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Two Kinorhynch Species (Cyclorhagida, Echinoderidae, *Echinoderes*) Show Different Distribution Patterns Across Tsugaru Strait, Northern Japan

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We investigated the geographic population structures of two intertidal kinorhynch species, *Echinoderes sensibilis* and *Echinoderes* sp. A, in the vicinity of Tsugaru Strait between Honshu and Hokkaido Islands, Japan, to examine whether the distribution or connectivity of populations of either species has been constrained by the strait. For each species, we examined the geographic distribution of COI haplotypes, constructed a median-joining haplotype network, and calculated statistics of genetic variation and connectivity. Tsugaru Strait is the northern range limit for *E. sensibilis*, which comprises a large, evolutionarily stable metapopulation that appears to have undergone a reduction in size followed by expansion; connectivity is low among most local populations, including across Tsugaru Strait. A divergent haplotype lineage showing no variation occurred only at Horozuki, suggesting recent immigration there from outside the study area. *Echinoderes* sp. A underwent a severe population bottleneck followed by rapid expansion. It occurred at all sampling sites on both sides of the strait, with high connectivity between populations across the strait. There is a zone of secondary contact between moderately divergent, presumably previously allopatric lineages in eastern Hokkaido. Present-day conditions in the strait have existed only for the past 8000 years, and differences in these species’ distributions and apparent connectivity across the strait may relate to conditions existing in the strait when the species underwent population expansions or shifts in range; these historical events were not necessarily concurrent between the species, and occurred more than 8000 years ago. We discuss dispersal mechanisms for kinorhynchs, which could include suspension transport or rafting.

Key words: dispersal barrier, Kinorhyncha, phylogeography, intertidal organism, COI, population history

INTRODUCTION

The connectivity, or degree of genetic exchange, among populations of marine organisms is a topic of high current interest, as it is relevant to evolutionary biology (Palumbi, 1994; Lindsay, 2012), biodiversity (Knowlton, 2000), management and conservation biology (Palumbi, 2003; Selkow et al., 2008; Treml et al., 2008; Burton, 2009; Cowen and Sponaugle, 2009), and predicting the effects of climate change on marine ecosystems (Harley et al., 2006). Factors reducing connectivity, leading to evolutionary and possibly adaptive divergence of populations, include low innate dispersal ability, isolation by distance, and marine dispersal barriers (Bernardi, 2000; Rigos and Nachman, 2001; Hare et al., 2005). It can be difficult to predict the degree of connectivity among populations of a particular species based on assumptions concerning the relative importance of these factors, and empirical results have not matched expectations in some studies (e.g., Kyle and Boulding, 2000; Marko, 2004; Lessios and Robertson, 2006).

In the sea, physical impediments to the dispersal of benthic or planktonic marine organisms as adults, propagules, or larvae are often inconspicuous, as they can involve current patterns, depth, differences in temperature or salinity, or the distribution of suitable habitat, all of which require oceanographic effort to detect. As potential dispersal barriers, however, straits are an obvious exception, because they are directly evident from charts. While they are as at least as common a feature of marine landscapes as islands, the extent to which, and scales at which, straits act as barriers or impediments to the dispersal of marine organisms at various scales have not been well explored.

The best-studied example of a strait (or complex of straits) acting as a dispersal barrier is the Central American Seaway between North and South America. This seaway began to restrict gene flow between the Caribbean and Eastern Pacific 25–20 Ma, but became completely closed by the Isthmus of Panama approximately 3.5–3.0 Ma (Jackson and O’Dea, 2013). Molecular and paleontological data show that shallowing of the Seaway caused populations of various marine organisms to diverge on opposite sides of the isth-
mua at different times between 12 Ma and 3 Ma, depending on species’ depth range (Knowlton and Weigt, 1998; Lessios, 2008).

It is much less clear how smaller straits affect the dispersal of marine organisms at local scales, but there is evidence that they do play a role. For example, it is difficult to explain high diversity and endemism in two bryozaon genera (Monoporella and Cauloraphus), and an east–west cline in morphology in Cauloraphus ascorpher, in the western Aleutian archipelago, Alaska (Dick, 2008; Dick et al., 2011) without invoking the numerous straits between Aleutian Islands and island groups as impediments to dispersal. In northern Japan, morphologically indistinguishable intertidal populations of the chelostome bryozaon Cauloraphus multispinosus showed a COI divergence of 11% between Pacific and Sea of Japan populations on Hokkaido Island, separated from one another by Tsugaru Strait (Dick et al., 2013). Other studies have shown Tsugaru Strait to comprise a boundary between local nearshore populations, indicating it might have played a role in the differentiation of those populations by limiting E–W (Littorina sitkana; Nohara, 1999) or N–S dispersal (Ceramium kondoi; Yang et al., 2008).

These observations led us to investigate Tsugaru Strait as a model system for studying the extent to which a local strait can restrict the dispersal of intertidal and littoral (near-shore benthic) organisms. Tsugaru Strait (41°26′N, 140°36′E) (Fig. 1) is small but locally prominent; it separates Honshu and Hokkaido Islands north to south, and the North Pacific from the marginal Sea of Japan east to west. It is 73 km long between the western and eastern necks, is 18 km and 20 km wide at the two narrowest points, and its shallowest sill depth is 130 m. Currents are predominantly oceanic rather than tidal and are directionally biased: a branch of the warm Tsushima Current running northward in the Sea of Japan flows from west to east through the strait as the Tsugaru Current, which merges with the cold Oyashio Current flowing southward in the Pacific, forming a gyre east of the strait (Conlon, 1981; Sugimoto, 1990; Rosa et al., 2007).

Our long-term goal is to use a comparative approach to understand factors affecting the degree of dispersability across Tsugaru Strait by studying the phylogeography of 10 nearshore marine species in the vicinity of the strait, chosen so as to represent variation in habitat (e.g., sandy or rocky; infaunal, epifaunal, or sessile) and life-history traits affecting dispersability (e.g., planktonic larval stage vs. direct development). The present study examined the phylogeography in northern Japan of two kinorhynch species, Echinoderes sensibilis Adrianov et al., 2002 and Echinoderes sp. A, with the specific goal of learning whether Tsugaru Strait has affected the geographical pattern of either species.

Members of the phylum Kinorhyncha are benthic marine meiofauna (up to about 1.1 mm long) that primarily inhabit the upper layer of sediment or interstices among sessile organisms such as ascidians, barnacles, and algae. Kinorhynchs are distributed worldwide from equatorial to polar regions, and comprise approximately 200 species (Serensen and Pardos, 2008; Herranz and Pardos, 2013; Herranz et al., 2014; Neuhaus, 2013; Serensen, 2014). Because they lack locomotory cilia, spend their lives in sediment, and are gonochoristic, with eggs laid in the sediment and undergoing direct development (Kozloff, 1972), kinorhynchs should have low innate dispersal ability (Artois et al., 2011). In general, species distributions appear to be regional and limited to a few hundreds of kilometers in extent; only one nominal species (Campylopterus vanhoeffeni) has a putative cosmopolitan distribution, although it may represent a species complex (Serensen and Pardos, 2008; Artois et al., 2011; Neuhaus and Serensen, 2013).

**Echinoderes sensibilis** and **Echinoderes** sp. A both occur intertidally in northern Japan. The former was originally described from intertidal pools on the Kii Peninsula, Pacific coast of central Honshu Island, Japan (Adrianov et al., 2002), but was subsequently reported farther east from the Boso Peninsula (Murakami, 2003) and occurs as far north as Tsugaru Strait (this study). **Echinoderes** sp. A was first detected through molecular data in a preliminary study and initially appeared to be restricted to Hokkaido; though very similar to **E. sensibilis**, there are morphological differences (Yamasaki, 2013), and the two differ in COI (cytochrome oxidase c subunit I) sequence by 14.3%.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Sampling and molecular methods**

We conducted sampling for the two **Echinoderes** target species
at 10 sites (five on Hokkaido, five on Honshu) (Fig. 1, Table 1) in 2011 and 2012. At each site, we obtained sediment debris and organic detritus by washing the surfaces of rocks from intertidal tide pools, along with the attached algae. We extracted kinorhynchs from the debris and detritus by the bubbling and blot method (Serensen and Pardos, 2008) and preserved them in 99% ETOH. In the laboratory, we extracted total genomic DNA from single individuals by using a DNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Tokyo), following the protocol of Yamasaki et al. (2013). We recovered the exoskeleton of each specimen from the lysis buffer by centrifugation and mounted it on a glass slide in Hoyer’s medium or Fluoromount G as a morphological voucher. We PCR amplified part of the coding region of COI using primer pair LCO (5’-GGTCAACAATATCATATAA-GATATTGG-3’) and HCO (5’-TAAACCTCAGGGTGACCAA-AAAATCA-3’) (Folmer et al., 1994). PCR thermal cycling conditions were 95°C for 1 min; 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 45°C for 1 min 30 sec, and 72°C for 1 min 30 sec; and 72°C for 7 min. We determined nucleotide sequences by direct sequencing with a BigDye Terminator Kit ver. 3.1 (Life Technologies, USA) and a 3730 DNA Analyzer (Life Technologies, USA), using the same primer pair as above. Sequences were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers AB904214–AB904498. Morphological vouchers were deposited in the invertebrate collection of the Hokkaido University Museum, Sapporo, Japan under catalog numbers ZIHU04459–04716. In this study, identification to species (E. sensibilis or Echinoderes sp. A) was based entirely on the COI sequence rather than morphology.

Data analysis

We used MEGA version 5 software (Tamura et al., 2011) to align nucleotide sequences, DAMBE 5.2 (Xia and Xie, 2001) to examine haplotype variation, and NETWORK 4.6.1.0 (http://www.fluxus-engineering.com) to construct median-joining (MJ) haplotype networks (Bandelt et al., 1999). To estimate the extent of genetic diversity in each population, we calculated the haplotype diversity (h) and nucleotide diversity (θ) (Nei, 1987) with Arlequin 3.5.1.2 software (Excoffier et al., 2005). With the same software, we also calculated Tajima’s D (Tajima, 1989) and Fu’s Fₚ statistics (Fu, 1997) to infer the extent of population expansion. To estimate the extent of divergence between populations, we calculated average pairwise K2P (Kimura 2-parameter) genetic distances (Kimura, 1980) using MEGA 5. Finally, to estimate the relative degree of genetic isolation, we calculated pairwise Fₛₚ values among populations for both species using ARLEQUIN 3.5.1.2. We tested the significance of Fₛₚ values with 1000 permutations in ARLEQUIN 3.5.1.2. We did not calculate population statistics for Echinoderes sp. A at the Horozuki site because we obtained only one specimen there.

**RESULTS**

**Species distributions**

We determined COI sequences for 124 specimens of Echinoderes sensibilis and 161 of Echinoderes sp. A (Table 1). Echinoderes sensibilis was the dominant species at three sites on northern Honshu (Fig. 1), detected at moderately (Asamushi) to greatly (Fukaura and Horozuki) higher frequency than Echinoderes sp. A, but occurred only at the most southern site (Tobetsu) on Hokkaido, within Tsugaru Strait. We detected Echinoderes sp. A at eight sampling sites. It was the dominant species on Hokkaido, where it was the sole species at four sites and co-occurred with E. sensibilis only at Tobetsu but at much higher frequency than the latter. We found no individuals of either Echinoderes species in appropriate habitat at the two sites located on the Pacific side of Honshu (Fig. 1).

**Population structure of Echinoderes sensibilis**

We identified 34 haplotypes (S01–S34; 571 bp) for E. sensibilis (Table 1). The aligned sequences showed 28 variable sites, 23 of which involved synonymous substitutions. Among the 34 haplotypes, 30 were unique to a single sampling site, three (S29, S31, S33) were detected at two sites, and two (S08, S34) were found at four sites. The number and frequency of private haplotypes varied markedly among the eight populations (Table 1). None was unique to Tobetsu.

**Table 1.** Sampling sites for Echinoderes, indicating sample sizes and haplotypes detected for two species. Private haplotypes (those detected only in a particular local population) are underlined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sampling site</th>
<th>Coordinates</th>
<th>E. sensibilis Sample size (% of sample)</th>
<th>E. sensibilis haplotypes (Number of individuals) [Number and % of private haplotypes]</th>
<th>E. sp. A Sample size (% of sample)</th>
<th>E. sp. A (Number of individuals) [Number and % of private haplotypes]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nemuro</td>
<td>43°23′16″N</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>24 (100)</td>
<td>H17 (1), H18 (1), H19 (1), H20 (7), H45 (14) [2, 40%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>145°41′34″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akkeshi</td>
<td>43°00′53″N</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>24 (100)</td>
<td>H01 (1), H02 (1), H03 (1), H04 (1), H05 (1), H20 (19) [5, 83%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>144°49′56″S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muroran</td>
<td>42°18′48″N</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>23 (100)</td>
<td>H12 (1), H13 (1), H14 (1), H15 (1), H16 (1), H35 (1), H45 (17) [5, 71%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>140°58′05″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshoro</td>
<td>43°12′38″N</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>24 (100)</td>
<td>H21 (1), H22 (1), H23 (1), H24 (1), H37 (1), H45 (19) [4, 67%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>140°51′25″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asamushi</td>
<td>40°54′11″N</td>
<td>27 (60)</td>
<td>S01 (1), S02 (1), S03 (1), S04 (1), S05 (2), S27 (16), S29 (5) [5, 71%]</td>
<td>18 (40)</td>
<td>H06 (1), H07 (1), H08 (1), H09 (1), H45 (14) [4, 80%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>140°51′16″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobetsu</td>
<td>41°44′12″N</td>
<td>5 (11)</td>
<td>S33 (3), S34 (2) [1, 50%]</td>
<td>41 (89)</td>
<td>H25 (1), H26 (1), H27 (1), H28 (1), H29 (1), H30 (1), H31 (1), H32 (1), H33 (1), H34 (1), H35 (1), H36 (1), H37 (1), H38 (1), H39 (1), H40 (1), H41 (2), H42 (1), H43 (1), H44 (1), H45 (20) [17, 61%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>140°35′01″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horozuki</td>
<td>41°13′35″N</td>
<td>53 (98)</td>
<td>S21 (1), S22 (1), S23 (1), S24 (1), S25 (3), S26 (1), S27 (2), S28 (1), S29 (7), S30 (13), S37 (21), S32 (1) [5, 75%]</td>
<td>1 (2)</td>
<td>H45 (1) [0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>140°32′51″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fukaura</td>
<td>40°45′59″N</td>
<td>39 (87)</td>
<td>S06 (1), S07 (1), S08 (1), S09 (1), S10 (1), S11 (1), S12 (1), S13 (1), S14 (1), S15 (2), S16 (3), S17 (1), S18 (2), S19 (1), S20 (7), S27 (11), S31 (1), S33 (2) [15, 83%]</td>
<td>6 (13)</td>
<td>H10 (1), H11 (1), H19 (1), H31 (1), H35 (1), H45 (1) [2, 33%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>140°03′51″E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 124 Total haplotypes = 34 161 Total haplotypes = 45
and one (S27) at three sites (Table 1). A haplotype network (Fig. 2A) shows two lineages differentiated by six nucleotide substitutions, here designated as clusters A (haplotype S30) and B (all other haplotypes), with an average K2P distance of 1.55% between these lineages. Cluster-B haplotypes occurred at all four sites, whereas cluster-A haplotypes were restricted to Horozuki (Fig. 2B).

Overall \( h \) and \( \pi \) values for \( E. \) sensibilis were both high (0.90 and 0.0071, respectively) (Table 2). All four local populations showed high \( h \) (> 0.5), and all but one (Horozuki) showed low \( \pi \) (< 0.005). Tajima's \( D \) statistics were not significantly different from zero. \( F_S \) values were negative and significant for the overall sample (\( F_S = -15.72, P = 0.001 \)) and the sample from Fukaura (\( F_S = -10.29, P < 0.001 \)).

Average pairwise COI divergences (K2P) among local populations of \( E. \) sensibilis ranged from 0.44% to 0.85% (Table 3). Pairwise \( F_{ST} \) values between populations were all significant, and were moderately high (0.206–0.502) for all comparisons except between Asamushi and Fukaura (0.085). The \( F_{ST} \) value between the Tobetsu population and the three Honshu populations combined (Asamushi + Horozuki + Fukaura) was also moderately high and significant (\( F_{ST} = 0.258, P < 0.001 \)).

**Population structure of Echinoderes sp. A**

We identified 45 haplotypes (H1–H45; 590 bp) for Echinoderes sp. A (Table 1). The aligned sequences showed 42 variable sites, 38 of which involved synonymous substitutions. Among the 45 haplotypes, 39 were each unique to a single sampling site, four (H19, H20, H31, H37) were detected at two sites, one (H35) at three sites, and one (H45) at all sites except

![Image](https://example.com/image.png)

**Fig. 2.** (A) Median-joining network for COI haplotypes detected in Echinoderes sensibilis in northern Japan. Each circle represents a haplotype, with the size of the circle proportional to the frequency of the haplotype among four local populations; variable filling inside circles indicates the proportion of haplotype representation by locality (see key at lower right). Line lengths between circles are proportional to the number of nucleotide changes. (B) Frequencies of COI haplotypes in clusters A and B at each locality for Echinoderes sensibilis. Aside from the site markers, the size of each circle is proportional to sample size, which is given in parentheses.

### Table 2. Haplotype diversity (\( h \)), nucleotide diversity (\( \pi \)), Tajima’s \( D \), and Fu’s \( F_S \) for four populations of Echinoderes sensibilis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Haplotype diversity ( h ) (SD)</th>
<th>Nucleotide diversity ( \pi ) (SD)</th>
<th>Tajima’s ( D ) (P-value)</th>
<th>Fu’s ( F_S ) (P-value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asamushi</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.63 (0.095)</td>
<td>0.0044 (0.0027)</td>
<td>0.27 (0.644)</td>
<td>0.11 (0.548)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobetsu</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.60 (0.175)</td>
<td>0.0011 (0.0012)</td>
<td>1.22 (0.948)</td>
<td>0.63 (0.535)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horozuki</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>0.77 (0.041)</td>
<td>0.0085 (0.0047)</td>
<td>0.71 (0.807)</td>
<td>0.56 (0.617)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fukaura</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.90 (0.025)</td>
<td>0.0041 (0.0025)</td>
<td>-1.25 (0.098)</td>
<td>-10.29 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>0.90 (0.014)</td>
<td>0.0071 (0.0040)</td>
<td>-0.61 (0.328)</td>
<td>-15.72 (0.001)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A haplotype network (Fig. 3A) shows two lineages separated by four substitutions (average pairwise K2P distance between the lineages = 1.11%), each lineage having one major haplotype (H20 or H45) from which other haplotypes are divergent generally by one or two substitutions to form a star-like topology. We designated these lineages as the eastern cluster (haplotypes H01–H05, H18, H20; detected only at Nemuro and Akkeshi in eastern Hokkaido) and the western cluster (all other haplotypes; detected in western Hokkaido and northern Honshu, but co-occurring with eastern-cluster individuals at Nemuro) (Fig. 3A, B).

Overall $h$ for *Echinoderes* sp. A was moderately high (0.69) and $\pi$ was moderately low (0.0045) (Table 4). The pattern of values differed between the eastern and western clusters, with the former having low $h$ and $\pi$, and the latter having moderately high $h$ and low $\pi$. There was variation among sampling sites, with four (Akkeshi, Muroran, Oshoro, Asamushi) of seven sites having low $h$ and $\pi$, two (Tobetsu, Fukaura) having high $h$ and low $\pi$, and one (Nemuro) having moderately high $h$ and $\pi$. Tajima’s $D$ and Fu’s $F_S$ values for *Echinoderes* sp. A overall, for the eastern and western clusters, and for local populations except Nemuro (and excluding Horozuki) were significant ($P < 0.05$ or $P < 0.01$) negative values.

Pairwise $F_{ST}$ values (Table 5) were high (0.595–0.933) and significant between Akkeshi and all other local populations (excluding Horozuki), and moderately high (0.228–0.250) and significant between Nemuro and the western sites except for Fukaura (0.075; not significant). Pairwise comparisons among populations other than Akkeshi and Nemuro generally gave low, non-significant $F_{ST}$ values (−0.001 to 0.022); Fukaura was again an exception, with a low, significant value (0.083) in the Muroran comparison and a moderately high (0.112), significant value in the Asamushi comparison. K2P distances between populations ranged from 0.05% to 1.12% and were higher for comparisons involving Akkeshi and Nemuro than for other comparisons, due to the occurrence of the divergent eastern clade only at those sites.

**DISCUSSION**

**Inferred population histories**

The two species we investigated have somewhat different geographi-
seven of eight sampling sites. A less common and widespread haplotype (H45), detected in 53% of the individuals sampled, and at Horozuki (0.502; 135 km), Asamushi (0.380; 90 km), Fukaura (0.260; 60 km), Akkeshi (0.595**; 155 km), Muroran (0.250**; 110 km), Oshoro (0.244**; 57 km), Asamushi (0.241**; 57 km), Tolbetsu (0.228**; 57 km), Fukaura (0.755; 57 km), and Horozuki (1) –. Sample sizes are indicated in parentheses.

Table 5. Average pairwise K2P distances in percent (above diagonal) and FST values (below diagonal) among populations of *Echinoderes* sp. A. *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01. Sample sizes are indicated in parentheses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Haplotype diversity h (SD)</th>
<th>Nucleotide diversity π (SD)</th>
<th>Tajima's D (P-value)</th>
<th>Fu's FST (P-value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nemuro (24)</td>
<td>0.59 (0.08)</td>
<td>0.0052 (0.0031)</td>
<td>0.88 (0.0826)</td>
<td>2.39 (0.0822)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akkeshi (24)</td>
<td>0.38 (0.13)</td>
<td>0.0007 (0.0007)</td>
<td>−2.00 (0.006)</td>
<td>−4.98 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muroran (23)</td>
<td>0.46 (0.13)</td>
<td>0.0012 (0.0010)</td>
<td>−2.20 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
<td>−4.68 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshoro (24)</td>
<td>0.38 (0.13)</td>
<td>0.0010 (0.0009)</td>
<td>−1.94 (0.008)</td>
<td>−3.78 (0.002)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asamushi (18)</td>
<td>0.41 (0.14)</td>
<td>0.0008 (0.0008)</td>
<td>−1.85 (0.007)</td>
<td>−3.49 (0.001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobetsu (41)</td>
<td>0.77 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.0023 (0.0016)</td>
<td>−2.26 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
<td>−24.48 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fukaura (6)</td>
<td>1.00 (0.01)</td>
<td>0.0040 (0.0029)</td>
<td>−1.39 (0.047)</td>
<td>−3.93 (0.002)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horozuki (1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern cluster</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.34 (0.11)</td>
<td>0.0006 (0.0007)</td>
<td>−2.10 (0.002)</td>
<td>−6.78 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western cluster</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>0.56 (0.06)</td>
<td>0.0015 (0.0012)</td>
<td>−2.63 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
<td>−3.40×10^21 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>0.69 (0.04)</td>
<td>0.0045 (0.0027)</td>
<td>−1.92 (0.006)</td>
<td>−26.64 (&lt; 0.001)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Haplotype diversity (h), nucleotide diversity (π), Tajima’s D, and Fu’s FST for eight populations of *Echinoderes* sp. A., and for pooled populations in the Eastern and Western clusters.

Echinoderes sensibilis showed high h and π (> 0.5 and > 0.005, respectively) (Table 2), indicative of a large, evolutionarily relatively stable population (Grant and Bowen, 1998). The haplotype network (Fig. 2A) bears this out, with four common haplotypes (S27, S29, S30, S31) interconnected by three to 11 mutational steps. Consistent with this inferred history is the broad known range of the species, which extends from Tsugaru Strait at least 1200 km southward to the Kii Peninsula and probably beyond that. Nonetheless, a significant large, negative Fu’s FST value (Table 2) indicates less than expected variation, suggesting the overall population sampled underwent a past reduction in size followed by expansion (Ray et al., 2003). In this interpretation, the four common haplotypes in clusters A (S30) and B (S27, S29, S31) in the haplotype network (Fig. 2A) represent ancestral variation retained during the population reduction, whereas haplotypes divergent by one or two mutations, forming a star-like topology with each of the core haplotypes, represent variation accumulated during expansion. The simplest explanation for divergent cluster A, which comprised a single common haplotype (S30) detected only at Horozuki, is that this haplotype immigrated from an allopatrically divergent lineage occurring outside the study area, with the migration so recent that no genetic variation has accumulated.

Overall, *Echinoderes* sp. A. showed high h and low π, indicative of a population bottleneck followed by rapid expansion (Grant and Bowen, 1998). The haplotype network (Fig. 3A) is dominated by a common, widespread haplotype (H45), detected in 53% of the individuals sampled, and at seven of eight sampling sites. A less common and widespread haplotype (H20) contributed to a separate cluster restricted to eastern Hokkaido. Each cluster shows a star-like topology. Significantly large, negative Tajima’s D and Fu’s FST values overall and for each cluster (Table 4) indicate less variation than expected and corroborate a population reduction followed by expansion. The simple explanation for the limited distribution of the eastern cluster is that it represents an allopatrically diverged lineage, formerly restricted farther to the northeast, whose range is expanding southwestward along the Kurile Archipelago, forming a zone of secondary contact with the western lineage at Nemuro. Haplotype and nucleotide diversities for the eastern cluster (Table 4) are both low, and both lower than for the western cluster, suggestive of a founder event associated with a range expansion. The apparent lack of western-cluster haplotypes at Akkeshi is interesting, and suggests that the western lineage went locally extinct there prior to an influx of eastern-cluster haplotypes; the eastern lineage arrived in Akkeshi long enough ago that we detected five private haplotypes (H01–H05; Table 1) occurring there but not at Nemuro.

### Connectivity among populations

For *E. sensibilis*, connectivity was restricted (range of FST, 0.206–0.502) among most of the four local populations sampled (Table 3), but less so between Fukaura and Asamushi (FST = 0.085), which is difficult to explain because Horozuki lies between Fukaura and Asamushi yet shows less connection to either population. Degree of isolation across Tsugaru Strait between Tobetsu on Hokkaido and the three stations on northern Honshu increased with increasing straight-line distance, in the order Horozuki (FST = 0.260; 60 km), Asamushi (0.380; 90 km), Fukaura (0.502; 135 km).

For *Echinoderes* sp. A. there was high connectivity among most of the populations in western Hokkaido and northern Honshu, with non-significant FST values ranging from −0.003 to 0.006 (Table 5). The exception was Fukaura...
on the Sea of Japan with somewhat higher values \( (F_{ST}, 0.083–0.112) \) in comparisons with Oshoro, Muroran, and Asamushi. Connectivity was reduced between Nemuro and all sites in western Hokkaido and northern Honshu \( (F_{ST}, 0.228–0.250) \) except Fukaura \( (0.075) \), and quite low between Akkeshi and all other sites \( (F_{ST}, 0.595–0.933) \). The low sample size at Fukaura may have been a factor in the somewhat aberrant values in comparisons, although two of its \( F_{ST} \) values were significant \( (P < 0.01) \). Fukaura is also the farthest southwestern extent of the known range of \textit{Echinoderes} sp. A, and the low frequencies of this species at Horozuki and Fukaura might indicate these localities really are near the limit of the range. The high, significant values in most comparisons involving Nemuro and Akkeshi were undoubtedly due to the occurrence of haplotypes in the divergent eastern lineage only at those sites.

**Tsugaru Strait as a dispersal barrier**

Tsugaru Strait has a complex geological and paleoceanographic history. Present-day oceanographic conditions in the strait have existed only for roughly the past 8000 years; during at least one previous interval \( (95–27 \text{ ka}) \) the Tsushima Current (and thus also the Tsugaru Current) did not exist, and during another interval \( (17–10 \text{ ka}) \) the cold Oyashio Current flowed westward through the strait \( (Oba, 2006) \). Tsugaru Strait became much shallower during glacial maxima throughout the Pleistocene, but it remains controversial whether the strait was ever completely closed by a land bridge \( (Fuji, 1990; Ohshima, 1990; Yashima and Miyauchi, 1990; Keigwin and Gorbarenko, 1992) \) due to uncertainty over the magnitude of sea level drops during glacial maxima.

The lowest average inter-population K2P distances for either species were in the range of 0.09–0.18% in comparisons of local populations of \textit{Echinoderes} sp. A among Oshoro, Asamushi, Muroran, and Tobetsu \( (Table 5) \); a COI divergence rate of 1.6% Myr\(^{-1}\), the average of five published COI rate values for marine invertebrates \( (Dick et al., 2009) \), gives divergence times of 56–113 ka. While this estimate is extremely rough, it suggests that the observed ranges and geographical population structures of the two kinorhynchs were shaped over a much longer time span than during the past 8000 years. This means that any role Tsugaru Strait played in determining these patterns likely occurred when conditions in the strait were different from those today.

Moderately high \( F_{ST} \) values \( (0.260–0.502) \) for \textit{E. sensibilis} between Tobetsu and the Honshu sites indicate currently limited genetic exchange across the strait. This in itself does not clearly implicate the strait as a causative factor in the range boundary, however, because \( F_{ST} \) values are similarly moderately high in comparisons between Horozuki and the other two sites on Honshu \( (Fukauro, F_{ST} = 0.266; Asamushi, F_{ST} = 0.206) \). The main evidence that Tsugaru Strait has somehow restricted \textit{E. sensibilis} dispersal is that it constitutes the northern range boundary of this species. We detected \textit{E. sensibilis} on Hokkaido only at Tobetsu, the site closest to any of the Honshu sites \( (60 \text{ km from Horozuki}) \), and it may be that \textit{E. sensibilis} occasionally disperses across the strait but establishes only ephemeral populations there. Of the two haplotypes observed among five individuals at Tobetsu, however, one \( (S33) \) was shared only with the distant Fukaura population, and one was a private haplotype, suggesting that dispersal was not from Horozuki and was not recent.

A possible explanation for the northern distributional boundary of \textit{E. sensibilis} at Tsugaru Strait is that this is a warm-adapted species that reaches a limit of temperature tolerance at Tsugaru Strait. However, while Nemuro and Akkeshi in eastern Hokkaido show average summer and winter sea surface temperatures 5–6°C lower than in the vicinity of Tsugaru Strait, our study sites in northern Honshu and southwestern Hokkaido all fall within the same 2°C isotherm interval in summer and winter, and annual mean salinity nearshore varies little, from 33.5 to 34.5‰ \( (Tomczak and Godfrey, 2003) \). There is thus no obvious environmental explanation why we failed to detect \textit{E. sensibilis} at Oshoro or Muroran in southern Hokkaido.

While there is no genetic or distributional evidence that Tsugaru Strait has acted as a N-S dispersal barrier for \textit{Echinoderes} sp. A, our results are not informative as to whether the strait currently inhibits dispersal. Dispersal across the strait could have preceded the past 8000 years, the interval during which conditions currently existing in the strait have prevailed, with the low \( F_{ST} \) values between the Hokkaido (Tobetsu, Muroran, Oshoro) and northern Honshu \( (Fukauro, Asamushi) \) populations due to widespread, common haplotype H45 \( (Table 1; Fig. 3B) \) and reflecting geologically recent but currently restricted gene flow. Historical factors that could produce low \( F_{ST} \) values include geologically recent shared ancestry of geographically fragmented populations, or an extensive, geologically recent range expansion from a single local population \( (Whitlock and McCauley, 1998; Templeton, 1998) \). High proportions of private haplotypes per site \( (33–81\%) \) at sites with more than one specimen \( (Table 1) \) indicate that gene flow among populations may in fact be less than the low \( F_{ST} \) values suggest.

Both \textit{E. sensibilis} and \textit{Echinoderes} sp. A appear to be confined to the intertidal and nearshore subtidal zones. This raises the question how these sediment-dwelling, direct-developing, nearshore species disperse at all across the strait, which is 18 km and 20 km across at its two narrowest points. One possibility is that individuals dislodged from the sediment by wave action become suspended in the water column and are transported by wind-generated, tidal, or oceanic currents. In fact, suspension is a common occurrence for meiofauna \( (Palmer, 1988; Boeckner et al., 2009) \), including kinorhynchs \( (Palmer and Gust, 1985) \), and transport rates of up to 10 km/day have been documented for suspended meiofauna \( (Hagerman and Rieger, 1981) \). The other possibility is dispersal by rafting. Drifting wood or clumps of detached algae or marine grasses can harbor diverse assemblages of sessile and motile macrobenthic invertebrates \( (Highsmith, 1985; Thiel and Gutow, 2005) \) and can transport them hundreds to thousands of kilometers \( (Jokiel, 1990; Fraser et al., 2011) \). Kinorhynchs could potentially be transported in sediment bound in holdfasts, in crevices in the rafts themselves, or among sessile animals attached to the rafts.

The question remains as to why the distributions of the two species differ with respect to Tsugaru Strait. A mechanistic hypothesis is that unknown differences in the natural histories of these species affect their susceptibility to disper-
sal by suspension transport or rafting. However, historical scenarios could also explain the differences between the two species in geographical pattern and estimated connectivity among populations. For example, assume that the low stand sea level during the last glacial maximum (roughly 19–26 ka) approached or exceeded ~130 m, the present sill depth, and that a shoal area or land bridge formed between Hokkaido and Honshu, permitting uninterrupted N–S dispersal of intertidal species along the Pacific and Sea of Japan coasts. Also assume that *Echinoderes* sp. A was a more northerly distributed, cold-adapted species and *Echinoderes sensibilis* a more southerly distributed, warm-adapted species. In this scenario, if cooler sea-surface temperatures during the glacial maximum caused the ranges of both species to shift southward, *Echinoderes* sp. A but not *Echinoderes sensibilis* would have dispersed southward along the shores of the land bridge. As the climate subsequently warmed, Tsugaru Strait reappeared and both species’ ranges shifted northward. Assuming that neither species has dispersed well across the strait under conditions subsequent to the last glacial maximum, *Echinoderes* sp. A would have been left with a distribution on both sides of the strait, whereas *Echinoderes sensibilis* would have stopped at the strait, possibly with only infrequent, temporary incursions across. This scenario shows how differences in the apparent connectivity of populations across the strait could be due to historical factors—e.g., differences between the two species in historical ranges, climatic adaptation, and the magnitude and timing of population reductions and expansions.

We are aware of some deficiencies in our study. Broader geographical sampling might have clarified whether the eastern cluster of *Echinoderes* sp. A is in fact distributed along the Kurile Archipelago northeast of Hokkaido; detected the southern extent of the range of *Echinoderes* sp. A; and possibly detected the source of the cluster-A population of *E. sensibilis* at Horozuki. In addition, our study is based on a single, unparentally inherited mitochondrial locus, which can give a non-representative view of demographic history, or a misleading one if selection is involved (Hare, 2001). On the other hand, mtDNA loci appear to be more robust and sensitive indicators of patterns of population history than nuclear loci (Zink and Barrowclough, 2007). Future work with broader geographical coverage and additional markers can test our results.

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