1 Geographic and environmental contributions to genomic divergence in mangrove forests

2 Michele Fernandes da Silva¹, Mariana Vargas Cruz¹; João de Deus Vidal Júnior¹, Gustavo

3 Maruyama Mori², Maria Imaculada Zucchi³, Anete Pereira de Souza^{1*}

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⁵ ¹ Institute of Biology, Center for Molecular Biology and Genetic Engineering, University of

6 Campinas (Unicamp), Campinas, SP 13083-875

7 ² Institute of Biosciences, São Paulo State University (Unesp), São Vicente, SP 11330-900,

8 Brazil

⁹ ³ São Paulo Agency for Agribusiness Technology (APTA), Piracicaba, SP 13400-790, Brazil

10 * Author for correspondence. E-mail: anete@unicamp.br

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12 ABSTRACT

13 Assessing the relative importance of geographic and environmental factors to the spatial 14 distribution of genetic variation can provide relevant information about the underlying processes 15 that cause and maintain genetic variation in natural populations. With a globally wide but very 16 restricted habitat distribution, mangrove trees are an interesting model for studies aiming to 17 understand the contributions of these factors. Mangroves occur in a narrow range on the 18 continent-ocean interface of tropical and subtropical latitudes, regions considered inhospitable to 19 many other plant types. We employed landscape genomics approaches to investigate the relative 20 contributions of geographic and environmental variables to the genetic structures of two 21 mangrove species, Avicennia schaueriana and A. germinans, along the Brazilian coast. Using 22 neutral and putative non-neutral single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), we observed 23 significant correlations between the genetic structure and geographical distance, air and sea 24 surface temperatures, solar radiation and tidal variation for both species. In addition, we found 25 that the South Equatorial Current (SEC) acts as a barrier to gene flow among A. schaueriana 26 populations. These results increase our knowledge about the evolution of mangrove trees and

- 27 suggest that geographical and environmental variables may shape adaptations of New World
- 28 Avicennia species.
- 29

30 KEYWORDS

- 31 Black mangrove; landscape genomics; ocean currents; isolation by environment; gene flow;
- 32 coastal ecosystem

33 INTRODUCTION

34 Environmental and geographic variations are often determinants of the distribution of 35 allele frequencies in natural populations, facilitating or limiting gene flow across space and 36 influencing the selection of certain genotypes (Murray et al., 2019; Sork, 2016; Wang, Glor, & 37 Losos, 2013). For example, under an Isolation By Distance (IBD) model (Wright, 1943), 38 geographic distance may limit the dispersion and reproductive material of organisms, leading to 39 the accumulation of allele frequency divergences by genetic drift (Bradburd, Ralph, & Coop, 40 2013). Furthermore, under the Isolation By Barrier (IBB) model, a barrier to gene flow may 41 abruptly reduce or even disrupt connectivity between individuals of a species (Barton, 1979). In 42 addition to these models, landscape components may exert divergent selective pressures on 43 individuals, leading to the evolution of locally adapted populations (Bradburd et al., 2013), a 44 phenomenon described by the Isolation By Environment (IBE) model (Wang & Bradburd, 2014). 45 These standards, IBD, IBB, and IBE, are not usually mutually exclusive and often co-46 occur in nature (Sexton, Hangartner, & Hoffmann, 2014; Wang et al., 2013). Determining the 47 contribution of each model to the distribution patterns of genetic variation across space can 48 provide relevant information about the underlying processes that cause and maintain genetic 49 variation in natural populations (Lee & Mitchell-Olds, 2011; Wang & Bradburd, 2014). This 50 knowledge is also essential to predict future responses of current populations to environmental 51 changes (Vincent, Dionne, Kent, Lien, & Bernatchez, 2013) and to minimize biodiversity loss 52 (Kovach, Gharrett, & Tallmon, 2012; Muñoz, Farrell, Heath, & Neff, 2015; Wee et al., 2019). 53 The field of research that seeks to disentangle the roles of these factors in the distribution 54 of the neutral and adaptive genetic variability of a species over space is known as landscape 55 genomics (Joost et al., 2007; Schoville et al., 2012; Vincent et al., 2013). Recently, this approach

has been increasingly applied to the study of non-model organisms (Storfer, Patton, & Fraik, 2018). Nevertheless, most landscape genomic studies are limited to animal species, with few such studies on tropical plant species (Storfer, Murphy, Spear, Holderegger, & Waits, 2010) and coastal species such as mangroves, in which adaptive convergences act to allow survival in an environment considered hostile to several other types of plants (Tomlinson, 1986).

61 Mangrove trees occur in a narrow strip on the continent-ocean interface (Tomlinson, 62 1986). Mangrove species have the ability to disperse over long distances by river and ocean 63 surface currents (van der Stocken, Wee, et al., 2019) and are found in tropical and subtropical 64 latitudes of the world, mainly between 30 °N and 30 °S (Giri et al., 2011). The distribution of 65 mangroves is limited by the topography of the intertidal zone (Middleton, 2012), the occurrence of low temperatures (Morrisey et al., 2010) and precipitation patterns (Spalding, Blasco, & Field, 66 67 1997). Moreover, there are variations in the latitudes of their boundaries mainly associated with 68 different climatic thresholds (Cavanaugh et al., 2018; Osland et al., 2017) and oceanographic 69 conditions (Soares, Estrada, Fernandez, & Tognella, 2012). 70 In Brazil, mangroves are distributed along most of the Atlantic coast, from Amapá state 71 (04° 20' N) to Santa Catarina (28° 30' S). Along this latitudinal gradient, six species of mangrove 72 trees belonging to three genera have been found. Among these genera, Avicennia L. 73 (Acanthaceae) is one of the most diverse and widely distributed genus globally (Duke, 1991; Li 74 et al., 2016) and is represented on the coast of Brazil by two of the three New World Avicennia 75 species, Avicennia germinans and Avicennia schaueriana (Duke, 1991; Schaeffer-Novelli et al.,

1990). These species occur in sympatry on the northeast coast of Brazil. While *A. germinans* has
a distribution limit of northern Rio de Janeiro state, *A. schaueriana* extends to the southern state
of Santa Catarina.

79	Both species show a striking north-south pattern of genetic divergence among
80	populations along the Brazilian coast, as suggested by microsatellite markers (Mori, Zucchi, &
81	Souza, 2015). Similar results were obtained for another mangrove species, Rhizophora mangle
82	(Francisco, Mori, Alves, Tambarussi, & de Souza, 2018; Pil et al., 2011), and for the mangrove-
83	associated tree Hibiscus pernambucensis (Takayama, Tateishi, Murata, & Kajita, 2008) using the
84	same type of molecular marker. These studies suggested that the neutral genetic divergence may
85	have been convergently shaped by the dispersion of floating propagules in water. When the
86	South Equatorial current (SEC) reaches the Atlantic coast of South America, it splits in two
87	different directions (northwards and southwards) along the coast (Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013).
88	The split of the SEC is concordant with the remarkable genetic divergence observed among the
89	northern and southern populations of mangrove trees along the Brazilian coast.
90	Using data obtained by next-generation sequencing (NGS), recent studies have identified
91	variable genomic regions possibly associated with adaptive processes relevant in the
92	environmental context of mangroves (Cruz, Mori, Müller, et al., 2019, Cruz, Mori, Oh, et al.,
93	2019). These variations have been attributed to climatic and oceanographic factors that vary
94	widely along the latitudinal gradient of the species distribution.
95	Although these studies provide clues as to which abiotic factors act to differentiate
96	between A. schaueriana and A. germinans populations, the contribution of each abiotic factor is
97	still unknown. In this context, the present study aimed to investigate the relative contribution of
98	geographic and environmental variables in the organization of genetic diversity of the two
99	species in the genus Avicennia L. (Acanthaceae) found on the Atlantic coast of South America.
100	

101 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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103 **Biological material and genotyping of SNP markers**

104	The collection of biological material and the identification of single nucleotide
105	polymorphism (SNP) markers were performed in the context of a previous study by Cruz, Mori,
106	Müller, et al. (2019) and Cruz, Mori, Oh, et al. (2019). They sampled 77 A. schaueriana
107	individuals from ten different locations and 48 individuals of A. germinans from six different
108	locations along the Brazilian coast (Fig. 1 and Table 1). With a minimum coverage of 8x and a
109	minor allele frequency \geq 0.05, totals of 6170 and 2297 SNP markers were identified for A.
110	schaueriana and A. germinans, respectively.
111	
112	Detection of SNP loci with selective signatures
113	SNP loci with evidence of natural selection were detected by Cruz, Mori, Müller, et al.
114	(2019) and Cruz, Mori, Oh, et al. (2019). For A. schaueriana, 86 loci showed considerable
115	deviations from neutral expectations of interpopulation divergence. They were detected by two
116	methods to minimize false positives: LOSITAN (Antao, Lopes, Lopes, Beja-Pereira, & Luikart,
117	2008), with a confidence interval of 0.99 and a false-discovery rate (FDR) of 0.1, and pcadapt
118	(Luu, Bazin, & Blum, 2017), with a FDR of 0.1. For A. germinans, 25 loci showed considerable
119	deviations from neutral expectations of interpopulation divergence. For this species, in addition
120	to LOSITAN (confidence interval of 0.99 and FDR of 0.05) and pcadapt (FDR of 0.05), SNP
121	loci associated with ecological variables were detected using latent factor mixed models
122	(LFMM) implemented in the LEA package (Frichot & François, 2015).
123	

124 Estimation of genetic distances

125	To analyze the importance of geographic distance and environmental variables in spatial
126	genetic divergence, we evaluated which of the models - isolation by distance (IBD), isolation by
127	barrier (IBB) or isolation by environment (IBE) - best describes the genetic diversity of each
128	species based on the SNP markers. For this, we estimated the genetic differentiation (Wright's
129	FST) between pairs of sampling sites (Wright, 1949) for the total set of SNP molecular markers
130	and the set of SNP markers with evidence of selection, using the Hierfstat package for R
131	(Goudet, 2005).
132	
133	Estimation of geographic distances
134	Pairwise geographic distances between populations were measured using the geographic
135	coordinates of the sampling sites (Table 1) with the global positioning system (Garmin 76CSx,
136	WGS-84 standard, Garmin International Inc., Olathe, KS, USA). Distances between points were
137	estimated based on the contour of the Brazilian coast; thus, dispersion by floating propagules
138	(Duke, Ball, & Ellison, 1998), which are often transported by surface ocean currents (van der
139	Stocken, Carroll, Menemenlis, Simard, & Koedam, 2019), was considered. To determine
140	whether the bifurcation from the southern branch of the SEC to the Brazil current (BC) and the
141	North Brazil current (NBC) (Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013) (Fig. 1) acts as a dispersion barrier for
142	A. germinans and A. schaueriana propagules, a binary matrix (0 or 1) was constructed based on
143	the presence (1) or absence (0) of the barrier between each pair of sampling sites.
144	
145	Estimation of environmental distances
146	To evaluate the effect of the environment, we obtained a total of 37 environmental

147 variables for each sampling site, with a resolution of 30 arc-seconds (~ 1 km in Ecuador). In our

148	dataset, we included 28 climate variables derived from the WorldClim temperature and
149	precipitation datasets (version 1.4 and 2.0) (Fick & Hijmans, 2017), 10 oceanographic variables
150	derived the Marspec ocean surface salinity and temperature datasets (Sbrocco & Barber, 2013)
151	and five variables related to tidal variations retrieved from the Environmental Climate Data
152	Sweden (ECDS) platform (Klein et al., 2013). To avoid nonindependence between
153	environmental variables, we removed variables that showed a high correlation ($R^2 > 0.8$), as
154	measured by the removeCollinearity function of the virtualspecies package (Leroy, Meynard,
155	Bellard, & Courchamp, 2016) for R Core Team (2019). We extracted the values of the
156	environmental variables for our sample points using the raster package (Hijmans & van Etten,
157	2012) for R Core Team (2019). All occurrence data have been carefully inspected to detect and
158	correct problems associated with inconsistent records (Chapman, 2005). We transformed this
159	environmental data matrix using a principal component analysis (PCA) to calculate the
160	Euclidean distances between population pairs (Lira-Noriega & Manthey, 2014). For this
161	calculation, we used the averages of the first five principal components for A. schaueriana and
162	the first three principal components for A. germinans. Principal component analysis and
163	environmental distance measurements were all performed in R (R Core Team, 2019).
164	

165 Associative tests

166 To test which model best explained our genetic data (both neutral and putatively non-167 neutral), we performed Multiple Matrix Regression with Randomization (MMRR). This method 168 was employed to estimate the independent effect of each factor (geographic or environmental 169 variable) and has been shown to be robust toward a wide range of dispersal rates (Wang, 2013). 170 The analysis was performed using the *MMRR* function in R with 10,000 permutations. The

following comparisons were made: (I) geographic distance between populations (km) and
population differentiation (FST), (II) environmental distance between populations (PCA) and
population differentiation (FST), (III) geographic distance (km) and environmental distance
(PCA), (IV) geographic distance (km) in conjunction with environmental distance (PCA) and
population differentiation (FST) and (V) the presence / absence of the oceanic barrier and
population differentiation (FST). We also tested for correlations between the genetic distances
based on the SNP marker set with selection evidence for each environmental variable separately.
RESULTS
Genetic, geographic and environmental distances
For the total set of SNP markers, we found FST values between 0.019 and 0.189 for pairs
of A. schaueriana populations and between 0.047 and 0.387 for pairs of A. germinans
populations (Fig. 2). For the set of markers with evidence of selection, these values ranged from
0.02 to 0.36 for A. schaueriana and from 0.03 to 0.88 for A. germinans. The pairwise geographic
distances had a maximum value of approximately 5000 km between Bragança - PA (PAR) and
Laguna - SC (LGN) for A. schaueriana and 2100 km between Ilha de Marajó in Soure – PA
(MRJ) and Tamandaré - PE (TMD) for A. germinans.
After removing the environmental variables with high correlation ($R^2 > 0.8$), 21 variables
were retained for further analyses (Fig. 3). The first five and three axes of PCA based on
noncollinear environmental variable matrices explained 96% and 92% of the variance for A.
schaueriana and A. germinans, respectively. The first PCA axis used for the environmental
distance calculation among sampling locations of A. schaueriana represented 59% of the

194	variance (Fig. 4A) and was mainly explained by the water vapor pressure, annual average sea
195	surface temperature, isothermality, average and minimum solar radiation and average annual
196	temperature (Fig. 5A). The second PCA axis represented 15% of the variance (Fig. 4B) and was
197	mainly explained by the average annual tidal cycle duration, annual precipitation and wind
198	speed. For A. germinans, the first PCA axis represented 43% of the variance (Fig. 4B) and was
199	mainly explained by the average solar radiation, water vapor pressure, precipitation of the hottest
200	and coldest quarters and wind speed (Fig. 5B). The second PCA axis represented 32% of the
201	variance (Fig. 4B) and was mainly explained by the annual temperature variation, annual average
202	temperature and precipitation seasonality.

203

204 Association tests

205 For A. schaueriana, linear regressions between geographic, environmental, and genetic 206 variables for the total set of SNPs revealed a strong correlation between geographic and 207 environmental distances ($R^2 = 0.82$; P < 0.001) (Fig. 6A). The geographic distances between 208 pairs of sampling sites played the greatest role in the describing genetic distances (R^2 : 0.81, P < 209 (0.001) (Fig. 6B), but environmental distance also contributed significantly to genetic distance (\mathbb{R}^2 210 = 0.56, P < 0.001) (Fig. 6C). When the tests were performed separately for sampling locations 211 above and below the SEC, we found significant correlations only for sampling locations below 212 the SEC between genetic and geographic distances ($R^2 = 0.81$; P < 0.001) and between genetic 213 and environmental distances ($R^2 = 0.40$; P = 0.05). In relation to genetic distance, multiple 214 regression combining the effects of geographic and environmental distances provided a 215 significantly better fit ($R^2 = 0.84$; P = 0.0007) than multiple regressing including only one effect.

The variable that best explained the genetic differentiation observed in *A. schaueriana* was the presence or absence of the oceanographic barrier ($R^2 = 0.92$, P = 0.005).

218 For A. germinans, the correlation between geographic and environmental distances was 219 significant ($R^2 = 0.63$; P < 0.001) (Fig. 6D) but was less pronounced than the correlation for A. 220 schaueriana, probably due to the smaller number of sampling locations for the former specie 221 than the latter specie. Geographic ($R^2 = 0.61$; P < 0.05) (Fig. 6E) and environmental ($R^2 = 0.42$; 222 P < 0.05) (Fig. 6F) distances played significant roles in the genetic differentiation between A. 223 germinans sampling sites. However, when we removed the samples from Tamandaré - PE, which 224 is located below the SEC, the genetic divergence was not correlated with either the geographic 225 distance ($R^2 = 0.006$; P = 0.97) or the environmental distance ($R^2 = 0.014$; P = 0.70). Multiple 226 regressions combining the geographic and environmental distances showed a significant 227 correlation ($R^2 = 0.63$; P = 0.05) with genetic differentiation, but this correlation was smaller 228 than the correlations observed separately for geographic and genetic divergences. The presence 229 or absence of the oceanic barrier did not explain the genetic divergence among A. germinans 230 sampling locations ($R^2 = 0.91$; P = 0.15), probably because only one location below the SEC was 231 sampled.

We identified a significant environmental contribution to the genetic differentiation based on the presumably non-neutral SNPs for both species. This contribution was more pronounced for *A. schaueriana* ($R^2 = 0.55$; P < 0.001) than for *A. germinans* ($R^2 = 0.38$; $P = 0.05\ 0.15$). When we analyzed each environmental variable separately, we found significant correlations of non-neutral genetic differentiation among *A. schaueriana* sampling locations with tidal amplitude cycles, air and ocean surface temperature variations, water vapor pressure, solar

radiation, and precipitation regimes. The non-neutral genetic differentiation observed in *A*.
 germinans was significantly correlated with solar radiation and temperature variables (Table 2).
 240

241 **DISCUSSION**

242 The study of the geographic and environmental factors shaping neutral and adaptive 243 genetic variation in heterogeneous environments is one of the main approaches used to 244 understand the dynamics and evolutionary potential of natural populations (Li et al., 2017; 245 Schoville et al., 2012). In this study, we separated the relative contributions of the environment, 246 geographic distance and the presence of an oceanic barrier on the genetic differentiation of 247 populations of two non-model mangrove tree species. We found the relative importance of the 248 main environmental variables that generate adaptation in these species, which is a particularly 249 relevant finding, considering the challenges presented by the climate change predicted for this 250 century.

251 According to Wright (1978), our pairwise FST results revealed an intermediate degree of 252 genetic differentiation for both species based on the total set of SNP markers, while A. 253 schaueriana and A. germinans had an intermediate degree and an intermediate to high degree of 254 genetic differentiation, respectively, based on the set of non-neutral SNPs. These results 255 corroborate the genetic structure patterns found in previous studies conducted with neutral 256 molecular markers (Francisco et al., 2018; Mori et al., 2015; Pil et al., 2011; Takayama et al., 257 2008) and indicate that, regardless of the characteristics of these markers with high 258 (microsatellite) (Vieira, Santini, Diniz, & Munhoz, 2016) or low (SNPs) (Morin, Luikart, 259 Wayne, & The SNP Workshop Group, 2004) mutation rates, the evolutionary processes that led 260 to this divergence must be quite intense or old.

261	The geographic distances between sampling sites contributed significantly to the genetic
262	divergence of A. schaueriana (R ² : 0.81, P < 0.001) and A. germinans (R ² = 0.61; P < 0.05),
263	suggesting that the isolation by distance (IBD) model (Wright, 1943) plays a fundamental role in
264	the evolution of spatial divergence of these species. This model appears to be typical of
265	mangroves (Cerón-Souza et al., 2010; Kennedy et al., 2016; Ochoa-Zavala, Jaramillo-Correa,
266	Piñero, Nettel-Hernanz, & Núñez-Farfán, 2019; Sandoval-Castro et al., 2014). Although there is
267	evidence of long-distance dispersal by river and ocean surface currents for mangrove species
268	(Mori et al., 2015; Nettel & Dodd, 2007; Takayama, Tamura, Tateishi, Webb, & Kajita, 2013;
269	van der Stocken, Wee, et al., 2019), our results indicate that the large extension of the Brazilian
270	coast limits the dispersal of Avicennia species. Although these correlations were significant for
271	the total set of sampling locations, they were not significant when considering only the set of A.
272	schaueriana and A. germinans sampling locations above the SEC. For the five sampling
273	locations of A. germinans in this region, which are distributed in a fairly geographically
274	continuous habitat, little of the model was explained by the coefficient of determination values
275	($R^2 = 0.006$, $p = 0.97$). We hypothesized that the genetic differentiation between 0.047 and 0.387
276	observed for all sampling locations could actually be the result of an isolation by barrier (IBB)
277	effect caused by the SEC acting as a barrier to the dispersal of propagules. However, we did not
278	find a significant correlation between genetic differentiation and the presence of the SEC,
279	probably because we sampled A. germinans in only one location (Tamandaré - PE) south of the
280	SEC.
281	In contrast, we found statistical evidence for the action of the SEC as a barrier to gene
282	flow for A. schaueriana. Our results corroborate Mori et al. (2015), who suggested that the

283 neutral genetic divergence observed for A. schaueriana may have been shaped by marine

284 currents. Our results also suggest that the SEC may have a key role in shaping the distribution of 285 genetic variation observed in other species of mangrove or associated with this ecosystem, such 286 as Rhizophora mangle (Francisco et al., 2018; Pil et al., 2011) and Hibiscus pernambucensis 287 (Takayama et al., 2008). Our findings suggest that the SEC is an important driver of the genetic 288 structure of mangrove species; however, coastal and ocean currents vary temporally in strength 289 and directionality (van der Stocken, Carroll, et al., 2019). For example, The SEC splits, forming 290 the BC and the NBC, which have different speeds and directions (Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013) 291 (Fig. 1). NBC is faster than BC, favoring the spread of propagules from south to north, as 292 observed in previous studies (Francisco et al., 2018; Mori et al., 2015). Therefore, future 293 investigations about the dynamics of these currents, not as a static barrier but including different 294 levels of resistance to gene flow, may provide more accurate information about their influence 295 on the distribution of genetic variation of species dispersed by sea currents. 296 We also identified an isolation by environment (IBE) pattern in the structure of the 297 genetic diversity of A. schaueriana and A. germinans that was driven mainly by temperature, 298 radiation and tidal variations along the Brazilian coast. Under the IBE pattern, genetic 299 differentiation increases in response to environmental differences, regardless of geographic 300 distance, and can be generated by a variety of ecological processes, such as selection against 301 immigrants, which implies local adaptation to heterogeneous environments (Wang & Bradburd, 302 2014). Many species under IBE show local adaptations to environmental gradients (Barker, 303 Frydenberg, Sarup, & Loeschcke, 2011; Byars, Parsons, & Hoffmann, 2009; Jiang et al., 2019; 304 Manthey & Moyle, 2015; Mitchell-Olds, Willis, & Goldstein, 2007; Sexton et al., 2014; Shafer 305 & Wolf, 2013).

306 Given the significant results for IBE, we also estimated the contribution of each 307 environmental variable, allowing us to infer the degree to which individual environmental 308 variables contribute to these results. For A. schaueriana, we found that genetic variation with 309 evidence of selection is correlated with spatial variations in the tidal range regimes, air and ocean 310 surface temperature, water vapor pressure, solar radiation, and precipitation (Table 2). Our 311 results corroborate Cruz, Mori, Oh, et al. (2019), who analyzed two A. schaueriana populations 312 in contrasting regions of the Brazilian coast and found evidence of selection in genes associated 313 with biological processes related to climate seasonality and the response to UV radiation. 314 Conversely, for A. germinans, we found correlations between the non-neutral genetic 315 differentiation with variations in solar radiation and temperature patterns (Table 2). The results 316 that we observed for both species corroborate other studies that found precipitation and air and 317 sea temperature variables were limiting factors in the distribution of coastal species (Cavanaugh 318 et al., 2018; Duke et al., 2017; McKee, Rogers, & Saintilan, 2012; Osland et al., 2016; Soares et 319 al., 2012; Ximenes, Ponsoni, Lira, Koedam, & Dahdouh-Guebas, 2018). In addition, our results 320 may serve as a starting point for understanding the adaptations of Avicennia species of the South 321 American coast, contributing to the understanding of the evolution of genetic divergence within 322 this genus. Furthermore, this study may guide further investigations about the responses of these 323 species to climate change, such as the predicted increases in the annual average temperatures of 324 air and oceans and the rise in sea level (IPCC, 2014).

325

326 CONCLUSIONS

Our results provide strong evidence that IBD and IBE contributed to the evolution of
 spatial genetic divergence within two *Avicennia* neotropical species on the Atlantic coast of

329	South America. A great proportion of the genetic divergence observed within both species may
330	be attributed to IBD. The patterns of genetic divergence were also correlated with variations in
331	the atmospheric temperature, solar radiation and tidal range for both species. In addition, we
332	observed significant correlations with the latitudinal gradient of precipitation and sea surface
333	temperature for A. schaueriana, suggesting that IBE also influences the genetic structure of both
334	species. The SEC bifurcation of the Brazilian coast acts as a barrier to gene flow among A.
335	schaueriana populations, but we suggest that the SEC speed and direction may be important
336	factors that shape the genetic structure of populations, which requires further investigation.
337	Overall, we provide insights into the relative contributions of environmental and geographic
338	variables that influence the processes maintaining the distribution of genetic diversity within A.
339	schaueriana and A. germinans in the Atlantic coast of South America.
340	
341	DATA ARCHIVING STATEMENT
342	Data strings supporting these findings can be found in GenBank with the primary access
343	codes GSE116060 and GSE123659 for A. schaueriana and A. germinans, respectively.
344	
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- in Eastern South America (Brazil)? *Remote Sensing*, 10, 1787.
- 552

553 TABLES

Table 1. Collection sites for the samples of *Avicennia germinans* and *A. schaueriana* long the

JJJ DIazinan Analitic Coast.	555	Brazilian	Atlantic	coast.
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Avicennia schaueriana	Locality (City/State)	Latitude	Longitude	Location in Fig. 1
PAR	Bragança, Pará	-0.82	-46.61555556	1s
ALC	Alcântara, Maranhão	-2.410277778	-44.40611111	2s
PRC	Paracuru, Ceará	-3.413055556	-39.05638889	3s
VER	Vera Cruz, Bahia	-12.98361111	-38.68472222	48
GPM	Guapimirim, Rio de Janeiro	-22.70138889	-43.00722222	5s
UBA	Ubatuba, São Paulo	-23.48944444	-45.16444444	6s
CNN	Cananéia, São Paulo	-25.02	-47.91805556	7s
PPR	Pontal do Paraná, Paraná	-25.575	-48.3525	8s
FLN	Florianópolis, Santa Catarina	-27.57694444	-48.51888889	9s
LGN	Laguna, Santa Catarina	-28.4451	-48.84008667	10s
Avicennia germinans	Locality (City/State)	Latitude	Longitude	Location in Fig. 1
MRJ	Soure, Pará	-0.7238889	-48.49	1g
PAb	Bragança, Pará	-0.9047222	-46.6875	2g
ALC	Alcântara, Maranhão	-2.4102778	-44.40611	3g
PNB	Parnaíba, Piauí	-2.778333	-41.822222	4g
PRC	Paracuru, Ceará	-3.4130556	-39.05639	5g
TMD	Tamandaré, Pernambuco	-8.5263889	-35.01333	6g

- 557 **Table 2.** Linear regressions between each environmental variable and genetic distances based on
- the set of molecular markers with evidence of natural selection in *Avicennia schaueriana* and *A*.
- 559 germinans.

Environmental variables	A. schaueriana		<i>A.</i> g	A. germinans	
	R ²	p - value	R ²	p - value	
Annual mean temperature (C°)	0.45	0.0009	0.81	0.01	
Temperature annual range (C°)	0.36	0.0004	0.04	0.63	
Isothermality (C°)	0.75	0.0005	0.50	0.09	
Mean diurnal range (C°)	0.006	0.74	0.24	0.27	
Max temperature of warmest month (C°)	0.003	0.63	0.80	0.03	
Annual precipitation (mm)	0.012	0.54	0.09	0.33	
Precipitation seasonality (mm)	0.56	0.0004	0.24	0.28	
Precipitation of warmest quarter (mm)	0.31	0.008	0.91	0.06	
Precipitation of coldest quarter (mm)	0.39	0.01	0.008	0.88	
Mean solar radiation (kJ m-2 day-1)	0.44	0.0005	0.63	0.03	
Min solar radiation (kJ m-2 day-1)	0.49	0.0001	0.03	0.58	
Max solar radiation (kJ m-2 day-1)	0.23	0.006	0.86	0.05	
Wind speed (m s ⁻¹)	0.037	0.42	0.07	0.41	
Water vapor pressure mean (kPa)	0.53	0.0005	0.085	0.45	
Mean annual SSS (psu)	0.00008	0.96	0.002	0.68	
SSS of the saltiest month (psu)	0.015	0.48	0.096	0.23	
Annual variance in SSS (psu)	0.036	0.5	0.096	0.22	
Mean annual SST (C°)	0.46	0.001	0.007	0.81	
SST of the warmest month (C°)	0.27	0.005	0.014	0.93	

Annual average cycle amplitude (cm)	0.62	0.0007	0.12	0.0006
Annual average duration of tidal cycles (h)	0.1	0.12	0.035	0.74

560 Significant values are presented in bold. *SST = sea surface temperature. *SSS = sea surface

561 salinity

563 FIGURE LEGENDS

- 564 Fig. 1. Map showing the geographical distribution of Avicennia schaueriana (pink) and its
- 565 sympatric region with A. germinans (pink and yellow) on the South Atlantic coast and the
- 566 geographic locations of collection sites for the A. schaueriana (green circles) and A. germinans
- 567 (red circles) plant material used for genetic analyses ((Cruz, Mori, Müller, et al., 2019; Cruz,
- 568 Mori, Oh, et al., 2019). Sampling locations are displayed according to Table 1. Arrows represent
- the direction of the main ocean currents acting on the Brazilian coast. Arrow widths illustrate the
- 570 mean current speed (Lumpkin & Johnson, 2013).
- 571 Fig. 2. Interpopulation genetic differentiation based on the total set of molecular markers
- estimated by a pairwise FST (Wright) for (A) *A. schaueriana* and (B) *A. germinans* collection
 sites.
- 574 Fig. 3. Dendrograms showing the groups (red boxes) of correlated ($R^2 > 0.8$) environmental
- 575 variables retrieved from public data platforms: (A) WorldClim version 1.4, (B) WorldClim
- 576 version 2.0 (Fick & Hijmans, 2017), (C) Marspec (Sbrocco & Barber, 2013), and (D) ECDS

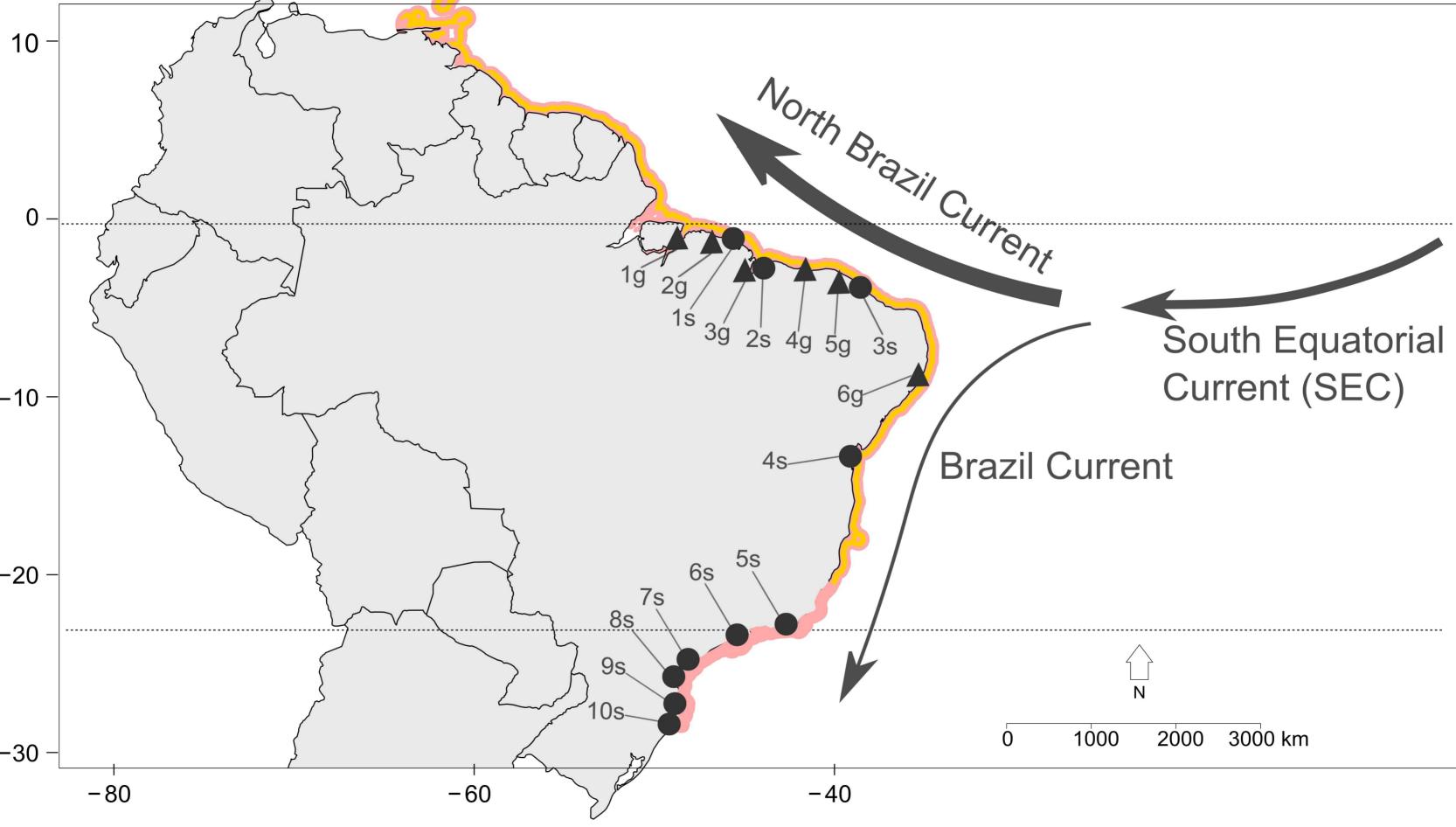
577 (Klein et al., 2013).

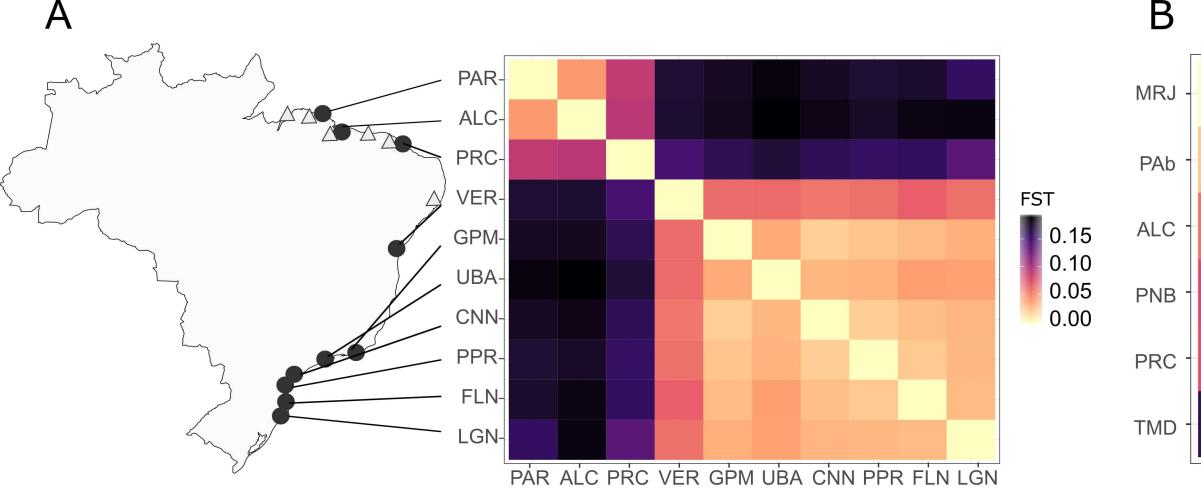
- 578 Fig. 4. Principal component analysis based on Euclidean distances estimated from a matrix of 21
- 579 environmental variables for sampling sites of (A) A. schaueriana and (B) A. germinans. The
- acronyms for sampling locations are the same as those in Table 1.
- 581 Fig. 5. Contribution of noncollinear environmental variables to the first principal component of
- 582 the PCA for (A) *A. schaueriana* and (B) *A. germinans.* *SST = Sea surface temperature. *SSS =

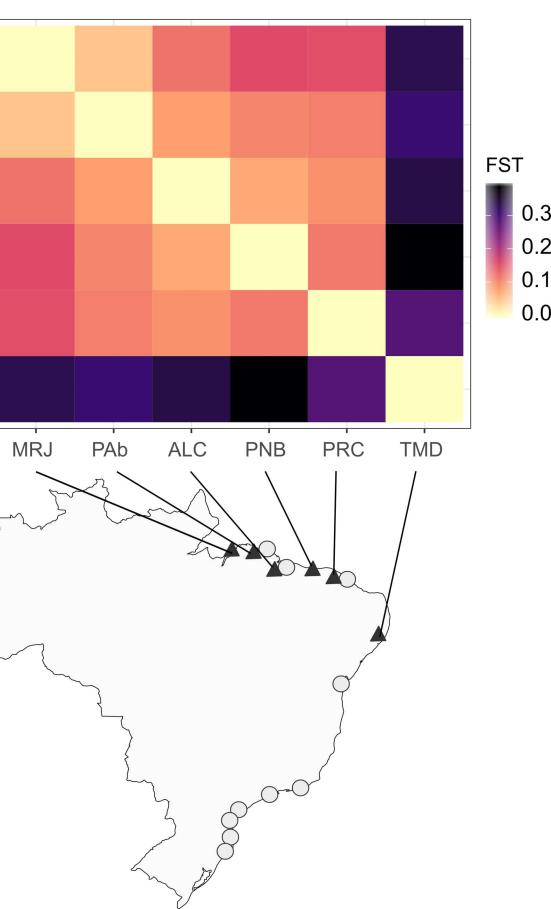
583 Sea surface salinity.

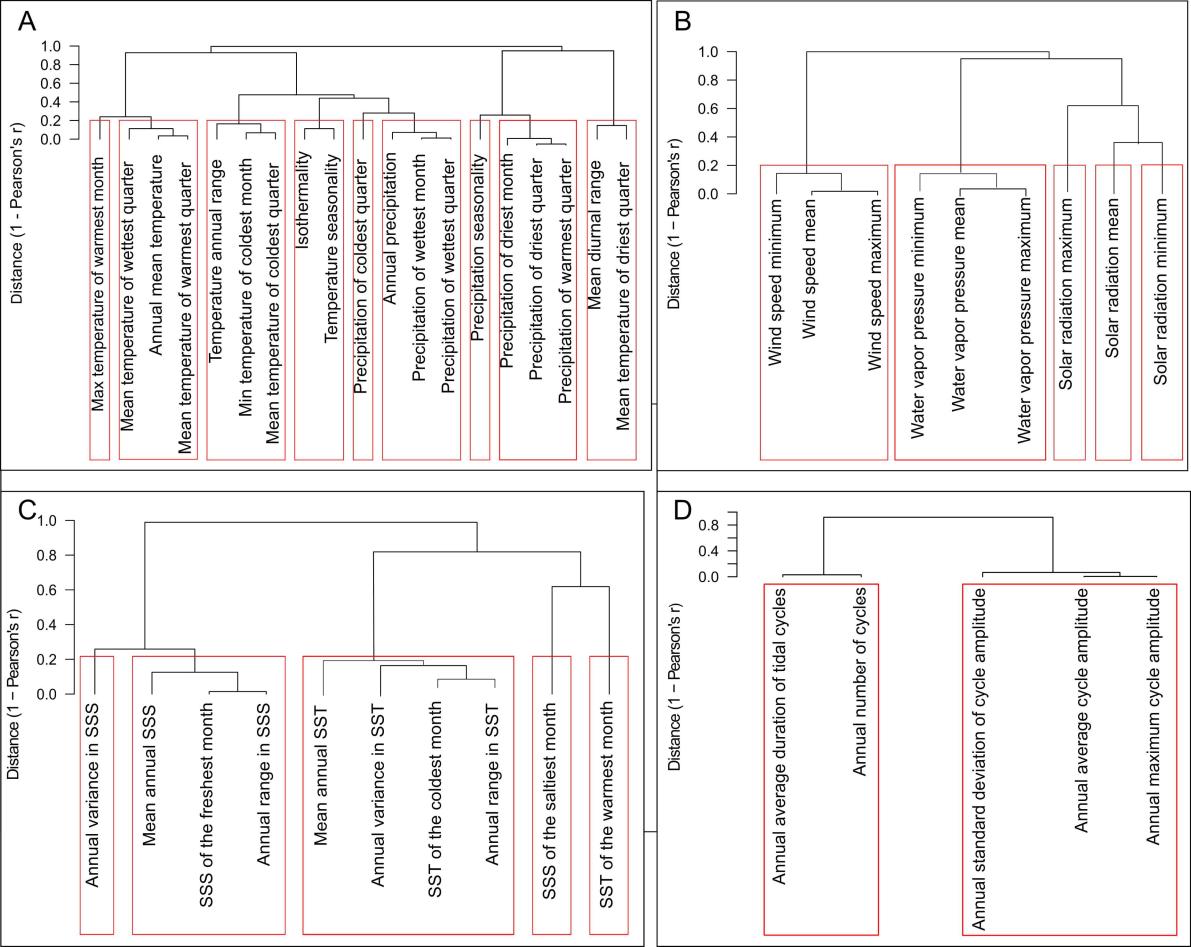
- 584 Fig. 6. Linear regressions (blue lines) and standard deviation (gray shadow) of pairwise
- 585 comparisons of sampling locations (A) between geographic and environmental distances, (B)

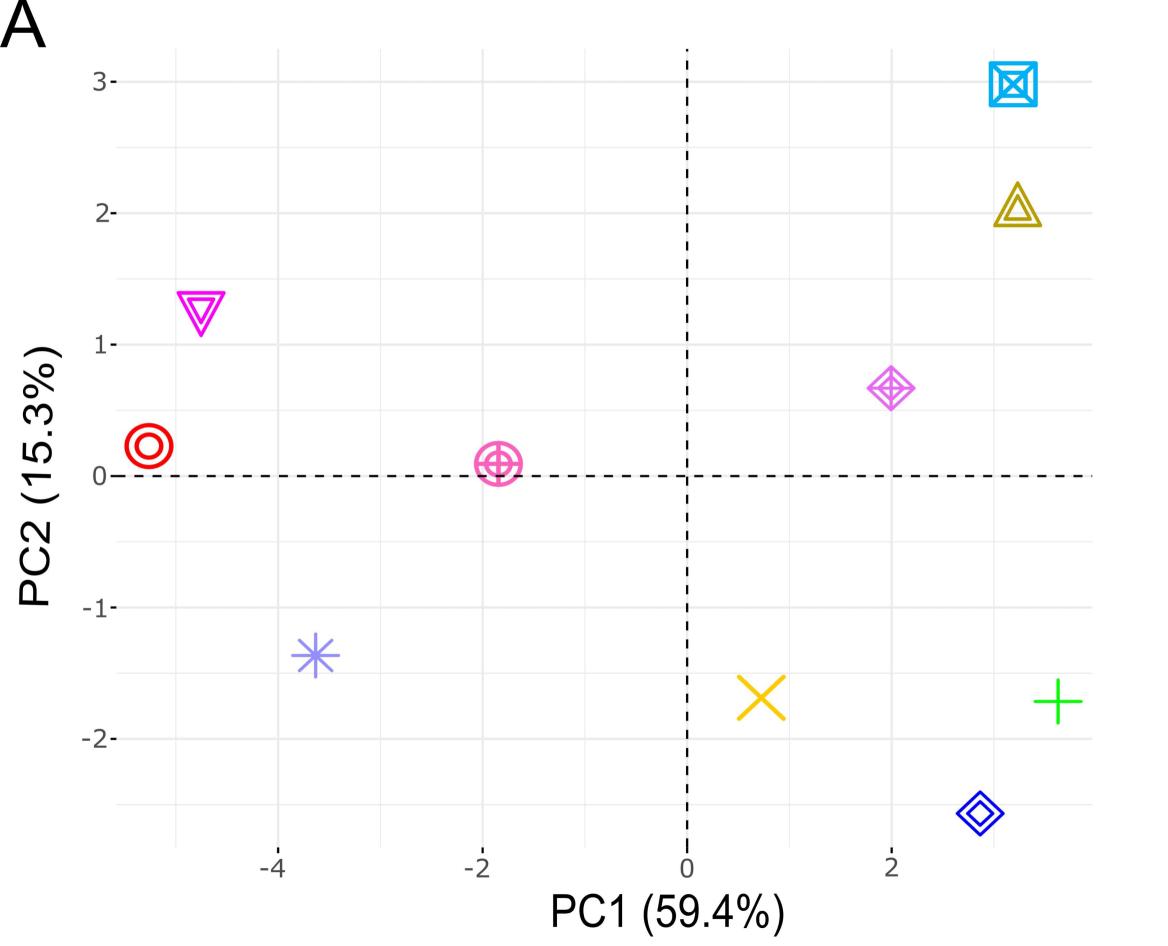
- 586 between geographic and genetic distances and (C) between environmental and genetic distances
- 587 for A. schaueriana and (D) between geographic and environmental distances, (E) between
- 588 geographic and genetic distances and (F) between environmental and genetic distances for A.
- 589 germinans.

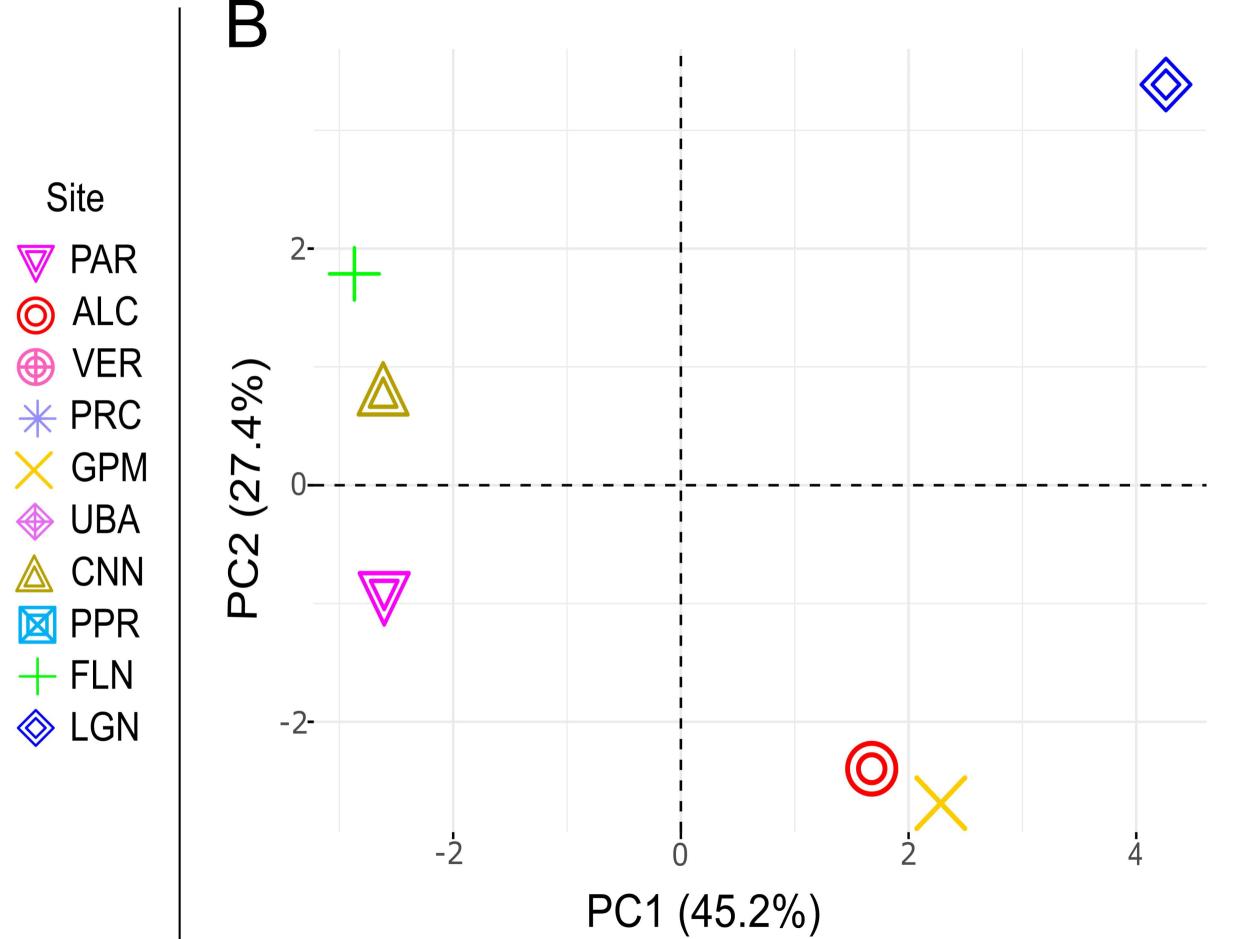


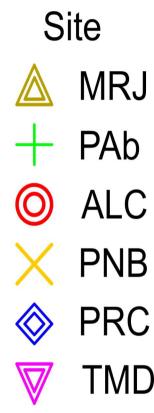


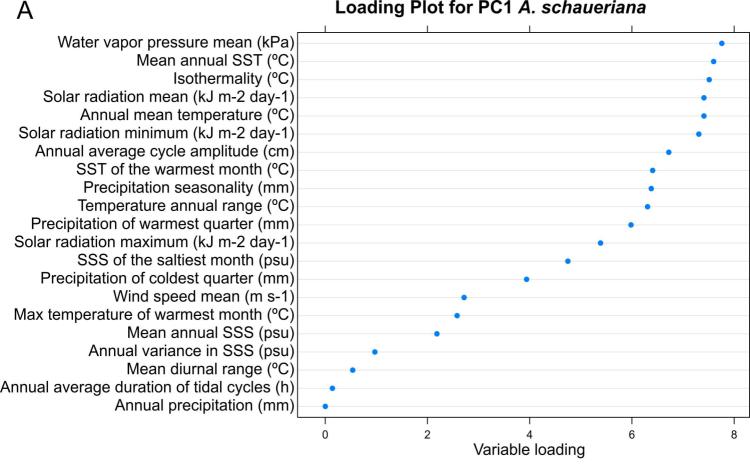




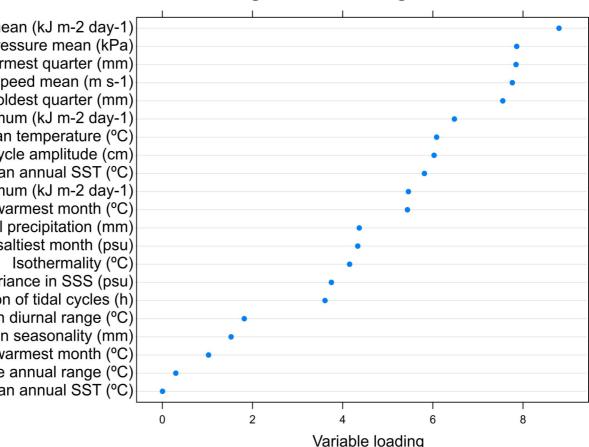








Loading Plot for PC1 A. germinans



В

Solar radiation mean (kJ m-2 day-1) Water vapor pressure mean (kPa) Precipitation of warmest quarter (mm) Wind speed mean (m s-1) Precipitation of coldest quarter (mm) Solar radiation minimum (kJ m-2 day-1) Annual mean temperature (°C) Annual average cycle amplitude (cm) Mean annual SST (°C) Solar radiation maximum (kJ m-2 day-1) Max temperature of warmest month (°C) Annual precipitation (mm) SSS of the saltiest month (psu) Annual variance in SSS (psu) Annual average duration of tidal cycles (h) Mean diurnal range (°C) Precipitation seasonality (mm) SST of the warmest month (°C) Temperature annual range (°C) Mean annual SST (°C)

