

ADAPTIVE GAMETE-RECOGNITION DIVERGENCE IN A HYBRIDIZING *MYTILUS* POPULATION

Stevan A. Springer^{1,2} and Bernard J. Crespi¹

¹Department of Biosciences, Behavioural Ecology Research Group, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia, V5A 1S6, Canada

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Gamete-recognition proteins often evolve rapidly, but it is not known if their divergence occurs within species and corresponds with the evolution of reproductive isolation, or if divergence typically accumulates between already isolated lineages. We examined the evolution of a candidate gamete-recognition protein in several sympatric and allopatric populations of *Mytilus* blue mussels, species that hybridize in nature. Within a single species, *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, we found adaptive divergence of Lysin-M7, a sperm acrosomal protein that dissolves the egg vitelline envelope during fertilization. *Mytilus galloprovincialis* Lysin-M7 alleles group into two distinct clades (termed G and G_D), and individual alleles in these clades are separated from each other by at least three and up to eleven amino-acid substitutions. Maximum-likelihood estimates of selective pressure ($dN/dS = \omega$) implicate selection in the divergence between *M. galloprovincialis* Lysin-M7 clades, and within the G_D clade. Exact tests of population differentiation indicate that the relative frequency of G and G_D Lysin-M7 alleles differs significantly among *M. galloprovincialis* populations. Compared with allopatric Mediterranean samples, Lysin-M7 alleles in the G_D clade are found at elevated frequency in samples from the East Atlantic and California, areas of secondary contact and hybridization between *Mytilus* species, and Australia, an area of unknown species composition. Adaptive divergence between the alleles most common in allopatry and those found at elevated frequency in samples from sympatry suggests that selection pressures acting in hybridizing populations, likely following Pleistocene secondary contact with *M. edulis* in the East Atlantic, drove the divergence of Lysin-M7 in *M. galloprovincialis*.

KEY WORDS: Adaptive evolution, gamete-recognition, hybridization, *Mytilus*, prezygotic isolation, reinforcement, sexual conflict.

Gamete-recognition proteins are gene products that mediate sperm–egg interactions during fertilization. Gamete incompatibility can result from a mismatch between sperm and egg recognition proteins, and these failures during fertilization are sufficient to reproductively isolate even closely related taxa (Metz et al. 1994; Palumbi 1998; Swanson and Vacquier 2002). Studies of the molecular evolution of gamete-recognition proteins yield a pattern which is therefore quite remarkable: both sperm and egg recognition proteins are often subject to positive selection that drives rapid divergence between species (Swanson and Vacquier 2002). Surveys of variation at loci encoding

gamete-recognition proteins indicate that adaptive protein divergence is often found between species that are broadly sympatric: abalone (Vacquier et al. 1997; Yang et al. 2000), *Tegula* (Hellberg and Vacquier 1999), and sea urchins (Geyer and Palumbi 2003; Zigler and Lessios 2003; McCartney and Lessios 2004). This pattern is not always evident between species that diverged in allopatry (Metz et al. 1998). The divergence of gamete-recognition proteins is sufficient to produce strong reproductive isolation between species, as evidenced by fertilization or vitelline envelope dissolution assays in sea urchins (Metz et al. 1994; McCartney and Lessios 2002), abalone (Swanson and Vacquier 1997), and *Tegula* (Hellberg and Vacquier 1999). Gametic isolation due to the divergence of gamete-recognition proteins may therefore be a primary mechanism maintaining

²Present address: Department of Biology, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98195. E-mail: stevan@u.washington.edu.

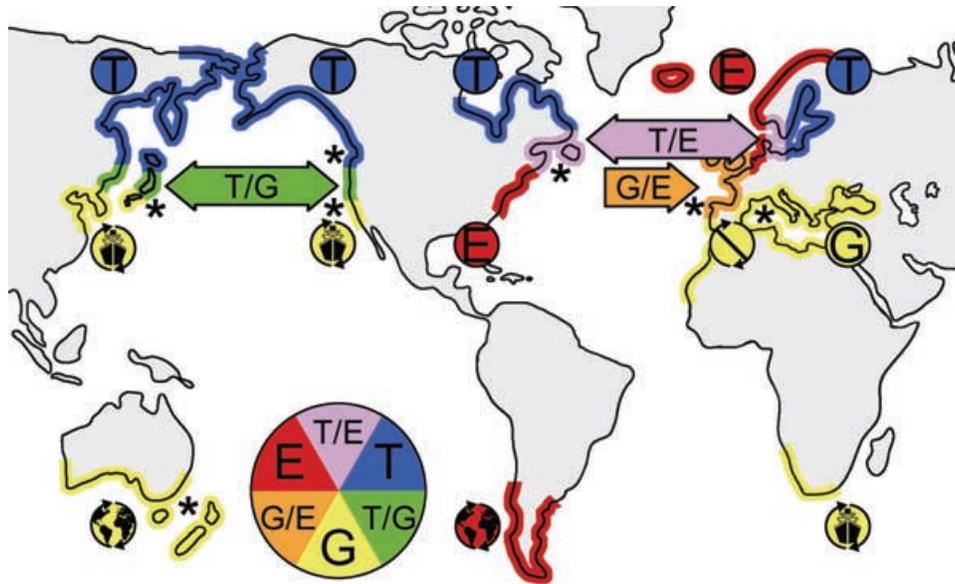


Figure 1. Global distribution of hybridizing *Mytilus* species. Primary colors represent allopatric populations: *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (yellow), *M. edulis* (red), *M. trossulus* (blue). Hybrid populations are shown with the appropriate secondary color. Circled letters are adjacent to populations in their natural range, globes represent populations transported during the Pleistocene transatlantic exchange (~1.5 million years ago; Hilbish et al. 2000), ships identify populations introduced by human activities (McDonald and Koehn 1988; Geller et al. 1994), the voided arrows denote an oceanographic barrier that divides genetically distinct *M. galloprovincialis* populations (Quesada et al. 1995; Sanjuan et al. 1997; Daguin and Borsa 1999). Two *M. trossulus*, *M. galloprovincialis* hybrid zones exist in the Pacific and two *M. trossulus*, *M. edulis* hybrids zones in the Atlantic. The origin of Baltic *M. trossulus* and the species composition of southern hemisphere populations are uncertain. Asterisks indicate sampled regions; sampling details for each region are in Table 1.

species boundaries in sympatric populations of broadcast-spawning taxa.

In addition to maintaining existing species boundaries, gamete-recognition divergence could also contribute to the origin of new species, but only if adaptive divergence contributes to initial reductions in reproductive compatibility between incipient species, and not just species differences following speciation (Templeton 1981; Butlin 1987). Gamete-recognition protein divergence accumulates more rapidly among taxa with sympatric ranges than those that likely diverged in allopatry (Yang et al. 2000; Zigler and Lessios 2003), but adaptive gamete-recognition protein divergence can, and does, continue to accumulate in sympatric populations after reproductive isolation is complete (Geyer and Palumbi 2003). It is therefore difficult to determine if gamete-recognition divergence coincides with the evolution of reproductive isolation, or if divergence typically accumulates between lineages that are already reproductively isolated; yet this is a crucial distinction for studies of speciation. Evaluating the divergence of gamete-recognition proteins in naturally hybridizing populations could provide direct evidence that gamete-recognition evolution contributes to the early stages of the evolution of reproductive isolation (Templeton 1981; Butlin 1987). However, natural hybrids are rare among most species whose gamete-recognition proteins have thus far been studied (Palumbi and Metz 1991; Brown 1995).

Mytilus blue mussels are globally distributed marine bivalves common to temperate and polar rocky intertidal shores, and share many of the life-history traits common to the broadcast-spawning marine invertebrates discussed above. However, *Mytilus* species are only partially reproductively isolated and produce natural hybrids in areas of sympatry (Hilbish et al. 2000; Fig. 1). Three *Mytilus* species hybridize in nature: *Mytilus trossulus*, native to the North Atlantic and Pacific, and the sister-species *M. edulis*, native to the Atlantic coasts of Europe and North America, and *M. galloprovincialis*, native to the Mediterranean (Hilbish et al. 2000; Fig. 1). Range overlap following movement of *M. trossulus* from the Pacific has produced a pair of hybrid zones between *M. edulis* and *M. trossulus* one in the western North Atlantic, and another in the Baltic Sea (Riginos and Cunningham 2005). Relaxation of a barrier to oceanographic exchange separating the Mediterranean and Atlantic Ocean basins resulted in secondary contact of *M. edulis* and *M. galloprovincialis* during the Pleistocene (Gardner 1994; Quesada et al. 1995). These two taxa now form an extensive hybrid zone on the Atlantic coast of Europe between Spain and Britain (Bierne et al. 2003b). The natural ranges of *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. trossulus* do not overlap, but transport in shipping vessel ballast water has introduced *M. galloprovincialis* to the Pacific, creating secondary contact with *M. trossulus* and resulting in a pair of hybrid zones, one in California

(McDonald and Koehn 1988; Geller et al. 1994; Rawson et al. 1999) and another in Japan (Suchanek et al. 1997; Skurikhina et al. 2001).

Mytilus species remain genetically distinct, despite hybridization and considerable larval dispersal potential, because of the combined action of a number of barriers to interspecific gene exchange. Partial postzygotic isolation due to endogenous hybrid incompatibility has been documented between *M. edulis* and *M. galloprovincialis* (Bierne et al. 2006) and similar barriers likely exist between these species and the more distantly related *M. trossulus*. Partial prezygotic isolation between *Mytilus* species results from spatial separation due to habitat isolation (Gosling and McGrath 1990; Bierne et al. 2003a), asynchronous spawning (Toro et al. 2002; Bierne et al. 2003a), and assortative gamete interaction (Bierne et al. 2002; Rawson et al. 2003).

No specific molecular interaction has yet been implicated in creating assortative gamete interaction or fusion in *Mytilus*, but biochemical assays examining the effect of egg compounds added to sperm–egg suspensions on fertilization rates suggest that variation in carbohydrate recognition may be an important component of the sperm–egg recognition process (Focarelli et al. 1991; Togo and Morisawa 1997). The most thoroughly characterized gamete-recognition protein candidates in *Mytilus* are the lysins, a family of sperm acrosomal proteins named for their lytic activity against the egg vitelline envelope (Takagi et al. 1994). Three members of the lysin gene family, Lysin-M3, M6, and M7, together comprise approximately 70% of *Mytilus* acrosomal protein content (Takagi et al. 1994). Conserved features of their primary amino-acid sequence indicate that *Mytilus* lysins are C-type lectins, members of a protein family whose carbohydrate-binding activity has been subject to detailed structural and functional investigations (Takagi et al. 1994; Drickamer and Fadden 2002). A previous study ex-

amined the molecular evolution of Lysin-M7 between allopatric populations of *Mytilus* species and found evidence of a selective sweep, resulting in a single amino-acid replacement fixed between *M. edulis* and *M. galloprovincialis* alleles (Riginos and McDonald 2003).

Here we examine the possibility that selective factors acting in naturally hybridizing populations drive the evolution of gamete-recognition proteins. In surveys of Lysin-M7 polymorphism in multiple sympatric and allopatric *Mytilus* populations, we found two distinct Lysin-M7 clades within a single species, *M. galloprovincialis*. Sequence differences between these two clades appear to result from the adaptive divergence of one of the two clades (G_D). Lysin-M7 G_D alleles are more abundant in samples from the East Atlantic than they are in allopatric *M. galloprovincialis* samples, and the divergence of G_D may have been a consequence of secondary contact and hybridization between *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. edulis*.

Methods

SAMPLING

Individual mussels >30 mm shell length were collected from seven regions worldwide: four regions where *Mytilus* species are known to co-occur and hybridize, and three regions known to contain only a single *Mytilus* species (Hilbish et al. 2000). Subsamples were collected from geographically separated locations in three of these regions; sampling locations and dates are detailed in Table 1. All sampled mussels were collected from subtidal low wave-action sites, and reproductive maturity was checked by visual inspection of gonad tissue. Immature and spent individuals were not retained for analysis. Archival mantle tissue from sampled individuals was stored in 95% ethanol at -20°C , and gonad tissue from reproductively mature individuals was preserved in

Table 1. Sampling locations and dates.

Population allo/sympatric	Location	<i>N</i>	Sampling date	Coordinates
Mediterranean	Venice Italy (VE)	10	February, 2003	45°25'45"N 12°19'40"E
G (Allopatric)	Rapallo Italy (RP)	10	February, 2003	44°20'55"N 9°13'51"E
	Iraklion Greece (IK)	9	February, 2003	35°20'33"N 25°08'06"E
Atlantic-East G/E (sympatric)	Vigo Spain (VG)	26	May, 2004	42°13'45"N 8°42'50"W
Pacific-California T/G (sympatric)	Eureka, CA (EK)	8	January, 2002	40°48'33"N 124°07'30"W
	San Raphael, CA (RF)	4	January, 2002	37°53'05"N 122°26'35"W
	Oyster Point, CA (OP)	5	January, 2002	37°35'18"N 122°19'02"W
	Morro Bay, CA (MB)	12	January, 2002	35°19'45"N 120°49'57"W
	San Diego, CA (SD)	12	January, 2002	32°38'02"N 117°06'32"W
Pacific-Japan T/G (sympatric)	Kobe Japan (KO)	14	April, 2002	34°40'44"N 135°10'32"E
Australia G (unknown)	Sydney Australia (AU)	8	March, 2003	33°52'29"S 151°13'51"E
Atlantic-West T/E (sympatric)	Clareville, NF (NF)	14	July, 2001	48°09'00"N 53°53'56"W
Pacific-North T (allopatric)	Haynes, AK (HA)	4	April, 2002	59°14'23"N 135°26'32"W
	Oyster Bay, BC (OB)	17	August, 2000	49°57'53"N 125°12'23"W

RNA Later (Ambion, Applied Biosystems, St. Austin, TX, USA at -20°C .

GENOTYPING AND SEQUENCING

All sampled individuals were genotyped at two marker loci: GLU (Rawson et al. 1996), which is diagnostic for all three *Mytilus* species, and EFbis (Bierne et al. 2002), which can resolve *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. edulis*, but produces bands of similar size for *M. edulis* and *M. trossulus* on agarose gels. The GLU and EFbis loci were amplified using published PCR primers and reaction conditions. Primers that amplify the 540 bp (base pairs) coding region of Lysin-M7 and flanking regions from cDNA (M7-143F, 5' GTC TTT TGT GCA GCA CTT ATT GT 3' and M7-874R 5' TTC ACT CTT CAC TTG TCA TGT G 3') were designed using published Lysin-M7 cDNA sequence (Takagi et al. 1994). PCR amplifications of Lysin-M7 (35 cycles of 94°C , 55°C , and 72°C for 30 sec each, followed by a 5 min 72°C extension) were performed on cDNA reverse transcribed (Amersham RT-PCR Beads) from the total RNA of mature gonad tissue (Qiagen RNeasy). PCR products were cloned (Qiagen PCR Cloning^{plus}) and at least five clones per individual were sequenced on both strands (Perkin Elmer Big Dye Terminator, ABI automated sequencer) using SP6 and T7 primers. A maximum of two alleles were recovered from any one individual suggesting that these PCR primers amplify a single expressed locus. Lysin-M7 sequences are reproducible across reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) reactions, clones, and individuals, and are therefore not the product of PCR template switching or RT-PCR artefacts. Sequences have NCBI GenBank Accession numbers: Lysin-M7, EF079677–EF079825, and D14731 (Takagi et al. 1994); Lysin-M6, JX0349 (Takagi et al. 1994); and AY131183 (Riginos and McDonald 2003).

ANALYSIS

A network of genealogical relationships was estimated by statistical parsimony at 95% parsimony probability using TCS (Clement et al. 2000). Phylogenetic relationships and topology confidence estimates were generated by PAUP 4.0b10 (neighbor-joining uncorrected p distance, 100,000 bootstrap replicates, 80% majority-rule consensus) (Swofford 2001). Clade specific maximum-likelihood estimates of nonsynonymous (dN) and synonymous (dS) substitution rate ratios ($dN/dS = \omega$) and associated likelihood ratio test statistics, were generated using PAML 3.13 (Yang 1997). Pairwise maximum-likelihood ω -ratio estimates were also made with PAML (codon frequency = F3X4, κ estimated).

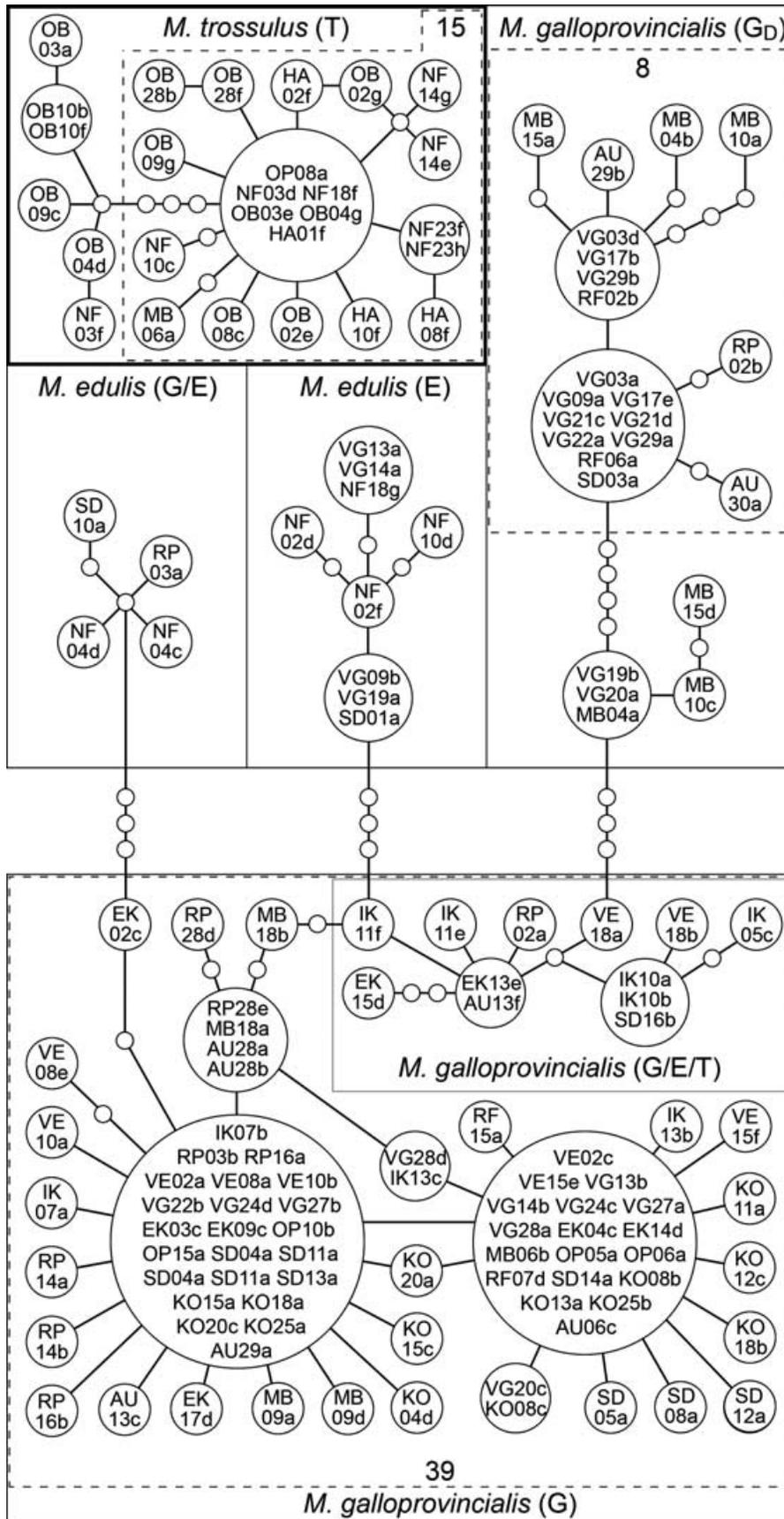
Protein sequence alignments of the C-type lectin carbohydrate-recognition domain of human tetranectin (PDB: 1TN3) and Lysin-M7 were generated by ESYPred3D (Lambert et al. 2002). Homology between these two carbohydrate-recognition domains was used to model the three-dimensional structure of Lysin-M7 based on the crystal structure of human tetranectin (percent amino-acid identity with human tetranectin carbohydrate-recognition domain: T 25.9%, G_D 27.3%). Structural models were generated by ESYPred3D and visualized in Pymol (Delano 2002).

Exact tests of sample differentiation (10,000 Markov chain, 1,000 dememorization steps) (Raymond and Rousset 1995) were conducted using Arlequin 2.001 (Schneider et al. 2000) based on the frequency of G, and G_D alleles in the California, Japan, Australia, East Atlantic, and Mediterranean population samples. The possible presence of recombination events was assessed with the four-gamete test using DNAsp 3.0 (Hudson and Kaplan 1985; Rozas and Rozas 1999), and also using a Genetic Algorithm for Recombination Detection (GARD) implemented in HyPhy on the Datamonkey server (Pond and Frost 2005; Pond et al. 2006).

Results

Lysin-M7 alleles group into five clades whose species composition were inferred using two diagnostic species markers, GLU and EFbis (Individual genotypes at all three loci are included as supplementary material). The data reveal two divergent *M. galloprovincialis* clades (G and G_D), one *M. trossulus* clade (T), and two *M. edulis* clades (E and G/E) (Figs. 2 and 3). Analyzing the two *M. edulis* clades separately or together does not significantly change parameter estimates for other clades, and we report estimates assuming a single ω -ratio for all *M. edulis* alleles. Branch-specific maximum-likelihood estimates of selection (Yang 1997) on the complete Lysin-M7 coding region detect adaptive evolution ($\omega > 1$) among divergent *M. galloprovincialis* (G_D) alleles and between these alleles and previously identified *M. galloprovincialis* (G) alleles (Takagi et al. 1994; Riginos and McDonald 2003; Tables 2 and 3, Fig. 3). Pairwise maximum-likelihood estimates are consistent with this result, finding positive selection only in the G_D radiation; within clades (G_D , max $\omega = 2.762$; G, max $\omega = 1.039$; E, max $\omega = 0.575$; T, max $\omega = 0.679$) and between clades ($G_D|G$, max $\omega = 3.893$, $G_D|E$, max $\omega = 1.006$; $G_D|T$, max $\omega = 0.546$; all other comparisons, max $\omega = 0.453$).

Figure 2. Genealogical relationships among *Mytilus* Lysin-M7 alleles. Black boxes delimit the clades identified by neighbor-joining bootstrap at 80% consensus (see Methods). The alleles in dashed boxes are represented by triangles in Figure 3. *Mytilus galloprovincialis* G/E/T alleles are shown in a gray box to facilitate comparison with Table 5. *Mytilus trossulus* alleles form an independent network, the number of differences between *M. trossulus* and other *Mytilus* clades exceeds the 95% probable parsimony limit of 10 mutational steps. Individual genotypes at all three loci are available as supplementary material.



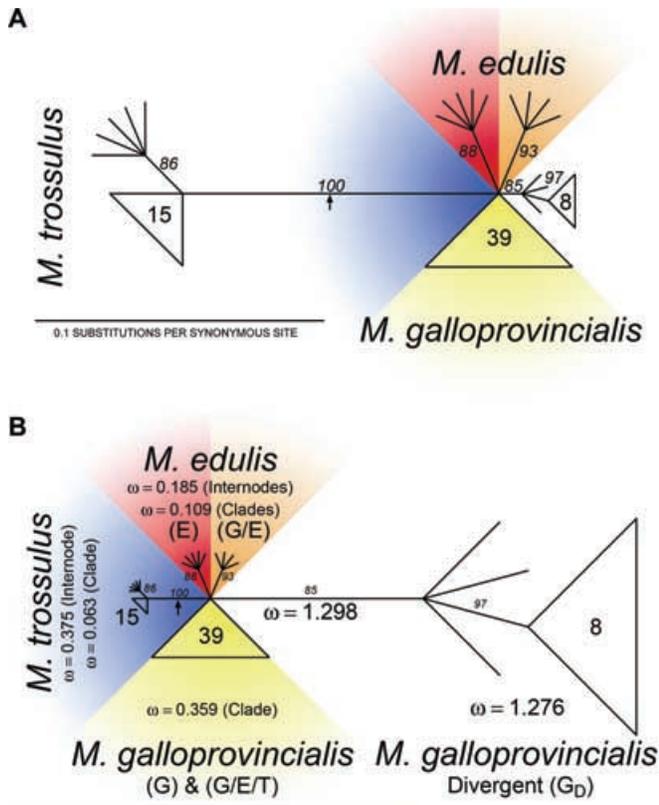


Figure 3. Phylogenetic relationships among unique *Mytilus* Lysin-M7 alleles. Tips represent individual alleles; clades with more than five alleles are represented by triangles each enclosing the indicated number of unique alleles (Fig. 2). (A) Branch lengths represent the number of substitutions per synonymous site, a measure of neutral evolution. Bootstrap support values are italicized; arrows indicate the position of the root, determined with Lysin-M6 (Riginos and McDonald 2003). (B) The same topology with branch-lengths scaled to represent clade-specific estimates of selection. Estimates of selective pressure (Yang 1997) exceed the neutral expectation ($\omega = 1$) in the divergent *Mytilus galloprovincialis* clade indicating that G_D is a product of adaptive divergence.

Exact tests of population differentiation indicate that G_D alleles are significantly more abundant in samples from the East Atlantic, California, and Australia than they are in Mediterranean samples (Raymond and Rousset 1995; Table 4).

The three acrosomal lysin proteins, M3, M6, and M7 found in *Mytilus* sperm result from two gene duplication events (Takagi et al. 1994), and the possibility that the divergence of the G_D clade also follows a gene duplication event within *M. galloprovincialis* therefore deserves consideration. Our sampling of multiple clones of Lysin-M7 PCR product has thus far yielded a maximum of two alleles per individual, and a cDNA library of multiple *M. galloprovincialis* individuals from an allopatric Mediterranean population uncovered five G alleles and zero G_D alleles. Eleven ESTs matched recognized sperm lysins: five M7, one M6, and five M3;

as well as two ESTs that indicate a possible duplication of M3 (Venier et al. 2003). These data suggest that a single Lysin-M7 locus is expressed, and confirm the rarity of G_D alleles in another sample from the Mediterranean.

Methods of detecting recombination among Lysin-M7 alleles give conflicting results. The four-gamete test, which evaluates pairs of sites, infers a minimum of eight recombination events among Lysin-M7 alleles. However, breakpoint analysis methods, which look for discordance between topologies of trees constructed using subsets of the sequence, find no evidence of recombination. The apparent signal of recombination in Lysin-M7 may therefore be due to concerted evolution, or parallel amino-acid substitution (Zhang 2006). Independent evolution of the same amino acid at a given site could positively mislead methods of detecting recombination that only evaluate pairs of sites, but may not impact methods that search for breakpoints using larger blocks of sequence (Pond et al. 2006).

Repeated use of the same amino acids at specific positions is evident among *Mytilus* lysins. Three amino-acid replacements in G_D, relative to the most common G allele (98Y, 141R, 144P), are identical to those of Lysin-M6 alleles and not likely to have resulted from recombination, although these substitutions could be a product of concerted evolution. Position 56(S) is found in both *M. edulis* and *M. galloprovincialis* alleles, and position 180(A) is typical of *M. trossulus*, but is also present in derived products of the G_D radiation (Table 5). It is important to note that even if some of the variation in Lysin-M7 alleles is a product of recombination, the divergence of the G_D clade cannot be explained by recombination alone. If we consider only Lysin-M7 alleles, nine of the 12 amino-acid replacements observed in G_D are found exclusively in *M. galloprovincialis*, and seven of these are unique to the G_D clade (Table 5). Four amino-acid replacements (53A, 125G, 132I, 158S) are completely unique to the G_D clade and not observed in any other lysin allele sampled to date.

Homology models (Lambert et al. 2002) predicting the three-dimensional structure of the carbohydrate-recognition domain of Lysin-M7 indicate that amino-acid substitutions accumulated between species and during the intraspecific G_D radiation occur in or near regions whose functional importance has been confirmed in other C-type lectins by mutagenesis (Streicher and Sharon 2003; Fig. 4). Several amino-acid substitutions between Lysin-M7 alleles occur close to the inferred carbohydrate-binding region, including three positions (125, 144, and 158) that have been substituted once between *M. trossulus* and *M. galloprovincialis* and again within *M. galloprovincialis* in the G_D radiation (Fig. 4). Amino acid 144 is a particularly likely determinant of carbohydrate specificity, occurring two residues N-terminal of the functionally conserved group of amino acids that bind one of the two calcium molecules that coordinate lectin carbohydrate interaction (Drickamer and Fadden 2002). A substitution at residue 144 (S→A)

Table 2. Tests of selection on Lysin-M7, log-likelihood and parameter estimates under specific models of evolution. The best fit model is shown in boldface. Asterisks indicate comparisons that consider internode branches separately from their respective clades. For each model: lnL indicates the log-likelihood value obtained by PAML; np indicates the number of parameters; and κ indicates the estimated transition/transversion rate ratio. ω_{N_C} reports the estimated dn/ds rate ratio for the respective clade under each model, and ω_{N_I} the dn/ds rate ratio for the respective internode where appropriate.

Model	lnL	np	κ	ω_{T_C}	ω_{T_I}	ω_{E_C}	ω_{E_I}	ω_{G_C}	$\omega_{G_{D_C}}$	$\omega_{G_{DI}}$
A. 1 ratio: $\omega_T = \omega_E = \omega_G = \omega_{G_D}$	-2355.372393	84	3.821	0.282	—	0.282	—	0.282	0.282	—
B. 2 ratio: $\omega_T = \omega_E = \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}$	-2342.183942	85	3.824	0.208	—	0.208	—	0.208	1.282	—
C. 4 ratio: $\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}$	-2336.164184	87	3.827	0.145	—	0.116	—	0.359	1.281	—
D. 7 ratio: $\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}^*$	-2330.144177	90	3.820	0.063	0.375	0.109	0.185	0.359	1.276	1.298
E. 17 ratio: $\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \text{Free } \omega_{G_D}^*$	-2325.954071	100	3.820	0.063	0.375	0.109	0.185	0.359	free	1.298
F. Free ratio model	-2290.024833	165	3.822	free	free	free	free	free	free	free

Table 3. Tests of selection on Lysin-M7, likelihood ratio test statistics (χ^2) comparing specific models of evolution. Asterisks indicate that internode branches are considered separately from their respective clades. ω_N is the dn/ds rate ratio for the respective clade or internode. Boldface rows are comparisons with significantly different log-likelihood estimates as indicated by χ^2 tests.

Models	Null	Alternate	$2\Delta\ln L$	df	P
A vs. B	$\omega_T = \omega_E = \omega_G = \omega_{G_D}$	$\omega_T = \omega_E = \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}$	26.376902	1	0.001
B vs. C	$\omega_T = \omega_E = \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}$	$\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}$	12.039516	2	0.002
C vs. D	$\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}$	$\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}^*$	12.040014	3	0.007
D vs. E	$\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}^*$	$\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \text{Free } \omega_{G_D}^*$	8.380212	10	0.591
D vs. F	$\omega_T, \omega_E, \omega_G, \omega_{G_D}^*$	free ratio model	80.238688	75	0.318

was previously identified as a potential target of selection during the divergence of Lysin-M7 alleles between *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. edulis* (Riginos and McDonald 2003) and position 144 is substituted a second time (A–P) within *M. galloprovincialis* in derived alleles of the G_D radiation (Table 5).

Overall the spatial arrangement of substitutions in Lysin-M7 within *M. galloprovincialis* is similar to that between *M. trossulus* and *M. galloprovincialis*, and also to adaptive substitutions observed in the C-Type lectin domains of the sea urchin receptor for egg jelly (Fig. 4; Mah et al. 2005). Carbohydrate interaction has been identified as an important component of fertilization in *Mytilus* (Focarelli et al. 1991), and the presence of substitutions in putative functional regions of Lysin-M7 and repeated substi-

tutions at the same amino-acid sites suggests a role for at least some of these substitutions in modified carbohydrate recognition by Lysin-M7.

Discussion

INTRASPECIFIC DIVERGENCE OF LYSIN-M7

Adaptive gamete-recognition protein divergence has been documented between the species of a number of broadcast-spawning invertebrate taxa (Palumbi 1998; Swanson and Vacquier 2002). Implicating this divergence in the evolution of reproductive isolation ultimately requires examples of incipient gamete-recognition divergence within species. Adaptive divergence of a sperm

Table 4. Exact test of sample nondifferentiation. Boldface comparisons have significantly different frequencies of G and G_D alleles ($P = 0.05$). Counts of G and G_D alleles in each population are on the diagonal. Crosses represent populations with significantly elevated G_D frequency relative to allopatric Mediterranean samples. Global probability of nondifferentiation $P = 0.000$.

Population	Mediterranean	Atlantic-East	Pacific-California	Pacific-Japan	Pacific-Australia
allo/sympatric	G (allopatric)	G/E (sympatric)	T/G (sympatric)	T/G (sympatric)	G (unknown)
Mediterranean	$n = 28$ (27G, 1 G_D)	0.00000 ± 0.0000	0.01475 ± 0.0027	1.00000 ± 0.0000	0.00700 ± 0.0007
Atlantic-East	+	$n = 22$ (10G, 12 G_D)	0.01230 ± 0.0022	0.00000 ± 0.0000	0.09905 ± 0.0050
Pacific-California	+		$n = 37$ (28G, 9 G_D)	0.05080 ± 0.0030	0.66335 ± 0.0047
Pacific-Japan				$n = 14$ (14G, 0 G_D)	0.00000 ± 0.0000
Pacific-Australia	+				$n = 8$ (6G, 2 G_D)

Table 5. Lysin-M7 variation in *Mytilus* and alleles sampled in each population and location.

Population Allo/Sympatric	Clade	n	Amino Acid																	Sublocation(n)Singletons							
			012	014	018	029	046	053	056	064	086	094	098	108	109	112	125	132	138		141	143	144	158	163	175	180
			G	M	I	T	I	S	P	F	T	P	F	N	K	I	S	T	S	K	S	A	A	L	V	P	
Mediterranean G (Allopatric)	G	14	IK(2)4H RP(7)5D,82T,151R,179R VE(5)59G-165N IK(2)85R-172H VE(3)97A IK(4)12D,72T RP(1) VE(1) VE(1) IK(1) RP(1)77R RP(1)32L
	G/E/T	6	.	I	S	
		1	.	I	V	S	
		1	S	
	G _D	1	.	.	V	A	A	S	.	.	.	Y	.	G	.	R	P	S	A		
G/E	1	S		
Atlantic-East G/E (Sympatric)	G	3	VG(7)175A	
	G _D	2	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y		
		7	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	.	G	.	R	P	S	A			
		3	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	.	G	I	R	P	S	A			
	E	2	S	Y	S		
Pacific-California T/G (Sympatric)	G	12	EK(4) MB(3)75R OP(2) SD(3) MB(1) EK(2) OP(2) MB(1) RF(2) SD(5)7K,73N,137S EK(2)159R SD(1) MB(1) MB(2) MB(1) MB(2)21D-73E,35R-152A-159R RF(1) RF(1) SD(1) SD(1) SD(1) OP(1) MB(1)	
		1	F	.		
		12	.	.	V		
	G/E/T	3	.	I	S		
	G _D	1	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y		
		2	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	F	.		
		1	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	.	G	I	R	P	S	F	A			
		3	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	.	G	I	R	P	S	A			
		2	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	.	G	.	R	P	S	A		
	G/E	1	S		
Pacific-Japan T/G (Sympatric)	G	7	KO(7)96S KO(7)5C,18L,48S,175A	
		7	.	.	V		
Pacific-Australia G (Unknown)	G	4	AU(2)1S,29A	
	G/E/T	1	.	I	S		
	G _D	2	.	.	V	.	A	S	.	.	Y	.	G	I	R	P	S	A			
Atlantic-West T/E (Sympatric)	E	4	S	Y	S	NF(4)97A NF(2)173K NF(8)50K,113P		
	G/E	2	S			
	T	8	A	I	.	S	V	.	.	Q	S	.	Q	T	T	N	.	T	.	T	S	T	F	.			
Pacific-North T (Allopatric)	T	17	A	I	.	S	V	.	.	Q	S	.	Q	T	T	N	.	T	.	T	S	T	F	.	HA(4)165H OB(13)26K,130R,166K		
Lysin-M6	M6 G		N	N	.	.	.	E	.	Q	.	Y	Q	R	T	N	.	T	R	.	P	T	.	I	H		

Note: Dots represent identity with consensus. Colouring conventions follow Figure 1. Gray-shaded amino acids are identical to *Mytilus galloprovincialis* Lysin-M6. Location abbreviations are in bold. The number of times a given allele was sampled in each location is bracketed. Singleton amino-acid replacements are in italics, dashes separate singletons from the same allele.

acrosomal protein, Lysin-M7, is evident among populations of the blue mussel *M. galloprovincialis* (Fig. 3). Divergent (G_D) Lysin-M7 alleles exist at elevated frequency, relative to allopatric samples, in two sympatric hybridizing *M. galloprovincialis* populations: with *M. edulis* in the East Atlantic, and with *M. trossulus*

in California, and in one population of unknown species composition, Australia (Table 4).

The initial divergence of *M. galloprovincialis* Lysin-M7 likely occurred in the East Atlantic following a Pleistocene introduction across the Almeria-Oran front (Gardner 1994; Quesada

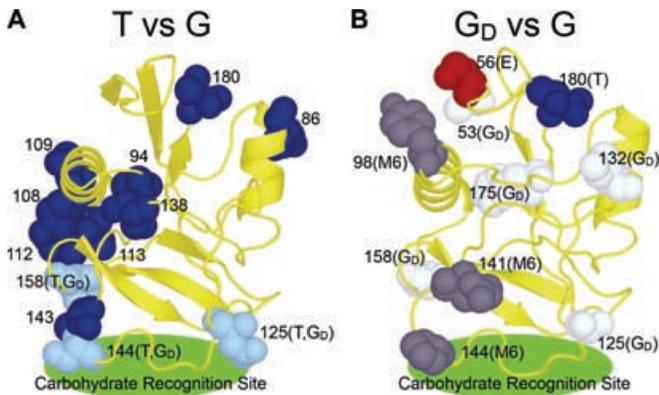


Figure 4. Spatial locations of amino-acid substitutions in the carbohydrate-recognition domain of *Mytilus* Lysin-M7. (A) Pairwise differences between T and G. Blue residues are typical of *Mytilus trossulus*, light blue (125, 144, 158) are substituted a second time in G_D . (B) Pairwise differences between G_D and G. White residues (53, 125, 132, 158, 175) are unique to G_D alleles, red (56) are identical to *M. edulis*, blue (180) to *M. trossulus*, and gray (98, 141, 144) to Lysin-M6 alleles from *M. galloprovincialis*. Yellow ribbons are sites identical to *M. galloprovincialis*. Numbers refer to the mature peptide; singletons are not shown (Table 5). In both comparisons amino-acid substitutions occur in or near regions known to affect carbohydrate specificity (Drickamer and Fadden 2002; Streicher and Sharon 2003).

et al. 1995) an oceanographic dispersal barrier that divides Atlantic and Mediterranean species assemblages and environments. Moderate divergence has accumulated between *M. galloprovincialis* populations on either side of this dispersal barrier even at apparently neutral loci, and the distribution of G and G_D Lysin-M7 alleles observed in this study is concordant with intraspecific allozyme, mitochondrial, and nuclear DNA discontinuities (Quesada et al. 1995; Sanjuan et al. 1997; Daguin and Borsa 1999). Divergence at multiple neutral loci suggests that genetic exchange was limited between the *M. galloprovincialis* populations that were introduced into sympatry and those that remained in allopatry following this Pleistocene introduction. Adaptive divergence of Lysin-M7 is evident in the G_D clade (Fig. 3), and G_D alleles are more abundant in the sympatric hybridizing populations of the East Atlantic than they are in samples from allopatric Mediterranean populations (Table 4). The initial divergence of Lysin-M7 G_D alleles could therefore be a response to selection pressures acting in this isolated *M. galloprovincialis* population following secondary contact and hybridization with *M. edulis* in the East Atlantic.

Divergent *M. galloprovincialis* Lysin-M7 alleles also occur outside the East Atlantic probably as a result of contemporary transport in the ballast water of shipping vessels, the same mechanism responsible for the initial (McDonald and Koehn 1988)

and continued (Geller et al. 1994) introduction of *M. galloprovincialis* to the Pacific. Ballast introduction of *M. galloprovincialis* is pervasive. Ten percent of individuals in Australia derive from contemporary introductions (Hilbish et al. 2000) and transport of Lysin-M7 alleles is evident in all but two of the populations sampled here (Table 5). The sources of worldwide *M. galloprovincialis* introductions are difficult to identify with certainty. For example, the most probable source of the Californian *M. galloprovincialis* population depends on which loci are examined. This study finds an association between California and the East Atlantic, but existing allozyme studies indicate that Californian populations more closely resemble Mediterranean *M. galloprovincialis* (McDonald and Koehn 1988; Sanjuan et al. 1997). One reason for this difference might be that introduced populations are mosaics resulting from continual reintroduction of individuals from a number of other populations.

Transport of *M. galloprovincialis* to California within the last several hundred years (Geller 1999) has resulted in the introduction and persistence of nearly the entire suite of G_D alleles (Table 5). This diversity could have been achieved by a single large introduction, but multiple introductions over time are more consistent with the increasing scale of ballast transport over the last century, and with the continued transport of marine invertebrate larvae in shipping vessels today (Geller et al. 1994; Drake and Lodge 2004). Interestingly, G_D alleles have not substantially reinvaded allopatric *M. galloprovincialis* populations despite close proximity and intense contemporary ballast exchange between the East Atlantic and the Mediterranean (Drake and Lodge 2004), nor are they present in our samples from sympatric populations in Japan, an area where hybrid individuals are rare (Suchanek et al. 1997; Table 5). The persistence of G_D alleles in California and their relative absence in Japan and the Mediterranean (Table 5), suggests either that hybridizing populations in California have received migrants from the East Atlantic to a greater extent than Japan and the Mediterranean, a pattern not consistent with allozyme data (McDonald and Koehn 1988; Sanjuan et al. 1997), or that individuals carrying G_D alleles may suffer some selective disadvantage in allopatric *M. galloprovincialis* populations and areas where hybrid individuals are rare.

An alternative to the hypothesis that G_D alleles diverged following secondary contact with *M. edulis*, is that G and G_D alleles diverged from each other due to intraspecific selection pressures while still in the Mediterranean. The differentiation observed in this study would then reflect local variation in allele frequencies, which itself could be maintained by intra- or interspecific selection pressures. These two scenarios may be difficult to disentangle, because the scale and intensity of ballast transport of *Mytilus* larvae between the East Atlantic and the Mediterranean are unknown, and difficult to estimate without a large number

of variable markers. Our sampling finds instances of G_D alleles in allopatry and G alleles in sympatry (Table 5); other surveys of these populations will certainly uncover more (Riginos et al. 2006). In the presence of ballast exchange, the relevant difference between these two scenarios is the pattern of historical divergence rather than the contemporary distribution. Our assertion, that Lysin-M7 divergence in *M. galloprovincialis* first occurred following introduction to the East Atlantic, predicts the existence of a discordance or cline in Lysin-M7 G and G_D allele frequencies at the mouth of the Mediterranean, matching those observed at other allozyme, mitochondrial, and nuclear loci (Quesada et al. 1995; Sanjuan et al. 1997; Daguin and Borsa 1999). There should be no such cline if the introduction of *M. galloprovincialis* into the East Atlantic had no effect on patterns of intraspecific variation in Lysin-M7. We also predict that G_D alleles are recent relative to most alleles in the G clade and should therefore exhibit reduced polymorphism in their adjacent non-coding regions.

LYSIN-M7 DIVERGENCE AND THE EVOLUTION OF REPRODUCTIVE ISOLATION

The effects of Lysin-M7 divergence on gametic compatibility between *Mytilus* species are currently unknown. If gamete-recognition protein divergence results in reduced sperm-egg compatibility in *Mytilus*, as it often does in other invertebrate species (Metz et al. 1994; Vacquier et al. 1995; Hellberg and Vacquier 1999), the divergence of Lysin-M7 could contribute to the reductions in gametic compatibility between *Mytilus* species, such as those observed between *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. edulis* (Bierne et al. 2002). Divergence of Lysin-M7 could also create reproductive isolation between allopatric *M. galloprovincialis* populations and those in sympatry as an indirect consequence of selection acting in sympatry (Howard 1993). A similar scenario has been proposed as a possible case of reinforcement in sea urchins (Geyer and Palumbi 2003).

Reproductive character displacement among sympatric non-hybridizing taxa is evident in abalone and urchins (Yang et al. 2000; Geyer and Palumbi 2003; Zigler and Lessios 2003), and our data indicate that sympatry may also exaggerate gamete-recognition divergence in populations that produce natural hybrids. The pattern reported here is explicitly consistent with the predictions of reinforcement given that *M. edulis*/*M. galloprovincialis* hybrids show endogenous reductions in hybrid fitness (Bierne et al. 2006). However, we emphasize that our data are not sufficient to implicate any particular selection mechanism in Lysin-M7 divergence, because we do not yet know the reasons for or the phenotypic effects of Lysin-M7 divergence. The adaptive divergence of Lysin-M7 in the East Atlantic is therefore equally consistent with other proposed selective mechanisms that could plausibly create selection on gamete recognition in sympatry, or even as a consequence of simple historical isolation

between *M. galloprovincialis* populations. Mechanisms such as sexual conflict over fertilization rate and polyspermy avoidance (Palumbi 1998; Swanson and Vacquier 2002), or sexual selection via female choice or competition for fertilization opportunities (Palumbi 1999), are all consistent with exaggerated gamete-recognition divergence in hybridizing populations.

Conclusion

We report an example of adaptive divergence of a gamete-recognition protein, Lysin-M7, within a single species, *M. galloprovincialis*. The existing evidence suggests that geographic isolation between subpopulations of *M. galloprovincialis* following a historical introduction may have allowed Lysin-M7 to diverge, and that selection pressures associated with secondary contact and hybridization between *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. edulis* may have provided the impetus for divergence. Adaptive evolution of Lysin-M7 occurs despite the fact that reproductive isolation is not yet complete between *Mytilus* species. Examining the contribution of this divergence to the early stages of speciation should therefore be possible.

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Supplementary Material

The following supplementary material is available for this article:

Table S1. Individual genotypes at Lysin-M7, GLU and Efbis loci.

This material is available as part of the online article from:

<http://www.blackwell-synergy.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2007.00073.x>

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