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# Evolution of larval development in marine gastropods



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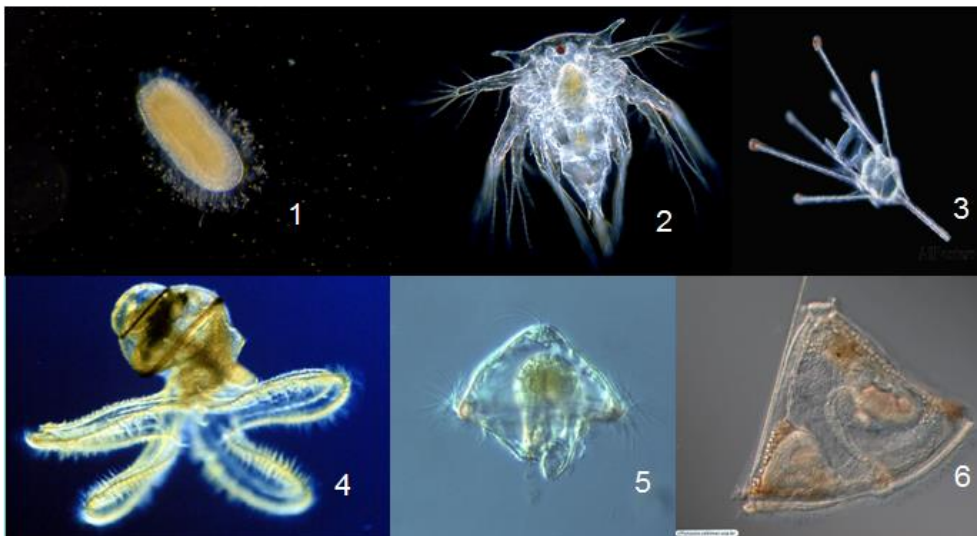
## Table of content

<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>4</b>
<b>References</b> .....	<b>15</b>
<b>CHAPTER I</b> .....	<b>19</b>
<b>Do larval types affect genetic connectivity at sea? Testing hypothesis in two sibling marine gastropods with contrasting larval development</b> .....	<b>20</b>
Introduction .....	20
Material and methods .....	21
Results .....	25
Discussion .....	26
References .....	28
<b>An assessment of the genus <i>Columbella</i> Lamarck, 1799 (Gastropoda: Columbellidae) from eastern Atlantic</b> .....	<b>30</b>
Introduction .....	31
Material and Methods .....	31
Results .....	32
Systematics .....	36
Discussion .....	43
References .....	43
<b>CHAPTER II</b> .....	<b>46</b>
<b>An assessment of <i>Raphitoma</i> and allied genera (Neogastropoda: Raphitomidae)</b> .....	<b>47</b>
Introduction .....	48
Material and Methods .....	53
Results .....	55
Discussion .....	58
References .....	67
Supplementary Figures .....	71
<b>Genetic evidence of poecilogony in Neogastropoda: implications for the systematics of the genus <i>Raphitoma</i> Bellardi, 1847</b> .....	<b>80</b>
Introduction .....	82
Materials and methods .....	84
Results .....	87
Discussion .....	89
References .....	103
Tables and Figures .....	110

<b>CHAPTER III.....</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>Biogeographic analysis of loss of planktotrophy in the mud whelks (Gastropoda, Nassariidae) .....</b>	<b>122</b>
Introduction.....	122
Materials and methods .....	124
Results .....	126
Discussion .....	128
References.....	130
Tables and Figures.....	133
<b>CHAPTER IV .....</b>	<b>143</b>
<b>Whelks, rock-snails and allied: the evolution of larval development within a new phylogenetic framework for the family Muricidae (Mollusca: Gastropoda) .....</b>	<b>144</b>
Introduction.....	144
Materials and methods .....	146
Results .....	150
Discussion .....	153
References.....	155
Tables and Figures.....	160
<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>168</b>
References.....	171
<b>OTHER PUBLICATIONS .....</b>	<b>172</b>

## Introduction

In marine habitats, benthic invertebrates usually have adult phases with relatively small dispersal ability, ranging from sessile Polychaeta or Bivalvia, to the slow Echinodermata, until the more vagile Crustacea. In the marine realm, connectivity among populations of benthic invertebrates is provided primarily by dispersion of larvae, or propagules, in the first life stages, given the small dispersal ability of the adult organisms. Almost all marine phyla comprise organisms that are provided with a planktonic stage in the first phases of life (e.g.: the parenchymula in Porifera, the free-swimming planula in Cnidaria, the cydippid in Ctenophora, Muller's and Gotte's larvae in Platyhelminthes, pilidium and planuliform larvae in Nemertea, cyphonauta in Bryozoa, trocophora in Annelida and Polychaeta, pseudotrocophora and veliger in Mollusca, nauplius in Crustacea and various larvae in Echinodermata: Argano et al., 2007; Young et al., 2002).



**Figure 1.** Examples of planktonic larvae: 1. Planula of Cnidaria (Craggs & Robson, 2012); 2. Nauplius of Crustacea (Wim Van Egmond, Science Photo Library); 3. Echinopluteus of Echinodermata (Wim Van Egmond, Science Photo Library); 4. Veliger of Gastropoda (©Peter Parks); 5. Trocophore of Annelida (T.C. Lacalli, University of Saskatchewan); 6. Cyphonauta of Bryozoa (Alvaro E. Migotto, <http://www.usp.br/cbm/oceano/>)

Dispersal is the movement of individual organisms, in the form of adult, larva, egg or gamete, from their birthplace to other locations for breeding. This process has impact at the community, species, and lineage level (Ellingson & Krug, 2015). At ecological time scales, dispersal can affect population size and persistence (Hansson, 1991), as well as metacommunity structure and diversity (Bie et al.,

2012; Jones et al., 2015). Over evolutionary time, dispersal can influence genetic diversity (Méndez et al., 2014), range size (Kubisch et al., 2014), and diversification rate of a lineage (Krug et al., 2015). The process can last differently and it is under the influence of the characteristic of larvae, used as proxy of dispersal since direct measurement of dispersal can be difficult in marine invertebrates, and ends through a competence stage followed by the settlement in a suitable environment (Pineda et al., 2007). The larval development is a key feature in the ecology and biology of marine species, that influences population connectivity, areal occupation, species persistence and genetic structure (Cowen & Sponaugle, 2009; L. A. Levin, 2006).

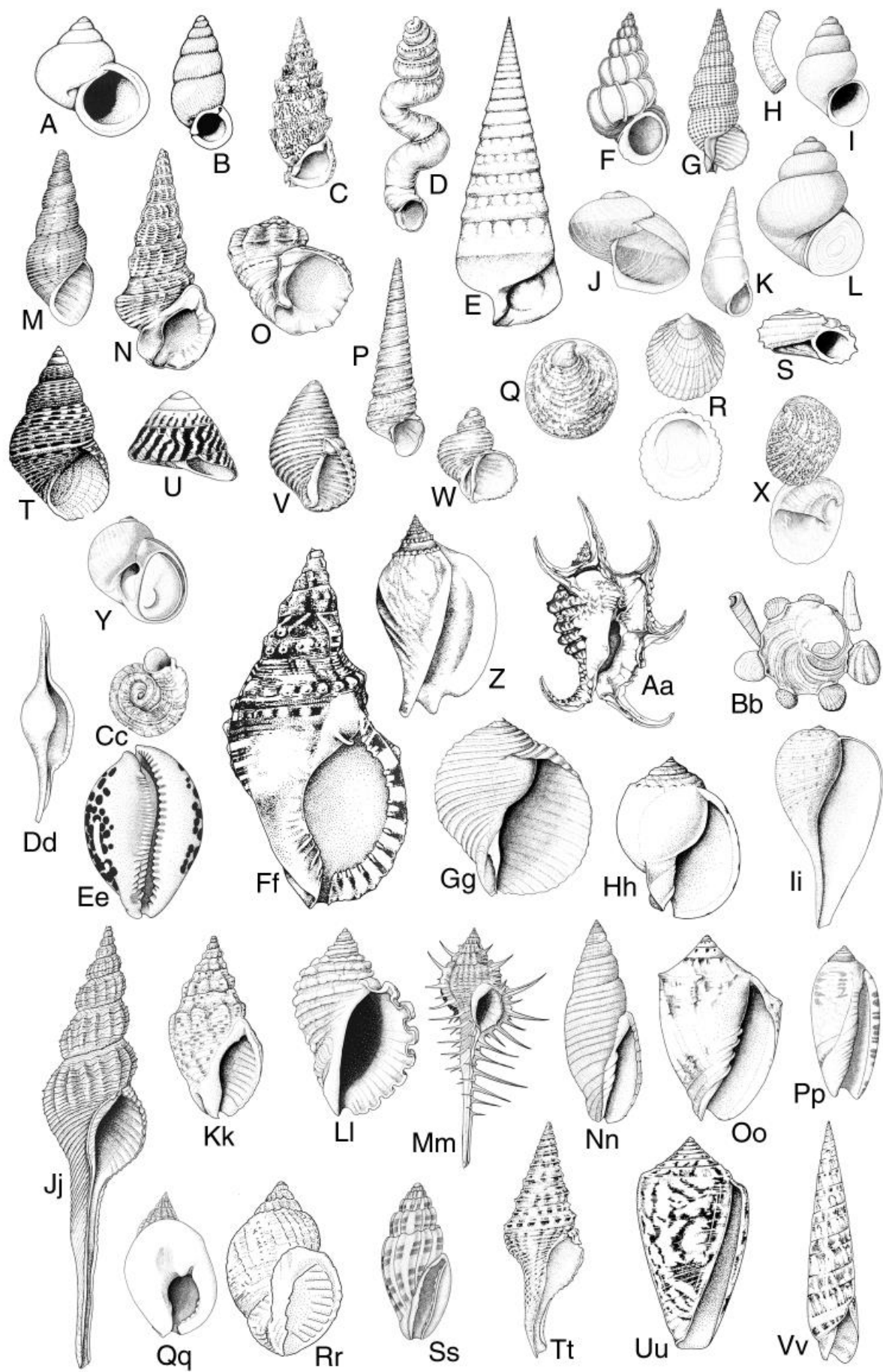
In marine gastropods the larval development is a very important character due to a reduced mobility of the adult, in comparison with the potential dispersal range of the larvae.

In this taxon the various larval developmental strategies can be divided in two major types, Planktotrophic (P) and Non-Planktotrophic (NP) as first categorized and described by Thorson (1950) (Grahame & Branch, 1985; Levin & Bridges TS, 1995; Strathmann, 1978, 1985; Wray & Raff, 1991). The Planktotrophic larvae lead a free life in the water column and can swim and actively feed, mostly on phytoplankton. This stage persists in time for weeks or months, but can in some cases last until one year (Strathmann & Strathmann, 2007) before settling. Planktotrophy requires low quantity of parental resources for the larvae, that are originated by small eggs and with little or no yolk. This allows the production of very high numbers of offspring that have a stronger dispersal ability due to the long life. The larvae are strictly dependent on the environmental trophic availability and are exposed to predators.

The Non-Planktotrophic larval development includes lecithotrophic larvae and intracapsular development. In the intracapsular development the embryos and then the larvae develop entirely inside egg capsules, usually fixed to the bottom. Lecithotrophic larvae have pelagic life in the water column but with no active feeding on phytoplankton. The larvae feed only on yolk reserves and have usually lost some or all the specific feeding structures, like the velum, large ciliated lobes able to carry the food particles towards the mouth. Non-planktotrophic development requires high energy to produce the large amount of yolk of the eggs. This results in a lower number of individuals produced with a relatively short duration of the pelagic phase, directly correlated with the amount of yolk reserve. The shorter life of the larval stage results also in a reduced dispersal potential compared to planktotrophy. Despite this, an advantage for this kind of larval development is the independence of larvae from the food availability of the external environment.

The so-called Thorson's Rule (Mileikovsky, 1971) stated that at low latitudes the planktotrophic development is favoured by the constant amount of phyto- and zooplankton, whereas at higher latitudes, the non-planktotrophic development is favoured because of the high instability of the environment and the scarcity of resources, often available only in short periods during the year.

Caenogastropoda, Cox 1960, is an accepted subclass of Gastropoda (WoRMS - Appeltans et al., 2012) that comprises the large orders of Neogastropoda (mud whelks, rock shells, oyster drills, dove shells, tritons, miters, cone shells), and Littorinimorpha (periwinkles, cowries, creepers, slipper limpets, tuns, helmet shells, strombs, moon snails). The taxon comprises about 60% of living gastropod species and includes a large number of ecologically and commercially important marine families, worldwide distributed. Caenogastropods have undergone an extraordinary adaptive radiation, resulting in considerable morphological, ecological, physiological, and behavioural diversity. There is a wide array of often convergent shell morphologies, with the typically coiled shell being tall-spired to globose or flattened, with some uncoiled or limpet-like and others with the shells reduced or, rarely, lost (Ponder et al., 2008).

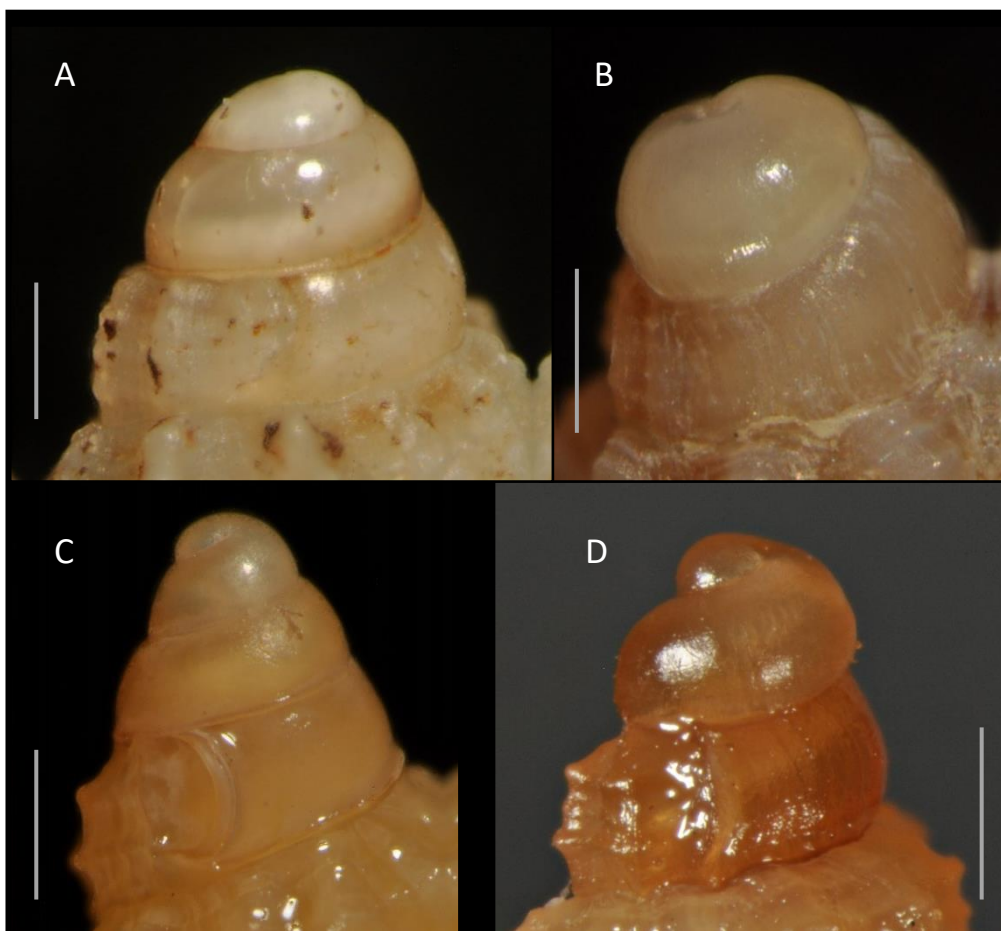


**Figure 2.** Shells of some Recent caenogastropods showing the range of morphology. (A) *Leptopoma* (Cyclophoridae); (B) *Pupinella* (Pupinidae); (C) *Pseudovertagus* (Cerithiidae); (D) *Tenagodus* (Siliquariidae); (E) *Campanile* (Campanilidae); (F) *Epitonium* (Epitoniidae); (G) *Ataxocerithium* (Newtoniellidae); (H) *Caecum* (Caecidae); (I) *Austropyrgus* (Hydrobiidae *sensu lato*); (J) *Janthina* (Janthinidae); (K) *Monogamus* (Eulimidae); (L) *Gabbia* (Bithyniidae); (M) *Melanoides* (Thiaridae); (N) *Pyrazus* (Batillariidae); (O) *Modulus* (Modulidae); (P) *Colpospira* (Turritellidae); (Q) *Capulus* (Capulidae); (R) *Sabia* (Hipponicidae); (S) *Circulus* (Vitrinellidae); (T) *Littoraria* (Littorinidae); (U) *Bembicium* (Littorinidae); (V) *Planaxis* (Planaxidae); (W) *Sirius* (Capulidae); (X) *Crepidula* (Calyptraeidae); (Y) *Notocochlis* (Naticidae); (Z) *Strombus* (Strombidae); (Aa) *Lambis* (Strombidae); (Bb) *Xenophora* (Xenophoridae); (Cc) *Serpularbis* (Vermetidae); (Dd) *Volva* (Ovulidae); (Ee) *Cypraea* (Cypraeidae); (Ff) *Charonia* (Ranellidae); (Gg) *Tonna* (Tonnidae); (Hh) *Semicassis* (Cassidae); (Ii) *Ficus* (Ficidae); (Jj) *Fusinus* (Fasciolaridae); (Kk) *Cominella* (Buccinidae); (Ll) *Dicathais* (Muricidae); (Mm) *Murex* (Muricidae); (Nn) *Cancilla* (Mitridae); (Oo) *Cymbiola* (Volutidae); (Pp) *Oliva* (Olividae); (Qq) *Nassarius* (Nassariidae); (Rr) *Cancellaria* (Cancellariidae); (Ss) *Eucithara* (Turridae *sensu lato*); (Tt) *Lophiotoma* (Turridae); (Uu) *Conus* (Conidae); (Vv) *Terebra* (Terebridae). Not to scale. From Ponder et al., 2008

Primitive gastropods were (and still are) characterised by a lecithotrophic pelagic development (Nutzell, 2014; Nutzell et al., 2006). Larval planktotrophy evolved one or two times in gastropods, in Caenogastropoda and Heterobranchia, respectively. There is robust evidence that larval planktotrophy has supported and possibly also driven the radiation of caenogastropods. A planktotrophic development is the plesiomorphic state of almost all Caenogastropoda lineages. The loss of larval planktotrophy has occurred repeatedly during the evolution of the taxon. Indeed, the larval development is to be considered as a very plastic feature in caenogastropods and sibling species differing only or mostly in larval developmental type (e.g.: planktotrophic v. non-planktotrophic) are a common phenomenon in most of the major family of the subclass, like Nassariidae, Raphitomidae, Muricidae, Columbelloidea, Conidae, Calyptraeidae, Rissoidae etc. (Collin, 2001; Galindo et al., 2016; Giannuzzi-Savelli et al., 2018a; Modica et al., 2017; Oliverio, 1996a; Pusateri et al., 2012, 2013). Once lost, the reacquisition of planktotrophy is considered a very difficult and thus rare phenomenon, and largely excluded in Caenogastropoda (Strathmann, 1978). Loss or reduction of the complex larval structures for feeding and swimming in the plankton and the likely degeneration of the genetic machinery that supports their development is commonly regarded as very likely irreversible. Once lost, the difficulty of re-evolving a set of structures that function effectively for feeding and swimming makes it unlikely that feeding larvae will be reacquired from an ancestor with non-planktotrophic development (Collin et al., 2007). However, very few such cases of reversal (reacquisition of a lost plesiomorphic character) have been found in marine invertebrates: in Polychaeta (Rouse, 2000) and in three families of Caenogastropoda, Littorinidae (Reid, 1989), Calyptraeidae (Collin et al., 2007) and in the Muricidae (Pappalardo et al., 2014). The mechanism underlying the reacquisition of larval planktotrophy is still largely unknown.

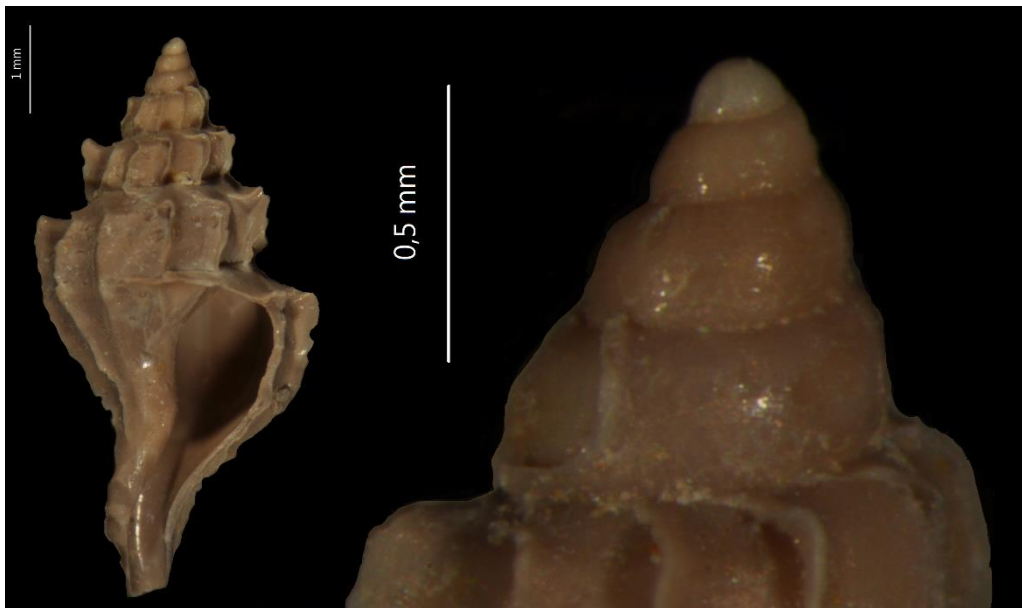


The mode of larval development of a shelled gastropod (and bivalve) is reflected in the morphology of the protoconch (prodissoconch in bivalves) (Jablonski & Lutz, 1983; Rex & Warén, 1982; Shuto, 1974; Thorson, 1950) frequently preserved at the tip of the adult shell (teleoconch). This allows for the inference of many developmental features based on the comparative study of the protoconchs. By the morphology of the protoconch, developmental types can be mainly classified into two main types (Bouchet, 1990; Jablonski & Lutz, 1983; Shuto, 1974). The planktotrophic development, due to a longer life of larvae, produces a multispiral relatively thin protoconch of 2-5 whorls, often decorated with elaborated sculpture and a general tapered aspect (Figure 3. A and C). The non-planktotrophic development, where the larvae have a shorter life, produces a paucispiral large and stouter protoconch of 1-2 whorls with a simpler sculpture or no sculpture at all and an irregular and stocky general aspect (Figure 3. B and D).



**Figure 3.** Protoconch of sibling species: multispiral protoconch (A) of *Phrontis alba* and paucispiral protoconch (B) of *Phrontis* sp. (Nassariidae). Multispiral protoconch (C) of *Murex tenuirostrum* and paucispiral protoconch (D) of *Murex africanus* (Muricidae). Russini V.

Shelled gastropods provide unique sources of data for the study of the evolution of larval development, allowing for the study of the same characters in extant and fossil lineages (Nutzell, 2014; Shuto, 1974). With the systematics of shelled gastropods based mostly on morphological character as shell, anatomy and radula (when genetic information is lacking), the protoconch was an important taxonomic character also for species identification (Oliverio, 1996b; Pusateri et al., 2013).



**Figure 4.** Teleoconch and multispiral protoconch of fossil specimens of *Flexopteron foliacea* (Melleville, 1843) (Muricidae), Ypresian, MNHN fossil collection. Russini V.

Poecilogony is defined as the intraspecific variation in developmental mode, with different larvae (e.g., free-swimming planktotrophic and brooded lecithotrophic) produced by the same individual, population or species. Since the first observation by Giard (1905) it has always been subject of considerable studies and discussions. It has been hypothesized (Hoagland & Robertson, 1988) that differences in egg size could be involved in this rare phenomenon (e.g., small eggs destined to planktotrophic development and large eggs that develop into non-planktotrophic larvae), or embryo size (e.g., some embryos consume nurse eggs but others do not). Poecilogony has been described in only a few groups of marine invertebrates (Knott & McHugh, 2012), whereas it has been long assumed that developmental strategies are strongly constrained within a species, and that poecilogony is not sufficiently documented in marine invertebrates (Hoagland & Robertson, 1988). In a landmark review for gastropods, Bouchet (1989) excluded the existence of intraspecific variation in the mode of larval development (poecilogony), in the Caenogastropoda. Following this

assumption, the protoconch became often the only species identification character for sibling species, e.g. species identical in general morphology, that differ only in larval development (and thus larval shell morphology). Poecilogony has been so far documented with certainty only in a few groups of marine invertebrates as sacoglossan sea slugs (Krug, 2009), spionid polychaetes (Blake & Arnofsky, 1999), and just one case in caenogastropods, in the genus *Calyptraea* (Calyptraeidae: Mcdonald et al., 2014). Most marine invertebrates groups show evidence of evolutionary transitions in the larval phenotype, almost in all cases in terms of loss of planktotrophy, which occurred repeatedly in many lineages of marine caenogastropods (Oliverio, 1996b). The mechanisms underlying both the evolutionary transitions and the intraspecific variation are still largely unknown.

Given this background, some evolutionary issues have arisen about the change of larval development in Caenogastropoda. Are there any evolutionary patterns in these changes across phylogenetic lineages? Since modes of larval development of marine invertebrates are not homogeneously distributed in oceans (Strathmann & Strathmann, 1982; Thorson, 1950), can the changes in larval development be related to certain environmental condition or particular geographic area? The main purpose of this thesis is to investigate the evolution of larval development in some groups of gastropods, in order to clarify some aspect still less known in marine gastropods, as the bearing of larval development on population connectivity, the actual presence of poecilogony in Neogastropoda and the evolutionary pattern of development across lineages.

In this PhD research I have studied some of the major aspects of the evolution of larval development using four groups of Caenogastropoda, and the thesis is divided in four chapters, following a logic thread from particular to general.

The project started with the question on the bearing of different larval developmental strategies on connectivity among populations. To test the larval development influences connectivity, I have analysed populations of a pair of sibling species of marine gastropods, *Columbella rustica* and *Columbella adansoni*, allopatric species, that share a very similar adult shell and differ almost only in their larval development.

By analysing the sequence variation of the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI), I found that *Columbella adansoni*, the Atlantic species with planktotrophic development and multispiral protoconch, showed no phylogeographic structure, lower levels of genetic diversity, interpopulational variance lower than the intrapopulational one and no spatial structure in the distribution of the genetic diversity; *Columbella rustica*, the species with lecithotrophic

development, thus with evidently lower dispersal abilities, showed a clear phylogeographic structure, higher levels of genetic diversity, high interpopulational and low intrapopulational variance, and a clear signature of global spatial structure in the distribution of the genetic diversity. These species belong to a complex of at least three cryptic species, where the sister to the studied pair is the West-African *Columbella xiphitella*, identified during this study, with a planktotrophic development.

Then, I have investigated the presence of pairs of sibling species in another group of marine neogastropods, the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847 (Raphitomidae: Conoidea). This genus is largely present in the Mediterranean Sea and the North-East Atlantic and several pairs of sibling species have been reported by morphological studies.

The chapter is divided in two studies. In the first work a new phylogenetic framework was reconstructed for the family Raphitomidae Bellardi, 1875, with over fifty extant species recently estimated in Mediterranean area (Giannuzzi-Savelli et al., 2018b), aimed to delimit the actual scope of the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847. In this genus several pairs of species with contrasting larval developments have been identified. The systematic revision was based on three mitochondrial molecular markers: cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI), ribosomal 12S and 16S. The work allowed to clarify the systematic position of the species formerly ascribed to the genus *Raphitoma* and to delimit its scope and the set of species to study in the next step.

The aims of the second study were to reconstruct the relationships among *Raphitoma* species, to confirm or deny the pairs of sibling species, and to date the events of loss of planktotrophy across the lineages. The analyses were based on molecular data (the mitochondrial COI, 16S, 12S and the nuclear Internal transcribed spacer, ITS2). The results confirmed one pair of sibling species previously recognised morphologically. Two other such pairs (*Raphitoma philberti*-*R. locardi* and *R. laviae*-*R. bartolinorum*) were instead identified as two poecilogonous species, with syntopic specimens with different development, genetically indistinguishable. This study represents the first documented case of poecilogony in the Neogastropoda, the second in the whole Caenogastropoda (after the work of McDonald et al., 2014 that described poecilogony in *Calyptraea lichen* Broderip, 1834).

Once provided further evidence of the plasticity of larval development in the Caenogastropoda, the evolutionary patterns across lineages were the next topic of my studies. To investigate how larval development changed – for instance - throughout a family, I needed a robustly resolved phylogeny

and the knowledge of the larval development of a vast majority of the species in the family. For these reasons I started with a family recently revised for its phylogenetic framework, with larval development known for a high number of species, to attempt assessing the ancestral state of the character and dating the relevant changes across the tree.

The third chapter concern thus, the study of the evolution of larval development within the phylogenetic lineages of one important family of Caenogastropoda, the Nassariidae. Thanks to a recent large phylogenetic analysis of this family performed by Galindo et al. (2016), it has been possible to analyse the variation of larval development across the family's tree. The phylogeny has been dated by setting as calibration points twelve reliable fossil records. Then larval development was inferred for a large number of species. Two methods have been adopted to investigate the evolution of larval development in the family. In the first method, the change of larval development was constrained in coincidence with the nodes that lead to species with different larval developmental types. In the second method I have used a statistical tool in R (phytools) that estimated the events of loss of planktotrophy along the branches. The results of both analyses were largely congruent and suggested that the frequencies of loss of planktotrophy events varied statistically between biogeographic regions. Higher relative frequency occurred in the Atlantic and Mediterranean areas, the Caribbean region and South America (compared to the Indo-Pacific). Conversely, no significant variation was detected between different geological epochs. Geological history from the Paleogene of these biogeographic regions suggest that their long time of instability may have promoted geographic confinement of species (GCH) with increase of loss of planktotrophy.

The fourth and final chapter of this thesis presents a similar study on the family Muricidae. First, a complete phylogenetic reconstruction was made gathering all the data available on public databases along with new original data to make a complete phylogenetic framework for the evolution of larval development. The phylogeny has been dated with twelve calibration points obtained from as many reliable fossils record. Once a complete phylogenetic framework was available, the larval development was inferred for a large number of species. The evolution of larval development was estimated using the statistical tool in R (phytools), dating the events of loss of planktotrophy along the branches. The results clarified the systematic of this large and important family and the position and scope of each subfamily. The study proved that reversals in the evolution of larval development (from non-planktotrophic to planktotrophic), commonly excluded in marine invertebrates, occurred in two major subfamilies, Muricinae s.s. and Muricopsinae s.s.. The

secondary re-acquisition of a planktotrophic larval development is anyway a very rare phenomenon, and in marine invertebrates only a few cases remain documented: in Polychaetes (Rouse, 2000) and in three family of Caenogastropoda: Littorinidae (Reid, 1989), Calyptraeidae (Rachel Collin et al., 2007) and Muricidae (Pappalardo et al., 2014; and this work).

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# Chapter I

- Do larval types affect genetic connectivity at sea? Testing hypothesis in two sibling marine gastropods with contrasting larval development.
- An assessment of the genus *Columbella* Lamarck, 1799 (Gastropoda: Columbellidae) from eastern Atlantic.



# Do larval types affect genetic connectivity at sea? Testing hypothesis in two sibling marine gastropods with contrasting larval development



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## ABSTRACT

In marine environments, connectivity among populations of benthic invertebrates is provided primarily by dispersion of larvae, with the duration of pelagic larval phase (PLD) supposed to represent one of the major factor affecting connectivity. In marine gastropods, PLD is linked to specific larval development types, which may be entirely intracapsular (thus lacking a pelagic dispersal), or include a short pelagic lecithotrophic or a long planktotrophic phase.

In the present study, we investigated two sibling species of the cosmopolitan neogastropod genus *Columbella* (commonly known as dove shells): *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, from the Macaronesian Atlantic archipelagos, with planktotrophic development, and *Columbella rustica* Linnaeus, 1758, from the Mediterranean Sea, with intracapsular development.

We expected to find differences between these two sister species, in terms of phylogeographic structure, levels of genetic diversification and spatial distribution of genetic diversity, if PLD was actually a relevant factor affecting connectivity.

By analysing the sequence variation at the cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I (COI) in 167 specimens of the two species, collected over a comparable geographic range, we found that *Columbella adansoni*, the species with planktotrophic development, and thus longer PLD, showed no phylogeographic structure, lower levels of genetic diversity, interpopulational variance lower than the intrapopulational one and no spatial structure in the distribution of the genetic diversity; *Columbella rustica*, the species with intracapsular development, thus with evidently lower dispersal abilities, showed a clear phylogeographic structure, higher levels of genetic diversity, high interpopulational and low intrapopulational variance, and a clear signature of global spatial structure in the distribution of the genetic diversity.

Thus, in this study, two sibling species differing almost only in their larval ecology (and PLD), when compared for their genetic variation showed patterns supporting the hypothesis that PLD is a major factor affecting genetic connectivity.

Therefore, it seems reasonable to expect that the ecological attributes of the marine communities – also in terms of the variation in larval ecology of the species involved – are taken into the due consideration in conservation actions, like the design of marine protected areas networks.

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## 1. Introduction

Population connectivity is a key feature of organisms, influencing their genetic variability, persistence, genetic structure and range expansion, and as such has increasingly been investigated in

the last years in different taxa (Cowen et al., 2000; Hellberg, 2009; Hastings and Botsford, 2006; Lowe and Allendorf, 2010; Weber et al., 2015). Clarifying the extent at which populations are connected allows the understanding of evolutionary and ecological processes shaping the distribution of individuals through their range, disentangling the effects of historical patterns and local adaptations (Laine, 2005; Sanford and Kelly, 2011). Additionally, connectivity studies are crucial to implement effective conservation and management strategies both in terrestrial and in marine environments (Webster et al., 2002; Palumbi, 2003; Shanks et al.,

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2003; Crooks and Sanjayan, 2006; Jones et al., 2007; Allendorf et al., 2010; Rabinowitz and Zeller, 2010; Funk et al., 2012).

In marine benthic invertebrates, dispersal is generally addressed by the earliest life history stages, while the adult stage is only slightly mobile, or even sessile (Knowlton and Jackson, 1993; Cowen and Sponaugle, 2009; Ellingson and Krug, 2015). Major factors affecting connectivity include both extrinsic (habitat characteristics and currents) and intrinsic factors, such as larval mortality, settlement competency features, and the duration of pelagic larval phase (PLD, the length of time that larva spends in water column before settling). The latter parameter is the most frequently used proxy of dispersal, since direct measurement of dispersal can be difficult in marine invertebrates. Early studies highlighted the presence of a correlation (with some exceptions) between PLD and dispersal distance (Shanks et al., 2003; Shanks, 2009; Siegel et al., 2003), although PLD is often assessed in laboratory settings that may not accurately represent actual conditions that larvae experiment in their natural environment (e.g.: Tyler and Young, 1999; Selkoe and Toonen, 2011; Villanueva et al., 2016).

The prediction that species with planktonic larvae displaying a longer PLD and larger dispersal kernels should also possess a lower level of genetic structure when compared with species lacking a dispersal phase (e.g. aplanktonic larvae, brooding) is supported by a number of studies (Berger, 1973; Duffy, 1993; Hunt, 1993; Hellberg, 1996; Hoskin, 1997; Arndt and Smith, 1998; Collin, 2001; Dawson et al., 2002; Teske et al., 2007; Sherman et al., 2008; Lee and Boulding, 2009; Steele et al., 2009; Hoffman et al., 2011; Guzmán et al., 2011; Tarnowska et al., 2012; Barbosa et al., 2013; Hoareau et al., 2013; Riginos et al., 2014). Anyway, the suitability of PLD as a good predictor of genetic connectivity has been questioned in a number of other cases, especially for species with a long PLD (Shanks, 2009), highlighting that other factors may have a major impact on connectivity, including habitat differences (Ayre et al., 2009) and past biogeographical events (Edmands, 2001; Marko, 2004).

The influence of PLD and dispersal abilities on genetic structure can be easily tested in most gastropods, as developmental type can be inferred from the structure of the protoconch, the shell produced by the embryo and the larva before metamorphosis or hatching, and commonly retained at the top of the adult shell (Jablonski, 1980; Lima and Lutz, 1990).

In marine gastropods development can, as first described by Thorson (1949), either be entirely intracapsular, or include a pelagic phase during which larvae actively feed on plankton (planktotrophy), barely do so, or rely only on yolk reserves (lecithotrophy). Entirely intracapsular development is realized within the egg capsule, which is generally attached to the sea bottom; the eggs are provided with a large yolk supply and/or individuals may feed on nurse eggs until metamorphosis occurs, hatching as benthic post-larvae. Yolk supply is also exploited by lecithotrophic planktonic larvae, which hatch as free living and spend a reduced time in the water column. Similarly, planktotrophic larvae hatch as free living, but they are able to actively collect phytoplankton using their velum; the life span of these larvae typically extends over weeks or months, and some cases can exceed several years (Strathmann and Strathmann, 2007).

Among Caenogastropoda, a large number of pairs of sibling species are known, differing only in their larval development (planktotrophic v. lecithotrophic), particularly studied in the North-eastern Atlantic (Oliverio, 1996) but well known on a global scale (Oliverio, 1997a). This offers the possibility to study the bearing of larval development on species otherwise very similar in their biology and ecology. In the present study, we investigated the genetic implications of different larval developments in two sibling species of the cosmopolitan neogastropod genus *Columbella*

Lamarck, 1799, currently including 30 recognised species worldwide (Bouchet and Gofas, 2010). This genus has been recently reviewed in the East Atlantic region (Russini et al., 2017) and three species have been clearly identified by molecular data: *Columbella rustica* Linnaeus, 1758, *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, and *Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840. These three species share nearly identical adult shell morphology and anatomical features, occupy the same macrohabitat (all are shallow water, rock dwelling, algae associated, herbivorous), and their ranges do not overlap (Oliverio, 1995; Rolán, 2005; Russini et al., 2017). *C. rustica* is endemic to the Mediterranean Sea and its Atlantic approaches, where it is extremely common in shallow-water rocky habitats; *C. adansoni* inhabits the Macaronesian archipelagos; and *C. xiphitella* lives along East African coast from Ghana to Angola (including Sao Tomé and Príncipe Islands). According to molecular phylogenetic data, *C. rustica* and *C. adansoni* are sister species, whereas *C. xiphitella* is more distantly related (Russini et al., 2017). Planktotrophic larvae (39–73) hatch from the egg capsules of *C. adansoni* from Canary Islands and Cape Verde Islands (Knudsen, 1950, 1995), whereas the capsules of Mediterranean *C. rustica* have been described to contain 40–60 eggs, most of which are nurse eggs to nourish the 1–12 developing embryos (1–2: Franc, 1943; 6–12: Bacci, 1943). The only morphological features allowing separation of *C. rustica* and *C. adansoni* are, in fact, in their protoconchs. In *C. adansoni* the protoconch is multispiral with an evident ‘sinusigera mark’ i.e. a thin sigmoid sinus marking the protoconch-teleoconch boundary, clearly indicating a planktotrophic development (same protoconch of *C. xiphitella* for which a similar planktotrophic development can be inferred). The paucispiral protoconch of *C. rustica* possesses a very peculiar appearance, being irregularly cylindrical with a more or less pronounced apical keel and a flat top; its reduced whorl number, bluntness and the absence of a ‘sinusigera mark’ at the protoconch-teleoconch transition, attest a lecithotrophic development (Oliverio, 1995).

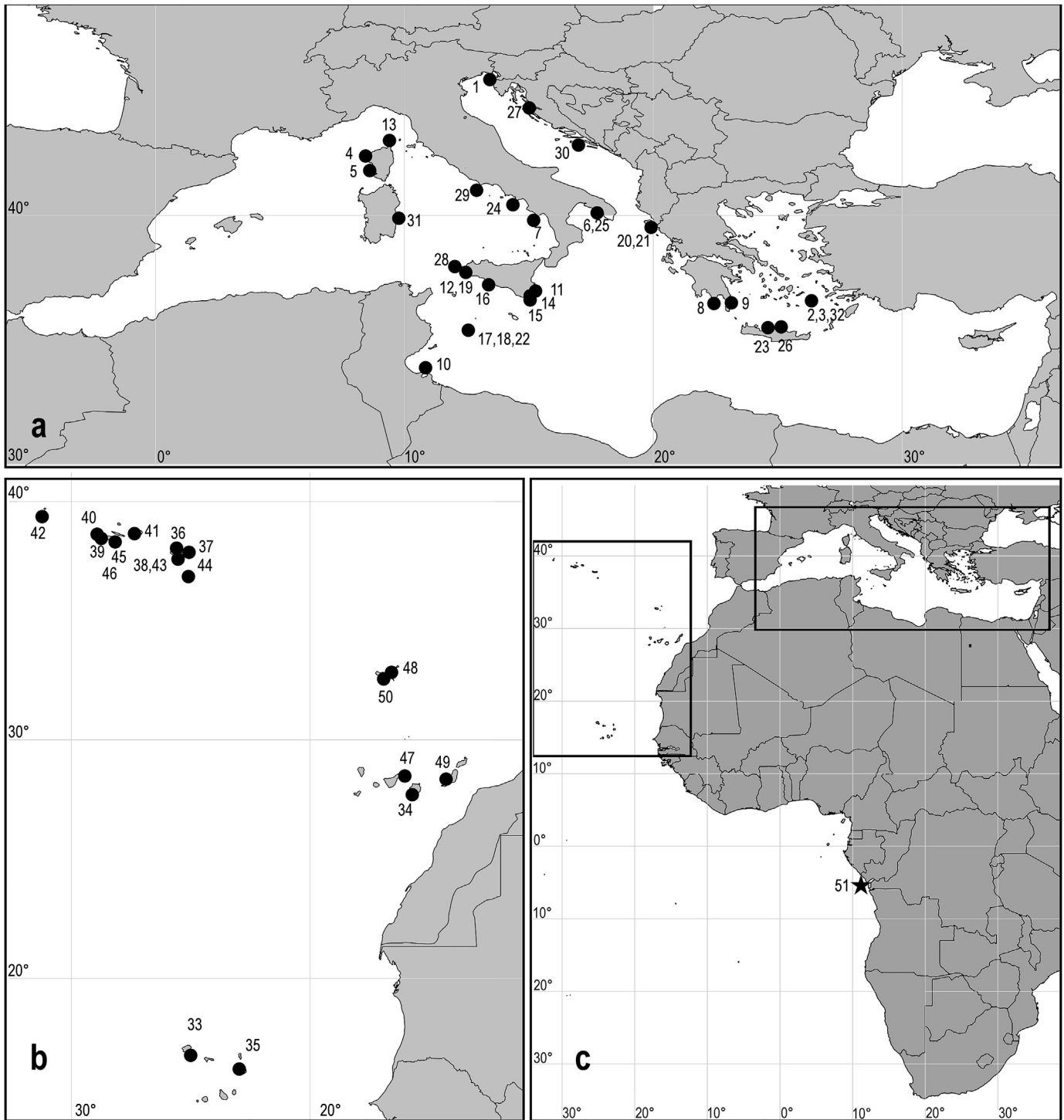
If PLD is a relevant factor affecting connectivity, we expect to find differences between these two sister species, in terms of phylogeographic structure, levels of genetic diversification and spatial distribution of genetic diversity. In particular, the species with planktotrophic development, and thus longer PLD, is expected to show weaker or no phylogeographic structure, lower levels of genetic diversity and no spatial structure in the distribution of the genetic diversity, when compared with the species with lecithotrophic development. The few samples available for the third species, *C. xiphitella*, did not allow their use for the same analyses as in the pair *C. adansoni/C. rustica*; however, they could serve as an optimal outgroup for phylogeographic analyses.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Samples collection and laboratory procedures

We obtained sequences from 99 specimens of *Columbella rustica* from the Mediterranean Sea, and 68 of *C. adansoni* from the Atlantic Ocean, in particular Azores, Madeira, Canary and Cape Verde Islands (Fig. 1). Details of collection localities are reported in Table 1. Sequences of *C. xiphitella* from Gabon were used as outgroup to root trees according to the phylogenetic pattern in Russini et al. (2017).

All specimens were collected in shallow-water rocky bottom, fixed and preserved in 95°–100° ethanol, and vouchers were stored in the Malacological Collection of Department of Biology and Biotechnologies “Charles Darwin” (acronym BAU) at Sapienza University of Rome (Italy). DNA was extracted from a fragment of foot tissue, using a modified phenol-chloroform protocol (Oliverio and Mariottini, 2001). A 658 bp fragment of the mitochondrial COI gene was PCR amplified, using the universal primers LCO1490 and



**Fig. 1.** Location of the sampling sites. **a** Mediterranean Sea (*Columbella rustica*). **b** Macaronesian archipelagos (*C. adansoni*). **c** East Atlantic area, with the sampling site for *C. xiphitella*.

HCO2198 (Folmer et al., 1994). Amplifications were performed in a total reaction volume of 25  $\mu$ l, including 50–500 ng of DNA, 2.5  $\mu$ l of 10x Reaction Buffer, 0.2 mM of dNTP, 1–2.5  $\mu$ l of  $MgCl_2$ , 1  $\mu$ l of BSA, 100 ng of each primer and 2 U of BIOLINE Taq Polymerase. PCR conditions were as follows: initial denaturation step of 5' at 94  $^{\circ}C$ , 35 amplification cycles (denaturation 94 $^{\circ}C/30''$ , annealing 48–52 $^{\circ}C/40''$ , elongation 72 $^{\circ}C/50''$ ), followed by a final elongation

step of 7' at 72  $^{\circ}C$ . PCR products were purified by ExoSAP-IT protocol (USB Corporation, Ohio, USA) and sequenced by Macrogen Inc. (Netherlands). Forward and reverse sequences were assembled, checked for contaminations and stop codons, aligned and edited with Geneious 4.8.5 (Biomatters Ltd.) and MEGA 6 (Tamura et al., 2013), and deposited in the GenBank (accession numbers: KX639827–KX639993).

**Table 1**

Collecting sites of the assayed samples, with BAU ID numbers for the lots. N indicate the number of the collecting site as reported in Fig. 1.

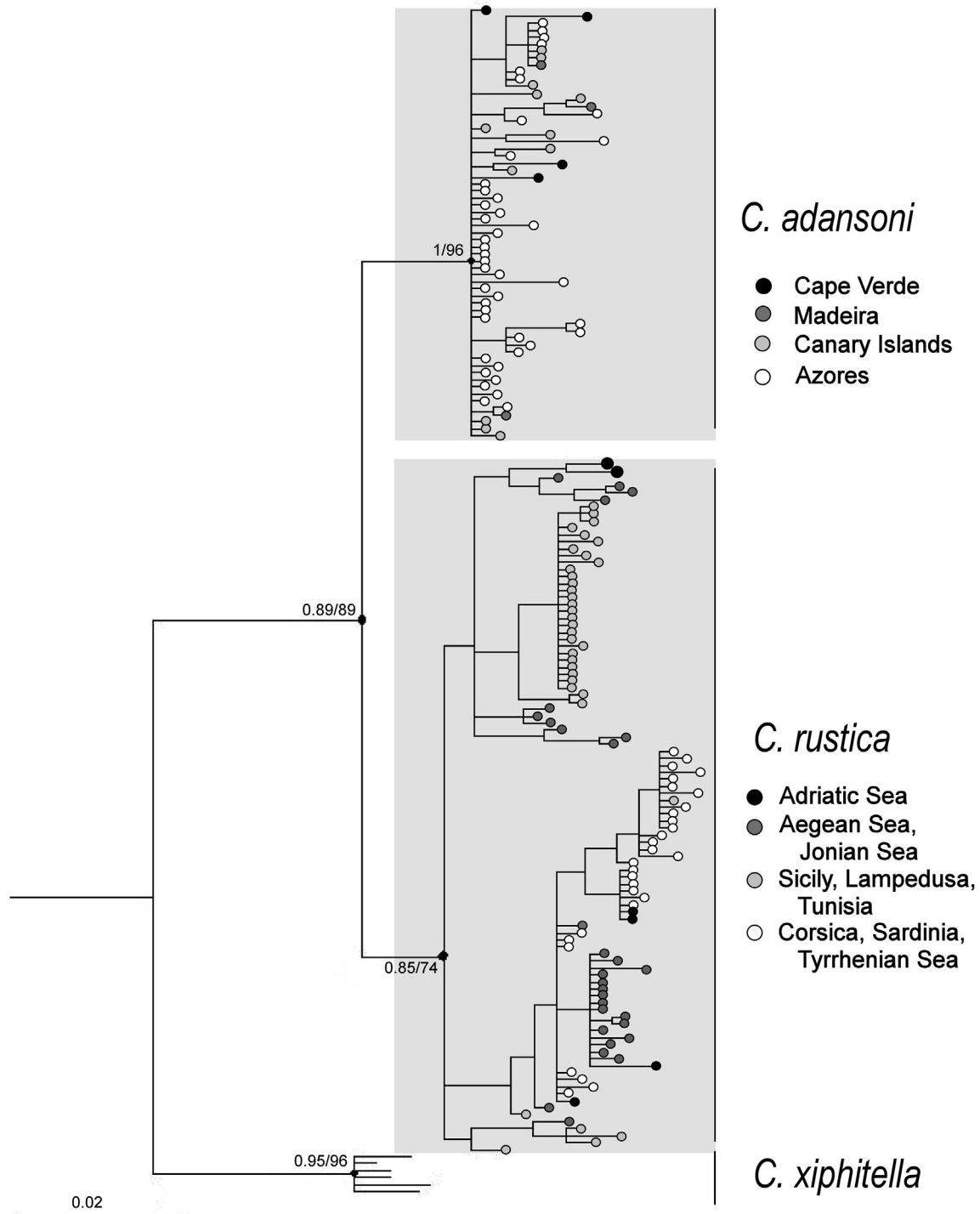
N	ID	Site	Coordinates
<i>Columbella rustica</i>			
1	BAU 1103	Mijiet Is., Croatia	42°45'54"N 017°23'50"E
2	BAU 1493	Analipsi, Astypalea Is., Greece	36°34'25"N 026°23'02"E
3	BAU 1582	Kotsoumiti Is., Greece	36°32'49"N 026°26'36"E
4	BAU 1608	Galeria, Corsica, France	42°25'04"N 008°39'23"E
5	BAU 1629	Tour d'Ancone, Corsica, France	42°02'36"N 008°43'15"E
6	BAU 1670	S. Isidoro, Italy	40°12'16"N 017°55'13"E
7	BAU 1755	Palinuro, Italy	40°01'31"N 015°16'03"E
8	BAU 1758	Simos beach, Elafonissi, Greece	36°28'33"N 022°57'38"E
9	BAU 1779	Cape Tenafé, Greece	36°24'33"N 022°29'29"E
10	BAU 1794	Sidi Jmour, Gabés, Tunisia	33°49'54"N 010°44'51"E
11	BAU 807	Siracusa, Sicily, Italy	36°58'15"N 015°14'55"E
12	BAU 808	Marsala, Sicily, Italy	37°48'10"N 012°25'29"E
13	BAU 811	Giraglia, Corsica, France	43°00'37"N 009°25'27"E
14	BAU 812	Vendicari, Sicily, Italy	36°49'25"N 015°06'31"E
15	BAU 813	Isola delle Correnti, Sicily, Italy	36°38'46"N 015°04'37"E
16	BAU 814	Siculiana, Sicily, Italy	37°20'14"N 013°23'08"E
17	BAU 816	Isola dei conigli, Lampedusa Is., Italy	35°30'35"N 012°33'27"E
18	BAU 817	Cala Greca, Lampedusa Is., Italy	35°30'16"N 012°35'04"E
19	BAU 818	Marsala, Sicily, Italy	37°47'37"N 012°25'52"E
20	BAU 819	Agios Georgios, Kerkyra, Greece	39°43'07"N 019°39'44"E
21	BAU 820	Afiona, Kerkyra, Greece	39°43'19"N 019°39'21"E
22	BAU 821	Cala francese, Lampedusa Is., Italy	35°29'37"N 012°37'21"E
23	BAU 822	Agia Pelagia, Crete, Greece	35°24'31"N 025°01'22"E
24	BAU 823	Napoli harbour, Italy	40°50'01"N 014°15'20"E
25	BAU 824	S. Isidoro, Italy	40°12'16"N 017°55'13"E
26	BAU 825	Lygaria Eraklion, Crete, Greece	35°25'13"N 024°45'16"E
27	BAU 826	Umag, Croatia	45°27'02"N 013°30'45"E
28	BAU 827	Marettimo, Sicily, Italy	37°59'07"N 012°04'13"E
29	BAU 829	Zannone Is., Italy	40°57'52"N 013°03'26"E
30	BAU 830	Starigrad Paklenik, Croatia	44°16'45"N 015°27'11"E
31	BAU 831	Arbatax, Sardinia, Italy	39°55'19"N 009°42'49"E
32	BAU 832	Vai, Astypalea Is., Greece	36°36'13"N 026°23'28"E
<i>Columbella adansoni</i>			
33	BAU 1123	Mindelo, São Vicente Is., Cape Verde Islands	16°54'08"N 025°59'51"W
34	BAU 1124	Arguineguin, Gran Canaria Is., Canary Islands, Spain	27°45'18"N 015°41'04"W
35	BAU 1694	Sal Rei, Boavista Is., Cape Verde Islands	16°10'32"N 022°55'15"W
36	BAU 701	Riberinha, São Miguel Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	37°50'08"N 025°29'01"W
37	BAU 706	Nordeste, São Miguel Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	37°49'20"N 025°08'10"W
38	BAU 708	Caloura, São Miguel Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	37°42'24"N 025°30'31"W
39	BAU 710	Ponta dos Capelinhos, Fajal Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	38°35'30"N 028°49'43"W
40	BAU 713	Ponta de Eira, Fajal Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	38°38'03"N 028°40'23"W
41	BAU 716	Lajes, Pico Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	38°23'26"N 028°15'09"W
42	BAU 718	Santa Cruz, Flores Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	39°27'31"N 031°07'33"W
43	BAU 726	Caloura, São Miguel Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	37°42'24"N 025°30'31"W
44	BAU 728	Ilheu de Vila Franca do Campo, São Miguel Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	37°42'23"N 025°26'32"W
45	BAU 731	Biscoitos, Terceira Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	38°48'12"N 027°15'29"W
46	BAU 741	Portoes de São Pedro, Terceira Is., Azores Islands, Portugal	38°39'17"N 027°13'50"W
47	BAU 802	Puertito de Guimar, Tenerife Is., Canary Islands, Spain	28°17'11"N 016°22'48"W
48	BAU 804	Funchal, Madeira Is., Portugal	32°38'22"N 016°55'24"W
49	BAU 805	Ajuy, Fuerteventura Is., Canary Islands, Spain	28°26'90"N 014°09'17"W
50	BAU 806	São Lourenço, Madeira Is., Portugal	32°44'22"N 016°40'40"W
<i>Columbella xiphitella</i>			
51	BAU 1120	Cape Santa Clara, Libreville, Gabon	0°30'18"N 009°19'07"E

## 2.2. Phylogeographic analyses

Phylogenetic trees for phylogeographic analyses were obtained using Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference (BI), under a HKY + I+ $\Gamma$ , as the best-fit substitution model indicated by jModelTest2 (Darriba et al., 2012), and rooted using as outgroup a COI sequence of a *C. xiphitella* specimen from Gabon, according to the phylogenetic pattern in Russini et al. (2017). ML analysis was performed using PHYML3.0 (Guindon et al., 2010) (<http://www.atgc-montpellier.fr/phyml/>), with 1000 bootstrap replicates. BI was

performed using MrBayes 3.2.3 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003), running two Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses in parallel for  $10^7$  generations, with a 25% burn-in and sampling every 1000 steps. Using TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014) chains convergence was assumed when the effective sample size values (ESS) were >200 and the potential scale reduction factor values (PSRF) were 1.

The genetic divergence between the resulting clades was calculated using a Kimura two-parameters (K2p) substitution model with the software MEGA 6 (Tamura et al., 2013).

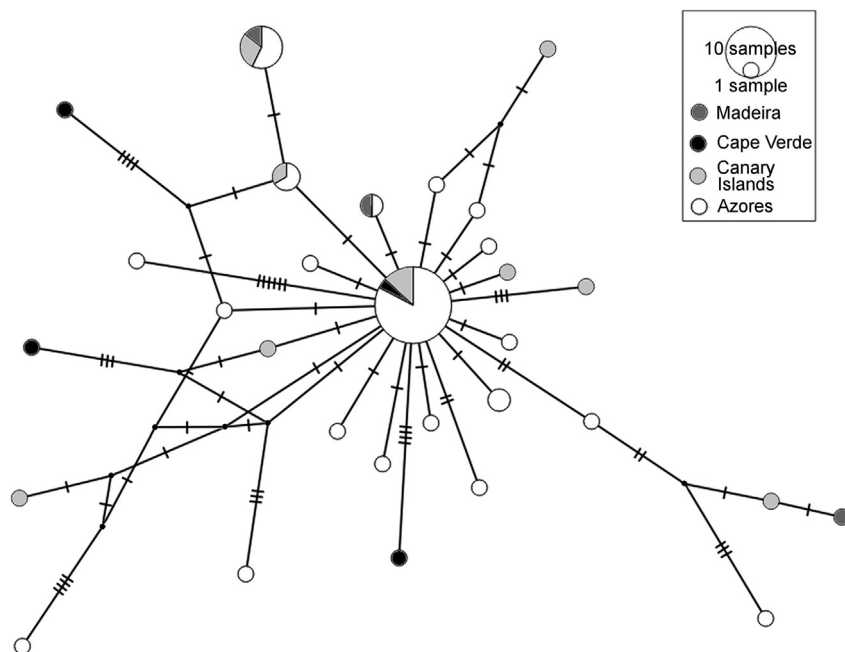


**Fig. 2.** Bayesian Inference tree based on the COI sequences (HKY + I+ $\Gamma$  model of evolution). Numbers at nodes indicate the Bayesian posterior probability supports ( $10^7$  generations and 25% burnin) and the Maximum Likelihood bootstrap supports (1000 replicates). The colour in each tip-circle (white, light grey, dark grey, black) represents the collecting area of the specimen (same as in Figs 3–4). For details on the tip labels see Supplementary Fig. 1 (*C. adansoni*) and Supplementary Fig. 2 (*C. rustica*).

Relationships between haplotypes were investigated for each species using a Median Joining (MJ) approach (Bandelt et al., 1999) as implemented in PopART (<http://popart.otago.ac.nz>). Phylogenetic network analyses may perform better than tree-based phylogenetic methods when genetic divergence is low, as they allow multi-furcations and reticulate evolution patterns, more

congruently with the intraspecific level of analysis (Posada and Crandall, 2001). In particular, MJ combines minimum spanning trees within a single network, and adds to the network median vectors (representing missing intermediates) using a parsimony criterion.





**Fig. 3.** Median-joining network of *C. adansoni* haplotypes. Each haplotype is represented by a circle. The colour in each circle (white, light grey, dark grey, black) represents the collecting archipelago of the haplotype (same as in Fig. 2). The size of each circle is proportional to the frequency of the haplotype. Single nucleotide base changes are indicated by solid bars on lines connecting each haplotype. Small filled circles represent inferred haplotypes that were not found.

### 2.3. Spatial distribution of genetic diversity

To investigate the spatial distribution of genetic diversity within each species, we carried out both a spatial principal component analysis (sPCA) as implemented in the R package ADEGENET (Jombart, 2008) and an isolation by distance (IBD) analysis using the IBDWebService (Jensen et al., 2005; ver. 3.23 <http://ibdws.sdsu.edu/~ibdws/>).

Isolation by distance (IBD), as proposed by Wright (1940), is defined as a decrease in the genetic similarity among populations as the geographic distance between them increases (Jensen et al., 2005). To verify the presence of an IBD pattern, a non-parametric Mantel test has been commonly used to test for non-random associations between the two matrices of genetic distances and geographical distances. We used MEGA 6 (Tamura et al., 2013) to build a genetic distance matrix with a K2p nucleotide substitution model, while the geographical distance matrix was created by calculating the shortest marine distance between every two points, using Google Earth 7.1.2.2041. Both matrices were used as input for the IBDWebService. Despite its widespread use, Mantel test has been recently questioned as a realistic approach to identify IBD patterns (e.g.: Meirmans, 2012), as it can be heavily biased by spatial autocorrelation. To avoid misinterpretation of the correlation patterns between genetic diversity and spatial distribution, we integrated IBD with a spatial principal component analysis (sPCA). This spatially explicit approach takes into account at the same time both the genetic variance among studied entities and their spatial autocorrelation (Jombart et al., 2008). The detection of spatial features in the input data is carried out incorporating Moran's *I* statistics (Moran, 1948, 1950) in geo-referenced genetic data. Moran's *I* ranges from  $-1$  to  $+1$ , where values close to  $+1.0$  indicate clustering, while values close to  $-1.0$  indicate dispersion. To define neighbours for calculation of Moran's *I*, a Gabriel graph for individual sample locations was generated. Global and local tests based on Monte Carlo permutations ( $N = 99,999$ ) were used to interpret

global and local components of sPCA. The presence of a significant global structure can be related to patterns of spatial genetic structure (such as isolation by distance), whereas a local structure would refer to strong differences between local neighbourhoods (repulsion) (Jombart et al., 2008).

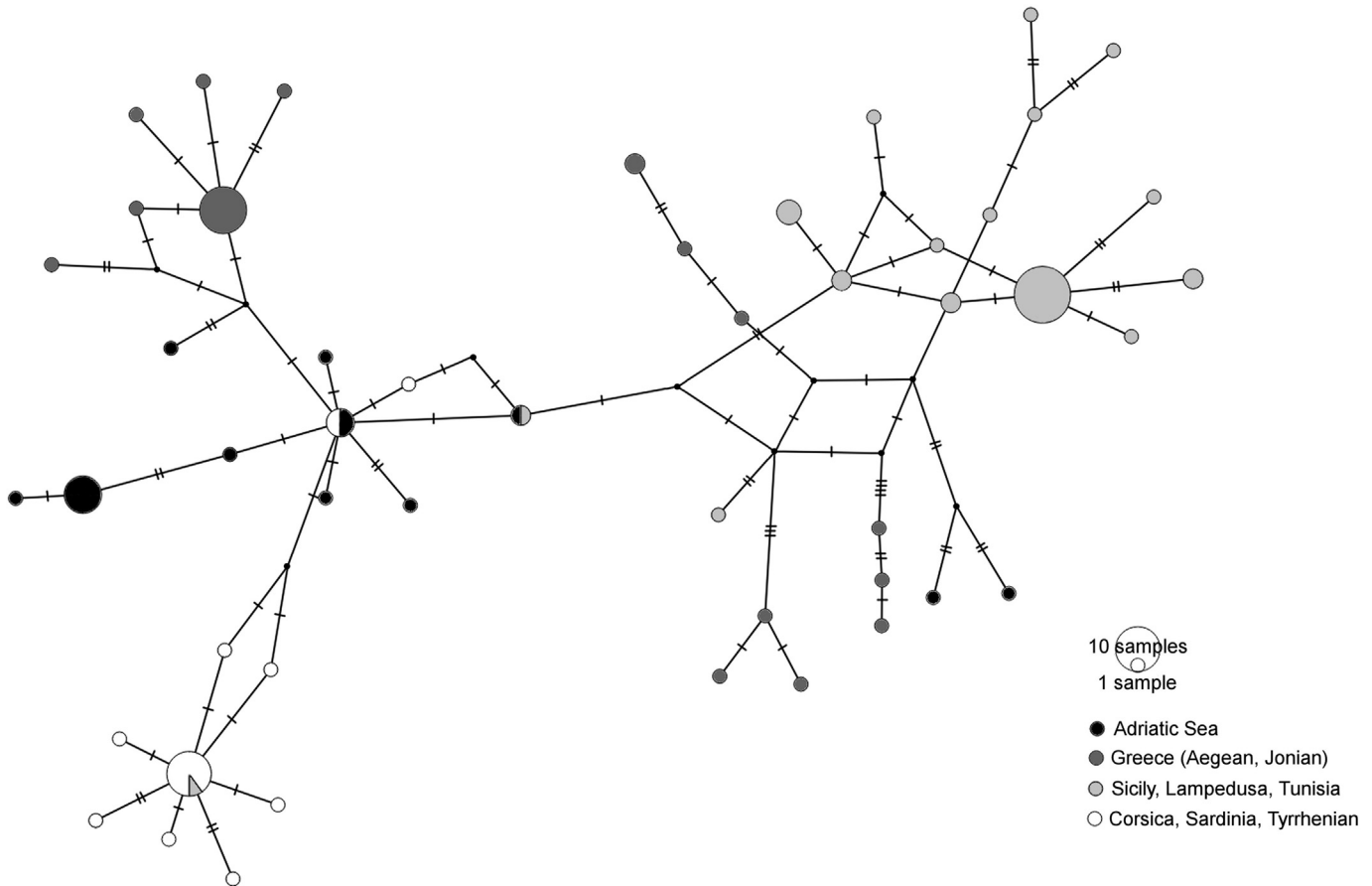
### 2.4. Molecular diversity

The number of haplotypes, nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ) and haplotype diversity (HD) were calculated for each species using DnaSP 5.10 (Librado and Rozas, 2009) and Arlequin (Excoffier and Lischer, 2010). An AMOVA test (Excoffier et al., 1992) was performed to investigate intra- and interpopulation molecular diversity, on specimens grouped manually according to their geographical origin.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Phylogeographic structure and spatial distribution of genetic diversity

Phylogenetic analyses of the entire dataset produced an identical branching pattern with both ML analysis and BI; here we used as reference the topology obtained by BI as it showed higher statistical supports at nodes (Fig. 2). The two sibling species, *C. adansoni* and *C. rustica* resulted both well supported and reciprocally monophyletic, but they showed different internal branching patterns. In fact, the *C. adansoni* clade displayed a geographically weaker structure compared to the *C. rustica* one, with subclades containing specimens from all sampled areas (Fig. 2, and Suppl. Fig. 1). Instead, the *C. rustica* clade showed a strong geographical structure, with three of the major internal clades, containing specimens from Sicily, Lampedusa Island and Tunisia (with  $P = 0.934$ ), from the Tyrrhenian area (including Corsica, Sardinia, Zannone Island, Palinuro and Naples, with  $P = 0.859$ ), and



**Fig. 4.** Median-joining network of *C. rustica* haplotypes. Each haplotype is represented by a circle. The colour in each circle (white, light grey, dark grey, black) represents the collecting area of the haplotype (same as in Fig. 2). The size of each circle is proportional to the frequency of the haplotype. Single nucleotide base changes are indicated by solid bars on lines connecting each haplotype. Small filled circles represent inferred haplotypes that were not found.

from Jonian and Aegean Seas (with  $P = 0.898$ ), respectively (Fig. 2, and Suppl. Fig. 2).

In the MJ network analysis *C. adansoni* (Fig. 3) 50 polymorphic sites defined 30 haplotypes, one of which was widely spread through the surveyed area. Conversely, in *C. rustica* (Fig. 4) 59 polymorphic sites yielded 49 haplotypes: a group of haplotypes from Sicilian sites was connected with haplotypes from Tunisia, and linked by median vectors to haplotypes of Tyrrhenian and Aegean populations.

Between-species genetic divergence ranged from 3.8% (*C. adansoni* - *C. rustica*) to 7% (*C. rustica* - *C. xiphitella*) (Table 2).

For *C. adansoni*, the Mantel's test (Figs Suppl. 3A–D) did not support any correlation between geographical and genetic distance ( $0.272 \leq P \leq 0.483$ ). For *C. rustica*, Mantel's test (Figs Suppl. 4A–D) detected a statistically significant correlation between geographical and genetic distance ( $P < 0.01$ ); the highest value was obtained with logarithmic transformation of both matrices ( $r = 0.41$ ,  $R^2 = 0.17$ ). In *C. rustica*, sPCA detected the presence of a significant global structure (Fig. 5a:  $P < 0.001$ ) and the absence of a local spatial structure. In *C. adansoni*, sPCA did not recognise any genetic spatial structure either global or local (Fig. 5b).

### 3.2. Molecular diversity

Values of haplotypic diversity, nucleotide diversity, and intra-specific K2p genetic distance are reported for both species in Tables 2 and 3. Nucleotide diversity was higher in *C. rustica* than in

*C. adansoni*. According to the AMOVA analysis, in *C. rustica* 74.80% of the variance was inter-population, with a fixation index  $F_{st} = 0.74798$  ( $P = 0.00000$ ). In *C. adansoni* inter-population variance explained only 7.99% of total variance (intra-population variance 92.01% of the total), with a fixation index  $F_{st} = 0.07993$  ( $P = 0.03226$ ) (Table 3). Mean intraspecific genetic distance (K2p) was higher in *C. rustica* than in *C. adansoni* (Table 2).

## 4. Discussion

Although some cases of poecilogony were described for sacoglossan opisthobranch gastropod (e.g. West et al., 1984; Miles and Clark, 2002; Krug, 2007), such developmental plasticity was never observed in other gastropod taxa, for which only comparisons between, at best, sibling species can be drawn. This study addresses patterns of geographic structure and evolutionary history of lineages across a comparable spatial scale in *C. rustica* and *C. adansoni*, two species with contrasting developmental modes, using several approaches.

The analysis of the phylogeographic structure in this pair of sibling species revealed divergent patterns for the two species, congruently with their divergence in life history. Both the phylogenetic trees and the Median-joining networks showed geographically structured relationships in the Mediterranean lecithotrophic *C. rustica*, with many haplotypes clustering geographically. Conversely, the planktotrophic developing *C. adansoni* showed fewer haplotypes (with a star-like pattern of one widely

**Table 2**

Intra- and interspecific mean genetic divergence (K2p) among the assayed species (standard deviation in parentheses).

	Intraspecific			Interspecific	
	Min	Max	Mean		
<i>C. adansoni</i>	0.000	0.015	0.005 (0.00)		
<i>C. rustica</i>	0.002	0.030	0.020 (0.01)	0.038 (0.00)	
<i>C. xiphitella</i>	0.005	0.016	0.011 (0.00)	0.066 (0.01)	0.070 (0.01)
				<i>C. adansoni</i>	<i>C. rustica</i>

distributed haplotype), sometimes shared by sites thousands kilometres apart, suggesting that the pelagic stage of this species is long enough to partly counteract the effects of genetic differentiation, due to selection and/or genetic drift. A number of comparative population genetics studies of marine benthic invertebrates support the hypothesis that species with shorter or no PLD have a lower potential for gene flow and a reduced connectivity, and show higher degrees of spatial population structure relative to planktrophic species (e.g. Wilke and Davis, 2000; Collin, 2001; Guzmán et al., 2011), with a limited number of exceptions (e.g. Hoskin, 1997; Arndt and Smith, 1998; Kyle and Boulding, 2000; Lee and Boulding, 2009).

*C. adansoni*, with planktrophic development, and thus good larval dispersal capacities, showed no statistically significant correlation between genetic and geographic distance, and sPCA did not find any spatial structure either global or local. *C. rustica*, with lecithotrophic development, and thus potentially scarcer dispersal capacities, showed a clear pattern of isolation by distance (IBD) with genetic divergence increasing with geographic distance, which is congruent with the global spatial structure highlighted by sPCA.

Additionally, while *C. rustica* displayed high interpopulational v. low intrapopulational variance, in *C. adansoni* the interpopulational variance was remarkably lower than the intrapopulational one.

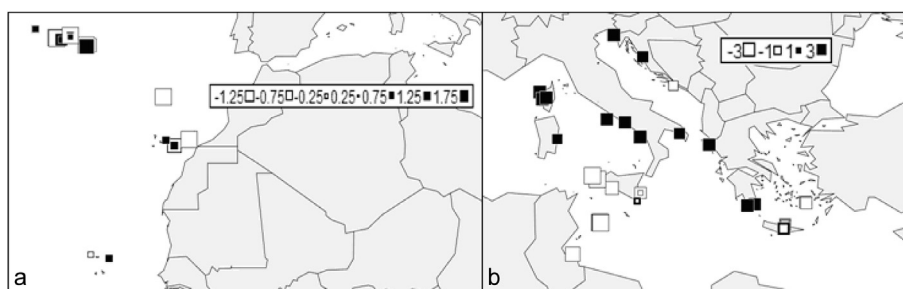
Weber et al. (2015) explicitly investigated the link between spatial distribution and genetic structure in brooder and broadcaster species of brittle stars belonging to the *Ophioderma longicauda* species complex, highlighting the strong influence of life history traits on connectivity. Also in our case, PLD seems to affect population connectivity, with bearing on phylogeography and

genetic diversity of the studied species, although the effects of other factors cannot be ruled out.

According to genetic and paleontological data (Oliverio, 1995), the split of the two sibling species was dated to c. 2 million years ago, i.e. at the onset of the Pleistocene glacial cycles. The loss of planktrophic development in *C. rustica* that likely accompanied the speciation event (if not actually drove it: Oliverio, 1996) occurred in the mainly Mediterranean species congruently with the more oligotrophic condition of this basin compared to the Atlantic (Pujo-Pay et al., 2011; Tanhua et al., 2013).

However, many more issues still need to be investigated into details, and compared among species, particularly the duration of the competence stage, the effects of different reproductive seasonality, and the relevance of environmental constraints. Additionally, the spatial dimension should be better and more realistically addressed by modelling direction and intensity of the marine currents (e.g. Trembl et al., 2008; D'Agostini et al., 2015). The real path for a larva to link two populations might be different from the shortest marine distance (White et al., 2010). Strong currents and oceanographic features like eddies and fronts influence larval dispersal and can well connect two distant sites (Mitarai et al., 2009) as well as rarely allow the exchange of migrants between two populations from two different sites of a oceanographic front (Gilg and Hilbish, 2003). The possibility to include complex circulation dynamics in the analyses of the spatial distribution of genetic diversity might improve our ability to interpret population structure data and strengthen our result's supports. A detailed knowledge of circulation patterns can also be of great help in evaluating the importance of other larval characteristics, such as vertical migratory behaviour, which can affect dispersal by exposing the larvae to differential deep-water currents (White et al., 2010). In more realistic models, extrinsic factors such as the circulation pattern and the environmental conditions interact with intrinsic characteristic of species, including the seasonality and duration of PLD of their larvae and their ecological requirements, in shaping the distribution and connectivity of marine organisms.

Finally, while larval strategies have an important role in the evolutionary history of species (e.g.: Jablonski and Lutz, 1983; Oliverio, 1996), at smaller temporal scales management and conservation can greatly benefit from the understanding of mechanisms underlying population connectivity and patterns of genetic



**Fig. 5.** Spatial distribution of the scores of the first principal component obtained from sPCA for *C. adansoni* (a) and *C. rustica* (b). Each square corresponds to the score of a haplotype (positive if black, negative if white) and it is positioned by its spatial coordinates.

**Table 3**

Molecular diversity in the assayed species.

Species	Haplotypes	Haplotypic diversity Hd	Nucleotidic Diversity $\pi$	AMOVA	Fst
<i>C. rustica</i>	49	0.945	0.01146	74.80% interpopulation 25.20% intrapopulation	0.74798
<i>C. adansoni</i>	30	0.852	0.00493	7.99% interpopulation 92.01% intrapopulation	0.07993

structure of the species (Crooks and Sanjayan, 2006; Planes et al., 2009; Craig et al., 2007). Low v. high connectivity species may react differentially to environmental and climate changes; as a mere example, water temperature seems to be crucial to trigger the duration and success of larval stage (Rombough, 1997). It may be argued that the better the spatial genetic structure of a species and the underlying mechanisms are known, the better population response to the change of future years can be predicted. Different larval ecology may affect the success likelihood of invasive alien species, not necessarily favouring planktotrophic developers (e.g.: Chemello and Oliverio, 1997). In the Mediterranean Sea, the distribution of closely related species with different larval development (planktotrophic v. non-planktotrophic) is partitioned in the two major sub-basins (East v. West Mediterranean), resulting in communities (e.g. *Posidonia* meadows) comprising species with different attributes in different areas (Oliverio, 1996, 1997b). Therefore, while designing networks of marine protected areas, the knowledge of the ecological attributes of the communities as a whole will become crucial, also in terms of the variation in larval ecology of the species involved. Invertebrates are numerically and functionally important members of marine benthic communities, and show a vast array of developmental styles, often unknown, and the effect of which are still largely unexplored.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.marenvres.2017.04.001>.

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# An assessment of the genus *Columbella* Lamarck, 1799 (Gastropoda: Columbellidae) from eastern Atlantic

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## ABSTRACT

Three species of the neogastropod genus *Columbella* Lamarck, 1799 are recognised from the northeastern Atlantic and the Mediterranean. One is the common Mediterranean *C. rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758), with paucispiral protoconch, extending its range in the Atlantic South to Senegal and North to Portugal. *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, with multispiral protoconch is restricted to the Macaronesian archipelagoes. A third species, also with multispiral protoconch, from West Africa is recognised through molecular methods, and the name *C. xiphitella* Duclos, 1840 is employed by correcting the original erroneous locality (“Californie”) to Gabon. Except for protoconch features, no major morphological characters are available to separate the three species; however diagnostic species-level differences in specific positions in the cytochrome c oxidase I (COI) sequences are present between all three species.

**KEY WORDS**  
Columbellidae,  
East Atlantic,  
Mediterranean,  
lectotypification,  
DNA-Barcoding.

## RÉSUMÉ

*Étude du genre Columbella Lamarck, 1799 (Gastropoda: Columbellidae) dans l’Est de l’océan Atlantique.* Trois espèces du genre de néogastropode *Columbella* Lamarck, 1799 sont reconnues dans le nord est de l’Atlantique et en Méditerranée. L’une est courante en Méditerranée, *C. rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758), au protoconche paucispiralé: son aire de répartition s’étend en Atlantique du Sénégal au nord du Portugal. *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, au protoconche multispiralé, se limite aux archipels Macaronésiens. Une troisième espèce, caractérisée également par un protoconche multispiralé, est originaire d’Afrique de l’Ouest: elle est reconnue par des méthodes moléculaires; le nom de *C. xiphitella* Duclos, 1840 lui est attribué après correction de la localité originale erronée (« Californie ») en Gabon. Mis à part l’aspect du protoconche, aucun caractère morphologique majeur ne permet de séparer les trois espèces; cependant des positions précises dans les séquences du cytochrome c oxidase I (COI) présentent des différences supportant des diagnostics spécifiques.

**MOTS CLÉS**  
Columbellidae,  
Atlantique de l’est,  
Méditerranée,  
lectotypification,  
DNA-Barcoding.

## INTRODUCTION

*Columbella* Lamarck, 1799 s.s. (type species *Voluta mercatoria* Linnaeus, 1758) is a genus of columbellid neogastropods (dove shells) including 17 recognised species, mostly from tropical America and the East Atlantic/Mediterranean (WoRMS: Bouchet & Gofas 2015). Based on Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar (1991), Oliverio (1995), Rolán (2005), and Rolán & Ryall (1999), two species are currently recorded in the eastern Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea: *Columbella rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758), ranging over the entire Mediterranean Sea, and extending into the neighbouring Atlantic southward to Senegal, and northward to Portugal (it is absent in Galicia); and *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, described from Cape Verde islands, and assumed to occur across Macaronesia, from the Azores to the Canary Islands, and along the West African coasts from Ghana to Angola (Oliverio 1995; Rolán & Ryall 1999; Rolán 2005). *Columbella rustica* has a paucispiral protoconch, indicating non-planktotrophic development (lecithotrophic, possibly entirely or mostly intracapsular), whereas *Columbella adansoni* has a multispiral protoconch, indicating planktotrophic larval development. This is the only consistent morphological diagnostic feature for the two species, which are otherwise quite variable in shell sculpture, colour and pattern. Preliminary to a study of the bearing of different larval developmental strategies on the genetic structure of populations (Modica *et al.* 2017), we decided to assay samples of *Columbella* from the eastern Atlantic and the Mediterranean to test the currently accepted species boundaries by molecular data. Therefore, we examined specimens collected from localities spanning as much as possible the known range for the genus in the eastern Atlantic. As a result, a third species of *Columbella* was discovered.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sampling locality data (Fig. 1), Identification (ID) catalogue numbers of the vouchers, and GenBank accession numbers are reported in Table 1. A total of 29 specimens from the East Atlantic and the Mediterranean were assayed. Specimens were sampled by SCUBA or snorkelling, and fixed in 95 to 100% ethanol. Vouchers are stored in the malacological collection at Department of Biology and Biotechnologies “Charles Darwin” (“La Sapienza” University of Rome) under BAU ID numbers and at Muséum national d’Histoire naturelle (Paris) under MNHN ID numbers. Genomic DNA was extracted using a proteinase K-phenol-chloroform protocol (Oliverio & Mariottini 2001). The DNA-barcode fragment of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase I (COI) and part of the 16S rRNA were amplified by PCR using the universal primers LCO1490 and HCO2198 (Folmer *et al.* 1994) and 16SA (Palumbi *et al.* 2002) and CGLeuUUR (Hayashi 2003), respectively. For some crucial specimens from West Africa, fixed in alcohol but thereafter preserved dried, which were unsuccessfully assayed with the pair

HCO2198-LCO1490, we employed HCO2198 with the primer mlCOIint-F (5’-GGWACWGGWTGAACWGT-WTAYCCYCC-3’) designed to amplify a shorter fragment (c. 300 bp) and employed in metabarcoding works (Leray *et al.* 2013). PCR amplifications were performed with the following conditions: initial denaturation of 5’ at 94°C, 35 amplification cycles (30’’/94°C, 40’’/48–52°C, 50’’/72°C), followed by a final phase of 7’ at 72°C. PCR products were purified by ExoSAP-IT protocol (USB Corporation, Ohio, USA) and Sanger sequenced by Macrogen Inc. (The Netherlands). Forward and reverse sequences were assembled, checked for contamination and edited with Geneious 4.8.5 (Drummond *et al.* 2009).

SPECIES DELIMITATION IN COLUMBELLIDAE SWAINSON, 1840  
A total of 106 COI sequences from columbellid specimens ascribed to the genera *Alia* H. Adams & A. Adams, 1853, *Amphissa* H. Adams & A. Adams, 1853, *Euplica* Dall, 1889, *Graphicomassa* Iredale, 1929, *Indomitrella* Oostingh, 1940, *Mitrella* Risso, 1826, *Pyrene* Röding, 1798, *Sulcomitrella* Kuroda, Habe & Oyama, 1971 and *Zafra* A. Adams, 1860 (plus some labelled as “columbellid indet.”) were either provided by Nicolas Puillandre (ID MNHN-IM) or were retrieved from the GenBank (see Table 4). Sequences from *Cancellopolia* sp. (Gastropoda, Buccinoidea, Buccinidae) (EU015666.1; voucher MNHN-IM-2009-17854), and *Pisania striata* Duclos, 1840 (MNHN-IM-2009-30664, Gastropoda, Buccinoidea, Buccinidae) were retrieved from Genbank to be used as outgroups. COI sequences were manually aligned and checked for stop codons; 16S sequences were aligned using MAFFT 7 (Katoh *et al.* 2002), using the Q-INS-i algorithm (Katoh & Toh 2008), which accounts for secondary structures. Highly variable regions, resulting in gap-rich fragments with ambiguous alignment, were discarded using Gblocks 0.91b (Castresana 2000). All alignments are available from the authors on request.

To define species, we used Automatic Barcode Gap Discovery (ABGD, available at <http://www.wabi.snv.jussieu.fr/public/abgd/>), a distance-based method designed to detect the so-called “barcode gap” in the distribution of pairwise distances estimated in a COI alignment (Puillandre *et al.* 2012a, b), and the criteria of divergence and reciprocal monophyly (Knowlton 2000; Wheeler & Meier 2000; Reid *et al.* 2006; Malaquias & Reid 2009). The COI sequence alignments were processed in ABGD (excluding the outgroups) using the Kimura-2-parameter (K2p) model and the following settings: a prior for the maximum value of intraspecific divergence between 0.001 and 0.1, 25 recursive steps within the primary partitions defined by the first estimated gap, and a gap width of 0.1.

We ran ABGD on the whole columbellid dataset of 136 COI sequences, to define partition scheme(s) based on distance distribution. Then, species hypotheses as derived from ABGD were tested against taxonomic recognition for the assayed specimens and for phylogenetic congruence. Phylogenetic analyses of the COI, 16S and combined sequence alignments were conducted using Maximum likelihood (ML:

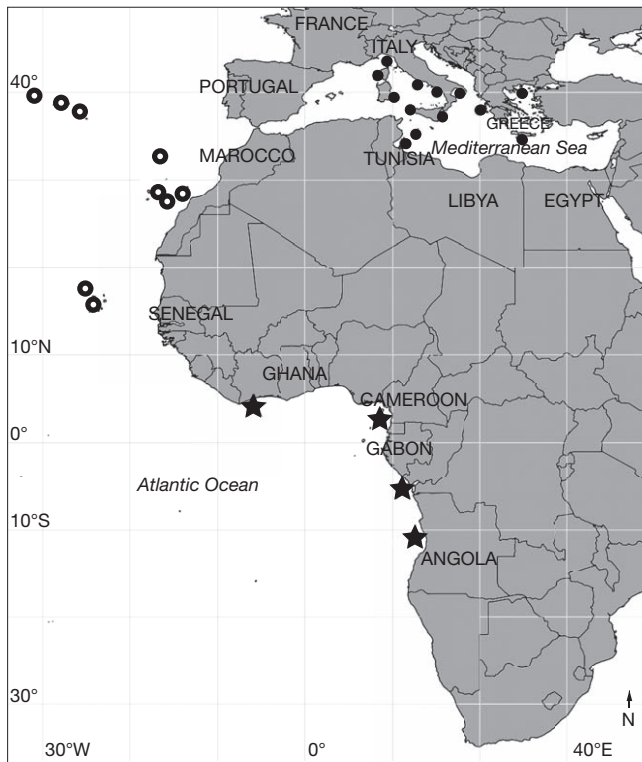


FIG. 1. — Map of the collecting sites (for details see Table 1). Symbols: ●, *Columbella rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758); ○, *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853; ★, *Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840.

with 1000 bootstrap replicates) by PhyML3.0 (<http://www.atgc-montpellier.fr/phyml/>) and Bayesian inference (BI: four-chain Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis, run twice in parallel for  $10^7$  generations; trees sampled every 1000 generations, burn-in 2500) by MrBayes 3.2.3 on the XSEDE resources on CIPRES Science Gateway V.3.3 portal (<https://www.phylo.org/>), both with the HKY+I+G (Hasegawa *et al.* 1985) nucleotide substitution model, as selected by jModelTest2. Same analyses (ABGD, ML and BI) were performed on a reduced dataset including sequences from the eastern Atlantic specimens (including full length and shorter COI sequences), sequences from *Columbella mercatoria* (Linnaeus, 1758) (type species of the genus *Columbella*) and *Columbella major* Sowerby, 1832, while those from *Euplica turturina* (Lamarck, 1822) (JQ950207.1 and JQ950143.1, voucher MNHN-IM-2007-33524) were used as outgroup.

#### ABBREVIATIONS

ABGD	Automatic Barcode Gap Discovery;
ICZN	International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature;
sh	shell(s).

#### Institutions

MNHN	Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris;
SMF	Senckenberg Forschungsinstitut und Naturmuseum, Frankfurt.

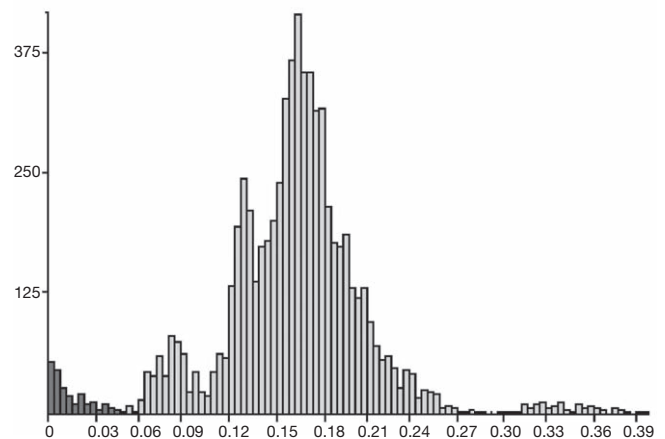


FIG. 2. — Histogram of the distribution of the pairwise estimated genetic distances (K2p) in intraspecific (left, dark grey) and interspecific (right, light grey) comparisons among Columbellidae Swainson, 1840.

## RESULTS

For the eastern Atlantic/Mediterranean *Columbella* specimens, a total of 14 specimens from the Mediterranean, nine specimens from the Macaronesia, six specimens from Gabon, three from Ghana and one each from Angola and São Tomé, yielded full length 16S (723bp). Full length COI (658bp) were obtained from 14 specimens from the Mediterranean, nine specimens from Macaronesia, six specimens from Gabon; shorter COI sequences (288bp) were obtained from two specimens from Ghana and one specimen from Angola.

#### SPECIES DELIMITATION IN WORLDWIDE COLUMBELLIDAE

The 30 recursive steps in the ABGD analysis of the COI alignment converged toward a 46-species partition scheme, with the corresponding 46 species hypotheses largely congruent with the *a priori* morphological identification of the worldwide columbellid specimens included (Table 4). Accordingly, the intraspecific genetic divergence estimated on the COI dataset ranged from 0 to 5%, the interspecific ones from 5 to 30% (Fig. 2: K2p matrices available from the authors). ML and BI phylogenetic analyses of the same dataset recovered all 25 species with multiple specimens as monophyletic with very high bootstrap (>95%) and BI (>0.99) support.

#### SPECIES DELIMITATION IN EASTERN ATLANTIC COLUMBELLA

The 658bp COI sequences of the eastern Atlantic/Mediterranean *Columbella* were split into three groups: 1) the Mediterranean specimens (corresponding to *Columbella rustica*); 2) the Macaronesian specimens (corresponding to *C. adansoni*); and 3) the specimens from Gabon. The pattern was exactly the same when the shorter sequences of specimens from Ghana and Angola were included.

Intraspecific distance ranged 0-1.5% in *C. adansoni*, 0.2-3% in *C. rustica*, and 0.5-1.6% in the West African species (see Table 2 for K2p indices). The estimated genetic distance was 4% between *C. rustica* and *C. adansoni*, and 7% between the new West African species and the other two (Table 2).



TABLE 1. — List of the examined material with ID numbers for voucher lots (BAU, Department of Biology and Biodiversity, Sapienza University of Rome; MNHN, Museum national d’Histoire naturelle, Paris), data on collecting sites (in parentheses the number used in Figure 1), and GenBank accession numbers for the sequences.

ID	Site	Coordinates	Accession numbers	
			COI	16S
<i>Columbella rustica</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)				
BAU 1608	(1) Galeria, Corsica, France: 1-5 m depth	42°25'16"N, 8°37'26"E	KX639980	
BAU 1670	(2) S. Isidoro, Italy: 1-5 m depth	40°12'15"N, 17°55'12"E	KX639897	
BAU 1755	(3) Palinuro, Italy: 1-7 m depth	40°01'53"N, 15°16'07"E	KX639898	
BAU 1779	(4) Cape Tenafo, Greece: 1 m depth	36°23'07"N, 22°28'58"E	KX639914	KX664064 KX664065 KX664066
BAU 1794	(5) Sidi Jmour, Djerba, Tunisia: 0-1 m depth	33°49'53"N, 10°44'50"E	KX639919	
BAU 807	(6) Ognina Cuba, Sicily, Italy: 0-1 m depth	36°58'20"N, 15°14'55"E	KX639923 KX639925	
BAU 811	(7) Giraglia, Corsica, France: 0-1 m depth	43°00'37"N, 009°25'27"E	KX639976	KX664073 KX664074 KX664075
BAU 816	(8) Isola dei conigli, Lampedusa, Italy: 0-2 m depth	35°30'35"N, 12°33'27"E	KX639933	
BAU 818	(9) Marsala, Sicily, Italy: 0-1 m depth	37°47'32"N, 12°25'50"E	KX639940	KX664076 KX664077 KX664078
BAU 819	(10) Agios Georgos, Corfù, Greece: 1-3 m depth	39°43'07"N, 19°39'44"E	KX639946	
BAU 822	(11) Agia Pelagia, Crete, Greece: 0-3 m depth	35°24'25.6"N, 25°01'05.5"E	KX639959	
BAU 829	(12) Zannone Island, Italy: 0-10 m depth	40°58'10"N, 13°02'44"E	KX639983	
BAU 831	(13) Arbatax, Sardinia, Italy: 0-12 m depth	39°55'19.0"N, 9°42'54.9"E	KX639987	
<i>Columbella adansoni</i> Menke, 1853				
BAU 1123	(14) Mindelo, São Vicente, Cape Verde: intertidal	16°54'08"N, 24°59'51"W	KX639833	KX664059
BAU 1124	(15) Arguineguin, Gran Canaria, Canary Islands: 0-1 m depth	27°45'18"N, 15°41'04"W	KX639835	
BAU 1694	(16) Sal Rei, Boavista, Cape Verde: intertidal	16°11'5.18"N, 22°55'26.70"W	KX639841	KX664061 KX664062 KX664063
BAU 708	(17) Caloura, São Miguel, Azores: 0-3 m depth	37°42'26.8"N, 25°30'16.4"W	KX639851	
BAU 716	(18) Lajes, Pico, Azores: 0-2 m depth	38°23'05.7"N, 28°15'04.2"W	KX639859	KX664067 KX664068 KX664069
BAU 718	(19) Santa Cruz, Flores, Azores: 0-2 m depth	39°27'07.3"N, 31°07'26.6"W	KX639867	
BAU 802	(20) Puertito de Guimar, Tenerife, Canary Islands: 1-2 m depth	28°17'11"N, 16°22'48"W	KX639885	
BAU 804	(21) Funchal, Madeira: 1-2 m depth	32°38'22"N, 16°55'24"W	KX639888	
BAU 805	(22) Ajuy, Fuerteventura, Canary Islands: 0-1 m depth	28°24'14"N, 14°09'20"W	KX639890	KX664070 KX664071 KX664072
<i>Columbella xiphitella</i> Duclos, 1840				
BAU 1120	(23) Cape Santa Clara, Libreville, Gabon: intertidal	0°30'18"N, 9°19'07"E	KX639827	KX664053
MNHN-IM-2000-32497/32498	to 1 m depth		KX639828	KX664054
			KX639829	KX664055
			KX639830	KX664056
			KX639831	KX664057
			KX639832	KX664058
BAU 1118	(24) Praia da Corimba, Luanda, Angola: dredged in c. 20 m depth	8°51'S, 13°10'E	KY464898	KX664049
BAU 1119	(25) Miemia, Ghana: 1-10 m depth	4°47'39"N, 2°10'15"W	KY464900	KX664050
			KY464899	KX664051 KX664052
BAU 1693	(26) Lagoa Azul, São Tomé: 1-10 m depth	0°24'22"N, 6°36'29"E		KX664060
<i>Columbella major</i> Sowerby, 1832				
184659143	Venado Is., Panama.		KY464894	KY464896
<i>Columbella mercatoria</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)				
184659120	Guadeloupe		KY464895	KY464897
<i>Euplica turturina</i> (Lamarck, 1822)				
MNHN-IM-2007-33524	Vanuatu, SW Tutuba Is., SANTO 2006 Stn. NR04	15°34'59.52"S, 167°15'23.7"E	JQ950207.1	JQ950143.1

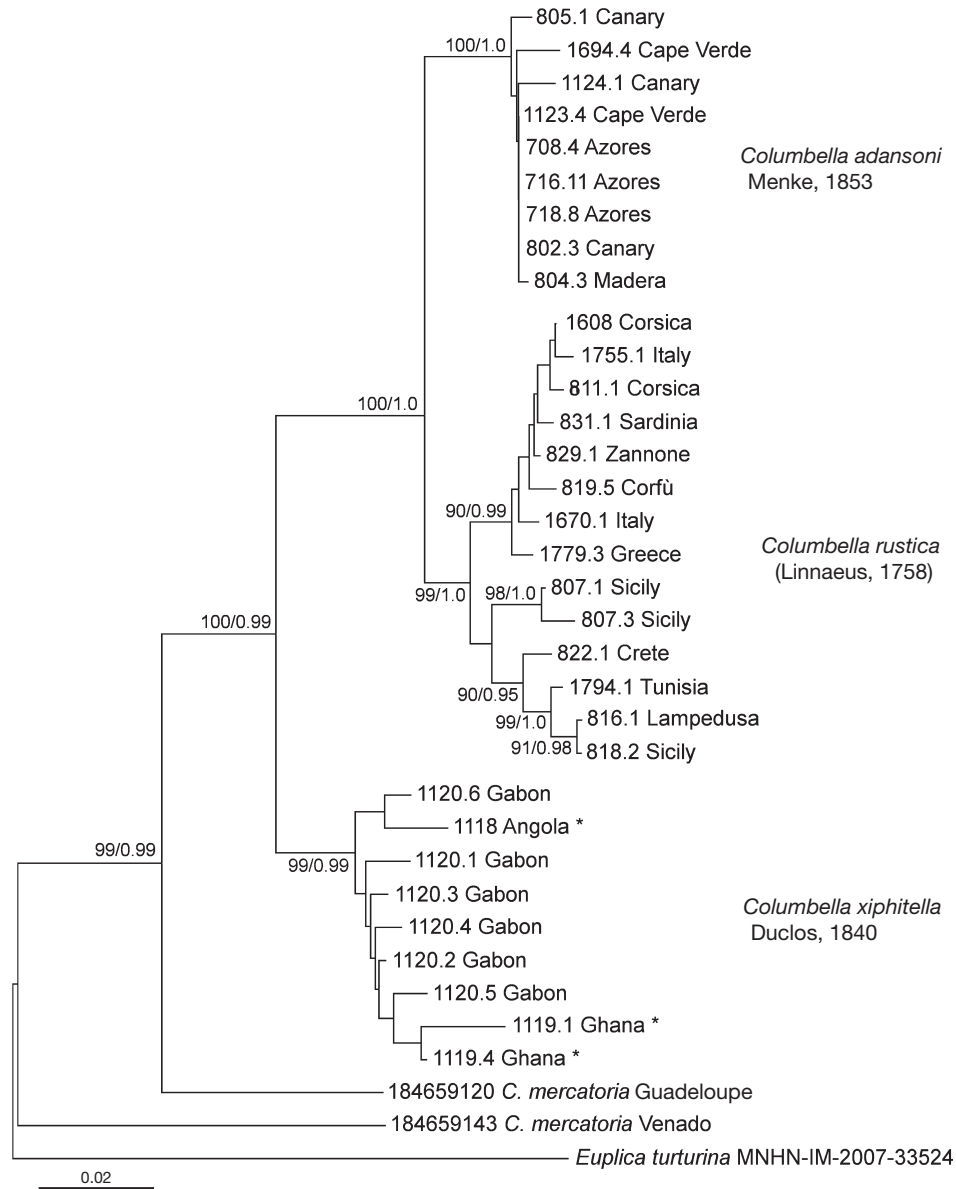


FIG. 3. — ML tree based on the COI dataset (HKY + I + G model of evolution). Numbers at nodes indicate the support by BI Bps (10<sup>7</sup> generations and 25% burnin) and ML bs (1000 replicates). Asterisks indicate shorter sequences (288 bp).

TABLE 2. — K2p genetic distance between East Atlantic and Mediterranean species of *Columbella* (standard deviation in parentheses).

	intraspecific			interspecific	
	min	max	mean		
<i>C. adansoni</i> Menke, 1853	0.000	0.015	0.005 (0.00)		
<i>C. rustica</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	0.002	0.030	0.020 (0.01)	0.04 (0.00)	
<i>C. xiphitella</i> Duclos, 1840	0.005	0.016	0.011 (0.00)	0.07 (0.01)	0.07 (0.01)
				<i>C. adansoni</i>	<i>C. rustica</i>

TABLE 3. — Autapomorphic (diagnostic) position in the COI sequences of the three species.

species	Diagnostic positions
<i>C. adansoni</i> Menke, 1853	61 [G], 91 [G], 160 [C], 181 [T], 352 [C], 549 [A], 586 [T].
<i>C. rustica</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	238 [C], 310 [T], 447 [G].
<i>C. xiphitella</i> Duclos, 1840	34 [T], 55 [T], 78 [G], 100 [T], 115 [T], 117 [A], 130 [A], 133 [C/G], 178 [C], 309 [C], 346 [C], 385 [T], 430 [C], 463 [T], 472 [G], 565 [T], 598 [T], 619 [T].



FIG. 4. — ML tree based on the 16S dataset (HKY + I + G model of evolution). Numbers at nodes indicate the support by BI Bps ( $10^7$  generations and 25% burn in) and ML bs (1000 replicates).

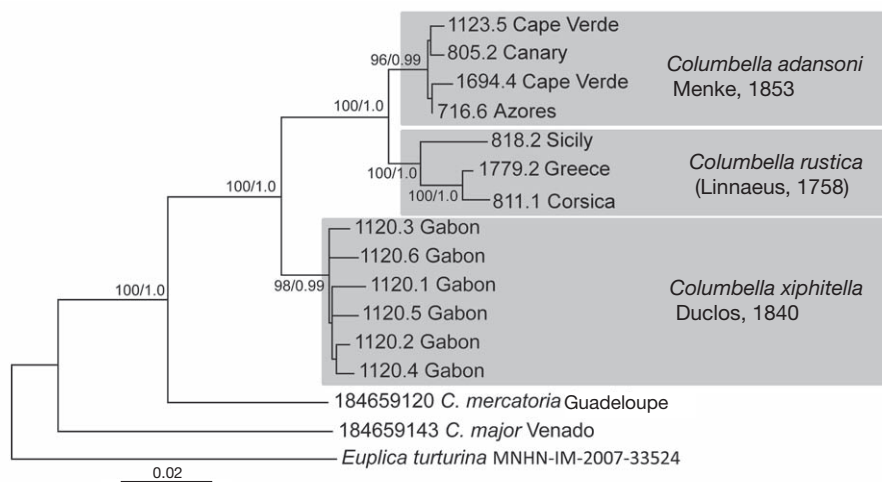


FIG. 5. — ML tree based on the combined COI-16S dataset (HKY + I + G model of evolution). Numbers at nodes indicate the support by BI Bps ( $10^7$  generations and 25% burn in) and ML bs (1000 replicates).

All phylogenetic analyses (ML and BI) of the single gene (16S, COI: including shorter sequences) and of the combined datasets of the eastern Atlantic/Mediterranean *Columbella* retrieved the same topology, with the sequences corresponding to the species hypotheses of ABGD grouped as reciprocally monophyletic clades with high bootstrap values and posterior probabilities (ML bootstrap  $\geq 96\%$ , BI support  $\geq 0.99$ ; Figs 3-5). In all trees, *C. adansoni* was restricted to the Macaronesian specimens, *C. rustica* to the Mediterranean specimens, and the African specimens comprised a third lineage. The pair including *C. adansoni*/*C. rustica* (ML bootstrap  $\geq 98\%$ , BI support  $\geq 0.99$ ) was the sister to the African species, which according to the phylogenetic patterns from COI and 16S, included samples from Ghana, São Tomé, Gabon and Angola. Autapomorphic (diagnostic) nucleotides were scored for each species by comparing their COI sequences and are reported in Table 3.

## SYSTEMATICS

Family COLUMBELLIDAE Swainson, 1840  
Genus *Columbella* Lamarck, 1799

TYPE SPECIES. — *Voluta mercatoria* Linnaeus, 1758, by monotypy.

### REMARK

The list of available names for eastern Atlantic *Columbella* is rather long. According to Tryon (1883) and updated with more recent works (e.g., Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar 1991; Bouchet & Gofas 2010; Monsecour & Gofas 2010a, b), we have scored 26 nominal taxa (some under the incorrect subsequent spelling *Colombella*) referable to the *Columbella rustica* complex. All nominal taxa with an explicit Macaronesian type locality can be ascribed to *C. adansoni*: *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, *C. rufa* Menke, 1853, *C. rustica* var. *azorica* Drouët, 1858, *C. striata* var. *minor* Dautzenberg, 1900. All nominal taxa with an explicit type locality from Senegal to Mediterranean (where a single species is known) and/or with a paucispiral protoconch are easily ascribed to *Columbella rustica*. This is the case of *Voluta rustica* Linnaeus, 1758, *C. rustica* var. *elongata* Philippi, 1836, *C. spongiarum* Duclos, 1840, *C. striata* Duclos, 1840, *C. fustigata* Kiener, 1841, *C. striata* Duclos *in* Chenu, 1846, *C. simpronia* Duclos *in* Chenu, 1846, *C. rustica* var. *cuneatiformis* Pallary, 1900, *C. rustica* var. *lutea* Pallary, 1900, *C. rustica* var. *minor* Pallary, 1900, *C. rustica* var. *obesula* Pallary, 1900. The other synonymies currently implemented in WoRMS for this complex are almost all accepted (where necessary by correcting or imposing Mediterranean as type locality, see below) since they maintain stability of current usage, with two exceptions: *C. xiphitella* Duclos, 1840 and *C. nucleus* Kiener, 1841. Among ten potential syntypes of the latter at MHNG, eight have eroded apices, while two have protoconchs partly eroded but clearly multispiral; if we imposed a Macaronesia type locality, this would make *C. nucleus* a senior synonym of *C. adansoni* (which has been the accepted valid name for

the Macaronesian species for the last 25 years: Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar, 1991). The same holds for *C. xiphitella* Duclos, 1840: two of the 16 syntypes at MNHN have clearly multispiral protoconchs, the locality indicated (“Californie”) is clearly erroneous, and imposing a Macaronesian type locality would make *C. xiphitella* also a senior synonym of *C. adansoni*. Therefore, to preserve nomenclatural stability in this group, we have decided to impose as first reviewers, “Gabon” as type locality to both *C. xiphitella* Duclos, 1840 and *C. nucleus* Kiener, 1841.

### *Columbella rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Figs 6A, B; 7A-D; 8C)

*Voluta rustica* Linnaeus, 1758: 731.

*Columbella reticulata* Lamarck, 1822: 295.

*Columbella gualteriana* Risso, 1826: 206, n°533.

*Columbella rustica* var. *elongata* Philippi, 1836: 228.

*Colombella tumida* Duclos, 1840: pl. 1, figs 13, 14.

*Colombella spongiarum* Duclos, 1840: pl. 3, figs 13-16.

*Columbella striata* Duclos, 1840: pl. 6, figs 5-8 (not Menke 1829).

*Columbella ambigua* Kiener, 1840: 11, pl. 2, fig. 3 [note: plate issued in 1840].

*Columbella fustigata* Kiener, 1841: 20-21, pl. 5, fig. 3.

*Columbella modesta* Kiener, 1841: 22, pl. 11, fig. 2.

*Colombella aureola* Duclos *in* Chenu, 1846: pl. 6, figs 17, 18.

*Colombella simpronia* Duclos *in* Chenu, 1846: pl. 15, figs 19, 20.

*Colombella vestalia* Duclos *in* Chenu, 1846: pl. 15, figs 15, 16.

*Colombella zulmis* Duclos *in* Chenu, 1848: pl. 24, figs 21, 22.

*Columbella rustica* var. *cuneatiformis* Pallary, 1900: 278, pl. 6, fig. 17.

*Columbella rustica* var. *lutea* Pallary, 1900: 278.

*Columbella rustica* var. *minor* Pallary, 1900: 277.

*Columbella rustica* var. *obesula* Pallary, 1900: 278, pl. 6, fig. 18.

TYPE MATERIAL. — *Voluta rustica*: 6 sh in the Linnaean Society (LSL.348 [Dance label image ref: P-Z 0010728] <http://linnaean-online.org/17388/>). — Type locality: Mediterranean.

*Columbella reticulata*: 5 probable syntypes MHNG-MOLL-92487. — Type locality: Mediterranean (imposed herein, ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.1.4).

*Columbella gualteriana*: lectotype (Arnaud 1978) MNHN-IM-2000-6899. — Type locality: Mediterranean (imposed herein, ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.1.4).

*Columbella rustica* var. *elongata*: lectotype ZMB 13.994, 2 paralectotypes ZMB 112.717. — Type locality: Palermo (Sicily).

*Colombella tumida*: 2 syntypes MNHN-IM-2000-6373. — Type locality: “China”, erroneous, corrected to Mediterranean (ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.2).

*Colombella spongiarum*: 2 syntypes, MNHN-IM-2000-6385. — Type locality: Senegal.

*Columbella striata*: syntypes, 15 sh without locality label

MNHN-IM-2000-6381, and 5 sh from Senegal MNHN-IM-2000-6382. — Type locality: Senegal.

*Columbella ambigua*: 6 syntypes MNHN-IM-2000-6935. — Type locality: “Asia”, erroneous, corrected to Mediterranean (ICZN 1999: rec. 76.A.2).

*Columbella fustigata*: 7 syntypes MNHN-IM-2000-6904. — Type locality: “Îles Saintes” (Îles des Saintes, Antilles), erroneous, corrected to Mediterranean (ICZN 1999: rec. 76.A.2).

*Columbella modesta*: MHNG-MOLL-95504 (5 probably not types from Delessert coll. and not “Mus coll” as in description). — Type locality: Mediterranean (imposed herein, ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.1.4).

*Colombella aureola*: 1 shell MNHN-IM-2000-6346). — Type locality: “Californie”, erroneous, corrected to Mediterranean (ICZN 1999: rec. 76.A.2).

*Colombella simpronia*: 4 syntypes MNHN-IM-2000-6389. — Type locality: Mediterranean.

*Colombella vestalia*: Not found, not present in MNHN. — Type locality: Mediterranean (imposed herein, ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.1.4).

*Colombella zulmis*: MNHN-IM-2000-9609. — Type locality: “China”, erroneous, corrected to Mediterranean (ICZN 1999: rec. 76.A.2).

*Columbella rustica* var. *cuneatiformis*: not found at MNHN. — Type locality: Oran, Algeria.

*Columbella rustica* var. *lutea*: not found at MNHN. — Type locality: Oran, Algeria.

*Columbella rustica* var. *minor*: not found at MNHN. — Type locality: Oran, Algeria.

*Columbella rustica* var. *obesula*: not found at MNHN. — Type locality: Oran, Algeria.

DISTRIBUTION. — According to the present data, *Columbella rustica* ranges throughout the entire Mediterranean Sea, and extends in the Atlantic South to Senegal, and North to Portugal.

DIAGNOSIS. — Shell of medium size for the family 12-20 mm long, biconic/strombiform.

Protoconch of 1.5-1.6 smooth, convex whorls; protoconch-teleoconch boundary marked by a slightly opisthocline scar.

Teleoconch of 7-9 almost straight-sided whorls, penultimate whorl slightly convex, body whorl rounded and inflated, about  $\frac{2}{3}$  to  $\frac{3}{4}$  shell length.

Sculpture of nodulose axial ridges on the first whorls, fading after 2-3 whorls, and very weak, irregular spiral striae. Aperture narrow, elongate and sinuous.

Outer lip angulate posteriorly in some, thickened, especially medially, with 13-16 denticles, and rust coloured markings between denticles. Columellar wall with two weak ridges medially; parietal wall with 5-7 denticles anteriorly, sometimes with rust coloured markings between. Siphonal canal open.

Colour very variable, with white-whitish background and yellow, orange, brown, grey or black irregular spots, sometimes arranged into axial flames or sinuous bands.

Periostracum thin, brown.

Animal with whitish to yellowish background and tawny-orange spots, very dense on propodium, head and mantle; tip of cephalic tentacles white; siphon grey. Radula rachiglossate, with central tooth reduced to a slightly arched plate with no cusps. One pair of massive lateral teeth with a small, basal, outer cusp and a tall, sinuous inner primary cusp with three secondary cusps along the posterior edge: a narrow, pointed distal cusp, a flat central cusp slightly enlarged at the base, and a quadrangular and apically curved basal cusp.

#### REMARKS

We correct herein (ICZN 1999: rec. 76.A.2) to “Mediterranean” the evidently erroneous localities indicated for *Colombella tumida*, *Columbella ambigua*, *Columbella fustigata*, *Colombella aureola*, *Colombella zulmis*; and impose (ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.1.4) “Mediterranean” for *Colombella vestalia*,

*Columbella modesta*, *Columbella reticulata*, *Columbella gualteriana*. The five possible syntypes of *Columbella reticulata* Lamarck (MHNG-MOLL-92487, ex Delessert collection) bear “Bresil” as locality, quite probably a posthumous erroneous labelling.

Very variable in coloration, but also in size, with some populations of very small adult size (12 mm) and others attaining much larger length (20 mm).

Franc (1943) described the egg capsules and embryos of *C. rustica*: the capsules contained 39-57 eggs, 250-280  $\mu$ m in diameter, of which most were nurse eggs to nourish the 1-2 developing embryos (shell length at hatching 660-850  $\mu$ m). See also Bandel (1975) for a description of the protoconch in specimens from Banyuls. Pelorce & Boyer (2005: fig. 11) described samples from Central Senegal as 10-14 mm long, with paucispiral protoconch of 1.5-2 whorls, the animal milky white or cream with amber-brown speckles, which matches remarkably the appearance of Mediterranean samples.

As already noticed by Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar (1991), *Columbella striata* Duclos (originally described from Senegal) is a junior homonym of *Columbella striata* Menke, 1829 and therefore is not usable as the valid name for any species. In Senegal two distinct protoconch types have been sometimes cited and interpreted as multispiral and paucispiral, respectively (Thorsson 2003). However, based on Oliverio (1995), Rolán & Ryall (1999), Hernández & Boyer (2005) and Pelorce & Boyer (2005), all intact protoconchs of *Columbella* from Morocco to Mauritania, including Senegal, are paucispiral. Unfortunately, material from Senegal or Mauritania properly fixed for DNA extraction was not available for this study and the actual identity of the *Columbella* from this area could not be unequivocally assessed herein.

Three autapomorphic positions were scored in the COI sequences: 238 [C], 310 [T], 447 [G].

#### *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853 (Figs 6C, D; 7G-H; 8A)

*Columbella Adansoni* [sic] Menke, 1853: 74, 75.

*Columbella rufa* Menke, 1853: 75.

*Columbella rustica* var. *azorica* Drouët, 1858: 169.

*Columbella striata* var. *minor* Dautzenberg, 1900: 183.

TYPE MATERIAL. — *Columbella adansoni*: lectotype (Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar 1991) SMF. — Type locality: Cape Verde Islands.

*Columbella rufa*: lectotype (Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar, 1991) SMF. — Type locality: Cape Verde Islands.

*Columbella rustica* var. *azorica*: unknown (Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar, 1991). — Type locality: Azores.

*Columbella striata* var. *minor*. — Type locality: Ilhéu Branco (Cape Verde Islands).

DISTRIBUTION. — According to the data presented herein, *Columbella adansoni* ranges throughout Macaronesia, and is not present in continental African waters.

DIAGNOSIS. — Shell of medium size for the family, 16-25 mm long, biconic/strombiform.



FIG. 6. — *Columbella* spp. types: **A, B**, *Columbella rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758), syntype of *Voluta rustica* (LSL.348), Mediterranean (permission of The Linnean Society of London); **C, D**, *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, lectotype SMF, Cape Verde (after Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar 1991, figs 1, 2); **E-G**, *Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840, lectotype (**F, G**) and paralectotypes (**E**) from lot MNHN-IM-2000-9599, Gabon; **H-L**, *Columbella xiphitella*, lectotype (**H, J, K**) and paralectotypes (**I, L**) of *C. nucleus* Kiener, 1841 from lot MHNG-MOLL-95502. Symbols: \*, the selected lectotypes; ○, the paralectotype with close-up of the protoconch (L). Scale bars: 10 mm; G, H, L, not to scale.

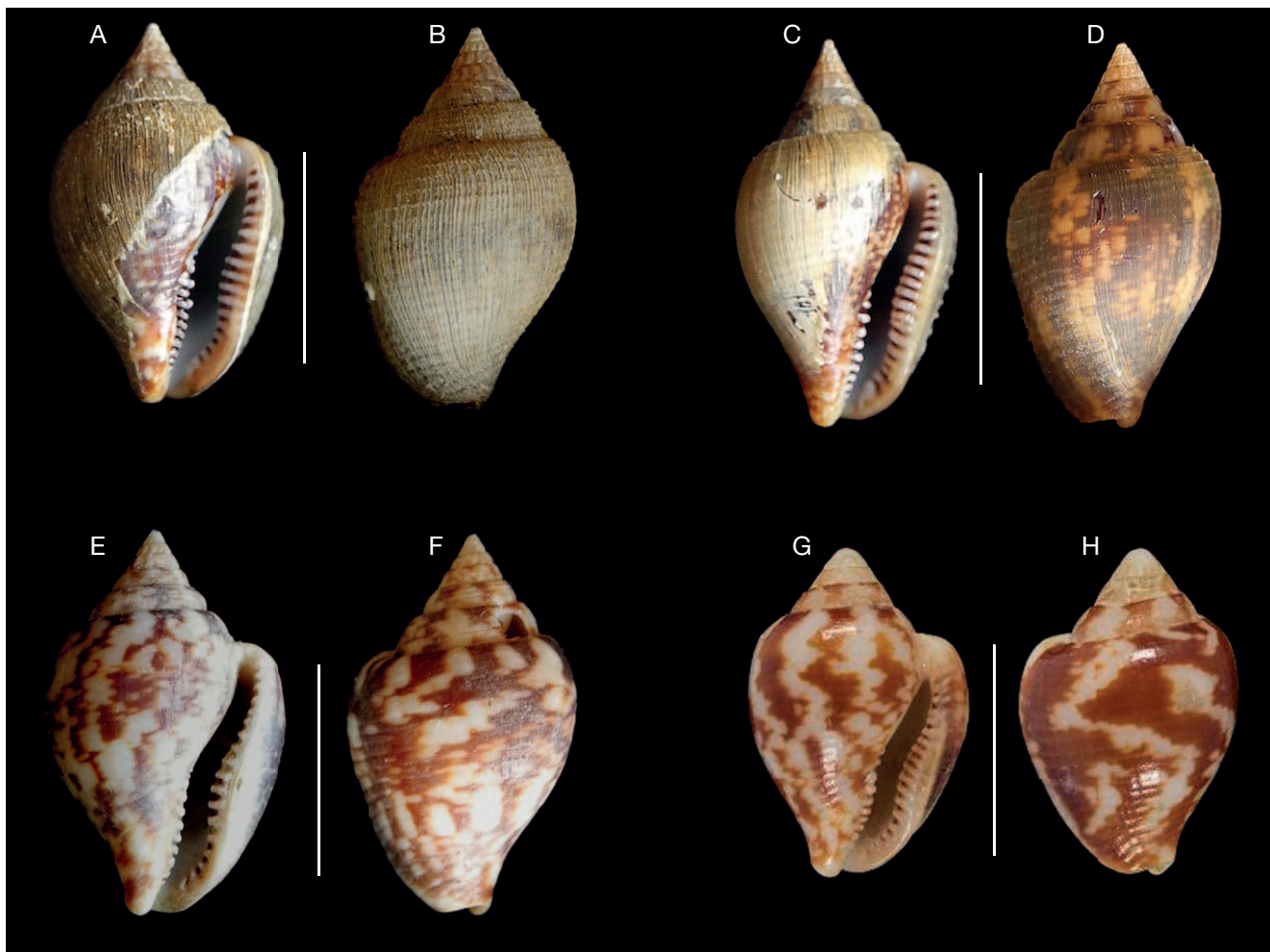


FIG. 7. — *Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840 Gabon: **A, B**, MNHN IM-2000-32498; **C, D**, MNHN IM-2000-32498; **E, F**, BAU 1120.7; **G, H**, paralectotype from lot MNHN-IM-2000-9599. Scale bars: 10 mm.

Protoconch of 2.5-2.6 convex whorls, entirely covered by densely spaced microgranules; embryonic shell (protoconch I) of 0.8-0.9 whorls, and larval shell (protoconch II) of 1.6-1.7 whorls; protoconch-teleoconch boundary marked by a sinusigera scar.

Teleoconch of 7-9 almost straight-sided whorls, penultimate whorl slightly convex, body whorl rounded and inflated, about  $\frac{2}{3}$  to  $\frac{3}{4}$  shell length.

Sculpture of nodulose axial ridges on the first whorls, fading after 2-3 whorls, and very weak, irregular spiral striae. Aperture narrow, elongate and sinuous.

Outer lip angulate posteriorly in some, thickened, especially medially, with 13-16 denticles, and rust coloured markings between denticles. Columellar wall with two weak ridges medially; parietal wall with 5-7 denticles anteriorly, and rust coloured markings between. Siphonal canal open.

Colour very variable, with white-whitish background and yellow, orange, brown, grey or black irregular spots, sometimes arranged into axial flames or sinuous bands. Periostracum thin, brown.

Animal yellowish with tawny-orange spots, very dense on propodium, head and mantle; tip of cephalic tentacles white, siphon grey. Radula rachiglossate, with central tooth reduced to a slightly arched plate with no cusps. One pair of massive lateral teeth with a small, basal, outer cusp and a tall, sinuous inner primary cusp with three secondary cusps along the posterior edge: a narrow, pointed

distal cusp, a flat central cusp slightly enlarged at the base, and a quadrangular and apically curved basal cusp.

#### REMARKS

Knudsen (1995) summarized his own (Knudsen 1950) and Gunnar Thorson's (unpublished) notes on the egg capsules of *C. adansoni* from Cape Verde Islands and Canary Islands, respectively. The egg capsules contained 39-73 eggs, *c.* 200  $\mu$ m in diameter, developing into pelagic larvae attaining at metamorphosis 450  $\mu$ m shell width (1000  $\mu$ m length).

Seven autapomorphic positions were scored in the COI sequences: 61 [G], 91 [G], 160 [C], 181 [T], 352 [C], 549 [A], 586 [T].

*Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840  
(Figs 6E-L; 7A-H; 8B; 9A, B)

*Colombella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840: pl. 9, figs 13, 14.

*Columbella nucleus* Kiener, 1841: 14-15, pl. 3, fig. 4.

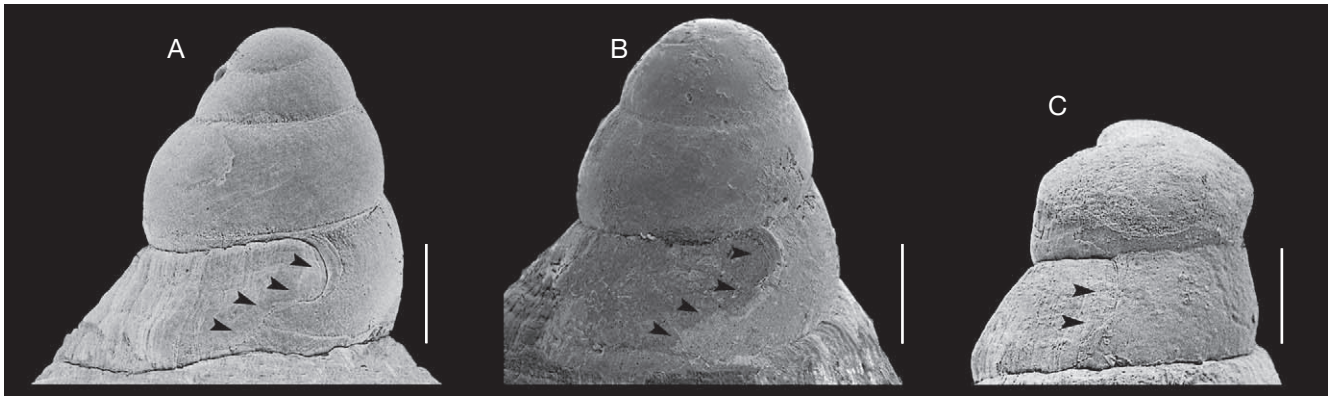


FIG. 8. — Protoconchs of *Columbella* spp.: **A**, *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, Tenerife Is., Canary Islands; **B**, *Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840, Miemia, Ghana; **C**, *Columbella rustica* (Linnaeus, 1758), San Domino Is., Italy. Arrows indicate the protoconch-teleoconch boundary. Scale bars: 100  $\mu$ m.

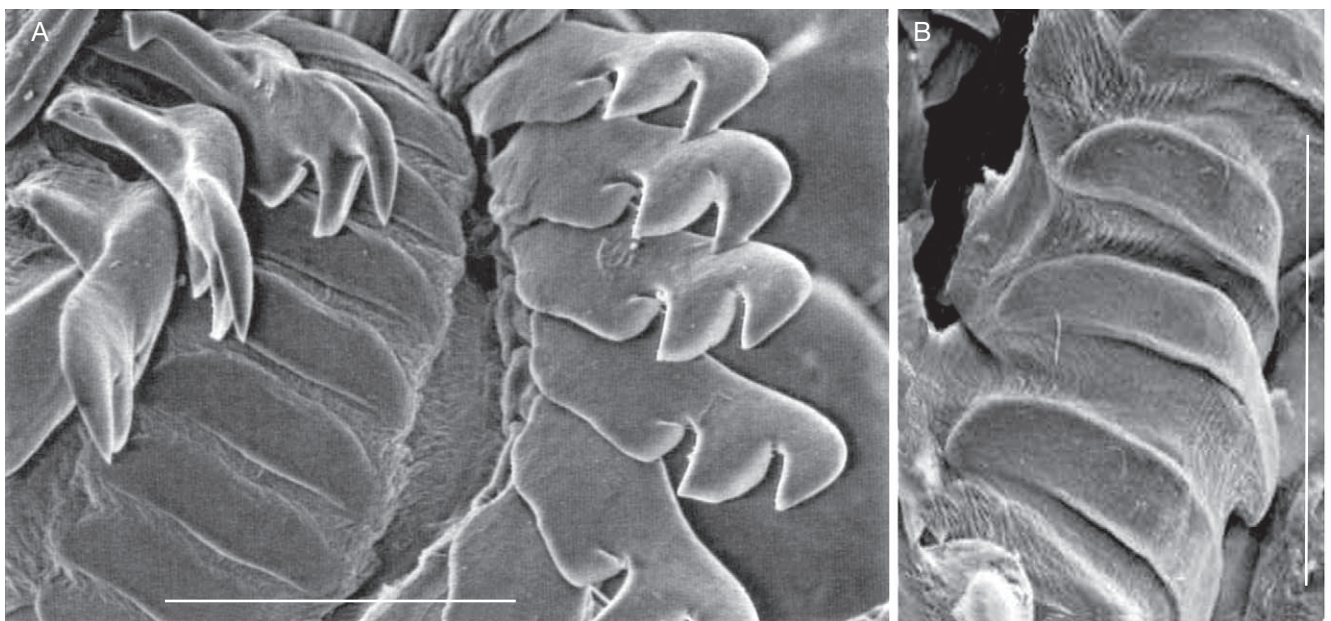


FIG. 9. — Radula of *Columbella xiphitella* Duclos, 1840: **A**, Miemia, Ghana; **B**, Lagoa Azul, São Tomé, detail of the rachidian. Scale bars: 100  $\mu$ m.

**TYPE MATERIAL.** — *Colombella xiphitella*: lectotype (here designated: Fig. 6F, G) and 11 paralectotypes MNHN-IM-2000-9599, 4 paralectotypes MNHN-IM-2000-9598. — Type locality: “Californie”, erroneous, corrected to Gabon (ICZN 1999: rec. 76.A.2).

*Columbella nucleus*: MHNG-MOLL-95502 lectotype (here selected: Fig. 6H, J, K) and 9 paralectotypes (from Delessert collection). — Type locality: Gabon (imposed herein, ICZN 1999: rec. 76A.1.4).

**DISTRIBUTION.** — According to the material examined genetically herein, *Columbella xiphitella* ranges along West African coasts from Ghana to Angola, including *São Tomé and Príncipe*.

**DIAGNOSIS.** — Shell of medium size for the family, 10–18 mm long, biconic/strombiform.

Protoconch of 2.5–2.6 convex whorls, entirely covered by densely spaced microgranules; embryonic shell (protoconch I) of 0.8 whorls, and larval shell (protoconch II) of 1.7 whorls; protoconch-teleoconch boundary marked by a sinusiger scar.

Teleoconch of 7–9 almost straight-sided whorls, penultimate whorl slightly convex, body whorl rounded and inflated, about  $\frac{3}{4}$  shell length. Sculpture of nodulose axial ridges on the first whorls, fading after 2–3 whorls, and very weak, irregular spiral striae. Aperture narrow, elongate and sinuous.

Outer lip angulate posteriorly in some, thickened, especially medially, with 14–19 strong denticles, and rust coloured markings between denticles. Columellar wall with two weak ridges medially; parietal wall with 5–8 strong denticles anteriorly, usually with rust coloured markings between. Siphonal canal open.

Colour very variable, with white-whitish background and yellow, orange, brown, grey or black irregular spots, sometimes arranged into axial flames or sinuous bands. Periostracum thin, brown.

Animal observed only in alcohol preserved specimens: whitish background and dark brown to dark tawny spots, dense on propodium and head, very dense on mantle; tip of cephalic tentacles white, siphon dark grey. Radula rachiglossate, with central tooth reduced to a slightly arched plate with no cusps. One pair of massive lateral teeth with a small, basal, outer cusp and a tall, sinuous inner primary



TABLE 4. — COI sequences of worldwide columbellids, with the ABGD group assignment (alternate grey/white lines, according to ABGD groups numbers), voucher ID (or GenBank accession number), a-priori morphological identification, a-posteriori MOTU assignment.

ABGD group	Voucher ID	a priori morphological identification	a posteriori MOTU assignment
1	IM-2007-33580	<i>Aesopus cumingii</i> (Duclos, 1846)	<i>A. cumingii</i>
1	IM-2007-33581	<i>Aesopus cumingii</i>	<i>A. cumingii</i>
2	KF643896.1	<i>Amphissa columbiana</i> (Dall, 1916)	<i>A. aff. columbiana</i>
2	KF644010.1	<i>Amphissa columbiana</i>	<i>A. aff. columbiana</i>
2	KF644101.1	<i>Amphissa columbiana</i>	<i>A. aff. columbiana</i>
2	KF643694.1	<i>Amphissa versicolor</i> (Dall, 1871)	<i>A. aff. columbiana</i>
3	KF644285.1	<i>Amphissa reticulata</i> (Dall, 1916)	<i>A. reticulata</i>
4	KF643489.1	<i>Alia carinata</i> (Hinds, 1844)	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF643493.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF643566.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF643846.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF643937.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF644175.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF644247.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF644276.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
4	KF643354.1	<i>Alia carinata</i>	<i>A. carinata</i>
5	IM-2009-11313	<i>Anachis</i> sp.	<i>Anachis</i> sp.
6	BAU 710_7	<i>Columbella adansoni</i> Menke, 1853	<i>C. adansoni</i>
6	BAU 726_7	<i>Columbella adansoni</i>	<i>C. adansoni</i>
6	BAU 741_11	<i>Columbella adansoni</i>	<i>C. adansoni</i>
7	BAU 1120_1	<i>Columbella adansoni</i>	<i>C. xiphitella</i>
7	BAU 1120_2	<i>Columbella adansoni</i>	<i>C. xiphitella</i>
7	BAU1120_3	<i>Columbella adansoni</i>	<i>C. xiphitella</i>
8	BAU 817_1	<i>Columbella rustica</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	<i>C. rustica</i>
8	BAU 818_5	<i>Columbella rustica</i>	<i>C. rustica</i>
8	BAU 821_2	<i>Columbella rustica</i>	<i>C. rustica</i>
9	IM-2009-18927	columbellid indet.	columbellid indet.
9	IM-2007-35775	columbellid indet.	columbellid indet.
10	IM-2007-35599	columbellid indet.	columbellid indet.
11	IM-2007-33570	columbellid indet.	columbellid indet.
12	IM-2007-33521	<i>Euplica borealis</i> (Pilsbry, 1904)	<i>E. borealis</i>
13	IM-2007-33515	<i>Euplica scripta</i> (Lamarck, 1822)	<i>E. scripta</i>
14	JN052985.1	<i>Euplica scripta</i>	<i>E. scripta</i>
15	JN052986.1	<i>Euplica scripta</i>	<i>E. scripta</i>
15	JN052987.1	<i>Euplica scripta</i>	<i>E. scripta</i>
15	HQ834054.1	<i>Euplica scripta</i>	<i>E. scripta</i>
16	IM-2007-33519	<i>Euplica turturina</i> (Lamarck, 1822)	<i>E. turturina</i>
16	IM-2007-33522	<i>Euplica turturina</i>	<i>E. turturina</i>
16	IM-2007-33524	<i>Euplica turturina</i>	<i>E. turturina</i>
16	IM-2007-33539	<i>Euplica turturina</i>	<i>E. turturina</i>
16	JQ950207.1	<i>Euplica turturina</i>	<i>E. turturina</i>
17	IM-2007-33537	<i>Euplica varians</i> (Sowerby, 1832)	<i>E. varians</i>
17	IM-2007-33583	<i>Euplica varians</i>	<i>E. varians</i>
18	IM-2007-33493	<i>Graphicomassa albina</i> (Kiener, 1841)	<i>G. adioestina</i> (Duclos, 1840)
18	IM-2007-33494	<i>Graphicomassa albina</i>	<i>G. adioestina</i>
19	IM-2007-33514	<i>Graphicomassa ligula</i> (Duclos, 1835)	<i>G. ligula</i>
19	IM-2007-33517	<i>Graphicomassa ligula</i>	<i>G. ligula</i>
19	IM-2007-33523	<i>Graphicomassa ligula</i>	<i>G. ligula</i>
19	IM-2007-33534	<i>Graphicomassa ligula</i>	<i>G. ligula</i>
19	IM-2007-33542	<i>Graphicomassa ligula</i>	<i>G. ligula</i>
19	JQ950206.1	<i>Graphicomassa ligula</i> as <i>Mitrella ligula</i> (Duclos, 1840)	<i>G. ligula</i>
20	IM-2007-35779	<i>Indomitrella</i> cf. <i>conspersa</i> (Gaskoin, 1851)	<i>I. cf. conspersa</i>
21	IM-2007-33532	<i>Indomitrella puella</i> (Sowerby, 1844)	<i>I. puella</i>
22	IM-2007-33548	<i>Indomitrella schepmani</i> K. Monsecour & D. Monsecour, 2007	<i>I. schepmani</i>
22	IM-2007-35594	<i>Indomitrella schepmani</i>	<i>I. schepmani</i>
23	HM180683.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i> (Gould, 1860)	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180684.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180685.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180687.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180688.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180690.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180691.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HM180692.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	JN053028.1	<i>Mitrella burchardi</i> (Dunker, 1877)	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
23	HQ834098.1	<i>Mitrella burchardi</i>	<i>M. aff. bicincta</i>
24	JN052988.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i> (Gould, 1860)	<i>M. bicincta</i>
24	JN052989.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. bicincta</i>
24	JN052990.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. bicincta</i>
24	JN052991.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. bicincta</i>

Table 4. — Continuation.

ABGD group	Voucher ID	a priori morphological identification	a posteriori MOTU assignment
24	HQ834055.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i> (Gould, 1860)	<i>M. bicincta</i>
24	HM180686.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. bicincta</i>
24	HM180689.1	<i>Mitrella bicincta</i>	<i>M. bicincta</i>
25	IM-2007-30282	<i>Mitrella cf. philia</i> (Duclos, 1846)	<i>M. cf. philia</i>
26	IM-2007-35498	<i>Mitrella essingtonensis</i> (Reeve, 1859)	<i>M. essingtonensis</i>
27	IM-2007-33485	<i>Metanachis jaspidea</i> (Sowerby, 1844)	<i>M. jaspidea</i>
27	IM-2007-33529	<i>Metanachis jaspidea</i>	<i>M. jaspidea</i>
27	IM-2007-33585	<i>Metanachis jaspidea</i>	<i>M. jaspidea</i>
28	IM-2007-33490	<i>Mitrella moleculina</i> (Duclos, 1835)	<i>M. moleculina</i>
29	IM-2007-33504	<i>Mitrella nympa</i> (Kiener, 1841)	<i>M. nympa</i>
29	IM-2007-33565	<i>Mitrella nympa</i>	<i>M. nympa</i>
30	IM-2007-35750	columbellid indet.	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
30	IM-2007-35749	<i>Mitrella cf. moleculina</i> (Duclos, 1840)	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
30	IM-2007-35495	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
31	KF643804.1	<i>Mitrella cf. tuberosa</i> (Carpenter, 1865)	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
32	IM-2007-33582	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
33	IM-2007-35626	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
34	IM-2013-20589	<i>Nassarina metabrunnea</i> (Dall & Simpson, 1901)	<i>N. metabrunnea</i>
35	IM-2007-36625	<i>Pyrene flava</i> (Bruguière, 1789)	<i>P. flava</i>
35	IM-2007-36760	<i>Pyrene flava</i>	<i>P. flava</i>
35	IM-2007-36685	<i>Pyrene flava</i>	<i>P. flava</i>
36	IM-2007-33560	<i>Pyrene punctata</i> (Bruguière, 1789)	<i>P. punctata</i>
36	IM-2007-33578	<i>Pyrene punctata</i>	<i>P. punctata</i>
37	HQ834097.1	<i>Pseudamycla</i> sp.	<i>Pseudamycla</i> sp.
38	IM-2007-39377	columbellid indet.	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> A
38	IM-2007-32142	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i> (Kuroda, 1953)	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> A
38	IM-2007-33555	<i>Sulcomitrella</i> sp.	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> A
39	IM-2009-11298	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i> (Kuroda, 1953)	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2009-11301	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-32150	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-33479	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-33482	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-33574	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-33575	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. kanamaruana</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-33540	<i>Sulcomitrella circumstriata</i> (Schepman, 1911)	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
39	IM-2007-36339	<i>Sulcomitrella circumstriata</i>	<i>S. cf. kanamaruana</i> B
40	IM-2007-35773	<i>Sulcomitrella cf. monodonta</i> (Habe, 1958)	<i>S. cf. monodonta</i> A
41	IM-2009-11304	<i>Sulcomitrella monodonta</i> (Habe, 1958)	<i>S. cf. monodonta</i> B
42	IM-2007-33551	<i>Sulcomitrella circumstriata</i> (Schepman, 1911)	<i>S. circumstriata</i>
42	IM-2007-33552	<i>Sulcomitrella circumstriata</i>	<i>S. circumstriata</i>
43	IM-2007-30246	<i>Zafra cf. pumila</i> (Dunker, 1858)	<i>Z. cf. pumila</i>
44	IM-2007-33480	<i>Zafra isomella</i> (Duclos, 1840)	<i>Z. isomella</i>
45	IM-2007-30355	<i>Zafra pumila</i> (Dunker, 1858)	<i>Z. pumila</i>
46	IM-2007-33535	<i>Metanachis laingensis</i> Sleurs, 1985	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
46	IM-2007-33536	<i>Mitrella cf. alizonae</i> (Melvill & Standen, 1901)	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.
46	IM-2007-33488	<i>Mitrella chinoi</i> Monsecour & Dekkers, 2013	<i>Mitrella</i> sp.

cusps with three secondary cusps along the posterior edge: a narrow, pointed distal cusp, a flat central cusp slightly enlarged at the base, and a quadrangular and apically curved basal cusp.

#### REMARKS

Dunker (1853: 24) used *Columbella striata* Duclos for his specimens from Luanda and Annobon, quite certainly referring to this species. However, *Columbella striata* Duclos (described from Senegal and here provisionally included in the synonymy of *C. rustica*) is preoccupied by *Columbella striata* Menke 1829, a nomen dubium without type(s) available. The 10 syntypes of *Columbella nucleus* Kiener at MHNG are to be considered as syntypes as they originate from the Delessert collection, as reported for this species in the original description.

*C. xiphitella* differs from *Columbella rustica* by its multispiral protoconch (v. paucispiral in *C. rustica*). Morphological (including colour pattern) variation in the teleoconch of the three eastern Atlantic species (*C. rustica*, *C. adansonii* and *C. xiphitella*) largely overlaps with no evident diagnostic characters. All shells of *C. xiphitella* examined (including the type series) have strong dentition on columellar and outer lips, and very dark marks between the denticles, features only occasionally present in the other two species. However, the three species are unequivocally separated by molecular data from COI and 16S. Eighteen autapomorphic positions were scored in the COI sequences: 34 [T], 55 [T], 78 [G], 100 [T], 115 [T], 117 [A], 130 [A], 133 [C/G], 178 [C], 309 [C], 346 [C], 385 [T], 430 [C], 463 [T], 472 [G], 565 [T], 598 [T], 619 [T].

## DISCUSSION

The combined use of molecular data with morphological, geographical and ecological attributes is revealing a growing number of cases of hidden biodiversity in gastropods, often with virtually no morphological distinction in shell characters, among genetically well-separated species (e.g., Modica *et al.* 2013). In the present case, the three species of *Columbella* detected in the eastern Atlantic and the Mediterranean are virtually indistinguishable by their teleoconch features, whereas they are neatly separated by genetic data.

Two species were previously accepted after Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar (1991), Oliverio (1995) and Rolán & Ryall (1999): *Columbella rustica* Linnaeus, 1758, ranging through the entire Mediterranean Sea, and extending into the neighbouring Atlantic South to Senegal and Mauritania, and North to Portugal (it is absent in Galicia); and *Columbella adansoni* Menke, 1853, described from Cape Verde islands, and assumed to occur across Macaronesia, from the Azores to the Canary Islands, and along the West African coast from Mauritania to Angola (Oliverio 1995).

Based on the present data, *Columbella adansoni* is restricted with certainty only to populations from Macaronesia. West African populations from Mauritania and Senegal North to Morocco (with paucispiral protoconch) are conservatively included in *Columbella rustica* pending genetic analysis; those from Ghana South to Angola belong to *Columbella xiphitella* (type locality corrected herein), while those from Mauritania to Ghana should also be assayed genetically, since *C. adansoni* and *C. xiphitella* (albeit clearly defined genetically) are indistinguishable morphologically.

As already highlighted by Moolenbeek & Hoenselaar (1991) and Oliverio (1995), *Columbella adansoni* has a multispiral protoconch indicating planktotrophic larval development, whereas *Columbella rustica* has a paucispiral protoconch, indicating non-planktotrophic development. *Columbella xiphitella*, which is phylogenetically the sister to the other two species, has a multispiral protoconch (similar to *Columbella adansoni*), thus suggesting that the plesiomorphic state in this group was a planktotrophic larva, as is typical of most (if not all) caenogastropod lineages. This is also paralleled by *Columbella moinensis* deMaintenon, 2000, from the Pliocene to Pleistocene(?) of Costa Rica and Colombia, with planktotrophic development (and multispiral protoconch); this is a clear sibling of *Columbella mercatoria* (Pliocene to Recent, Caribbean) with lecithotrophic development (and a paucispiral protoconch) (deMaintenon 2000). Within columbellids, sibling species differing mainly or only in their larval development (and thus in their protoconch morphology) are known also in the genera *Zafra* Iredale, 1916, *Mitrella* and *Euplica*.

The study of large geographic samples in the species involved herein may yield crucial data to analyse the genetic structure and dynamics of populations from closely related species with contrasting larval ecology. These may in turn prove important to define larval ecology drivers in speciation events related to the loss of planktotrophy (Oliverio 1996b),

which has produced pairs of sibling species in many lineages of caenogastropods (e.g., Oliverio 1996a, 1997; Duda & Palumbi 1999).

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## Chapter II

- An assessment of *Raphitoma* and allied genera (Neogastropoda: Raphitomidae)
- Genetic evidence of poecilogony in Neogastropoda: implications for the systematics of the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847

## An assessment of *Raphitoma* and allied genera (Neogastropoda: Raphitomidae)

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Running head: Systematics of *Raphitoma*

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### ABSTRACT

The systematics of several Eastern Atlantic conoidean species, traditionally ascribed to the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847, are revised on the basis of DNA sequence data from three gene regions (cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I, 16S rRNA and 12S rRNA). We assign genus ranking to three major lineages (*Raphitoma*, *Cyrellia* Kobelt, 1905 and *Leufroyia* Monterosato, 1884), and suggest that two West African species belong in the subgenus *Daphnella* (*Paradaphne*) Laseron, 1954. A new classification, based on molecular systematics and critical study of morphology, is provided for of all Eastern Atlantic and Mediterranean species that are currently ascribed to *Raphitoma* *s. l.* The genus *Clathromangelia* Monterosato, 1884 is confirmed as belonging to Raphitomidae.

Phylogenetic relationships and genetic distances suggest that *R. maculosa* Høisæter, 2016 and *R. obesa* Høisæter, 2016 may be deviating morphotypes of *R. bicolor* (Risso, 1826) and *Cyrellia aequalis* (Jeffreys, 1867), respectively.

## INTRODUCTION

The Raphitomidae are probably the most diverse family of Conoidea, in terms of species richness, ecological range and anatomy (Kantor & Taylor, 2002; Bouchet *et al.*, 2011). The name Raphitomidae Bellardi, 1875 is based on the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847. At the time of its introduction, this genus comprised 34 fossil and Recent species (Bellardi, 1847: 85) that had previously been classified in various genera, such as *Pleurotoma* and *Clathurella*. The genus *Raphitoma* has been particularly well studied in the northeastern Atlantic and Mediterranean, where a recent estimate (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.*, 2018) suggested that over 50 extant species occur. These snails, which are usually active at night, live mostly in marine soft-bottom environments at depths ranging from 0–100 m (*R. pseudohystrix* has been collected at 700 m). While they inhabit a wide variety of habitats ranging from coastal bioclastic coarse sands to muddy bioclastic coarse sands, they also occur in sandy pockets, between rocks and in seagrass meadows, with individuals hiding buried under sand or concealed under stones and in crevices during the day. The limits of the genus are still under debate and *Raphitoma s. l.*, as currently conceived, comprises species with the following shell characters: turreted to biconic-pupoidal shape; small to medium size (5–25 mm) in relation to the family Raphitomidae as whole; a frequently keeled last whorl; protoconch consisting of 3–4.5 whorls when multispiral, with the typical raphitomid diagonally cancellate sculpture (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.*, 2018; Manousis *et al.*, 2019; Fig. 1). While available data on the morphology of the soft parts are scarce, they nonetheless suggest that there is substantial variation in the anatomy of the foregut. Some species, such as *R. villaria* and *R. linearis*, have neither a radula nor a venom gland. Others, such as *R. purpurea* and *R. leufroyi*, do have a radula, a venom gland or both (Sheridan *et al.*, 1973: 177; Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2008: 124). The arrangement of the foregut has been described for *R. purpurea* (Miller, 1989: 173; Sheridan *et al.*, 1973: 177), but there is a different arrangement in *R. linearis* and *R. leufroyi*, where a rhynchodeal introvert or pseudoproboscis is present (Taylor *et al.*, 1993: 128; Sheridan *et al.*, 1973: 178). The systematic implications of this variability are still unknown, and the problem is further complicated by the lack of a comprehensive phylogenetic framework for the family Raphitomidae.

The type species of *Raphitoma* is *R. hystrix* Bellardi, 1847 [ex *Pleurotoma hystrix* Cristofori & Jan, 1832, *nomen nudum*] by subsequent designation (Monterosato, 1872: 54). *Raphitoma hystrix* as almost always conceived is a fossil species (Miocene–Pleistocene) and has a complex nomenclatural history that has been summarized by Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* (2018: 9; see also Dall,



1918: 316; van Aartsen *et al.*, 1984: 89-90; Rolán *et al.*, 1998: 105). *Raphitoma pseudohystrix* (Sykes, 1906) appears to be the extant closest relative of *R. hystrix*; while the teleoconch of the former is almost identical to that of the latter, the protoconch in the extant species is paucispiral whereas in *R. hystrix* it is multispiral.

According to current taxonomy, at least eight nominal genera are included in the synonymy of *Raphitoma s. l.* (see Systematic Descriptions below).

Høisæter (2016) argued that DNA-sequence-based phylogenetic studies would most likely show that *Raphitoma s. l.* consists of several genus-level taxa, for which available names could be employed. By carrying out a molecular phylogenetic study of the raphitomids, we seek to explore this issue. Our dataset consists of representatives of at least 13 recognized genera of Raphitomidae (18% of the c. 70 genera known for this family; MolluscaBase, 2018), as well as two species of *Clathromangelia*, a genus that has been considered to be a raphitomid (Oliverio, 1995) or a clathurellid (Bouchet *et al.*, 2011). The dataset also includes 14 species which, on the basis of morphology, have been ascribed to *Raphitoma s. l.*; these include the type species of *Cenodagreutes*, *Cyrillia*, *Leufroyia*, *Lineotoma* and *Philbertia*, the apparent closest relatives of the type species of *Cordieria* and *Cyrtoides*, and the closest extant relative of the (fossil) type species of *Raphitoma*.

**Table 1.** List of material used in the study along with voucher registration numbers, collection localities, GenBank accession numbers for sequences and relevant references.

Taxon	Voucher ID	Locality	GenBank accession numbers			References
			COI	16S rRNA	12S rRNA	
<b>Raphitomidae</b>						
<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	ZMBN-020209-O	Norway, 60°13'48"N 5°12'E	JF834219	JF834214		Høisæter (2016)
<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	ZMBN-E-345-66a	Norway, 60°18'N 5°10'48"E	JF834221			Høisæter (2016)
<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	ZMBN-E-345-66b	Norway, 60°18'N 5°10'48"E	JF834225			Høisæter (2016)
<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	MT09383	North Sea, 57°53'56.4"N 0°54'57.6"W	KR084567			Barco <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	MT09222	North Sea, 55°22'15.6"N 0°12'25.2"W	KR084390			Barco <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cyrellia linearis</i> (Montagu, 1803)	BAU-2234	Italy, Giannutri Is., loc. Le Cerniette, 42°15'10"N 011°05'32"E	MK410632	MK410605	MK410585	This study
<i>Cyrellia linearis</i> (Montagu, 1803)	BAU-2912.1	Italy, Giglio Is., Cala Cupa, 42°22'06"N 10°55'12"E, 10-20 m	MK410623	MK410599		This study
<i>Cyrellia obesa</i> (Høisæter, 2016)	ZMBN-E-37-68	Norway, 60°18'N 5°07'48"E	JF834220	MK410610		Høisæter (2016); this study
<i>Clathromangelia granum</i> (Philippi, 1844)	BAU-3082.1	Italy, Scilla, 38°15'23"N 15°42'45"E, 35-37 m	MK410624	MK410600		This study
<i>Clathromangelia loiselierii</i> Oberling, 1970	BAU-1545	Greece, Astypalea Is., VYLLAS, 36°35'02"N 026°25'24"E, 1-7 m, under rocks	MK410627	MK410601		This study
<i>Daphnella</i> sp.	MNHN-IM-2007-17927	Salomon Is., Vella Gulf, SALOMON 2, 8°3'32.4' S 156°54'32.4"E	EU015740	HQ401674	HQ401607	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Daphnella</i> ( <i>Paradaphne</i> ) <i>corimbensis</i> Rolán, Otero-Schmitt & Fernandes, 1998	BAU-2989	Canary Islands, Tenerife, Radazul, 28°24'08"N 16°19'5"W, 20 m	MK410635	MK410608	MK410587	This study
<i>Eucyclotoma cymatodes</i> (Hervier, 1897)	MNHN-IM-2007-17903	Philippines, Pamilacan Is., PANGLAO 2004, 9°29'24"N 123°56'0"E	EU015678	HQ401676	HQ401610	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Hemilienardia acinonyx</i> Fedosov, Stahlschmidt, Puillandre, Aznar-Cormano & Bouchet, 2017	MNHN-IM-2009-33593	Philippines, Panglao Is., Momo beach	KX233238	KX233249		Fedosov <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>Hemilienardia calcicincta</i> (Melvill & Standen, 1895)	MNHN-IM-2007-17861	Philippines, Panglao Is., Sungcolan Bay, PANGLAO 2004, 9°38'30"N 123°49'12"E	EU015683	HQ401684	HQ401618	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Leufroyia concinna</i> (Scacchi, 1836)	ZMBN-H-3-69a	Norway, 60°33'N 4°52'12"E	JF834222			Høisæter (2016)
<i>Leufroyia concinna</i> (Scacchi, 1836)	ZMBN-E-23-67	Norway, 60°18'N 5°10'48"E	JF834223			Høisæter (2016)
<i>Leufroyia concinna</i> (Scacchi, 1836)	ZMBN-020209-F	Norway, 60°13'48"N 5°12'E	JF834224	JF834218		Høisæter (2016)
<i>Leufroyia concinna</i> (Scacchi, 1836)	BAU-2254.1	Croatia, Biograd, 43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E	MK410616	MK410593	MK410580	This study
<i>Leufroyia concinna</i> (Scacchi, 1836)	BAU-2237	France, La Ciotat, Figuerolles, 43°09'53"N 5°35'45"E, 15 m	MK410633	MK410606		This study
<i>Leufroyia leufroyi</i> (Michaud, 1828)	BAU-2240.1	Croatia, Sevid, 43°28'46"N 16°02'08"E, 2-4 m	MK410613			This study

<i>Leufroyia leufroyi</i> (Michaud, 1828)	BAU-1742	Sardinia, Villasimius, 39°07'43"N 9°32'17"E Mid-	MK410628		MK410584	This study
' <i>Phymorhynchus</i> ' sp.	MCR-1256	Cayman Spreading Centre, Beebe vent chimneys	KJ566952	KM979537		Plouviez <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>Pleurotomella</i> sp.	MNHN-IM-2007-17848	New Caledonia, Lansdowne, EBISCO, 20°4'52.32"S 160°20'2.34"E	EU015657	HQ401701	HQ401640	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Pseudodaphnella aureotincta</i> (Hervier, 1897)	MNHN-IM-2007-17878	Philippines, Pamilacan Is., PANGLAO 2004, 9°29'24"N 123°56'6"E	EU015700	HQ401688	HQ401624	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Raphitoma bicolor</i> (Risso, 1826)	BAU-1897	France, St. Maxime, 43°18'49"N 6°40'22"E, intertidal	MK410630	MK410603		This study
<i>Raphitoma cordieri</i> (Payraudeau, 1826)	BAU-2262.1	Croatia, Sukosan, 44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E	MK410619	MK410595	MK410582	This study
<i>Raphitoma cordieri</i> (Payraudeau, 1826)	BAU-2262.2	Croatia, Sukosan, 44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E	MK410625			This study
<i>Raphitoma densa</i> (Monterosato, 1884)	BAU-2257.1	Croatia, Sukosan, 44°02'10"N 15°18'55"E	MK410617	MK410594	MK410581	This study
<i>Raphitoma densa</i> (Monterosato, 1884)	BAU-1895	Italy, Torre Colimena, 40°17'39"N 17°45'17"E, 3 m	MK410629	MK410602		This study
<i>Raphitoma horrida</i> (Monterosato, 1884)	BAU-2264.1	Croatia, Dugi Otok, 43°59'N 15°05'34"E	MK410620	MK410596	MK410583	This study
<i>Raphitoma horrida</i> (Monterosato, 1884)	BAU-1900	Corsica, Tour d'Ancone, 42°02'36"N 8°43'20"E, 10 m	MK410631	MK410604		This study
<i>Raphitoma horrida</i> (Monterosato, 1884)	BAU-1906.1	France, St. Maxime, 43°18'49"N 6°40'22"E, intertidal	MK410612	MK410590	MK410577	This study
<i>Raphitoma laviae</i> (Philippi, 1844)	BAU-2253.1	Croatia, Telascjca, 43°53'30"N 15°09'33"E	MK410615	MK410592	MK410579	This study
<i>Raphitoma laviae</i> (Philippi, 1844)	BAU-2246.1	Croatia, Zaton, 44°13'07"N 15°09'41"E	MK410614	MK410591	MK410578	This study
<i>Raphitoma maculosa</i> Høisæter, 2016	ZMBN-040809_X	Norway, 60°18'N 5°07'48"E	MK410638			Høisæter (2016); this study
<i>Raphitoma philberti</i> (Michaud, 1829)	BAU-2365.1	Croatia, Biograd, 43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E	MK410622	MK410598		This study
<i>Raphitoma philberti</i> (Michaud, 1829)	BAU-2258.1	Croatia, Vrsi, 44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E	MK410618			This study
<i>Raphitoma philberti</i> (Michaud, 1829)	BAU-1893.1	Greece, Limnos, Koukonisi Bay, 39°53'07"N 25°16'16"E	MK410611			This study
<i>Raphitoma philiberti</i> (Michaud, 1829)	BAU-3046	Greece: Astypalea Is., Vai, VYLLAS 2017, 36°35'13"N 026°24'10"E, 1-6 m, under rocks	MK410636		MK410588	This study
<i>Raphitoma pseudohystrix</i> (Sykes, 1906)	BAU-3205	Malta, SW, off Gnejna Bay, 35°49'54.3"N 14°17'15.2"E, 220 m, fine sand and mud	MK410637	MK410609	MK410589	This study
<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i> (Montagu, 1803)	BAU-2337.1	France, Ploubazlanec, 48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W, intertidal	MK410621	MK410597		This study
<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i> (Montagu, 1803)	BAU-2337.3	France, Ploubazlanec, 48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W, intertidal	MK410626			This study
<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i> (Montagu, 1803)	BAU-2338	France, Ploubazlanec, 48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W, intertidal	MK410634	MK410607	MK410586	This study
' <i>Raphitoma</i> ' <i>rubroapicata</i> (E. A. Smith, 1885)	BAU-2338	France, Ploubazlanec, 48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W, intertidal	EU015713	HQ401703	HQ401642	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
' <i>Raphitoma</i> ' sp.	MNHN-IM-2007-17890	Philippines, Panglao Is., off Momo beach, PANGLAO 2004, 9°36'30"N 123°45'18"E	EU015704			Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
	MNHN-IM-2007-17882	Philippines, Balicasag Is., PANGLAO 2004, 9°30'54"N 123°41'12"E	EU015645	HQ401704		Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Rimosodaphnella</i> sp.	MNHN-IM-2007-17836	New Caledonia, Koumac Sector, around Ouaco, BOA1, 20°48'42"S 164°24'12"E	EU015650	HQ401682	HQ401616	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Spergo</i> sp.	MNHN-IM-2007-17841	New Caledonia, SE Fairway, EBISCO, 21°32'36"S 162°28'36"E	HQ401584	HQ401707	HQ401645	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Taranis</i> sp.	MNHN-IM-2007-42296	Philippines, AURORA 2007, 15°56'34.2"N 121°50'11.4"E				

<i>Taranis</i> sp.	MNHN-IM-2013-52046	Papua New Guinea, Bismarck Archipelago, W Kairiru I., 3°19'26.4"S 143°27'14.4"E	KR087296	KR088045	KR087382	Fedosov <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>Teretiopsis</i> cf. <i>hyalina</i> Sysoev & Bouchet, 2001	MNHN-IM-2007-17845	New Caledonia, SE Fairway, EBISCO, 21°28'8"S 162°33'54"E	EU015654	HQ401708	HQ401646	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Thatcheria mirabilis</i> Angas, 1877	MNHN-IM-2007-17924	Salomon Is., SE Isabel, SALOMON 2, 8°16'54"S 159°59'42"E	EU015736	FJ868138	FJ868124	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Vepracula</i> cf. <i>spanionema</i> (Melvill, 1917)	MNHN-IM-2007-17883	Philippines, Balicasag Is., PANGLAO 2004, 9°30'54"N 123°41'12"E	EU015705	HQ401717	HQ401654	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<b>Clathurellidae</b>						
<i>Lienardia crassicosata</i> (Pease, 1860)	NA	NA	JF823629	JF823611	JF823590	Cabang <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Lienardia nigrotincta</i> (Montrouzier in Souverbie & Montrouzier, 1873)	MNHN-IM-2007-42607	Vanuatu, E Luganville, Segond Channel, SANTO 2006, 15°30'58"S 167°11'52"E	HQ401575	HQ401666	HQ401599	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Nannodiella ravella</i> (Hedley, 1922)	MNHN-IM-2007-17904	Philippines, Panglao Is., off San Isidro, PANGLAO 2004, 9°33'54"N 123°50'30"E	EU015679	HQ401698	HQ401634	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<b>Mangeliidae</b>						
<i>Anticlinura</i> sp. Thiele, 1934	MNHN-IM-2007-42513	Salomon Is., Sta Isabel, SALOMON 2, 8°47'0"S 159°37'54"E	HQ401572	HQ401660	HQ401590	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Propebela</i> cf. <i>scalaris</i> (Møller, 1842)	MNHN-IM-2007-42325	Norway, Hornsund, Svalbard	HQ401582	HQ401699	HQ401635	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Toxicochlespira pagoda</i> Sysoev & Kantor, 1990	MNHN-IM-2007-17925	Salomon Is., Choiseul, SALOMON 2, 6°37'12.6"S 156°12'44.4"E	EU015738	HQ401711	HQ401649	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<b>Conidae</b>						
<i>Conus radiatus</i> Gmelin, 1791	MNHN-IM-2007-30883	Philippines, Bohol Is., Ubajan, PANGLAO 2004, 9°41'30"N 12350'60"E	KJ550437	KJ550900	KJ551133	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>Conus textile</i> Linnaeus, 1758	MNHN-IM-2007-30900	Vanuatu, NW Aésé Is., SANTO 2006, 15°25'7"S 167°14'10"E	KJ550497	KJ550930	KJ551134	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>Conus ventricosus</i> Gmelin, 1791	NA	Djerba, Tunisia	KJ550006	KJ550745	KJ551370	Puillandre <i>et al.</i> (2014)

Institutional abbreviations are as follows: BAU, Department of Biology and Biotechnologies, 'Sapienza' University, Rome; MNHN, Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris; MT, German Centre for Marine Biodiversity Research, Senckenberg Institute, Wilhelmshaven; ZMBN, University Museum of Bergen Natural History Collections. NA indicates that specimen registration data were not available.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

The dataset is composed of 62 specimens representing 14 raphitomid genera from the Mediterranean Sea, North Sea and Indo–Pacific region. DNA sequence data were generated by us for 28 of these specimens; sequence data for the remaining individuals were obtained from GenBank (Table 1). The specimens sampled included 17 species ascribed to the genus *Raphitoma* s. l.: *Raphitoma aequalis*, *R. bicolor*, *R. concinna*, *R. cordieri*, *R. corimbensis*, *R. densa*, *R. horrida*, *R. laviae*, *R. leufroyi*, *R. linearis*, *R. maculosa*, *R. obesa*, *R. philberti*, *R. pseudohystrix*, *R. purpurea*, *R. rubroapicata*, an unidentified *Raphitoma* sp. The dataset also included 13 other raphitomid or putative raphitomid genera: *Clathromangelia* Monterosato, 1884; *Hemilienardia* Boettger, 1895; *Eucyclotoma* Boettger, 1895; *Rimosodaphnella* Cossmann, 1916; *Veprecula* Melvill, 1917; *Pleurotomella* Verrill, 1872; *Phymorhynchus* Dall, 1908; *Pseudodaphnella* Boettger, 1895; *Spergo* Dall, 1895; *Taranis* Jeffreys, 1870; *Thatcheria* Angas, 1877; *Daphnella* Hinds, 1844; and *Teretiopsis* Kantor & Sysoev, 1989. Specimens from two other conoidean families were also included. These groups are the Clathurellidae (the putative sister group of the raphitomids) and the Mangeliidae (considered to be sister to the clade comprising the Raphitomidae and Clathurellidae) (Abdelkrim *et al.*, 2018). The outgroup comprised three species of Conidae.

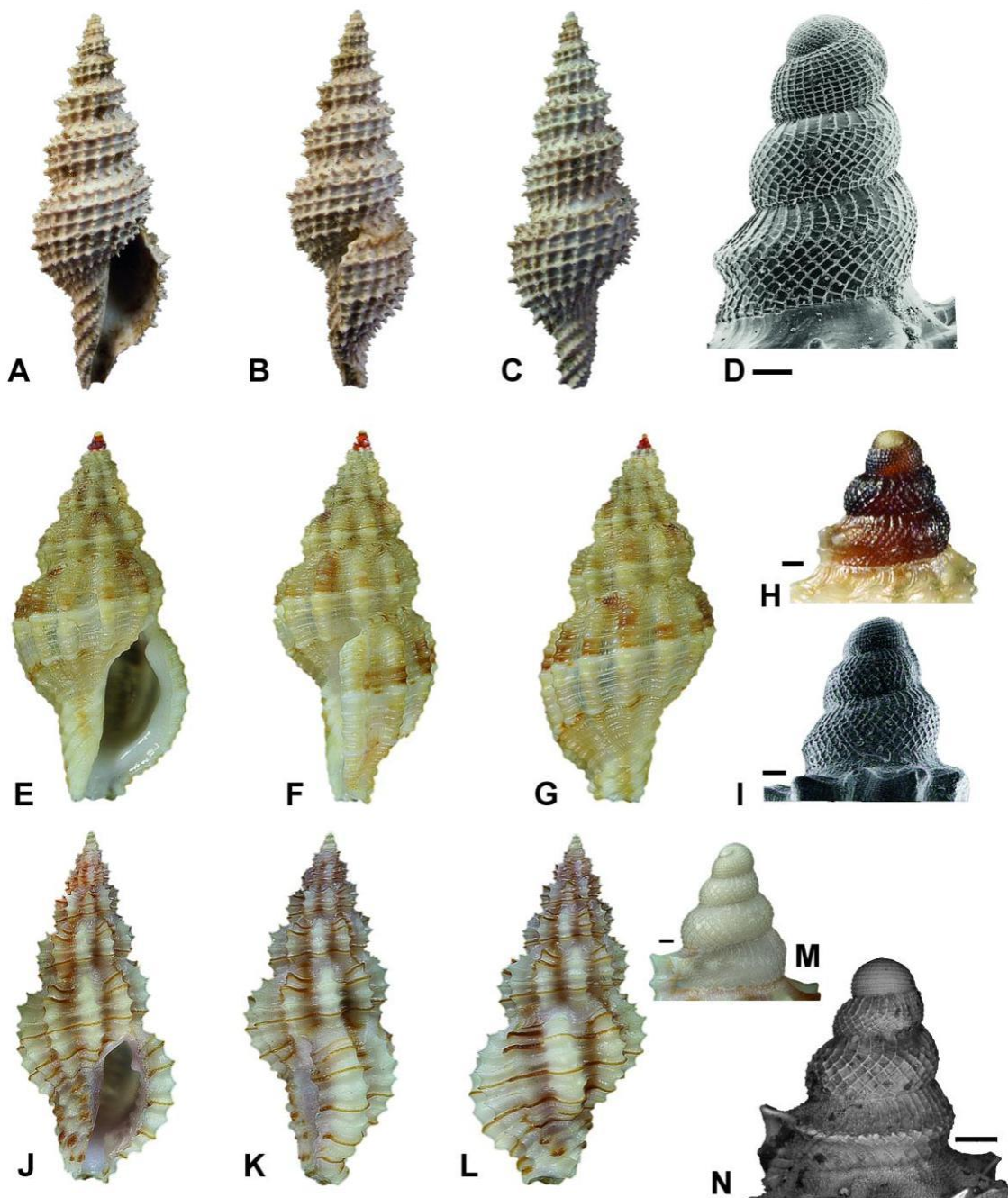
DNA was isolated from a piece of foot tissue following a standard proteinase K/phenol–chloroform extraction protocol (Oliverio & Mariottini, 2001). Three mitochondrial gene fragments were amplified: the 658-bp barcode region of cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI), with universal primers LCO1490 and HC02198 (Folmer *et al.*, 1994); a c. 500-bp region of the 16S rRNA gene, with primers 16SA (Palumbi, 1996), and CGLeuR (Hayashi, 2003) or 16SH (Espiritu *et al.*, 2001); and a c. 600 bp region of the 12S rRNA, with primers 12SI and 12SIII (Oliverio & Mariottini, 2001). The following PCR conditions were used: initial denaturation (94 °C for 4 min); 35 cycles of denaturation (94 °C for 30 s); annealing (48–51 °C for COI, 52 °C for 16S rRNA, 58–60 °C for 12S rRNA for 40 s) and extension (94 °C for 60"); final extension (72 °C for 10 min). Amplicons were purified using Exosap-IT (USB Corporation) and sequenced by Macrogen Inc. (The Netherlands).

COI sequences were aligned using Geneious v. 11 (Kearse *et al.*, 2012). Sequences for 16S rRNA and 12S rRNA were aligned with the online version of MAFFT v. 7 (Kato *et al.*, 2017, Kuraku *et al.*, 2013), using the Q-INS-I algorithm. Ambiguous regions in the 16S rRNA and 12S rRNA alignments were discarded using Gblocks v. 0.91b (Castresana, 2000) with respectively 76% and 64% of the original positions being retained; we used default options.

In our phylogenetic analyses we used the three single-gene datasets as well as a combined dataset (COI+12S rRNA+16S rRNA). The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) implemented in jModelTest v. 2.1.7 (Posada, 2008) was used to identify the best substitution models and parameters for each gene partition; the substitution model selected for all datasets was GTR+I+G. Phylogenetic analyses were performed using maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian approaches; all analyses were run on the CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller Pfeiffer & Schwartz, 2010). ML analyses were done using RAxML v. 8 (Stamatakis, 2014). Branch support estimates were based on 1000 bootstrap replicates. Bayesian analyses were performed using MrBayes v. 3.2.3 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001); analyses were run for  $10^7$  generations, with trees sampled every 1000 generations and 25% burn-in (for all other parameters we used default settings). Convergence of MCMC was assumed to have occurred when the effective sample size was  $>200$  and the potential scale reduction factor was  $\sim 1$ , as calculated with Tracer v. 1.6. Branches with bootstrap values (BS)  $\geq 70\%$  and posterior probabilities (PP)  $\geq 0.95$  were considered to be strongly supported.

## RESULTS

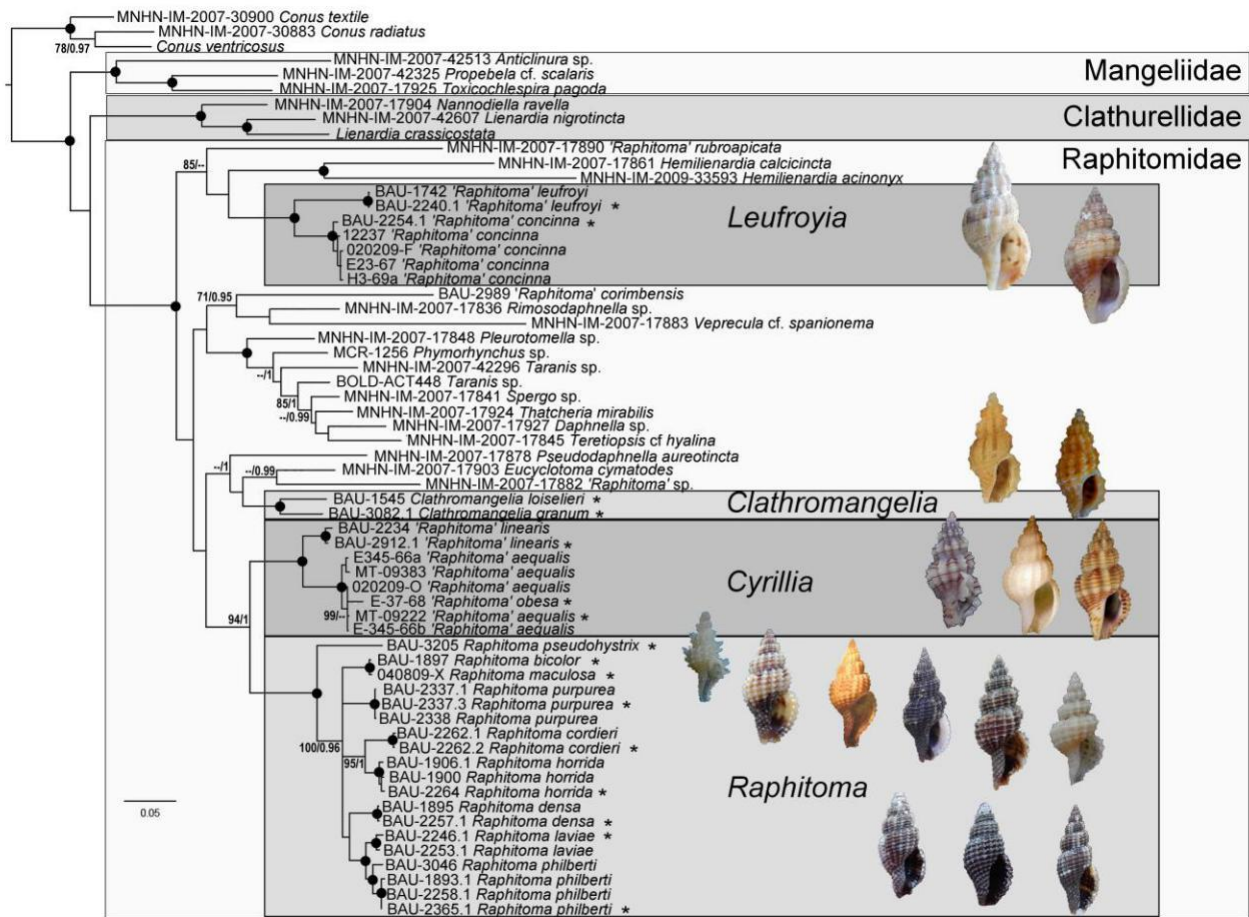
The final datasets consisted of 62 COI sequences, 47 16S rRNA sequences and 34 12S rRNA sequences. Single-gene and combined analyses yielded topologically similar trees. The trees obtained from the concatenated dataset tended to show higher branch support values, and this was especially so in the case of the Bayesian analysis (Fig. 2, Supplementary Material Figs S1–S7). The three families Raphitomidae, Clathurellidae and Mangeliidae together formed a strongly supported monophyletic group. Our Bayesian analyses recovered the Clathurellidae as sister to the raphitomid clade, but this relationship was not strongly supported (e.g. PP = 0.71 for combined dataset, Fig. 2). We found consistently strong support for the monophyly of the Raphitomidae.



**Figure 1.** Type species of Raphitomidae illustrated by representative shell material. **A–D.** *Raphitoma hystrix* Bellardi, 1847, the type species of the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847. Neotype (MRSN n. cat. 011.16.008) from Colli Astesi (Italy; Pliocene, Piacentian); shell height is 17.6 mm. **E–I.** *Leufroyia leufroyi* (Michaud, 1828), the type species of the genus *Leufroyia* Monterosato, 1884. Shell from a depth of 40 m, Ile Rousse (Corsica); shell height is 11 mm. **J–M.** *Cyrellia linearis* (Jeffreys, 1867), the type species of the genus *Cyrellia* Kobelt, 1905. Shell from a depth of 1 m, Lastovo (Croatia); shell height is 7 mm. All scale bars are 100  $\mu$ m in length.

Within the Raphitomidae, specimens of the genus *Raphitoma* s. l. were distributed across five clades. *Raphitoma leufroyi* and *R. concinna* were strongly supported as sister species (BS = 99%, PP = 1); these two species together with *R. rubroapicata* and the genus *Hemilienardia* formed a clade that was strongly supported in the ML analysis (BS = 85%), but not in the Bayesian analysis (PP = 0.94). The Bayesian analysis showed strong support for the clade comprising *R. corimbensis*, *Rimosodaphnella* and *Veprecula* (PP = 0.95), and the clade comprising the '*Raphitoma*' sp. from the Philippines (MNHN-IM-2007-17882) and *Eucyclotoma cymatodes* (PP = 0.99). Relationships between these two clades and other raphitomids were unresolved. The two species of *Clathromangelia*, which were strongly supported as sister taxa (BS = 99%, PP = 1), formed a clade with *Pseudodaphnella*, *Eucyclotoma* and a '*Raphitoma*' sp. (MNHN-IM-2007-17882) in the Bayesian analysis (PP = 1). This clade was nested within the raphitomid clade.





**Figure 2.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans, as illustrated by the Bayesian majority consensus tree of the combined dataset (COI+12S rRNA+16S rRNA). The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as posterior probabilities for the Bayesian analysis (only values  $\geq 0.95$  are shown) and as bootstrap percentages for the ML analysis (only values  $\geq 70\%$  are shown). Closed circles indicate branches with bootstrap support  $>95\%$  and posterior probabilities  $>0.98$ . Shells of vouchers are indicated by asterisks and are not to scale. Scale bar indicates substitutions per site.

Most of the specimens ascribed to *Raphitoma s. l.* formed a strongly supported clade only in the Bayesian analyses of the 12S rRNA, 16S rRNA and combined datasets (PP = 1 in Fig. 1; see also Supplementary Material Figs S1, S3, S5); this large clade was not strongly supported in most of the remaining analyses (Supplementary Material Figs S2, S4, S6, S7). However we consistently found strong support for two lineages within this clade. The first sublineage comprised *Raphitoma linearis*, *R. aequalis* and *R. obesa* (BS = 100%, PP = 1). The second sublineage consisted of *R. pseudohystrix*, *R. bicolor*, *R. cordieri*, *R. densa*, *R. horrida*, *R. laviae*, *R. maculosa*, *R. philberti* and *R. purpurea* (BS = 100%, PP = 1); in this sublineage, *R. pseudohystrix* was sometimes strongly supported as sister to the clade containing the other members of the sublineage.

## DISCUSSION

The Bayesian analyses showed a sister-group relationship between the Raphitomidae and Clathurellidae; this agrees with the most recent phylogenetic hypotheses on the Conoidea, which are based on the most extensive taxon sampling achieved to date (Puillandre *et al.*, 2011, Abdelkrim *et al.*, 2018), but was not strongly supported. The genus *Clathromangelia* was confirmed as belonging to the Raphitomidae, as has previously been suggested on the basis of anatomical and protoconch data (Oliverio, 1995). Our finding that *Clathromangelia* is a member of a clade containing *Pseudodaphnella* and *Eucyclotoma*, is not surprising given the similarity in shell morphology between these three taxa, and particularly between *Clathromangelia* and *Pseudodaphnella*. This study shows that most of the species ascribed to *Raphitoma* s. l. fall into three clades, and we propose that these distinct lineages should be ranked as genera.

We propose to use the name *Raphitoma* for the clade containing *R. pseudohystrix* (believed to be the closest extant relative of the type species of *Raphitoma*), *R. bicolor*, *R. cordieri*, *R. densa*, *R. horrida*, *R. laviae*, *R. maculosa*, *R. philberti* and *R. purpurea*. We note that a strongly supported sister-group relationship of *R. pseudohystrix* to the other species in the sublineage was recovered in some analyses. We also note that *R. pseudohystrix* never formed a clade with other morphologically similar spiny-shelled raphitomids, such as *R. cordieri* and *R. horrida*.

The clade comprising *R. linearis*, *R. aequalis* and *R. obesa* may be the sister group of *Raphitoma* s. s., but this relationship was strongly supported in only three of the eight analyses we carried out. We propose, therefore, to treat the clade of *R. linearis*, *R. aequalis* and *R. obesa* as a distinct genus for which the name *Cyrellia* Kobelt, 1905 is available (see Systematic Descriptions, below). Our results show that the *R. leufroyi* + *R. concinna* lineage is not nested within the clade that contains most of the *Raphitoma* species or the clade of *R. linearis* + *R. aequalis* + *R. obesa*. We use the generic name *Leufroyia* Monterosato, 1884 for the *R. leufroyi* + *R. concinna* lineage.

*Raphitoma corimbensis* was not related to any of these lineages (*Raphitoma*, *Cyrellia* or *Leufroyia*) and, as suggested by its shell morphology (and by that of its certainly close relative, *R. bedoyai* Rolán, Otero-Schmitt & Fernandes, 1998), further studies on its systematic position should explore the relationship between this species and lineages currently placed in the genus *Daphnella* Hinds, 1844 (which may prove to be polyphyletic). We suggest a provisional classification of *R. corimbensis* and *R. bedoyai* in *Paradaphne* Laseron, 1954 (type species: *Daphnella botanica* Hedley, 1922 by original designation), which is currently ranked as a subgenus of *Daphnella* Hinds,

1844. The rationale for this classification is that the shell features of the type species of *Paradaphne* is strikingly similar to *R. bedoyai* and *R. corimbensis*.

Our findings suggest that *Raphitoma rubroapicata* (E.A. Smith, 1885), and the '*Raphitoma*' sp. (IM-2007-17882) do not belong in the genus *Raphitoma*, but further work involving broader taxon sampling is needed to clarify their relationships.

On the basis of the phylogenetic results presented here and shell morphological data, we propose the following new classification for the bulk of Mediterranean/East Atlantic species currently ascribed to *Raphitoma s. l.*, as previously conceived.

**Table 2.** List of Recent species of the genus *Raphitoma* with their geographic range (NEA, North East Atlantic; WA, West Africa; Mac, Macaronesia; Med, Mediterranean) and the type of protoconch (m, multispiral; p, paucispiral).

Species	NEA	WA	Mac	Med	P
<i>R. alida</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2016				+	p
<i>R. alleryana</i> (Sullioti, 1889)				+	p
<i>R. alternans</i> (Monterosato, 1884)				+	p
<i>R. arnoldi</i> (Pallary, 1906)				+	p
<i>R. atropurpurea</i> (Locard & Caziot, 1900)	+		+	+	m
<i>R. bartolinorum</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2018				+	p
<i>R. bernardoï</i> Rolán, Otero-Schmitt & Fernandes, 1998		+			m
* <i>R. bicolor</i> (Risso, 1826) = <i>R. maculosa</i> Høisæter, 2016	+		+	+	m
<i>R. bourguignati</i> (Locard, 1891)	+			+	m
<i>R. bracteata</i> (Pallary, 1904)				+	p
<i>R. brunneofasciata</i> Pusateri, Giannuzzi-Savelli & Oliverio, 2013				+	m
<i>R. christfriedi</i> Rolán, Otero-Schmitt & Fernandes, 1998		+		+	m
<i>R. contigua</i> (Monterosato, 1884)	+			+	m
<i>R. corbis</i> (Potiez & Michaud, 1838)				+	m
* <i>R. cordieri</i> (Payraudeau, 1826)	+	+	+	+	m
* <i>R. densa</i> (Monterosato, 1884)			+	+	m
<i>R. digiulioi</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi Savelli, 2017				+	m
<i>R. ebreorum</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2018				+	m
<i>R. echinata</i> (Brocchi, 1814) sensu Auctores	+		+	+	m
<i>R. farolita</i> F. Nordsieck, 1977				+	p
<i>R. formosa</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	+				m
<i>R. griseomaculata</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli 2018				+	p
<i>R. hispida</i> (Monterosato, 1890)	+			+	m
* <i>R. horrida</i> (Monterosato, 1884)				+	p
<i>R. kharybdis</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2018				+	p
* <i>R. laviae</i> (Philippi, 1844)				+	m
<i>R. lineolata</i> (Bucquoy, Dautzenberg & Dollfus, 1883)	+			+	m
<i>R. locardi</i> Pusateri, Giannuzzi-Savelli & Oliverio, 2013				+	m
* <i>R. maculosa</i> Høisæter, 2016 [=? <i>R. bicolor</i> ]	+				m
<i>R. mirabilis</i> (Pallary, 1904)				+	p
<i>R. nivea</i> (J. T. Marshall in Sykes, 1906)				+	p
<i>R. oblonga</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	+				m
<i>R. papillosa</i> (Pallary, 1904)				+	p
* <i>R. philberti</i> (Michaud, 1829)			+	+	p
<i>R. pruinosa</i> (Pallary, 1906)				+	p
* <i>R. pseudohystrix</i> (Sykes, 1906)			+	+	p
<i>R. pumila</i> (Monterosato, 1890)				+	m
<i>R. pupoides</i> (Monterosato, 1884)				+	m
* <i>R. purpurea</i> (Montagu, 1803)	+	+	+	+	m
<i>R. radula</i> (Monterosato, 1884)				+	m
<i>R. skylla</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2018				+	m
<i>R. smriglioi</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2013				+	p
<i>R. spadiana</i> Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2012				+	p
<i>R. strucki</i> (Maltzan, 1883)		+			?
<i>R. syrtensis</i> F. Nordsieck, 1977				+	p

Species included in our molecular systematic analyses are indicated by an asterisk.

## SYSTEMATIC DESCRIPTIONS

### Family RAPHITOMIDAE Bellardi, 1875

#### Genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847

(Fig. 1A–D; Table 2)

*Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847: 612. [type species *Raphitoma hystrix* Bellardi, 1847 (ex *Pleurotoma hystrix* Cristofori & Jan, 1832, *nomen nudum*) SD, Monterosato, 1872: 54].

*Homotoma* Bellardi, 1875: 22 (type species *Murex reticulatus* Renier, 1804; SD, Powell, 1966). *Cordieria* Monterosato, 1884: 131 (type species *Murex reticulatus* Renier, 1804.; SD, Crosse, 1885; erroneously credited to Brocchi, 1814, ICZN, 1999, Art. 67.7; not Rouault, 1848). *Philbertia* Monterosato, 1884: 132 (type species *Pleurotoma bicolor* Risso, 1826; SD, Crosse, 1885). *Peratotoma* Harris & Burrows, 1891: 113 (replacement name for *Homotoma* Bellardi, 1875, not Guérin-Ménéville, 1844). *Cyrtoides* F. Nordsieck, 1968: 176 [type species *Pleurotoma rudis* Scacchi, 1836 (not G.B. Sowerby I, 1834; renamed *Cordieria pupoides* Monterosato, 1884 and *Raphitoma neapolitana* F. Nordsieck, 1977) OD].

*Diagnosis*: Shell small to medium size for family, ranging in height from 5 mm (*R. laviae*) to 25

mm (*R. cordieri*, *R. bourguignati*); shape turreted to biconic-pupoidal; suture impressed. Protoconch: if multispiral, then 3–4.5 whorls, with protoconch I (embryonic shell) of 0.5–0.7 whorls, with reticulate sculpture of spirals and orthocline axial striae, and protoconch II (larval shell) of 2.3–3.5 whorls, with diagonally cancellate sculpture and often keeled last whorl; if paucispiral, then of 2 whorls, with large nucleus and reticulate sculpture. Teleoconch with slender spire of 5 (*R. brunneofasciata*) to 9 (*R. cordieri*) uniformly convex whorls; reticulate-cancellate sculpture, axials broader than spirals. Fine granular microsculpture occasionally present on whole teleoconch (*R. papillosa*) or on first whorl only (*R. philberti*). Outer lip thickened, with 7–13 inner denticles. Columella simple, slightly sinuous anteriorly. Siphonal canal very short (*R. contigua*) to moderately long (*R. cordieri*). Siphonal notch wide, plain or intorted.

*Remarks*: As type species of *Cordieria*, Crosse (1885) designated '*Murex reticulatus* Brocchi,

1814' (following the indication by Monterosato: 1884: 131 "*C. reticulata*, (Ren.) Brocc. / = *Murex reticulatus* ed *echinatus*, Brocc. - 1814, p. 423, t. 8, f. 3"). However, *Murex reticulatus* Brocchi (1814: 435, pl. 9, fig. 12) is not a raphitomid, but a species of *Genota* Gray, 1847 (Borsoniidae). It is clear that Monterosato (1884: 131) confused *Murex reticulatus* Brocchi with *M. reticulatus* Renier (which is also

invalid: ICZN, 1999: Op. 316); the latter is probably the same as *Murex echinatus* Brocchi, 1814 (= *Raphitoma echinata*) and it was this species that Monterosato (1884) was indicating. Therefore, we retain Crosse's (1885) designation but as an incorrect citation (ICZN, 1999: Art. 67.7) and use Renier's name which, even if unavailable, can be designated as the type species for *Cordieria* and *Homotoma*; see ICZN, 1999: Art 67.1.2).

The phylogenetic results presented here do not support any further splitting of this genus. In this respect it is important to note that the species traditionally ascribed to the 'genera' *Philbertia* and *Cordieria* (= *Peratotoma*) are distributed across the tree. Similarly, the grouping of species in the phylogeny does not correspond to differences in larval development (as indicated by their multispiral or paucispiral protoconch), and this is consistent with the currently accepted view that larval development is not a reliable taxonomic character at the genus level (Bouchet, 1990). The genetic distance between *Raphitoma maculosa* and *R. bicolor* is small (<1%), and this level of variation could well fall within the variation of the latter species when a denser sampling of *R. bicolor* is carried out. In contrast, our phylogenetic data indicate that a DNA-barcode-based approach could potentially be used to discriminate between closely related species of *Raphitoma* (e.g. *R. philberti* and *R. densa* in the COI phylogeny; see Supplementary Material Figs S1, S2). DNA barcodes should be used in combination with shell morphology to define species limits in this difficult group of neogastropods.

**Table 3.** List of Recent species of the genus *Cyrellia* with their geographic range (NEA, North East Atlantic; WA, West Africa; Mac, Macaronesia; Med, Mediterranean) and the type of protoconch (m, multispiral; p, paucispiral).

Species	NEA	WA	Mac	Med	P
* <i>C. aequalis</i> (Jeffreys, 1867)	+			+	m
<i>C. ephesina</i> (Pusateri, Giannuzzi-Savelli & Stahlschmidt, 2017)				+	m
<i>C. kabuli</i> (Rolán, Otero-Schmitt & Fernandes, 1998)		+			m
* <i>C. linearis</i> (Montagu, 1803)	+			+	m
* <i>C. obesa</i> (Høisæter, 2016) [= ? <i>C. aequalis</i> ]	+				m
<i>C. zamponorum</i> (Horro, Gori & Rolán, 2019)		+			m

Species included in our molecular systematic analyses are indicated by an asterisk.

### Genus *Cyrellia* Kobelt, 1905

(Fig. 1J–M; Table 3)

*Cirillia* Monterosato, 1884: 133 [type species *Murex linearis* Montagu, 1803, SD Crosse, 1885; not Rondani, 1856 (Diptera)].

*Cyrellia* Kobelt, 1905: 367 (unjustified emendation of *Cirillia* Monterosato, 1884).

*Cenodagreutes* E. H. Smith, 1967: 1 (type species *Cenodagreutes aethus* E. H. Smith, 1967 = *Defranciaaequalis* Jeffreys, 1867; OD). *Lineotoma* F. Nordsieck, 1977 (replacement name for *Cirillia* Monterosato, 1884, not Rondani, 1856).

*Diagnosis:* Shell small in size for family, from 5 mm (*C. linearis*) to 10 mm (*C. ephesina*); biconic, suture impressed. Protoconch 3.5–4 whorls, multispiral, with protoconch I (embryonic shell) of 0.5– 0.7 whorls, with reticulate sculpture of spirals and orthocline axial striae, and protoconch II (larval shell) of 3.3–3.5 whorls, with diagonally cancellate sculpture and weakly keeled last whorl. Teleoconch with slender spire of 5 (*C. linearis*) to 7 (*C. ephesina*) convex whorls, with reticulate-cancellate sculpture; axials broader than spirals. Microsculpture of granules or pustules; growth lines seldom obvious. Outer lip thickened, with 7–13 inner denticles, the 2 anterior-most stronger. Columella simple, slightly sinuous anteriorly. Siphonal canal short; siphonal notch plain.

*Remarks:* *Cirillia* Monterosato, 1884 is preoccupied by *Cirillia* Rondani, 1856, but the emended name *Cyrillia* Kobelt, 1905 is available, and has already been used (e.g. Ceulemans *et al.*, 2018). This is a clear case of a demonstrably intentional emendation (ICZN, 1999: Art. 33.2), since the prescriptions of the Code are met: “there is an explicit statement of intention” ... and “both the original and the changed spelling are cited and the latter is adopted in place of the former” (ICZN, 1999: Art. 33.2.1). As an intentional, yet unjustified emendation, the name that should be used is *Cyrillia* Kobelt, 1905 (ICZN, 1999: Art. 33.2.3).

*Cirillia aequalis* and *C. linearis* lack radula and venom gland. Our phylogenetic results suggest that denser sampling may show *C. obesa* to be simply a colour variant of *C. aequalis*. *Cyrillia zamponorum* from São Tomé Island and another probably undescribed species from Madagascar (N. Puillandre & M. Oliverio, unpubl.) indicate that this lineage has a wide geographical distribution.



**Table 4.** List of Recent species of the genus *Leufroyia* with their geographic range (NEA, North East Atlantic; WA, West Africa; Mac, Macaronesia; Med, Mediterranean) and the type of protoconch (m, multispiral; p, paucispiral).

Species	NEA	WA	Mac	Med	P
* <i>L. concinna</i> (Scacchi, 1836)	+		+	+	m
<i>L. erronea</i> Monterosato, 1884				+	m
* <i>L. leufroyi</i> (Michaud, 1828)	+	+	+	+	m
<i>L. villaria</i> (Pusateri & Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2008)		+		+	m

Species included in our molecular systematic analyses are indicated by an asterisk.

### Genus *Leufroyia* Monterosato, 1884

(Fig. 1E–I; Table 4)

*Leufroyia* Monterosato, 1884: 134 (type species *Pleurotoma leufroyi* Michaud, 1828; SD Crosse, 1885).

**Diagnosis:** Shell medium to large size for family, from 15 mm (*L. concinna*) to 24 mm (*L. villaria*); shape suboval (*L. erronea*) to fusiform (*L. leufroyi*). Protoconch of 3–3.5 whorls with protoconch I (embryonic shell) of 0.5–0.7 whorls, with reticulate sculpture of spirals and orthocline axial striae, and protoconch II (larval shell) of 2.5–3 whorls, with diagonally cancellate sculpture, sometimes lightly keeled last whorl. Teleoconch with slender spire of 5 (*L. concinna*) to 7 (*L. villaria*) uniformly convex whorls; sculpture of thin, numerous low spiral cords and broader, wavy axial ribs. Microsculpture of dense, rather conspicuous growth lines, or rugae; no granules or pustules. Inner lip smooth with no denticles. Columella simple, slightly sinuous anteriorly. Siphonal canal short (*L. erronea*) to moderately long (*L. leufroyi*); siphonal notch wide, plain.

**Remarks:** The protoconch is wider (diameter = c. 220–250 µm) and lower than in the ‘multispiral’ propoconch of species of *Raphitoma* and *Cyrellia*.

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## Supplementary Figures to:

### An assessment of *Raphitoma* and allied genera (Neogastropoda: Raphitomidae)

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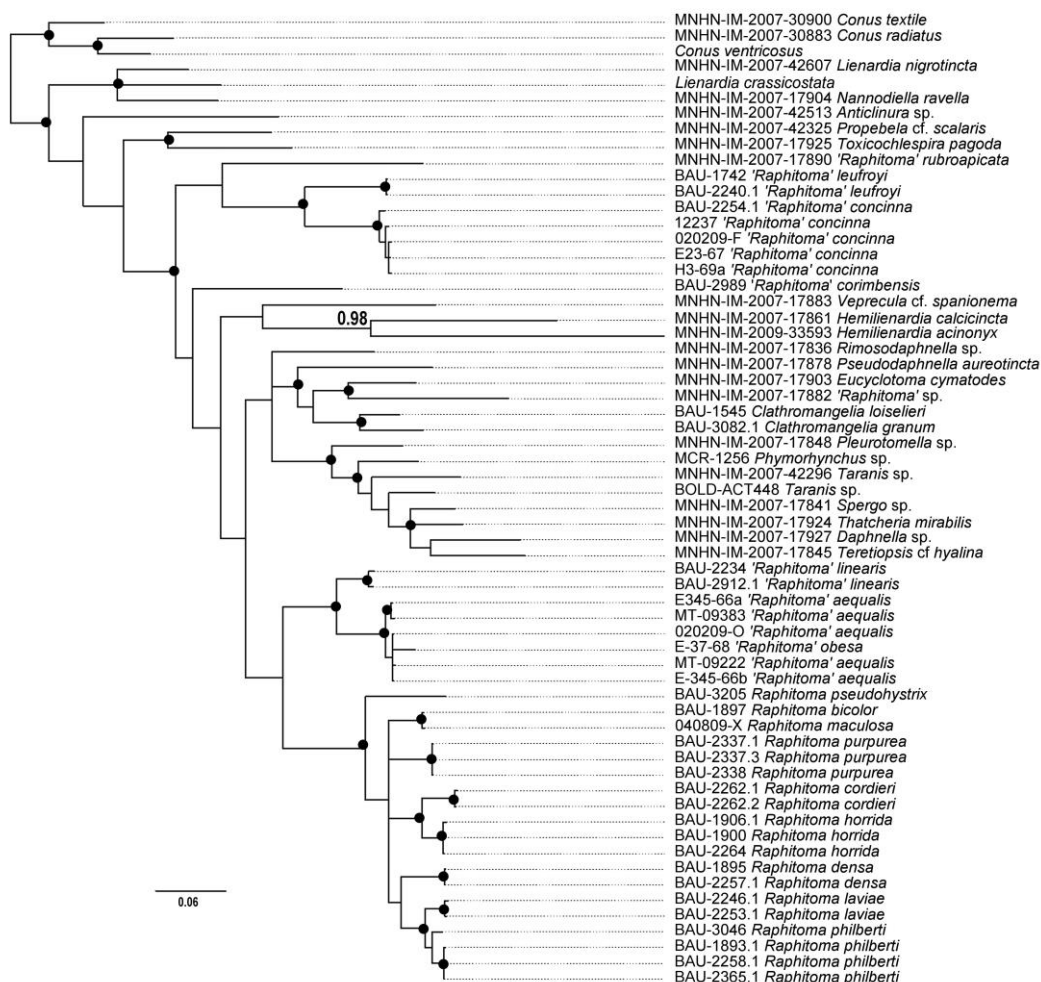
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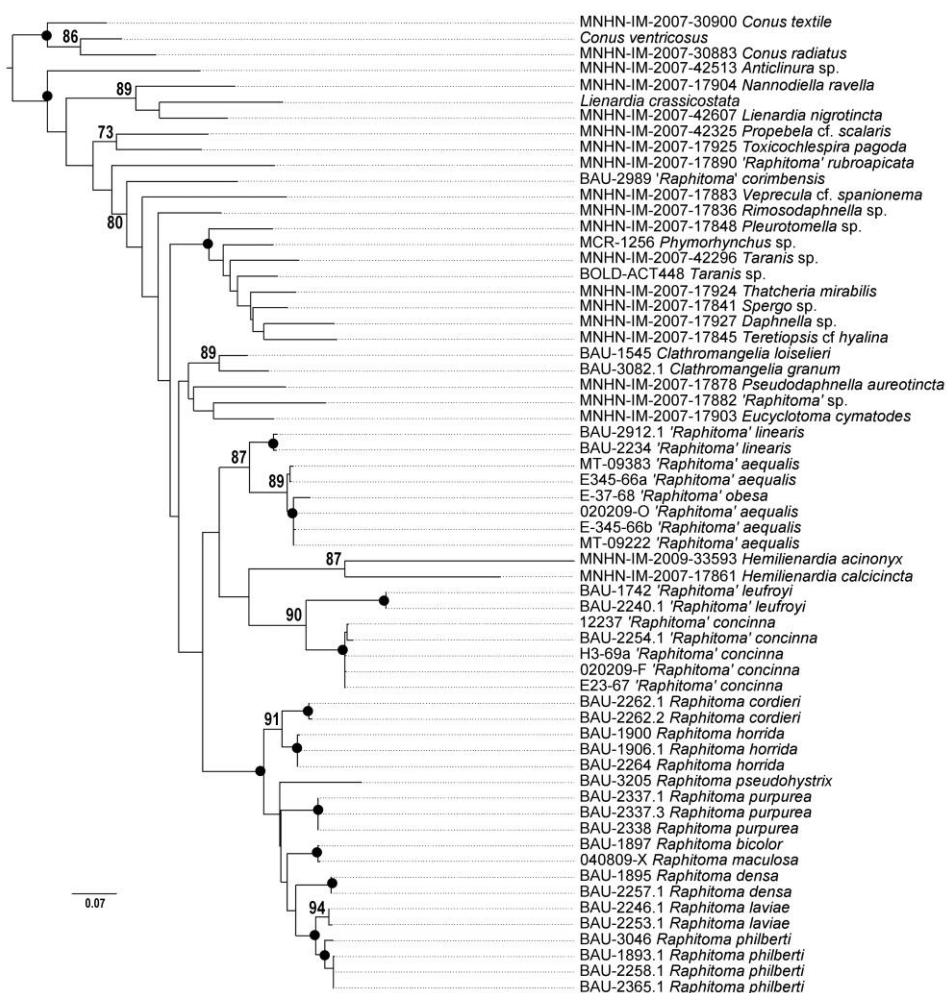
## SYSTEMATICS OF RAPHITOMA



**Suppl. Figure 1.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the Bayesian majority consensus tree of the COI alignment. The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as posterior probabilities for the Bayesian analysis based on  $10^7$  generations, 25% burnin (only values  $\geq 0.95$  are shown); closed circles indicate branches with posterior probabilities  $> 0.98$ .

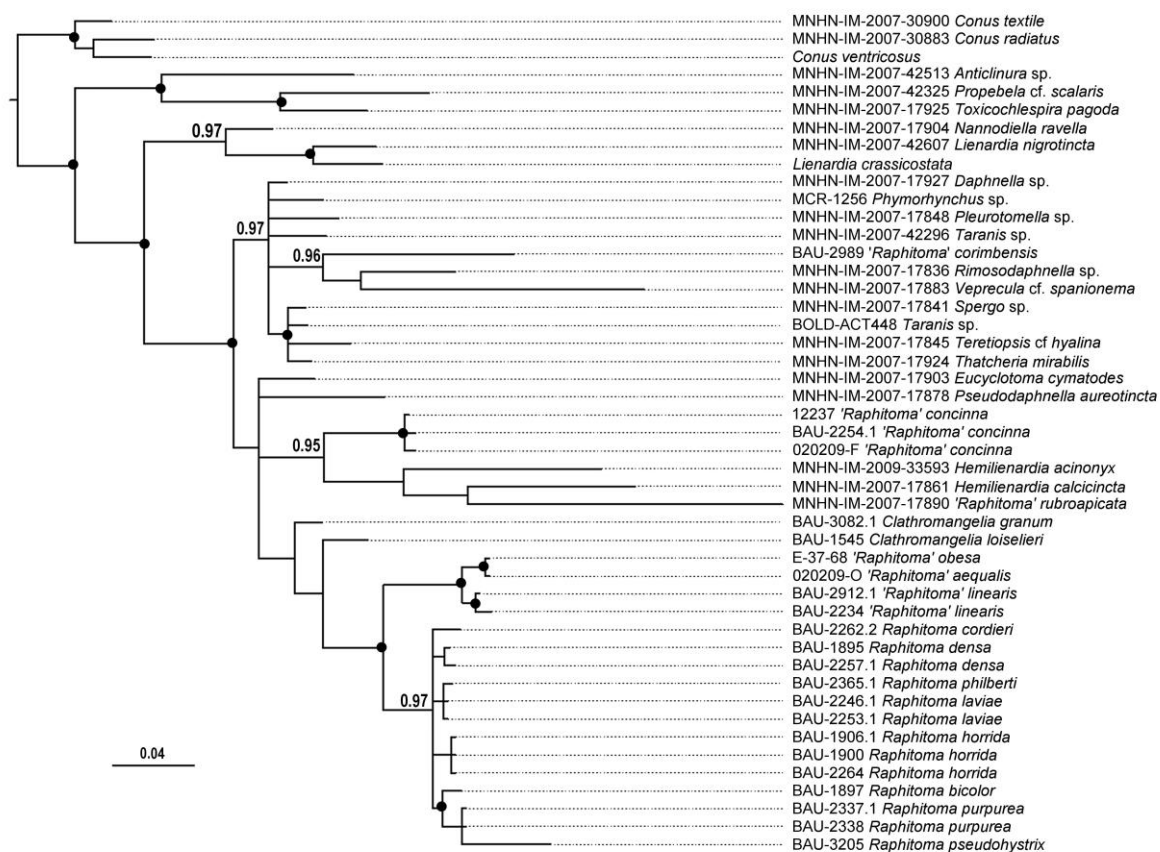


## SYSTEMATICS OF RAPHITOMA



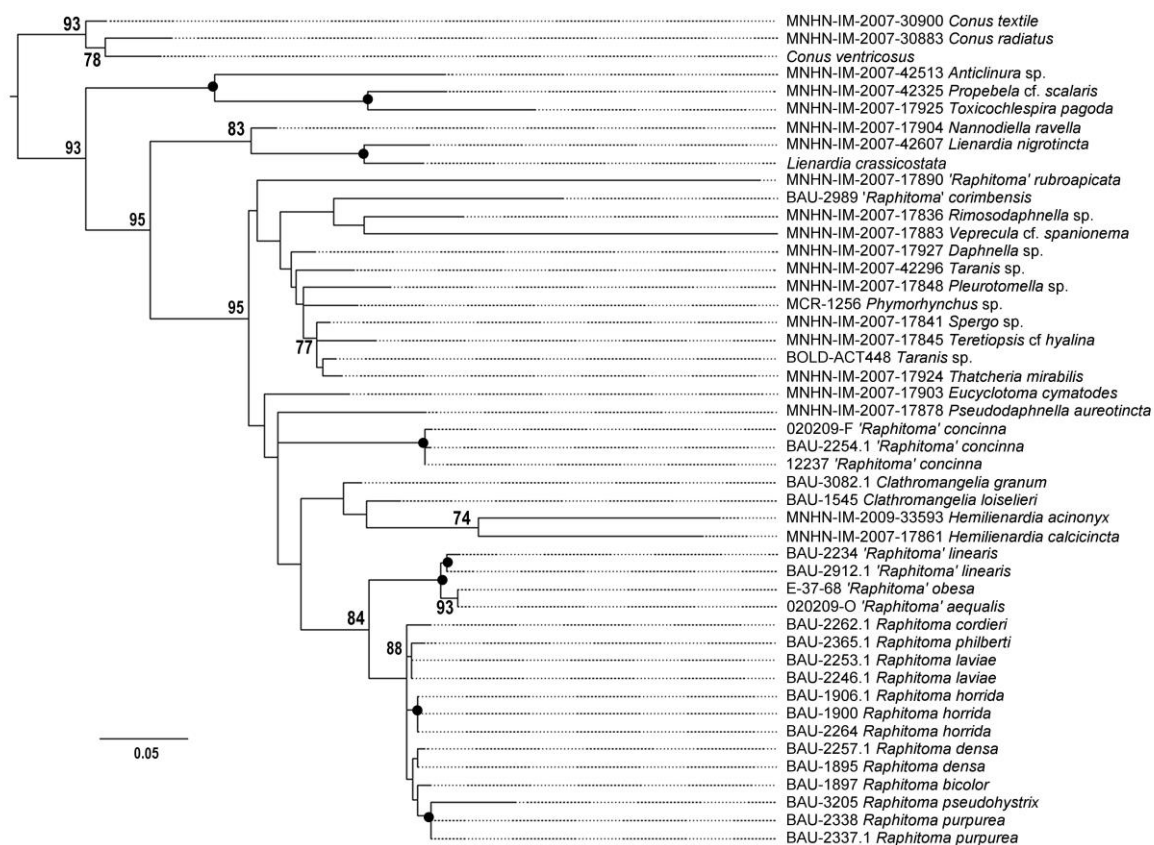
**Suppl. Figure 2.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the ML majority consensus tree of the COI alignment. The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as bootstrap support after ML analysis of 1000 pseudoreplicates (only values  $\geq 70\%$  are shown); closed circles indicate branches with bootstrap support  $>95\%$ .

## SYSTEMATICS OF RAPHITOMA



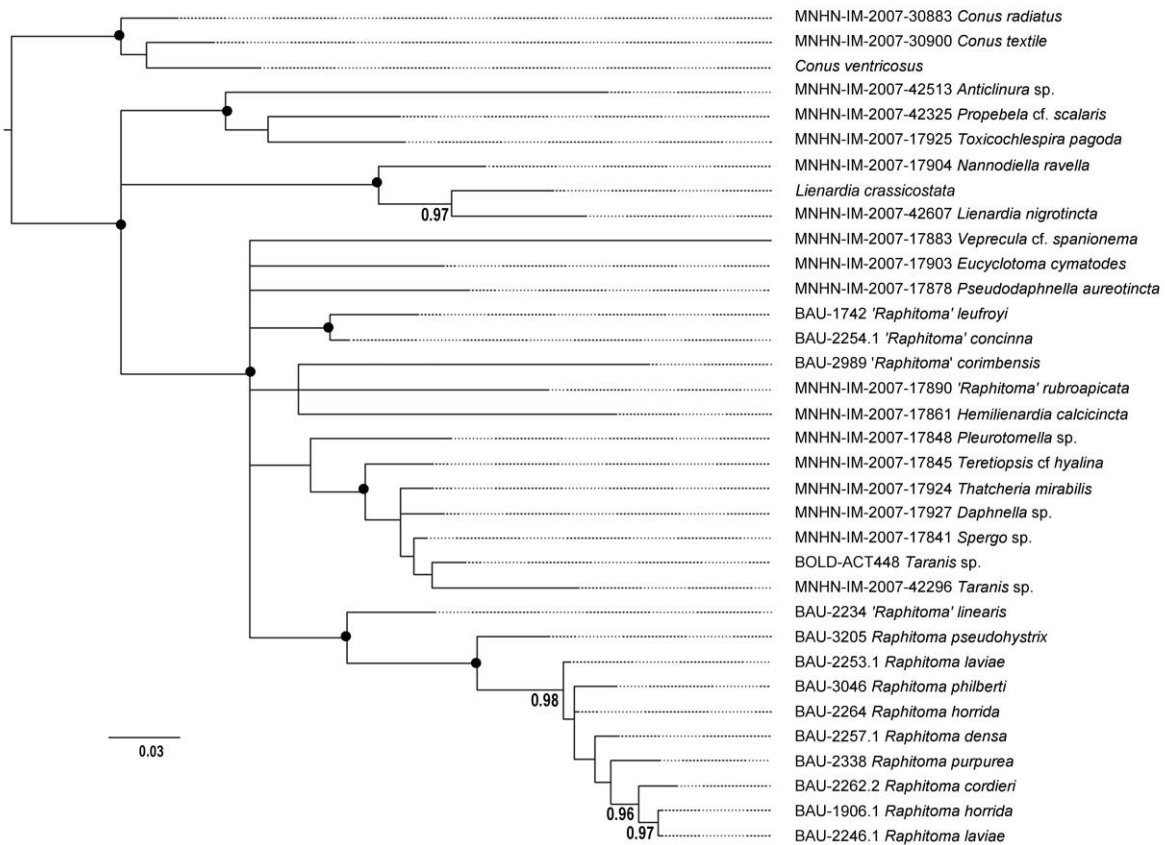
**Suppl. Figure 3.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the Bayesian majority consensus tree of the 16S rRNA alignment. The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as posterior probabilities for the Bayesian analysis based on 10<sup>7</sup> generations, 25% burnin (only values ≥ 0.95 are shown); closed circles indicate branches with posterior probabilities > 0.98.

## SYSTEMATICS OF RAPHITOMA



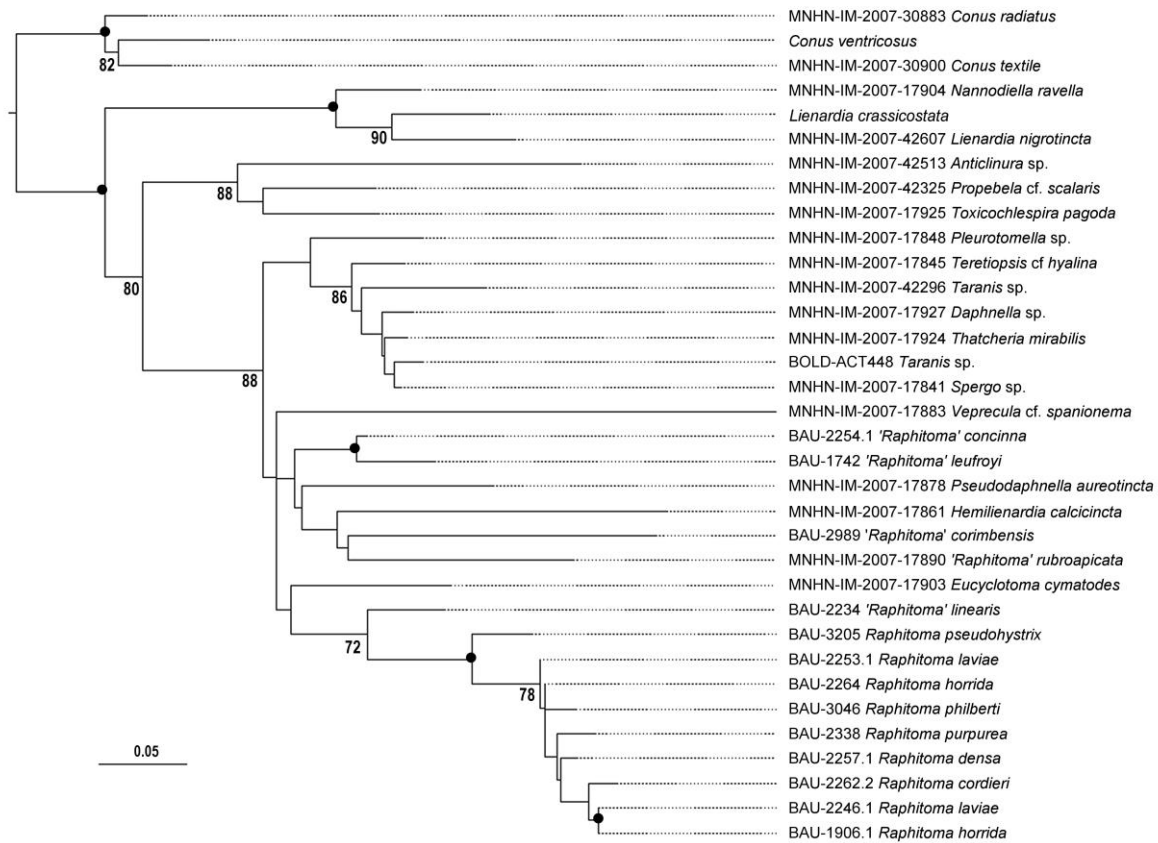
**Suppl. Figure 4.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the ML majority consensus tree of the 16S rRNA alignment. The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as bootstrap support after ML analysis of 1000 pseudoreplicates (only values  $\geq 70\%$  are shown); closed circles indicate branches with bootstrap support  $>95\%$ .

## SYSTEMATICS OF RAPHITOMA



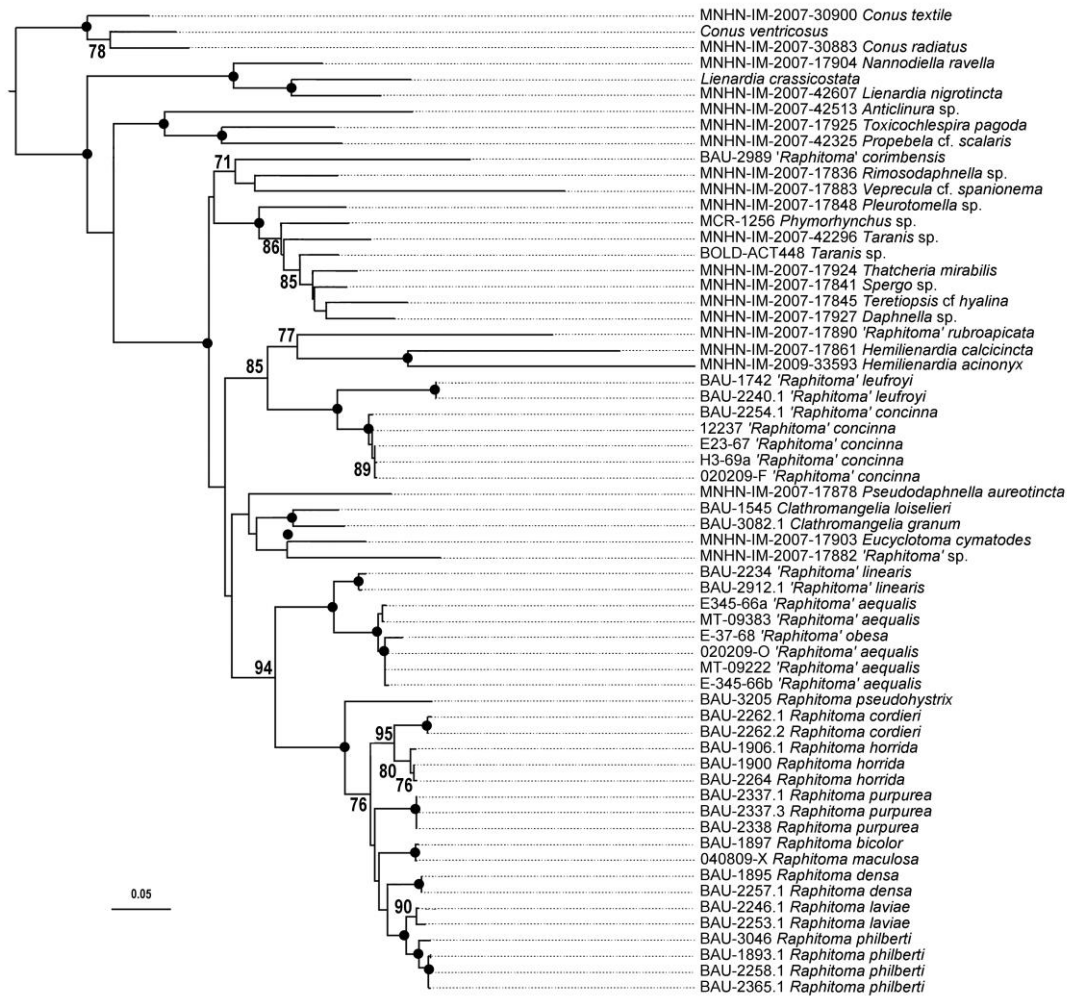
**Suppl. Figure 5.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the Bayesian majority consensus tree of the 12S rRNA alignment. The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as posterior probabilities for the Bayesian analysis based on  $10^7$  generations, 25% burnin (only values  $\geq 0.95$  are shown); closed circles indicate branches with posterior probabilities  $>0.98$ .

## SYSTEMATICS OF RAPHITOMA



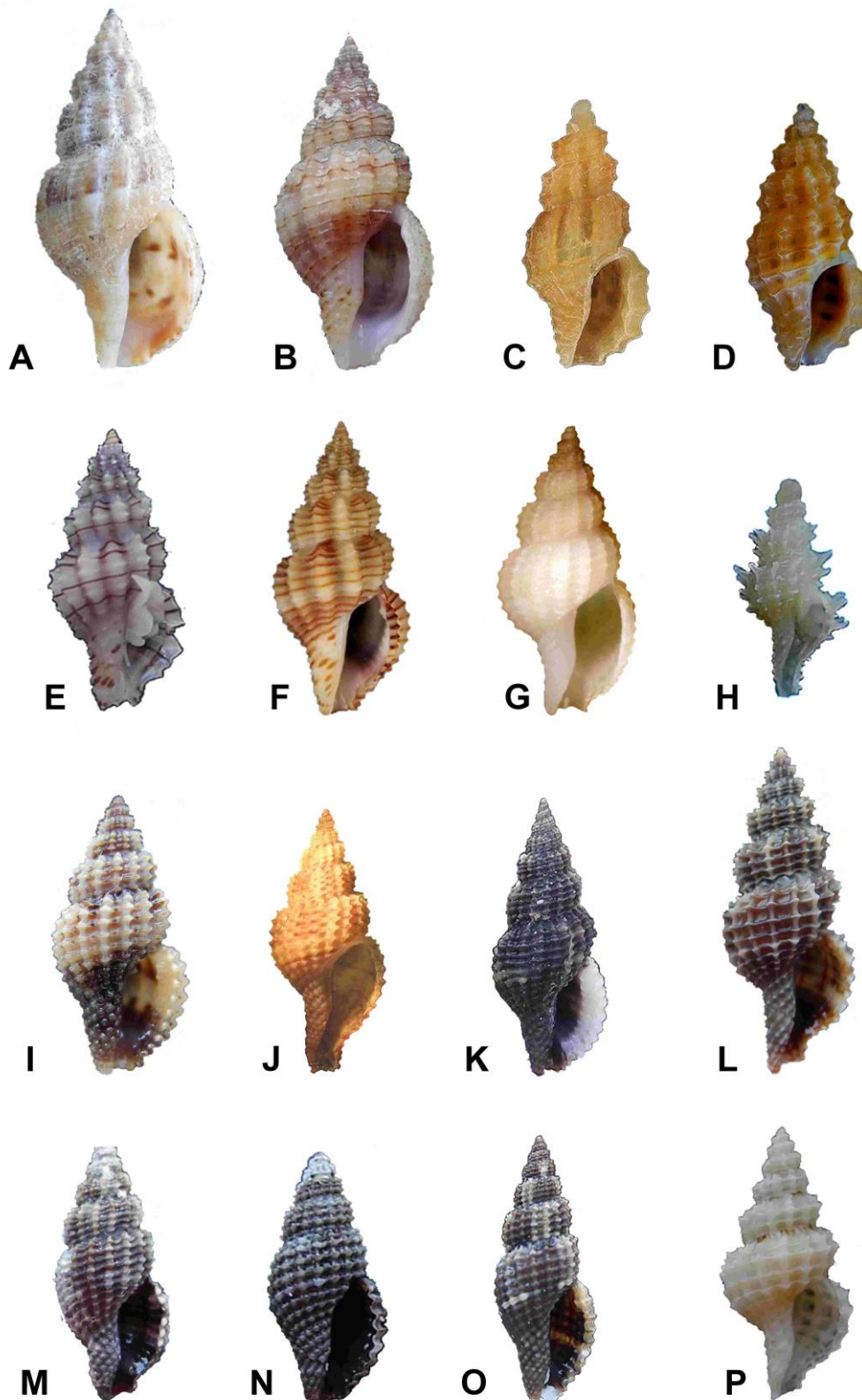
**Suppl. Figure 6.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the ML majority consensus tree of the 12S rRNA alignment. The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as bootstrap support after ML analysis of 1000 pseudoreplicates (only values  $\geq 70\%$  are shown); closed circles indicate branches with bootstrap support  $>95\%$ .

SYSTEMATICS OF *RAPHITOMA*



**Suppl. Figure 7.** Phylogenetic relationships among conoideans as illustrated by the ML majority consensus tree of the combined dataset (COI+12S rRNA+16S rRNA). The tree is rooted on a composite outgroup comprising three species of *Conus*. Support values are given as bootstrap support after ML analysis of 1000 pseudoreplicates (only values  $\geq 70\%$  are shown); closed circles indicate branches with bootstrap support  $>95\%$ .

SYSTEMATICS OF *RAPHITOMA*



**Suppl. Figure 8.** Representative vouchers as in Figure 1. A. *Leufroyia leufroyi* (Michaud, 1828), BAU-2240.1, Croatia. B. *L. concinna* (Scacchi, 1836), BAU-2254.1, Croatia. C. *Clathromangelia loiselierii* Oberling, 1970, BAU-1545, Greece. D. *Clathromangelia granum* (Philippi, 1844), BAU-3082.1, Italy. E. *Cyrellia linearis* (Montagu, 1803), BAU-2234, Italy. F, G. *C. aequalis* (Jeffreys, 1867); F, ZMBN-E-37-68, form 'obesa', Norway. G, MT09222, typical form, North Sea. H. *Raphitoma pseudohystrix* (Sykes, 1906), BAU-3205, Malta. I, J. *R. bicolor* (Risso, 1826); I, BAU-1897, typical form, France; J, form 'maculosa', ZMBN-040809-X, Norway. K. *R. purpurea* (Montagu, 1803), BAU-2337.3, France. L. *R. cordieri* (Payraudeau, 1826), BAU-2262.2, Croatia. M. *R. densa* (Monterosato, 1884), BAU-2257.1, Croatia. N. *R. laviae* (Philippi, 1844), BAU-2246.1, Croatia. O. *R. philberti* (Michaud, 1829), BAU-2365.1, Croatia. P. *R. horrida* (Monterosato, 1884), BAU-2264.1, Croatia.

## Genetic evidence of poecilogony in Neogastropoda: implications for the systematics of the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847

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### Abstract

Poecilogony is the intraspecific variation in developmental mode, with larvae of different types produced by the same individual, population or species. It is very rare among marine invertebrates, and in gastropods has long been described only in a few opisthobranchs. The physiological and regulatory mechanisms underlying larval evolutionary transitions, such as loss of planktotrophy that occurred repeatedly in many caenogastropod lineages, are still largely unknown. We have studied the inter- v. intraspecific variation in larval development in the NE Atlantic neogastropod genus *Raphitoma*, starting with an integrative taxonomy approach: 17 morpho-species were tested against a COI molecular-distance based method (ABGD), and the retained species hypotheses were eventually inspected for reciprocal monophyly on a multilocus dataset. We subsequently performed an ancestral state reconstruction on an ultrametric tree of the 10 final species hypotheses, time-calibrated by fossils, revealing that all the interspecific changes were planktotrophy>lecithotrophy, and all have occurred after 2.5 Million years ago (mya). This is suggestive of a major role played by Pleistocene Mediterranean oceanographic conditions - enhanced oligotrophy, unpredictable availability of water column resources - likely to favour loss of planktotrophy. Within this group of



species, that has diversified after the Miocene, we identified one pair of sibling species differing in their larval development, evidence of a speciation event associated to the loss of planktotrophy. However, we also identified two poecilogonous species, each characterized by individuals with both larval developmental types. This is the first documentation of poecilogony in the Neogastropoda, and the second in the whole Caenogastropoda. Although sibling species with different developmental strategies may offer good models to study some evolutionary aspects, poecilogonous taxa are optimally suited for identifying regulatory and developmental mechanisms underlying evolutionary transitions.

**Additional keywords:** Gastropoda, planktotrophy, lecithotrophy, Integrative Taxonomy

## Introduction

Marine gastropod molluscs, like many other benthic invertebrates, generally have a biphasic life cycles, with sedentary adults and pelagic larvae to which dispersal is mostly committed (Cowen and Sponaugle 2009; Ellingson and Krug 2015; Jablonski and Lutz 1983; Strathmann 1985). The most primitive gastropods possess a pelagic larva that does not feed actively on plankton (non-planktotrophic) but in the course of their evolutionary history the members of the class have evolved several developmental strategies that fall into two fundamental categories:

[P] planktotrophic development, with larvae feeding on plankton, spending a relatively long time in the planktonic stage;

[NP] non-planktotrophic development, mostly lecithotrophic but including also direct development and brooding: larvae, if present, have at their disposal a more or less large yolk supply (lecithotrophy) or nurse eggs, reach metamorphosis without feeding on plankton (with only limited uptake of dissolved organic material: see Jaekle and Manahan 1989; Manahan 1990), and usually spend less time than P-larvae or no time at all in the plankton.

Poecilogony is defined as the intraspecific variation in developmental mode, with different larvae (e.g., free-swimming planktotrophic and brooded lecithotrophic) produced by the same individual, population or species (Giard 1905; Chia *et al.* 1996). Such variations have been documented in a few groups of marine invertebrates only (Knott and McHugh 2012), whereas it has long been assumed that within Caenogastropoda development strategies are strongly constrained within a species, and that poecilogony is not present (Bouchet 1989; Hoagland and Robertson 1988). Since poecilogony has been documented with certainty and with biological details only in a few groups of marine invertebrates – sacoglossan sea slugs (Krug 2009), and spionid polychaetes (Blake and Arnofsky 1999) – any further evidence is certainly of great relevance. In fact, most marine invertebrate groups show evidence of evolutionary transitions in larval phenotype, such as the loss of planktotrophy that occurred repeatedly in many lineages of marine caenogastropods (Oliverio 1996*b*). The mechanisms underlying both the evolutionary transitions and the intraspecific variation (poecilogony) are still largely unknown. Although sibling species with different developmental strategies may offer good models to such study, it is clear that poecilogonous taxa would be optimally suited for identifying regulatory and physiological mechanisms of evolutionary developmental transitions, since this very transition exists within a single species and is not confounded by variation occurring during or after speciation (Knott and McHugh 2012).

Knott and McHugh (2012) provided a schematic approach to the study of poecilogony, aimed at describing the mechanisms of poecilogony and their role in evolutionary transitions. The first step in this approach is obviously the identification of reliable cases of poecilogony, ruling out potentially cryptic species. In fact, following Hoagland and Robertson (1988) and Bouchet (1989), who discredited most cases of putative poecilogony, further studies confirmed that developmental variability subtended unrecognized cryptic species (Collin 2002; Kruse *et al.* 2003; Russini *et al.* 2017), in what has been assumed as the most conservative interpretation (Knowlton 2000, Bickford *et al.* 2007). However, in a few cases genetic data supported poecilogony (Ellingson and Krug 2006; McDonald *et al.* 2014; Vendetti *et al.* 2012a).

Shelled gastropods can serve as unique models for evolutionary developmental studies, since many aspects of larval development are incorporated in the morphology of the larval shells (protoconch), which are very frequently preserved at the tip of the adult shell (teleoconch). This characteristic allows for the inference of a number developmental features based on the comparative study of the protoconch, and the extension of such studies to both extant and fossil lineages (Nutzell 2014; Shuto 1974).

Recently, the taxonomic revision of the North-Eastern Atlantic and Mediterranean neogastropods of the family Raphitomidae (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2018b) has yielded the description of many pairs of sibling 'species' differing exclusively in their larval development, as inferred by the morphology of the larval shell, and assuming that poecilogony is not present in this group following Bouchet (1989, 1990). A similar pattern of sibling species differing mainly in their larval development was recently observed also in Indo-Pacific species of the raphitomid genus *Pseudodaphnella* Boettger, 1895, with at least three such pairs identified by molecular data (Fedosov and Puillandre 2012). The possibility of testing this assumption also in the genus *Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847 with molecular data prompted us to scrutinize this issue.

## Materials and methods

### Dataset

Our dataset consisted of 96 specimens from the Mediterranean and the NE Atlantic spanning as much as possible of the morphological variation within the genus *Raphitoma* as recently redefined (Fassio *et al.* 2019). Taxonomic authorities and dates, localities and accession numbers for all specimens are reported in Table 1. Identification upon collection, based on gross examination of overall shell morphology, suggested the presence of at least a dozen distinct morpho-species. Almost all specimens were collected in shallow water, 0-10 m depth, fixed and preserved in 95°-100° EtOH (in some cases after microwave oven treatment: Galindo *et al.* 2014) and are stored in the malacological collection at the Department of Biology and Biotechnologies “Charles Darwin” (acronym BAU), Sapienza University of Rome (Italy). Details of the collecting localities, accession numbers, morphological identification and final species attribution are reported in Table 1. In addition to the specimens sequenced herein, we have included in our dataset all available sequences of the genus *Raphitoma* after the work of Fassio *et al.* (2019).

DNA was extracted from a small piece of foot tissue using a modified Proteinase k-Phenol-Chloroform protocol (Oliverio and Mariottini 2001). We amplified one nuclear marker (the internal transcribed spacer 2 of the ribosomal cluster, ITS2, ~500 bp with primers ITS-3d and ITS-4r: Oliverio and Mariottini 2001), and three mitochondrial markers: the barcode fragment of the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI), 658 bp, with primers LCO1490 and HCO 2198 (Folmer *et al.* 1994); a ~ 540 bp fragment of the 12S rDNA with primers 12S I and 12S III (Oliverio and Mariottini 2001); a ~ 484 bp fragment of the 16S rDNA with primers 16SA (Palumbi *et al.* 1991) and CGLeu<sup>UUR</sup>R (Hayashi 2014). PCR products were amplified using the follow general conditions: initial denaturation (94°C/4'); 35 cycles of denaturation (94°C/30"), annealing (48 - 60°C /40"), extension (94°C/60"); final extension (72°C/10'). PCR product were purified using Exosap-IT (USB Corporation) and sequenced by Macrogen Inc. (Spain).

Sequences were aligned using Geneious 11 (Kearse *et al.* 2012) or the online version of MAFFT 7 (Kato *et al.* 2017; Kuraku *et al.* 2013) with the Q-INS-I algorithm. Intraspecific genetic distance for each putative species were estimated with MEGA 7 (Kumar *et al.* 2016), with the Kimura-2-parameters (K2p) model.

The final molecular dataset was composed by 96 COI (658 bp), 12 12S (534 bp), 16 16S (486 bp), 54 ITS2 (577 bp), of which 137 original sequences (Table 1).

### *Species delimitation*

We used an integrative approach to species delimitation, where species are considered as hypotheses to be subsequently tested by independent evidences (Puillandre *et al.* 2009, 2012, 2014). In a first step, we assigned each specimen to a nominal morpho-species based on the most recent taxonomy of the group (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2017, 2018a, 2018b; Pusateri *et al.* 2012, 2013, 2016, 2018), relying on characters of the teleoconch to identify putative species or species-pairs. Through the observation of the protoconch we inferred the larval development for each specimen, i.e. planktotrophic with multispiral protoconch *v.* non-planktotrophic with paucispiral protoconch; accordingly, we identified a putative member within each pair under the assumption that the dichotomy multispiral/paucispiral protoconch can be used to identify sisters species (Bouchet 1989; Oliverio 1997, 1996a, 1996b). This step allowed to identify a series of morphologically based Preliminary Species Hypotheses (PSH).

After the morphological identification, we have tested the PSH against a molecular approach, with the Automatic Barcode Gap Discovery (ABGD, available at <http://www.wabi.snv.jussieu.fr/public/abgd/>), a distance-based method designed to detect the “barcode gap” in the distribution of pairwise distances within a COI alignment (Puillandre *et al.* 2012), which proved useful in delimiting closely related raphitomid species in a recent work (Fassio *et al.* 2019). The analysis was run using the Kimura-2-parameter (K2P) model, a prior for the maximum value of intraspecific divergence between 0.001 and 0.1, 20 recursive steps within the primary partitions defined by the first estimated gap, and a gap width of 1.5.

Finally, we tested the species hypotheses retained after the ABGD analysis for their reciprocal monophyly (yielding Final Species Hypotheses, FSH) by performing a phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI) on single-gene alignments and on a concatenated dataset (COI+16S+12S+ITS2). The best fitting substitution models and parameters for each partition were chosen with Partition Finder2 (Lanfear *et al.* 2016) using the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) for model selection. ML analyses were done using IQ-TREE (Nguyen *et al.* 2014), on 10,000 bootstrap replicates for node support with ultrafast bootstrap (UFBoot) (Hoang *et al.* 2017). BI analyses were performed using MrBayes 3.2.3 (Ronquist *et al.* 2012) with four-chain Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), run twice in parallel for  $10^7$  generations, trees sampled every 1000 generations, and a burn-in of 25%. All analyses were run on the CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller *et al.* 2010). We used 2 samples of *Cyrellia linearis* and 6 samples of *Cyrellia aequalis* as outgroup for the genus *Raphitoma* based on the most recent phylogenetic framework for the raphitomids (Fassio

*et al.* 2019). Nodes with Bootstraps support (BS) of 70-90% and Posterior Probabilities (PP) of 0.90-0.95 have been considered as moderately supported; BS > 90% and PP > 0.95 have been considered as highly supported.

#### *Ancestral character reconstruction*

To investigate the evolution of larval development through the lineages of the ingroup, we performed an ancestral state reconstruction (using the package *phytools* in R: Revell 2012) on a calibrated ultrametric tree, generated with the software BEAST (v. 1.8.0) (Suchard *et al.* 2018) using the concatenated dataset. For the estimate of node ages, we relied on the fossil record of the extinct *Raphitoma hystrix* Bellardi, 1847 (the type species of the genus *Raphitoma*), very likely representing the ancestor of the extant *R. pseudohystrix*, from which it differed only in the multispiral protoconch. *Raphitoma hystrix* is known since the Zanclean stage (3.6–5.33 mya) (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2018a). Another calibration point was set with the first appearance of *R. cordieri*, not known before the Piacenzian stage (2.58–3.6 mya) (Pinna and Spezia 1978). The two calibration points were set under exponential prior (Ho and Phillips 2009), with the major distributions within the boundaries of the respective stage age of identification. The heterogeneity of the mutation rate across lineages was set under uncorrelated, lognormal distributed relaxed clocks for the five partitions, and the Yule process (Gernhard 2008) was chosen.

Based on the state of the character in *R. hystrix* (planktotrophic development), and under the assumption that planktotrophy is generally the ancestral state of caenogastropod lineages (Haszprunar 1995; Oliverio 1996b) we set planktotrophy as prior for the plesiomorphic state of the genus as represented in our dataset.

## Results

### *Species delimitation*

After a refined morphological analysis based on teleoconch and protoconch features, the specimens used in this work were assigned to 17 Preliminary Species Hypotheses (PSHs):

*Raphitoma pseudohystrix*, *R. cf bicolor*, *R. maculosa*, *R. purpurea*, *R. sp. C* (cf *echinata*), *R. cordieri*, *R. horrida*, *R. densa*, *R. philberti*, *R. locardi*, *R. spadiana*, *R. laviae*, *R. contigua*, *R. atropurpurea*, *R. bartolinorum* and two species, namely *R. sp. A* and *R. sp. B*, for which no nominal taxon matching their morphology was found and that are thus potentially undescribed (Table 1). In particular, the species within each of four putative pairs of siblings (*R. cordieri/R. horrida*, *R. philberti/R. locardi*, *R. spadiana/R. contigua* and *R. laviae/R. bartolinorum*) were identified by the different protoconch (multispiral in *R. cordieri*, *R. locardi*, *R. contigua* and *R. laviae* v. paucispiral in *R. horrida*, *R. philberti*, *R. spadiana* and *R. bartolinorum*, respectively), whereas the nominal taxa within each pair shared almost the same variation in teleoconch characters according to traditional taxonomy (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2018b).

The recursive ABGD analysis on the COI alignment identified 10 putative species (Fig. 2). Seven PSH were confirmed by the distance-based analysis (*R. pseudohystrix*, *R. purpurea*, *R. cordieri*, *R. horrida*, *R. densa*, *R. sp. A* and *R. sp. B*). However, some PSH were not confirmed by the genetic data: BAU-3047 from Croatia, a juvenile specimen morphologically identified as *R. sp. C* (cf *echinata*), was clearly indicated as conspecific with Atlantic specimens of *R. purpurea*; *R. cf bicolor* and *R. maculosa* were considered as conspecific; the specimens identified as *R. philberti*, *R. laviae*, *R. contigua*, *R. spadiana*, *R. locardi*, *R. atropurpurea*, *R. bartolinorum* were rearranged into two genetic species hypotheses.

In the phylogenetic analyses, the single-gene trees showed similar topologies but lower node support values. The trees (BI and ML) based on the concatenated dataset have similar topologies and differed mostly in the branch length and support values (Fig. 2). The clade representing the genus *Raphitoma* was highly supported (100/1). All the species hypotheses retrieved by ABGD formed monophyletic clades with high supports (in all trees, by single-gene and concatenated datasets). These 10 groups corresponded to the Final Species Hypotheses (FSH1–10) eventually retained.

Accordingly, the estimated intraspecific genetic divergence at the barcode fragment (COI) ranged from 0.2% to 0.9%, whereas the interspecific genetic divergence within the genus *Raphitoma* ranged from 4.3% to 18.9%

The phylogenetic analyses showed three pairs of sister clades: *R. cordieri* and *R. horrida*; FSH-5 (*R. cf. bicolor* and *R. maculosa*) and *R. purpurea*; *R. densa* and *R. sp. B*; FSH-9 and FSH-10. The latter two FSHs were the most interesting for their composition: FSH-9 included all the specimens morphologically identified as *R. laviae*, *R. contigua* and *R. atropurpurea* (all with multispiral protoconch and planktotrophic larval development), plus those identified as *R. spadiana* and *R. bartolinorum* and some of the specimen identified as *R. philberti* (all with paucispiral protoconch and lecithotrophic larval development); FSH-10 included all the specimen identified as *R. locardi* (with multispiral protoconch and planktotrophic development) and the remaining specimens morphologically ascribed to *R. philberti* (with paucispiral protoconch and lecithotrophic development).

#### *Ancestral state reconstruction*

The tree in Fig. 3 portrays the estimated dating of the nodes based on the calibration from the known fossil data. The split between the *R. histrix-pseudohystrix* lineage and the other assayed species of *Raphitoma* was estimated at 4.92 mya (95% HPD: 3.16–6.57), i.e. around the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. The divergence of the two poecilogonous species (FSH-9 and FSH-10) was estimated at 2.56 mya (95% HPD: 1.59–3.77), i.e. at the Pliocene-Pleistocene boundary.

For the ancestral character reconstruction, we estimated the distribution of changes from stochastic mapping on 100 tree, and found an average of 7.63 P>NP and 4.48 NP>P changes, the latter due exclusively to the presence of poecilogony in FSH-9 and FSH-10 (all interspecific changes were P>NP). In Figure 4, the colour of the branches shows the probability of the appearance of non-planktotrophic development, and the hypothetical timing of the change P>NP. All changes were estimated to have occurred after 2.5 mya. The ancestral state for the poecilogonous FSH-9 was estimated to be non-planktotrophic development, whereas for the FSH-10 it was uncertain, with slightly higher probability for planktotrophic development. The transition P>NP in the *R. histrix-pseudohystrix* lineage was estimated at 1.5–2 mya.



## Discussion

Our integrative taxonomy approach performed well in identifying species boundaries within the genus *Raphitoma*. Particularly, several species recognised on the basis of morphological features of the teleoconch as traditionally used in this group have been confirmed by the genetic data, including two undescribed species preliminarily identified through subtle morphological features: *Raphitoma* sp. A and *R.* sp. B, which are under formal description elsewhere (Prkić *et al.* 2019). This is reassuring for the systematics of both extant and fossil taxa of this group. However, the complex of specimens morphologically ascribed mostly to *R. philberti* and *R. laviae* (but also to *R. contigua*, *R. cf spadiana*, *R. atropurpurea* and *R. bartolinorum*) based on adult and larval shell features, have been reassigned to only two distinct Final Species Hypotheses, FSH-9 and FSH-10. These two species hypotheses do not completely correspond to any of the traditional morphospecies for which the various binomens (and especially *R. philberti* and *R. laviae*) may be employed based on the morphotypes in each clade. Both FSHs included specimens with mixed protoconch types (and thus having undergone two different developments): in some instances, specimens of the same FSH collected sympatrically or even syntopically displayed identical teleoconchs but different protoconchs, strongly indicating the existence of two clearly poecilogenous species. The alternative hypothesis that the COI is unable to recognise sibling species does not hold, since the integrative taxonomy approach we have used has proven very efficient in various groups of Conoidea, including Raphitomidae (e.g.: Fedosov and Puillandre 2012, Fassio *et al.* 2019) and in this work it has detected species very closely related such as *R. horrida* and *R. cordieri*, or *R. densa* and *R.* sp. B. This is the first genetically supported evidence of poecilogony in the Neogastropoda.

The split between the *R. histrix-pseudohystrix* lineage and the other species of *Raphitoma*, estimated at 4.92 mya, is congruent with the oldest documented appearance in the fossil record of *R. histrix* in the Lower Pliocene. All interspecific changes in the larval development within *Raphitoma* were P>NP, congruently with the assumption that loss of planktotrophy has frequently accompanied speciation in caenogastropods (Oliverio 1996a, 1996b). All changes were estimated to have occurred after 2.5 mya, i.e. after the onset of the glacial cycles, and the transition P>NP in the *R. histrix-pseudohystrix* (estimated at 1.5-2 mya) perfectly fits the data from fossils on the two protoconch types in this lineage. This is congruent with the suggestion that oceanographic conditions during the Pleistocene favoured loss of planktotrophy (Oliverio 1996b), particularly the enhanced oligotrophy in the Mediterranean Sea in the period following the onset of the glaciations and their southward extension (Tunnell and Douglas 1983; Thunnell *et al.* 1984), with unpredictable

availability of resources in the water column. In particular, during the cold phases, sea level lowering produced extreme reductions of the Sicily Channel width, which, along with inversion of water flows at the Gibraltar and the Siculo-Tunisian sills, may have contributed to periodic confinement of large areas of the eastern Mediterranean (Bethoux 1979, 1984). Such conditions (fluctuations in the energy/food input, restricted areas, higher predatory pressure in the water column) are those expected to counter select the planktotrophic larvae (Strathmann 1978*a*, 1978*b*).

Based on the present results, the taxonomy of the involved species is provisionally modified as follows.

## SYSTEMATICS

Family **Raphitomidae Bellardi, 1875**

Genus ***Raphitoma* Bellardi, 1847**

*Raphitoma* Bellardi 1847: 612 – Type species: *Raphitoma histrix* Bellardi, 1847 [ex *Pleurotoma histrix* Cristofori and Jan, 1832, *nomen nudum*] by subsequent designation (Monterosato 1872: 54).

*Homotoma* Bellardi, 1875: 22 – Type species: *Murex reticulatus* Renier, 1804 by subsequent designation (Powell, 1966).

*Cordieria* Monterosato, 1884: 131 – Type species: *Murex reticulatus* Renier, 1804 by subsequent designation (Crosse, 1885).

*Philbertia* Monterosato, 1884: 132 – Type species: *Pleurotoma bicolor* Risso, 1826 by subsequent designation (Crosse, 1885).

*Peratotoma* Harris and Burrows, 1891: 113 – Replacement name for *Homotoma* Bellardi, 1875, not Guérin-Ménéville, 1844).

*Cyrtoides* F. Nordsieck, 1968: 176 – Type species: *Pleurotoma rudis* Scacchi, 1836 (not G.B. Sowerby I, 1834 by original designation).

*Diagnosis:* Shell of small to medium size for the family, from 5 mm to 25 mm, from turreted to biconic-pupoid, suture impressed.

Protoconch of 3-4.5 whorls when multispiral, with protoconch I (embryonic shell) of 0.5-0.7 whorls, with a reticulate sculpture of spirals and orthocline axial striae, and protoconch II (larval shell) of 2.3-3.5 whorls, with a diagonally cancellate sculpture and a frequently keeled last whorl; paucispiral protoconch of 2 whorls, with large nucleus and reticulate sculpture.

Teleoconch with slender spire of 5 to 9 uniformly convex whorls, with reticulate-cancellate sculpture, axials broader than spirals. Microsculpture of fine granules occasionally present, on the whole teleoconch (*R. papillosa*) or on the first whorl only.

Outer lip thickened, with 7-13 inner denticles.

Columella simple, slightly sinuous anteriorly.

Siphonal canal from very short to moderately long. Siphonal notch wide, plain or intorted.

*Remarks:* See Fassio et al. (2019) for a recent redefinition of the scope of the genus in a molecular phylogenetic framework.

**FSH-1 *Raphitoma pseudohystrix* (Sykes, 1906)**

*Clathurella pseudohystrix* Sykes 1906: 187

*Distribution*

Middle Pleistocene of Italy. Recent: Northeastern Atlantic (Madeira), Western and Central Mediterranean and Adriatic. In rather deep waters (120-700 m), on the continental slope, but also in bathyal depths, found also in the white coral assemblages of the Central Tyrrhenian Sea (Smriglio *et al.* 1987).

*Diagnosis*

Shell of small-medium size for the genus (height: 5-15 mm), fragile, fusiform, slender. Protoconch paucispiral of 1.9 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 5-7 convex and stepped whorls, weak suture and strong sculpture. No microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 12-29 orthocline or slightly opisthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of up to 9 primary cords and secondary cordlets above the aperture. Cancellation sharp rectangular, with spinulose processes. Subsutural ramp wide, smooth, slightly concave. Siphonal canal long and sinuose. Outer lip with 12-20 weak plications in correspondence of spiral cords and cordlets. Siphonal fasciole with 7-9 spinulose cords. Coloration uniformly whitish or yellowish often with brownish blotches of variable size. Soft parts body entirely white. Foot sharply bilobed anteriorly.

*Remarks*

As noted by Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* (2018), old authors frequently confused the nominal taxa *R. histrix* and *R. pseudohystrix*. At that time, only Jeffreys (1870: 82) had already distinguished the extant form by its paucispiral larval shell ("twisted and spirally striated, like that of *Trophon*"), at variance with the multispiral protoconch of the fossil. In this lineage, fossils from the Lower Pliocene to the Lower Pleistocene showed exclusively a multispiral protoconch (and thus, had a planktotrophic larval development) (see Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2018 for a review); in the Middle Pleistocene the two protoconch types coexisted, but starting with the Upper Pleistocene the multispiral protoconch disappeared.

**FSH-2 *R. sp. A***

*Distribution*

So far known only from Croatia (Adriatic Sea) and Sicily (Tyrrhenian Sea).

*Diagnosis*

Shell of medium size for the genus (height: 10-19 mm), robust and broad. Protoconch multispiral of 2.1-2.5 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 6-7 convex and stepped whorls, suture incised and strong

sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 13-18 orthocline or slightly opisthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 5-7 primary cords stronger than the axials above the aperture, and occasional 1-4 secondary cordlet (1 on subsutural ramp). Cancellation rectangular to squared, with elongate and elevated tubercles. Subsutural ramp wide, inclined, flat. Siphonal canal short. Outer lip with 9-10 strong inner plicate denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 7-9 spinulose cords. Coloration brown, brown-reddish or grey-blackish background, with cream-yellowish or light brownish blotches of variable size. Soft parts body translucent yellow or yellowish-white, siphon black, with sparse minute white speckles. Foot sharply bilobed anteriorly.

#### *Remarks*

*Raphitoma* sp. A belongs to the complex of *R. echinata* (Brocchi, 1814), from which it differs in its broader shell and shorter protoconch (2.1-2.5 vs 2.7-3.3 whorls). This species is under formal description elsewhere (Prkić *et al.* 2019).

### **FSH-3 *Raphitoma maculosa* Høisæter, 2016**

*Raphitoma maculosa* Høisæter 2016: 13

#### *Distribution*

*Raphitoma maculosa* is known from the Norwegian waters. *Raphitoma bicolor* ranges throughout the entire Mediterranean Sea, and in the Atlantic, from Wales to Canary Islands (but see below in the remarks).

#### *Diagnosis*

Shell of medium size for the genus (height: 7-11 mm), solid, fusiform-acute. Protoconch multispiral of 3 to 3.5 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 4.5-5.5 convex and stepped whorls, suture not incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 18-27 orthocline or slightly opisthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 5 primary cords stronger than the axials. Cancellation subquadrate or rectangular, with tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow. Siphonal canal long. Outer lip thin (all immature specimens), without inner denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 7-8 cords. Coloration yellowish-white background, reddish-brown on the spirals. Soft parts body translucent grey-white, siphon greyish, with sparse minute white speckles.

#### *Remarks*

The diagnosis is based on *R. maculosa*. The specimen BAU-1897 from St. Maxime (France, Mediterranean), that genetically has been assessed as conspecific with a topotype of *R. maculosa*, differs morphologically in some aspects: beside the thickened outer lip with 9 inner denticles (all

types of *R. maculosa* are immature), the siphonal canal is shorter, and the coloration is different. The outline recalls *Raphitoma bicolor* (Risso, 1826), but the latter is devoid of any microsculpture, and the coloration is different. The actual identity of this species, which is present in the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, must be assessed by a larger sampling.

#### **FSH-4 *R. purpurea* (Montagu, 1803)**

*Murex purpureus* Montagu 1803:260, pl. 9, fig. 3

##### *Distribution*

Northeastern Atlantic, from northern Norway to Great Britain, south to the Azores and Canary Islands, Mauritania, and westernmost Mediterranean.

##### *Diagnosis*

Shell of large size for the genus (height: 11-24 mm), robust, fusiform, acute. Protoconch multispiral of 2.8-3 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 6-9 convex and not stepped whorls, suture not incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 15-26 opisthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of strong primary cords. Cancellation squared to rectangular, with tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow, with few thin cordlets. Siphonal canal short. Outer lip thick, crenulated, white, with 10-21 robust inner lyrate denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 8-10 nodulose cords. Coloration light to very dark brown with whitish blotches or spots. Soft parts body translucent whitish, siphon greyish, with sparse minute white speckles.

##### *Remarks*

This is a well-known and rather unmistakable species, remarkably without synonyms. The specimen BAU-3047.1 from Croatia, is a juvenile, and shell features would diagnose it as *Raphitoma echinata*. Additional comparisons with adult specimens are necessary to assess the relationships of Mediterranean specimens with the prevalently Atlantic *R. purpurea*.

#### **FSH-5 *R. cordieri* (Payraudeau, 1826)**

*Pleurotoma cordieri* Payraudeau 1826: 144, pl. 7 fig. 11

*Clathurella dollfusi* Locard 1886: 115

##### *Distribution*

Northeastern Atlantic and Mediterranean.

##### *Diagnosis*

Shell of large size for the genus (height: 16-24 mm), fragile, fusiform, acute. Protoconch multispiral of 2.3 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 7 convex and not stepped whorls, suture not incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 16 strong orthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 5 primary cords above the aperture. Cancellation subquadrate to rectangular, with spinose tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow, sometimes with a secondary, spinulose cordlet. Siphonal canal long. Outer lip thick, 9 inner lyrate denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 7 nodulose cords. Coloration light to dark brown, occasionally with darker blotches. Soft parts body translucent yellow or yellowish-white, siphon grey or black, with sparse coarse white speckles. Foot sharply bilobed anteriorly.

*Remarks*

Very similar to *R. horrida* but with larger shell, and protoconch multispiral (v. paucispiral in *R. horrida*).

**FSH-6 *Raphitoma horrida* (Monterosato, 1884)**

*Cordieria horrida* Monterosato 1884: 131-132

*Distribution*

Mediterranean.

*Diagnosis*

Shell of medium size for the genus (height: 12-16 mm), solid, fusiform, acute. Protoconch paucispiral of 1.15-1.5 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 6-7 convex and not stepped whorls, suture not incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 13 orthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 4 strong primary cords above the aperture, and one subsutural cordlet. Cancellation subquadrate to rectangular, with spinose tubercles. Subsutural ramp wide, inclined. Siphonal canal short. Outer lip thick, 8-9 inner lyrate denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 7-8 nodulose cords. Coloration light to very dark brown with whitish blotches or spots. Soft parts body and siphon translucent whitish, with sparse minute white speckles, occasionally with a blackish area on the head.

*Remarks*

Similar to *R. cordieri*, but with only four spiral cordlets above the aperture, smaller shell and paucispiral protoconch (v. multispiral in *R. cordieri*).

**FSH-7 *Raphitoma densa* (Monterosato, 1884)**

*Philbertia densa* Monterosato 1884: 133

*Clathurella decorata* Locard 1891: 67-68

*Raphitoma (Philbertia) bourguignati tarentina* F. Nordsieck, 1977: 55, pl. 17 fig. 136

*Raphitoma (Philbertia) flavida* F. Nordsieck, 1977: 54, pl. 17 fig. 132

#### *Distribution*

Northeastern Atlantic (Canary Islands) and Mediterranean.

#### *Diagnosis*

Shell of medium size for the genus (height: 8-16 mm), solid, fusiform, acute. Protoconch multispiral of 3 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 7-9 convex and not stepped whorls, suture incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 16-29 orthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of strong 6-9 primary cords above the aperture. Cancellation rectangular, with tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow. Siphonal canal short. Outer lip thick, 10-14 strong inner lyrate denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 6-10 nodulose cords. Coloration orange-brown with ash-grey blotches. Soft parts body translucent white or yellowish-white, siphon grey-brownish, with sparse minute white speckles.

#### *Remarks*

Similar to *R. sp. B*, but with fewer, stronger and broader axial ribs, and less slender shell especially in juveniles. Additionally, protoconch whorls number is slightly lower in *R. densa* than in *R. sp. B*, 2.5-3.0 (mean 2.79) vs 2.6-3.25 (mean 2.98), and there are 5-6 (mean 5.85) primary cords in *R. densa* above the aperture, vs 6-8 (mean 6.96) in *R. sp. B*.

### **FSH-8 *R. sp. B***

#### *Distribution*

So far known only from Croatian (Adriatic).

#### *Diagnosis*

Shell of medium size for the genus (height: 8-12 mm), solid, fusiform-acute. Protoconch multispiral of 2.6-3.25 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 6-7 slightly convex and not stepped whorls, suture incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules on the surface. Axial sculpture of 18-27 orthocline or slightly opisthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 6-8 primary cords stronger than the axials, and 2 secondary cordlet on subsutural ramp. Cancellation subquadrate or rectangular, with tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow, quite inclined. Siphonal canal of medium length. Outer lip thick, with 9-14 strong inner plicate denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 9-12 strong nodulose cords. Coloration brown



background, darker interspaces, usually with white to ash-grey blotches and spots of variable size. Soft parts body translucent white or yellowish-white, siphon grey-brownish, with sparse minute white speckles.

#### *Remarks*

This species can be confused only with *Raphitoma densa* (Monterosato, 1884) with which is often found living in sympatry in Croatia, and by which it differs in the more numerous, weaker and narrower axial ribs, and the more slender shell especially in juveniles. Additionally, protoconch whorls number is slightly higher in *R. sp. B* than in *R. densa*, 2.6-3.25 (mean 2.98) vs 2.5-3.0 (mean 2.79), and there are 6-8 (mean 6.96) primary cords above the aperture in *R. sp. B*, vs. 5-6 (mean 5.85) in *R. densa*.

#### **FSH-9 *Raphitoma philberti*** (Michaud, 1829)

*Pleurotoma philberti* Michaud 1829: 261-262, figs 2, 3

? *Raphitoma locardi* Pusateri, Giannuzzi-Savelli and Oliverio, 2013: 18 [replacement name for *Clathurella cylindrica* Locard and Caziot, 1899, non Pease, 1860]

#### *Distribution*

Northeastern Atlantic (Canary Islands), and the entire Mediterranean Sea.

#### *Diagnosis*

Shell of small size for the genus (height: 5-9 mm), solid, subfusiform-acute. Protoconch multispiral of 3 convex whorls, or paucispiral of 1.3-1.8 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 5-7 slightly convex and not stepped whorls, suture incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules present. Axial sculpture of 15-20 orthocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 6-8 primary cords above the aperture. Cancellation rectangular, with tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow, with two cordlets. Siphonal canal short. Outer lip thick, with 9-11 strong inner denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 8-9 nodulose cords. Coloration light to dark tawny-reddish background, with whitish blotches vanishing towards the suture. Soft parts body translucent white or yellowish-white, siphon dark grey, with sparse minute white speckles.

#### *Remarks*

FSH-10 included all the specimen identified as *R. locardi* (with multispiral protoconch and planktotrophic development) and most of specimens morphologically ascribed to *R. philberti* (with paucispiral protoconch and lecithotrophic development). We use *Pleurotoma philberti* Michaud,

1829 for this species, since the largely most represented morphotype in our material correspond to this taxon as defined by the neotype recently designated (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2018), and this is also the oldest available name. The final decision on the synonymy of *R. locardi* will be taken after topotypical samples will be assayed.

**FSH-10 *Raphitoma laviae* (Philippi, 1844)**

*Pleurotoma laviae* Philippi 1844: 170, pl. XXVI fig. 17

? *Raphitoma bartolinorum* Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, in Giannuzzi-Savelli, Pusateri and Bartolini 2018: 35-36, figs 38-39B

? *Raphitoma spadiana* Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, in Pusateri, Giannuzzi-Savelli and Oliverio 2012: 41-52

? *Raphitoma contigua* Monterosato 1884: 133

? *Clathurella atropurpurea* Locard and Caziot 1900: 193-274

*Distribution*

Known from the entire Mediterranean Sea.

*Diagnosis*

Shell of small size for the genus (height: 5-9 mm), solid, subfusiform-acute. Protoconch multispiral of 2.75 convex whorls, or paucispiral of 1.5-1.7 convex whorls. Teleoconch of 5-6 slightly convex and not stepped whorls, suture incised and strong sculpture. Microgranules present. Axial sculpture of 16-23 orthocline or slightly prosocline ribs. Spiral sculpture of 6-7 primary cords above the aperture. Cancellation squared, with tubercles. Subsutural ramp narrow. Siphonal canal short. Outer lip thick, with 8-10 strong inner denticles. Siphonal fasciole with 5-6 nodulose cords. Coloration light yellow to dark brown background, suprasutural cordlet white, usually with whitish blotches. Soft parts body translucent white or yellowish-white, siphon grey-brownish, with sparse minute white speckles.

*Remarks*

FSH-10 included all the specimens morphologically identified as *R. laviae*, *R. contigua* and *R. atropurpurea* (all with multispiral protoconch and planktotrophic larval development) and *R. spadiana*, *R. bartolinorum* and some *R. philberti* (with paucispiral protoconch and lecithotrophic larval development).

We use *Pleurotoma laviae* Philippi, 1844 for this species, since the largely most represented morphotype in our material corresponded to this taxon as defined by the recently designated

neotype (Giannuzzi-Savelli *et al.* 2018). We have highlighted some potential synonyms based on the assayed materials, but obviously, from the nomenclatural point of view, a wider coverage and the analysis of toponymical samples will be necessary to stabilize the use of the multiple binomials potentially referable to this complex. For instance, *R. bartolinorum* should be devoid of microgranules (based on type material) whereas the specimen BAU 2245.2 has microgranules. Further checks on this feature are needed to ascertain its actual taxonomic value, and to assess the status of *R. bartolinorum*.

## Conclusions

Poecilogony in gastropods is well known among sacoglossans (Ellingson and Krug 2015; Krug 1998; Vendetti *et al.* 2012a), but it has long been considered as unproven in caenogastropods, for which the presence of different larval developmental types (as indicated by the morphology of larval shells) have been regarded as a clue of species distinction (Hoagland and Robertson 1988; Bouchet 1989). In fact, several cases of sister species differing only or mostly in their larval development and protoconch morphology have been reported (Collin 2001, 2002, 2004; Galindo *et al.* 2016; Modica *et al.* 2017). In the family Raphitomidae, Fedosov and Puillandre (2012) have scored at least three pairs of sister species of the genus *Pseudodaphnella* differing in their protoconch morphology (*P. punctifera* / *P. boholensis* Fedosov and Puillandre, 2012; *P. martensi* (G. Nevill and H. Nevill, 1875) / *P. nympha* Fedosov and Puillandre, 2012; *P. crypta* Fedosov and Puillandre, 2012 / *P. philippinensis* Fedosov and Puillandre, 2012). A similar pair of species has been discovered also in the genus *Raphitoma*, where we have found that *R. cordieri* and *R. horrida*, very similar morphologically, are evidently sister species, and with P v. NP development, respectively. These cases confirm the existence of a mechanism of speciation related to the loss of planktotrophy (Oliverio 1996a). However, at least one case of poecilogony in Caenogastropoda has been reliably presented in recent literature: *Calyptraea lichen* Broderip, 1834 (McDonald *et al.* 2014). We have reported here the case of two species in the genus *Raphitoma*, each including specimens with two different protoconchs, unequivocally addressing to the presence of both planktotrophic and non-planktotrophic larval development, among specimens otherwise hardly separable morphologically and clearly conspecific based on nuclear and mitochondrial markers. For supraspecific systematics this is the final word on the status of conoidean genera or subgenera based only on difference in larval development (as marked in the protoconch morphology) proposed by Powell (1966), followed for some time by some European malacologists, but rejected as phylogenetically inconsistent (Bouchet 1990; Fassio *et al.* 2019): the occurrence of poecilogony strongly supports such rejection.

At lower taxonomic level, a high number of gastropod species descriptions have been mostly or exclusively based on larval shell morphology, under the assumption that poecilogony was not present in caenogastropods. The new evidence of poecilogony in some caenogastropods raises issues about the reliability of sibling species identification based only on different protoconch shape, questioning the protoconch as a unique source of diagnostic characters at the species level. The problems linked to the use of morphological characters is amplified in palaeontology; although a screening at a broad taxonomic scale will be necessary to assess every single case by genetic data in

extant groups, we suggest maintaining the use of different names in the fossils since this helps preserving the information on larval development. The case of the *Raphitoma hystrix* – *R. pseudohystrix* lineage is paradigmatic: the use of different names for specimens with different protoconch in paleontological literature allowed to define the temporal span of the two entities, with the possibility of testing the reliability of the molecular time calibration adopted in this work. Crucial aspects for understanding larval development evolutionary patterns lie in the adaptive implications of poecilogony, and the definition of the regulatory and physiological mechanisms involved in the switch of larval development. Poecilogony remains a rare phenomenon, and is documented in a few groups of marine invertebrates only: polychaetes (Blake and Arnofsky 1999; David *et al.* 2014; Duchêne 2000; Morgan *et al.* 1999); sacoglossan heterobranch gastropods (Ellingson and Krug 2006; Vendetti *et al.* 2012b), and Caenogastropoda with *Calyptrea lichen* (McDonald *et al.* 2014) and the cases reported herein for *Raphitoma*. Knott and McHugh (2012) summarised the three major features common to poecilogonous groups:

1- poecilogonous species seem to be restricted to taxa with at least some degree of brooding (Krug 2007), or with eggs developing inside egg capsules, egg masses, or other brood structures;

2- often different larvae do not develop from eggs of different sizes: an external source of yolk is usually provided by the mother to offsprings that develop via lecithotrophic or adelphophagic (where nurse eggs are consumed) strategies. Maternal provisioning is thus expected to play a significant role in determining different developmental modes (Moran and McAlister 2009; Prowse *et al.* 2008; Smith and Gibson 1999; Vance 1973);

3- poecilogonous species do not have a catastrophic metamorphosis between the larval and adult stages, unlike other marine invertebrates.

At least features 1 (egg capsules) and 2 (yolk provision) are observed in most caenogastropods (including Raphitomidae), and feature 3 (non-catastrophic metamorphosis) should be assessed on each case. Poecilogony has always been a controversial issue, but despite its rarity, poecilogonous species can provide a unique model to understand the regulatory and physiological mechanisms underlying the evolution of larval development.

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**Table 1.** List of the molecular samples along with vouchers registration numbers (ID: BAU: Department of Biology and Biotechnologies, ‘Sapienza’ University, Rome. MNHN: Muséum national d’Histoire naturelle, Paris. MT: German Centre for Marine Biodiversity Research, Senckenberg Institute, Wilhelmshaven. ZMBN: University Museum of Bergen Natural History Collections), preliminary species assignation based on morphology assessment (PSH), protoconch type (M: multispiral; P: paucispiral), collection localities, GenBank accession numbers for sequences, and relevant references.

ID code	PSH	Protoconch	Locality	Coordinates	GenBank		Accession		Numbers		references
					12S	16S	COI	ITS2			
ZMBN-020209-O	<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i>	M	Norway	60°13'48.0"N 5°12'00.0"E		JF834214	JF834219	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
ZMBN-E-345-66a	<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i>	M	Norway	60°18'00.0"N 5°10'48.0"E			JF834221			Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
ZMBN-E-345-66b	<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i>	M	Norway	60°18'00.0"N 5°10'48.0"E			JF834225			Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
MT09222	<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i>	M	North Sea	55°22'15.6"N 0°12'25.2"W			KR084567			Barco <i>et al.</i> (2016)	
MT09383	<i>Cyrellia aequalis</i>	M	North Sea	57°53'56.4"N 0°54'57.6"W			KR084390			Barco <i>et al.</i> , 2016	
BAU-2234.1	<i>Cyrellia linearis</i>	M	Italy, Giannutri Is., 8/7/2015	42°15'10"N 011°05'32"E	MK410585	MK410605	MK410632	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-2912.1	<i>Cyrellia linearis</i>	M	Italy, Giglio Is., Cala Cupa	42°22'06"N 10°55'12"E		MK410599	MK410623			Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
ZMBN-E-37-68	<i>Cyrellia obesa</i>	M	Norway	60°18'00.0"N 5°07'48.0"E		MK410610	JF834220			Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-1896.1	<i>Raphitoma cf. atropurpurea</i>	M	Italy, Zannone Is., 28 m, 13/6/2009	40°57'51.2"N 13°03'28.7"E			X	X		This work	
BAU-2275.1	<i>Raphitoma cf. atropurpurea</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 31/5/2014	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E			X	X		This work	
BAU-3355.1	<i>Raphitoma atropurpurea</i>	M	Croatia, Cres Island, Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E			X			This work	
BAU-2245.2	<i>Raphitoma bartolinorum</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E			X	X		This work	
BAU-1897.1	<i>Raphitoma cf. bicolor</i>	M	France, St. Maxime	43°18'49"N 6°40'22"E		MK410603	MK410630	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-3047.1	<i>Raphitoma cf. echinata</i>	M	Croatia, Ciovo Is., Labadusa	43°28'44.6"N 16°14'42.0"E			X			This work	
BAU-1904.1	<i>Raphitoma contigua</i>	M	Italy, Zannone Is., 13/6/2009	40°57'51.2"N 13°03'28.7"E			X	X		This work	
BAU-2236.1	<i>Raphitoma contigua</i>	M	France, La Ciotat, Figuerolles, 24/7/2014	43°09'53.9"N 5°35'45.7"E			X	X		This work	
BAU-2262.1	<i>Raphitoma cordieri</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E	MK410582	MK410595	MK410619	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-2262.2	<i>Raphitoma cordieri</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E			MK410625			Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)	

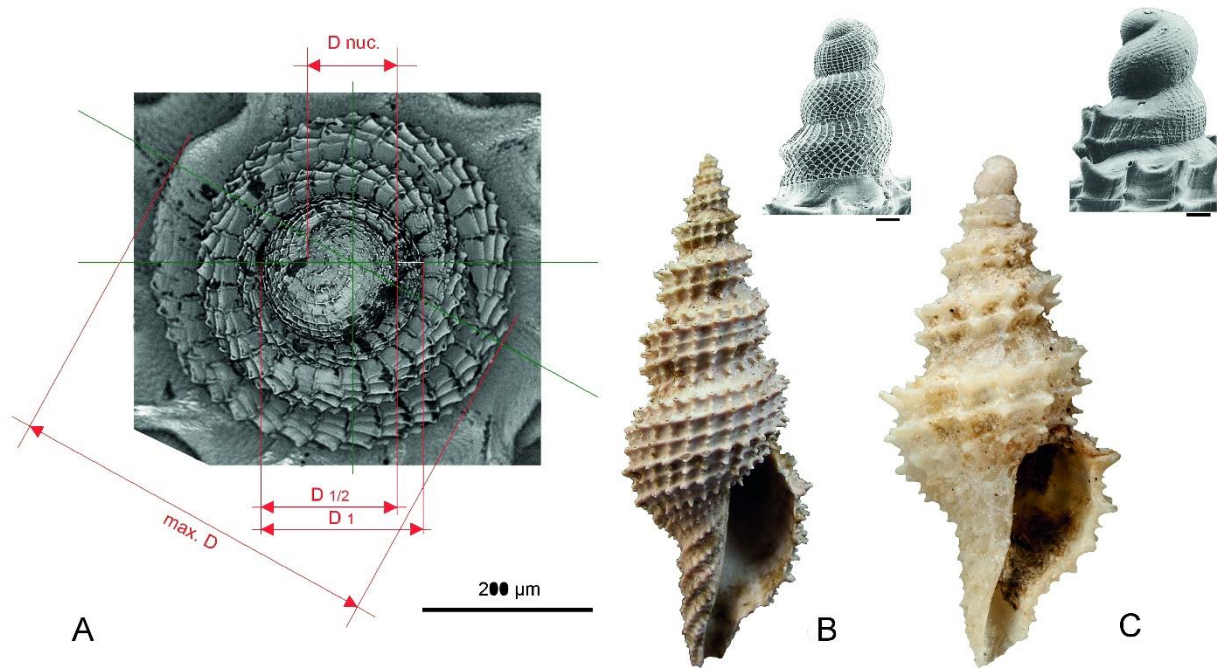
BAU-1895.1	<i>Raphitoma densa</i>	M	Italy, Torre Colimena, 09/2012	40°17'39"N 17°45'17"E		MK410602	MK410629			Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)
BAU-2239.1	<i>Raphitoma densa</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E			X			This work
BAU-2257.1	<i>Raphitoma densa</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 15/2/2014	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E	MK410581	MK410594	MK410617	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2260.1	<i>Raphitoma densa</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E			X			This work
BAU-3069.1	<i>Raphitoma densa</i>	M	Croatia, Slano	42°47'00.4"N 17°52'50.7"E			X			This work
BAU-3347.1	<i>Raphitoma densa</i>	M	Canary Islands, Tenerife, Las Eras	28°11'38.1"N 16°25'11.6"W			X			This work
BAU-1900.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Corsica, Tour d'Ancone, 2012	42°02'36"N 8°43'20"E		MK410604	MK410631			This work
BAU-1906.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	France, St. Maxime	43°18'49"N 6°40'22"E	MK410577	MK410590	MK410612	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2242.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Vrsi, 8/2/2014	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E			X			This work
BAU-2259.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Vrsi, 8-14/11/2013	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E			X			This work
BAU-2259.2	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Vrsi, 8-14/11/2013	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E			X			This work
BAU-2264.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Dugi Otok, 9/8/2014	43°59'N 15°05'34"E	MK410583	MK410596	MK410620	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2264.2	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Dugi Otok, 9/8/2014	43°59'N 15°05'34"E			X			This work
BAU-2274.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Vrsi, 19/4/2014	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E			X			This work
BAU-3045.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Greece, Agrilidi, Astipalea	36°35'02" N 026°25'24" E			X			This work
BAU-3351.1	<i>Raphitoma horrida</i>	P	Croatia, Cres Is., Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E			X	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-1878.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	France, St. Maxime	43°18'41.2"N 6°40'19.4"E			X	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2243.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E			X	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2243.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E			X			This work
BAU-2243.3	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E			X			This work
BAU-2243.4	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E			X	X		This work
BAU-2246.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Zaton, 8/11/2013	44°13'07"N 15°09'41"E	MK410578	MK410591	MK410614	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2246.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Zaton, 8/11/2013	44°13'07"N 15°09'41"E			X			This work

BAU-2246.3	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Zaton, 8/11/2013	44°13'07"N 15°09'41"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-2246.4	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Zaton, 8/11/2013	44°13'07"N 15°09'41"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-2251.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Turani, 16/11/2013	43°57'48.6"N 15°23'58.3"E				X		This work	
BAU-2251.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Turani, 16/11/2013	43°57'48.6"N 15°23'58.3"E				X		This work	
BAU-2251.3	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Turani, 16/11/2013	43°57'48.6"N 15°23'58.3"E				X		This work	
BAU-2253.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Telascjca, 12/8/2013	43°53'30"N 15°09'33"E	MK410579	MK410592	MK410615		X	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-2270.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-2270.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X		This work	
BAU-2270.4	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-2363.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X		This work	
BAU-3354.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Cres Is., Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X		This work	
BAU-3357.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Cres Is., Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-3358.1	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Cres Is., Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-3358.2	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Cres Is., Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-3358.3	<i>Raphitoma laviae</i>	M	Croatia, Cres Is., Punta Kriza	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-2248.1	<i>Raphitoma locardi</i>	M	Croatia, Vrsi, 8/11/2013	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E				X		This work	
BAU-2248.2	<i>Raphitoma locardi</i>	M	Croatia, Vrsi, 8/11/2013	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-2248.3	<i>Raphitoma locardi</i>	M	Croatia, Vrsi, 8/11/2013	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E				X		This work	
BAU-2261.1	<i>Raphitoma locardi</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E		X		X	X	This work	
BAU-2261.2	<i>Raphitoma locardi</i>	M	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work	
ZMBN-040809_X	<i>Raphitoma maculosa</i>	M	Norway	60°18'00.0"N 5°07'48.0"E					MK410638	X	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2269.1	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. B	M	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E	X			X	X	This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-2269.2	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. B	M	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-2269.3	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. B	M	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X		This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	

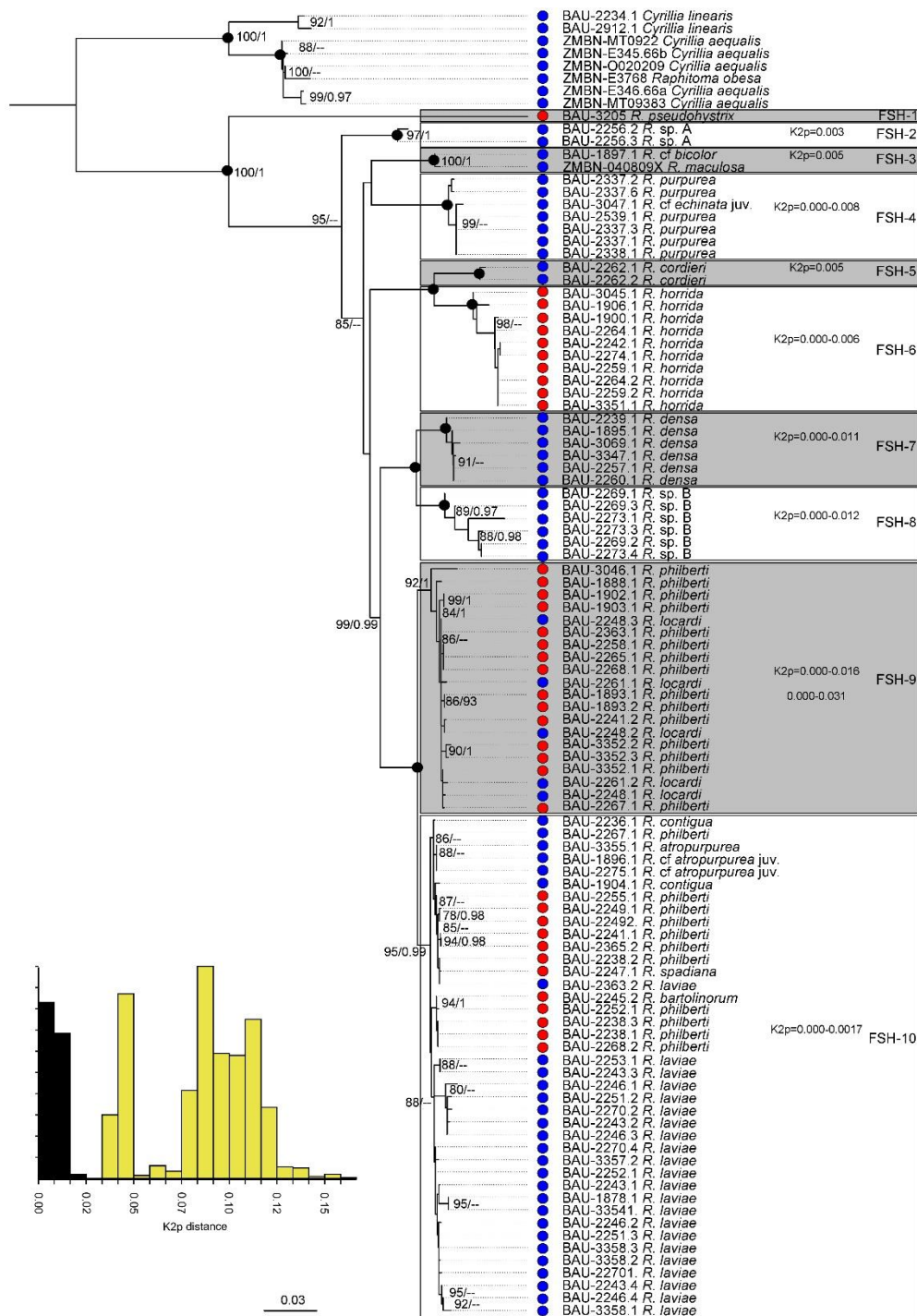


BAU-2273.1	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. B	M	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E		X	X	X	This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-2273.3	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. B	M	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E			X		This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-2273.4	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. B	M	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E			X		This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-2256.2	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. A	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E	X		X	X	This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-2256.3	<i>Raphitoma</i> sp. A	M	Croatia, Sukosan, 16/11/2013	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E	X	X	X	X	This work and Prkić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	
BAU-1888.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Italy, Campomarino di Maruggio, Taranto, 10/2012	40°17'49.2"N 17°34'12.7"E				MK410611	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-1893.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Greece, Limnos Is., Koukonisi Bay, 7/2014	39°53'07"N 25°16'16"E				X	X	This work
BAU-1893.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Greece, Limnos Is., Koukonisi Bay, 7/2014	39°53'07"N 25°16'16"E				X		This work
BAU-1902.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Italy, Elba Is., Fetovaia bay	42°43'53.3"N 10°09'20.2"E				X		This work
BAU-1903.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Italy, Elba Is., Fetovaia bay	42°43'53.3"N 10°09'20.2"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2238.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2238.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2238.3	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 16/11/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2241.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2241.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2249.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Sukosan, 15/2/2014	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2249.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Sukosan, 15/2/2014	44°02'04"N 15°18'57"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2252.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Zaton, 8/11/2013	44°13'07.6"N 15°09'41.6"E				X		This work
BAU-2255.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Sabunike, 2/11/2013	44°16'08.3"N 15°10'26.3"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2258.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Vrsi, 18/4/2014	44°16'56"N 15°12'35"E					MK410618	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)
BAU-2267.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Sabunike, 1/5/2014	44°16'08.3"N 15°10'26.3"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2268.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2268.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work
BAU-2268.3	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work

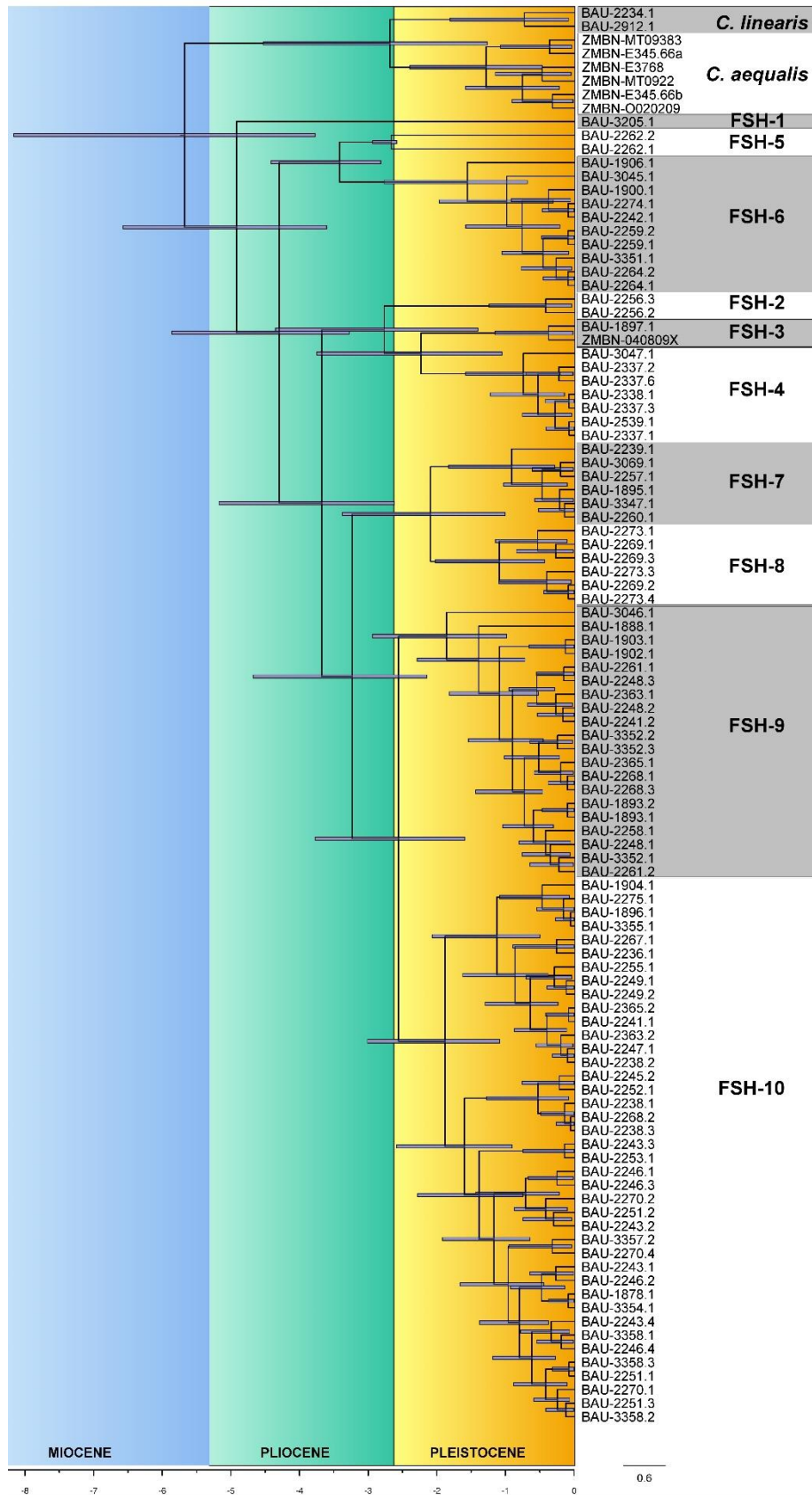
BAU-2363.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X		This work	
BAU-2365.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E		MK410598	MK410622	X		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-2365.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 30/5/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-3046.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Greece, Astipalea Is., Vai	36° 35' 13" N 26° 24' 10" E	MK410588				MK410636	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work	
BAU-3352.1	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Punta Kriza, Cres Island	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X	X	This work	
BAU-3352.2	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Punta Kriza, Cres Island	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X		This work	
BAU-3352.3	<i>Raphitoma philberti</i>	P	Croatia, Punta Kriza, Cres Island	44°38'51.4"N 14°31'23.2"E				X		This work	
BAU-3205.1	<i>Raphitoma pseudohystrix</i>	P	Malta, SW, Gnejna Bay, 22/7/2006	35°49'54.3"N 14°17'15.2"E	MK410589	MK410609			MK410637	X	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2337.1	<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i>	M	France, Ploubazlanec	48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W		MK410597			MK410621	X	Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019) and this work
BAU-2337.2	<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i>	M	France, Ploubazlanec	48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W					MK410626		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)
BAU-2337.3	<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i>	M	France, Ploubazlanec	48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W				X			This work
BAU-2337.6	<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i>	M	France, Ploubazlanec	48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W				X			This work
BAU-2338.1	<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i>	M	France, Ploubazlanec	48°48'5"N 3°00'10"W	MK410586	MK410607			MK410634		Fassio <i>et al.</i> (2019)
BAU-2539.1	<i>Raphitoma purpurea</i>	M	Spain, Malaga, Zona de Cabo Pino, Torre de Calahonda	36°28'36.0"N 4°42'30.0"W				X			This work
BAU-2247.1	<i>Raphitoma spadiana</i>	P	Croatia, Biograd, 26/10/2013	43°55'51"N 15°26'42"E				X	X		This work



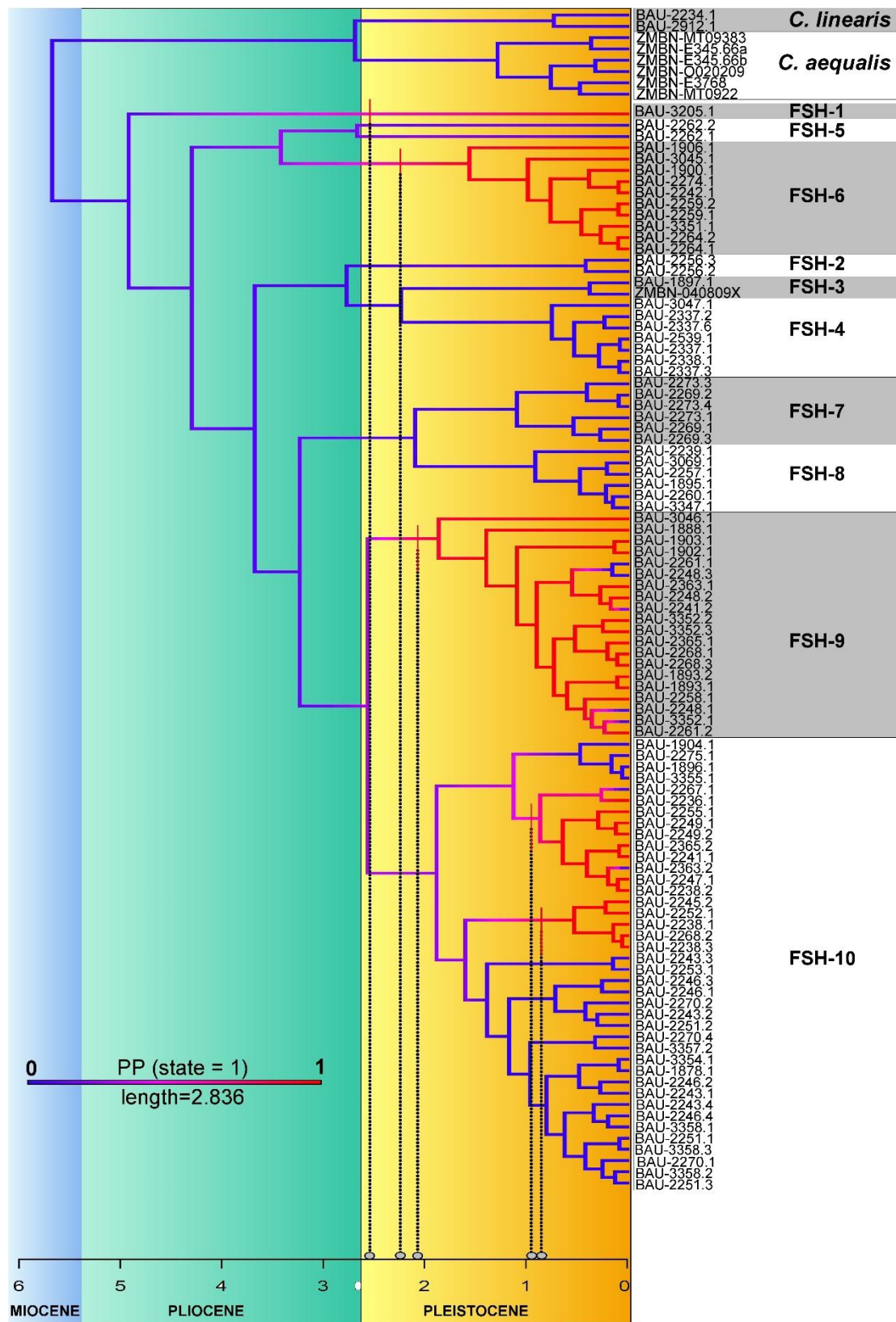
**Figure 1.** Larval and adult shells of *Raphitoma*. (A) Counting of protoconch whorls according the method of Verduin (1977). D nuc: Diameter of nucleus; D  $\frac{1}{2}$ : diameter of first half-whorl; D 1: diameter of first whorl; max. D: maximum diameter. (B) *Raphitoma histrix* Bellardi, 1847; neotype, Piacentian of Colli Astesi (Pliocene), h: 17.6 mm (MRSN, Torino n. 011.16.008). (C) *Raphitoma pseudohystrix* (Sykes, 1906); lectotype, Adventure Bank, Sicily Channel, h: 5.1 mm (NHMUK n. 20130109).



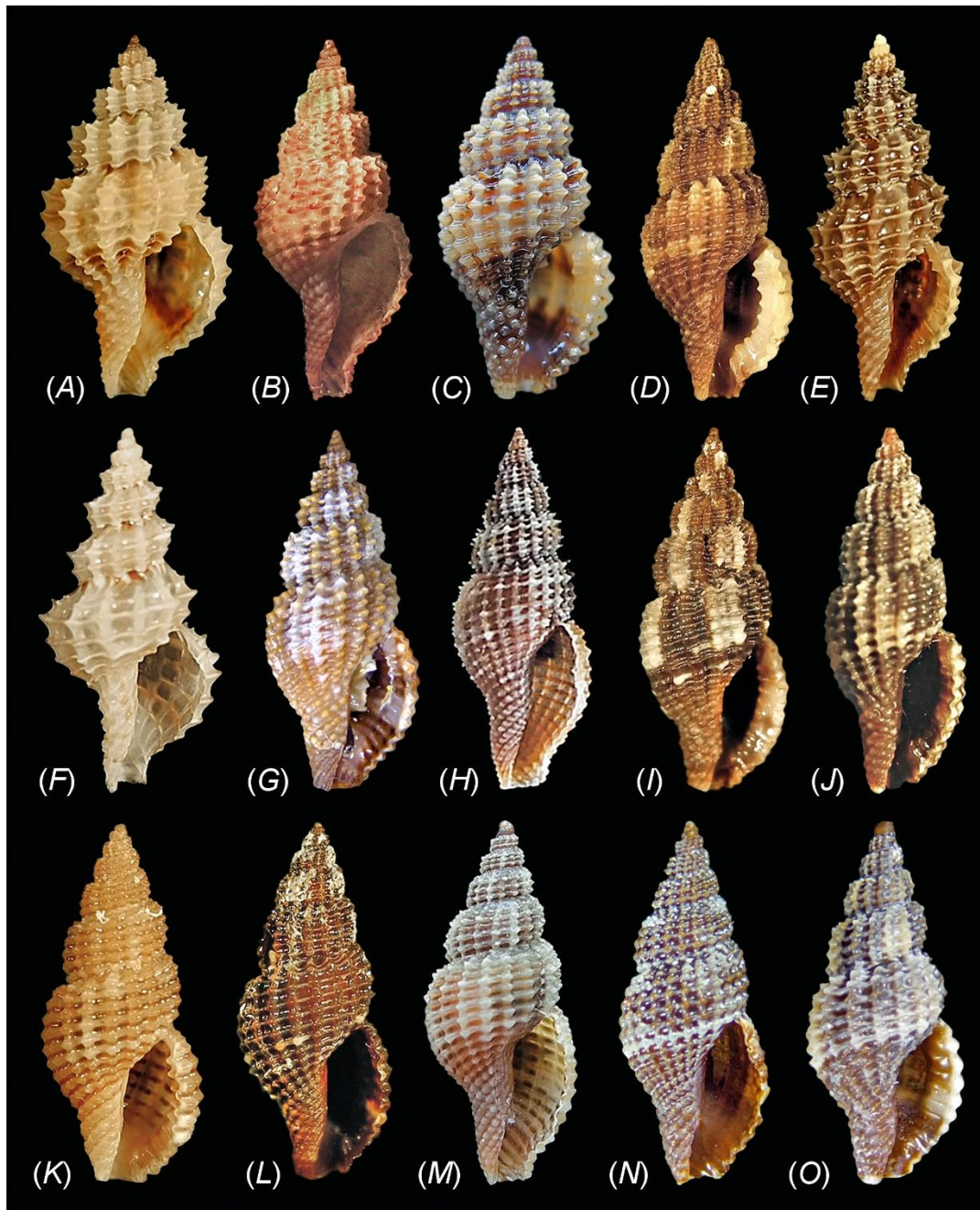
**Figure 2.** Phylogenetic relationships (Maximum likelihood topology, on the combined dataset) among the assayed specimens. The following models were selected by Partition Finder 2 for each partition: HKY+I+G (16S, 12S), F81 (COI position 1), SYM+G (COI position 2), GTR+G (COI position 3), K80+G (ITS2). Numbers at nodes are BS and PP supports, respectively; only values higher than 75% BS and 95% PP are reported; black dots indicate nodes supported by 100% BS and 1.0 PP. The histogram portrays the distribution of the pairwise genetic distances (K2p) among the COI sequences (black bars on the left are intraspecific comparisons, yellow bars on the right are interspecific comparisons). Blue circles indicate multispiral protoconch, and inferred planktotrophic development; red circles indicate paucispiral protoconch, and inferred non-planktotrophic development. Boxes indicate the final species hypotheses (FSH) eventually retained after the Integrative Taxonomy approach, with the ranges of genetic distance (K2p) scored in each FSH.



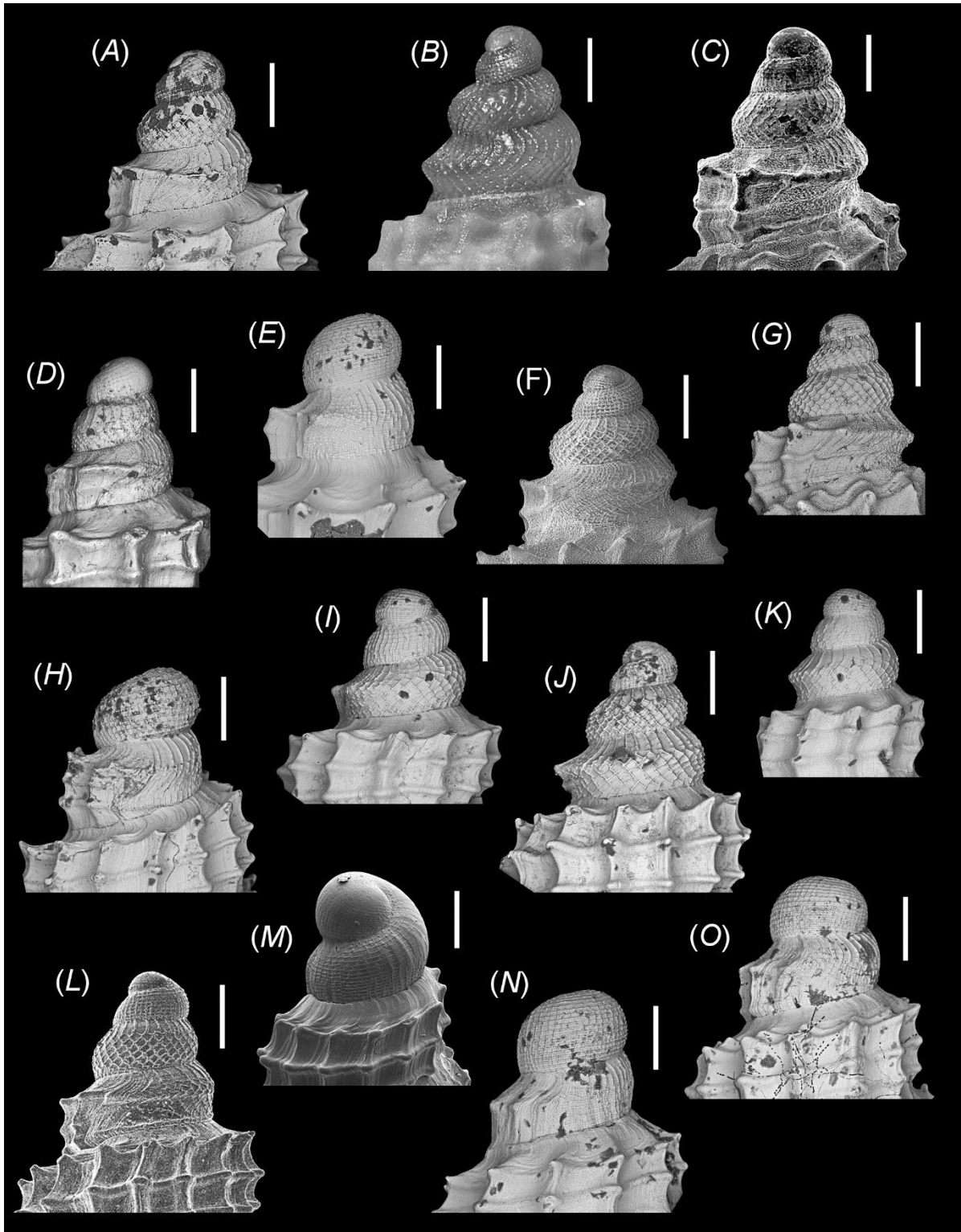
**Figure 3.** Evolutionary timetree of the genus *Raphitoma*, inferred from BEAST analysis of the combined molecular dataset. Coloured bars indicate 95% highest posterior density intervals for node ages of interest. White and grey boxes correspond to the Final Species Hypotheses, as in Fig. 2. Vertical banding indicates the major geological ages: Miocene (ending 5.3 mya), Pliocene (5.3-2.6 mya), Pleistocene (starting 2.6 mya).



**Figure 4.** Stochastic character mapping for larval development along the branches of the evolutionary timetree of the genus *Raphitoma*, using the phytools package. Branch colours are the probability of the non-planktotrophic state (blue=0, planktotrophic development; red=1, non-planktotrophic development). Major changes are mapped on the timescale (mya) at the bottom. White and grey boxes correspond to the Final Species Hypotheses, as in Fig. 2. Vertical banding indicates the major geological ages: Miocene (ending 5.3 mya), Pliocene (5.3-2.6 mya), Pleistocene (starting 2.6 mya).



**Figure 5.** Voucher shells of *Raphitoma* spp. used in this work, with their preliminary morphological identification. (A) *Raphitoma* sp. A, Sukosan (Croatia), BAU-2256.2 h: mm 10.2. (B) *Raphitoma maculosa* Høisater, 2016, Liholmsrennen, Raunefjorden, 60°18'N, 05°09'E, 70–90 m. (Norway), holotype ZMBN 107134, h: 7.2 mm. (C) *Raphitoma* cf *bicolor* (Risso, 1826), Saint Maxime (France), BAU-1897.1, h: 9.3 mm. (D) *Raphitoma purpurea* (Montagu, 1803), Ploubazlanec, Bretagne (France), BAU-2337.6, h: 14.9 mm. (E) *Raphitoma cordieri* (Payraudeau, 1826), Sukosan (Croatia), BAU-2262.2, h: mm 11.9. (F) *Raphitoma horrida* (Monterosato, 1884), Agrilidi, Astypalea Is. (Greece), BAU-3045.1, h: 10.5 mm. (G) *Raphitoma densa* (Monterosato, 1884), Slano, Dubrovnik (Croatia), BAU-3069.1, h: 7.8 mm. (H) *Raphitoma* sp. B, Biograd, Croatia, BAU-2273.3, h: 9.5 mm. (I) *Raphitoma philberti* (Michaud, 1829), Campomarino, Taranto (Italy), BAU-1888.1, h: 11.6. (J) *Raphitoma locardi*, Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2013, Biograd (Croatia), BAU-2261.1, h: 8.8 mm. (K) *Raphitoma contigua* (Monterosato, 1884), Figuerolles, La Ciotat (France), BAU-2236.1, h: 11.3. (L) *Raphitoma atropurpurea* (Locard and Caziot, 1899), Punta Kriza, Cres Is. (Croatia), BAU 3355.1, h: 12.1 mm. (M) *Raphitoma spadiana* Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2012, Biograd (Croatia), BAU 2247.1, h: 6.4 mm. (N) *Raphitoma laviae* (Philippi, 1836), Sukosan (Croatia), BAU 2243.2, h: 7 mm. (O) *Raphitoma philberti*, Sukosan (Croatia), BAU 2249.1, h: 6.6 mm.



**Figure 6.** Protoconchs of *Raphitoma* spp. (A) *R.* sp. A, Brač Is. (Croatia). (B) *R. maculosa* Høisater, 2016, Liholmsrennen, Raunefjorden (Norway), holotype ZMBN. (C) *R. purpurea* (Montagu, 1803), Ploubazlanec (France). (D) *R. cordieri* (Payraudeau, 1826), Biograd (Croatia). (E) *R. horrida* (Monterosato, 1884), Agrilidi, Astypalea Is. (Greece), BAU-3045.1. (F) *R. densa* (Monterosato, 1884), Isola delle Femmine, Palermo (Italy). (G) *R.* sp. B, Stari Trogir (Croatia). (H) *R. philberti* (Michaud, 1829), Fetovaia bay, Elba Is. (Italy), BAU-1903.1. (I) *R. locardi*, Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2013, Biograd (Croatia). (J) *R. contigua* (Monterosato, 1884), Dugi Otok Is. (Croatia). (K) *R. laviae* (Philippi, 1836), Sukošan (Croatia), BAU-2243.2. (L) *R. atropurpurea* (Locard and Caziot, 1899), Gulf of Napoli (Italy). (M) *R. spadiana* Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2012, Scilla, Reggio Calabria (Italy). (N) *R. bartolinorum* Pusateri and Giannuzzi-Savelli, 2018, Biograd (Croatia), BAU-2245.2. (O) *R. philberti* (Michaud, 1829), Biograd (Croatia), BAU-2365.2. Scale bar: 200  $\mu$ m.



## Chapter III

- Biogeographic analysis of loss of planktotrophy in the mud whelks (Gastropoda, Nassariidae)

# Biogeographic analysis of loss of planktotrophy in the mud whelks (Gastropoda, Nassariidae)

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Short communication

## 1 Introduction

2 In marine benthic invertebrates the larval development is a key feature for evolution and ecology  
3 of species (Cowen & Sponaugle, 2009; Levin, 2006). Marine gastropods have two major type of larval  
4 development (Thorson, 1950). In planktotrophic development (P) larvae spend from a few days up  
5 to one year in the plankton feeding actively and have a relatively high dispersion ability. The larvae  
6 are strictly dependent to the environmental trophic availability. In non-planktotrophic development  
7 (NP) larvae spend very little or no time in the plankton feeding almost exclusively on yolk supplies  
8 and have small dispersion ability. This kind of larvae are isolated from environmental trophic  
9 availability and advantage in areas whit not constant trophic provision (Poulin et al., 2002).

10 In marine shelled gastropods the larval development is a very variable feature (Collin, 2004; Collin  
11 et al., 2007; Duda & Palumbi, 1999; Houart, 2013), nevertheless it reflected on morphology of larval  
12 shell (protoconch) and is easy to identify also in extinct species.

13 In the Caenogastropoda (Gastropoda), non-planktotrophic development is mostly considered as a  
14 derived condition that arises in response to environmental conditions that counterselect  
15 planktotrophy, allowing independence from trophic availability. Planktotrophy is considered the  
16 hypothetical ancestral condition and very difficult to reacquire due to the loss of peculiar feeding  
17 structure in larvae (Haszprunar, 1995; Haszprunar et al., 1995; Oliverio, 1996b).

18

19 The major aim of this study is to try to understand if an evolutionary pattern can be found in a big  
20 group of marine Caenogastropoda like the family Nassariidae Iredale, 1916 (1835). Thanks to the  
21 recent complete revision of this family (Galindo et al., 2016) is known that within Nassariidae are  
22 described the presence of both types larval development. A fossil records dataset was used as  
23 calibration point to date the phylogeny. The known of larval development for each species of the  
24 family, allowed to perform evolutionary analysis of larval development and dating in geological time  
25 the changes events. Some evolutionary question about this particular issue arose. Since the larval  
26 development is supposed to be link to environment, we wanted to verify if the event of loss of  
27 planktotrophy (LOP) can be connected to some particular geological event occurred in the past or  
28 to some particular biogeographic regions of origin. Furthermore, we want to investigate if a  
29 common pattern of evolution is present trough the phylogeny. We formulated two hypotheses to  
30 be verified. The first hypothesis, that we named Climate Change Hypothesis (CCH), links the change  
31 in larval development with paleogeological events occurred trough geological history. We know that  
32 in different ages worldwide environment conditions change and those maybe could favour the non-  
33 planktotrophic development instead the planktotrophic one. The second hypothesis not exclusive,  
34 mention as Geographic Confinement Hypothesis (GCH), associates the loss of planktotrophy (LOP)  
35 with biogeographic regions origins. The non-planktotrophic development could be favoured in  
36 delimited geographic area, where a wide dispersal does not necessary to provide high dispersion  
37 pattern.

38 We have calculated the frequency of loss-of-planktotrophy events through the lineages of a robust  
39 nassariid phylogeny, testing unequal occurrence across geological epochs (CCH) and biogeographic  
40 regions (GCH).

## 41 **Materials and methods**

42 The dataset was retrieved from the work of Galindo et al., 2016 and contained sequences for 229  
43 samples of which 7 represented outgroup of the family Nassariidae (Table 1). Five molecular  
44 markers have been used: two nuclear markers, the 354 bp fragment of histone H3 (with primers  
45 H3R1-H3F1: Colgan et al., 1998), and 779 bp of the rDNA 28S (with primers C1'-D2: Chisholm et al.,  
46 2001); three mitochondrial markers, the 658 bp barcode fragment of the cytochrome c oxidase  
47 subunit I (COI, with primers LCO1490 - HCO 2198: Folmer et al., 1994; or 5COIF -492COIR/492COIRD:  
48 Galindo et al., 2016), a 641 bp fragment of the 12S rDNA (with primers 12S I - 12S III: Simon et al.,  
49 1991) and a 565 bp fragment of the 16S rDNA (with primers 16SA - 16SB: Palumbi et al., 1991).

50

51 (Table 1)

52

### 53 *Ancestral state reconstruction and evolution of larval development*

54 The analysis was performed on a calibrated phylogeny using BEAST 1.8 (Drummond et al., 2012)  
55 based on a set of twelve calibration points across the tree. We retrieved part of fossil information  
56 from the work of Galindo et al. (2016) and six additional calibration points were added to the  
57 phylogeny to date the origin of family and refine youngest nodes (Table 2).

58 The first appearance of the family Nassariidae occurred during the Coniacian stage (Cretaceous)  
59 dated at 86.3-89.8 mya (Tracey et al., 1993). In the genus *Tritia* we identified the first appearance  
60 of five extant species included in the phylogeny: *Tritia reticulata* appeared in the early Pliocene (5.3-  
61 3.6 mya) (Gili & Martinell, 1994); *T. neritea* during the Pleistocene (2.58-0.78 mya) (Gili & Martinell,  
62 1999); *T. pellucida* in the lower Pliocene (5.3-3.6 mya) (Gili & Martinell, 1999); *T. mutabilis* in the  
63 middle Pleistocene (1.8-0.12 mya) (Van Dingenen et al., 2015); *T. incrassata* probably in the lower  
64 Pliocene (5.3-3.6 mya) (MHNH Collection). Regarding the fossil data retrieved from Galindo et al.  
65 (2016), the oldest known Nassariinae is *Buccitriton* from the Ypresian (Eocene, 56-47.8 mya) (Tracey  
66 et al., 1993); the first occurrence of *Buccinanops* has also been dated during the Ypresian (56-47.8  
67 MYA) (Allmon, 1990); *Tritiaria* appeared during the Lutetian (41-34 MYA) (MacNeil & Dockery,  
68 1984); *Dorsanum* s.l. is known (*D. gaasensis*) from the early Oligocene (32 MYA) of Europe (Lozouet,  
69 1999); the oldest *Cyllene* species are known from the Chattian (28-23 MYA) and the first appearance  
70 of the genus *Tritia* is also dated in this stage (28-23 MYA) (Lozouet, 1999).

71 Planktotrophic development is the most common strategy in extant Nassariidae but loss of  
72 planktotrophy occurred many times in the history of the family. Modern *Buccinanops*, *Engoniophos*,  
73 *Bullia*, *Nassaria* and some *Cyllene* have independently acquired a non-planktotrophic mode, while  
74 in their fossil record most species are planktotrophic (Allmon, 1990; Woodring, 1928).  
75 Planktotrophy was set as ancestral state of the family according to the fossil record and to the  
76 assumption that planktotrophy is the ancestral state of caenogastropod lineages (Haszprunar, 1995;  
77 Haszprunar et al., 1995; Oliverio, 1996a).

78

79 (Table 2)

80

81 We have used two methods to investigate the evolution of larval development in the family. In the  
82 first method, we have considered the change of larval development as having occurred at the nodes  
83 that lead to species with different larval development type. We assigned each node to five time-  
84 category (Paleogene and older, Lower Miocene, Upper Miocene, Pliocene, Quaternary) and to four  
85 biogeographic-category (Indo-Pacific, Caribbean, Mediterranean and Atlantic, South America)  
86 showed in Table 3.

87

88 (Table3)

89

90 However, the very important assumption, that the events of change in larval development occurred  
91 at nodes, may be unrealistic. For this reason, we have also employed a second method for dating  
92 these events. We have performed an ancestral state reconstruction (with the package phytools in  
93 R: Revell, 2012). This R tool allowed to estimate the distribution of changes modelled by a  
94 continuous time Markov chain approach to sample character histories from their posterior  
95 probability distribution, called stochastic character mapping (Huelsenbeck et al., 2003) on the dated  
96 phylogenetic tree. In this method the branches were split into the five time-category and assigned  
97 to the four biogeographic-category when possible. In addition, as in the previous method, test for  
98 differences in the frequency of LOP events among the time-category and among biogeographic-  
99 categories were performed with the Fischer exact test (Uitenbroek, 1997).

## 100 Results

101 The calibrated phylogeny (Figure 1A and 1B) set the origin of the family at 86.5 MYA (95% HPD  
102 86.02,88.2) during Coniacian (Upper Cretaceous), and as having probably occurred in the centre of  
103 the ancient Atlantic Ocean. The two subfamilies Buccinanopsinae and Cylleninae are estimated to  
104 have originated 56 MYA (95% HPD 55,43-58,59) and 55 MYA (95% HPD 40,1-70,46), respectively,  
105 during the Ypresian stage (Early Eocene). The subfamily Photinae is estimated to have originated  
106 36.94 MYA during the Priabonian stage in the Upper Eocene (95% HPD 34.41-41.05), whereas the  
107 origin of the large subfamily Nassariinae is dated at 48.7 MYA (95% HPD 49,94-62,35) during the  
108 Ypresian stage (Early Eocene). The five genera of the subfamily Nassariinae, are all estimated to have  
109 originated in the late Paleogene (23-37.8): *Naytia*, *Reticunassa*, *Phrontis* and *Nassarius* during the  
110 Rupelian stage (Oligocene), and the genus *Tritia* in the Chattian stage (Oligocene). Within the genus  
111 *Nassarius*, the major diversification occurred rapidly during the Miocene (23-5.3), as also suggested  
112 by paleontological data (Haas, 2000; Lozouet and Galindo, 2015).

113

114 (Figure 1A, 1B)

115

116 With the first methods of dating the events of LOP (events constrained at the relevant nodes), we  
117 have considered only the nodes with posterior probability higher than 0.7. The analyses showed  
118 that there was no significant different in the frequency of events across the different epochs (Fischer  
119 exact test,  $p\text{-value}>0.05$ ). Conversely, the frequency varied significantly across the different  
120 biogeographic categories (Fischer exact test,  $p\text{-value}= 0.006$ ), with the highest frequency in the  
121 South Atlantic (33.3%), then the Caribbean area (26.3%), and the Mediterranean-Atlantic area  
122 (24%).

123 The second method used showed similar results. The ancestral state reconstruction analysis (Figure  
124 2A and 2B) pointed out that 28 events of LOP, within 13 genera. As the previous analysis, the  
125 frequency of events varied significantly between biogeographic categories (Fischer exact test,  $p\text{-value}= 0.00417$ ), and the highest relative frequency occurred in the South America (28.6%), then  
126 Mediterranean-Atlantic area (11.9%) and Caribbean area (11.8%). No significant variation of  
127 frequency was detected among different epochs category (Fischer exact test,  $p\text{-value}>0.05$ ).

129

130 (Figure 2A and 2B)

## 131 Discussion

132 The new dating of the phylogenetic framework of the Nassariidae showed some differences from  
133 the previous estimates (Galindo et al., 2016), in particular concerning the range of HPD. The origin  
134 of the family has been estimated at 86.5 MYA (95% HPD 86–88.2), more recent than the previous  
135 120 MYA (95% HPD 80.3–140.4) estimate. Other remarkable differences were the origin of the  
136 subfamily Photinae estimated at 36.94 MYA (95% HPD 34.5–41.5) v. the previous dating at 70.2 MYA  
137 with a large range (46.1–92.33), and of the subfamily Cylleninae estimated at 54.9 MYA (95% HPD  
138 40.7–71.1) v. the previous dating at 93 MYA (65–120).

139 Both methods used to set in a temporal framework the evolution of larval development, showed  
140 similar results, addressing to significant biogeographical variation in the frequency of LOP events.  
141 The differences in LOP frequency between epochs, instead, were not statistically significant.  
142 The ancestral state reconstruction analysis yielded a more accurate dating of events of LOP due to  
143 the computation of posterior probability of each event along the branches. Although there was not  
144 a statistically significant difference among epochs, a remarkable concentration of LOP events  
145 occurred during the Miocene and the Pleistocene, with 32.14% and 42.85% of the total events,  
146 respectively. During the Miocene the drop of the average bottom water temperature by 4°C to 6°C,  
147 and the closure of three important oceanic gateways severely affected the circulation of deep water  
148 in the global ocean and global climate (Potter & Szatmari, 2009). The closure of the Isthmus of  
149 Panama in the Caribbean area (Coates & Obando, 1996; Duque-Caro, 1990), that began 13 MYA and  
150 was completed 3.5 MYA in the Pliocene, disrupted the global equatorial flow and initiated the  
151 inception of the Gulf Stream as we know it today. Restriction of the Indonesian Gateway between  
152 Borneo and New Guinea connecting the Pacific to the Indian Ocean, began in the latest Oligocene  
153 25 MYA, hampering until block the deep flow by the late Early Miocene (Kuhnt et al., 2004). The  
154 third key closure concerned the Tethys Sea and the formation of Mediterranean region: in the  
155 Middle Miocene the connection between the Atlantic-Mediterranean area and the Indian Ocean  
156 became intermittent, and a final closure occurred in the early Late Miocene about 10–11 MYA (Rögl,  
157 1999); at the very end of the Miocene (Hsü, 1983; Krijgsman et al., 1999), the Messinian salinity  
158 crisis was caused by the closure of the connection with the Atlantic, the Mediterranean Sea  
159 becoming an evaporation basin (with evaporites accumulating on the bottom and marginal canyons  
160 both on and offshore).

161 During the Pleistocene the Earth's climate was strongly influenced by more than 11 major glacial  
162 cycles, along with several minor glacial events (Richmond & Fullerton, 1986). The statistical analyses



163 showed that in the Caribbean, the South America, and the Mediterranean-Atlantic units, shifts in  
164 larval development (P→NP) occurred more frequently compared to the Indo Pacific. These areas  
165 were undergoing major oceanographic events that may have influenced the marine biota. In the  
166 geologically very instable Caribbean region, beside the closure of the Isthmus of Panama, three main  
167 species extinctions (Middle to Late Eocene, Late Oligocene to Early Miocene, and Plio-Pleistocene)  
168 (Budd, 2000) coincided with large-scale environmental perturbations. During the Early Miocene,  
169 increased upwelling and associated turbidity and cooling have been inferred for the Caribbean  
170 (Edinger & Risk, 1994, 1995). During the Late Pliocene, drops in sea surface temperature associated  
171 with the onset of the northern hemisphere glaciation cycles affected many marine organisms  
172 (including molluscs and bryozoans) in the Caribbean (Jackson et al., 1993, 1996; Jackson & Budd,  
173 1996; Stanley, 1986). Regarding the South America area, it has been strictly correlated with the  
174 Antarctica region, that could influence the composition of biota.

175 The results of this work show that the frequencies of LOP event significantly vary between  
176 biogeographic regions. As mentioned, geological history from Neogene of these biogeographic  
177 regions suggest that these areas might have undergone events of instability promoting geographic  
178 confinement of species and strengthens our second hypothesis (GCH). Semi-closed or closed basins  
179 like the Caribbean area and the Mediterranean Sea have probably been areas where the loss of  
180 planktotrophy has been particularly promoted. Even if no statistically evidence has been detected,  
181 we do not exclude that different geological epochs could influence the larval development strategy,  
182 however the role still remains unclear.

183

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## Table and Figure

**Table 1.** List of the molecular samples with vouchers registration numbers, protoconch type (M: multispiral; P: paucispiral), collection localities, GenBank accession numbers for sequences.

Genus	Species	Country	development	ID	Number	COI	16S	12S	28S	H3
<i>Amiantofusus</i>	<i>sp</i>			MNHN	IM-2007-34648	JQ950210	JQ950144.2		JQ950166	
<i>Anentome</i>	<i>helena</i>	Vietnam		MNHN	IM-2009-29658	KY451412	KY488922	KY489121	KY489289	KY489374
<i>Antillophos</i>	<i>beauii</i>	Guadeloupe		MNHN	IM-2013-8364	KY451406	KY488916			KY489371
<i>Antillophos</i>	<i>candeanus</i>	Guadeloupe		MNHN	IM-2013-8450	KY451407	KY488917		KY489286	KY489372
<i>Antillophos</i>	<i>chazaliei</i>	Guadeloupe		MNHN	IM-2013-20358	KY488915		KY489116	KY489285	KY489370
<i>Buccinanops</i>	<i>cochlidium</i>	Brazil		MZUSP	80628	KY451219				KY489293
<i>Buccinanops</i>	<i>globulosus</i>	Argentina		MNHN	IM-2009-24004	KY451220	KY488730	KY488927	KY489125	KY489294
<i>Buccinanops</i>	<i>gradatus</i>	Brazil		MZUSP	108269	KY451221	KY488731	KY488928	KY489126	KY489295
<i>Buccinanops</i>	<i>monilifer</i>	Argentina		MZUSP	28084	KY451222			KY489127	KY489296
<i>Buccinum</i>	<i>undatum</i>					FN677402	FN677455	FN677400	FN677456	
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>cataphracta</i>	Mozambique		MNHN	IM-2009-22716	KY451223	KY488732	KY488929		KY489297
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>diluta</i>	Mozambique		MNHN	IM-2009-22535	KY451224	KY488733	KY488930		KY489298
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>natalensis</i>	Mozambique		MNHN	IM-2009-22718	KY451226	KY488735	KY488932		
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>perlucida</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2009-12299	KY451227	KY488736	KY488933		KY489300
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>sp. 607</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2009-12887	KY451228	KY488737	KY488934		KY489301
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>sp. 608</i>	Mozambique		MNHN	IM-2009-22679	KY451229	KY488738	KY488935		KY489302
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>sp. 611</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2009-12884	KY451230	KY488739	KY488936		KY489303
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>sp. 612</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2009-12886	KY451231		KY488937		KY489304
<i>Bullia</i>	<i>sp. 613</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2009-12877	KY451232	KY488740	KY488938		KY489305
<i>Cyllene</i>	<i>lamarcki</i>	Republic of the Congo		MNHN	IM-2009-23725	KY451235			KY489130	KY489307
<i>Cyllene</i>	<i>owenii</i>	Republic of the Congo		MNHN	IM-2009-23727	KY451236		KY488941	KY489131	KY489308
<i>Cyllene</i>	<i>parvula</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2009-12765	KY451237	KY488742	KY488942	KY489132	KY489309
<i>Cyllene</i>	<i>pulchella</i>	Vanuatu		MNHN	IM-2007-31755	KY451238	KY488743	KY488943	KY489133	KY489310
<i>Dorsanum</i>	<i>miran</i>	Mauritania		MNHN	IM-2013-52428	KY451239	KY488744	KY488944	KY489134	KY489311
<i>Dorsanum</i>	<i>miran</i>	Mauritania		MNHN	IM-2013-52431	KY489461			KY489489	
<i>Engina</i>	<i>fusiformis</i>			MNHN	IM-2007-32845	JQ950200	JQ950141		JQ950156	
<i>Engoniophos</i>	<i>unicinctus</i>	Guadeloupe		MNHN	IM-2009-24414	KY451413	KY488923	KY489122		KY489375
<i>Fusinus</i>	<i>colus</i>			LSGB	2341301	HQ834100	HQ833955	HQ833907		HQ834178
<i>Mitrella</i>	<i>bicineta</i>			LSGB	231022	JN052989	JN052928			
<i>Nassaria</i>	<i>magnifica</i>	Japan				FJ712703	AB044264		FJ710100	
<i>Nassaria</i>	<i>sp</i>	New Caledonia		MNHN	IM-2007-17856	KY451415			KY489291	KY489377
<i>Nassaria</i>	<i>sp</i>	Papua New Guinea		MNHN	IM-2009-13155	KY451414	KY488924	KY489123	KY489290	KY489376
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>acuminatus</i>	Papua New Guinea		MNHN	IM-2009-13116	KY451253	KY488759	KY488961	KY489149	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>acuticostus</i>	Vanuatu		MNHN	IM-2007-31698	KY451254	KY488760	KY488962		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>agapetus</i>	Vanuatu		MNHN	IM-2007-31774	KY451255	KY488761	KY488963	KY489150	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>alfuricus</i>	Philippines		MNHN	IM-2007-35602		KY488764	KY488966	KY489153	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>arcularia</i>	Philippines		MNHN	IM-2007-31898	KY451259	KY488766	KY488968	KY489155	KY489317
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>arcus</i>	New Caledonia		MNHN	IM-2007-36798	KY451260	KY488767	KY488969	KY489156	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>babylonicus</i>	Papua New Guinea		MNHN	IM-2009-22686	KY451261	KY488768	KY488970	KY489157	KY489318
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>barsdelli</i>	New Caledonia		MNHN	IM-2007-34770	KY451262	KY488769	KY488971	KY489158	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>bellulus</i>	Philippines		MNHN	IM-2007-31903	KY451263	KY488770	KY488972	KY489159	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>bicallosus auct</i>	Madagascar		MNHN	IM-2007-36697	KY451264	KY488771	KY488973	KY489160	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>bimaculosus</i>	Philippines		MNHN	IM-2007-31867	KY451265		KY488974		KY489319
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>boucheti</i>	New Caledonia		MNHN	IM-2009-21554	KY451266	KY488772	KY488975	KY489161	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>callospira</i>	Vanuatu		MNHN	IM-2007-31770	KY451267	KY488774	KY488977		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>camelus</i>	Philippines		MNHN	IM-2007-31934	KY451268	KY488775	KY488978	KY489163	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cf. comptus</i>	Vietnam		MNHN	IM-2009-29669	KY451271		KY488981	KY489166	KY489320
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cf. crematus</i>	Philippines		MNHN	IM-2007-34484	KY451272	KY488778	KY488982	KY489167	

<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cf. dijki</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13177	KY451273	KY488779	KY488983	KY489168	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cf. hansenae</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31931	KY451274	KY488780	KY488984		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cf. noguchii</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13170	KY451276	KY488782	KY488986	KY489170	KY489321
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cf. pumillio</i>	Senegal	MNHN	IM-2009-12313	KY451278	KY488784			
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cinctellus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31764	KY451279	KY488785	KY488988	KY489172	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>cinnamomea</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2009-21733	KY451280	KY488786	KY488989	KY489173	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>concinus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31852	KY451283	KY488789		KY489175	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>conoidalis</i>	Vietnam	MNHN	IM-2009-29668	KY451284	KY488790	KY488992	KY489176	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>coronatus</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22308	KY489176	KY488793	KY488995	KY489178	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>crematus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31702	KY451288	KY488794	KY488996	KY489179	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>crenoliratus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31668	KY451289	KY488795	KY488997		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>dijki</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13145	KY451293	KY488799	KY489001	KY489182	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>disparilis</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31886	KY451294			KY489183	KY489325
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>distortus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2009-20637	KY451295	KY488800	KY489002	KY489184	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>dorsuosus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31890	KY451296	KY488801	KY489003		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>ecstilbus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31751	KY451297	KY488802	KY489004		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>euglyptus</i>	Solomon Islands	MNHN	IM-2007-32393	KY451299	KY488804	KY489006		KY489327
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>eximius</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31944	KY451300	KY488805	KY489007		KY489328
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>fenistratus</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12791	KY451301	KY488806	KY489008	KY489186	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>filosus</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12324	KY451302	KY488807	KY489009	KY489187	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>fraudulentus</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2007-39380	KY451303	KY488808	KY489010	KY489188	KY489329
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>fretorum</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31936	KY451304	KY488809	KY489011		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>gaudiosus</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2009-21719	KY451305	KY488810	KY489012	KY489189	KY489330
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>gibbosuloideus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31678	KY451306	KY488811	KY489013	KY489190	KY489331
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>glans</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12809	KY451308	KY488813	KY489015	KY489192	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>globosus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31703	KY451309	KY488814	KY489016		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>graniferus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31676	KY451311	KY488816	KY489018	KY489194	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>haldemani</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31662	KY451313	KY488818	KY489020	KY489196	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>hepaticus</i>	China	LSGB	2340302	HQ834075	HQ833945	HQ833897		HQ834168
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>herosae</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2007-39259	KY451314	KY488819	KY489021	KY489197	KY489334
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>horridus</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12852	KY451240	KY488745	KY488945	KY489135	KY489312
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>houbricki</i>	Solomon Islands	MNHN	IM-2007-36143		KY488822	KY489024	KY489200	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>idyllius</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31927	KY451345	KY488852	KY489053	KY489228	KY489347
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>interliratus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31925	KY451316	KY488824	KY489026		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>irus</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12797	KY451317		KY489027	KY489202	KY489336
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>javanus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31862	KY451318	KY488825	KY489028	KY489203	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>kooli</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31661	KY451321	KY488827	KY489030	KY489206	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>kraussianus</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12883	KY451322	KY488828	KY489031	KY489207	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>labordei</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22325	KY451323	KY488829	KY489032	KY489208	KY489337
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>leptospirus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31868	KY451324	KY488830		KY489209	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>limnaeiformis</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-201016549	KY451325	KY488831	KY489033		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>lochi</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31728	KY451326	KY488832	KY489034	KY489210	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>luridus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31716	KY451327	KY488833	KY489035	KY489211	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>margaritifer</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31858	KY451329	KY488835	KY489037	KY489213	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>martensi</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2007-38227		KY488836	KY489038	KY489214	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>martinezi</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2007-34768		KY488837	KY489039	KY489215	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>moolenbeeki</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31680	KY451332	KY488839	KY489041	KY489217	KY489339
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>multicostatus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31710	KY451333	KY488840	KY489042	KY489218	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>multipunctatus</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-7418	KY451334	KY488841	KY489043		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>nigrus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31730	KY451241	KY488746	KY488946	KY489136	KY489313
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>noguchii</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31664	KY451338	KY488845	KY489047	KY489221	KY489343
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>novaezelandiae</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-30294	KY451339	KY488846	KY489048	KY489222	KY489344
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>obelatus</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22307		KY488847	KY489049	KY489223	KY489345
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>ocellatus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31906	KY451341	KY488848	KY489050	KY489224	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>olivaceus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31897	KY451342	KY488849	KY489051	KY489225	KY489346
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>olomea</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-20620	KY451343	KY488850	KY489052	KY489226	

<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>oneratus</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22704	KY451344	KY488851		KY489227	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>papillosus</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22320	KY451347	KY488854	KY489055	KY489230	KY489348
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>pauperatus</i>	Australia	MNHN	IM-2009-22739		KY488855	KY489056	KY489231	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>poupini</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2007-38554	KY451351	KY488859	KY489060	KY489235	KY489351
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>pullus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-41498	KY451353	KY488861	KY489062	KY489237	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>pyrrhus</i>	Australia	MNHN	IM-2009-23718		KY488863	KY489064	KY489239	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>radians</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31729		KY488864	KY489065	KY489240	KY489353
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>reeveanus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31895	KY451355		KY489066	KY489241	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>rufus</i>	Saudi Arabia	MNHN	IM-2009-24002	KY451358	KY488867	KY489069	KY489244	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>samiae</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31663	KY451359	KY488868	KY489070	KY489245	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>semisulcatus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31891	KY451360	KY488869	KY489071		KY489355
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sinusigerus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31916	KY451363	KY488873	KY489074	KY489248	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>siquijorensis</i>	China	LSGB	23404	HQ834076	HQ833946	HQ833898		HQ834169
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>smithii</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31885		KY488874	KY489075		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 13</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13103	KY451366	KY488876	KY489077	KY489250	KY489358
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 205</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-24001	KY451367	KY488877	KY489078	KY489251	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 213</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2007-36788	KY451368	KY488878	KY489079	KY489252	KY489359
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 221</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-21556	KY451369	KY488879	KY489080	KY489253	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 268</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31857	KY451370	KY488880	KY489081	KY489254	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 279</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31682	KY451371	KY488881	KY489082	KY489255	KY489360
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 301</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12330	KY451372		KY489083	KY489256	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 303</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2007-38011	KY451374	KY488883	KY489085	KY489258	KY489362
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 307</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-20628	KY451375	KY488884	KY489086	KY489259	KY489363
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 404</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31894	KY451376	KY488885	KY489087	KY489260	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 405</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2009-12240	KY451377	KY488886	KY489088	KY489261	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 408</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-35600	KY451378	KY488887	KY489089	KY489262	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 418</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24470	KY451379	KY488888	KY489090	KY489263	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 427</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24284	KY451380	KY488889	KY489091	KY489264	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 502</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31939	KY451382	KY488891	KY489093		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 61</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2007-36666	KY451383	KY488892	KY489094	KY489266	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 64</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13092	KY451384	KY488893	KY489095	KY489267	KY489364
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 655</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-22544	KY451385	KY488894	KY489096		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 733</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24306	KY451386	KY488895	KY489097	KY489268	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 784</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2007-34769	KY451387	KY488896	KY489098	KY489269	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. 918</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24462	KY451388	KY488897		KY489270	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. A10</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-34474	KY451389	KY488898	KY489099		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. A9</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2007-32388	KY451390	KY488899	KY489100	KY489271	KY489365
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp. FP5622</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2009-21750	KY451391	KY488900	KY489101	KY489272	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31724	KY451242		KY488947	KY489137	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31902	KY451245	KY488749	KY488950	KY489140	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31941	KY451246		KY488951	KY489141	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-35267	KY451247	KY488750	KY488952		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-35597	KY451248	KY488751	KY488953	KY489142	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-35738	KY451249	KY488752	KY488954		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2009-12246	KY451250	KY488753	KY488955	KY489143	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13129		KY488754	KY488956	KY489144	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2009-23705		KY488755	KY488957	KY489145	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>sp</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-23990	KY451252	KY488757	KY488959	KY489147	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>splendidulus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-33019	KY451365	KY488875	KY489076	KY489249	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>stigmarius</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22672	KY451392	KY488901	KY489102	KY489273	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>subpinosus</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31677	KY451243	KY488747	KY488948	KY489138	KY489314
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>subtranslucidus</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22673	KY451393	KY488902	KY489103	KY489274	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>succinctus</i>	China	LSGB	2340501	HQ834078	HQ833948	HQ833900		HQ834171
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>tabescens</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31712	KY451394	KY488903	KY489104	KY489275	

<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>thachi</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-34482	KY451395	KY488904	KY489105	KY489276	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>vanpeli</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-20606	KY451399	KY488907	KY489108	KY489279	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>vanuatuensis</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31786		KY488908	KY489109	KY489280	
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>venustus</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31865	KY451400	KY488909	KY489110		
<i>Nassarius</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2007-36838	KY451403	KY488912	KY489113	KY489282	
<i>Nassodonta</i>	<i>dorri</i>	Vietnam	MNHN	IM-2009-20649	KY451404	KY488913	KY489114	KY489283	KY489369
<i>Naytia</i>	<i>glabrata</i>	Republic of the Congo	MNHN	IM-2009-23946	KY451307	KY488812	KY489014	KY489191	KY489332
<i>Naytia</i>	<i>granulosa</i>	Republic of the Congo	MNHN	IM-2009-23948	KY451225	KY488734	KY488931	KY489128	KY489299
<i>Naytia</i>	<i>johni</i>	Morocco	MNHN	IM-2009-22574	KY451319		KY489029	KY489204	
<i>Naytia</i>	<i>priscardi</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12870	KY451352	KY488860	KY489061	KY489236	KY489352
<i>Naytia</i>	<i>sp</i>	Republic of the Congo	MNHN	IM-2009-23951	KY451251	KY488756	KY488958	KY489146	
<i>Phos</i>	<i>alabastrum</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-20613	KY451405	KY488914	KY489115	KY489284	
<i>Phos</i>	<i>cf. hirasei</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13144	KY451408	KY488918	KY489117	KY489287	
<i>Phos</i>	<i>cf. roseatus</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-20623	KY451409	KY488919	KY489118		
<i>Phos</i>	<i>hirasei</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13112	KY451410	KY488920	KY489119	KY489288	KY489373
<i>Phos</i>	<i>senticosus</i>	China	LSGB	232091	JN053008	JN052944			
<i>Phos</i>	<i>sp</i>	New Caledonia	MNHN	IM-2009-20608	KY451411	KY488921	KY489120		
<i>Photinae</i>	<i>sp</i>	Papua New Guinea	MNHN	IM-2009-13141	KY451416	KY488925	KY489124	KY489292	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>alba auct</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24340		KY488763	KY488965	KY489152	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>alba</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24295	KY451256	KY488762	KY488964	KY489151	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>antillarum</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24320	KY451258	KY488765	KY488967	KY489154	KY489316
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>candidissima</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24297	KY451269	KY488776	KY488979	KY489164	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>cf. alba</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24316	KY451270	KY488777	KY488980	KY489165	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>compacta</i>	Panama	MNHN	IM-2009-22344	KY451281	KY488787	KY488990	KY489174	KY489322
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>complanata</i>	Panama	MNHN	IM-2009-22345	KY451282	KY488788	KY488991		
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>hotessieriana</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24317	KY451315	KY488821	KY489023	KY489199	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>karinae</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24296	KY451320	KY488826		KY489205	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>luteostoma</i>	Panama	MNHN	IM-2009-21715	KY451328	KY488834	KY489036	KY489212	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>nassiformis</i>	Panama	MNHN	IM-2009-24034	KY451336	KY488843	KY489045		KY489341
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>pagoda</i>	Panama	MZUR	BAU00237	FM999173	FM999125	FM999094		
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>polygonata</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24329	KY451350	KY488858	KY489059	KY489234	KY489350
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>sp</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24289		KY488758	KY488960	KY489148	
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>versicolor</i>	Panama	MNHN	IM-2009-24032	KY451401	KY488910	KY489111		KY489368
<i>Phrontis</i>	<i>vibex</i>	Guadeloupe	MNHN	IM-2009-24334	KY451402	KY488911	KY489112	KY489281	
<i>Pisania</i>	<i>striata</i>		MZUR	BAU00698	FM999175	FM999128	FM999097		
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>annabolteae</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12862	KY451373	KY488882	KY489084	KY489257	KY489361
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>cf. neoproducta</i>	Mozambique	MNHN	IM-2009-22676	KY451275	KY488781	KY488985	KY489169	
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>cf. paupera</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31779	KY451277	KY488783	KY488987	KY489171	
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>crenulicostata</i>	Philippines	MNHN	IM-2007-31900	KY451290	KY488796	KY488998		
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>festiva</i>	China	LSGB	23401A2	JQ975433	JQ975569			
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>neoproducta</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-12896	KY451337	KY488844	KY489046	KY489220	KY489342
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>paupera</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31778	KY451348	KY488856	KY489057	KY489232	KY489349
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>rotunda</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31783	KY451357	KY488866	KY489068	KY489243	
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>silvardi</i>	French Polynesia	MNHN	IM-2009-23955		KY489072	KY489072	KY489247	KY489357
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>simoni</i>	Madagascar	MNHN	IM-2009-13086	KY451362	KY488872	KY489073		
<i>Reticunassa</i>	<i>tringa</i>	Vanuatu	MNHN	IM-2007-31753	KY451397	KY488906	KY489107		KY489367
<i>Tomlinia</i>	<i>frausseni</i>	Vietnam	MNHN	IM-2013-52188	KY451417	KY488926			KY489378
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>burchardi</i>	Australia	MNHN	IM-2009-23746		KY488773	KY488976	KY489162	
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>conspersa</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-22353	KY451285	KY488791	KY488993		
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>cuvierii</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-5378	KY451291	KY488797	KY488999	KY489180	KY489324
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>denticulata</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-21546	KY451292	KY488798	KY489000	KY489181	
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>ephamilla</i>	New Zealand	MNHN	IM-2009-24014	KY451298	KY488803	KY489005	KY489185	KY489326
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>goreensis</i>	Senegal	MNHN	IM-2009-12296	KY451310	KY488815	KY489017	KY489193	
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>grana</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-22546	KY451312	KY488817	KY489019	KY489195	KY489333
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>heyneimanni</i>	Senegal	MNHN	IM-2009-12304		KY488820	KY489022	KY489198	
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>incrassata</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-21589		KY488823	KY489025	KY489201	KY489335



<i>Tritia lanceolata</i>	Tunisia	MNHN	IM-2013-32028					KY489278	
<i>Tritia miga</i>	Senegal	MNHN	IM-2009-12309	KY451331	KY488838	KY489040	KY489216	KY489338	
<i>Tritia mutabilis</i>	France	MNHN	IM-2009-29683	KY451335	KY488842	KY489044	KY489219	KY489340	
<i>Tritia neritea</i>	Tunisia	MNHN	IM-2009-30508	KY451233		KY488939	KY489129	KY489306	
<i>Tritia obsoleta</i>	USA	MNHN	IM-2009-21755	KY451244	KY488748	KY488949	KY489139	KY489315	
<i>Tritia ovoidea</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-21580	KY451346	KY488853	KY489054	KY489229		
<i>Tritia pallaryana</i>	Tunisia	MNHN	IM-2013-31770	KY451286	KY488792	KY488994	KY489177	KY489323	
<i>Tritia pellucida</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-5374	KY451234	KY488741	KY488940			
<i>Tritia pfeifferi</i>	Morocco	MNHN	IM-2009-22558	KY451349	KY488857	KY489058	KY489233		
<i>Tritia pygmaea</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-21586	KY451354	KY488862	KY489063	KY489238		
<i>Tritia reticulata</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-22330	KY451356	KY488865	KY489067	KY489242	KY489354	
<i>Tritia senegalensis</i>	Senegal	MNHN	IM-2009-12284	KY451361	KY488870		KY489246	KY489356	
<i>Tritia sp. 500</i>	Senegal	MNHN	IM-2009-12300	KY451381	KY488890	KY489092	KY489265		
<i>Tritia tingitana</i>	Spain	MNHN	IM-2009-24094	KY451396	KY488905	KY489106	KY489277	KY489366	
<i>Volutharpa perryi</i>		LSGB	232042	JN053003	JN052938				

**Table 2.** Fossil record used as calibration point.

<b>Node</b>	<b>Calibration reference</b>
<b>Nassariidae</b>	Coniacian, Cretaceous (89.9-86.3) (Tracey et al., 1993)
<i>Tritia reticulata</i>	Early Pliocene (5.3-3.6 mya) (Gili and Martinell, 1994)
<i>T. neritea</i>	Pleistocene (2.58-0.78 mya) (Gili and Martinell, 1999)
<i>T. pellucida</i>	Lower Pliocene (5.3-3.6 mya) (Gili and Martinell, 1999)
<i>Tritia mutabilis</i>	Middle Pleistocene (1.8-0.12 mya) (Van Dingenen et al., 2015)
<i>T. incrassata</i>	Lower Pliocene (5.3-3.6 mya) (MHNH Collection)
<i>Dorsanum</i>	Early Oligocene (32 MYA) (Lozouet, 1999)
<i>Tritia</i>	<i>T. pygmaeus</i> (Schlotheim 1820), 28–23 (Lozouet, 1999)
<i>Buccinanops</i>	<i>B. calli</i> (Aldrich 1886), 57 Ma (Allmon, 1990);
<i>Cyllene</i>	<i>C. desnoyersi</i> (Basterot 1825), 28–23
<b>Nassariinae</b>	<i>Buccitriton</i> sp., 56–47.8 Ma (Tracey et al., 1993)
<b>Photinae</b>	<i>Tritaria</i> sp., 41–34 Ma (MacNeil and Dockery, 1984)

**Table 3.** The four biogeographic categories assigned and their relative marine biogeographic region.

<b>Biogeographic category</b>	<b>Marine Biogeographic region</b>	
<b>Indo-Pacific</b>	IPW, IPC, Aus, IPE	Indo-Pacific East, Indo-Pacific Central, Temperate Australian, Indo-Pacific West
<b>Caribbean</b>	TrAW	Tropical West Atlantic
<b>Mediterranean &amp; Atlantic</b>	TAE, TrAE	Temperate East Atlantic, Tropical East Atlantic
<b>South America</b>	MAG, TSAE, TESP	Magellanic, Temperate East South America, Temperate Estern-South Pacific

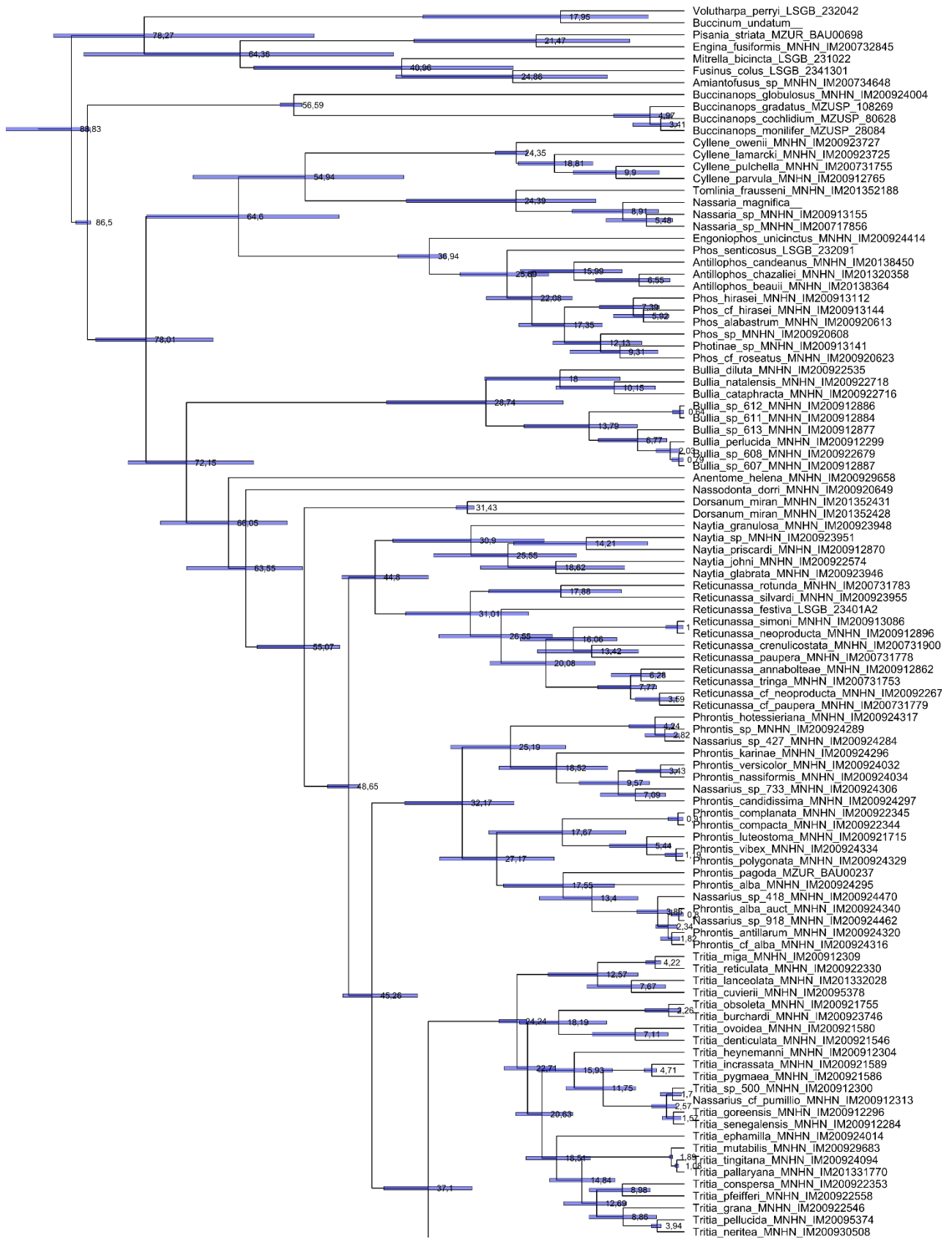


Figure 1A. Calibrated phylogeny (BEAST). First part.

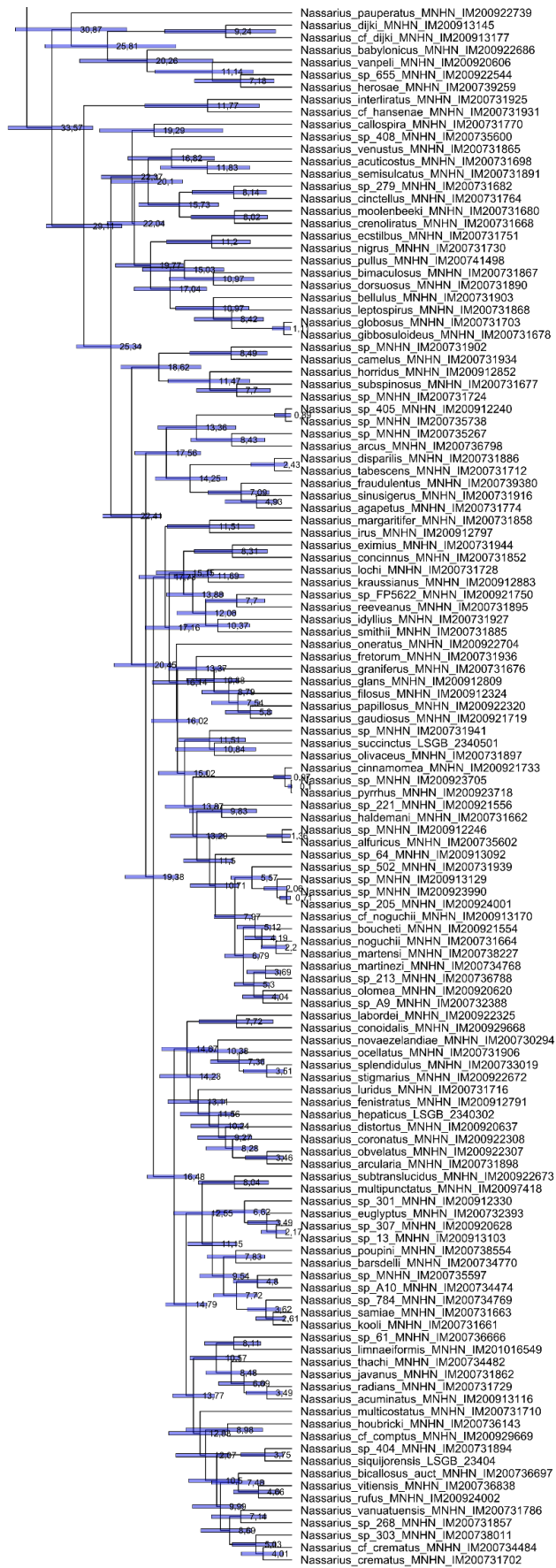
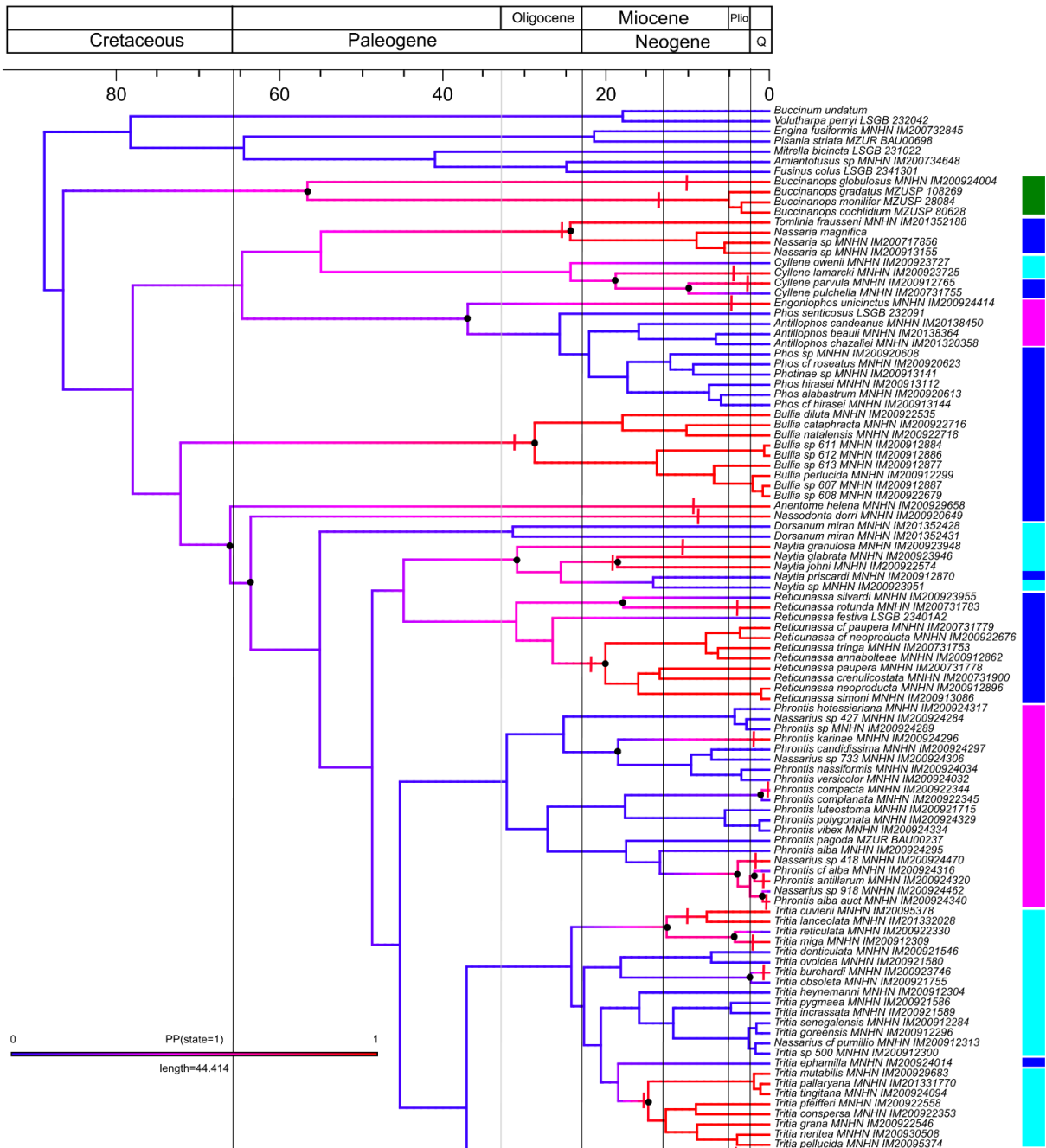


Figure 1B. Calibrated phylogeny (BEAST). Second part.



**Figure 2A.** Ancestral state reconstruction. In red high posterior probability of Non-Planktotrophy state. The nodes in black were considered where change of larval development occurred. Biogeographic region: Blu (Indo-Pacific), Pink (Caribbean), Cyan (Mediterranean & Atlantic), Green (South America). First part.

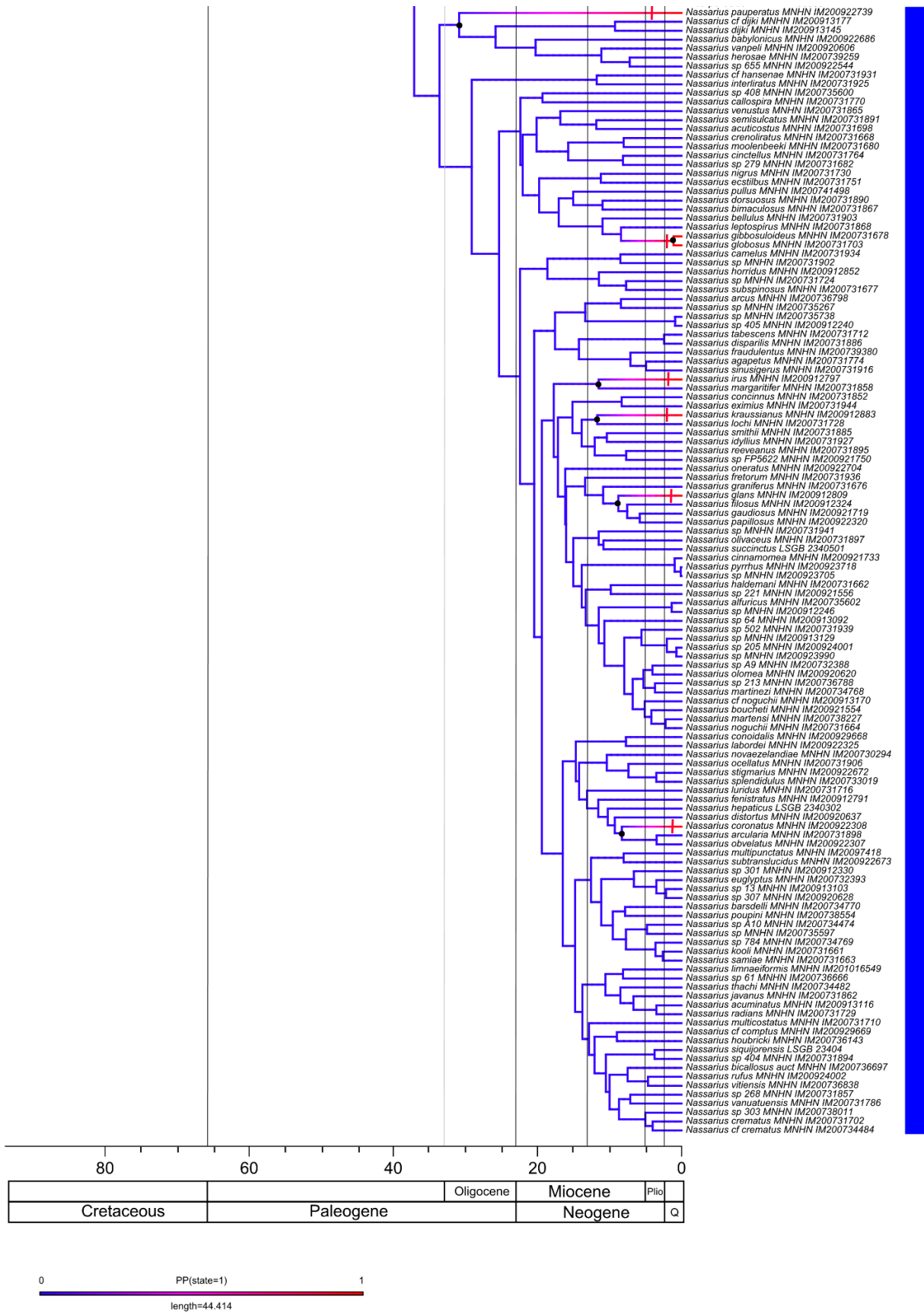


Figure 2B. Ancestral state reconstruction. Second part.

## Chapter IV

- Whelks, rock-snails and allied: the evolution of larval development within a new phylogenetic framework for the family Muricidae (Mollusca: Gastropoda)

# Whelks, rock-snails and allied: the evolution of larval development within a new phylogenetic framework for the family Muricidae (Mollusca: Gastropoda)

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## 1 Introduction

2 Given the small dispersal ability of benthic marine organism, larval development is a key feature  
3 bearing on population connectivity, range, and genetic structure (Cowen & Sponaugle, 2009;  
4 Modica et al., 2017).

5 In marine gastropods larval development is an important character due to the severely reduced  
6 mobility of the adult, compared to the potential dispersal by larvae (Cowen & Sponaugle, 2009;  
7 Ellingson & Krug, 2015). Larval development can be divided in two major types (Thorson, 1950):  
8 Planktotrophic (P) with larvae feeding actively on phytoplankton, spending a relatively long time in  
9 the pelagic phase, reflected in a multispiral larval shell (protoconch) and high dispersion ability;  
10 Non Planktotrophic (NP), with lecithotrophic larvae that may spend little time in the pelagic phase,  
11 or even complete their development within the egg-capsule (intracapsular development), reflected  
12 in a paucispiral protoconch and a relatively low dispersal ability.

13 Larval development in gastropods is a rather plastic feature, with the frequent occurrence of sibling  
14 species originated by switch in their larval development (loss of planktotrophy) (Oliverio, 1996;  
15 Collin, 2004; Collin et al., 2007; Duda and Palumbi, 1999; Houart, 2013). Poecilogony (intraspecific  
16 variation in the mode of larval development) is very rare in Caenogastropoda (P Bouchet, 1989;  
17 Mcdonald et al., 2014; Russini et al., 2019) allowing for the use of larval shell characters (the  
18 protoconch is very frequently retained at the apex of the adult shells) to diagnose sibling species,  
19 morphologically very similar, but differing in their larval development. However, this morphological  
20 peculiarity of many conchiferan molluscs (characters of larval life-history still readable in the adults)



21 offers the unique occasion to study the evolution of larval developmental strategies across a  
22 phylogenetic framework when this is available.

23 In this work we investigated the evolution of larval development in the phylogenetic lineages of the  
24 family Muricidae. The neogastropod family Muricidae is one of the most species-rich family of  
25 Gastropoda, with an estimated 1800+ extant species of whelks, rock-shells, murex-shells, drill-shells,  
26 coral-shells (WoRMS, Appeltans et al., 2012). The family has a worldwide distribution, from shallow  
27 water down to more than 3000 m (Aldea & Troncoso, 2010), all carnivore predators, from  
28 generalists to highly specialized. Muricids are known since ancient times, with Mediterranean  
29 species used by Phoenicians to produce their Tyrian purple dye, and Greeks, Arabians and Chinese  
30 using them for pharmacological use (Benkendorff et al., 2015). Nowadays, some rock shells have  
31 economic relevance being either consumed as food (e.g. *Murex*, *Concholepas*, *Trunculariopsis*,  
32 *Bolinus*, *Chicoreus*) or a pest of commercial oysters (Buhle & Ruesink, 2009). The classification of the  
33 family in the last century was repeatedly revised based on morphological features of Recent and  
34 fossil taxa (Bouchet and Rocroi, 2005; Vokes, 1996; Ponder and Waren, 1988; Radwin and D'Attilio,  
35 1971; Keen, 1971; Thiele, 1929; Cossmann, 1903) and a single comprehensive attempt at building a  
36 molecular phylogenetic framework has been recently performed (A Barco et al., 2010) with a few  
37 other work at the subfamily level (A Barco et al., 2015; Andrea Barco et al., 2012; Claremont et al.,  
38 2008, 2013; M Oliverio & Mariottini, 2001).

39 In the present study we aimed at extending the analysis of the family Muricidae based on a larger  
40 dataset, including all the recognised subfamilies to produce a solid phylogenetic framework.

41

42 Based on this, the ancestral state reconstruction on a calibrated tree will show the evolution of  
43 larval development along the family evolutionary history.

## 44 **Materials and methods**

### 45 *Dataset*

46 The analysis was based on four molecular markers: one nuclear marker (the 28S rDNA of 1417 bp)  
47 and three mitochondrial markers (the barcode fragment of 658 bp of the cytochrome c oxidase  
48 subunit I, COI, a 455 bp fragment of the 12S rDNA and a 649 bp fragment of the 16S rDNA) (Table  
49 1). DNA was extracted from tissue samples at the Service de Systématique Moléculaire of the  
50 Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle (MNHN, Paris) and at the Department of Biology and  
51 Biotechnologies "Charles Darwin" of Sapienza University of Rome (BAU), with either the 6100  
52 Nucleic Acid Prepstation system (Applied Biosystems), a standard DMSO protocol, or a standard  
53 phenol/chloroform protocol. Primers used to amplify the selected markers are reported in Table 1.

54

55 (Table 1)

56

57 The starting dataset was composed by merging all published sequences of Muricidae and 604  
58 original sequences. Taxonomic identification of every specimen was assessed by the examination of  
59 the original specimens were available, or by cross-checking sequences in single gene alignments  
60 (especially the barcode COI) with pedigreed vouchers in publicly available collections. Thereafter,  
61 the taxa for the final dataset were selected in order to maximize the taxonomic coverage of the  
62 family and the available sequences per taxon: samples with at least the barcoding sequence of COI  
63 or at least two of the other three markers (12S, 16S and 28S).

64 The sequences were aligned with Geneious R7 (Kearse et al., 2012) (COI) and with the software  
65 MAFFT (Kato et al., 2017; Kuraku et al., 2013) choosing the Q-INS-I algorithm (12S, 16S and 28S).  
66 The hypervariable regions of alignment of 12S, 16S and 28S were excluded in the analysis after  
67 selection by the software Gblocks (v. 0.91b, Castresana, 2000), setting all the options for a less  
68 stringent selection. The concatenated dataset was assembled with SequenceMatrix (Vaidya et al.,  
69 2011). Single gene alignments were used to check for potential contaminants, wrong sequences and  
70 redundant identical sequences that were all eliminated, in order to have a single or few  
71 representatives to each species, yielding a final dataset containing 418 muricid specimens  
72 represented 382 species.

73

74 *Phylogenetic reconstruction*

75 Phylogenetic analyses were performed by Maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI) on  
76 the concatenated dataset. ML analyses were performed with the software IQ-TREE (Nguyen et al.,  
77 2014) on 10000 bootstrap replicates (with ultrafast bootstrap, UFBoot: Hoang et al., 2017). BI  
78 analysis was performed using Beast 1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012) running two Markov chain Monte  
79 Carlo (MCMC) analyses in parallel for 10<sup>8</sup> generations, with a 25% burn-in and sampling every 10000  
80 steps. Using TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2018), chains convergence was assumed when the  
81 effective sample size values (ESS) were >200. All the phylogenetic trees were visualised with FigTree  
82 (v 1.4.4).

83 The substitution model for each partition (12S, 16s, 28s and positions 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> of COI) was  
84 chosen with Partition finder 2 (Lanfear et al., 2016).

85 We used as outgroup the conoidean *Conus judaeus* Bergh, 1895 (Conidae), and species of  
86 Buccinoidea, related to the Muricoidea (Marco Oliverio & Modica, 2010): *Buccinum undatum*  
87 Linnaeus, 1758, *Kelletia lischkei* Kuroda, 1938, *Penion ormesi* (Powell, 1927), *Serratifusus lineatus*  
88 Harasewych, 1991.

89 Nodes with Bootstraps support (BS) of 70-90% and Posterior Probabilities (PP) of 0.90-0.95 have  
90 been considered as moderately supported; those with BS > 90% and PP > 0.95 have been consider  
91 as highly supported.

92

### 93 *Temporal calibration of the phylogenetic framework*

94 We identified 12 calibration points that we used to calibrate the tree of Muricidae (Table 2).

- 95 (1) The first appearance of the family is probably witnessed in the Upper Cretaceous of Texas (70 -  
96 112 mya) (Merle et al., 2011) with the earliest known species attributed to **Muricidae**, the fossil  
97 *Paziella (Flexopteron) cretacea* (Garvie, 1991). The family was certainly not present before the  
98 Albian (Lower Cretaceous, 112 Mya), which was set as the lower bound (Andrea Barco et al., 2012).
- 99 (2) The Middle Eocene *Coralliophila (Timotia) aldrichi* (Cossmann, 1903) is the earliest known  
100 species of **Coralliophilinae** (Clairbonian of Mississippi and Louisiana, approx. 40 Mya; Dockery  
101 1980). Congruently, the lower bound was defined at 65.5 Mya, in agreement with the estimate that  
102 the diversification of the muricid subfamilies probably occurred during the Paleocene and Eocene  
103 (Lozouet & Renard, 1998; M Oliverio, 2008).
- 104 (3) The fossil record of **Typhinae** dates the first certain appearance of the subfamily in the Lower  
105 Eocene (Ypresian) (MHNH collection) based on the occurrence of *Typhis tubifer* (Bruguière, 1792).

106 (4) Fossils belonging to the subfamily **Ocenebrinae** are common in the lower Miocene, and probably  
107 the first appearance of the subfamily was during the Lower Oligocene (Lozouet, 2012). (5) The genus  
108 **Nucella** (Ocenebrinae), has the first documented record in the lower Miocene (Aquitania) c. 22.5  
109 mya (Collins et al., 1996).  
110 (6) The first fossil sample identified as **Rapaninae** was in the lower Oligocene (Lozouet, 2012).  
111 (7) The first appearance of the subfamily **Ergalataxinae** matches with the fossil record of the genus  
112 *Lindapterys* in the lower Oligocene (MNHN collection).  
113 Concerning the subfamily Muricinae, (8) the oldest known record of the genus **Chicoreus** is from the  
114 Piacenzian (2.5 mya) (Merle et al., 2011). For the genus *Murex*, fossil records of both (9) **M. trapa**  
115 and (10) **M. tenuirostrum** appeared during the Pliocene of Java (W. Ponder & Vokes, 1988). (11) The  
116 oldest fossil record for the genus **Poirieria** is from the lower Eocene (Ypresian) (Merle & Pacaud,  
117 2002). (12) The genus **Timbellus** has the first documented appearance at least in the lower Eocene  
118 (47.8–56 mya) (Cossmann, 1923).

119

120 (Table 2)

121

122 The combined dataset was used to create a calibrated tree to estimate the node ages of each clade  
123 of the family Muricidae with the software Beast 1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012). The heterogeneity  
124 of the mutation rate across lineages was set under uncorrelated lognormal distributed relaxed  
125 clocks for the three partitions found (see below), and the Yule process (Gernhard, 2008) was chosen.  
126 All other priors were set with default values. The twelve calibration points were set under  
127 exponential prior (Ho & Phillips, 2009), with the major distributions within the boundaries of the  
128 relative stage age of identification. We performed two runs of  $10^8$  generations, sampled every  
129 10,000 steps, results were analysed with Tracer 1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2018) and all runs were pooled  
130 together and re-sampled using LogCombiner 1.8.0, after 25% samples were discarded as a burn-in.  
131 Then, the maximum clade credibility tree was estimated with TreeAnnotator 1.8.0.

132

### 133 *Ancestral state reconstruction and evolution of larval development*

134 The mode of larval development of 278 species represented in the phylogeny was inferred by the  
135 direct examination of the larval shell morphology of each assayed specimen, or of conspecific  
136 specimens genetically analysed. To investigate the evolution of larval development through the  
137 different lineages and within each subfamily, we performed an ancestral state reconstruction

138 (package phytools in R: Revell, 2012) on an calibrated ultrametric tree, generated with the software  
139 BEAST (v. 1.8.0) (Suchard et al., 2018). We used the concatenated alignment of a reduced dataset  
140 including only the species with a known larval development. The 12 calibration points were used to  
141 estimate the nodes ages of the tree and the ages of the character changes, the planktotrophy was  
142 assumed to be the ancestral state in the lineages (Haszprunar, 1995; Marco Oliverio, 1996).

143 **Results**

144 We retrieved from the GenBank c. 800 sequences for the molecular markers 12S, 16S and 28S, and  
145 3980 sequences of the barcode marker COI. After analysing all sequences, checking for consistency  
146 and redundancy, and assessing the taxonomic ID of each sequence, we eventually selected the  
147 sequences in order to maximize the number of represented species. The final dataset was composed  
148 of sequence of 418 individuals. The combined alignment was 3179 bp long, of which 455 bp for the  
149 12S, 649 bp for the 16S, 1417 bp for the 28S and 658 bp for the COI.

150

151 *Phylogenetic reconstruction*

152 The substitution models found by Partition Finder 2 for each partition of our dataset are shown in  
153 Table 3.

154

155 (Table 3)

156

157 The ML and BI analyses yielded trees with very similar topologies, with only different support value  
158 for some of the major nodes (Figure 1A and 1B).

159 The monophyly of the family Muricidae was confirmed (BS 98%; PP 1). The monophyly was also  
160 supported for the subfamilies Ergalataxinae (BS 100%; PP 1), Coralliophilinae (BS 100%; PP 1),  
161 Rapaninae (BS 98%; PP 1), Ocenebrinae (BS 88%; PP 0.49), Pagodulinae (BS 76%; PP 1), Haustrinae  
162 (BS 100%; PP 1) and Typhinae (BS 91%; PP 1). The subfamily Trophoninae (clade E, Figure 1A)  
163 comprised paraphyletic lineages (genera *Trophon* and *Leptotrophon*) but not confirmed due to a  
164 very low support. In all the supported subfamilies, few genera appeared to be monophyletic.

165 The subfamilies Muricinae and Muricopsinae were not monophyletic and were splitted in several  
166 lineages.

167 It is possible to distinguish a large monophyletic clade (BS 98%; PP 1) **Muricinae** (s.s., clade A, Figure  
168 1A), that included species of the genera *Murex*, *Chicoreus*, *Muricantus*, *Haustellum*, *Hexaplex*,  
169 *Naquetia*, *Chicomurex*, *Phyllonotus*, *Siratus*, *Bolinus*, *Vokesimurex*. However, the genera included in  
170 this clade did not always form distinct groups; species of *Naquetia* and *Chicomurex* were intermixed  
171 within a monophyletic clade (BS 82%; PP 1), suggesting an artificial division of genera; species of  
172 *Chicoreus* were in a monophyletic clade (BS 66%; PP 0.94) together with *Muricanthus radix* and  
173 *Monstrotyphis montfortii* suggesting a revision of the latter two species; the genus *Murex*, with the  
174 exception of *Murex occa*, was monophyletic (BS 94%; PP 0.94).

175 The subfamily **Muricopsinae** as traditionally conceived did not form a monophyletic clade due to  
176 the inclusion of the genera *Attiliosa*, *Aspella* and *Dermomurex* (formerly Muricinae or Aspellinae),  
177 and *Tripterotyphis triangularis* (formerly Tripterotyphinae). However, the support of this mixed  
178 clade was very high (BS 99%; PP 0.99), but the genus *Vitularia* (traditionally considered a  
179 muricopsine) was not included in the clade. We consider the supported clade B in figure 1A as  
180 Muricopsinae s.s.

181 The genera *Timbellus* (BS 100%; PP 1) and *Pterynotus* (BS 100%; PP 1) traditionally in Muricinae,  
182 resulted in two well distinct and monophyletic clades (clade C e D, Figure 1A). Moreover,  
183 *Homalocantha pele* *Flexopteron poppei*, *Ponderia magna* and *Daphnellopsis lamellosa* settled as  
184 independents lineages.

185

186 (Figure 1A and 1B)

187

#### 188 *Calibration phylogeny*

189 The calibrated phylogeny estimated the origin of the family **Muricidae** at 74.53 mya (95% HPD  
190 70.6–82.73) during the upper Cretaceous (Campanian). The clade of **Muricinae** s.s., was dated at  
191 29.49 mya (95% HPD 22.86–39.27) between Oligocene and early Miocene. The estimated origin of  
192 the genus *Chicoreus* at 12.41 mya (95% HPD 9.89–15.4) during the Middle-Upper Miocene seems  
193 to predate the known fossil record. The origin of the **Muricopsinae** s.s. (as here conceived) was  
194 dated during the Middle Eocene (Ypresian) at 50.13 mya (95% HPD 41.64–59.85); in this clade, the  
195 origin of genus *Favartia* s.s. is dated at 34.33 mya (95% HPD 23.16–44.11) during early Oligocene.

196 The subfamily **Pagodulinae**, due to the first appearance of the genus *Poirieria*, is estimated as having  
197 originated 52.34 mya (95% HPD 49.65–55.62) during the Ypresian (Middle Eocene); meanwhile the  
198 other genus of the subfamily seems to be more recent, 23.64 mya (95% HPD 17.1–31.64) during the  
199 Late Oligocene. The subfamily **Haustrinae** is estimated to have arisen 33.29 mya (95% HPD  
200 16.04–48.55) in the Early Oligocene. In the subfamily **Trophoninae**, that in the time-calibrated  
201 analysis was monophyletic, the origin is dated at 31.26 mya (95% HPD 19.01–48.41) in the lower  
202 Oligocene. The **Ergalataxinae** were estimated to have arisen in the middle-upper Eocene, with the  
203 node dated at 36.55 mya (95% HPD 29.55–44.82), and its genus *Drupella* originated at 15.4 mya  
204 (95% HPD 10.06–20.52) during the middle Miocene. The **Coralliophilinae** are suggested to have  
205 originated 51.84 mya (95% HPD 44.73–59.93) during the Ypresian (middle Eocene) in agreement  
206 with the fossil record. The **Ocenebrinae** are estimated to have originated during the lower Oligocene

207 at 30.77 mya (95% HPD 28.22–34.63), in agreement with the very rich fossil record of the subfamily  
208 in Lower Miocene, while the genus *Ocenebra* was dated at 13.17 mya (95% HPD 7.93–19.33). The  
209 origin of the **Rapaninae** was estimated at 52.34 mya (95% HPD 44.64–61.16) during the Ypresian  
210 (middle Eocene). The origin of the **Typhinae** was dated at 49.44 mya (95% HPD 48–53.73) during  
211 the Ypresian (Early Eocene).

212

213 (Figure 2)

214

#### 215 *Ancestral state reconstruction and evolution of larval development*

216 The ancestral state reconstruction was performed on a reduced dataset of the family Muricidae  
217 (Figure 3A and 3B). Despite the planktotrophy as ancestral state, the non planktotrophy larval  
218 development appear early in the family lineages (Early Paleocene) and formed a clade where this  
219 kind of development is the ancestral character and more common than the other. The origin of the  
220 clade Muricinae s.s. is uncertain, probably planktotrophy. These two clades contain the subfamilies  
221 of Muricinae s.s., Muricopsinae s.s, Thyphinae, Timbellus, Haustrinae, Pagodulinae and  
222 Ocenebrinae. A total of nine change of larval development from NP to P occurred, until now this  
223 reversal events were generally excluded due to the difficult reacquire of feeding structure of the  
224 larvae. In subfamily Muricinae larval development appeared to be a very plastic features, and there  
225 are nine change from P to NP and three change from NP to P.  
226 The second clade has planktotrophy as ancestral condition, and contain the subfamilies Rapaninae,  
227 Coralliophilinae and Ergalataxinae. In this lineage only six change form P to NP occurred, and here  
228 the larval development is a more conservative feature.

229 Only one event of loss of planktotrophy is more ancient that others and occurred in Early Paleocene,  
230 meanwhile the rest of events occurring from Oligocene, in particular one event occurred in  
231 Oligocene, five during Miocene, seven loss of planktotrophy occurred during Pliocene, and thirteen  
232 during last 2.5 million years in Pleistocene.

233

234 (Figure 3A and 3B)



235 **Discussion**

236 The Muricidae family is one of the largest groups of marine gastropods, and their phylogenetic  
237 systematics was always controversial (A Barco et al., 2010). In this work we have gathered all  
238 available information to build a solid phylogenetic reconstruction to use as a framework for  
239 investigating the evolution of larval development.

240 The phylogenetic hypothesis confirmed the monophyly of several major clades to be ranked as  
241 subfamilies: Ergalataxinae, Haustrinae Coralliophilinae were highly supported, Ocenebrinae,  
242 Typhinae and Pagodulinae were moderately supported. We propose here to rank as subfamily  
243 Muricinae s.s. the clade A (highly supported, BS 100%; PP 1), excluding from the subfamily, as  
244 suggested already by Barco et al. 2010, the genera *Dermomurex*, *Timbellus*, *Flexopteron*, *Ponderia*  
245 and *Pterynotus*.

246 A revision of the scope of the subfamily Muricopsinae is urged. We detected a monophyletic clade  
247 that can be proposed as Muricopsinae s.s. (Clade B, BS 99%; PP 0.99), which also includes the former  
248 aspellines *Aspella* and *Dermomurex*, the genus *Attiliosa* (formerly Muricinae) and *Tripterotyphis*  
249 *triangularis* (formerly Tripterotyphinae). Conversely the traditionally considered muricopsine  
250 genera *Homalocantha* and *Vitularia* were excluded from Muricopsinae s.s.

251 Concerning the subfamily Trophoninae, the monophyly can be confirmed just for the genera  
252 *Scabrotrophon* and *Nippotrophon* (100/1). The position of genera *Trophon* and *Leptotrophon*  
253 respect to the clade is low supported by our analyses, but the monophyly of the subfamily was  
254 confirmed in a previous study (Andrea Barco et al., 2012).

255

256 Despite the bias due to the impossibility nowadays to include all the known species of the family  
257 because lack of molecular information, a complete evolutionary reconstruction of change of larval  
258 strategy was performed. Larval development is described as a rather plastic feature in the family  
259 Muricidae, in particular in the subfamilies Muricinae s.s. and Muricopsinae s.s.. In the Muricinae the  
260 analysis scored a total of twelve changes in larval development: nine events we losses of  
261 planktotrophy, the other three were reacquisitions of planktotrophy. In the Muricopsinae two  
262 losses of planktotrophy and three reversal to planktotrophy were scored. The secondary acquisition  
263 of a planktotrophic larval development is considered a very rare phenomenon. Larval planktotrophy  
264 requires a suite of alimentary features that are very unlikely to re-evolve if definitively lost. It is  
265 commonly assumed that if loss of planktotrophy involves the loss of such anatomical characters  
266 then, the event is irreversible. This is probably why in marine invertebrates only a few cases of

267 secondary reacquisition of planktotrophy are consistently reported: in Polychaeta (Rouse, 2000) and  
268 in three families of Caenogastropoda, Littorinidae (Reid, 1989), Calyptraeidae (Collin et al., 2007)  
269 and in the Muricidae (Pappalardo et al., 2014). Hookham and Page (2016) suggested that retention  
270 of a larval esophagus and a full complement of velar ciliary tracts needed for particle capture and  
271 ingestion observed in non-planktotrophic larvae of some muricids may help explain how larval  
272 planktotrophy re-emerged within this clade. No information is available on the veliger morphology  
273 of the secondarily reacquired planktotrophic larvae.

274 The ancestral condition for the clade of Muricinae is uncertain, whereas non planktotrophy is the  
275 ancestral state for the clade that contain the Typhinae, Muricopsinae, Pagodulinae, Haustrinae,  
276 Trophoninae, Ocenebrinae, *Timbellus* and *Vitularia*, that all show a large predominance of non  
277 planktotrophy larval development. Also, here we found five events of reversal, from NP to P.

278 The second large group comprises the subfamilies Coralliophilinae, Rapapniane and Ergalataxinae,  
279 all with a largely dominant planktotrophic developmen, which is reflected in the ancestral condition  
280 (planktotrophic), with a total of five losses of planktotrophy along lineages of the three subfamilies.

281 The ancestral state reconstruction showed as the larval development evolved differently in two  
282 major groups of muricids. In one group it seems more stable and larval planktotrophy is largely  
283 preserved, whereas in the other it has changed very frequently and in both directions, thus  
284 confirming that in muricids larval planktotrophy can be reacquired secondarily (Pappalardo et al.  
285 2014). As suggested by Hookham and Page (2016), the incomplete loss of feeding structures in  
286 lecithtrophic larvae may be a prerequisite for the reacquisition of larval planktotrophy.

287

288

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## Tables and Figures

**Table 1.** List of primer for each molecular marker

		<b>Sequence primer 5'-3'</b>	
<b>12S</b>	12SI-12SIII	TGCCAGCAGCCGCGTTA- GAGCGACGGGCGRTTWGTAC	Oliverio & Mariottini, 2001
<b>16S</b>	16SA-CgLE <sup>EUR</sup>	CGCCTGTTTATCAAAAACAT- TATTAGGGCTTAAACCTAATGCAC	Palumbi, 1996; Hayashi, 2003
<b>28S</b>	LSU5'-ECD2S 900F-LSU1600	TAGGTCGACCCGCTGAAYTTAAGCA- CTTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGACGG CCGTCTGAAACACGGACCAAG- AGCGCCATCCATTTTCAGG	Littlewood et al., 2000; Williams et al., 2003
<b>COI</b>	LCO1490-HCO2198	GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG- TTAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA	Folmer et al., 1994

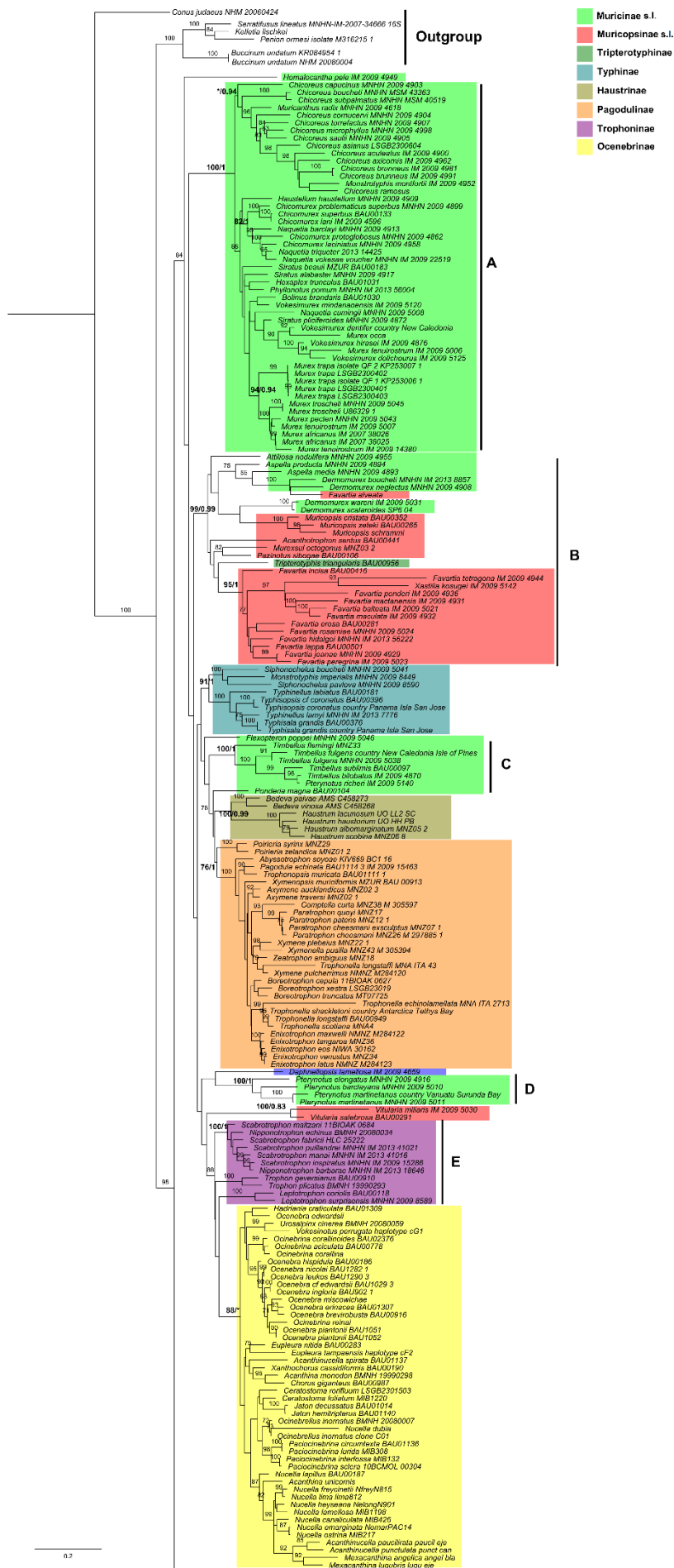
**Table 2.** Fossil record used as calibration point and 95% of highest posterior probability.

	<b>Node</b>	<b>Calibration reference</b>	<b>95% HPD</b>
<b>1</b>	Muricidae	70 - 112 mya (Merle et al., 2011)	70.6-79.64
<b>2</b>	Coralliophilinae	40 - 65 mya (Dockery 1980, Lozouet & Renard, 1998; Oliverio 2008)	40.42-54.29
<b>3</b>	Typhinae	Lower Eocene, Ypresian (MNHN Collection)	48-53.25
<b>4</b>	Ocenebrinae	Lower oligocene (Lozouet, 2012)	22.81-28.06
<b>5</b>	<i>Nucella</i>	22.5 (Collins, 1996)	13.77-22.07
<b>6</b>	Rapaninae	Lower Oligocene (Lozouet, 2012)	35.11-50.65
<b>7</b>	<i>Lindapterys</i> (Ergalataxinae)	Lower Oligocene (MNHN collection)	31.62-46.01
<b>8</b>	<i>Chicoreus</i>	Piacenziano (Merle et al., 2011)	10.05-15.72
<b>9</b>	<i>Murex trapa</i>	Plio-Pleistocene (MNHN collection)	0.11-1.11
<b>10</b>	<i>Murex tenuirostrum</i>	Plio-Pleistocene (Ponder & Vokes, 1988)	1.91-6.16
<b>11</b>	<i>Poirieria</i>	Ypresian, Lower Eocene (Merle & Pacaud 2002)	48-50.07
<b>12</b>	<i>Timbellus</i>	Lower Eocene (MNHN collection)	11.02-39.31



**Table 3.** Substitution models found for each partition.

<b>Partition</b>	<b>Substitution model</b>	<b>Base pairs</b>
<b>12S</b>	GTR+I+G	455
<b>16S</b>	GTR+I+G	649
<b>28S</b>	GTR+I+G	1417
<b>COI position cod1</b>	GTR+I+G	219
<b>COI position cod2</b>	SYM+I+G	219
<b>COI position cod3</b>	HKY+G	220



**Figure 1A.** Phylogenetic reconstruction of the family Muricidae. The topology is retrieved by the analysis of ML and reported all the bootstrap values over 70. In bold were reported both value, bootstrap value and posterior probability. First part. Clade A: Muricinae s.s., Clade B: Muricopsinae s.s., Clade C: *Timbellus* lineage, Clade D: *Vitularia* and *Pterynotus* lineage, Clade E: Trophoninae.



Figure 1B. Phylogenetic reconstruction of the family Muricidae. Second part.



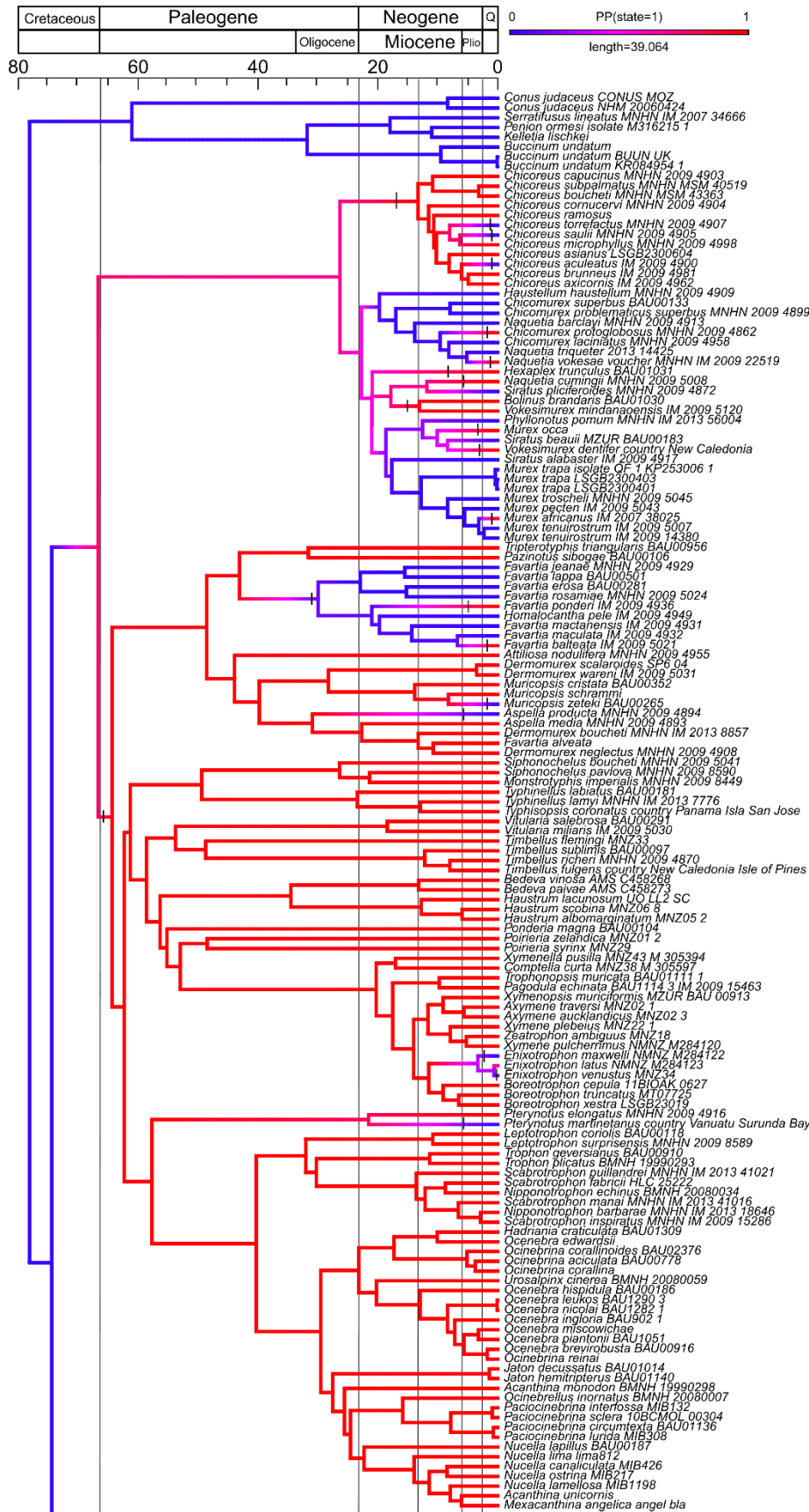


Figure 3A. Ancestral state reconstruction. In red high posterior probability of Non-Planktotrophy state. First part.

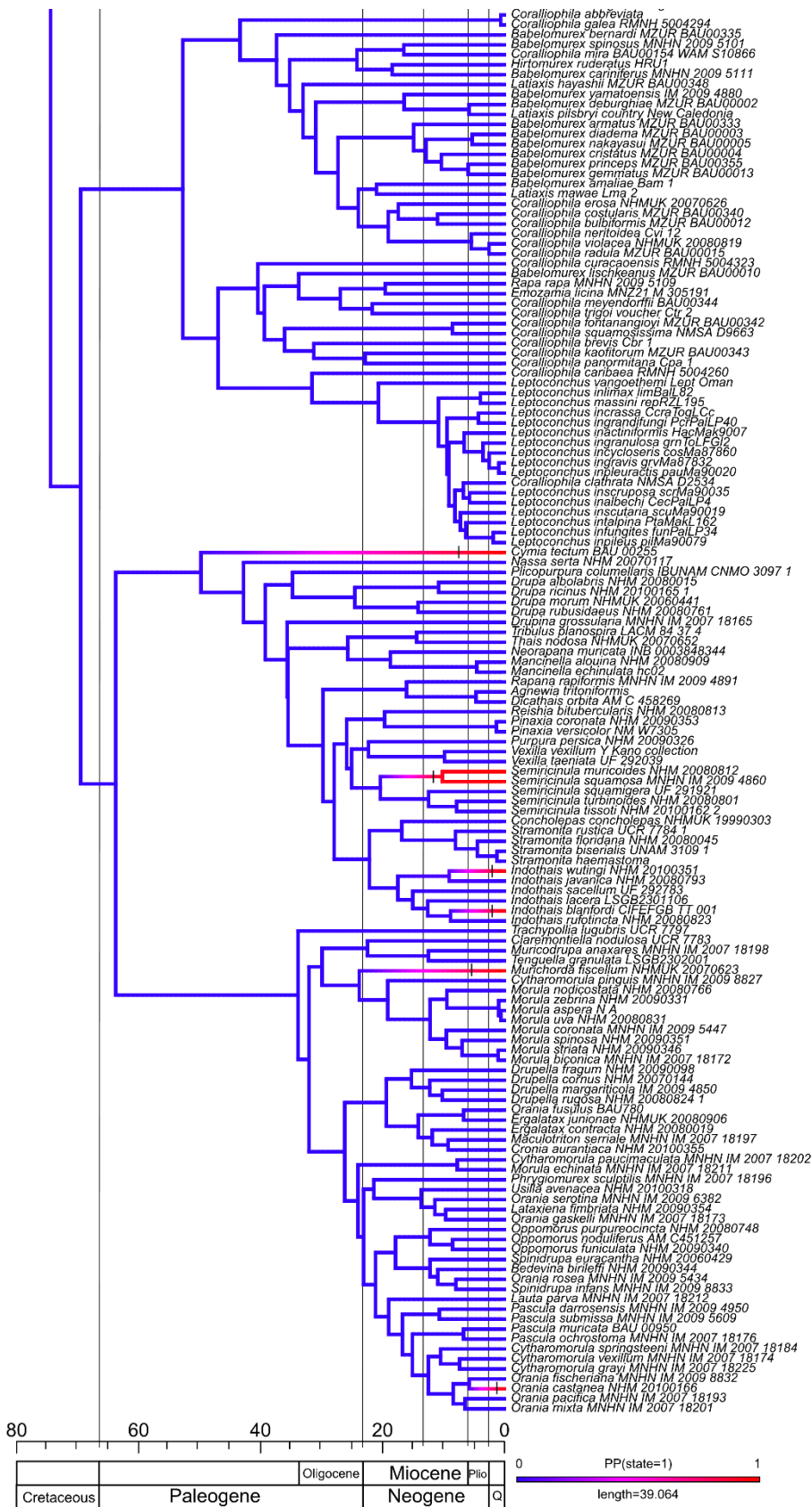


Figure 3B. Ancestral state reconstruction. Second part.



## Conclusion

In this thesis I have investigated several aspects of the evolution of larval development in Caenogastropoda, the largest extant radiation of gastropod molluscs, probably also the largest radiation of extant marine invertebrates. Within marine invertebrates, the gastropods provide unique tools to perform studies on the evolution of larval development: important aspects of larval development are reflected in the morphology of their embryonic/larval shell, the protoconch, which is very often retained at the apex of the adult shell, allowing for inference on larval ecology of the organisms by the study of the adults, also fossil. This work is aimed at shedding light on two of the most controversial issues about larval development evolution: poecilogony and secondary reacquisition of planktotrophy.

With my research I have confirmed the crucial role of larval strategies in the evolutionary history of gastropod species. The different larval developmental strategies influence the real duration of the pelagic larval phase that in turns affects the dispersal ability of propagules throughout the marine environment. The dispersal ability, investigated in the first chapter, has turned out to be an important driver of the genetic structure of population in different species with several wide implications for the population connectivity. Low vs high connectivity species may react differently to environmental and climate changes: for example, water temperature seems to be crucial to trigger the duration and success of larval stage (Rombough, 1997). It may be argued that the better the spatial genetic structure of a species and the underlying mechanisms are known, the better the population response to the global/local changes can be predicted. Different larval ecology may affect the success likelihood of invasive alien species, not necessarily favouring planktotrophic developers (Chemello & Oliviero, 1997). Therefore, while designing networks of marine protected areas, the knowledge of the ecological attributes of the communities will become crucial, also in terms of the variation in larval ecology of the species involved.

I have then investigated (second chapter) the phenomenon of sibling species in Caenogastropoda, differing in their contrasting larval strategies. I have built a new solid phylogenetic framework for the large conoidean family Raphitomidae with particular attention to delimit the actual scope of the genus *Raphitoma* (separated from the related but distinct genera *Leufroyia* and *Cyrillia*). Several sibling species were described in this taxon, suggesting a special plasticity of the character within the group. The study confirmed the existence of at least one pair of sibling species, very similar in



their adult morphology, but with distinct larval strategies. However, more important, the genetic evidence of poecilogony, the intraspecific variation of larval strategy, in at least two species of *Raphitoma* has been gathered. This case represents the first documented case of poecilogony in the Neogastropoda, the second within the subclass Caenogastropoda, and one of the very few among the invertebrates. There is a long list of gastropod species described only or mostly based on the morphology of the larval shell, under the assumption that poecilogony was not present in caenogastropods. Although a wide screening will be necessary to assess every single case by genetic data in extant groups, the new evidence of the presence of poecilogony in caenogastropods raises issues about the identification of sibling species based on different protoconch shape, questioning the larval shell features as a taxonomic character. Poecilogony has always been a controversial issue, but despite its rarity, poecilogonous species can provide a unique model to understand the mechanisms underlying the evolution of larval development.

Finally, I have attempted at studying the evolution of larval development in a high rank taxonomic group (family), across the temporal dimension, using two robust phylogenies with the nodes dated. To calibrate the phylogenetic trees, I have used several fossils record retrieved from the literature and from the malacological fossil collections at the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle of Paris. By this approach, I have studied the evolution of larval development and the temporal distribution of changes of state of the characters across dated phylogenies of the families Nassariidae and Muricidae.

The phylogeny reconstruction of the family Muricidae represented the first complete phylogenetic study for the family, after several works were based on specific subfamilies in the last decades. Merging published data with new sequences produced for the occasion, yielded an unprecedented dataset, fundamental for the resolution of the phylogenetic framework of this large family of gastropods. Combining the calibrated phylogeny with the phylogenetic R tools “phytools” I have found some cases of reversal, the secondary acquisition of planktotrophy, in the family Muricidae. In this caenogastropods family cases of reversal were detected in the two major subfamilies, Muricinae and Muricopsinae. It is commonly assumed that if loss of planktotrophy involves the loss of anatomical characters then, the event is irreversible. This is probably why in marine invertebrates only a few cases of secondary reacquisition of planktotrophy are consistently reported: in Polychaeta (Rouse, 2000) and in three families of Caenogastropoda, Littorinidae (Reid, 1989), Calyptraeidae (Collin et al., 2007) and in the Muricidae (Pappalardo et al., 2014).

A similar analysis was performed on the Nassariidae, another large family of neogastropods. No case of reversal was found in this family, where the plesiomorphic state of the character (planktotrophic) was lost at least 28 times.

I have detected no significant temporal asymmetry in the distribution of the loss of planktotrophy events, but rather the change in larval strategy seems to be biogeographically biased. Change frequency is linked with the geographic region of origins of species, addressing to the geographic confinement hypothesis, where the closure of oceanographic basins may have promoted the loss of planktotrophy due to a restricted suitable environment for the pelagic larval life. Semi-closed or closed basins like the Caribbean area and the Mediterranean Sea have probably been areas where the loss of planktotrophy has been particularly promoted.

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## Other publications

Prkić, J., Giannuzzi-Savelli, R., Pusateri, F., **Russini, V.**, Fassio, G. & Oliverio M. (2019). Three new species of *Raphitoma* (Mollusca, Gastropoda, Raphitomidae) from the Croatian waters (NE Adriatic Sea). *Zoosystema*. SUBMITTED

Fochetti, R., Oliverio, M., **Russini, V.**, Tapia, G. & Tierno de Figueroa, J.M. (2019) Molecular identity of *Nemoura lacustris* throughout its distributional range. *Zootaxa*. IN PRESS

Centorame, M., Moschella, F., **Russini, V.** & Fanfani, A. (2018). DNA-barcoding of the Italian members of the *Aphaenogaster testaceopilosa*-group (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Hybridization and biogeographic hypothesis. *Zoologischer Anzeiger*, 277, 121-130, ISSN: 0044-5231, doi: 10.1016/j.jcz.2018.09.003

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