

Phylogeography sheds light on the central–marginal hypothesis in a Mediterranean narrow endemic plant

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† Background and Aims Understanding the factors that shape variation in genetic diversity across the geographic ranges of species is an important challenge in the effort to conserve evolutionary processes sustaining biodiversity. The historical influences leading to a central–marginal organization of genetic diversity have been explored for species whose range is known to have expanded from refugia after glacial events. However, this question has rarely been addressed for Mediterranean endemic plants of azonal habitats such as rocky slopes or screes. In this context, this comprehensive study examined molecular and field data from Arenaria provincialis (Caryophyllaceae), a narrow endemic plant of south-eastern France.

• Methods Across the whole geographic range, an investigation was made of whether high levels of abundance and genetic diversity (estimated from amplified fragment length polymorphism markers) are centrally distributed, to evaluate the relevance of the central–marginal hypothesis. Phylogeographic patterns inferred from chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) were used, applying Bayesian methods to test the influence of past biogeographic events. Multivariate analysis combining phylogeographic and ecological datawas used to reveal the historical and ecological distinctiveness of populations.

• Key Results Despite the narrow distribution of A. provincialis, a high level of nucleotide variation is found within cpDNA loci, supporting its persistence throughout the Pleistocene period. The area characterized by the highest genetic diversity is centrally located. Structured phylogeography and Bayesian factor analysis supported the hypothesis that the central area of the distribution was the source of both westward and eastward migrations, probably during arid periods of the Pleistocene, and more recently was a crossroads of backward migrations. By contrast, the two areas located today at the range limits are younger, have reduced genetic diversity and are marginal in the ecological gradients.

†Conclusions This study highlights a case of strong population distinctiveness within a narrow range. Phylogeography sheds light on the historical role of the areas centrally situated in the distribution. The current range size and abundance patterns are not sufficient to predict the organization of genetic diversity.

Key words: Arenaria provincialis, Caryophyllaceae, central–marginal hypothesis, genetic diversity, geographic range, ecological niche, Pleistocene, Provence, conservation, migration, population distinctiveness.

INTRODUCTION

A fundamental issue in ecology and conservation biology is how evolutionary processes shape variation across the whole geographic range of a species [\(Brown, 1984;](#page-10-0) [Lesica and Allendorf, 1995;](#page-10-0) [Gaston, 2003;](#page-10-0) [Guo, 2012\)](#page-10-0). According to the central–marginal hypothesis (Eckert et al.[, 2008\)](#page-10-0), genetic diversity decreases and genetic differentiation increases towards the periphery of the range. The ecological and evolutionary features of populations living at range limits of species [\(Sexton](#page-11-0) et al., 2009) are of particu-lar importance in the context of global change [\(Sexton](#page-11-0) et al., [2011](#page-11-0)). Low habitat quality at the range margins may lead to higher rates of extinction, while increased isolation reduces the rate of recolonization as well as that of gene flow. However, the decline in genetic diversity at range limits is not a ubiquitous trend, either in multispecific comparisons [\(Eckstein](#page-10-0) et al., 2006; [Eckert](#page-10-0) et al., 2008; [Hardie and Hutchings, 2010](#page-10-0); [Guo, 2012](#page-10-0)) or within intraspecific case studies ([Hoban](#page-10-0) et al., 2010). As empha-sized by several authors ([Garner](#page-10-0) et al., 2004; [Eckert](#page-10-0) et al., 2008; [Moeller](#page-11-0) *et al.*, 2011), looking for the causes of a central–marginal structure of genetic diversity is particularly challenging because of the diverse alternative models and the effects of current demographic and ecological factors combined with persistent historical influences. Exploring historical influences, e.g. whether marginal populations are younger than core populations ([Eckert](#page-10-0) et al., [2008](#page-10-0)), has been seen as relevant in the northern hemisphere, where Pleistocene climatic oscillations are still perceptible in the current patterns of widespread species distribution, through persistence in refugial areas and post-glacial migration roads [\(Taberlet](#page-11-0) et al., 1998; [Hewitt, 2000,](#page-10-0) [2004;](#page-10-0) Petit et al.[, 2003;](#page-11-0) [Hampe and Petit, 2005;](#page-10-0) Soltis et al.[, 2006\)](#page-11-0). Thus, range shifts and distance from areas ensuring the persistence of populations – notably refugia ([Stewart](#page-11-0) et al., 2010) – are often invoked to explain the coarse geographic changes in genetic variation [\(Garner](#page-10-0) et al., 2004; [Hoban](#page-10-0) et al., 2010; references in [Hardie](#page-10-0) [and Hutchings, 2010](#page-10-0)).

Yet neither the historical influences shaping genetic variation nor the central–marginal hypothesis have been invoked in

© The Author 2013. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Annals of Botany Company. All rights reserved. For Permissions, please email: journals.permissions@oup.com connection with Mediterranean endemic plants. Our aim here was to explore these questions, for three reasons. First, as underlined recently by [Nieto Feliner \(2011\),](#page-11-0) the post-glacial colonization paradigm pattern is insufficient as a basis for exploring Mediterranean evolutionary patterns and processes during the Pleistocene. Second, in the highly structured landscapes of the Mediterranean, narrow endemic plants are so frequent (Médail [and Verlaque, 1997](#page-11-0); [Casazza](#page-10-0) et al., 2005) that they are one of the main features of Mediterranean biodiversity ([Thompson](#page-11-0) et al.[, 2005\)](#page-11-0). Third, because their distribution is structured in small areas, narrow endemic plants could make it easier to test the central–marginal hypothesis at the scale of the whole range; moreover, they constitute key candidates for the study of persistence and speciation ([Stebbins and Major, 1965;](#page-11-0) [Chown,](#page-10-0) [1997\)](#page-10-0). Recent studies of some narrow endemic Mediterranean plants (e.g. [Medrano and Herrera, 2008;](#page-11-0) [Molins](#page-11-0) et al., 2011; [Mayol](#page-10-0) et al., 2012; [Nicoletti](#page-11-0) et al., 2012) support the hypothesis of their long-term persistence during the Pleistocene and their fluctuating genetic diversity. Nevertheless, the link between historical influences, geographic range and genetic diversity in Mediterranean narrow endemic plants remains relatively unelucidated in the context of the central–marginal hypothesis. To explore this link, we focus on Arenaria provincialis (Caryophyllaceae) [\(Chater and Halliday, 1964](#page-10-0)), which inhabits the calcareous outcrops of Southern Provence in south-eastern France.

Recent studies on geographic distribution and ecological niches (Véla et al., 2008; Youssef et al., 2011) provide the basis for examining central and marginal populations of A. provincialis throughout its entire range, taking into account both abundance and ecological aspects. According to the central–marginal hypothesis, populations of A. *provincialis* living near the centre of the distribution are expected to exhibit more genetic diversity than populations living further afield (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)). Moreover, at range limits, populations of A. provincialis experience contrasting ecological conditions [\(Youssef](#page-11-0) et al., 2011) that could raise conservation issues if, concurrently, their genetic diversity decreased and their isolation increased with respect to more central populations.

Here, occurrence data are used to show that abundance is not uniformly distributed across the range of A. provincialis, which confirms the importance of exploring the central–marginal hypothesis. First, we test the consistency of our hypotheses on a central–marginal structure of genetic diversity using multilocus markers, through analysis of amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) markers. Second, we infer the historical influences throughout the distribution from the phylogeography, based on the nucleotide variation of four chloroplast loci analysed in a Bayesian framework. Finally, we use ecological data to link marginality in the ecological gradient with range position and phylogeography, thus revealing the conservation significance of our results.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study system and occurrence data

In south-eastern France, the winter annual plant Arenaria provincialis[\(Chater and Halliday, 1964\)](#page-10-0) is distributed within an area of less than 145 km^2 along an altitudinal gradient and in different rocky habitats (Véla et al.[, 2008](#page-11-0); [Baumel](#page-10-0) et al., 2009). Its southern limits occur in the driest context of steep scree slopes at low altitudes and short distances from the coastline, whereas its northern limits lie in colder conditions near the summits of the outcrops.

Variation in abundance of A. *provincialis* throughout its entire range was estimated from the variation in density of occurrence in samples collected during several field campaigns. Data were filtered to ensure that occurrences were at least 100 m apart, to avoid redundancy and overestimation of abundance due to oversampling. Five hundred and ninety-one occurrences were used to model abundance variation by applying an isotropic Gaussian kernel function (density.ppp function of the spatstat package; [R Development Core Team, 2011](#page-11-0)).

Occurrence datawere also used to set discrete, non-overlapping geographic units to organize measures of genetic diversity and for phylogeographic analysis (see below). Preliminary analyses distinguished five geographic units (A–E in Fig. [1](#page-2-0)A; Table [1\)](#page-3-0). These geographic units were delineated by non-hierarchical clustering analysis (kmeans function in the stats package; [R Development Core](#page-11-0) [Team, 2011](#page-11-0)) from coordinates of A. provincialis occurrences. The barycentre of the distribution is situated in the northern part of area C.

DNA extraction and molecular methods

Forty populations of A. provincialis were sampled throughout its entire geographic range (Table [1](#page-3-0)) between April 2009 and May 2010. Leaves were dried with silica gel and then stored at -20 °C. Total DNA extraction followed the CTAB protocol of [Doyle and Doyle \(1987\).](#page-10-0)

The polymorphism of the chloroplast genome was examined on two or three randomly sampled individuals per population $(n = 94)$ for four plastid regions: the internal part of the *matK* gene; the $trnK$ intron plus the 5' part of mat \overline{K} ; trnL-trnF; and the trnT-trnL intergenic spacer (Supplementary Data Table S1). Sequence characterization of the four chloroplast sequences and the combined matrix are reported in Table [2.](#page-4-0) According to the most recent phylogeny published on this genus [\(Youssef](#page-11-0) et al.[, 2011](#page-11-0)), A. provincialis and A. cinerea are sister species. The same chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) regions were sequenced for three samples of A. cinerea sampled at three different locations, as well as one sample of A. ciliata and one sample of A. hispida (GenBank accession numbers are given in [Supplementary Data](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) Table S2).

PCRs were performed in a 50 μ l volume reaction that contained 2 μ l of each primer (5 mM), 1.25 units of Taq polymerase (Q-Biogen), 5 μ l of incubation buffer, 6 μ l of MgCl₂ (10 mM), 4 μ l of dNTP (25 mM) and 5 μ l of DNA (50 ng μ l⁻¹). Amplification was performed using a PTC-200 thermocycler (MJ Research; cycling conditions are shown in [Supplementary](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) [Data](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) Table S3). Direct sequencing (ABI 3730 xl, Applied Biosystems) was carried out by LGC Genomics (Germany). After quality checking and alignment, the cpDNA data set contained 94 sequences.

Variation in genetic diversity throughout the range was investigated by multilocus genotyping based on the AFLP technique developed by Vos et al. [\(1995\).](#page-11-0) Two primer combinations for the selective PCR (fluorescent dyes in brackets; Eurofins MWG Operon, Ebersberg, Germany) were used: EcoRI

FIG. 1. (A) Geographical distribution in south-eastern France of the 28 haplotypes detected for the 94 individuals of A. provincialis by combining four cpDNA regions (internal part of matK, trnK intron plus the 5' part of matK, trnL-trnF and trnT-trnL intergenic spacer; total of 2150 bp). Haplotypes are clustered by geographic groups (A–E). For population codes see Table [1](#page-3-0). Crosses represent the 156 occurrences of A. provincialis used in [Youssef](#page-11-0) et al. (2011). (B) Abundance of A. provincialis estimated by an isotropic Gaussian kernel function. The 591 occurrences used were at least 100 m apart (see Materials and methods for more details). The maximum abundance was 17 occurrences within a 500×500 metre plot.

(6-FAM)-AAGG/MseI-CCAG; and EcoRI (6-FAM)-AACG/ MseI-CAAG. Selective amplification was performed in 20 μ L volumes with 5 pmol of each primer, 0.65 mm of $MgCl₂$, 0.5 mM of dNTPs, 1 unit of Taq DNA polymerase (Q-Biogen) and 5 μ L of 100 \times diluted preamplification. The selective

amplification thermocycle profile was $94 °C$ for 2 min, 10 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 65 °C for 30 s (step -0.7 °C per cycle), $72 \degree C$ for 1 min, followed by 20 cycles at 94 $\degree C$ for 30 s, 56 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 5 min. PCR products were separated and quantified on an ABI 3730xl

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Group	Code	Latitude, longitude	Altitude (m)	Haplotypes
A (south-west)	M16	43.2091, 5.36656	39	H20(3)
	M ₃ A	43.2232, 5.36799	365	H20(3)
	MCC	43.2251, 5.36003	361	H20(3)
	MG4	43.2208, 5.35103	143	H26(3)
	MHM	43.2184, 5.38723	395	H20(3)
	MS	43.2231, 5.36841	408	H20(3)
B (south)	Car ₈	43.2555, 5.52511	303	H18(1)
	Carp	43.2408, 5.48494	325	$H21(2)$; $H22(1)$
	Cer	43.2467, 5.46236	239	H21(3)
	Gar10	43.2154, 5.48339	276	$\overline{}$
	Gar14	43.2066, 5.47836	196	H23(1)
	Gar2	43.2278, 5.48654	398	H21(2)
	Gar4	43.2254, 5.48099	438	$\qquad \qquad -$
	Gar ₈	43.2212, 5.47848	282	$\overline{}$
	Gard9	43.2309, 5.50711	169	H18(3)
	LMO	43.2113, 5.44408	35	$H26(2)$; $H24(1)$
	LSO	43.2122, 5.42633	91	H25(1); H27(2)
	Vau	43.2503, 5.43408	200	$H27(2)$; $H28(1)$
C (Centre)	Cap	43.2044, 5.56306	316	H16(3)
	Cap10	43.2101, 5.57739	194	H19(2)
	Cap13	43.2384, 5.58016	284	H18(3)
	Cap3	43.1954, 5.56473	282	H16(2); H17(1)
	Car ₃	43.2637, 5.55819	299	H5(2)
	Cey ₅	43.2430, 5.61752	465	$\overline{}$
	Cey12	43.2229, 5.61626	215	H15(3)
	FB ₆	43.2374, 5.65623	413	H11(3)
D (east)	Cas3	43.2468, 5.73241	409	H6(3)
	ColB	43.3114, 5.68911	1017	$H7(2)$; $H8(1)$
	Cu1	43.2799, 5.71646	296	H12(2)
	FB4	43.2450, 5.67466	433	$H9(2)$; $H10(1)$
	Gem18	43.3193, 5.65844	735	H12(3)
	Gem2	43.3149, 5.62552	277	H13(3)
	Jou	43.3326, 5.78356	1089	H14(3)
	Pcab	43.3239, 5.75241	954	H14(2)
E (north)	Cad11	43.3798, 5.51971	361	H1(2)
	Cad15	43.3531, 5.49952	345	$\qquad \qquad -$
	G10	43.3433, 5.53942	587	H3(2)
	Roq3	43.3667, 5.60136	294	H5(3)
	Roq5	43.3595, 5.60011	388	$H5(2)$; $H4(1)$
	Sav2	43.4028, 5.52514	582	$H1(1)$; $H2(2)$

TABLE 1. Chloroplast DNA haplotypes detected (with the number of individuals carrying a given haplotype in brackets) for each of the 40 populations of A. provincialis sampled relative to geographic group memberships, codes, GPS coordinates (decimal degrees) and altitude (geographic location of haplotype in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0)

DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The reliability of AFLP markers was checked by repeating the complete analysis from DNA amplification to AFLP screening on ten samples for each pair of primers.

More than 40 polymorphic markers were generated, the minimum threshold for the resolution of a genetic structure with AFLPs ([Gaudeul](#page-10-0) et al., 2004). Amplified labelled fragments were revealed on an ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer (PE Applied Biosystems) and fingerprint profiles were scored with Genemapper 3.7 (PE Applied Biosystems). The results of the scoring were exported as a presence/absence matrix and used for further analysis. Two individuals per population were studied for all populations. However, AFLP failed for some samples, and the final AFLP data set comprised 73 genotypes.

Variation in AFLP across the geographic range

Genetic diversity was estimated using the percentage of polymorphic loci, the number of private markers and the Shannon entropy index, which were computed from AFLP data for each of the five geographic units (A–E) described above (Table [3\)](#page-4-0), using GenAlEx 6.41 (Genetic Analysis in Excel; [Peakall and](#page-11-0) [Smouse, 2006](#page-11-0)). Genetic differentiation was estimated as the mean of genotype divergence within each geographic unit. Genotype divergences were based on the Jaccard index (dist.binary function in the ade4 package; [R Development Core Team,](#page-11-0) [2011\)](#page-11-0).

Phylogeography of A. provincialis

A network of relationships among cpDNA haplotypes was established from a NeighborNet analysis [\(Bryant and Moulton,](#page-10-0) [2004\)](#page-10-0) using SplitsTree4 ([Huson and Bryant, 2006](#page-10-0)). Arenaria cinerea, A. hispida and A. ciliata were included in the analysis so as to identify the branch representing the oldest divergence in A. provincialis. To compute pairwise distances between haplotypes, a distance using a $GTR +$ gamma substitution model

	Fragment length	Number of haplotypes	Number of polymorphic sites	Haplotype diversity (h)	Nucleotide diversity (π)
matK	711	14	19	0.90	0.00787
trnK-matK	830	16		0.88	0.00297
trnL-trnF	267			0.85	0.01099
$trnT-trnL$	359	13		0.77	0.00613
Total	2150	28		0.94	0.00626

TABLE 2. Characterization and diversity of the four chloroplast DNA sequences separately and for the combined matrix (Total) examined for A. provincialis

TABLE 3. Summary statistics of AFLP data for the geographic groups of populations of A. provincialis

N		24	12		10
Frag _{tot}	133	212	215	16 186	160
Private					
$\%$ poly	$50-2$	81.67	80.48	72.11	61.35
Shan	$0.20 + 0.02$	0.28 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.02	$0.26 + 0.01$	0.25 ± 0.02
Diff	0.697 ± 0.1	0.703 ± 0.1	0.644 ± 0.08	0.716 ± 0.09	0.701 ± 0.1

 N , number of investigated individuals; Frag_{tot}, number of AFLP fragments per population; Private, number of fragments that only occur in one population; %poly, percentage of fragments exhibiting intrapopulation polymorphism; Shan, Shannon diversity index; Diff, genetic differentiation.

was chosen according to jModelTest ([Posada, 2008](#page-11-0)) with empirical estimation of nucleotide frequencies (Fig. [2](#page-5-0)).

The phylogeography of A. provincialis was based on the Bayesian MCMC methods of BEAST 1.7 [\(Drummond](#page-10-0) et al., [2012\)](#page-10-0), using all sequences obtained for A. provincialis (four cpDNA genes and $n = 94$ samples). All five geographic units (A–E) were used to set a geographic state for each sample. The ancestral geographic states were inferred at each node using the Bayesian stochastic search variable selection (BSSVS; [Lemey](#page-10-0) et al.[, 2009\)](#page-10-0) (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0). Without a priori knowledge about the history of A. provincialis, we decided not to specify a prior rate for the ancestral geographic states; thus, geographic state transitions (dispersal) are estimated solely from the genealogical processes. This method was recently used to build discrete phylogeographies in intra-specific studies (e.g. [Winkler](#page-11-0) et al., [2012\)](#page-11-0). We used Bayes factor (BF) analysis to identify wellsupported geographic state transitions with strong posterior support (i.e. BF values $>$ 3; [Lemey](#page-10-0) *et al.*, 2009).

The maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree produced by BEAST 1.7 was used to map the ancestral distributions reconstructed for each node via the BSSVS method. We ran the MCMC analysis for 10 million steps, sampling states every 1000 generations. The coalescent model for molecular data was set with a $GTR +$ gamma substitution model, an empirical estimation of nucleotide frequencies, a coalescent-constant size tree prior, a random starting tree, a strict molecular clock and default programme prior distribution on other model parameters. The coalescent model for the discrete geographic data was set with a symmetrical substitution model and the BSSVS was then enabled. Convergence and acceptable mixing of the sampled parameters were checked using TRACER (part of BEAST; [Supplementary Data](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) Fig. S1); all ESS values were higher than 200. TREEANNOTATOR (part of BEAST) was used to choose the MCC tree after a 10 % burn-in.

The most probable location of each node was labelled on the MCC tree with the corresponding geographic state. For the main phylogroups and the root nodes, the distribution of posterior probabilities of geographic states was also shown to account for uncertainties in ancestral reconstructions (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0). The history of migration events within the distribution of A. provincialis is summarized in Fig. [4](#page-7-0) according to ancestral geographic state reconstruction.

Correlation between phylogeography and ecological gradients

[Youssef](#page-11-0) et al. (2011) found that the flora of open rocky habitats in southern Provence is organized along two ecological gradients, according to an outlying mean index analysis (OMI; Dolédec et al., 2000) based on 623 floristic relevés and 14 variables: altitude, slope, soil, mean annual temperature and precipitation (BIOCLIM variables; [Hijmans](#page-10-0) et al., 2005), cover percentage of high and low shrubs, high and low trees, herbaceous plants and total plant cover, and the proportions of rocks, stones and gravel. The first gradient is mainly climatic, related to altitude and distance from the coastline, from thermophilous coastline habitats to colder and wetter habitats located at high altitude in the study area. The second gradient is in vegetation cover, from scrublands to scree slopes, measured within a 100 m^2 circular area. This vegetation structure is mainly determined by substrate granulometry and slope steepness.

In our analysis, each location, corresponding to a leaf of the MCC tree of cpDNA sequences, was reported with respect to its contribution to the two ecological gradients described above using the dotchart.phylog function (adephylo and ade4 packages; [R Development Core Team, 2011](#page-11-0)). The contributions were centred; therefore the mean value on each gradient corresponded to the barycentre of the ecological distribution of A. provincialis. Finally, the phylogenetic autocorrelation on

FIG. 2. NeighborNet diagram generated using SplitsTree4 connecting the 28 haplotypes detected for the 94 individuals of A. provincialis by combining the polymorphisms of four cpDNA loci (internal part of matK gene, trnK intron and the 5' part of matK, trnL-trnF and trnT-trnL intergenic spacer; total of 2150 bp). Each circle represents a haplotype, with size proportional to the number of individuals (see Table [1](#page-3-0)).

the two gradients ($n = 94$) was tested using the Abouheif test with the abouheif.moran function (adephylo package, [R](#page-11-0) [Development Core Team, 2011\)](#page-11-0), based on the Moran statistic and a randomization procedure (1000 permutations) ([Pavoine](#page-11-0) et al.[, 2008](#page-11-0)).

RESULTS

Abundance variation across the geographic range

The density graph obtained by the Kernel method (Fig. [1B](#page-2-0)) shows, in different intensities of grey, the smoothing of occurrence density inside a 500×500 m plot, with a maximum of 17 occurrences. Density was higher and more continuous in the south-western part of the distribution and lower, as well as more fragmented, in the north-eastern part. The core of abundance was not in line with the geographic barycentre, but located in the south-western part (mainly area B). Moreover, abundance decreased on the northern and eastern margins but not on the southern and western margins.

Variation in AFLP across the geographic range

When AFLP data were collated according to the five geographic units (Table [3\)](#page-4-0), area C was distinguished as having the highest number of private markers (13) and the highest Shannon entropy index (0.33). Area B was also characterized by high diversity, while the lowest diversity was observed in area A for all indexes (Table [3\)](#page-4-0). Medium diversity was observed in both areas D and E. Genetic differentiation, estimated by mean pairwise AFLP genotype divergence within each geographic unit, was lowest in area C.

Phylogeography of A. provincialis

When the four cpDNA sequences for A. *provincialis* (Table [2](#page-4-0)) were combined, the alignment was 2151 bp in length. Twenty-eight haplotypes (H1–H28; Table [1](#page-3-0)) were identified for the 94 samples of A. provincialis from 59 variable sites (51 parsimony-informative positions), and five indels. The trnL-trnF DNA region presented the highest nucleotide diversity (0.011) , in spite of having the smallest number of nucleotides (267 bp)

FIG. 3. Maximum clade credibility tree based on sequence variation at four cpDNA loci of A. provincialis and reconstruction of ancestral areas by the BSSVS method. Nodes are named according to the highest posterior probability of the location state. Node histograms for the three principal nodes show posterior probability distributions of location state.

and haplotypes (only nine). Conversely, the longest region, $trnK-matK$ (830 bp), was characterized by the highest number of haplotypes (16) and the lowest nucleotide diversity (0.003).

NeighborNet analysis revealed two main phylogroups within A. provincialis. The outgroup taxa (A. cinerea, A. ciliata and A. hispida) were connected to the branch separating these two main phylogroups (Fig. [2\)](#page-5-0). The geographic distribution of cpDNA haplotypes revealed a strong phylogeographic signal: the first phylogroup (H1–H15) was mainly situated in the northern part of the distribution range (groups D and E), while the second phylogroup (H15–H28) was restricted to the south

(areas A, B and C). The two phylogroups were separated by the Huveaune river valley, but a few haplotypes of the first phylogroup were also found in the southern part of the distribution range (group C, haplotypes H5, H11 and H15).

The MCC tree provided by BEAST and based on the 94 samples (Fig. 3) is congruent with the result of the NeighborNet analysis. The root of the MCC tree is located on the branch separating the two main phylogroups. The BSSVS method used to reconstruct the ancestral areas of A. provincialis identified area C as ancestral (highest posterior probability for the root; Fig. 3). After the initial divergence of the two phylogroups, the history of A. provincialis

F_{1G}. 4. Migration patterns in three steps mapped using the ancestral distributions reconstructed at each node by the BSSVS method. Arrows indicate direction of migration.

was characterized by migrations to areas E and B. The first phylogroup originated from area E and migrated eastwards to area D. The second phylogroup originated from area B, migrated westwards to area A and then migrated back to area C. There were at least three dispersal events back towards former areas [e.g. from D to E (H4 and H5), from E to C (H5) or from B to C; Figs [3](#page-6-0) and 4], but no migration event from the southern areas to the north occurred after the divergence of the phylogroups. BF analysis revealed that the geographic state transitions with strongest posterior support were between C and B ($BF = 24$) and between C and E ($BF = 22$).

Correlation between ecological and phylogenetic structures

The Abouheif tests exhibited significant phylogenetic autocorrelation on the two ecological gradients provided by OMI analysis for all haplotypes ($P = 0.001$) as well as for the two phylogroups separately $(P = 0.001)$. Descriptive results of the Abouheif tests are given in [Supplementary Data](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) Table S4. Figure [5](#page-8-0) shows that samples closely related in phylogeny tended to share the same position in the ecological gradients.

Across the first gradient, samples from sites with above average climatic conditions (first OMI axis) were mainly in the first phylogroup, while those below average were mainly in the second phylogroup. In the former areas of both phylogroups, i.e. C and E (H16, H17, H18, H1, H2 and H3), climatic conditions differed but were not extreme. The most marginal values, corresponding to either the coldest and wettest or the warmest and driest climatic conditions, were for locations at the periphery, where the most recent haplotypes were found (D versus A areas) and for which migrations from former areas (B, C and E) were inferred (see above results).

Across the second gradient, that of vegetation cover, the distribution of samples was also phylogenetically structured. Samples belonging to the second phylogroup were mainly distributed in sites characterized by low vegetation cover, high slope values and high gravel cover values (corresponding to screes), whereas samples belonging to the first phylogroup were mainly distributed in sites with low vegetation and low gravel cover values and high rock cover values (representing lapiaz). Again, the most marginal values were observed in areas A, B and D, while values for areas C and E were at the centre of the gradient.

DISCUSSION

A hotspot of biodiversity, the Mediterranean Basin has been described as a mosaic of refugial areas harbouring numerous endemic taxa (Médail and Diadema, 2009). Few studies have investigated precisely the phylogeography of narrow endemic plants, especially outside the major regional Mediterranean biodiversity hotspots (Médail and Quézel, 1997). Furthermore, annual plants are generally not well represented in phylogeographic studies. Therefore, our study focusing on a winter annual plant of southern Provence, a region that remains relatively unexplored in molecular studies, represents a contribution towards more comprehensive knowledge of plant evolution in the Mediterranean region.

Unexpected chloroplast DNA variation

In a recent study of its ecological niche and phylogenetic position ([Youssef](#page-11-0) et al., 2011), A. provincialis was shown to be the only one of the six Arenaria species of Provence able to colonize scree slopes. This suggests a probable relationship between its history and the emergence of lapiaz and scree slopes derived from the intense frost erosion processes occurring during the Pleistocene glacial periods.

Here, NeighborNet analysis based on the combined sequences of four cpDNA loci detected a well-resolved genealogy with two phylogroups in A. provincialis, themselves connected to the outgroups A. cinerea, A. hispida and A. ciliata (Fig. [2\)](#page-5-0). After the divergence of the two main phylogroups of A. provincialis, cpDNA haplotype diversity accumulated, leading to the current high numbers of haplotypes (28) observed within a small area (less than 145 km^2). In comparison, a study based on Arenaria humifusa, endemic to the Arctic Arc, showed only two substitutions and one indel for 1578 bp in two cpDNA loci, revealing three haplotypes distributed over more than 5,000 km² [\(Westergaard](#page-11-0) et al.[, 2010](#page-11-0)).

Our study, like other Mediterranean case studies (e.g. in insular endemics: [Molins](#page-11-0) et al., 2011; [Mayol](#page-10-0) et al., 2012), confirms that strong genetic structuring is plausible in any part of the distribution range of Mediterranean endemics, and therefore that the size of a distribution range is not correlated with levels and structure of genetic diversity. The well-known climatic impact of the last glacial maximum (21 000 years before the present) on species distributions [\(Hewitt, 2000\)](#page-10-0) has also been shown for vegetation in the western Mediterranean area ([Cheddadi](#page-10-0) et al., 2009; Médail and Diadema, 2009; [Fady and](#page-10-0) [Connors, 2010](#page-10-0)). However, the high cpDNA diversity and polymorphism of A. provincialis we observed in such a restricted area support the idea that the preservation and accumulation of genetic diversity during the Ice Ages could be a common pattern in the Mediterranean, as underlined recently by [Nieto](#page-11-0) [Feliner \(2011\)](#page-11-0). Our study yields new evidence that extreme or azonal habitats, i.e. rocky terrain, cliffs and steep slopes, may have promoted the persistence of endemic plants and enhanced specific traits [\(Thompson, 2005](#page-11-0)). Arenaria provincialis, with its phylogeographic structure, therefore affords an excellent opportunity to relate long-term persistence and patterns of genetic diversity to the central–marginal hypothesis [\(Eckert](#page-10-0) et al., 2008; [Sexton](#page-11-0) *et al.*, 2009).

Spatial distribution and the central–marginal hypothesis

The kernel model of density (Fig. [1B](#page-2-0)) clearly shows that abundance of A. *provincialis* is not homogeneous across its geographic range. Area B hasthe highest abundance. In the northern part of

F1G. 5. (A) Projection of the first two axes of the OMI analysis following [Youssef](#page-11-0) et al. (2011) realized on 14 variables and 254 stations. The 14 variables are described in the text, with the following abbreviations used on the figure: AnnP = annual preciptitation; AnnT = annual temperature; htrees, hshrubs = percentage cover of high trees and shrubs, respectively; tplant = total plant cover. (B) Position of the 156 stations in the presence of A. provincialis inside the two axes. (C) Dot chart representing the MCC tree (Fig. 2) and the position of each haplotype within the OMI axes relative to the mean (values above the mean on the right and values below the mean on the left); individuals are named by geographic group.

its distribution, A. provincialis is markedly less abundant and more fragmented. A bias in field inventories is unlikely to explain this pattern, since inventories of A. provincialis have been made for several years and its northern and eastern range limits have been intensively investigated. The north-eastern parts of the distribution correspond to isolated patches of open rocky habitats most frequently embedded in mattoral or forest matrixes. A decrease in abundance is observed towards the northern and eastern range limits.

Genetic diversity showed a different pattern from that of contemporary abundance: measured as the polymorphism and Shannon entropy of AFLP markers (Table [3\)](#page-4-0), it increased towards the centre (areas B and C), whereas AFLP genotype divergence, used here to describe genetic differentiation, was significantly lower in area C (Table [3\)](#page-4-0). Molecular markers thus show that the populations of A. provincialis with the highest diversityand that are the least differentiated are near the central part of the distribution (mostly C and secondary B areas), whereas marginal populations with the lowest genetic diversity are in areas A, D and E, near the western, eastern and northern parts of the distribution respectively. The structure of genetic diversity seems roughly consistent with the hypotheses formulated here (see Introduction), and we cannot rule out the contemporary effects of isolation and small effective population size, notably at the northern and eastern limits. However, we make the point below that this pattern of contemporary genetic diversity is also well correlated with Pleistocene range dynamics and expansion.

Past migrations from the centre to the periphery

The structured phylogeography of A. provincialis and the reconstruction of ancestral areas, based on the BSSVS method of [Lemey](#page-10-0) et al. (2009), enabled us to reconstruct a step-by-step history of the migrations responsible for the current range of A. provincialis. The ancestral area of A. provincialis was thus found to be situated near the centre of the distribution (area C), with evidence that, after migrations to the west (area B) and north (area E), migrations occurred towards the eastern and western peripheries (areas A and D; Figs [3](#page-6-0) and [4](#page-7-0)). Moreover, phylogeography and the reconstruction of ancestral states revealed that backward migrations also occurred to areas C and E (Figs [3](#page-6-0) and [4\)](#page-7-0). BF analysis revealed strong posterior support for dispersal between areas C and B and between areas E and C, thus confirming the central position of C as both an ancestral and a crossroads area. In this phylogeographic context, it should be noted that the frequency of AFLP private markers (Table [3](#page-4-0)) supported a longer persistence of A. *provincialis* in area C, and secondarily in area B. Consequently, area C, which is central in the distribution, appears to have been crucial in the history of A. provincialis.

The history of A. provincialis therefore reveals that the central–marginal pattern is strongly associated with a history of expansion from former areas (Fig. [4\)](#page-7-0). Such correlations between genetic diversity and distance from refugia have been found elsewhere (e.g. [Garner](#page-10-0) et al., 2004; [Hoban](#page-10-0) et al., 2010), but over a coarser scale and in the context of glaciations. To the best of our knowledge, this correlation has never before been observed for a Mediterranean narrow endemic plant. In the light of the extensive cpDNA nucleotide variation and

marked phylogeographic structure revealed here (28 haplotypes in two phylogroups), it is likely that the rocky habitats situated in the central parts (C, and subsequently areas B and E) of the distribution range have sheltered A. *provincialis* for a long time (i.e. probably since the early Pleistocene). Originating from these central, ancestral areas, the populations situated today at the range limits (areas A and D) are younger and have more limited AFLP diversity (Table [3\)](#page-4-0).

An extensive survey of the literature yielded no conclusive evidence from the recent geological history of the focus area that might have helped to calibrate precisely in time the haplotype genealogy of A. provincialis. Regarding past environmental change, paleoecological data are also very scarce for rocky outcrops of the focus area, and ancestral distribution modelling would be difficult to realize for a narrow endemic plant living in azonal habitats. Of the plants common to the rocky habitats of A. provincialis, the pioneer tree Juniperus phoenicea has been hypothesized to have undergone expansion during arid and cold periods of the Pleistocene, such as the Last Glacial Maximum [\(Boratynski](#page-10-0) et al., 2009). Similarly, it has been proposed that Cheirolophus intybaceus reached southern France from the Iberian Peninsula during the mid-late Pleistocene ([Garnatje](#page-10-0) et al., 2013). The sole relevant hypothesis, therefore, is that a decrease in vegetation cover due to climate cooling and drying during the major glaciation phases beginning around 0.9 Mya ([De Beaulieu](#page-10-0) et al., 2005) may have favoured the expansion of pioneer plants like A. provincialis.

Conservation significance of the phylogeographic pattern

The habitat of A. *provincialis* is structured around two main ecological gradients mainly determined by altitude and vegeta-tion cover [\(Baumel](#page-10-0) et al., 2009; [Youssef](#page-11-0) et al., 2011; Fig. [5A](#page-8-0)). As supported by the significant phylogenetic autocorrelation on these two ecological gradients (Abouheif test), the populations having the most divergent haplotypes are now living at the extremes of its two ecological gradients (Fig. [5C](#page-8-0)). During the history of its expansion, A. provincialis reached the top of its elevation gradient in southern Provence (i.e. a range of 1000 m), where its populations are currently experiencing contrasting climatic conditions (axis 1; Fig. [5](#page-8-0)A, C). For example, A. provincialis is the sole Arenaria species living both near the littoral and near the summit of the Sainte Baume mountain range (almost 1000 m above sea level), in contrast to its congeners A. grandiflora and A. aggregata, which are present only in the second location. Yet populations located near the littoral, and belonging mainly to the second phylogroup, are living in the most open and steep habitats of the species, such as huge south-facing seaside screes (axis 2; Fig. [5](#page-8-0)A, C). This means that today's populations of A. provincialis are organized across an ecological range explained both by the history of the species and by the geographic structure of its genetic diversity.

In conclusion, population distinctiveness based on molecular variation and ecological data is well supported here: populations from the two phylogroups are exchangeable neither genetically nor ecologically ([Crandall](#page-10-0) et al., 2000). Further study will be needed in order to evaluate the probable adaptive polymorphism of A. provincialis suggested by the strong correlation between phylogeography and ecological gradients ([Moritz, 2002\)](#page-11-0). Our results point to key issues in terms of conservation. First, the two phylogroups of A. provincialis have different ecologies and exhibit different patterns of fragmentation and abundance (Figs [1](#page-2-0) and [5](#page-8-0)). The populations situated near the south-western and north-eastern range limits contribute significantly to this fragmented structure. Second, the central populations have persisted the longest and been the source of expansions, but they are not currently characterized by the highest abundance.

Exploring the abundance, genetic diversity and phylogeography of a Mediterranean narrow endemic plant, this study highlights the fact that current range size and abundance patterns are not sufficient to predict the organization of genetic diversity. However, our study reveals the crucial role played in the history of A. provincialis by the areas situated centrally in its distribution.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

[Supplementary data are available online at www.aob.oxford](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1)[journals.org and consist of the following. Figure S1: posterior](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) [trace of Bayesian analysis in BEAST \(Tracer software\). Table](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) [S1: primers and references for amplification of chloroplast](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) [loci. Table S2: GenBank accession numbers of the 28 haplotypes](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) of A. provincialis [and the outgroup. Table S3: cycling conditions](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) [of the PCR. Table S4: phylogenetic autocorrelation results from](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1) [Abouheif tests.](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mct183/-/DC1)

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