# Phylogeny and taxonomy of Halimeda incrassata, including descriptions of H. kanaloana and H. heteromorpha spp. nov. (Bryopsidales, Chlorophyta) 

HEROEN VERBRUGGEN ${ }^{1}$, OLIVIER DE CLERCK ${ }^{1}$, ANTOINE D.R. N'YEURT ${ }^{2}$, HEATHER SPALDING ${ }^{3}$ AND PETER S. VROOM ${ }^{4}$<br>${ }^{1}$ Phycology Research Group \& Centre for Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution, Ghent University, Krijgslaan 281 (S8), B-9000, Gent, Belgium<br>${ }^{2}$ Laboratoire Terre-Ocean (Ecologie Marine), Université de la Polynésie française, B.P. 6570, Faa'a, Tahiti 98702, French Polynesia<br>${ }^{3}$ Botany Department, University of Hawai'i at Manoa, 3190 Maile Way, Honolulu, Hawai’i 96822, USA<br>${ }^{4}$ Joint Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research, Research Corporation of the University of Hawai'i, contracted to the Coral Reef Ecosystem Division (CRED), Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, NOAA Fisheries and Ecosystems, 1125 B Ala Moana Boulevard, Honolulu, Hawai'i 96814, USA

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#### Abstract

The tropical green algal genus Halimeda is one of the best studied examples of pseudo-cryptic diversity within the algae. Previous molecular and morphometric studies revealed that within Halimeda section Rhipsalis, Halimeda incrassata included three pseudo-cryptic entities and that the morphological boundaries between H. incrassata and Halimeda melanesica were illdefined. In this paper, the taxonomy of $H$. incrassata is revised: two pseudo-cryptic entities are described as new species, Halimeda kanaloana and Halimed heteromorpha, while $H$. incrassata is redefined to encompass a single, monophyletic entity. Similarities and differences between the three species and $H$. melanesica are discussed. Monophyly of $H$. heteromorpha, which was questioned in a former study, is reinvestigated using sets of 32 ITS1-ITS2 and 21 plastid rps 3 sequences and various alignment and inference methods. The phylogenetic relationships within Halimeda section Rhipsalis are inferred from nuclear 18S-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 and concatenated plastid sequences (tufA \& rpl5-rps8-infA) and interpreted in a biogeographic context.


Key words: anatomy, Halimeda incrassata, H. heteromorpha, H. kanaloana, H. melanesica, morphology, phylogeny, taxonomy

## Introduction

Marine macroalgae of the chlorophyte genus Halimeda Lamouroux abound throughout the tropics and are easily recognized by their green, calcified segments. They are ecologically important reef algae throughout the tropical Indo-Pacific and Caribbean Sea, being prominent primary producers (Littler et al., 1988), sources of food and habitat (e.g. Rossier \& Kulbicki, 2000; Chittaro, 2004) and carbonate sand producers (e.g. Drew, 1983; Freile et al., 1995; Payri, 1995).

Halimeda is divided into five sections based on molecular, ecological and morphological features (Kooistra et al., 2002; Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004). Taxonomic problems in speciose sections are obvious. Some species boundaries are

Correspondence to: Heroen Verbruggen. e-mail: heroen. verbruggen@ugent.be
ambiguously defined (Verbruggen et al., 2005a), and several cases of cryptic and pseudo-cryptic diversity are known (Kooistra et al., 2002; Verbruggen et al., 2005a, b). DNA barcoding and morphometric analyses are being used to repartition the genus into genetically and morphologically distinct species (Kooistra \& Verbruggen, 2005; Verbruggen et al., 2005a, b).

Halimeda section Rhipsalis J. Agardh ex De Toni is characterized by pores that interconnect medullar siphons at nodes, and segment agglutination in the basal thallus region (Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004). It contains 11 tropical species, four of which are restricted to the Atlantic Ocean, and seven of which are Indo-Pacific (Verbruggen et al., 2005a). Even though most species extend throughout the Caribbean or the Indo-Pacific, some have very restricted distribution ranges. For instance, Halimeda stuposa Taylor and Halimeda favulosa

Howe seem to be endemic to the Marshall Islands and the Bahamas, respectively.

The section was recently studied using both molecular and morphometric techniques (Verbruggen et al., 2005a). This allowed redefinition of formerly ill-defined species within the following morphological groups: Halimeda borneensis Taylor - Halimeda simulans Howe and Halimeda cylindracea Decaisne - Halimeda monile (Ellis \& Solander) Lamouroux. Halimeda incrassata (Ellis) Lamouroux was shown to comprise three pseudo-cryptic entities, initially recognized by deviant DNA sequences and subsequently characterized using morphometric techniques (Kooistra et al., 2002; Verbruggen et al., 2005a). Noble (1987) noted that the species boundary between Halimeda melanesica Valet and H. incrassata was blurred because the absence of nodal fusions, diagnostic for $H$. melanesica, is not constant within the species. Verbruggen et al. (2005a) corroborated this but showed that H. melanesica and $H$. incrassata are genetically distinct and that other morphological characters allow distinction between the entities.
The putative paraphyly of $H$. incrassata 1 a , a pseudo-cryptic species within $H$. incrassata (Verbruggen et al., 2005a) is also interesting. This species, described below as Halimeda heteromorpha sp. nov., was monophyletic in a maximum parsimony (MP) phylogram inferred from rps3 sequences. However, in a MP phylogram of ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 sequences, $H$. incrassata 1b (described below as Halimeda kanaloana sp. nov.) branched off within H. incrassata 1a, leaving the latter paraphyletic.
This paper revises $H$. incrassata by describing and comparing the morphology, distribution and ecology of its pseudo-cryptic component species. The species are also compared with $H$. melanesica. The monophyly of $H$. incrassata 1a ( $H$. heteromorpha) is investigated in more detail, by exploring the evolutionary relationships between large sets of sequences of Halimeda macroloba Decaisne, $H$. heteromorpha and $H$. kanaloana using multiple inference methods and alternative sequence alignments. The evolutionary and biogeographic history of Halimeda section Rhipsalis is also explored by phylogenetic analysis of plastid and nuclear DNA sequence data.

## Materials and methods

Taxa from Halimeda section Rhipsalis were collected throughout most of their distribution ranges. Specimens were preserved in $95 \%$ ethanol or silica-gel for molecular analyses and in wet preservative ( $95 \%$ ethanol or $5 \%$ formalin) for anatomical observations.

Observations and measurements of vegetative and reproductive structures were carried out as in Vroom \& Smith (2003) and Verbruggen et al. (2005a, c). Specimens were identified using the key of Verbruggen et al. (2005a). Geographic origins and herbarium accession numbers of examined specimens are listed in the Appendix. Extraction of DNA followed Kooistra et al. (2002).
To investigate evolutionary relationships within the section, three DNA sequence sets were created. Two plastid DNA (cpDNA) regions (partial tufA, rpl5-rps8inf A region) and the nuclear ribosomal cistron (nrDNA: 18 S [SSU] from around position 500, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, and about 50 bases into 28 S [LSU]) were amplified according to Famà et al. (2002), Provan et al. (2004), and Kooistra et al. (2002) respectively. Amplified products were sequenced with an ABI Prism 3100 automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and submitted to Genbank (Appendix). For the plastid regions, Halimeda gracilis Harvey ex J. Agardh, Halimeda taenicola Taylor, Halimeda opuntia (Linneaus) Lamouroux and Halimeda micronesica Yamada were sequenced as close outgroups and Avrainvillea rawsonii (Dickie) Howe, Pseudocodium floridanum Dawes \& Mathieson, Tydemania expeditionis Weber van Bosse and Udotea orientalis Gepp \& Gepp as more distant outgroups (Appendix). Sequences from the nuclear 18S-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 region of ingroup taxa, as well as Halimeda discoidea Decaisne, H. micronesica, H. gracilis and H. opuntia as close outgroup taxa and Udotea flabellum (Ellis \& Solander) Howe, Penicillus capitatus Lamarck and Flabellia petiolata (Turra) Nizamuddin as more distant outgroups were downloaded from GenBank (accession numbers listed in Appendix). Partial tufA and rpl5-rps8-infA sequences were aligned with ClustalW 1.82 as described in Verbruggen et al. (2005b). The tufA and rpl5-rps8$\inf \mathrm{A}$ sequence data sets were concatenated before analysis. The 18S-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 sequences were aligned by eye, starting from the alignment of Verbruggen \& Kooistra (2004). All alignments used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Nuclear and plastid DNA data sets were subjected to maximum likelihood (ML) analysis in PAUP* 4.0 b 10 (Swofford, 2003), using the nucleotide substitution model suggested by hierarchical likelihood ratio tests (hLRT) implemented in Modeltest 3.5 (Posada \& Crandall, 1998). Starting trees were obtained by stepwise random sequence addition. A single tree was retained at each step. Branch swapping was achieved by tree bisectionreconnection (TBR). The number of rearrangements was limited to 1,000 per addition-sequence replicate. The analysis was performed with 25 addition-sequence replicates. ML bootstrapping ( 100 replicates) was performed with the same settings. MP bootstrapping (100 replicates) was performed with 100 additionsequence replicates per bootstrap replicate, limiting the number of rearrangements per addition-sequence replicate to 100 million, and treating gaps as missing data.
To reinvestigate the monophyly of $H$. heteromorpha, two batches of sequences were downloaded from

Genbank (Appendix). The first batch of sequences consisted of 32 18S-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2-28S sequences of $H$. macroloba ( 11 sequences), $H$. heteromorpha ( $=$ H. incrassata 1a; 16 sequences), and H. kanaloana ( $=$ H. incrassata 1 b ; 5 sequences). Two alignments were created from this batch of sequences: (i) the ClustalW alignment used in Verbruggen et al. (2005a), and (ii) a manual gap block coding alignment. In the latter alignment, which is a variant of block coding (Geiger, 2002), individual bases and sequence blocks showing ambiguous alignment between species were separated and individual gaps or blocks of gaps were inserted for the species in which this base or sequence block was absent. Partial 18S, 5.8 S and partial 28 S were removed from both alignments because they were virtually invariant. The alignments were subjected to three inference methods (ML, MP and Bayesian Inference). ML analysis was carried out in PAUP* 4.0b10, using the nucleotide substitution model selected by hLRT in MrModeltest 2.0 (Nylander, 2004). Options for ML analysis were: starting trees by stepwise random sequence addition, retaining a single tree at each step, TBR branch swapping, maximum 1,000 rearrangements per addition-sequence replicate, 50 addition-sequence replicates. ML bootstrapping ( 100 replicates) was carried out with five addition-sequence replicates per bootstrap replicate. MP analysis was carried out in PAUP* 4.0b10, with the following options: starting trees by stepwise random sequence addition, retaining multiple trees at each step, TBR branch swapping, maximum $10^{8}$ rearrangements per addition-sequence replicate, 100 addition-sequence replicates, with gaps treated as fifth base. MP bootstrapping (100 replicates) was carried out with the same settings. Bayesian inference (BI) was performed in MrBayes 3.0B4 (Ronquist \& Huelsenbeck, 2003), using the nucleotide substitution model selected by MrModeltest 2.0. Analyses were run with four Markov chains for $10^{6}$ generations, with a tree saved every $100^{\text {th }}$ generation. The first 1,000 trees were discarded as burn-in. Eleven $H$. macroloba sequences were used as outgroups for ML and MP analysis; one of these (AF525562) was used for BI.

The second batch of sequences downloaded for the reinvestigation of $H$. heteromorpha monophyly consisted of 21 plastid rps3 sequences of $H$. incrassata 2, H. monile, H. simulans, H. melanesica, H. borneensis, $H$. macroloba (one sequence of each), $H$. heteromorpha ( $=$ H. incrassata 1a; 11 sequences) and $H$. kanaloana ( $=H$. incrassata 1 b ; four sequences). These proteincoding sequences were aligned on the basis of a blueprint created by ClustalW 1.82 alignment of their amino acid sequences. ML, MP and BI analyses were carried out as detailed above for the ITS1-ITS2 sequence alignments. Sequences of $H$. simulans, $H$. incrassata 2, $H$. monile, $H$. borneensis and $H$. melanesica were used as outgroups for ML and MP analyses; the $H$. incrassata 2 sequence was used for BI.

Herbarium acronyms are as follows: BISH: Bishop Museum, Honolulu, Hawai'i, USA; GENT: Ghent University Herbarium, Ghent, Belgium; L: National Herbarium of the Netherlands, Leiden University branch, Leiden, The Netherlands; PC: Muséum

National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France; UPF: University of French Polynesia Herbarium, Tahiti, French Polynesia; US: US National Herbarium, Smithsonian Institution, Washington DC, USA.

## Results and discussion

Phylogeny and biogeography of section Rhipsalis
Sequences from the nuclear ribosomal DNA cistron included part of the 18 S gene (from around position 500), the ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 region, and about 50 bases of the 28 S gene, totalling between 1,724 and 1,755 bases in length. The relatively conserved $18 \mathrm{~S}, 5.8 \mathrm{~S}$ and 28 S sequences could be readily aligned with very few gap introductions. Within the ITS regions, variable and conserved parts alternated. Alignment of the more variable parts required the introduction of gaps. Of 1,840 aligned positions, 247 were parsimony informative. The Modeltest hLRT selected the four-parameter Tamura and Nei (1993) substitution model with substitution rates varying over sites according to a gamma distribution (shape $=0.5151$ ) and the proportion of invariable sites equal to 0.5824 .

Partial tufA sequences were of equal length (859 base pairs) without indels. There was a wide range in lengths of the rpl5-rps8-infA region (686-808 base pairs) due to large differences in the rps8-infA spacer, which was excluded from analyses. Coding regions were almost constant in length and aligned readily. Two codon gaps were introduced to align the ingroup sequences; inclusion of outgroup sequences required several more codon gaps. Base substitutions in the tufA and rpl5-rps8-infA sequences occurred mainly at third codon positions. The concatenated alignment provided 1,600 positions, of which 359 were parsimony informative. The Modeltest hLRT again selected a Tamura and Nei (1993) substitution model, with rate variation across sites following a gamma distribution $($ shape $=0.3558)$.
Phylograms inferred from nrDNA and concatenated cpDNA sequences are shown in Figs 1 and 2, respectively. Halimeda heteromorpha and $H$. kanaloana correspond to the species denoted $H$. incrassata 1 a and $H$. incrassata 1 b , respectively, in Verbruggen et al. (2005a). We could not obtain suitable specimens for DNA extraction of two species of section Rhipsalis (H. favulosa and H. stuposa). Based on SSU nrDNA, Kooistra et al. (2002) showed that $H$. stuposa was closely related to $H$. borneensis, to the extent that the former was considered to be a stunted form of the latter. Halimeda favulosa, a rare species that is endemic to the Bahamas (Taylor, 1960; Hillis-Colinvaux, 1980), is presumed
to be closely related to the remaining Atlantic species $H$. monile, $H$. simulans and $H$. incrassata.

The nuclear phylogram (Fig. 1) contained two major lineages. The first clade contained the three Atlantic species; the second contained all IndoPacific species, within which all species except $H$. cylindracea formed a very well supported subgroup. The latter featured three lineages ( $H$. melanesica, $H$. borneensis and the $H$. macroloba-heteromorphakanaloana lineage), between which the relationships are unresolved. The $H$. heteromorpha-kanaloana cluster received relatively high bootstrap support.

The cpDNA phylogram (Fig. 2) had a nearly identical topology, except that $H$. melanesica and $H$. borneensis formed a monophyletic group. The Indo-Pacific clade and its subgroup (excluding H. cylindracea) had moderate ML bootstrap support and less than $50 \%$ MP bootstrap support. Unlike in the nuclear tree, the $H$. heteromorphakanaloana cluster received low bootstrap support.


Figs 1-2. Phylograms inferred by maximum likelihood. Fig. 1. Phylogram inferred from SSU-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 sequence data ( $-\ln \mathrm{L}=6779.4578$ ). Fig. 2. Phylogram inferred from concatenated plastid sequence data ( $-\ln \mathrm{L}=7600.43835$ ). Outgroups were pruned from the trees. Maximum parsimony ( P ) and maximum likelihood (L) bootstrap values are indicated at branches. Scale bars represent 0.01 substitutions per site. Grey bars along the right hand side indicate the geographic origin of species.

The clear-cut separation of Atlantic and IndoPacific species in the phylograms suggests separate diversification of Halimeda section Rhipsalis in the ocean basins. Previous research has shown basal or near-basal separation of Indo-Pacific and Atlantic species of all five sections of Halimeda (Kooistra et al., 2002; Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004; Verbruggen et al., 2005b). This suggests that a vicariance event allowed independent diversification of the different sections in the Caribbean Sea and Indo-Pacific ocean basin (Kooistra et al., 1999, 2002). This pattern is common in marine taxa of Tethyan origin, from parrotfishes (Streelman et al., 2002) to mangrove trees (Ellison et al., 1999). Closure of the Tethyan Seaway in the Middle East during the Miocene and the rise of the Central American Isthmus in the Pliocene are hypothesized vicariance events for Halimeda (Kooistra et al., 1999, 2002; Verbruggen et al., 2005b).

## Evolution of the H. heteromorpha-kanaloanamacroloba species cluster

The plastid and nuclear phylograms (Figs 1, 2) exhibit a sister relationship between H. kanaloana and $H$. heteromorpha, although this relationship has only moderate bootstrap support in the cpDNA data set. More elaborate analyses with multiple specimens per species and different alignment methods shed more light on the evolution of the $H$. heteromorpha-kanaloana-macroloba species cluster.

After the ClustalW alignment of 18S-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2-28S sequences (Verbruggen et al., 2005a) had been stripped of $18 \mathrm{~S}, ~ 5.8 \mathrm{~S}, ~ 28 \mathrm{~S}$ sequences and all taxa except $H$. macroloba, H. incrassata 1a $(=H$. heteromorpha) and H. incrassata 1b ( $=$ H. kanaloana), 240 positions were aligned. ITS1 sequences were 78 to 89 bases long; ITS2 sequences were 141-146 bases long. The MrModeltest hLRT suggested a symmetrical model of base substitution (Zharkihk, 1994) with rate variation across sites (gamma shape parameter 0.3256 ) for the ITS1-ITS2 alignment.

The gap block coding alignment totalled 266 positions, 26 more than the ClustalW alignment. The MrModeltest hLRT suggested a Kimura (1980) base-substitution model with rate variation across sites (gamma shape parameter 0.2916).

Figures $3-8$ show the $50 \%$ majority rule consensus trees for ML bootstrap, MP bootstrap, and BI analyses for both types of alignment of the ITS1-ITS2 data. All trees showed strong support for the clade containing $H$. heteromorpha and H. kanaloana, and H. kanaloana was monophyletic in all trees. However, the position of H. kanaloana relative to $H$. heteromorpha differed. In the MP and ML bootstrap consensus trees inferred from


Figs 3-8. Fifty-percent majority rule consensus trees for MP, ML and Bayesian analyses of ITS1-ITS2 data aligned using different methods. Fig. 3. MP tree of ClustalW alignment. Fig. 4. ML tree of ClustalW alignment. Fig. 5. Bayesian tree of ClustalW alignment. Fig. 6. MP tree of gap block coding alignment. Fig. 7. ML tree of gap block coding alignment. Fig. 8. Bayesian tree of gap block coding alignment. Clade support is given as bootstrap proportions (ML and MP trees) and posterior probabilities (BI trees). Bold lines indicate the roots of $H$. heteromorpha and $H$. kanaloana.
the ClustalW alignment (Figs 3, 4), H. kanaloana branched off from within $H$. heteromorpha, leaving the latter paraphyletic. In the BI tree inferred from the ClustalW alignment (Fig. 5), the H. kanaloana clade formed a polytomy with all $H$. heteromorpha lineages, again suggesting that the latter species is paraphyletic. In all gap block coding alignment trees (Figs 6-8), H. heteromorpha and H. kanaloana formed well-supported, monophyletic lineages.

The alignment of rps3 sequences comprised 909 positions, individual sequences ranging from 672-828 bases long. The MrModeltest hLRT selected a general time-reversible model with substitution rates across sites following a gamma distribution (shape parameter 0.2721). Figures $9-11$ show the $50 \%$ majority-rule consensus trees of the plastid rps3 data. Halimeda kanaloana and $H$. heteromorpha were both monophyletic, irrespective of the inference method.


Figs 9-11. Fifty-percent majority rule consensus trees for MP, ML and Bayesian analyses of the rps3 alignment. Fig. 9. MP analysis. Fig. 10. ML analysis. Fig. 11. Bayesian analysis. Support is given as bootstrap proportions (ML and MP trees) and posterior probabilities (BI trees). Bold lines indicate the roots of H. heteromorpha and $H$. kanaloana.

Contrary to the ITS trees (Figs 3-8), H. kanaloana and $H$. heteromorpha did not cluster together in the rps3 trees. In the MP tree (Fig. 9), H. heteromorpha showed a sister relationship with $H$. macroloba. In the ML and BI trees (Figs 10, 11), the H. heteromorpha, H. macroloba and H. kanaloana clades arose from a single trifurcation.

The extended nrDNA data set suggests a sister relationship between $H$. heteromorpha and H. kanaloana (Fig. 1). A larger set of ITS1-ITS2 sequences throws the sister relationship into question (Figs 3-8; Verbruggen et al., 2005a). Alternative alignments favour paraphyly (ClustalW: Figs 3-5) or monophyly (gap block coding: Figs 6-8) of $H$. heteromorpha. These topological discrepancies highlight the sensitivity of phylogenetic inference methods to alignment differences. Such difficulties are often encountered with ITS, due to the presence of indels, especially in areas lacking secondary structure conservation (Alvarez \& Wendel, 2003). Verbruggen et al. (2005a) delineated species in Halimeda section Rhipsalis from DNA sequence data aligned automatically rather than manually to minimize subjectivity. The gap block coding alignment used in the present study is more conservative than the ClustalW alignment used by Verbruggen et al. (2005a) because sites or regions where interspecific sequence alignment was ambiguous were separated into sequence blocks, precluding non-homology of characters (bases) at the same alignment position. Our results suggest that the ClustalW algorithm with standard settings may not have provided the most appropriate alignment for inferring interspecific phylogenetic relationships because the more conservative gap block coding alignment of the ITS1-ITS2 data and the rps3 data both suggest that $H$. heteromorpha and $H$. kanaloana are monophyletic.

In the Pacific Ocean, $H$. heteromorpha occurs only in southern hemisphere archipelagos whereas H. kanaloana is limited to the northern hemisphere (Hawai'i and probably the Ryukyu islands, Fig. 71). The most credible topologies for the H. heteromorpha-kanaloana-macroloba species group (based on the longest sequence alignments, Figs 1,2) show H. macroloba branching off first, leaving $H$. heteromorpha and H. kanaloana as closest relatives. There are several examples of sibling species that have non-overlapping ranges in the north and south Pacific (Palumbi, 1997; Bernardi et al., 2001; Bay et al., 2004). Such distributions could have originated by crossequatorial jump dispersal (Rotondo et al., 1981). Considering the inhibition of cross-equatorial dispersal by the equatorial counter current (Tomczak \& Godfrey, 2003), limited gene flow is expected between putative founder populations in northern and southern Pacific populations, leading to morpho-ecological and DNA sequence divergence.

## Species boundaries: comparative morphology

Perception and accurate delineation of species is one of the major issues facing algal systematists. Molecular phylogenetic techniques have provided a new perspective on algal diversity and have revealed poorly defined species boundaries in all marine algal groups (e.g. van der Strate et al., 2002; Gurgel et al., 2003; Zuccarello \& West, 2003; Cohen et al., 2004; Yano et al., 2004; De Clerck et al., 2005; Kooistra \& Verbruggen, 2005). Establishing diagnostic differences requires sequencing numerous specimens and examining disregarded morphological variability. In Halimeda section Rhipsalis, DNA sequencing and morphometric methods have been combined to pinpoint species differences (Verbruggen et al., 2005a). Based on


Figs 12-13. Halimeda kanaloana thalli. Fig. 12. BISH715565 (holotype) from Mau'i, Hawai'i. Fig. 13. HS-2004-161 from Mau'i, Hawai'i.
these results, we now describe the morphological differences between the focal species of this study and provide detailed descriptions at the end of the paper. It must be stressed that cited dimensions refer to median values of ten replicate measurements, as described in Verbruggen et al. (2005a, c). This approach narrows the range of values obtained because median values are not heavily impacted by outliers. As a consequence of the narrower ranges, species overlap is small or disappears entirely, and boundaries between species can be more easily defined even when specimens at the edges of the morphological range are included. The advantage of using the median range instead of the actual range of measurements makes identification more straightforward and less ambiguous. We encourage the use of medians from a series of replicate measurements as a standard in Halimeda taxonomy and identification.

The four focal species are illustrated in Figs 12-70 and their main features and morphometric measurements summarized in Table 1. The most obvious difference between the four species is the presence or absence of a bulbous holdfast. Whereas $H$. kanaloana and $H$. incrassata are anchored in sand by means of a massive bulb composed of rhizoids and sand
(Figs 12-13, 27-31), H. melanesica and H. heteromorpha are attached to rocky substrata by a feltlike mat of rhizoids (Figs 14-16, 19-21, 32-35). However, relying on this character to distinguish between these species pairs is not without danger. Collections may lack holdfasts, rendering the character useless, or holdfasts may vary in shape and structure depending on environmental conditions (Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004). For instance, $H$. heteromorpha can exhibit a more elaborate holdfast when growing on silt- or sand- covered rock (Figs 14, 15), H. melanesica is known occasionally to form bulbous holdfasts (e.g. HEC5671, GENT), and $H$. kanaloana has a reduced holdfast when growing on sand-covered rock (pers. obs.).
Halimeda incrassata and $H$. kanaloana both have many large pores at nodes. There are several diagnostic features separating these two species: (i) subperipheral utricles of $H$. kanaloana are markedly inflated while those of $H$. incrassata are not (Fig. 49 v. 55); (ii) the median distance between the base of the nodal fusions and the first siphon ramification above the node (supranodal siphon) is larger in $H$. kanaloana than in H. incrassata (Fig. 39 v. 44); (iii) peripheral utricles of $H$. incrassata tend to be smaller than those of $H$. kanaloana (Figs 49, 50 v .


Figs 14-26. Halimeda heteromorpha thalli from different localities. Fig. 14. HV231, French Polynesia. Fig. 15. HV22, Zanzibar. Fig. 16. HV144, French Polynesia. Fig. 17. HV146, French Polynesia. Fig. 18. HV104, French Polynesia. Fig. 19. HV629, The Philippines. Fig. 20. HV636, The Philippines. Fig. 21. HV763, The Philippines. Fig. 22. HV629, The Philippines. Fig. 23. SHV763, The Philippines. Fig. 24. HV22, Zanzibar. Fig. 25. HV104, French Polynesia. Fig. 26. HV146, French Polynesia. 2-cm scale bar applies to Figs $14-21 ; 1-\mathrm{cm}$ bar to all insets, Figs 22-26. All specimens from the Ghent University Herbarium (GENT).


Figs 27-31. Halimeda incrassata thalli from different locations. Fig. 27. HOD-MAR01-42, Martinique. Fig. 28. S H.0667, Panama. Fig. 29. HV978, Jamaica. Fig. 30. H.0666, Panama. Fig. 31. HV899, Jamaica. All specimens from the Ghent University Herbarium (GENT).

55, 56); (iv) observed in surface view, $H$. incrassata has slightly rounded peripheral utricles whereas H. kanaloana utricles consistently have angular corners (Fig. 56 v. 50; (v) from an ecological point of view, $H$. incrassata favours shallow sites (seagrass beds, mangroves, shallower parts of reef slopes) whereas $H$. kanaloana is known from deeper sand and rubble flats ( 15 to $>85 \mathrm{~m}$ deep) where it often forms quasi-monospecific stands; (vi) the distribution ranges of $H$. incrassata and $H$. kanaloana do not overlap: the former is restricted to the Atlantic and the latter known only from the North Pacific Ocean (Fig. 71).

Halimeda incrassata and $H$. heteromorpha differ in a number of obvious characters: (i) H. incrassata is anchored in sand by means of a large, sand-encrusted bulbous holdfast (Figs 27-31) whereas $H$. heteromorpha is attached
to rock or silt-covered rock by a much smaller, felt-like holdfast (Figs 14-16, 19-21); (ii) $H$. incrassata features a relatively high nodal adhesion belt with many obvious, large pores while $H$. heteromorpha has a narrower adhesion belt with diminutive pores (Fig. 45 v. 42, 43; (iii) less conclusive differences include the length of the supranodal siphon (Fig. $41 v .44$ ) and the diameter of peripheral utricles (Fig. 58 v. 52, 54), which both tend to be smaller in $H$. incrassata than in $H$. heteromorpha; (iv) whereas $H$. incrassata grows on sand (mostly in seagrass beds and mangroves), $H$. heteromorpha grows on rocky substrata in a variety of habitats; (v) H. incrassata is a strictly Atlantic species whereas $H$. heteromorpha is restricted to the Indo-Pacific basin.

Halimeda heteromorpha and H. kanaloana are closely related species within a well-supported


Figs 32-38. Halimeda melanesica thalli from different locations. Fig. 32. HV818, The Philippines. Fig. 33. HV217, French Polynesia. Fig. 34. HV790, The Philippines. Fig. 35. HV217, French Polynesia. Fig 36. HV790, The Philippines. Fig 37. HV217, French Polynesia. Fig. 38. L. 0399626 , Indonesia. All specimens from Ghent University Herbarium (GENT) except L. 0399626 , which is from NHN-Leiden (L).
clade that also contains $H$. macroloba (see above). Halimeda heteromorpha differs from the other species in having a felt-like, non-bulbous holdfast and reduced nodal fusions (Figs 14-16, 18-21 v. 12-13). Peripheral utricles of $H$. heteromorpha and H. kanaloana are almost identical in dimensions, but those of $H$. kanaloana tend to broaden nearer their base (Fig 49 v. 51, 53). More specifically, utricles of $H$. kanaloana are more than $42 \%$ of their maximal width a quarter length from their base, which is rarely the case in $H$. heteromorpha. Subperipheral utricles in H. kanaloana are markedly inflated unlike those of $H$. heteromorpha (Fig 49 v. 51, 53). In this respect, H. kanaloana resembles $H$. macroloba (Figs 59, 60). Reproductively, H. macroloba and H. kanaloana both produce gametophores from internal medullar siphons, although gametophores in H. kanaloana are longer and thicker than in H. macroloba. $H$. heteromorpha, H. kanaloana and H. macroloba also differ from an ecological and geographic perspective. Whereas $H$. macroloba is a sandgrowing species restricted to shallow, lagoon habitats, H. kanaloana is a sand-dwelling species that occurs most commonly in deep water habitats. Halimeda heteromorpha grows on rock at relatively shallow sites. Our observations indicate that reproduction in $H$. macroloba and $H$. kanaloana occurs almost continuously, with small proportions of the populations fertile for many months of the year (see also Merten, 1971). Contrastingly, no fertile $H$. heteromorpha was found in our collections. Halimeda heteromorpha occurs throughout the tropics in the Indian Ocean and the South Pacific, but does not seem to overlap with
H. kanaloana, known only from Hawai'i and the Ryukyu Islands (i.e. northern Pacific Ocean). Halimeda macroloba occurs throughout the IndoPacific (Hillis-Colinvaux, 1980), including the Ryukyu Islands (Tsuda \& Kamura, 1991) and Hawai'i (Abbott \& Huisman, 2004).

Halimeda heteromorpha and $H$. melanesica differ from the remainder of the section by their reduced nodal fusion pattern (Figs 41-43, 46-48) and epilithic habit with a matted holdfast. Their segment morphology can be extremely similar. The trilobed segments of $H$. melanesica specimens from surge-affected sites (Fig. 38) can be very similar to those of $H$. heteromorpha from fore-reef slopes (Fig. 23), and segments of the wave-affected form of $H$. melanesica (Fig. 37) show a striking resemblance to those of lagoon forms of H. heteromorpha (Figs 25, 26). Nonetheless, there are a few anatomical characters that allow identification: (i) peripheral utricles are smaller in $H$. melanesica (Figs 52, 54 v. 58); (ii) the subperipheral utricles are markedly more slender in $H$. melanesica - the median diameter of secondary utricles is $42-66 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in $H$. heteromorpha but $32-45 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in $H$. melanesica. The height of the secondary utricles does not differ significantly between the species, causing the secondary utricles of $H$. melanesica to appear more slender (Figs 51, 53 v. 57).
Some ecotypes of $H$. heteromorpha could be confused with more distantly related species. For example, specimens with round segments (Figs 19, 22) resemble H. tuna (Ellis \& Solander) Lamouroux and $H$. discoidea from Halimeda section Halimeda, and Halimeda bikinensis


Figs 39-48. Medullar and nodal features. Figs 39-40. H. kanaloana, H.0649. Fig. 39. Medulla. Fig. 40. Detail of nodal siphon fusion. Figs 41-43. H. heteromorpha. Fig. 41. Medulla, HV629. Fig. 42. Detail of nodal siphon fusion, HV629. Fig. 43. Detail of nodal siphon adhesion, HV636. Figs 44-45. H. incrassata, HV448. Fig. 44. Medulla. Fig. 45. Detail of nodal siphon fusion. Figs 46-48. H. melanesica. Fig. 46. Medulla, HV818. Fig. 47. Detail of nodal siphon fusion, HV818. Fig. 48. Detail of nodal fusion, HV217. All specimens from the Ghent University Herbarium (GENT).

Taylor, whose relationship to the current sections is unclear (Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004). However, anatomical characters allow unequivocal distinction between the discoid $H$. heteromorpha and the other species. The most evident character in this context is nodal fusion pattern. Whereas all medullar siphons in $H$. heteromorpha adhere into a single unit sometimes interconnected by small pores, nodal siphons show complete fusion in pairs or triplets throughout Halimeda section

Halimeda and in H. bikinensis (Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004). Trilobed H. heteromorpha (Figs 21, 23) can superficially resemble trilobed specimens of Halimeda minima (Taylor) Colinvaux, Halimeda goreauii Taylor or Halimeda distorta (Yamada) Hillis-Colinvaux from Halimeda section Opuntia (Kooistra \& Verbruggen, 2005); however, fusion of nodal siphons into a single unit clearly differentiates $H$. heteromorpha from these species. Species in the section Opuntia show


Figs 49-60. Cortical features in cross-section and surface views. Figs 49, 50. H. kanaloana, H.0649. Fig. 49. Cross-section. Fig. 50. Surface. Figs 51-54. H. heteromorpha. Fig. 51. HV22, cross-section. Fig. 52. HV22, surface. Fig. 53. HV763, crosssection. Fig. 54. HV763, surface. Figs 55, 56. H. incrassata, HV332. Fig. 55. Cross-section. Fig. 56. Surface. Figs 57, 58. H. melanesica, HV818. Fig. 57. Cross-section. Fig. 58. Surface. Figs 59, 60. H. macroloba, HV206. Fig. 59. Cross-section. Fig. 60. Surface. All specimens from the Ghent University Herbarium (GENT).
Halimeda kanaloana

Figs 61-68. Cortical features of basal segments in cross-section and surface views. Figs 61, 62. H. kanaloana, H.0653. Fig. 61. Surface. Fig. 62. Cross-section. Figs 63, 64. H. heteromorpha, HV146. Fig. 63. Surface. Fig. 64. Cross-section. Figs 65, 66. H. incrassata, HV448. Fig. 65. Surface. Fig. 66. Cross-section. Figs 67, 68. H. melanesica. Fig. 67. Surface, HV818. Fig. 68. Cross-section, HV790. All specimens from the Ghent University Herbarium (GENT).


Figs 69-70. Fertile H. kanaloana, HS 2004-162 (personal herbarium of Heather Spalding, to be deposited in the Bishop Museum). Fig. 69. Position of gametangia along margins and on segment surfaces. Fig. 70. Detail of gametophore.
incomplete fusion in pairs, triplets or small groups (Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004).

The use of the anatomy of basal, stipitate segments in species delineation remains enigmatic. Both Noble (1986) and Dragastan et al. (2002) considered these segments diagnostically useful. However, Verbruggen et al. (2005d) showed that inclusion of basal segments in morphometric data sets impaired the accuracy of automated identification. Despite this, it was argued that basal segment anatomy may be useful when coded as a separate set of variables. Treated thus, basal segment information would aid species identification without conflicting with diagnostic characters from more apical segments. Nodal fusion in the $H$. incrassata complex studied here did not usually differ between basal and more apical segments. However, the appearance and size of peripheral and subperipheral utricles did differ between basal and more apical segments; utricles of basal segments were more rigid, thick-walled and elongate than those mid-thallus. Whether this is determined by segment function (thallus support), age (basal segments are older) or both is unclear. Although none of the focal species of this study could be recognized on the basis of basal segment anatomy alone, differences in size and rounding of peripheral utricles in normal segments were seen in basal segments, too. We did not attempt morphometric analysis of basal segments.

## Nomenclature and taxonomy

Halimeda tridens (Ellis \& Solander) Lamouroux and Halimeda brevicaulis Kützing, both synonyms of $H$. incrassata, were originally described from Atlantic collections and, although the name $H$. tridens was subsequently applied to Indo-Pacific material (e.g. Taylor, 1950), our molecular analysis
shows that neither name is appropriate for Pacific specimens. Halimeda polydactylis J. Agardh, a species of Pacific origin, was treated as a synonym of $H$. incrassata by Barton (1901) but later transferred to $H$. cylindracea (Hillis, 1959). Halimeda triloba Decaisne was illustrated by Kützing (1857) with a mixture of specimens similar to H. opuntia and H. incrassata. However, according to Barton (1901), Decaisne's type material belongs to $H$. opuntia. As a consequence H. triloba is not relevant to the nomenclature of H. incrassata-like species.

Halimeda heteromorpha is an amalgam of different forms, several of which had been described as forms or varieties of $H$. incrassata. Halimeda incrassata var. ovata J. Agardh ( $=$ H. incrassata f. ovata) conforms to specimens from lagoonal habitats (Figs 14, 16-18), H. incrassata f. tripartita Barton probably conforms to specimens from sheltered fore-reef slopes (Figs 21, 23) and $H$. incrassata f. rotunda Barton to specimens from surge-affected sites (Figs 19, 22). Even though we have not studied the specimens Barton (1901) used for her descriptions, her illustrations are fairly conclusive. Rather than raising one of her forms to specific rank, we have chosen a new epithet heteromorpha, because the earlier intraspecific names imply shape characteristics that are not diagnostic for this species as a whole. Furthermore, the various forms have been a source of confusion. For example, H. incrassata f. ovata was applied to specimens belonging to $H$. borneensis (Payri \& Meinesz, 1985; Payri et al., 2000). We decided not to maintain or erect any infraspecific taxa because molecular support is lacking and several intermediate morphologies exist in the collections studied (cf. Figs 22-24).
Specimens of $H$. heteromorpha have often been mistaken for $H$. melanesica based on similar holdfast type and nodal fusion pattern (e.g. Noble, 1987; Dargent, 1997; Verbruggen \& Kooistra, 2004). Literature reports of H. melanesica should therefore be scrutinized. In the original description of $H$. melanesica (Valet, 1966), no comparison was made with specimens of the H. incrassata group.

## Cryptic and pseudo-cryptic diversity

Cryptic species, sometimes referred to as sibling species, are defined as species that are impossible to distinguish based on morphological characters (Knowlton, 1993; Sáez \& Lozano, 2005). Pseudocryptic species are species that are readily distinguished morphologically, once appropriate characters are considered. Although different clues may reveal (pseudo-) cryptic diversity, DNA sequence analysis is currently most commonly
used, as for H. incrassata and many other marine algae (e.g. van der Strate et al., 2002; Cohen et al., 2004; De Clerck et al., 2005).

Whether a discovery of hidden diversity should be described as cryptic or pseudo-cryptic is subjective, depending on the effort required to find morphological differences (Sáez et al., 2003). This is well exemplified by H. incrassata. Kooistra et al. (2002) found two discrete entities on the basis of nuclear ribosomal DNA data, and a third was recognized by Verbruggen et al. (2005a) on the basis of nuclear ITS and plastid rps3. Although initially regarded as cryptic species, morphometric analyses revealed several morphological differences (Verbruggen et al., 2005a; this study).

Additional pseudo-cryptic entities may be discovered within the $H$. incrassata complex. For example, Indo-Pacific specimens illustrated by Tseng (1984) and South (1992) do not appear to belong to $H$. kanaloana or $H$. heteromorpha. The same is true for an entity from Papua New Guinea in the Ghent University Herbarium (Coppejans et al., 2001) and one from Micronesia in the US National Herbarium (Smithsonian Institution). Because we did not have access to appropriately preserved specimens for DNA analysis, we cannot determine whether the entities in question represent further pseudo-cryptic entities or additional morphological variation within $H$. heteromorpha, H. kanaloana or H. melanesica.

## Species descriptions

Halimeda kanaloana Vroom, sp.nov. (Figs 12, 13, 39, 40, 49, 50, 61, 62, 69-70)
Diagnosis: Halimeda kanaloana Vroom a speciebus affinibus differt haptero magno bulboso in arenis specimen adfigente, parte thalli basali e segmentis magnis cylindricis vel paulo complanatis constante, segmentis magnis trilobis obovoideis vel cuneatis in partibus thalli centralibus distalibusque (longitudine mediana 9-14 mm, latitudine $6-11 \mathrm{~mm}$, crassitie $1.5-2.9 \mathrm{~mm})$, siphonibus medullaribus ad segmentorum nodos in unum conjungentibus, poris manifestis ad segmentorum nodos connectentibus siphones adjacentes (altitudine pororum mediana 47-69 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ parietibus cellularum inclusis), stratis utriculorum 4-5, utriculis peripheralibus magnis (diametro mediano 56-73 $\mu \mathrm{m}$, altitudine 69-98 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) attingentibus $42 \%$ suae maximae latitudinis ad quartem partem altitudinis suae et a superficie visis angulis rotundatis semper carentibus, et utriculis subperipheralibus valde inflatis.

Halimeda kanaloana Vroom differs from related species through the combination of a large bulbous holdfast anchoring the specimen in sand, a basal thallus region of massive cylindrical to slightly
flattened segments, large obovoid to cuneate trilobed segments in the central and distal thallus regions (median length $9-14 \mathrm{~mm}$, width $6-11 \mathrm{~mm}$, thickness $1.5-2.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), medullar siphons fusing into a single unit at segment nodes, obvious pores connecting neighbouring siphons at segment nodes (median pore height including cell walls $47-69 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), 4-5 utricle layers, large peripheral utricles (median diameter $56-73 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, height $69-98 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) that reach $42 \%$ of their maximal width at a quarter of their height and do not have rounded corners in surface view, and markedly inflated subperipheral utricles.
Holotype: BISH715565 (BISH). Collected at Keyhole, Mau'i, Hawai'i, USA. Growing in a monospecific meadow at a depth of 56 m . Collected on 6 September 2004, during dive 565 of the submersible Pisces V.

Paratypes: H. 0649 through H. 0658 (GENT), Honolua Bay, Mau'i, Hawai'i, USA. HS-2004-162, HS-2004-171, HS-2004-173 through HS-2004-178 from Keyhole, Mau'i, Hawai'i, USA. HS-2004157, HS-2004-159, HS-2004-161 from Kaho'olawe, Hawai'i, USA.

Etymology: The epithet kanaloana means belonging to Kanaloa, the Hawai'ian god of the ocean.

Description: Halimeda kanaloana forms extensive meadows in sandy environments. Occasional individuals are found as shallow as $1-2 \mathrm{~m}$, with dense stands beginning at 15 m and ending abruptly around 85 m . Specimens are anchored in sand by means of a gritty, bulbous anchoring holdfast, up to 8 cm in length (Figs 12, 13), within which the rhizoids cling tightly to sand. Very rarely, specimens are found attached to rock.

The heavily calcified stipe is sparsely branched and, in older specimens, overgrown by sponges, encrusting coralline algae, and filamentous algal epiphytes (Figs 12, 13). The basal thallus region consists mainly of squat cylindrical segments with some bilobed and laterally fused segments that produce additional branches (Figs 12, 13). Most branching occurs mid-frond, just above the basal region (Figs 12, 13). In the central region, axes often contain long series of less heavily calcified, trilobed segments, several of which produce branches (Figs 12, 13). Young segments located towards the branch apices are lightly calcified and often become crumbly in herbarium presses.

Centrally located segments have median lengths of $9-14 \mathrm{~mm}$ and median widths of $6-11 \mathrm{~mm}$, with median length to width ratios of $1.02-1.48$, and median thickness of $1.5-2.9 \mathrm{~mm}$. Most segments from the central and apical thallus parts are obovate-cuneate $(88 \%)$, broadest at or near their tip rather than at or near their base. The segment base is always acute. About one-third of the
segments are obovate and unlobed. The remaining segments are shallowly to deeply lobed. Of the lobed segments, the majority are trilobed ( $56 \%$ ) or bilobed ( $29 \%$ ). Lobed segments usually produce a branch from each lobe; trilobed segments with only two branches usually have a reduced third lobe.

Medullar siphons adhere into a single unit at segment nodes and individual siphons cannot be isolated from this unit without sectioning it. Dissected nodes feature a marked belt of thickened cell wall material (Figs 39, 40) of 47-69 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ median height, which is perforated by numerous large pores (Fig. 40). Median distance from the base of nodes to the first medullar ramification of the segment (supranodal siphon length) is $391-614 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; its median diameter is $148-170 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Medullar siphons trifurcate; they rarely branch dichotomously (Fig. 39). Median medullar siphon diameters are $123-161 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, with median length to width ratios of 7.8-10.6.

The cortex comprises 4-5 utricle layers (Fig. 49). Peripheral utricles adhere to one another at their distal ends, remaining firmly attached after decalcification. In surface view, peripheral utricles are arranged in a non-uniform pattern of polygons (Fig. 50) and never have rounded corners. Median peripheral utricle diameters and heights are $56-73 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $69-98 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, with median height to diameter ratios of $1.08-1.51$. Subperipheral utricles exhibit markedly inflated morphologies (Fig. 49). Median secondary utricle diameters and heights are $51-58 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $67-99 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, with median height to diameter ratios of 1.29-1.78.

Compared with segments in more apical regions of the thallus, stipe segments have rigid, thickwalled, elongate utricles (Fig. 62). The thicker cell walls are obvious in surface view (Fig. 61). Siphon fusion at nodes in the lower thallus regions is similar to that in more apically situated nodes.

Halimeda kanaloana is holocarpic with reproductive individuals found in low numbers during many months of the year. Transparent gametophores are $2.7-3.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $50-90 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ wide, and are produced from medullar siphons that are pushed through tiers of utricles before emerging from the cortex. Although reproductive structures form on all surfaces of bleached segments, they are often concentrated on terminal edges (Fig. 69). Gametophores usually exhibit 1 or 2 dichotomies about halfway along their length, separating the terminal, deeply pigmented gametangia into 2-3 distinct clusters (Fig. 70). Eight to 25 gametangia commonly occur on each gametophore with diameters ranging from $100-320 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. The gametophore branches dichotomously several more times in each gametangial cluster. Each cluster contains a conspicuous discharge papilla.

Distribution: Halimeda kanaloana forms extensive meadows between the islands of Mau'i, Kaho'olawe, Lana'i and Moloka'i in the main Hawai'ian islands (Abbott \& Huisman, 2004, as $H$. incrassata). Specimens attributed to $H$. incrassata from the Ryukyu Islands, Japan (Tsuda \& Kamura, 1991) probably also represent H. kanaloana. A distribution map is presented in Fig. 71.

Halimeda heteromorpha $N^{\prime}$ Yeurt, sp. nov.
(Figs 14-26, 41-43, 51-54, 63, 64)
Diagnosis: Halimeda heteromorpha N'Yeurt a speciebus affinibus differt haptero implexo in saxis specimen adfigente, siphonibus medullaribus ad segmentorum nodos in unum conjungentibus, poris ad segmentorum nodos connectentibus segmenta adjacentia omnino nullis vel parvis (altitudine pororum mediana $25-36 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ parietibus cellularum inclusis), stratis utriculorum 2-3, utriculis peripheralibus magnis (diametro mediano 57-79 $\mu \mathrm{m}$, altitudine $74-102 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) non vulgo attingentibus $42 \%$ suae maximae latitudinis ad quartem partem altitudinis suae et a superficie visis angulis rotundatis semper carentibus, et utriculis subperipheralibus non manifeste inflatis.

Halimeda heteromorpha N'Yeurt differs from related species through the combination of a matted holdfast attaching the specimen to rock, medullar siphons adhering into a single unit at segment nodes, total absence of pores connecting neighbouring segments at segment nodes or smallish nodal pores (median pore height including cell walls $25-36 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), 2-3 utricle layers, large peripheral utricles (median diameter $57-79 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, height $74-102 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) that do not generally reach $42 \%$ of their maximal width at one fourth of their height and that never have rounded corners in surface view and subperipheral utricles that are not markedly inflated.

Holotype: HV149 (GENT). Collected between Papetoai and motu Tiahura, Moorea, French Polynesia. Growing at the base of a coral boulder on the landward side of the barrier reef, close to the reef crest.

Paratypes: HV22, HEC12238 (GENT), Chwaka Bay, Zanzibar, Tanzania. HEC11946, HEC12065 (GENT), Matemwe, Zanzibar, Tanzania. HV104, HV144, HV146 (GENT), Moorea, French Polynesia. UPF097 (UPF), Marquesas, French Polynesia. UPF097, 2808, 2809, 2815, 2823 (UPF), Tahiti, French Polynesia. UPF2803, 2810, 2814 (UPF), Moorea, French Polynesia. HV629, HV636, PH245 (GENT), Olango, Philippines. HV763 (GENT), Tangat, Philippines. L. 0399613 (L), Panjang Island, Berau Archipelago, Indonesia.

Etymology: The epithet heteromorpha refers to the variable external morphology of the species.


Description: Halimeda heteromorpha is characterized by highly variable ecology and morphology. It occurs in a broad spectrum of relatively shallow water habitats. Specimens are attached to rocky substrata by means of a rhizoidal mat of variable shape and consistency. In specimens that are directly attached to rock, the holdfast consists of a firm, dense mat of rhizoids (Figs 16, 19, 21). In specimens that grow on sand- or silt-covered rock, the holdfast zone is more flaccid (Figs 14, 15).

Specimens attached to rocky substrata in lagoonal habitats have several branches arising from the lowermost few segments (Figs 14, 16, 18). Segments are broader than long or about as broad as long (Fig. 25). Segment size diminishes from the base to the apices. Specimens that grow from within crevices in rock or coral boulders have a long, stipitate base composed of elongate, relatively thick segments (Fig. 17). Segments from the upper thallus are small, broader than long, or about as broad as long (Fig. 26). Specimens from extremely sheltered bays and mangrove channels are large and densely ramified close to their base (Fig. 15), although the resulting axes are sparsely branched. Specimens collected from shallow, surge-affected reef habitats consist of relatively large, round segments with more or less homogeneous branching throughout the thallus (Fig. 19). Specimens collected from sheltered fore-reef slopes have relatively large, trilobed segments with homogeneous branching throughout the thallus (Fig. 21). Finally, specimens collected from small crevices in rock boulders on reef flats that are exposed to vigorous tidal currents and moderate wave action exhibit diminutive thalli with relatively small segments (Fig. 20). Segments rarely merge in the basal zone (but see examples in Figs 17, 19).
Median lengths and widths of centrally located segments are $2.3-8.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ and $2.4-9.1 \mathrm{~mm}$, respectively, with median length to width ratios of $0.66-1.16$ and median thickness of $0.6-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$. Segments from specimens located in exposed habitats (Figs 19, 22), extremely sheltered bays

Fig. 71. Map showing the distributions of H. heteromorpha, H. incrassata, H. kanaloana and H. melanesica. Arrows indicate species findings outside the continuous distribution ranges. Note that $H$. incrassata s.l. and $H$. melanesica have been reported for several other Indo-Pacific localities. Given the taxonomic confusion, we only included localities from which we studied material, or where literature identifications were supported by illustrations and/or utricle measurements. Distribution ranges are uncertain for SE Asia, Madagascar and India-Sri Lanka, although large collections from Indonesia, the Philippines and Papua New Guinea were examined (GENT, L and US herbaria).
Table 1. Comparative table of features and morphometric measurements ${ }^{a, b}$ of Halimeda kanaloana, H. heteromorpha, H. incrassata and $H$. melanesica

| Character | H. kanaloana | H. heteromorpha | H. incrassata | H. melanesica |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Holdfast | Bulbous, anchoring in sand | Felt-like mat, attaching to rock ${ }^{c}$ | Bulbous, anchoring in sand | Felt-like mat, attaching to rock ${ }^{c}$ |
| Median segment length | $9-14 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $2.3-8.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $3.4-9.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $3.8-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Median segment width | 6-11 mm | $2.4-9.1 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $2.8-9.6$ mm | $4.0-5.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Median segment thickness | $1.5-2.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $0.6-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $0.9-2.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $0.7-0.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Anatomy of the nodal region | Pores plentiful, large | Pores rare, diminutive | Pores plentiful, large | Pores rare, diminutive |
| Median height of nodal adhesion band | 47-69 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 25-36 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 33-53 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 25-30 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Median length of supranodal siphon | 391-614 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 242-535 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 163-327 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 356-525 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Median diameter of supranodal siphon | 148-170 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 100-166 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 95-150 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 97-140 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Median medullar siphon diameter | 123-161 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 89-129 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 85-153 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 79-108 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Number of cortex layers | 4-5 | 2-3 | 2-3 | 3 |
| Peripheral utricles in surface view | Irregular polygons, all corners angular | Irregular polygons, all corners angular | Irregular polygons, slightly rounded corners | Irregular polygons, all corners angular |
| Median diameter of peripheral utricles | 56-73 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 57-79 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 43-63 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 40-50 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Median height of peripheral utricles | 69-98 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 74-102 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 55-90 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 40-53 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Appearance of subperipheral utricles | Markedly inflated | Intermediate | Intermediate | Slender |
| Median diameter of subperipheral utricles | 51-58 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 42-66 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 42-67 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 32-45 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Median height of subperipheral utricles | 67-99 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 54-111 m | 52-128 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ | 49-92 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ |
| Habitat | Relatively deep sand and rubble flats | Variety of shallow-water, rocky habitats ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | Shallow, sandy habitats | Surge-affected, rocky habitats |
| Distribution | North Pacific Ocean | Indian Ocean and South Pacific Ocean | Atlantic Ocean | Indian Ocean and South Pacific Ocean |

${ }^{a}$ Dimensions represent the upper and lower median values of 10 replicate measurements per specimen (Verbruggen et al., 2005a, c), from non-apical, calcified segments in the central and upper parts of the thallus (Verbruggen et al., 2005d).
${ }^{b}$ Diagnostic characters are in boldface. Note that these characters are diagnostic only between the four studied species.
(Figs 15, 24) and sheltered fore-reef slopes (Figs 21, 23) lie at the high end of these ranges. The segment surfaces in the central and upper thallus are rough, often ruffled, especially in the small, upper segments (Figs 17, 18, 25, 26). Segments are moderately to poorly calcified and somewhat pliable, although specimens from surge-affected sites (Fig. 19) and the fore-reef slope (Fig. 21) have more strongly calcified segments with relatively pliable nodes. Segment shape is extremely variable among, and to a lesser extent within, ecotypes. In specimens from surge-affected sites, segments are more or less discoid (Figs 19, 22). In populations from fore-reef slopes, segments are markedly trilobed (Fig. 23). Finally, in specimens from lagoon habitats, the majority of segments are ovate-obovate ( $70 \%$ ), with $32 \%$ of segments unlobed and $58 \%$ shallowly trilobed.

Medullar siphons adhere closely at nodes, an adhesion band visible in dissected nodes (Figs 41-43). Pores between parallel siphons are small (Fig. 42) or absent (Fig. 43). Median adhesion belt heights are $25-36 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Median supranodal siphon lengths and diameters are $242-535 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $100-166 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively. Medullar siphons trifurcate; they rarely branch dichotomously (Fig. 41). Median medullar siphon diameters are $89-129 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, with median length to width ratios of 7.05-11.7.

The cortex consists of 2-3 utricle layers (Figs 51, 53). Peripheral utricles adhere to one another at their distal ends, remaining attached after decalcification. Median peripheral utricle diameters and heights are $57-79 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $74-102 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, with median height to diameter ratios of $0.98-1.66$. In surface view, peripheral utricles create a non-uniform pattern of polygons, without rounded corners (Figs 52, 54). Subperipheral utricles are not markedly inflated (Figs 51, 53). Median secondary utricle diameters and heights are $42-66 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $54-111 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, with median height to diameter ratios of 1.09-2.05.

Cortex of thick, basal segments (see stipitate segments of specimen in Fig. 17) comprises more utricle layers than the upper segments (Fig. 64). Compared with central and apical thallus segments (cf. Figs 51, 53), stipitate segment utricles are more rigid, thick-walled and elongate. The thicker cell walls are particularly visible in surface view (Fig. 63). Siphon fusion at nodes is very similar in all thallus regions.

Distribution: Halimeda heteromorpha occurs throughout the tropical parts of the Indo-Pacific ocean basin. A compilation of distribution data based on specimens from the GENT, L, and UPF herbaria and literature reports (e.g. Barton 1901 as H. incrassata f. ovata, Noble 1987 as H. melanesica) is shown in Fig. 71.

Halimeda incrassata (J. Ellis) J.V. Lamouroux
(Figs 27-31, 44, 45, 55, 56, 65, 66)
Holotype: The type specimen of $H$. incrassata has been lost (Barton, 1901; Hillis-Colinvaux, 1980).

Lectotype: The illustrations of Ellis (1767), which were reproduced in Hillis-Colinvaux (1980: p. 20), are hereby designated as the lectotype.

Description: Halimeda incrassata thalli are anchored in sandy substrata by means of a $2-5-\mathrm{cm}$ long, bulbous holdfast comprising a network of rhizoidal siphons adhering to sand particles. The species inhabits a range of sandybottom habitats, including lagoons, seagrass beds, mangroves, and sand patches on outer reef slopes.

Thalli generally feature a sparsely branched, basal zone of thick, rigid segments (Figs 27-31). Neighbouring basal segments occasionally fuse (Fig. 28) and are often covered with a thick layer of epiphytes, particularly encrusting corallines (Figs 27, 29, 30). Major branches typically arise in the lower half of the thallus with more apically situated segments featuring flattened morphologies. Specimens collected from sheltered, low-light environments near the edge of mangrove swamps (Fig. 28) differ from average specimens by having large, fan-like bases composed of fused segments, from which many long branches arise.

Median lengths and widths of centrally located segments are $3.4-9.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ and $2.8-9.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, respectively, with median length to width ratios of $0.69-1.43$, and median thickness of $0.9-2.0 \mathrm{~mm}$. The majority of segments are obovate-cuneate (79\%), being broadest at or near their tip rather than at or near their base. The base is usually acute ( $61 \%$ of segments). Segments are unlobed (42\%) or shallowly lobed ( $36 \%$ ) with the majority of lobed segments trilobed ( $72 \%$ ). Although all specimens feature both trilobed and unlobed segments, one type of segment morphology is usually dominant in a specimen.
Medullar siphons adhere into a single bundle at nodes and individual siphons cannot be separated from the bundle. Dissected nodes have an obvious adhesion belt. Many large pores connect neighbouring siphons (Figs 44, 45). Median adhesion belt heights are $33-53 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, and median supranodal siphon lengths and diameters, $163-327 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $95-150 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively. Medullar siphons trifurcate; they rarely branch dichotomously (Fig. 44). Median medullar siphon diameters are $85-153 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, with median length to width ratios of 5.6-11.4.

The cortex consists of 2-3 utricle layers (Fig. 55). Peripheral utricles adhere to one another at their distal end, remaining attached after decalcification. Median peripheral utricle diameters and heights are $43-63 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $55-90 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, with
median height to diameter ratios of 1.09-1.63. In surface view, peripheral utricles appear as an irregular pattern of polygons with slightly rounded corners (Fig. 56). Subperipheral utricles are not markedly inflated (Fig. 55). Secondary utricles are $42-67 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in diameter and $52-128 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ high, with median height to diameter ratios of 1.04-2.48.

Thick, basal segments have more utricle layers than do more apical segments (Fig. 66). Basal, stipitate segments have more rigid, thick-walled and elongated utricles than segments from the central thallus region (cf. Fig. 55). The thicker cell walls are seen best in segment surface preparations (Fig. 65). Siphon fusion at nodes in the lower thallus region resembles more apical regions.

Distribution: Halimeda incrassata occurs in the tropical western Atlantic Ocean. It has recently been collected in Madeira, an isolated subtropical eastern Atlantic island (Wirtz \& Kaufmann, 2005). The Madeiran material (vouchers H. 0668 \& H. 0669 , GENT) conforms to $H$. incrassata var. typica f. gracilis (see Børgesen, 1913), and an rps3 DNA barcode (Genbank accession DQ388968) confirmed its allocation to $H$. incrassata. A distribution map is shown in Fig. 71.

Halimeda melanesica Valet (Figs 32-38, 46-48, 57, 58, 67, 68)
Holotype: PC0021851 (PC), Lifou Island, Loyalty Islands, New Caledonia.

Description: Halimeda melanesica attaches to rocky substrata by means of a firm, dense mat of rhizoids (Figs 32-35) and appears to be restricted to surge-affected habitats. Individuals are known to occur in wave-affected infralittoral fringe-zones to deeper-water habitats characterized by strong swells.

Two thallus morphologies can be distinguished within this species. The first is a densely branched, compact form from shallow, wave-affected sites (Figs 32, 33, 35). The second is a laxly branched form from deeper, surge-affected sites (Fig. 34). The densely branched form has a basal zone of relatively large segments that often take the form of, or merge into, a flabellate structure from which many branches arise (Figs 32, 33). Segments are smaller towards the apices. The laxly branched form has a firm basal zone of large, rigid segments. Its upper part is more flexible and comprises smaller, thinner segments.

Centrally located segments are $3.8-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ in median length and $4.0-5.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ in median width, with median length to width ratios of 0.93-1.07, and median thickness ranging from $0.7-0.9 \mathrm{~mm}$. Specimens of the laxly branched form contain segment morphologies toward the high end of the length and width ranges, while specimens of the
densely branched form contain segments towards the low end. The segment surfaces from the central and upper thallus are generally smooth, never ruffled, and occasionally shiny. Most segments are obovate-cuneate ( $95 \%$; Figs 36, 38), and elliptical and ovate segments are restricted to specimens from shallow, wave-affected sites (Fig. 37). The base is usually acute ( $97 \%$; Figs 36, 38). The majority of segments are lobed ( $87 \%$; Figs 36-38), predominantly ( $97 \%$ ) trilobed and, although deep and medium lobes occur (both $23 \%$ ), most lobes are shallow ( $54 \%$ ).

Medullar siphons adhere closely at nodes, with an adhesion band in dissected nodes (Figs 46-48). Pores between parallel siphons are small (Fig. 47) or absent (Fig. 48). Adhesion belts are $25-30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in median height. Supranodal siphons are $356-525 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in median height and $97-140 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in median diameter. Medullar siphons trifurcate; they rarely branch dichotomously (Fig. 46), with median diameters of $79-108 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, and median length to width ratios of $7.27-10.8$.

The cortex consists of three utricle layers (Fig. 57). Peripheral utricles adhere to one another at their distal ends, remaining attached after decalcification. Their median heights and diameters are $40-53 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $40-50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, with median height to diameter ratios of 1.17-1.44. In surface view, peripheral utricles show a nonuniform pattern of polygons without rounded corners (Fig. 58). Subperipheral utricles are relatively slender (Fig. 57), with median secondary utricle heights and diameters of $49-92 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $32-45 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, respectively, and height to diameter ratios of 0.93-1.06.

The cortex of thick, basal segments comprises 3-4 utricle layers (Fig. 68). Subperipheral utricles of the basal segments are larger and more swollen than in apical regions (cf. Fig. 57). The utricles are also more rigid and thick walled. Peripheral utricles are similar in shape and size throughout, except that they have thicker cell walls at the base (most obvious in surface view; Fig. 67). Siphon fusion at nodes in the lower thallus region is like that in more apical regions.
Distribution: Halimeda melanesica occurs throughout the tropical parts of the Indo-Pacific ocean basin. A distribution map is shown in Fig. 71.

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Appendix
List of studied specimens, their geographical origin and Genbank accession numbers. All specimens are in the Ghent University Herbarium (GENT) unless otherwise indicated. (HS) indicates specimen from the personal herbarium of Heather Spalding. Such specimens will be deposited in the Bishop Museum.

| Species | Specimen number | Locality | Country | SSU-ITS | $t u f \mathrm{~A}$ | $r p 15-r p s 8-i n f \mathrm{~A}$ | rps 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A. rawsonii | HV352 | Drax Hall, St. Ann's Bay | Jamaica |  | AM049968 |  |  |
| F. petiolata | H. 0495 | Piran | Slovenia | AF416390 |  |  |  |
| H. borneensis | HV18-1 | Chwaka, Zanzibar | Tanzania |  |  |  | AY835514 |
| H. borneensis | HV183b | Arue, Tahiti | French Polynesia | AY786513 | AM049955 | AM049972 |  |
| H. cylindracea | SOC364 | Socotra | Yemen | AF525546 | AM049956 | AM049973 |  |
| H. discoidea | SOC299 | Socotra | Yemen | AF407254 | AY826360 | AY826376 |  |
| H. gracilis | HV317 | Avatoru, Rangiroa | French Polynesia | AY786526 | AM049965 | AY826384 |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HEC12238 | Chwaka, Zanzibar | Tanzania |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HOD-TZ97-435 | Chwaka, Zanzibar | Tanzania |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HV22 | Chwaka, Zanzibar | Tanzania |  |  |  | AY835531 |
| H. heteromorpha | HEC11946 | Matemwe, Zanzibar | Tanzania |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HEC12065 | Matemwe, Zanzibar | Tanzania |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HIMS0020 | La Digue | Seychelles |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | SEY313 | La Digue | Seychelles |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | SEY314 | La Digue | Seychelles |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | SEY326 | La Digue | Seychelles |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | SEY112 | Praslin | Seychelles |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HEC6140 | Bi Ya Doo | Maldives |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HEC12568 | Magala Furi | Maldives |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | L. 0399613 (L) | Panjang, Berau | Indonesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | Snellius-II-10506 | Sumba | Indonesia | AY835468 |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HV629 | Olango | Philippines | AY835473 |  |  | AY835537 |
| H. heteromorpha | HV636 | Olango | Philippines | AY835474 |  |  | AY835538 |
| H. heteromorpha | HEC12271 | Olango | Philippines |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | PH245 | Olango | Philippines |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HV763 | Tangat | Philippines | AY835475 |  |  | AY835539 |
| H. heteromorpha | PH194 | Mactan | Philippines |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | PH197 | Mactan | Philippines | AF407241 |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | no voucher | Mactan | Philippines | AF525568 |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HOD-PH99-109 | Sanga Sanga | Philippines |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HOD-PH99-117 | Sanga Sanga | Philippines |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | HOD-PH99-128 | Sanga Sanga | Philippines |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13144 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13284 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13322 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13398 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13492 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13613 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13703 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |
| H. heteromorpha | C\&PvR13860 | Madang | Papua New Guinea |  |  |  |  |


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Appendix. Continued

| Species | Specimen number | Locality | Country | SSU-ITS | $t u f \mathrm{~A}$ | rpl5-rps8-infA | rps 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| H. incrassata | HV332 | St. Ann's Bay | Jamaica |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | HV334 | St. Ann's Bay | Jamaica |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0229 | Puerto Morelos | Mexico |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0077 | Bocas del Toro | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0079 | Bocas del Toro | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0127 | Bocas del Toro | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0188 | Bocas del Toro | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0477 | Bocas del Toro | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0027 | Galeta | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0143 | Isla Grande | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0667 | Long Key | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0132 | San Andres | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0211 | San Blas | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0248 | San Blas | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. incrassata | H. 0666 | San Blas | Panama |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-157 (HS) | Kaho'olawe | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-159 (HS) | Kaho'olawe | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-161 (HS) | Kaho'olawe | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | BISH715565 (BISH) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-162 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-171 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-173 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-174 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-175 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-176 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-177 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | HS-2004-178 (HS) | Keyhole, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0649 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) | AY835476 | AM049959 | AM049978 | AY835540 |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0650 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) | AY835477 |  |  | AY835541 |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0651 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) | AY835478 |  |  | AY835542 |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0652 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) | AY835479 |  |  | AY835543 |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0653 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) | AY835480 |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0654 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0655 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0656 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0657 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. kanaloana | H. 0658 | Honolua Bay, Mau'i | Hawai'i (USA) |  |  |  |  |
| H. macroloba | HV38 | Nungwi, Zanzibar | Tanzania | AY786514 | AM049960 | AM049979 | AY835562 |
| H. macroloba | no voucher | Zanzibar | Tanzania | AF525561 |  |  |  |
| H. macroloba | HEC12583 | Zanzibar | Tanzania | AF407240 |  |  |  |
| H. macroloba | H. 0157 | Pangasinan | Philippines | AF525560 |  |  |  |
| H. macroloba | H. 0158 | Pangasinan | Philippines | AF525566 |  |  |  |
| H. macroloba | no voucher | Zamboanga | Philippines | AF525565 |  |  |  |
| H. macroloba | no voucher | Lizard Island | Australia | AF525567 |  |  |  |

AY835565

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Papua New Guinea
Papua New Guinea


Solomon Islands
New Caledonia
Cook Islands


Appendix. Continued

| Species | Specimen number | Locality | Country | SSU-ITS | tuf A | $r p l 5-r p s 8-i n f \mathrm{~A}$ | $r p s 3$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| H. melanesica | UPF094 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF2804 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF2811 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF2812 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF2813 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF2821 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF2832 (UPF) | Afaahiti, Tahiti | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | H. 0061 | Marquesas Islands | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. melanesica | UPF095 (UPF) | Marquesas Islands | French Polynesia |  |  |  |  |
| H. micronesica | WLS420-02 | Uvea Island | Wallis \& Futuna | AY786518 | AM049964 | AM049980 |  |
| H. monile | HV344 | St Ann's Bay | Jamaica |  |  |  | AY835572 |
| H. monile | H. 0034 | Galeta | Panama |  | AM049962 | AM049976 |  |
| H. monile | H.0228b | Puerto Morelos | Mexico | AF407234 |  |  |  |
| H. opuntia | H. 0262 | Tamandare | Brazil | AF525639 |  |  |  |
| H. opuntia | HV61 | Cook Bay, Moorea | French Polynesia |  | AM049967 | AM049982 |  |
| H. simulans | HV449 | Discovery Bay | Jamaica | AY835511 | AM049963 |  |  |
| H. simulans | H. 0032 | Galeta | Panama |  |  |  | AY835573 |
| H. taenicola | HV285-1 | Tiputa, Rangiroa | French Polynesia |  | AM049966 | AY826381 |  |
| P. capitatus | H. 0349 | San Blas | Panama | AF416404 |  |  |  |
| P. floridanum | KZNb2241 | Sodwana Bay | South Africa |  | AM049969 |  |  |
| U. flabellum | H. 0415 | Portobelo | Panama | AF407270 |  |  |  |
| U. orientalis | HV817 | Bulusan, SW Luzon | Philippines |  | AM049970 |  |  |
| T. expeditionis | HV873 | Balicasag | Philippines |  | AM049971 |  |  |

