentage of polymorphic loci) were calculated from genotype data using the GENETIX software (Belkhir et al. 2004, available at www.genetix.univ-montp2.fr/genetix/ genetix.htm). The inbreeding coefficient of an individual relative to its subpopulation  $(F_{IS})$  was used to represent the Mendelian equilibrium, and single and multi-locus deviation from Hardy Weinberg equilibrium expectations was tested using the Markov chain method implemented in GENEPOP version 3.1d (Raymond & Rousset 1995). GENEPOP was likewise used to test non-random association of loci (linkage disequilibrium) within populations. Significance levels for statistical tests were adjusted according to the sequential Bonferroni method (Rice 1989).

Unbiased genetic distances (Nei 1978) were computed for all pairwise population comparisons using GENETIX. To explore population genetic affinities, a neighbor-joining dendrogram was generated from the distance matrix using the NEIGHBOR program in the PHYLIP package (version 3.5, Felsenstein 1985). Topological confidence was evaluated with 1000 bootstrap replicates using the SEQBOOT and CONSENSE programs in PHYLIP. In addition, non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) of pairwise  $F_{\rm ST}$  values was conducted to visualize the spatial pattern of genetic relationships among samples, using the PERMAP software package (available at www.ucs.louisiana.edu/ ~rbh8900/permap.html). Significant differences in allelic frequencies among samples was tested using an exact test implemented in GENEPOP.

The extent of genetic differentiation among samples was estimated using Wright's standardized variance in allelic frequencies ( $F_{\rm ST}$ ; Wright 1951), which is the proportion of allelic variation resulting from differences among samples. Single and multi-locus  $F_{\rm ST}$  values were calculated in GENEPOP, in order to provide measures of differentiation among samples, among various sample groupings, and between each pair of samples. The significance of  $F_{\rm ST}$  values was evaluated using an approximation to a chi-square test, and significance levels were adjusted for multiple simultaneous tablewide tests using the sequential Bonferroni method (Rice 1989).

Partitioning of genetic variance components among geographic regions and within samples was performed using a hierarchical analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA, Excoffier et al. 1992) with the package ARLEQUIN (version 2.0, Schneider et al. 2000). Sample sites were nested into regional groupings in order to evaluate hypothesized patterns of spatial genetic structure. The correlation between geographical distance and genetic differentiation (pairwise  $F_{\rm ST}$ ) was evaluated using a Mantel test (Mantel 1967) implemented in ARLEQUIN.

### RESULTS

Seven polymorphic loci representing a total of 26 alleles were scored and used in this study (Table 1). Significant departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were detected at 7 loci (7.9%; total of 88 comparisons, Table 1). Of these, 6 cases resulted from heterozygote deficits. Averaging across sites, heterozygote deficits were significant (after Bonferroni correction) at AK-1<sup>\*</sup> ( $F_{IS} = 0.357$ ), GPI-1<sup>\*</sup> ( $F_{IS} = 0.331$ ), and IDH-1<sup>\*</sup>  $(F_{\rm IS} = 0.353)$ . Single-locus disequilibrium was mostly observed at GPI-1\* (5 of 15 comparisons significant), and contributed to multilocus disequilibrium at 5 populations (POL-1, MAS, DIV, DIN-2, MAT). However, GPI-1<sup>\*</sup> was still included in the analysis because no differences in dendrogram topologies were observed for datasets with or without the locus (results not shown).

Genetic differentiation over all 15 populations was highly significant ( $F_{ST} = 0.069$ , p < 0.001), with heterogeneity detected at 6 of the 7 loci (only *MDH-2*<sup>\*</sup> was Table 1. *Tridacna crocea*. Allele frequencies and  $F_{1S}$  values for eastern Philippine seaboard populations. Significant  $F_{1S}$  values (following Bonferroni correction) in **bold**. Values in parentheses indicate no. of individuals analyzed per locus; np: allele was not present in the population.  $H_0$  = observed heterozygosity;  $P_{99}$ ,  $P_{95}$  = proportion of loci polymorphic at 99 and 95% level, respectively; site abbreviations given in 'Materials and methods'

Locus/ allele	CAG	ISA	AUR	POL-1	POL-2	POL-3	CAT	MAS	BAL	DIV	HOM	DIN-1	DIN-2	LIA	MAT
AK-1*	(37)	(37)	(23)	(45)	(75)	(59)	(39)	(54)	(38)	(43)	(19)	(37)	(38)	(30)	(38)
98	np	np	np	0.067	np	np	0.038	0.028	np	0.023	np	0.041	np	0.033	0.158
100	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.933	1.000	0.966	0.859	0.833	1.000	0.826	0.921	0.838	1.000	0.933	0.789
109	np	np	np	np	np	0.034	0.103	0.139	np	0.151	0.079	0.122	np	0.033	0.053
$F_{\rm IS}$	np	np	np	0.060	np	1.000	0.497	0.488	np	0.458	-0.059	0.435	np	0.036	0.108
$GPI-1^*$	(37)	(35)	(23)	(44)	(62)	(59)	(38)	(54)	(43)	(43)	(22)	(37)	(33)	(34)	(33)
68	np	np	np	0.011	np	0.051	0.026	np	0.023	np	np	np	0.030	np	0.091
80	0.027	np	np	np	0.008	0.076	0.090	0.037	0.186	0.047	np	0.162	0.258	0.250	0.106
100	0.946	0.929	0.804	0.818	0.927	0.822	0.692	0.694	0.581	0.744	0.455	0.757	0.591	0.647	0.576
105	0.027	0.043	0.196	0.159	0.048	0.017	0.128	0.102	0.163	0.116	0.386	0.041	0.121	0.059	0.091
	np	0.029	np	0.011	0.016	0.034	0.064	0.167	0.047	0.093	0.159	0.041	0.000	0.044	0.130
P <sub>IS</sub>	-0.029	0.100	0.055	0.034	-0.030	-0.010	0.333	0.304	0.272	0.403	0.359	-0.000	0.793	0.209	0.204
1DH-1*	(37)	(16)	(19)	(37)	(75)	(59)	(41)	(54)	(45)	(43)	(24)	(37)	(23)	(34)	(33)
A	np 0.050	np	np	np 0.050	0.007	0.008	np 0.051	np 1 000	np	np	np 0.470	0.135	np	np 1 000	0.121
Б С	0.959	0.900	0.000	0.959	0.920	0.090	0.951	1.000 nn	0.970	0.002	0.479	0.770	0.913	1.000 nn	0.030
D	0.027	np	0.026	nn	0.020	0.000 np	nn	np	np	0.023	0.188	0.041	np	np	0.015
Fis	-0.019	0.651	0.127	-0.029	0.120	0.089	-0.039	np	-0.011	0.649	0.153	0.028	0.470	np	0.282
MDH-1*	(37)	(37)	(23)	(45)	(75)	(59)	(41)	(44)	(45)	(43)	(24)	(37)	(38)	(34)	(38)
90	np	np	0.022	np	(70) np	(00) np	0.012	np	np	np	np	np	(00) np	np	np
100	1.000	1.000	0.913	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.841	0.909	0.956	0.709	0.563	0.919	0.987	0.838	1.000
130	np	np	0.065	np	np	np	0.024	0.034	0.011	0.081	0.104	0.014	np	0.088	np
148	np	np	np	np	np	np	0.122	0.057	0.033	0.209	0.333	0.068	0.013	0.074	np
$F_{\rm IS}$	np	np	0.214	np	np	np	0.041	-0.063	-0.026	-0.082	-0.092	-0.061	0.000	-0.124	np
<i>MDH-2</i> *	(37)	(36)	(23)	(42)	(75)	(59)	(41)	(51)	(45)	(43)	(24)	(37)	(78)	(34)	(38)
100	0.743	0.861	0.783	0.774	0.847	0.780	0.793	0.824	0.800	0.826	0.792	0.784	0.974	0.824	0.789
120	0.108	0.097	0.043	0.155	0.087	0.093	0.122	0.069	0.122	0.116	0.042	0.135	0.013	0.132	0.053
160	0.149	0.042	0.174	0.071	0.067	0.127	0.085	0.108	0.078	0.058	0.167	0.081	0.013	0.044	0.158
$F_{\rm IS}$	-0.031	0.115	-0.202	-0.012	0.073	0.086	-0.034	-0.146	-0.169	-0.145	0.052	-0.185	-0.007	-0.153	-0.194
LDH-1*	(37)	(37)	(23)	(45)	(75)	(59)	(35)	(54)	(45)	(43)	(24)	(37)	(38)	(33)	(38)
82	np	np	np	np	np	0.025	np	np	np	np	np	np	np	np	np
100	1.000	1.000	0.891	0.956	0.987	0.847	0.829	0.667	0.756	0.837	0.833	0.824	0.974	0.727	0.961
118 E	np	np	0.109	0.044	0.013	0.127	0.171	0.333	0.244	0.103	0.167	0.176	0.026	0.273	0.039
P <sub>IS</sub>	np	np	-0.100	-0.035	-0.007	0.113	-0.193	-0.493	-0.313	-0.183	0.418	-0.200	-0.014	-0.362	-0.028
MPI-1*	(37)	(37)	(23)	(45)	(62)	(59)	(41)	(54)	(45)	(43)	(23)	(37)	(38)	(34)	(38)
96	0.041	np	np	np	0.016	0.068	np	np	np	np	np	np 0.757	np	np	np
100	0.932	0.986	0.783	0.800	0.935	0.898	0.750	0.769	0.900	0.826	0.522	0.757	0.974	0.853	0.763
135	0.02 <i>1</i>	np 0.014	0.022	0.050	0.024	0.008	0.134	0.074	0.007	0.070	0.130	0.135	0.026	0.074	0.105
Fre	-0.040	0.0014	-0.226	0.144	0.024	-0.025	0.033	0.137	-0.073	0.103	-0.084	-0.211	-0.020	-0.109	0.152
Oreanall	0.040	0.000	0.220	0.101	0.000	0.070	0.000	0.001	0.070	0.471	0.004	0.211	0.014	0.105	0.007
H	0 108	0.061	0 247	0 146	0.006	0 182	0 275	0 277	0 238	0 266	0 4 1 2	0 340	0.056	0.200	0.264
N alleles	2 14	1.86	2.43	2 43	2.71	3.00	3 14	2.71	2.71	3.00	2.71	3 14	2.29	2.71	3.00
$P_{00}$	42.86	57.14	85.71	57.14	57.14	71.43	85.71	85.71	57.14	100.00	100.00	100.00	28.57	85.71	71.43
$P_{95}$	57.14	57.14	85.71	85.71	71.43	85.71	100.00	85.71	85.71	100.00	100.00	100.00	85.71	85.71	85.71
33															

not significant; Table 2). MDS analysis revealed a north-south geographical grouping of populations (Fig. 2), concordant with the clustering of populations based on the neighbor-joining dendrogram (tree not shown). Spatial patterns of population genetic affinities indicated that 6 northern populations form one group (Polillo and all sites northward; hereafter referred to as the 'Kuroshio' group), whereas populations from Catanduanes southward form a second major group (the 'Mindanao' group). The first dimension (explaining 32% of variance) distinguished the Kuroshio and Mindanao groups, whereas the second dimension (12% of variance) mainly differentiated the Homonhon population from the rest of the samples.

Table 2. Tridacna crocea. F<sub>ST</sub> values per locus for various sample groupings. Probabilities given in parentheses. Significant values (following Bonferroni correction) in **bold** 

Locus	All populations (n = 15)	Kuroshio (n = 6)	Mindanao (n = 9)
AK-1*	<b>0.067</b> (0.000)	<b>0.034</b> (0.000)	<b>0.039</b> (0.000)
$GPI-1^*$	<b>0.072</b> (0.000)	0.033 (0.000)	0.032 (0.000)
IDH-1*	<b>0.102</b> (0.000)	0.001 (1.000)	<b>0.153</b> (0.000)
MDH-1*	0.140 (0.000)	0.067 (0.000)	0.106 (0.000)
$MDH-2^*$	0.008 (0.816)	0.004 (0.976)	0.013 (0.000)
LDH-1*	<b>0.101</b> (0.000)	0.065 (0.000)	0.064 (0.000)
<i>MPI-1</i> *	<b>0.059</b> (0.000)	<b>0.050</b> (0.000)	<b>0.048</b> (0.000)
Multilocus	<b>0.069</b> (0.000)	<b>0.025</b> (0.000)	<b>0.056</b> (0.000)



Fig. 2. Tridacna crocea. Ordination plot of MDS based on  $F_{ST}$  values.  $\blacklozenge$  = Kuroshio group populations;  $\diamondsuit$  = Mindanao group populations

Hierarchical AMOVA revealed significant differentiation at all levels of organization: among groups  $(F_{CT})_{I}$ among samples within groups  $(F_{\rm SC})$ , and within samples ( $F_{ST}$ ) (Table 3), with 4.9% of total genetic variation partitioned among the Kuroshio and Mindanao groups. Single-locus AMOVA revealed that 5 loci accounted for significant between-group differentiation: AK-1\*, GPI-1\*, LDH-1\*, MDH-1\*, and MPI-1\*. Closer inspection of allele frequencies at these loci revealed marked geographical variation in allele frequency distributions. In particular, AK-1<sup>109</sup>, GPI-1<sup>80</sup>, GPI-1<sup>105</sup>, and LDH-1<sup>118</sup> occur at higher frequencies in Mindanao group populations, i.e. from CAT southward. MDH-1<sup>148</sup> is found only in the Mindanao group, whereas  $MPI-I^{96}$  is only found in the Kuroshio group (at CAG, POL-2, and POL-3) (Table 1). Moreover, the Kuroshio group exhibited lower genetic diversity (mean  $H_0 = 0.152$ ,  $P_{95} = 61.9$ ,  $P_{99}$  = 73.8) than did the Mindanao group (mean  $H_{\rm O}$  = 0.298,  $P_{95} = 79.3$ ,  $P_{99} = 92.1$ ). Observed heterozygosity values differed significantly between the Kuroshio and Mindanao samples (Student's *t*-test; p = 0.014).

Table 3. Tridacna crocea. AMOVA for partitioning of allele frequency variation. Samples were tested according to 2 hypothesized structures: (A) no geographic subdivision; (B) 2 groups: Kuroshio and Mindanao, based on MDS and dendogram clustering results; p-values, calculated from random permutation tests (10 000 replications) represent the probability of obtaining a more extreme variance component and *F*-statistic than the observed values by chance alone (Excoffier et al. 1992)

	% variation	F-statistic	р			
(A) Single group of 15 Among populations	samples 5.59	$F_{\rm ST} = 0.05595$	0.00000			
Within populations	94.41					
(B) Two groups (Kuroshio and Mindanao) Among groups $4.95$ $F_{\rm CT}=0.04948$ 0.00098						
Among populations within groups	2.84	$F_{\rm SC} = 0.02985$	0.00000			
Within populations	92.21	$F_{\rm ST}=0.07786$	0.00000			

Significant genetic differentiation was detected among populations within groups, with the Kuroshio group characterized by lower levels of differentiation  $(F_{\rm ST} = 0.025, p < 0.0001)$  and consequently greater genetic relatedness and gene flow (mean D = 0.006) than the Mindanao group ( $F_{\rm ST}$  = 0.056, p < 0.0001; mean D = 0.029) (Table 2). Geographically proximal populations were significantly different, i.e. Polillo samples POL-1 and POL-3 ( $F_{ST} = 0.026$ , p < 0.0001; 60 km separation), BAL and MAS ( $F_{ST}$  = 0.0301; p < 0.001; 35 km separation), and Dinagat populations DIN-1 and DIN-2 ( $F_{ST} = 0.075$ , p < 0.0001; 20 km separation). Within either Kuroshio or Mindanao groups, genetic differentiation  $(F_{ST})$  was not correlated with geographical distance (Mantel r = -0.1255 and -0.2322, respectively; p > 0.05). Across the entire eastern Philippine seaboard, a weak but significant signal of isolation-by-distance was indicated by the positive correlation between  $F_{ST}$  and geographic distance (Mantel r = 0.278, p = 0.036) (Fig. 3).

#### DISCUSSION

The north-south spatial genetic structure (Kuroshio and Mindanao groups) indicates the influence of the NEC bifurcation as an oceanographic barrier to larval dispersal and gene flow of Tridacna crocea along the eastern Philippine seaboard. The marked geographical variation in allele frequencies north and south of the bifurcation may reflect restricted larval exchange and gene flow owing to vicariance. The genetic differentiation of continuously distributed eastern seaboard populations analyzed in this study ( $F_{ST} = 0.069$ ; ~1400 km) is comparable with differentiation between Kuroshio

Mindanao

Between Kuroshio

and Mindanao



+

Fig. 3. Tridacna crocea. Relationship between  $F_{\rm ST}$  values and geographic distance for pairwise comparisons among 15 populations

disjunct South China Sea and Sulu Sea populations ( $F_{\rm ST}$  = 0.066; ~750 km straight-line distance; ~1000 km following current flow) (Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003) separated by the presence of a land barrier (Palawan Island). There was also a signal of isolation-by-distance over the entire length of the eastern Philippine seaboard (p = 0.036). Although isolation-by-distance patterns may be confounded by vicariance (Bossart & Prowell 1998), the pattern observed for *T. crocea* does not appear to be driven by the north-south spatial genetic structure (Fig. 3).

The genetic structure of Tridacna crocea along the Philippine Pacific seaboard is consistent with other studies correlating genetic divergence with hydrographic barriers to dispersal (Rocha-Olivares et al. 1999, Waters & Roy 2004) and biogeographic boundaries (reviewed by Dawson 2001). Genetic differentiation concordant with the NEC bifurcation was likewise detected among the reef fishes Siganus argenteus and S. fuscescens (Magsino 2004). However, previous studies of other tridacnid species reported patterns of gene flow inconsistent with present-day surface currents in the Indo-West Pacific (Macaranas et al. 1992, Benzie & Williams 1995, 1997), which were attributed to historical patterns of dispersal. Although consistent with present-day ocean current conditions, genetic differentiation between T. crocea populations north and south of the NEC bifurcation may also reflect ancient origins, i.e. restrictions to larval dispersal over geological timescales. Reconstruction of the tectonic history of southeast Asia (Hall 1998) suggest that the eastern Philippine seaboard was configured, positioned, and interacted with the westward-flowing NEC as early as 4 to 5 million years ago (Mya). The oldest occurrence of T. crocea in the fossil record is Late Pleistocene

(Rosewater 1965); however, molecular data infer an early Pliocene origin for the *T. crocea* lineage (5 Mya; Schneider & Foighil 1999).

The differing levels of genetic diversity and connectivity between Kuroshio ( $H_{\rm O}$  = 0.152,  $F_{\rm ST}$  = 0.025) and Mindanao groups ( $H_{\Omega} = 0.298$ ,  $F_{ST} = 0.056$ ) likely reflect population genetic responses to contrasting environmental conditions, i.e. the coastal topography, geology, and oceanography of the 2 regions. The lower genetic diversity of Kuroshio populations may be due to the effect of local-scale adverse environmental conditions, e.g. typhoons, on larval mortality and recruitment success (Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003), with typhoon tracks generally occurring with greater frequency on the northeastern coast relative to the southeastern coast. Greater genetic differentiation characteristic of the Mindanao populations could be attributed to more complex circulation patterns south of the NEC bifurcation, which could affect larval dispersal, mortality, and recruitment at varying spatial and temporal scales. Eddies (e.g. the Mindanao Eddy) resulting from largescale oceanographic phenomena such as the NEC can alter connectivity of populations both spatially and temporally. Moreover, coastlines along the Mindanao Current are characterized by greater complexity (higher rugosity) relative to coastlines in the northern (Kuroshio) regions (Magno 2005). Greater coastal complexity may translate to higher potential for wake and eddy formation, which may serve as retention-favorable areas for planktonic propagules (reviewed by Sponaugle et al. 2002).

The strong flow of tidal currents through straits may act as additional barriers to longshore dispersal along the southeastern Philippine coast. Turbulent mixing through narrow, shallow straits may also influence dispersal and recruitment of propagules. In particular, differentiation between proximal reef populations of Tridacna crocea from Balicuatro and Masbate may arise from variable dispersal and recruitment success as a result of the inflow of water from the Philippine Sea into the Visayan Sea. Similar population genetic differentiation between these 2 reefs was previously reported for the sea urchin Tripneustes gratilla (Malay et al. 2002). Likewise, strong tidal currents flowing through the Surigao Strait, coupled with the high rugosity of coastlines in the area, may affect larval dispersal, entrainment potential, and recruitment at Homonhon and Dinagat reefs. Despite the short distances separating these 3 populations (~70 to 90 km between HOM and DIN-1 and DIN-2, and 20 km between DIN-1 and DIN-2), overall  $F_{\rm ST}$  values exceeded values of all 15 populations spanning the ~1400 km range of the eastern Philippine seaboard ( $F_{ST} = 0.135$  and 0.069, respectively).

Weaker genetic connectivity among Mindanao current populations could not be attributed to geographical

0.35

0.30

0.25

0.20

0.15

0.10

Pairwise  $F_{\rm ST}$ 

0

sampling effects, i.e. larger spatial scales covered by the Mindanao populations (~800 km). The Kuroshio samples covered a spatial range of ~400 km ( $F_{\rm ST}$  range = 0.006 to 0.083, mean = 0.036). Greater pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values for Mindanao populations separated by 400 km were observed ( $F_{ST}$  range = 0.015 to 0.2284, mean = 0.079) (Fig. 3). However, the strong genetic differentiation of the Homonhon population from the rest of the samples largely contributed to this result (Fig. 2). The resulting pattern of HOM as an outlier population may be attributed to accentuated genetic drift in smaller populations. The small sample size (n = 24) reflects the notably lower population density of Tridacna crocea at the Homonhon site relative to other reef sites sampled, which may be due to limited available suitable substrate, i.e. limited calcareous substrates at Homonhon (M. Juinio-Meñez pers. obs.). Alternatively, small population size may be due to variable reproductive and recruitment success owing to strong variability in hydrographic conditions, which results from turbulent mixing and complex hydrographic circulation in the area.

Despite the expected homogenizing effect of planktonic larval dispersal by strong, persistent current flows downstream of the NEC bifurcation along the eastern Philippine seaboard, fine-scale genetic differentiation (chaotic patchiness) was observed for Tridacna crocea populations within Kuroshio and Mindanao Current regions ( $F_{ST}$  within regions = 0.025 and 0.056, respectively). This result is consistent with previous reports of conspecific populations from the South China Sea and Sulu Sea reefs (Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003), and contrasts with earlier population genetic studies of other tridacnid species, which revealed little genetic differentiation over broader geographic scales (reviewed by Juinio-Meñez et al. 2003). Locus-specific heterozygote deficiencies (in this case GPI-1<sup>\*</sup>) is a pattern frequently observed in bivalves (Luttikhuizen et al. 2003 and references therein), and may be attributed to genotype scoring errors, as well as to biological/reproductive factors e.g. genetic differences between cohorts, differential selection, and subpopulation structure (Wahlund effect). Exclusion of the GPI-1\* locus did not appreciably change the results of the present study, and thus this locus was included in the analysis.

In summary, the north-south geographic structure of *Tridacna crocea* populations along the eastern Philippine seaboard is broadly concordant with the flow of predominant oceanographic currents, reflecting the influence of the NEC bifurcation on the restriction of larval dispersal, which shapes population divergence as a result of random genetic drift. However, the influence of local selection at allozyme loci on the shaping of the observed spatial structure cannot be discounted, i.e. variations at allozyme loci may not be neutral. Correlation between allele frequencies and clinal variations

in physical factors, notably temperature and salinity (reviewed by Eanes 1999), points to the role of selection in maintaining polymorphism at allozyme loci. Moreover, the influence of selection at allozyme loci in marine invertebrates has been demonstrated via comparison of genetic differentiation patterns with markers that are presumably neutrally evolving, e.g. mitochondrial DNA or microsatellites (e.g. Dufresne et al. 2004, Veliz et al. 2004). Nonetheless, concordance of genetic patterns observed for T. crocea with those of other marine taxa (Magsino 2004), as well as with biogeographic patterns in reef fish community structure (Aliño & Gomez 1993), suggests that these patterns were in part shaped by biogeographic barriers to gene flow. However, the location of the biogeographic break may span a wide latitudinal range for various marine taxa, owing to the temporal and spatial variability in flow strength and bifurcation latitude of the NEC (Qiu & Lukas 1996). The historical origin of this biogeographic pattern, i.e. long-term restrictions to larval dispersal over geological time-frames, is suggested by tectonic reconstructions (Hall 1998) but cannot be confirmed by allozyme data. Direct analyses of intraspecific phylogenies based on DNA sequence data (phylogeographic analyses) may provide better estimates of relative timescales of genetic divergence between the Kuroshio and Mindanao groups. In contrast, fine-scale genetic differentiation suggests that small-scale (temporal and spatial) physical processes affect larval dispersal and recruitment along the eastern Philippine seaboard.

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