1 **Geographical and environmental contributions to genomic divergence in**
2 **mangrove forests**
3

Michele Fernandes da Silva[1,2], Mariana Vargas Cruz[1,2], João de Deus Vidal Júnior[1,2], Maria

Imaculada Zucchi[3], Gustavo Maruyama Mori[4], and Anete Pereira de Souza[1,2]

[1]Department of Plant Biology, Institute of Biology, University of Campinas (UNICAMP),

Campinas, SP, 13083-863, Brazil

[2]Center for Molecular Biology and Genetic Engineering, University of Campinas

(UNICAMP), Campinas, SP, 13083-875, Brazil

[3]São Paulo Agency for Agribusiness Technology (APTA), Piracicaba, SP, 13400-790, Brazil

[4]Institute of Biosciences, São Paulo State University (UNESP), São Vicente, SP, 11330-900,

Brazil

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Anete Pereira de Souza

Center for Molecular Biology and Genetic Engineering, University of Campinas

(UNICAMP). Avenue Cândido Rondom, 400, Campinas, SP, 13083-875, Brazil.

Telephone number: +55 19 3521 1132

E-mail: anete@unicamp.br

SHORT RUNNING TITLE: Isolation by environment in mangroves

ABSTRACT

Assessing the relative importance of geographical and environmental factors to the spatial

distribution of genetic variation can provide information about the processes that maintain

genetic variation in natural populations. With a globally wide but very restricted habitat

distribution, mangrove trees are a useful model for studies aiming to understand the

contributions of these factors. Mangroves occur along the continent–ocean interface of

tropical and subtropical latitudes, regions considered inhospitable to many other types of

plants. Here, we used landscape genomics approaches to investigate the relative

contributions of geographical and environmental variables to the genetic variation of two

black mangrove species, *Avicennia schaueriana* and *Avicennia germinans*, along the South

American coast. Using single nucleotide polymorphisms, our results revealed an important

role of ocean currents and geographical distance in the gene flow of *A. schaueriana* and an

isolation-by-environment pattern in the organization of the genetic diversity of *A. germinans*.

Additionally, for *A. germinans*, we observed significant correlations between genetic

variation with evidence of selection and the influence of precipitation regimens, solar

radiation and temperature patterns. These discoveries expand our knowledge about the

evolution of mangrove trees and provide important information to predict future responses of

coastal species to the expected global changes during this century.

KEYWORDS: adaptation of mangroves - coastal ecology - environmental gradient -

isolation by barrier - isolation by distance - molecular ecology.

INTRODUCTION

Environmental and geographical variation often affects the distribution of allele frequencies in natural populations by facilitating or limiting gene flow across space and driving selection of certain genotypes (Wang *et al.*, 2013; Sork, 2016; Murray *et al.*, 2019). For example, under an isolation-by-distance (IBD) model (Wright, 1943), geographical distance might limit dispersal, leading to the accumulation of divergences in allele frequency by genetic drift (Bradburd *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, under the isolation-by-barrier (IBB) model, a barrier to gene flow might abruptly reduce or even disrupt connectivity between individuals of a species (Barton, 1979). In addition to these models, genetic differentiation can increase in response to environmental differences, regardless of the geographical distance. This pattern, described by the isolation-by-environment (IBE) model (Wang & Bradburd, 2014), can be generated by a variety of ecological processes, such as selection against immigrants, leading to the evolution of locally adapted populations (Bradburd *et al.*, 2013).

The IBD, IBB and IBE models are not mutually exclusive and often co-occur in nature (Wang, 2013; Sexton *et al.*, 2014). Studies aiming to determine the factors that control the distribution patterns of genetic variation across space can provide relevant information about the underlying processes that generate and maintain genetic variation in natural populations (Lee & Mitchell-Olds, 2011; Wang & Bradburd, 2014). This knowledge is essential to predict future responses of current populations to environmental changes (Vincent *et al.*, 2013) and can contribute to decision-making processes aiming to minimize future biodiversity loss (Kovach *et al.*, 2012; Muñoz *et al.*, 2015; Wee *et al.*, 2019).

The field of research that seeks to clarify the roles of these factors in the distribution of the neutral and adaptive genetic variability of a species over space is known as landscape genomics (Joost *et al.*, 2007; Lowry, 2010; Schoville *et al.*, 2012; Vincent *et al.*, 2013). Recently, this approach has been applied increasingly to the study of non-model organisms

(Storfer *et al.*, 2018). Nevertheless, landscape genomic studies are mostly limited to animal

species, whereas studies on plants, especially tropical trees (Storfer *et al.*, 2010), remain very

limited despite their fundamental roles in global biogeochemical cycles (Jasechko *et al.*,

2013) and as habitat providers to most terrestrial biodiversity (Mannion *et al.*, 2014).

As sessile organisms, trees respond directly to the environment in which they live

(Holderegger *et al.*, 2010). Conversely, they often have high levels of gene flow, which tend

to reduce the strength of natural selection (Savolainen *et al.*, 2007). Thus, tree species that

often occur across wide latitudinal ranges along environmental gradients, such as mangrove

forests (Tomlinson, 1986), represent a promising biological model to investigate and

understand the effects of the environment on microevolutionary processes and population

dynamics.

Mangrove trees occur in a narrow area along the continent–ocean interface

(Tomlinson, 1986; Hamilton, 2020) of tropical and subtropical latitudes of the world, mainly

between 30°N and 30°S (Giri *et al.*, 2011). These species produce floating seeds or fruits,

referred to as 'propagules' (Tomlinson, 1986), which can disperse over long distances via

rivers and ocean surface currents (Van der Stocken *et al.*, 2019b). Their geographical

distribution is limited by the topography of the intertidal zone (Middleton, 2012) and,

frequently, by the occurrence of low temperatures (Morrisey *et al.*, 2010) and by patterns of

precipitation (Spalding *et al.*, 1997). However, environmental variations in their boundaries

are associated with different climatic thresholds (Osland *et al.*, 2017; Cavanaugh *et al.*,

2018) and oceanographic conditions (Soares *et al.*, 2012; Saintilan *et al.*, 2020).

Avicennia L. (Acanthaceae) is one of the most diverse and widely distributed

mangrove genera globally (Duke, 1991; Li *et al.*, 2016) and is highly abundant on the

Western Atlantic coastline (Schaeffer-Novelli *et al.*, 1990). In this region, *Avicennia* is

represented mainly by two of the three New World *Avicennia* species, namely, *Avicennia*

germinans (L.) L. and *Avicennia schaueriana* Stapf & Leechman ex Moldenke (Schaeffer-

Novelli *et al.*, 1990; Duke, 1991). These species present a partly sympatric distribution on

the South American coast, where they share a remarkable north– south pattern of genetic

divergence, as revealed by selectively neutral microsatellites (Mori *et al.*, 2015) and single

nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (Cruz *et al.*, 2019, 2020). A similar pattern of putatively

neutral genetic diversity has also been observed in other coastal species, such as *Rhizophora*

mangle (Pil *et al.*, 2011; Francisco *et al.*, 2018) and the mangrove- associated tree *Hibiscus*

pernambucensis (Takayama *et al.*, 2008). These findings probably indicate a prominent role

of the dispersal of floating propagules in shaping the overlapping north–south genetic

divergence of these trees, given the bifurcation of the South Equatorial Current (SEC) along

the Atlantic coast of South America (Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013).

In addition to neutral processes that shape the diversity of *Avicennia* species in this

region, recent studies have identified various genomic regions that might be associated with

adaptive processes relevant to the environmental context of mangroves (Cruz *et al.*, 2019,

2020). These variations have been attributed to climatic and oceanographic factors that vary

widely along the latitudinal gradient of the species distribution. Although these studies

provide insights into the role of the environment in the organization of the adaptive genetic

variation in *A. schaueriana* and *A. germinans*, the relative importance of neutral and non-

neutral abiotic factors remains unknown.

In this study, we explore the relative contributions of geographical and environmental

factors to the organization of the genetic diversity of *A. schaueriana* and *A. germinans* along

the Atlantic coast of South America. We collect previously published genetic information

and spatial and environmental data and conduct landscape genetic analyses to assess the

hypothesis that geographical distance, SEC bifurcation and climatic, oceanographic and tidal

variations drive population genetic differentiation of the two species, i.e. IBD, IBB and IBE

models. Considering the genetic structure inferred in previous studies (Cruz *et al.*, 2019,

2020; Mori *et al.*, 2015) and the environmental heterogeneity throughout the species

distribution, we expect that IBB and IBE will be the main models underlying the

geographical distance for both species. Finally, after identifying the factors influencing the

distributions of the genetic diversity for *A. schaueriana* and *A. germinans*, we discuss the

implications for conservation and provide suggestions to improve the long-term resilience of

the two black mangrove species.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Biological materials and genotyping of SNP markers

Biological materials were collected and SNP markers identified as described in previous

studies by Cruz *et al.* (2019) for *A. schaueriana* and by Cruz *et al.* (2020) for *A. germinans*.

Briefly, 77 *A. schaueriana* individuals were sampled from ten different locations and 48 *A.*

germinans from six different locations along the Brazilian coast (Fig. 1 and Table 1).

Assembly, mapping and SNP locus identification were performed using custom scripts

(SNPsaurus, LLC), which created a reference catalogue of abundant reads, retaining biallelic

loci present in $\geq 10\%$ of the samples. High-quality sequences were used, allowing a

maximum of 65% of missing data and one SNP per sequence and requiring a minimum

coverage of $8\times$ and a minor allele frequency ≥ 0.05 using Vcftools v.0.1.12b (Danecek *et al.*,

2011). A maximum reading cover of 56 was used (resulting from the product with the

average read depth and a standard deviation of 1.5 from the average) to reduce the paralogy

or low-quality genotype calls. In total, 6170 and 2297 SNP markers were identified for *A.*

schaueriana and *A. germinans*, respectively.

Detection of SNP loci with signatures of natural selection

The SNP loci with evidence of natural selection were identified previously by Cruz *et al.*

(2019, 2020). For *A. schaueriana*, 86 loci showed considerable deviations from neutral

expectations of interpopulation divergence. They were detected using two methods to

minimize false positives: LOSITAN (Antao *et al.*, 2008), with a confidence interval of 0.99

and a false-discovery rate (FDR) of 0.1, and *pcadapt* (Luu *et al.*, 2017), with an FDR of 0.1.

For *A. germinans*, 25 loci showed considerable deviations from the neutral expectations of

interpopulation divergence. For the latter species, in addition to LOSITAN (a confidence

interval of 0.99 and an FDR of 0.05) and *pcadapt* (an FDR of 0.05), SNP loci associated

with ecological variables were detected using latent factor mixed models (LFMM)

implemented in the *LEA* package (Frichot & François, 2015).

Estimation of genetic distances

To analyse the importance of geographical distance, oceanographic barriers and

environmental variables in spatial genetic divergence, we evaluated which model (IBD, IBB

or IBE) best described the distribution of the genetic diversity of each species based on

genome-wide SNP markers. To that end, we estimated the pairwise genetic differentiation

(Wright's F_{ST}; Wright, 1949) for the total set of SNP molecular markers and for the set of

SNP markers with evidence of selection using the *Hierfstat* package (Goudet, 2005) for R

v.3.6.2 (R Core Team, 2019).

Geographical and environmental distances and the oceanographic barrier

Pairwise geographical distances among populations were measured using the geographical

coordinates of the sampling sites (Table 1) with the global positioning system (Garmin

76CSx, WGS-84 standard; Garmin International Inc., Olathe, KS, USA). Distances between

points were estimated based on the contour of the Brazilian coast; thus, we considered

floating propagule-mediated dispersal (Van der Stocken *et al.*, 2019a). A binary matrix (zero

or one) was constructed based on the presence (one) or absence (zero) of the supposed

oceanographic barrier between each pair of sampling sites to determine the relative

significance of the pattern of splitting of the SEC into the Brazil Current (BC) and the North

Brazil Current (NBC) (Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013) (Fig. 1) for *A. schaueriana* and *A.*

germinans propagules (Cushman *et al.*, 2006; Robertson *et al.*, 2009; Legendre & Legendre,

2012; Wu *et al.*, 2016).

We obtained 42 environmental variables for each sampling site, with a resolution of

30 arc-s (~1 km in Ecuador), to evaluate the overall effect of the environment on the

distribution of genetic variation. In our dataset, we included 27 climatic variables derived

from the WorldClim temperature and precipitation datasets (v.1.4 and v.2.0; Fick &

Hijmans, 2017), ten oceanographic variables derived the MARSPEC ocean surface salinity

and temperature datasets (Sbrocco & Barber, 2013) and five variables related to tidal

variations retrieved from the Environmental Climate Data Sweden (ECDS) platform (Klein

et al., 2013). We removed variables that showed a high correlation ($r > 0.8$; Supporting

Information, Figure S1), as measured by the *removeCollinearity* function of the

virtualspecies package (Leroy *et al.*, 2016) in R (R Core Team, 2019), to avoid non-

independence between environmental variables. We extracted the values of the

environmental variables for our sample points (Supporting Information, Tables S1 and S2)

using the *raster* package (Hijmans, 2017) in R (R Core Team, 2019). For terrestrial

variables, the extraction step was performed for points that overlapped our geographical

coordinates. For oceanographic variables, we used a 5 km buffer around each population

sampled and extracted the mean values inside the buffer; thus, non-terrestrial areas around

our sampling sites were included. All occurrence data have been carefully inspected to detect

and correct problems associated with inconsistent records (Chapman, 2005). We transformed

this environmental data matrix using a principal components analysis (PCA). The scores for

the first five and first three principal components that retained > 90% of the variance of the

environmental variables for *A. schaueriana* and *A. germinans*, respectively, were used to

calculate the Euclidean distances between population pairs. The PCA and environmental

distance measurements were all performed in R (R Core Team, 2019).

Association tests

We investigated the relationships between genetic differentiation (both neutral and putatively

non-neutral) and geographical/environmental factors using a combination of Mantel tests

(simple and partial) and matrix regression analysis. Initially, we performed Mantel tests to

assess the correlations between genetic differentiation and the geographical distance,

oceanographic barrier matrix and environmental distance. Next, we conducted partial Mantel

tests (Smouse *et al.*, 2012) to estimate the influence of one factor conditioned to another

factor as a covariate (Legendre, 1993). Both Mantel tests were conducted using the '*ecodist*'

package (Goslee & Urban, 2007), with 10 000 permutations.

In addition, we performed multiple matrix regression with randomization (MMRR)

using the *MMRR* function in R with 10 000 permutations (Wang, 2013). We used this

method to estimate the independent effect of each factor and quantify how genetic distances

respond to changes in predictor variables. MMRR has proved to be accurate for several types

of conditions (Wang, 2013); however, as in many multiple regression analyses, MMRR can

be biased when the predictor variables are correlated (Wang, 2013). Therefore, we interpret

our results based on this possible limitation.

We performed correlations for the set of all populations and also for the set of

samples located northerly from the SEC and for the set of samples located southerly from the

SEC because substantial variations in the genetic structure have been reported at smaller

geographical scales in mangroves located in these regions (Cruz *et al.*, 2019, 2020; Mori *et*

al., 2015). Previous findings indicate that genetic diversity is organized in well-defined

groups at the regional scale for both species and even between individuals of A. *germinans*

that are separated by only a few kilometres (Cruz *et al.*, 2020).

Finally, given that IBE was suggested as a useful model to describe the observed

genetic differentiation, we conducted an MMRR analysis and partial Mantel tests for each

environmental variable separately to identify the most crucial environmental factors that

affect genetic distance with evidence of natural selection.

RESULTS

Genetic, geographical and environmental distances

For the total set of SNP markers, we obtained F_{ST} values ranging from 0.019 to 0.189 for

pairs of *A. schaueriana* populations and from 0.047 to 0.387 for pairs of *A. germinans*

populations (Fig. 2). For the set of markers with evidence of selection, the F_{ST} ranged from

0.02 to 0.36 for *A. schaueriana* (Supporting Information, Table S3) and from 0.03 to 0.88 for

A. germinans (Supporting Information, Table S4). The pairwise geographical distances

ranged from ~5000 km between Bragança (SB) and Laguna (SL) to 77 km between Cananéia

(SC) and Pontal do Paraná (SP) for *A. schaueriana* (Supporting Information, Table S5) and

from 2100 km between Ilha de Marajó in Soure (GM) and Tamandaré (GT) to 222 km

between Ilha de Marajó in Soure (GM) and Bragança (GB) for *A. germinans* (Supporting

Information, Table S6).

After removing highly correlated environmental variables (r > 0.8), 23 variables were

retained for analyses of environmental distances (Supporting Information, Tables S7 and

S8). The first five axes of the PCA of *A. schaueriana* retained 97% of the variance of the

environmental variables used to calculate the environmental distance between the sampling

sites (Supporting Information, Tables S9 and S10). For *A. germinans*, this calculation was

performed based on the first three axes of the PCA, which retained 92% of the data variance.

The first two PCA axes for *A. schaueriana* represented 80% of the variance and were

explained mainly by the variations in air temperature and sea surface temperature, the solar

radiation and tidal cycles (Fig. 3A). For *A. germinans*, the first two PCA axes represented

~80% of the variance and were explained mainly by the air temperature variation,

precipitation regimens, vapour pressure deficit and solar radiation (Fig. 3B).

Association tests

For *A. schaueriana*, simple Mantel tests that included all SNP loci revealed significant

correlations between genetic distance and the three predictor variables, namely, geographical

distance ($r = 0.9$, $P < 0.001$), environmental distance ($r = 0.73$, $P < 0.001$) and oceanographic

barrier matrix ($r = 0.96$, $P < 0.01$) (Table 2 and Fig. 4). However, all predictor variables were

also highly correlated with each other (geographical vs. environmental distance: $r = 0.9$, $P <$

0.001, (Fig. 4); geographical distance vs. oceanographic barrier: $r = 0.87$, $P < 0.01$;

environmental distance vs. oceanographic barrier: $r = 0.72$, $P < 0.01$). When the influence of

the other two factors was controlled in partial Mantel tests, the associations between genetic

distance and geographical distance and between genetic distance and the oceanographic

barrier matrix remained significant, whereas the correlation between genetic differentiation

and environmental distance was not significant (Table 2). In addition, the multivariate

regression analysis with the combined effect of the three predictor variables on the genetic

distance did not show significant results for the environment ($\beta_{geographical} = 0.48$, $P < 0.01$;

$\beta_{environment} = -0.18$, $P = 0.14$; $\beta_{ocean\ barrier} = 0.67$, $P < 0.01$; Table 3), and when this factor was

removed, the oceanographic barrier variable provided a relatively higher contribution than the

geographical distance ($\beta_{geographical} = 0.25$, $P < 0.01$; $\beta_{ocean\ barrier} = 0.73$, $P < 0.01$; Table 3).

When the tests were performed separately for sampling sites located to the north and south of

the SEC, we observed significant correlations only between genetic and geographical

distances (partial Mantel: $r = 0.88$, $P = 0.01$; MMRR: $\beta_{geographical} = 0.10$, $P = 0.01$; $\beta_{environment}$

$= -0.25$, $P = 0.17$) for sampling sites located south of the SEC.

For *A. germinans*, the simple Mantel test showed significant results only between the

genetic distance and geographical distance ($r = 0.78$, $P < 0.05$) and between the genetic

distance and environmental distance ($r = 0.81$, $P = 0.01$) based on the entire SNP dataset

(Table 4 and Fig. 5). As observed for *A. schaueriana*, the geographical distance was also

correlated with the environmental distance for this species (geographical vs. environmental

distance: $r = 0.86$, $P = 0.001$; Fig. 5), implying that greater geographical distances correspond

to greater environmental differences. However, the correlations between the oceanographic

barrier matrix and the other two predictor variables were not significant (geographical

distance vs. oceanographic barrier: $r = 0.79$, $P = 0.16$; environmental distance vs.

oceanographic barrier: $r = 0.78$, $P = 0.17$). The partial Mantel tests showed significant values

only for the environment, when conditioned on the geographical distance ($r = 0.45$, $P = 0.01$)

(Table 4). In addition, the multivariate regression analysis of the combination of geographical

and environmental distance showed significant values only for the environmental distance,

which exerted an almost twofold greater effect than the geographical distance ($\beta_{environment} =$

0.55, $P < 0.05$, $\beta_{geographical} = 0.28$, $P = 0.34$) (Table 5). However, when we included the

oceanographic barrier variable in the model, the regression coefficients for the three predictor

variables were not significant ($\beta_{geographical}$ = -0.07, P = 0.5; $\beta_{environment}$ = 0.22, P = 0.2; β_{ocean}

$_{barrier}$ = 0.84, P = 0.1) (Table 5). When we removed the samples from GT, which was the only

sampling site south of the SEC, the genetic divergence was not correlated with either the

geographical distance (partial Mantel: r = - 0.08, P = 0.61) or the environmental distance

(partial Mantel: r = 0.17, P = 0.2; MMRR: $\beta_{geographical}$ = -0.12, P = 0, 8; $\beta_{environment}$ = 0.26, P =

0.6).

The results for genetic differentiation based on putative non-neutral SNPs showed the

same patterns as those found for the total set of molecular markers for the two species. For *A.*

schaueriana, both the geographical distance and the oceanographic barrier variable presented

significant values based on this dataset (Supporting Information, Tables S11 and S12). For *A.*

germinans, the genetic distance with evidence of natural selection was significantly

correlated only with the environment conditioned on geography in partial Mantel tests

(Supporting Information, Tables S13). Moreover, the combination of the environment and

geography was the only significant model among the MMRR analyses (Supporting

Information, Tables S14). Given the significant results for the environment for *A. germinans*,

we analysed the correlation between each environmental variable and the genetic distance

with evidence of natural selection. Significant correlations were observed for variables that

vary along the latitudinal gradient of the species, such as the maximum solar radiation (partial

Mantel: r = 0.95, P = 0.01; MMRR: β = 0.98, P = 0.01), precipitation in the warmest quarter

(partial Mantel: r = 0.87, P = 0.05; MMRR: β = 0.95, P = 0.05), maximum temperature of the

warmest month (partial Mantel: r = 0.83, P = 0.03; MMRR: β = 0.88, P < 0.05) and

variations in the annual mean temperature (partial Mantel: r = 0.82, P = 0.01; MMRR: β =

0.88, P < 0.05) (Table 6, Supporting Information, Tables S15).

DISCUSSION

The analysis of the geographical and environmental factors shaping neutral and adaptive

genetic variation in heterogeneous environments is one of the main approaches used to

understand the dynamics and evolutionary potential of natural populations (Schoville *et al.*,

2012; Li *et al.*, 2017). In the present study, we analysed the relative contributions of

environmental and geographical distances and the presence of an oceanographic barrier to

the genetic differentiation of populations of two dominant mangrove species in the

Neotropics. We identified the relative importance of the main environmental variables that

generate adaptation for one of these species, providing relevant information for decision-

makers who will plan future efforts targeting conservation and the recovery of coastal

vegetation in the face of increasing challenges resulting from anthropogenic, environmental

and climate changes in this century.

Pairwise F_{ST} results revealed a variable degree of genetic divergence in both species,

indicating the existence of substantially structured populations, particularly when samples to

the north and south of the SEC are considered. These results corroborate the patterns of

genetic structure reported in previous studies conducted with neutral molecular markers

(Takayama *et al.*, 2008; Pil *et al.*, 2011; Mori *et al.*, 2015; Francisco *et al.*, 2018) and indicate

that regardless of the characteristics of these markers with high (microsatellite; Vieira *et al.*,

2016) or low (SNPs; Morin *et al.*, 2004) mutation rates, the evolutionary processes that led to

this divergence must be intense or ancient.

The geographical distances between sampling sites contributed significantly to the

genetic divergence of *A. schaueriana*, suggesting that spatial distance plays a fundamental

role in the genetic divergence of populations of this species. This model appears to be

common in studies of plants in general (Sexton *et al.*, 2014; Segarra-Moragues *et al.*, 2016;

Cruz-Nicolás *et al.*, 2019) and mangroves in particular (Cerón-Souza *et al.*, 2010; Sandoval-

Castro *et al.*, 2014; Kennedy *et al.*, 2016; Binks *et al.*, 2019; Ochoa-Zavala *et al.*, 2019).

Although evidence of water dispersion over long distances exists for mangrove species

(Nettel & Dodd, 2007; Takayama *et al.*, 2013; Mori *et al.*, 2015; Van der Stocken *et al.*,

2019b), our results indicate that the large geographical extent and major oceanic currents of

the Brazilian coast physically limit the dispersal of *Avicennia* species.

For *A. germinans* populations, when the geographical distance was controlled by

another covariate (Table 4) it did not show significant correlations for the total set of samples

or for the five sampling locations north of the SEC, which were distributed in a fairly

geographically continuous habitat. We hypothesized that the genetic differentiation ranging

from 0.047 to 0.387 observed among sampling locations might result from an IBB effect

caused by the SEC acting as a barrier to the dispersal of propagules. However, we did not

find a significant correlation between genetic differentiation and the presence of the SEC.

Although we did not find significant results, the explained variation and the correlation

coefficient for the IBB model were higher than that of the other two models for this species

(Tables 4 and 5). In addition, we also observed a slight separation in the point clouds in the

scatter plots of both species between the genetic and geographical distances and between the

genetic and environmental distances (Figs 4, 5), which seem to reflect the influence of the

SEC bifurcation on genetic differentiation among populations. The non-significant values

probably reflected insufficient sampling south of the SEC, where only a single location, GT,

was used. In this context, we suggest that future efforts should address the limitations of our

study to generate more conclusive IBB results for *A. germinans*.

In contrast, we obtained statistical evidence for the action of the SEC as a barrier to

gene flow in *A. schaueriana*. Our results suggest that IBB is one of the main models for

genetic differentiation among populations of this species. This model has also been shown in

populations of *A. germinans* and *R. mangle* in Central America, whose patterns of genetic

diversity were consistent with the patterns of ocean circulation in the east tropical Pacific

(Cerón-Souza *et al.*, 2015). Our results corroborate the findings reported by Mori *et al.*

(2015), who suggested that the neutral genetic divergence observed for *A. schaueriana* might

have been shaped by marine currents. Based on our results, the bifurcated flow of marine

currents along the Atlantic coast of South America might play a key role as a driver of the

genetic differentiation observed in other species of mangrove or species associated with this

ecosystem, such as *R. mangle* (Pil *et al.*, 2011; Francisco *et al.*, 2018) and *H.*

pernambucensis (Takayama *et al.*, 2008). Our findings showed statistically that the SEC is

an important driver of the genetic structure of mangrove species; however, coastal and ocean

currents vary temporally in strength and directionality (Van der Stocken *et al.*, 2019a). For

example, the SEC splits into the BC and the NBC, which have different speeds and

directions (Fig. 1; Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013). The NBC is faster than the BC, favouring the

spread of propagules from south to north, as observed in previous studies (Mori *et al.*, 2015;

Francisco *et al.*, 2018). Additionally, the direction of flow of coastal currents might influence

the direction of gene flow among populations. Therefore, future investigations of the

dynamics of these currents, not as a static barrier but including different levels of resistance

to gene flow, might provide more realistic insights into their effects on the distribution of the

genetic variation of species dispersed by sea currents.

We also identified an IBE pattern in the structure of the genetic diversity of *A.*

germinans. For this species, this model presented significant values in relationship to neutral

processes (Tables 4 and 5; Supporting Information, Tables S13 and S14), suggesting an

important role of environmental heterogeneity in the reproduction and survival of migrant

individuals. Many species showed this same pattern with the IBE model (Mitchell-Olds *et*

al., 2007; Byars *et al.*, 2009; Barker *et al.*, 2011; Vernesi *et al.*, 2012; Shafer & Wolf, 2013;

Dennenmoser *et al.*, 2014; Sexton *et al.*, 2014; Manthey & Moyle, 2015; Rodríguez-Zárate

et al., 2018; Jiang *et al.*, 2019), indicating that environmental heterogeneity might be the

main factor underlying the geographical distance (Shafer & Wolf, 2013; Sexton *et al.*, 2014;

Beheregaray *et al.*, 2015).

We also identified the key environmental factors underlying the organization of the

genetic diversity of *A. germinans*. The genetic variation with evidence of selection was

explained mainly by atmospheric temperature patterns, precipitation regimens and solar

radiation (Table 6; Supporting Information, Table S15). These results corroborate the

findings reported by Cruz *et al.* (2020), who performed a functional characterization of

putative loci under selection and suggested that differential precipitation regimens play a

fundamental role in genetic divergence between populations of this species. Additionally,

our findings support the results reported by Bajay *et al.* (2018), who found different profiles

of gene expression among populations of *R. mangle* located at contrasting latitudes of the

Brazilian coast, with differentially expressed genes putatively involved in the responses to

variations in temperature, solar radiation and precipitation. The results obtained for *A.*

germinans corroborate the data from other studies reporting that precipitation and

temperature variables are limiting factors regulating the distribution of coastal species

(McKee *et al.*, 2012; Soares *et al.*, 2012; Osland *et al.*, 2016; Duke *et al.*, 2017; Cavanaugh

et al., 2018; Ximenes *et al.*, 2018). Although we acknowledge the need for complementary

studies that avoid molecular spandrels (Barrett & Hoekstra, 2011), our findings, together

with the results published by Cruz *et al.* (2020), provide new evidence for the role of local

adaptation in the distribution of the genetic diversity of *A. germinans*.

Our results are particularly relevant in light of the climate changes that have been

occurring in the last few decades. With them, further investigations on the responses of *A.*

germinans to future changes in predicted increases in the average annual temperature and

rainfall regimens (IPCC, 2014) can be directed. These results also have implications for

conservation management and planning decisions (Friess *et al.*, 2019). With a better

understanding of the role of environmental variables in modelling the genetic variation of *A.*

germinans on the South American coast, our results contribute to the definition of

evolutionarily significant units for this species, thus maintaining its evolutionary potential

(Fraser & Bernatchez, 2001). In addition, based on the results showing the remarkable

pattern of genetic divergence of *A. schaueriana*, which is attributable, in part, to the action of

the current of the marine surface studied here, we suggest the consideration of genetic banks

north and south from the SEC as conservation measures for the maintenance of biodiversity.

CONCLUSIONS

Our results provide new evidence that the combined actions of the geographical distance,

ocean currents and environmental gradient contribute to the evolution of spatial genetic

divergence within two Neotropical *Avicennia* species growing on the Atlantic coast of South

America. Our findings reveal that geographical distance and ocean currents can influence the

pattern of gene flow in *A. schaueriana* populations, with a greater predictive ability found

for IBB. We found an IBE pattern in *A. germinans* and evidence of adaptations to climate

variables that have changed rapidly in recent decades. In this context, our results provide a

basis for understanding the role of geographical and environmental factors in shaping genetic

variation in *Avicennia* species of the South American coast. These results contribute to our

understanding of the evolution of genetic diversity within this genus and provide information

that might be relevant to other coastal organisms. Additionally, our findings will guide

further research on the responses of these species to climate change and contribute to

effective conservation plans for mangroves and other species with similar mechanisms of

dispersion.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Alessandro Alves Pereira and Prianda Rios Laborda, in addition to three

anonymous reviewers, for critically reading the manuscript. We are also truly grateful for the

financial support from the Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel

(CAPES Computational Biology Program), the São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP)

and the Brazilian National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq).

M.F.S. received fellowships from FAPESP (grant numbers 2018/18431-1 and 2020/00203-2)

and the CAPES Computational Biology Program (grant number 88881.185134/2018-01).

M.V.C. received a fellowship from FAPESP (grant number 2013/26793- 7). J.D.V. received

a fellowship from CNPq (grant number 153973/2018-8). G.M.M. received fellowships from

FAPESP (grant numbers 2013/08086-1 and 2014/22821-9) and a research award from CNPq

(grant number 448286/2014-9). A.P.S. received fellowships from the CAPES Computational

Biology Program (grant number 88882.160095/2013-01) and a research fellowship from

CNPq (grant number 312777/2018-3). The authors have no competing interests to declare.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

REFERENCES

Antao T, Lopes A, Lopes RJ, Beja-Pereira A, Luikart G. 2008. LOSITAN: a workbench to detect molecular adaptation based on a F st -outlier method. *BMC Bioinformatics* 9: 323.

Bajay SK, Cruz MV, da Silva CC, Murad NF, Brandão MM, de Souza AP. 2018. Extremophiles as a model of a natural ecosystem: transcriptional coordination of genes reveals distinct selective responses of plants under climate change scenarios. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 9: 1376.

Barker JSF, Frydenberg J, Sarup P, Loeschcke V. 2011. Altitudinal and seasonal variation in microsatellite allele frequencies of *Drosophila buzzatii*. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 24: 430-439.

Barrett RD, Hoekstra HE. 2011. Molecular spandrels: tests of adaptation at the genetic level. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 12: 767-780.

Barton NH. 1979. Gene flow past a cline. *Heredity* 43: 333-339.

Beheregaray LB, Cooke GM, Chao NL, Landguth EL. 2015. Ecological speciation in the tropics: insights from comparative genetic studies in Amazonia. *Frontiers in Genetics* 5: 477.

Binks RM, Byrne M, McMahon K, Pitt G, Murray K, Evans RD. 2019. Habitat discontinuities form strong barriers to gene flow among mangrove populations, despite the capacity for long-distance dispersal. *Diversity and Distributions* 25: 298-309.

Bradburd GS, Ralph PL, Coop GM. 2013. Disentangling the effects of geographic and ecological isolation on genetic differentiation. *Evolution* 67: 3258-3273.

Byars SG, Parsons Y, Hoffmann AA. 2009. Effect of altitude on the genetic structure of an Alpine grass, Poa hiemata. *Annals of Botany* 103: 885-899.

Cavanaugh KC, Osland MJ, Bardou R, Hinojosa-Arango G, López-Vivas JM, Parker JD,

Rovai AS. 2018. Sensitivity of mangrove range limits to climate variability. *Global*

Ecology and Biogeography 27: 925-935.

Cerón-Souza I, Rivera-Ocasio E, Medina E, Jiménez JA, McMillan WO, Bermingham E.

2010. Hybridization and introgression in New World red mangroves, *Rhizophora*

(Rhizophoraceae). *American Journal of Botany* 97: 945-957.

Cerón-Souza I, Gonzalez EG, Schwarzbach AE, Salas-Leiva DE, Rivera-Ocasio E, Toro-

Perea N, Bermingham E, McMillan WO. 2015. Contrasting demographic history and

gene flow patterns of two mangrove species on either side of the Central American

Isthmus. *Ecology and Evolution* **5**: 3486–3499

Chapman AD. 2005. *Principles and methods of data cleaning – primary species and species*

occurrence data, version 1.0. Copenhagen: Report for the Global Biodiversity

Information Facility. Available online at http://www.gbif.org/document/80528.

Cruz MV, Mori GM, Oh DH, Dassanayake M, Zucchi MI, Oliveira RS, Souza AP. 2020.

Molecular responses to freshwater limitation in the mangrove tree *Avicennia*

germinans (Acanthaceae). *Molecular Ecology* 29: 344-362.

Cruz MV, Mori GM, Signori-Müller C, da Silva CC, Oh D-H, Dassanayake M, Zucchi MI,

Oliveira RS, de Souza AP. 2019. Local adaptation of a dominant coastal tree to

freshwater availability and solar radiation suggested by genomic and ecophysiological

approaches. *Scientific Reports* 9: 27.

Cruz-Nicolás J, Giles-Pérez G, González-Linares E, Múgica-Gallart J, Lira-Noriega A,

Gernandt DS, Eguiarte LE, Jaramillo-Correa JP. 2019. Contrasting evolutionary

processes drive morphological and genetic differentiation in a subtropical fir (*Abies*,

Pinaceae) species complex. *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society* 192: 401-420.

Cushman SA, McKelvey KS, Hayden J & Schwartz MK. 2006. Gene flow in complex

landscapes: Testing multiple hypotheses with causal modeling. *American Naturalist*

168: 486–499.

Danecek P, Auton A, Abecasis G, Albers CA, Banks E, DePristo MA, Handsaker RE, Lunter

G, Marth GT, Sherry ST, McVean G, Durbin R. 2011. The variant call format and

VCF tools. *Bioinformatics* 27: 2156-2158.

Dennenmoser S, Rogers SM, Vamosi SM. 2014. Genetic population structure in prickly

sculpin (*Cottus asper*) reflects isolation-by-environment between two life-history

ecotypes. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 113: 943-957.

Duke NC. 1991. A systematic revision of the mangrove genus Avicennia (Avicenniaceae) in

Australasia. *Australian Systematic Botany* 4: 299.

Duke NC, Kovacs JM, Griffiths AD, Preece L, Hill DJE, van Oosterzee P, Mackenzie J,

Morning HS, Burrows D. 2017. Large-scale dieback of mangroves in Australia.

Marine and Freshwater Research 68: 1816.

Fick SE, Hijmans RJ. 2017. WorldClim 2: new 1-km spatial resolution climate surfaces for

global land areas. *International Journal of Climatology* 37: 4302-4315.

Francisco PM, Mori GM, Alves FM, Tambarussi EV, de Souza AP. 2018. Population genetic

structure, introgression, and hybridization in the genus Rhizophora along the Brazilian

coast. *Ecology and Evolution* 8: 3491-3504.

Fraser DJ, Bernatchez L. 2001. Adaptive evolutionary conservation: towards a unified

concept for defining conservation units. *Molecular Ecology* 10: 2741-2752.

Frichot E, François O. 2015. LEA: an R package for landscape and ecological association

studies. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 6: 925-929.

Friess D, Rogers K, Lovelock C, Krauss K, Hamilton S, Lee S, Lucas R, Primavera J,

Rajkaran A, Shi S. 2019. The state of the world's mangrove forests: past, present, and

future. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 44: 1-27.

Giri C, Ochieng E, Tieszen LL, Zhu Z, Singh A, Loveland T, Masek J, Duke N. 2011. Status

and distribution of mangrove forests of the world using earth observation satellite

data. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 20: 154-159.

Goslee SC & Urban DL. 2007. The ecodist package for dissimilarity-based analysis of

ecological data. *Journal of Statistical Software* 22: 1–19.

Goudet J. 2005. hierfstat, a package for r to compute and test hierarchical F-statistics.

Molecular Ecology Notes 5: 184-186.

Hamilton S.E. 2020. Botany of Mangroves. *In: Mangroves and Aquaculture. Coastal*

Research Library, vol 33. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-22240-

6_1.

Hijmans RJ. 2017. *raster: geographic data analysis and modelling. R package version 2.6–7.*

Available at: https:// cran.r-project.org/package=raster.

Holderegger R, Buehler D, Gugerli F, Manel S. 2010. Landscape genetics of plants. *Trends in*

Plant Science 15: 675-683.

IPCC, 2014: Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. *Contribution of Working Groups I, II*

and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate

Change [Core Writing Team, R.K. Pachauri and L.A. Meyer (eds.)]. IPCC, Geneva,

Switzerland, 151 pp.

Jasechko S, Sharp ZD, Gibson JJ, Birks SJ, Yi Y, Fawcett PJ. 2013. Terrestrial water fluxes

dominated by transpiration. *Nature* 496: 347-350.

Jiang S, Luo MX, Gao RH, Zhang W, Yang YZ, Li YJ, Liao PC. 2019. Isolation-by-

environment as a driver of genetic differentiation among populations of the only

broad-leaved evergreen shrub *Ammopiptanthus mongolicus* in Asian temperate

deserts. *Scientific Reports* 9: 12008.

Joost S, Bonin A, Bruford MW, Després L, Conord C, Erhardt G, Taberlet P. 2007. A Spatial

Analysis Method (SAM) to detect candidate loci for selection: towards a landscape

genomics approach to adaptation. *Molecular Ecology* 16: 3955-3969.

Kennedy JP, Pil MW, Proffitt CE, Boeger WA, Stanford AM, Devlin DJ. 2016. Postglacial

expansion pathways of red mangrove, Rhizophora mangle, in the Caribbean Basin

and Florida. *American Journal of Botany* 103: 260-276.

Klein T, Langner J, Frankenberg B, Svensson J, Broman B, Bennet C, Langborg T. 2013.

ECDS - a Swedish research infrastructure for the open sharing of environment and

climate data. *Data Science Journal* 12: 1-9.

Kovach RP, Gharrett AJ, Tallmon DA. 2012. Genetic change for earlier migration timing in a

pink salmon population. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 279:

3870-3878.

Lee CR, Mitchell-Olds T. 2011. Quantifying effects of environmental and geographical

factors on patterns of genetic differentiation. *Molecular Ecology* 20: 4631-4642.

Legendre P. 1993. Spatial Autocorrelation: Trouble or New Paradigm? *Ecology* 74:1659–

1673.

Legendre, P., and L. Legendre. 2012. Numerical ecology, 3rd edn. Elsevier, Amsterdam.

Leroy B, Meynard CN, Bellard C, Courchamp F. 2016. virtualspecies, an R package to

generate virtual species distributions. *Ecography* 39: 599-607.

Li X, Duke NC, Yang Y, Huang L, Zhu Y, Zhang Z, Zhou R, Zhong C, Huang Y, Shi S.

2016. Re-evaluation of phylogenetic relationships among species of the Mangrove

Genus Avicennia from Indo-West Pacific based on multilocus analyses. *PLoS One* 11:

e0164453.

Li Y, Zhang XX, Mao RL, Yang J, Miao CY, Li Z, Qiu YX. 2017. Ten years of landscape

genomics: challenges and opportunities. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 8: 2136.

Lowry DB. 2010. Landscape evolutionary genomics. *Biology Letters* 6: 502-504.

Lumpkin R, Johnson GC. 2013. Global ocean surface velocities from drifters: mean,

variance, El Niño-Southern Oscillation response, and seasonal cycle. *Journal of*

Geophysical Research: Oceans 118: 2992-3006.

Luu K, Bazin E, Blum MGB. 2017. pcadapt: anRpackage to perform genome scans for

selection based on principal component analysis. *Molecular Ecology Resources* 17:

67-77.

Mannion PD, Upchurch P, Benson RBJ, Goswami A. 2014. The latitudinal biodiversity

gradient through deep time. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 29: 42-50.

Manthey JD, Moyle RG. 2015. Isolation by environment in White-breasted Nuthatches (*Sitta*

carolinensis) of the Madrean Archipelago sky islands: a landscape genomics

approach. *Molecular Ecology* 24: 3628-3638.

McKee K, Rogers K, Saintilan N. 2012. Response of salt marsh and Mangrove wetlands to

changes in atmospheric CO2, climate, and sea level. In: Middleton BA, ed. *Global*

change and the function and distribution of wetlands. Dordrecht, Netherlands:

Springer, 63-96.

Middleton BA. 2012. *Global change and the function and distribution of wetlands*.

Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.

Mitchell-Olds T, Willis JH, Goldstein DB. 2007. Which evolutionary processes influence

natural genetic variation for phenotypic traits? *Nature Reviews Genetics* 8: 845-856.

Mori GM, Zucchi MI, Souza AP. 2015. Multiple-geographic-scale genetic structure of two

Mangrove tree species: the roles of mating system, hybridization, limited dispersal

and extrinsic factors. *PLoS One* 10: e0118710.

Morin PA, Luikart G, Wayne RK, The SNP Workshop Group. 2004. SNPs in ecology,

evolution and conservation. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 19: 208-216.

Morrisey DJ, Swales A, Dittmann S, Morrison MA, Lovelock CE, Beard CM. 2010. The

ecology and management of temperate mangroves. In: Gibson RN, Atkinson RJA,

Gordon JDM, eds. *Oceanography and marine biology: an annual review*. Boca

Raton, FL: Chapman and Hall/CRC, 43-160.

Muñoz NJ, Farrell AP, Heath JW, Neff BD. 2015. Adaptive potential of a Pacific salmon

challenged by climate change. *Nature Climate Change* 5: 163-166.

Murray KD, Janes JK, Jones A, Bothwell HM, Andrew RL, Borevitz JO. 2019. Landscape

drivers of genomic diversity and divergence in woodland Eucalyptus. *Molecular*

Ecology 28: 5232-5247.

Nettel A, Dodd RS. 2007. Drifting propagules and receding swamps: genetic footprints of

mangrove recolonization and dispersal along tropical coasts. *Evolution* 61: 958-971.

Ochoa-Zavala M, Jaramillo-Correa JP, Piñero D, Nettel-Hernanz A, Núñez-Farfán J. 2019.

Contrasting colonization patterns of black mangrove (*Avicennia germinans* (L.) L.)

gene pools along the Mexican coasts. *Journal of Biogeography* 46: 884-898.

Osland MJ, Enwright NM, Day RH, Gabler CA, Stagg CL, Grace JB. 2016. Beyond just sea-

level rise: considering macroclimatic drivers within coastal wetland vulnerability

assessments to climate change. *Global Change Biology* 22: 1-11.

Osland MJ, Feher LC, Griffith KT, Cavanaugh KC, Enwright NM, Day RH, Stagg CL,

Krauss KW, Howard RJ, Grace JB, Rogers K. 2017. Climatic controls on the global

distribution, abundance, and species richness of mangrove forests. *Ecological*

Monographs 87: 341-359.

Pil MW, Boeger MRT, Muschner VC, Pie MR, Ostrensky A, Boeger WA. 2011. Postglacial

north-south expansion of populations of *Rhizophora mangle* (Rhizophoraceae) along

the Brazilian coast revealed by microsatellite analysis. *American Journal of Botany*

98: 1031-1039.

R Core Team (2019). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation

for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL https://www.R-project.org/.

Robertson JM, Duryea MC & Zamudio KR. 2009. Discordant patterns of evolutionary

differentiation in two Neotropical treefrogs. *Molecular Ecology* 18: 1375–1395.

Rodríguez-Zárate CJ, Sandoval-Castillo J, van Sebille E, Keane RG, Rocha-Olivares A,

Urteaga J, Beheregaray LB. 2018. Isolation by environment in the highly mobile olive

ridley turtle (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) in the eastern Pacific. *Proceedings of the Royal*

Society B: Biological Sciences 285: 20180264.

Saintilan N, Khan NS, Ashe E, Kelleway JJ, Rogers K, Woodroffe CD, Horton BP. 2020.

Thresholds of mangrove survival under rapid sea level rise. *Science* 368: 1118.

Sandoval-Castro E, Dodd RS, Riosmena-Rodríguez R, Enríquez-Paredes LM, Tovilla-

Hernández C, López-Vivas JM, Aguilar-May B, Muñiz-Salazar R. 2014. Post-glacial

expansion and population genetic divergence of Mangrove Species *Avicennia*

germinans (L.) stearn and *Rhizophora mangle* L. along the Mexican Coast. *PLoS One*

9: e93358.

Savolainen O, Pyhäjärvi T, Knürr T. 2007. Gene flow and local adaptation in trees. *Annual*

Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 38: 595-619.

Sbrocco EJ, Barber PH. 2013. MARSPEC: ocean climate layers for marine spatial ecology.

Ecology 94: 979.

Schaeffer-Novelli Y, Cintrón-Molero G, Adaime RR, de Camargo TM, Cintron-Molero G, de

Camargo TM. 1990. Variability of Mangrove ecosystems along the Brazilian Coast.

Estuaries 13: 204-218.

Schoville SD, Bonin A, François O, Lobreaux S, Melodelima C, Manel S. 2012. Adaptive

genetic variation on the landscape: methods and cases. *Annual Review of Ecology,*

Evolution, and Systematics 43: 23-43.

Segarra-Moragues JG, Carrión Marco Y, Castellanos MC, Molina MJ, García-Fayos P. 2016.

Ecological and historical determinants of population genetic structure and diversity in

the Mediterranean shrub *Rosmarinus officinalis* (Lamiaceae). *Botanical Journal of the*

Linnean Society 180: 50-63.

Sexton JP, Hangartner SB, Hoffmann AA. 2014. Genetic isolation by environment or

distance: which pattern of gene flow is most common? *Evolution* 68: 1-15.

Shafer ABA, Wolf JBW. 2013. Widespread evidence for incipient ecological speciation: a

meta-analysis of isolation-by-ecology. *Ecology Letters* 16: 940-950.

Smouse PE, Long JC & Sokal RR. 2012. Multiple regression and correlation extensions of

the Mantel test of matrix correspondence. Syst*ematic Zoology*. 35: 627–632.

Soares MLG, Estrada GCD, Fernandez V, Tognella MMP. 2012. Southern limit of the

Western South Atlantic Mangroves: assessment of the potential effects of global

warming from a biogeographical perspective. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*

101: 44-53.

Sork VL. 2016. Gene flow and natural selection shape spatial patterns of genes in tree

populations: implications for evolutionary processes and applications. *Evolutionary*

Applications 9: 291-310.

Spalding M, Blasco F, Field CD. 1997. *World mangrove atlas*. Japan, Okinawa: The

International Society for Mangroves Ecosystems.

Storfer A, Murphy MA, Spear SF, Holderegger R, Waits LP. 2010. Landscape genetics:

where are we now? *Molecular Ecology* 19: 3496-3514.

Storfer A, Patton A, Fraik AK. 2018. Navigating the interface between landscape genetics

and landscape genomics. *Frontiers in Genetics* 9: 68.

Takayama K, Tamura M, Tateishi Y, Webb EL, Kajita T. 2013. Strong genetic structure over

the American continents and transoceanic dispersal in the mangrove genus

Rhizophora (Rhizophoraceae) revealed by broad-scale nuclear and chloroplast DNA

analysis. *American Journal of Botany* 100: 1191-1201.

Takayama K, Tateishi Y, Murata JIN, Kajita T. 2008. Gene flow and population subdivision

in a pantropical plant with sea-drifted seeds *Hibiscus tiliaceus* and its allied species:

evidence from microsatellite analyses. *Molecular Ecology* 17: 2730-2742.

Tomlinson. 1986. *The Botany of Mangroves*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Van der Stocken T, Carroll D, Menemenlis D, Simard M, Koedam N. 2019a. Global-scale

dispersal and connectivity in mangroves. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences 116: 915-922.

Van der Stocken T, Wee AKS, De Ryck DJR, Vanschoenwinkel B, Friess DA, Dahdouh-

Guebas F, Simard M, Koedam N, Webb EL. 2019b. A general framework for

propagule dispersal in mangroves. *Biological Reviews* 94: 1547-1575.

Vernesi C, Rocchini D, Pecchioli E, Neteler M, Vendramin GG, Paffetti D. 2012. A

landscape genetics approach reveals ecological-based differentiation in populations of

holm oak (*Quercus ilex* L.) at the northern limit of its range. *Biological Journal of the*

Linnean Society 107: 458-467.

Vieira MLC, Santini L, Diniz AL, Munhoz CF. 2016. Microsatellite markers: what they mean

and why they are so useful. *Genetics and Molecular Biology* 39: 312-328.

Vincent B, Dionne M, Kent MP, Lien S, Bernatchez L. 2013. Landscape genomics in *Atlantic*

salmon (Salmo Salar): searching for gene-environment interactions driving local

adaptation. *Evolution* 67: 3469-3487.

Wang IJ. 2013. Examining the full effects of landscape heterogeneity on spatial genetic

variation: a multiple matrix regression approach for quantifying geographic and

ecological isolation. *Evolution* 67: 3403-3411.

Wang IJ, Bradburd GS. 2014. Isolation by environment. *Molecular Ecology* 23: 5649-5662.

Wang IJ, Glor RE, Losos JB. 2013. Quantifying the roles of ecology and geography in spatial

genetic divergence. *Ecology Letters* 16: 175-182.

Wee AKS, Mori GM, Lira CF, Núñez-Farfán J, Takayama K, Faulks L, Shi S, Tsuda Y,

Suyama Y, Yamamoto T, Iwasaki T, Nagano Y, Wang Z, Watanabe S, Kajita T.

2019. The integration and application of genomic information in Mangrove

conservation. *Conservation Biology* 33: 206-209.

Wright S. 1943. Isolation by distance. *Genetics* 28: 114-138.

Wright S. 1949. The genetical structure of populations. *Annals of Eugenics* 15: 323-354.

Wu Z, Yu D, Li X & Xu X. 2016. Influence of geography and environment on patterns of

genetic differentiation in a widespread submerged macrophyte, Eurasian watermilfoil

(Myriophyllum spicatum L., Haloragaceae). *Ecology and Evolution* 6: 460–468.

Ximenes A, Ponsoni L, Lira C, Koedam N, Dahdouh-Guebas F. 2018. Does sea surface

temperature contribute to determining range limits and expansion of Mangroves in

Eastern South America (Brazil)? *Remote Sensing* 10: 1787.

Figure S1. Groups (red boxes) of correlated environmental variables retrieved from the

public data platforms WorldClim (Fick & Hijmans, 2017), Marspec (Sbrocco & Barber,

2013), and ECDS (Klein *et al.*, 2013). The cutoff value for Pearson's correlation coefficient

was set to 0.8. *Environmental variables retained for subsequent analysis.

Table S1. Environmental data matrix for the ten sampling points of *Avicennia schaueriana*.

Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Table S2. Environmental data matrix for the six sampling points of *Avicennia germinans*.

Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Table S3. Interpopulation genetic differentiation based on the set of markers with evidence of

natural selection estimated by F_{ST} (Wright) pairs for the *Avicennia schaueriana* collection.

Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Table S4. Interpopulation genetic differentiation based on the set of markers with evidence of

natural selection estimated by F_{ST} (Wright) pairs for the *Avicennia germinans* collection.

Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Table S5. Pairwise geographical distances for *Avicennia schaueriana*. Sample codes are

denoted as in Table 1.

Table S6. Pairwise geographical distances for *Avicennia germinans*. Sample codes are

denoted as in Table 1.

Table S7. Pairwise environmental distances based on each environmental variable for

Avicennia schaueriana. Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Table S8. Pairwise environmental distances based on each environmental variable for

Avicennia germinans. Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Table S9. Pairwise environmental distances for *Avicennia schaueriana*. Sample codes are

denoted as in Table 1.

Table S10. Pairwise environmental distances for *Avicennia germinans*. Sample codes are

denoted as in Table 1.

Table S11. Results of the simple and partial Mantel tests between genetic distance based on

the set of non-neutral molecular markers and the geographical distance, environmental

distance and oceanographic barrier matrix for *Avicennia schaueriana* populations.

Table S12. Regression coefficient (β), coefficient of determination (R^2) and significance (*P*)

of the multiple matrix regression with randomization (MMRR) analysis in the association

between genetic distance based on the set of non-neutral molecular markers and combinations

between geographical distance, environmental distance and the oceanographic barrier matrix

of *Avicennia schaueriana* populations.

Table S13. Results of the simple and partial Mantel tests between genetic distance based on

the set of non-neutral molecular markers and the geographical distance, environmental

distance and oceanographic barrier matrix for *Avicennia germinans* populations.

Table S14. Regression coefficient (β), coefficient of determination (R^2) and significance (*P*)

of the multiple matrix regression with randomization (MMRR) analysis in the association

between genetic distance based on the set of non-neutral molecular markers and combinations

of geographical distance, environmental distance and the oceanographic barrier matrix of

Avicennia germinans populations.

Table S15. Results of the partial Mantel test and multiple matrix regression with

randomization (MMRR) analysis for the associations between genetic distance based on the

set of non-neutral molecular markers and the environmental variables for *Avicennia*

germinans.

SHARED DATA

Avicennia germinans SNP genotype data are available from the Dryad Digital Repository

(Cruz *et al.*, 2019). *A. schaueriana* SNP genotype data are available from the article:

doi:10.1038/s41598-019-56469-w (supplementary datasets 1 and 2).

 TABLES

781 **Table 1.** Sites at which the samples of *Avicennia schaueriana* and *A*vicennia *germinans* were

782 collected along the South American coast, from north to south.

A. schaueriana	*A. germinans*	Locality (City/State)	Latitude	Longitude
	GM	Soure, Pará	-0.723	-48.490
	GB	Bragança, Pará	-0.904	-46.687
SB		Bragança, Pará	-0.820	-46.615
SA	GA	Alcântara, Maranhão	-2.410	-44.406
	GN	Parnaíba, Piauí	-2.778	-41.822
SR	GR	Paracuru, Ceará	-3.413	-39.056
	GT	Tamandaré, Pernambuco	-8.526	-35.013
SV		Vera Cruz, Bahia	-12.983	-38.684
SG		Guapimirim, Rio de Janeiro	-22.701	-43.007
SU		Ubatuba, São Paulo	-23.489	-45.164
SC		Cananéia, São Paulo	-25.020	-47.918
SP		Pontal do Paraná, Paraná	-25.575	-48.352
SF		Florianópolis, Santa Catarina	-27.576	-48.518
SL		Laguna, Santa Catarina	-28.445	-48.840

Sample populations of *A. schaueriana* and *A. germinans* are indicated by two capital letters, as shown

in Figure 1.

Table 2. Results of the simple and partial Mantel tests between genetic distance based on the

total set of single nucleotide polymorphism molecular markers and the geographical distance,

environmental distance and oceanographic barrier matrix for *Avicennia schaueriana*

populations.

Landscape feature	Controlled	*r*	*P*
Geographical distance		0.9	**< 0.001**
Environment distance		0.73	**< 0.001**
Oceanographic barrier		0.96	**< 0.01**
Geographical distance	Environment distance	0.83	**< 0.001**
Geographical distance	Oceanographic barrier	0.45	**< 0.01**
Environment distance	Geographical distance	- 0.47	0.9
Environment distance	Oceanographic barrier	0.23	0.09
Oceanographic barrier	Geographical distance	0.82	**< 0.01**
Oceanographic barrier	Environment distance	0.92	**< 0.01**

Significant values are presented in bold.

Table 3. Regression coefficient (β), coefficient of determination (R^2) and significance (P) of

the multiple matrix regression with randomization analysis in the association between genetic

distance based on the total set of single nucleotide polymorphism molecular markers and

combinations of geographical distance, environmental distance and the oceanographic barrier

matrix of *Avicennia schaueriana* populations.

Combination of landscape features	$\beta_{geographical}$	P	$\beta_{environment}$	P	$\beta_{ocean\ barrier}$	P	R^2	P
D_{geo} + D_{env}	0.13	0.001	-0.48	0.01	-	-	0.86	< 0.05
D_{geo} + $M_{barrier}$	0.25	< 0.01	-	-	0.73	< 0.01	0.94	< 0.01
D_{env} + $M_{barrier}$	-	-	0.09	0.1	0.89	< 0.01	0.93	< 0.01
D_{geo} + D_{env} + $M_{barrier}$	0.48	< 0.01	-0.18	0.14	0.67	< 0.01	0.94	0.001

Abbreviations: D_{geo}: Geographical distance; D_{env}: Environmental distance; $M_{barrier}$: Oceanographic

barrier matrix.

Table 4. Results of the simple and partial Mantel tests between genetic distance based on the

total set of single nucleotide polymorphism molecular markers and the geographical distance,

environmental distance and oceanographic barrier matrix for *Avicennia germinans*

populations.

Landscape feature	Controlled	r	P
Geographical distance		0.78	**0.04**
Environment distance		0.81	**0.01**
Oceanographic barrier		0.95	0.16
Geographical distance	Environment distance	0.26	0.14
Geographical distance	Oceanographic barrier	0.14	0.25
Environment distance	Geographical distance	0.45	**0.01**
Environment distance	Oceanographic barrier	0.39	0.17
Oceanographic barrier	Geographical distance	0.88	0.12
Oceanographic barrier	Environment distance	0.88	0.15

Significant values are presented in bold.

Table 5. Regression coefficient (β), coefficient of determination (R^2) and significance (P) of

the multiple matrix regression with randomization analysis in the association between genetic

distance based on the total set of single nucleotide polymorphism molecular markers and

combinations of geographical distance, environmental distance and the oceanographic barrier

matrix of *Avicennia germinans* populations.

Combination of landscape feature	$\beta_{geographical}$	*P*	$\beta_{environment}$	*P*	$\beta_{ocean\ barrier}$	*P*	*R²*	*P*
D_{geo} + D_{env}	0.28	0.34	0.55	< 0.05	-	-	0.69	< 0.05
D_{geo} + $M_{barrier}$	0.06	0.6	-	-	0.90	0.1	0.94	0.1
D_{env} + $M_{barrier}$	-	-	0.17	0.3	0.81	0.16	0.93	< 0.01
D_{geo} + D_{env} + $M_{barrier}$	-0.07	0.5	0.22	0.2	0.84	0.1	0.94	0.06

Abbreviations: D_{geo}: Geographical distance; D_{env}: Environmental distance; $M_{barrier}$: Oceanographic

barrier matrix.

Table 6. Summary results of the partial Mantel test and multiple matrix regression with

randomization (MMRR) analysis for on the associations between genetic distances based on

the set of non-neutral molecular markers and the most important environmental variables for

Avicennia germinans.

Environmental variables	partial Mantel test		MMRR	
	r	*P-value*	β	*P-value*
Maximum solar radiation	0.95	0.01	0.98	0.01
Precipitation in the warmest quarter	0.87	0.05	0.95	0.05
Maximum temperature of the warmest month	0.83	< 0.05	0.88	< 0.05
Annual mean temperature	0.82	0.01	0.88	< 0.05

817 Partial Mantel tests were conditioned on geographical distance.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Geographical distribution and characterization of the *Avicennia schaueriana* and

Avicennia germinans sampling sites along the South American coast. The blue area

represents the geographical distribution of *A. schaueriana* and its sympatric region with *A.*

germinans (blue and yellow). Black circles and triangles represent the sampling sites of the

plant material used for the genotyping of genomic DNA from *A. schaueriana* and *A.*

germinans, respectively (Cruz *et al.*, 2019, 2020). Sampling locations, which are indicated by

two letters, are displayed as described in Table 1. Arrows represent the direction of the main

ocean currents acting on the Brazilian coast. Arrow widths illustrate the mean current speed

(Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013).

Figure 2. Heatmaps describing interpopulation genetic differentiation based on the total set

of single nucleotide polimorphism molecular markers estimated by pairwise F_{ST} (Wright) for

Avicennia schaueriana (filled circles; A) and *Avicennia germinans* (filled triangles; B)

collection sites. Sample codes are denoted as in Table 1.

Figure 3. Locations of populations of *Avicennia schaueriana* (A) and *Avicennia germinans*

(B) in a bidimensional projection of the principal components analisys used to calculate the

environmental distance. The acronyms for sampling locations, which are indicated by two

letters, are the same as those listed in Table 1. The color gradient represents the contribution

of each environmental variable to principal component (PC) and PC2. Abbreviations: V1,

annual mean temperature (in degrees Celsius); V2, annual temperature range (in degrees

Celsius); V3, isothermality (in degrees Celsius); V4, minimum temperature of the coldest

month (in degrees Celsius); V5, maximum temperature of the warmest month (in degrees

Celsius); V6, mean temperature of the coldest quarter (in degrees Celsius); V7, precipitation

seasonality (in millimetres); V8, precipitation in the warmest quarter (in millimetres); V9,

precipitation in the coldest quarter (in millimetres); V10, mean solar radiation (in kilojoules

per square metre per day); V11, minimum solar radiation (in kilojoules per square metre per

day); V12, maximum solar radiation (in kilojoules per square metre per day); V13, mean

wind speed (in metres per second); V14, maximum vapour pressure deficit (in kilopascals);

V15, mean annual sea surface salinity (in practical salinity units); V16, sea surface salinity in

the saltiest month (in practical salinity units); V17, annual variance in sea surface salinity (in

practical salinity units); V18, mean annual sea surface temperature (in degrees Celsius); V19,

sea surface temperature in the coldest month (in degrees Celsius); V20, annual range in sea

surface temperature (in degrees Celsius); V21, anual average cycle amplitude (in

centimetres); V22, annual average duration of tidal cycles (in hours); V23, annual number of

cycles.

Figure 4. Graphical representations showing the correlations among genetic distance,

geographical distance, environmental distance and the oceanographic barrier for *Avicennia*

schaueriana. A, geographical distance vs. genetic distance. B, environmental distance vs.

genetic distance. C, absence or presence of the oceanographic barrier between population

pairs vs. genetic distance (boxplot). D, geographical distance vs. environmental distance. The

relationships between genetic and geographical distances and between genetic distances and

the oceanographic barrier were significant according to the partial Mantel tests (Table 2).

Figure 5. Graphical representations showing the correlations among genetic distance,

geographical distance, environmental distance and the oceanographic barrier for *Avicennia*

germinans. A, geographical distance vs. genetic distance. B, environmental distance vs.

genetic distance. C, absence or presence of the oceanographic barrier between population

pairs vs. genetic distance (boxplot). D, geographical distance vs. environmental distance.

Among the relationships presented, only the environmental distance was significantly

correlated with the genetic distance as indicated by the partial Mantel tests (Table 4).

A. schaueriana

A. germinans