Pleistocene expansion, anthropogenic pressure and ocean currents: Disentangling the past and ongoing evolutionary history of Patella aspera Röding, 1798 in the archipelago of Madeira

Ricardo Sousa¹, Joana Vasconcelo², Iván Vera³, Ana Rita⁴, Stephen Hawkins⁵, Mafalda Freitas⁶, Joao Delgado⁶, Pepe Solea⁷, and RODRIGO RIERA⁷

¹Observatório Oceânico da Madeira, Agência Regional para o Desenvolvimento da Investigação Tecnologia e Inovação (OOM/ARDITI)

July 12, 2021

Abstract

Rising sea-level following the Last Glacial Maximum lead to fragmentation of coastal limpet populations between islands of the Archipelago of Madeira. This fragmentation is reinforced by recent heavy exploitation reducing effective population size on Madeira Island. We use the limpet P. aspera to understand how the role of processes at different time scales (i.e. changes in the sea level and overexploitation) can influence the genetic composition of an extant species, relating these processes to reproductive phenology and seasonal shifts in ocean currents. Twelve microsatellite genetic markers were used. A power analysis was used to evaluate the power of the microsatellite markers to detect a signal of population differentiation. Long-term past migrations were assessed using a Bayesian Markov Montecarlo approach in the software MIGRATE-n to estimate mutationscaled migration rates (M = m/μ m, probability of a lineage immigrating per generation; μ , mutation rate). Two scenarios were evaluated using an Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) in the software DIYABC 2.1 (i) Scenario 1: considered a population scenario from a reduced Ne at time t3 to a higher Ne at time t2; and (ii) Scenario 2 considering a reduction of Ne from a time t3 to a time t2. Colonization of the archipelago by Portuguese settlers six centuries ago probably led to an important decrease in the genetic diversity of the species (Ne). Contemporary gene flow strongly support a pattern of high asymmetric connectivity explained by the reproductive phenology of the species and spatio-temporal seasonal changes in the ocean currents. Spatio-temporal reconstructions using Bayesian methods, including coalescent and Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) approaches, suggest changes in the migration patterns from highly symmetric to highly asymmetric connectivity with subtle population differentiation as consequence of post-glacial maximum sea level rise during the Holocene.

INTRODUCTION

Quaternary glaciations have shaped a wide number of phylogeographic processes and subsequent biogeographic patterns worldwide (Ehlers et al. 2004; Marko et al. 2010; Ehlers et al. 2011; Waltari & Hickerson 2013; Ludt & Rocha 2015), such as the closure of the Isthmus of Panama (Stange et al. 2018) and in the

²Universidade da Madeira

³Catholic University of the Most Holy Conception Faculty of Medicine

⁴2.Direção Regional do Mar (DRM)/ Direção de Serviços de Monitorização, Estudos e Investigação do Mar (DSEIMar) 9

⁵Southampton University

⁶2.Direção Regional do Mar (DRM)/ Direção de Serviços de Monitorização, Estudos e Investigação do Mar (DSEIMar)

⁷Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria

North-western Pacific (Cheang et al. 2012). During the decline in the temperatures and the expansion of glaciers occurring in the Quaternary, the landscape and seascape showed major changes, including dropping sea levels and exposure of coastal areas currently under the sea (Clark & Mix 2002; Clark et al. 2009; Lambeck et al. 2014). During the Quaternary, more specifically during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM; 26500 – 19000 Kyr BP), the sea retreated over 100 meters below current sea level, connecting previously separated islands and exposing large coastal areas (Pirazzoli 1997; Clark & Mix 2002; Clark 2009). With the melting of the ice and rising sea levels during the Holocene (11500 Kyr BP up the present), previously connected landmasses became isolated, affecting the connectivity of species (Mairal et al. 2015; Patiño et al. 2015; Fernández-Palacios et al. 2016; Weigelt et al. 2016).

As consequence of these changes, populations became fragmented, as occurred with some of the islands in the archipelago of Madeira (Rijsdijk et al. 2014; Fernández-Palacios et al. 2016). During the LGM, the archipelago of Madeira comprised two islands, one larger island, that encompassed the current Madeira and Desertas and a smaller island, Porto Santo. The larger island split into two islands (Madeira and Desertas) when over a short period of ca. 1000 years during the Holocene, they became separated due to the sea level increase. Porto Santo initially five times larger than at present during the LGM (Rijsdijket al. 2014), shrank to its present size due to rising sea levels. Thus, previous studies have quantified the changes in the surface areas of these islands revealing the magnitude of the effects of Quaternary glaciations. To date a few studies using molecular genetic techniques have addressed the effects of these changes over the genetic patterns of patellids at a small scale using allozyme electrophoresis (Weber et al., 1998; Weber and Hawkins, 2002) and microsatellites (Faria et al., 2018).

Changes in the sea level during the past have directly affected the survival and connectivity of species in coastal areas due to the reduction or increase of the availability of habitat (Ludt & Rocha 2015), but also separation of previously connected areas thereby creating new barriers for populations (e.g. Imron et al. 2007; Crandall et al. 2008; Ludt & Rocha 2015). The appearance of these barriers can have from profound to no effects on species, depending on the life history traits of the species (Ludt & Rocha 2015). Sessile species reproducing through the release of free propagules and eggs into the ocean seem to have been less affected by Pleistocene-Holocene changes in the sea level (Miller & Ayre 2008; Nuryanto & Kochzius 2009). Nevertheless, the dispersal of these new individuals can also be limited by the direction of ocean currents coupled with the time of reproduction and larval release of a species (Scheltema 1971; Lind et al. 2007; Muñoz-Ramírez et al. 2020).

Therefore, the degree of genetic connectivity among populations of sessile or sedentary coastal species could be explained by both long-term past and contemporary changes in the seascape, combined with life history traits and ocean currents. An accurate knowledge of the extent of genetic exchange and demographic connectivity of populations is not only of fundamental evolutionary biological interest, but also important for their conservation and management if commercially exploited. This is especially true in places like the archipelago of Madeira, where coastal species in the islands have been affected both by changes in habitat extent during the Quaternary glaciations, but also by the anthropogenic pressures since the colonization of the islands six centuries ago by Portuguese settlers (Boehrer 1955; Russell-Wood 2007). Local human populations have consumed *Patella aspera* Röding, 1798 for centuries probably affecting their population sizes and genetic diversity due to the overexploitation in some areas of the archipelago (Faria et al. 2018; Sousa et al. 2019a, 2019b). Although this has been hypothesized from ecological and morphological studies, this has not been assessed using state of the art genetic methods (but see Weber and Hawkins, 2002).

All of these longer-term phylogeographic processes and short-term historical anthropogenic pressures can be explored by genetic markers, including microsatellites (Riginos & Liggins 2013; Selkoe et al. 2016). Microsatellite markers enable understanding of how processes at different time scales have influenced the genetic diversity and structure of populations of a species (Wang 2010). For instance, microsatellite markers have been used to disentangle how changes in the connectivity of species have occurred through time as a consequence of habitat modifications by natural (Faria et al. 2017) and anthropogenic factors (e.g. Ngeve et al. 2016; Hernawan et al. 2017; Vera-Escalona et al. 2015; Samarasin et al. 2017). One of the advantages of microsatellites

markers is that their mutation rate can help us to reveal processes that have occurred both thousands of years ago (e.g. Pleistocene), as well as up to just a few generations before present (Holocene-Anthropocene; Wang 2010). Bayesian methods, including coalescent and Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) approaches allow disentangling the combined signal of processes acting at different time scales to test hypotheses about how changes in the landscape during the past have affected exchange within meta-population networks and effective population sizes.

Conservation measures can only be implemented successfully with knowledge of the genetic diversity of species plus structure of populations in the context of the evolutionary processes generating them (Groom et al. 2006; Allendorf 2017; Holderegger et al. 2019). Therefore, an evolutionary perspective on changes in the genetic diversity of species in time and space are crucial for the conservation of species and populations (Fenderson et al. 2020). Contemporary patterns of genetic diversity can be the result of long-term phylogeographic and shorter-term historical processes, including changes in the population sizes, genetic diversity and connectivity (Epps & Keyghobadi 2015; Al-Asadi et al. 2019). Several studies have shown that connectivity patterns among populations have dramatically changed during the Pleistocene-Holocene (e.g., seastars, Crandall et al. 2014; seagrasses, Hernawan et al. 2017; mangroves, Ngeve et al. 2016; sharks, Portnoy et al. 2014). For instance, for marine species, it has been predicted that an increase in the sea level and changes in the ocean currents as consequence of climate change which could lead to new changes in habitat availability of species and negative or positive effects for their reproduction (Scavia et al. 2002; Pecl et al. 2011; Jones & Cheung 2018; Bakare et al. 2020). Therefore, by knowing how species have responded during the past we could be better prepared to decide on what species and locations to prioritize when taking conservation measures (Fenderson et al, 2020).

Here we used the limpet *P. aspera* in the Madeira archipelago (NE Atlantic Ocean) to understand how the role of processes at different time scales (i.e. changes in the sea level and overexploitation) can influence the genetic composition of an extant species, relating these processes to reproductive phenology and seasonal shifts in ocean currents. *P. aspera* is a limpet species, inhabiting coastal areas from 0 m up to 6 m deep (Sousa et al. 2017; 2019). Release of free eggs for external fertilization mostly occurs between January to April, when the Canaries current moves from West to East, from Madeira Island up to Porto Santo and Desertas Islands, the latter being the last to be connected to Madeira. Our goal was to evaluate whether past changes in sea level and more recent human activity (Portuguese colonization) with accelerating exploitation prompting recent creation of Marine protected Areas have had a noticeable effect on genetic structure and connectivity as indicated by neutral microsatellite markers. We hypothesized that rising sea-level following the Last Glacial Maximum would lead to fragmentation of populations with differences being greater the longer the separation had occurred (Porto Santo would be more distinct from Madeira Island than the Desertas). Moreover, we expected that fragmentation would be reinforced by recent heavy exploitation reducing effective population size on Madeira Island.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling collection and molecular protocols

Patella aspera were collected from six locations in the islands of Madeira, Desertas, and Porto Santo in the archipelago of Madeira (NE Atlantic Ocean) (Table 1; Fig. 1). Twenty-one to twenty-three individuals of *P. aspera* were collected from each location. 12 microsatellite markers screening as in Faria et al. 2017 (see Table S1). DNA was extracted using an E.Z.N.A Mollusc DNA kit (Omega Bio-Tek) following the manufacturer's instructions. Polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) were performed in final reaction volume of 12.5 μL, containing 1 μL of DNA, 6.25μL of the Type-it Microsatellite PCR Kit (Qiagen), 4 μL of PCR-grade water, and 1.25μL of the primer mix. The optimal PCR protocol consisted of an initial denaturation step at 95° C for 5 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95° C for 30 s, 57° C for 90 s, 72° C for 30 s; 8 cycles of 95° C for 30 s, 53° C for 90 s, 72° C for 30 s; and final extension step at 68° C for 30 min. Alleles were called using Geneious 10.2.3 (Biomatters Ltd) to observe the allelic peaks obtained for each individual. All DNA extractions and microsatellite markers development were performed by Allgenetics (https://www.allgenetics.eu).

Descriptive analyses

Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) and Linkage Disequilibrium (LD) tests were estimated in Genepop on the web (Rousset 2008; http://genepop.curtin.edu.au/) to assess markers or populations differing from the assumptions made to estimate gene flow among populations. A Bonferroni correction was used to account for multiple tests in both the HWE and LD. Number of alleles (Na), observed heterozygosity (Ho), and expected heterozygosity were calculated in Genalex 6.5 (Peakall & Smouse 2006). Allelic richness (A_r) and private alleles (Pa) were calculated using HP-RARE (Kalinowski 2005), to compare the genetic diversity between collection sites using different parameters.

Population differentiation

A power analysis was used to evaluate the power of the microsatellite markers used in this study to detect a signal of population differentiation. The test was carried out in POWERSIM 4.1 (Ryman & Palm 2006) assuming a population with Ne 2180 (as estimated with DIYABC) at time 1, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100, assuming 6 populations and 12 markers.

A F_{ST} distance matrix created in GENALEX 6.5 (Peakall & Smouse 2006) was constructed to observe the genetic distance among P. aspera individuals from the 6 sampled locations. Genetic distance should reflect similarity and differences in the genetic composition of individuals from different locations, thus helping to infer the relationship between individuals within locations. Alternatively, population differentiation was evaluated using a Bayesian approach in the software STRUCTURE 2.34 (Pritchard et al. 2000; Hubisz et al. 2009). Runs were executed assuming an admixture model with correlated alleles frequencies for k=1 to k=n+1 (k=n00000. Results were collected and assessed in STRUCTURE HARVESTER (Earl 2012) using the Evanno method (Evanno et al. 2005) to assess the most likely number of k, summarized using the greedy algorithm in CLUMPP 1.1.2 (Jakobsson & Rosenberg 2007). The final plot was obtained and edited with DISTRUCT version 1.1. (Rosenberg 2004).

Long-term past and contemporary migration patterns

Long-term past migrations were assessed using a Bayesian Markov Montecarlo approach in the software MIGRATE-n (Beerli 2006; Beerli 2009) to estimate mutation-scaled migration rates ($M = m / \mu \cdot \mu$, probability of a lineage immigrating per generation; μ , mutation rate). Thus, the main direction and magnitude of long-term past migrations for P. aspera populations in the archipelago of Madeira were calculated. In order to estimate the migration model reproducing the most likely migration scheme of the analysed populations, two models were assessed. The first model assumed a panmictic migration scheme; while a second model assumed a high unidirectional connectivity from Paul do Mar (SW Madeira) into all other sampling points (based on BAYESASS results). The two models were compared with the Bezier implementation in Migrate-n based on the log marginal likelihood of the posterior probabilities following Beerli and Palczewski (2010). Analyses were run with an increment of 100, sampling 50000 states with a burning of 50000 states, and heating 1, 1.5, 3.0, and 1000000. Priors included a uniform distribution with values 0, 500, and 0.1 for Θ and 0, 50000, and 50 or M . All MIGRATE-n analyses were run in the CIPRES Science Gateway version 3.3 clusters (https://www.phylo.org). Recent migration rates were calculated in BAYESASS 3.0 (Wilson & Rannala 2003), identifying the gene flow signature from the current generation to up to two generations in the past. Four replicates with 10000000 iterations were used, sampling every 1000 samples with burn-in equal to 1000000, deltaA = 0.30, and deltaF = 0.50. Trace results were observed in Tracer (Rambaut et al. 2018) to identify that the probability of all parameters reached a plateau and that all parameters showed a smooth distribution.

Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) scenarios

Three major events could explain the contemporary genetic patterns of *P. aspera* in the archipelago of Madeira. Although they have been hypothesized previously (e.g. Rijsdijk et al. 2014; Fernández-Palacios et al. 2016), they have not been evaluated using a genetic approach at a small scale. These events are: (i) a

likely expansion or contraction of population between the end of the Pleistocene and the Holocene, including the LGM, (ii) the Portuguese colonization of Madeira six centuries ago with increased pressure on littoral resources, and (iii) the increase of the extraction of P. aspera during the last century. Two scenarios were evaluated using an Approximate Bayesian Computation in the software DIYABC 2.1 (Cornuet et al. 2014): (i) Scenario 1 considered a population scenario from a reduced N e at time t_3 to a higher N e at time t_2 , and then let the software decide whether N e remained constant or decreased as consequence of human activity at time t_1 (with a range of time including recent extractions of P. aspera and human colonization; Fig. 2A), and (ii) Scenario 2 considering a reduction of N e from a time t_3 to a time t_2 , when the software was free to decide whether N e remained the same of reduced as consequence of human activity at time t_1 (Fig. 2B). Simulations included a wide distribution of parameter values and reduced number of hypotheses to avoid or own bias and over-parameterization of the models. Hence, the ABC software was able to assess the potential effects of anthropogenic pressure (e.g. Portuguese colonization and harvesting) as well climatic events (e.g. Pleistocene glaciations, Last Glacial Maximum, and Younger Dryas) with a reduced bias from the authors. Scenarios were evaluated in DIYABC using 3000000 simulated data sets using the prior distribution shown in the Supplementary methods and Table S2.

RESULTS

Descriptive analyses

Although 21-23 individuals were collected within each location, not all individuals were successfully amplified for the 13 polymorphic microsatellite markers developed for *P. aspera* by Faria et al (2017). One marker ASP2F suffered from over 20 % of missing values among all 64 individuals amplified; therefore, it was not included in any of further analyses. Deviations from the Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) were observed before and after using a Bonferroni correction, while not being linked to any particular location. Deviations were due to one marker (ASP38). No deviations from the Linkage Disequilibrium (LD) were observed at population nor marker level.

Number of alleles (N_a) were generally similar among locations, ranging from 9.16 in Porto Moniz to 10.50 in Porto Santo, allelic richness (A_r) ranged from 5.75 in Paul do Mar to 6.97 in Garajau (MPA), while private alleles ranged from 0.50 in Porto Moniz to 0.75 in Porto Santo (Table 1). Observed heterozygosity was lower in Porto Moniz (Ho = 0.53) and higher in Porto Santo (Ho = 0.60). For all cases, expected heterozygosity (H_e) was higher than H_e 0(Table 1).

Past and contemporary migration patterns

The Bezier method used for comparing the two migration schemes in MIGRATE-n suggested that the panmictic model was the best scenario explaining past migration patterns of P. aspera in the archipelago of Madeira (Ln = - 1618364.78). Thus, long-term past migration pattern reconstructed in MIGRATE-n using a Bayesian approach revealed a mostly symmetrical connectivity during the past (Fig 1A; Table S3), with M ($M = m/\mu$) ranging from 48.2 (Paúl do Mar into Rocha do Navio) to 82.5 (Paúl do Mar into Desertas). Contemporary gene flow calculated in BAYESASS (Fig 1B; Table S4) revealed a contrasting result to the observed in the long-term past migrations with a highly asymmetrical connectivity. High contemporary gene flow occurred from Paúl do Mar, on the Southwestern side of Madeira Island, into all other locations, ranging from 0.265 to 0.270. Gene flow among individuals of all other five locations was mostly nil, ranging from 0.011 to 0.014. The geographic position of Paúl do Mar where the ocean current turns into East of the archipelago, suggests that this population might be acting as a source of genetic variability by exporting individuals from this location into all other locations, a process that could be related with the timing of the reproduction of P. aspera from January to April (Fig. 1B).

Population differentiation and gene flow

The results from the power analyses revealed that the 12 microsatellite markers were able to detect an F_{ST} 0.007 with a 100% confidence (based on Chi and Fisher index; Table S5). Thus, the genetic variability described with the following statistics were reliable. F_{ST} -based genetic distances (Supplementary material,

Table S6) ranged from 0.000 to 0.017, revealing low differentiation among most of locations, except between Porto Santo and all other locations. Nevertheless, $F_{\rm ST}$ were significant only between Porto Santo and Paúl do Mar ($F_{\rm ST}=0.017$, p-value = 0.018) and between Porto Santo and Garajau ($F_{\rm ST}=0.014$, p-value = 0.045; Fig. 1C), both locations located in the southern part of Madeira Island. The Evanno method, used to identify the most likely number of kfrom STRUCTURE suggested k=2 (Figure S1), revealing a very subtle differentiation among individuals from Porto Santo (represented mostly in light blue) and all other five locations (represented in light blue and yellow), suggesting an emerging differentiation of the Porto Santo population (Fig. 1D). The Desertas Islands seemed to be more differentiated among the southern islands as suggested by the STRUCTURE plot (with a high presence of yellow bars). Thus, both analyses to estimate population differentiation suggested a subtle but existing differentiation between Porto Santo and all other locations.

Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) scenarios

The evaluation of the two simulated scenarios of the past genetic diversity, including a scenario with population expansion and likely effect of anthropogenic activity (Scenario 1; Fig. 2A), or population reduction and likely anthropogenic activity (Scenario 2; Fig. 2B). The direct method and logistic regression revealed that Scenario 1 was the most likely scenario explaining the contemporary genetic patterns of P. aspera in the archipelago of Madeira (Figure S2). Simulation results were assessed by model checking, revealing that the observed data were located within the distribution of the components of both scenarios (Figure S3). Results from DIYABC from Scenario 1 suggest a population expansion pattern occurring during the Holocene, with an effective population (N e) increase from 1400 at time t3 25000 years before present (BP) up to N e 54000 at time t2 7200 years BP (Fig. 2C). After allowing DIYABC to choose whether the most likely N e remained the same or decreased after t_2 , there was evidence of a reduction of the N e up to 6300 at time t_1 540 years BP, a time coinciding with the beginning of the Portuguese settlements in the island and a continuous reduction of N e up to nowadays at time t_0 with N e 2180.

DISCUSSION

Our results, discussed below, revealed the importance of population expansion during the Holocene as consequence of more favourable temperatures and more rocky habitat, the negative effects of anthropogenic pressure during the last six centuries and the importance of ocean currents interacting with the timing of the reproduction of the species to maintain the gene flow.

Changes in the sea level during the Quaternary and its importance to explain extant patterns of connectivity

The archipelago of Madeira has experienced major changes in its coastal configuration and extent as well as in the connectivity between islands (i.e. Madeira and Desertas) since the end of the Pleistocene. By the end of the Pleistocene, during the LGM (ca. 22000 years BP), the sea level declined to its lowest level worldwide up to 120-130 meters below the extant sea level. During this period, shallow coastal areas were exposed, increasing the surface of continental and island areas, as well as connecting some areas of the world through land bridges previously and currently non-existent (Clark & Mix 2002; Clark et al. 2009). The island of Porto Santo, was five times larger than at present during the LGM. The present day islands of Madeira and Desertas were joined into one island. The archipelago has been considered a glacial refugial area for marine coastal species as suggested by geological and phylogeographic studies (e.g. Domingues et al. 2007), with important implications for diversity in the wider north-east Atlantic region with subsequent post-glacial expansion. Marine species were affected by the Quaternary fluctuations of the sea level and the decrease in the temperature (Ludt & Rocha 2015), especially coastal species whose habitat increased during the Holocene as consequence of the sea level decrease (Dolby et al. 2016) as occurred with different rocky shore species including mussels (Rawson & Harper 2009; Cunha et al. 2011), kelps (Fraser et al. 2009; Neiva et al. 2018), and limpets (de Aranzamendi et al. 2011; Mmonwa et al. 2015; Pardo-Gandarillas et al. 2018). The ABC approach revealed that P. aspera survived during the LGM within archipelago of Madeira despite the likely decrease in the sea surface temperatures. This has been previously hypothesized by biogeographic studies for other coastal species (Rijsdijk et al. 2014, Fernández-Palacios et al. 2016). During the LGM

(26500 years BP), the effective population size ($N_{\rm e}$) of P. aspera was lower than at present, although still moderate to high when compared with that observed for other marine species such as the abovementioned i.e. mussels, kelps or other species of limpets. With the increase of the sea level and warming during the Holocene, the N_e of P. aspera increased up to 54,000 by 7200 years BP, most likely due to warming ocean conditions extending reproductive seasons and success and the availability of suitable rocky habitat. Then, 540 years BP, the ABC method revealed a decline in the $N_{\rm e}$ to 6,300. This estimate of time could be related with the appearance of the Portuguese settlements in the archipelago of Madeira 580 years BP. P. aspera has been consumed in archipelago of Madeira for centuries (Silva & Menezes, 1921) and it is likely that the drop in the $N_{\rm e}$ obtained with the ABC method could be reflecting this pressure since colonization. Evidence exists of local extinction of other molluses within archipelago of Madeira as occurred with nine species of land snails that became extinct during the last six centuries due to human consumption (Goodfriend et al. 1994). Anthropogenic island extinction is common worldwide due to the introduction of exotic species competing or predating with native species, human consumption and habitat loss (Wood et al. 2017). Here we provide evidence that recovering genetic diversity during the Holocene, was interrupted in P. aspera due to the extraction of individuals for consumption. These results also suggest that the Younger Dryas had no effect on the genetic diversity of P. aspera, suggesting that anthropogenic pressure had a higher influence on this species that other climatic events occurring between the late Pleistocene and the Holocene. This result is in line with previous studies suggesting a low impact of the Younger Dryas on the archipelago of Madeira. an area that probably acted as a glacial refugia for several Atlantic species (Domingues et al. 2007).

Past and contemporary migration patterns and population boundaries

Emigration estimated with Migrate-n revealed a high and mostly symmetric connectivity among islands within archipelago of Madeira at the LGM, a pattern coinciding with the high connectivity between Madeira and Desertas during the LGM and the existence of the Canary current. A high connectivity within the Macaronesian islands, from which archipelago of Madeira is part of, has been suggested as the best explanation for the existence of similar species within all the islands and high similarity (Ávila et al. 2008). For instance, a recent study by Faria et al. (2018) examined broadscale genetic structure of *P. aspera* in the Macaronesia, finding that populations from single locations in Madeira and Gran Canaria were well differentiated from the Azores. Our study reveals finer scale genetic patterns of *P. aspera* within the archipelago of Madeira.

Contemporary observations and ocean simulations have revealed that the Canary current shows seasonal changes, with a movement from West to East between January to March and North to South and East to West during the rest of the year (Stramma & Siedler 1988; Batteen et al. 2000). It is noteworthy that the reproduction of P. aspera within archipelago of Madeira from January to April matches the time when the Canary current moves from West to East, a pattern that could explain the observed contemporary asymmetric gene flow estimated with BAYESASS, where gene flow occurs from Paul do Mar in the West side of Madeira Island into all other parts of Madeira Island, Porto Santo and Desertas Islands. This high asymmetric gene flow could explain the observed patterns with the software STRUCTURE, where the most likely number of populations was estimated as k=2, although the observed pattern suggests a high admixture and some degree of differentiation or homogenization between Porto Santo and all other locations. F ST distances allowed to identify more details into this pattern, describing a low but significant differentiation between the southern localities from Madeira Island (Paul do Mar and Garajau) with Porto Santo.

Conservation and resource management implications

Here, by studying P. aspera individuals from six locations within the archipelago of Madeira, using a novel set of microsatellite markers, we found subtle signals of differentiation with two different approaches, $F_{\rm ST}$ and the software STRUCTURE. The apparent subtle differentiation and genetic diversity observed could be explained by the combined effect of spatiotemporal changes in the connectivity and anthropogenic effect. The changes in the connectivity patterns described here, going from a highly symmetrical connectivity during the past to an asymmetric gene flow occurring from a single location via ocean currents nowadays could be of interest for conservation policies. For instance, Paúl de Mar, a location where P. aspera been highly harvested during the past shows a moderate genetic diversity and due to this and its importance as a

source of variability for Madeira island, should be prioritized for conservation. Porto Santo shows the highest values of genetic diversity (Na, Ar, and Ho) and thus should be of interest for conservation as well. Among those localities where conservation measures are already ongoing due to the implementation of an MPA, we observed a moderate to high genetic diversity and thus, the status of these areas should be maintained. Nevertheless, no significant evidence of an increase in the genetic diversity was found in these areas when compared with other localities, mostly due to the time of the creation of MPAs (20 years). Of most concern is evidence of the contraction of effective population size of this species since first colonization which must have accelerated in recent years throughout the Madeiran, Canarian and Azorian archipelagos with population expansion and tourism (WTO, 2019).

Cave ats

Some caveats need to be considered to avoid over interpretation. For instance, sample size (n = 21-23) and number of markers (n = 12) were relatively small and thus this methodological aspect could influence the results. Nevertheless, the results of the power analysis reveal that the number of markers and sample size is more than enough to observe processes occurring at 30 or more generations in the past with a 100% confidence for $F_{\rm ST}$ as little as 0.007. Although all Bayesian analyses were run for enough generations to obtain a good distribution of parameters it is known that some of the software used could lead to biased interpretations. For instance, Samarasin et al. (2017) found that combining the results from Migrate-n and BAYESASS could lead to inaccurate conclusions when used to estimate long-term and short-term past processes respectively. Nevertheless, in this study, all reconstructions (i.e. BAYESASS, Migrate-n, DIYABC, and bibliographical data) support each other, helping to arrange the pieces of the puzzling patterns of the evolutionary history of $P.\ aspera$.

Concluding Remarks

Disentangling the mixed signal of evolutionary processes acting at different time scales by combining different Bayesian approaches and traditional analyses based on genetic markers have proven to be useful to better comprehend the history of species (Baguette et al. 2013; Epps & Keyghobadi 2015; Rissler 2016; Selkoe et al. 2016). Here, by using the limpet P. aspera inhabiting the archipelago of Madeira we have evidenced how natural events (Quaternary glaciations) and anthropogenic pressure (Portuguese settlement) have affected the genetic patterns of a species. Thus, the use of coalescent and ABC methods to assess hypothesis at different time scale can allow to understand the consequences of past processes and can be helpful for the conservation of species. For instance, the decrease of the N $_{\rm e}$ of the species in one third during six centuries is a warning sign not just about the past effects of humans on species, but also on the negative consequences that our species could generate with this littoral species and others in the future. Here, this study could help to lead conservation measures as the reduction of harvesting of the species, especially in the location acting as a source of variability for all other locations due to the here discovered combined effect of reproductive time and gene flow during a spatiotemporal change in the currents.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are grateful to the Regional Directorate for the Sea (DSEIMar) of the Regional Directorate of Sea of the Autonomous Region of Madeira. The first author (RS) was supported by a grant from ARDI-TI OOM/2016/010 (M1420-01-0145-FEDER-000001-Observatório Oceânico da Madeira-OOM), the second author (JV) by a grant from Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia - FCT (SFRH/BSAB/143056/2018). This study was also supported by the UE FEDER in the framework of the Projects MARISCOMAC (MAC/2.3d/097) and MACAROFOOD (MAC/2.3d/015), the Regional Government of Madeira and by FCT, through the strategic project UID/MAR/04292/2019 granted to MARE.

Statement of significance

Using a genetic approach, we observed that human pressure has serious effects on the genetic diversity of a hihgly-exploited intertidal mollusk. These effects have been steadily accelerating since the establishment of Portuguese in the XV century in Madeira.

Data accesibility statement

Microsatellite genotypes in Genepop, BayesAss, Migrate-n, and Structure were uploaded to htt-ps://figshare.com/s/1588b35340011080e8a8

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1. Location, coordinates, number of samples (N), Number of alleles (Na), Allelic richness (Ar), and Observed heterozygosity (Ho) for individuals of $Patella\ aspera$ from 6 locations in the archipelago of Madeira using 12 microsatellite markers.

Location	Coordinates	N	Na	Ar	Но
Rocha do Navio	$32^{\circ}48'26"$ N; $16^{\circ}51'35"$ W	23	10.00	5.91	0.585
Porto Moniz	32 ^o 51'49"N; 17 ^o 09'51" W	22	9.16	5.84	0.533
Paúl do Mar	$32^{\circ}45'49"N; 17^{\circ}14'05"W$	22	9.83	5.75	0,639
Garajau	$32^{\circ}38'45"N; 16^{\circ}53'15"W$	22	9.50	5.97	0,565
Desertas	$32^{\circ}30'22"N; 16^{\circ}30'33"W$	23	9.83	5.86	0,563
Porto Santo	$33^{0}06'16"$ N ₃ $16^{0}19'56"$ W	23	10.50	5.87	0,680

Fig. 1 Long-term past migration scheme based on Migrate-n Mpatterns, including past connectivity between Madeira and Desertas islands during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), assuming a decline in the sea level of 130 m (A), Extant gene flow scheme based on BayesAss, including all gene flow values above 0.02 (B), Population differentiation based on significant $F_{\rm ST}$ values (C), Population differentiation based on STRUCTURE with k=2 (D).

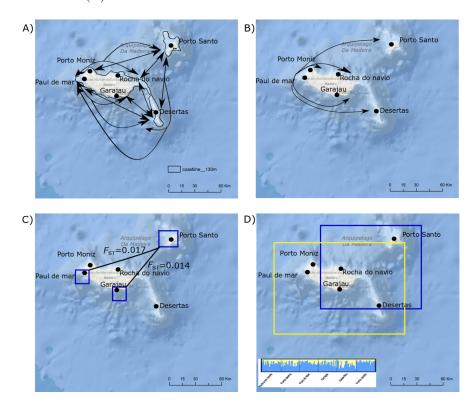
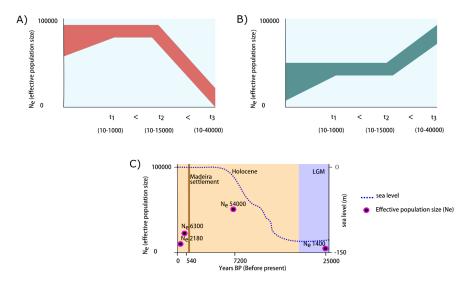


Figure 2. Simulated scenarios in DIYABC for Scenario 1 (Fig. 2A), assuming a population expansion signal estimated as $N_{\rm e}$ (effective population size; 10-100000 lower and upper limit respectively for all simulated $N_{\rm e}$

 $_{\rm e},$ shown in light blue) from the end of the Pleistocene (t = 10-40000 generations) up to the Holocene (t = 10-15000 generations) and maintenance or decrease of the $N_{\rm e}$ during the last thousand years (t = 1000 generations), and Scenario 2 (Fig. 2B), assuming a population contraction signal estimated as $N_{\rm e}$ (effective population size) from the end of the Pleistocene (t = 10-40000 generations) up to the Holocene (t = 10-15000 generations) and maintenance or decrease of the $N_{\rm e}$ during the last thousand years (t = 1000 generations). Summarized posterior median values obtained from DIYABC are shown in Fig. 2C revealing an expansion signal (estimated as $N_{\rm e}$) from the Pleistocene up to the Holocene and a contraction of the $N_{\rm e}$ occurring after the Portuguese settlements of the archipelago of Madeira. $N_{\rm e}$ = effective population size, t = lower and upper limit of variable time (in brackets).



LITERATURE CITED

Al-Asadi H., Petkova D., Stephens M., & Novembre J. (2019). Estimating recent migration and populationsize surfaces. *PLoS Genetics* 15(1), e1007908.

Allendorf, F.W. (2017). Genetics and the conservation of natural populations: allozymes to genomes. *Molecular Ecology* 26(2), 420-430.

Ávila S.P., Madeira P., Da Silva C.M., Cachao M., Landau B., Quartau R., & Martins A.d.F. (2008). Local disappearance of bivalves in the Azores during the last glaciation. *Journal of Quaternary Science: Published for the Quaternary Research Association* 23(8), 777-785.

Baguette M., Blanchet S., Legrand D., Stevens V.M., Turlure C. (2013). Individual dispersal, landscape connectivity and ecological networks. *Biological Reviews* 88(2), 310-326.

Bakare A.G., Kour G., Akter M., Iji P.A. (2020). Impact of climate change on sustainable livestock production and existence of wildlife and marine species in the South Pacific island countries: a review. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 1-13.

Batteen M.L., Martinez J.R., Bryan D.W., Buch E.J. (2000). A modeling study of the coastal eastern boundary current system off Iberia and Morocco. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 105(C6), 14173-14195.

Beerli P. (2006). Comparison of Bayesian and maximum-likelihood inference of population genetic parameters. *Bioinformatics* 22(3), 341-345.

Beerli P. (2009). How to use MIGRATE or why are Markov chain Monte Carlo programs difficult to use. *Population Genetics for Animal Conservation* 17, 42-79.

Beerli P., & Palczewski M. (2010). Unified framework to evaluate panmixia and migration direction among multiple sampling locations. *Genetics* 185(1), 313-326.

Boehrer G.C. (1955). The Franciscans and Portuguese Colonization in Africa and the Atlantic Islands, 1415–1499. *The Americas* 11(3), 389-403.

Clark P.U., Dyke A.S., Shakun J.D., Carlson A.E., Clark J., Wohlfarth B., Mitrovica J.X., Hostetler S.W., & McCabe A.M. (2009). The last glacial maximum. *Science* 325(5941), 710-714.

Clark P.U., & Mix A.C. (2002). Ice sheets and sea level of the Last Glacial Maximum. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 21(1-3), 1-7.

Cornuet J.-M., Pudlo P., Veyssier J., Dehne-Garcia A., Gautier M., Leblois R., Marin J.-M., & Estoup A. (2014). DIYABC v2. 0: a software to make approximate Bayesian computation inferences about population history using single nucleotide polymorphism, DNA sequence and microsatellite data. *Bioinformatics* 30(8), 1187-1189.

Crandall E.D., Jones M.E., Munoz M.M., Akinronbi B., Erdmann M.V., & Barber P.H. (2008). Comparative phylogeography of two seastars and their ectosymbionts within the Coral Triangle. *Molecular Ecology*17(24), 5276-5290.

Crandall E.D., Treml E.A., Liggins L., Gleeson L., Yasuda N., Barber P.H., Wörheide G., & Riginos C. (2014). Return of the ghosts of dispersal past: historical spread and contemporary gene flow in the blue sea star *Linckia laevigata*. Bulletin of Marine Science90(1), 399-425.

Cunha R.L., Lopes E.P., Reis D.M., & Castilho R. (2011). Genetic structure of *Brachidontes puniceus* populations in Cape Verde archipelago shows signature of expansion during the last glacial maximum. *Journal of Molluscan Studies* 77(2), 175-181.

de Aranzamendi M.C., Bastida R., & Gardenal C.N. (2011). Different evolutionary histories in two sympatric limpets of the genus *Nacella* (Patellogastropoda) in the South-western Atlantic coast. *Marine Biology* 158(11), 2405-2418.

Dolby G.A., Hechinger R., Ellingson R.A., Findley L.T., Lorda J., & Jacobs D.K. (2016). Sea-level driven glacial-age refugia and post-glacial mixing on subtropical coasts, a palaeohabitat and genetic study. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 283(1843), 20161571.

Domingues V.S., Santos R.S., Brito A., Alexandrou M., & Almada V.C. (2007). Mitochondrial and nuclear markers reveal isolation by distance and effects of Pleistocene glaciations in the northeastern Atlantic and Mediterranean populations of the white seabream (*Diplodus sargus*, L.). *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 346(1-2), 102-113.

Earl D.A. (2012). STRUCTURE HARVESTER: a website and program for visualizing STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. *Conservation Genetics Resources* 4(2), 359-361.

Ehlers J., & Gibbard P.L. (2004). Quaternary glaciations-extent and chronology: part I: Europe, Elsevier.

Ehlers J., Gibbard P.L., & Hughes P. (2011). Quaternary glaciations-extent and chronology: a closer look, Elsevier.

Epps C.W., & Keyghobadi N. (2015). Landscape genetics in a changing world: disentangling historical and contemporary influences and inferring change. *Molecular Ecology* 24(24), 6021-6040.

Evanno G., Regnaut S., & Goudet J. (2005). Detecting the number of clusters of individuals using the software STRUCTURE: a simulation study. *Molecular Ecology* 14(8), 2611-2620.

Faria J., Pita A., Martins G.M., Ribeiro P.A., Hawkins S.J., Presa P., & Neto A.I. (2018). Inbreeding in the exploited limpet *Patella aspera* across the Macaronesia archipelagos (NE Atlantic): Implications for conservation. *Fisheries Research* 198, 180-188.

Fenderson L.E., Kovach A.I., & Llamas B. (2020). Spatiotemporal landscape genetics: Investigating ecology and evolution through space and time. *Molecular Ecology* 29(2), 218-246.

Fernández-Palacios J.M., Rijsdijk K.F., Norder S.J., Otto R., de Nascimento L., Fernandez-Lugo S., Tjorve E., & Whittaker R.J. (2016). Towards a glacial-sensitive model of island biogeography. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 25(7), 817-830.

Fraser C.I., Nikula R., Spencer H.G., & Waters J.M. (2009). Kelp genes reveal effects of subantarctic sea ice during the Last Glacial Maximum. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 106(9), 3249-3253.

Goodfriend G.A., Cameron R., & Cook L. (1994). Fossil evidence of recent human impact on the land snail fauna of Madeira. *Journal of Biogeography*, 309-320.

Groom M.J., Meffe G.K., Carroll C.R., & Andelman S.J. (2006). *Principles of conservation biology*, Sinauer Associates Sunderland.

Hernawan U.E., van Dijk K.j., Kendrick G.A., Feng M., Biffin E., Lavery P.S., & McMahon K. (2017). Historical processes and contemporary ocean currents drive genetic structure in the seagrass *T halassia hemprichii* in the Indo-Australian archipelago. *Molecular Ecology*26(4), 1008-1021.

Holderegger R., Balkenhol N., Bolliger J., Engler J.O., Gugerli F., Hochkirch A., Nowak C., Segelbacher G., Widmer A., & Zachos F.E. (2019). Conservation genetics: Linking science with practice. *Molecular Ecology* 28(17), 3848-3856.

Hubisz M.J., Falush D., Stephens M., & Pritchard J.K. (2009). Inferring weak population structure with the assistance of sample group information. *Molecular ecology resources* 9(5), 1322-1332.

Imron, Jeffrey B., Hale P., Degnan B.M., & Degnan S.M. (2007). Pleistocene isolation and recent gene flow in *Haliotis asinina*, an Indo-Pacific vetigastropod with limited dispersal capacity. *Molecular Ecology* 16(2), 289-304.

Jakobsson M., & Rosenberg N.A. (2007). CLUMPP: a cluster matching and permutation program for dealing with label switching and multimodality in analysis of population structure. *Bioinformatics* 23(14), 1801-1806.

Jones M.C., & Cheung W.W. (2018). Using fuzzy logic to determine the vulnerability of marine species to climate change. *Global Change Biology* 24(2), e719-e731.

Kalinowski S.T. (2005). hp-rare 1.0: a computer program for performing rarefaction on measures of allelic richness. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 5(1), 187-189.

Lambeck K., Rouby H., Purcell A., Sun Y., & Sambridge M. (2014). Sea level and global ice volumes from the Last Glacial Maximum to the Holocene. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 111(43), 15296-15303.

Lind C.E., Evans B.S., Taylor J.J., & Jerry D.R. (2007). Population genetics of a marine bivalve, *Pinctada maxima*, throughout the Indo-Australian archipelago shows differentiation and decreased diversity at range limits. *Molecular Ecology* 16(24), 5193-5203.

Ludt W.B., & Rocha L.A. (2015). Shifting seas: The impacts of Pleistocene sea-level fluctuations on the evolution of tropical marine taxa. *Journal of Biogeography* 42(1), 25-38.

Mairal M., Sanmartin I., Aldasoro J.J., Culshaw V., Manolopoulou I., & Alarcon M. (2015). Palaeo-islands as refugia and sources of genetic diversity within volcanic archipelagos: the case of the widespread endemic *C anarina canariensis* (C ampanulaceae). *Molecular Ecology* 24(15), 3944-3963.

Marko P.B., Hoffman J.M., Emme S.A., McGovern T.M., Keever C.C., & Nicole Cox L. (2010). The 'Expansion–Contraction'model of Pleistocene biogeography: rocky shores suffer a sea change? *Molecular Ecology*19(1), 146-169.

Miller K.J., & Ayre D.J. (2008). Population structure is not a simple function of reproductive mode and larval type: insights from tropical corals. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 77(4), 713-724.

Mmonwa K.L., Teske P., McQuaid C., & Barker N. (2015). Historical demography of southern African patellid limpets: congruence of population expansions, but not phylogeography. *African Journal of Marine Science* 37(1), 11-20.

Munoz-Ramirez C.P., Barnes D.K., Cardenas L., Meredith M.P., Morley S.A., Roman-Gonzalez A., Sands C.J., Scourse J., & Brante A. (2020). Gene flow in the Antarctic bivalve *Aequiyoldia eightsii* (Jay, 1839) suggests a role for the Antarctic Peninsula Coastal Current in larval dispersal. *Royal Society Open Science* 7(9), 200603.

Neiva J., Paulino C., Nielsen M.M., Krause-Jensen D., Saunders G.W., Assis J., Barbara I., Tamigneaux E., Gouveia L., & Aires T. (2018). Glacial vicariance drives phylogeographic diversification in the amphi-boreal kelp *Saccharina latissima*. *Scientific Reports* 8(1), 1-12.

Ngeve M.N., Van der Stocken T., Menemenlis D., Koedam N., & Triest L. (2016). Contrasting effects of historical sea level rise and contemporary ocean currents on regional gene flow of *Rhizophora racemosa* in Eastern Atlantic mangroves. *PloS one* 11(3), e0150950.

Nuryanto A., & Kochzius M. (2009). Highly restricted gene flow and deep evolutionary lineages in the giant clam *Tridacna maxima*. Coral Reefs 28(3), 607-619.

Pardo-Gandarillas M.C., Ibanez C.M., Torres F.I., Sanhueza V., Fabres A., Escobar-Dodero J., Mardones F.O., & Mendez M.A. (2018). Phylogeography and species distribution modelling reveal the effects of the Pleistocene ice ages on an intertidal limpet from the south-eastern Pacific. *Journal of Biogeography* 45(8), 1751-1767.

Patino J., Carine M., Mardulyn P., Devos N., Mateo R.G., Gonzalez-Mancebo J.M., Shaw A.J., & Vander-poorten A. (2015). Approximate Bayesian computation reveals the crucial role of oceanic islands for the assembly of continental biodiversity. *Systematic Biology* 64(4), 579-589.

Peakall R., & Smouse P.E. (2006). GENALEX 6: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic software for teaching and research. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 6(1), 288-295.

Pecl G., Ward T., Doubleday Z., Clarke S., Day J., Dixon C., Frusher S., Gibbs P., Hobday A., & Hutchinson N. (2011) Risk assessment of impacts of climate change for key marine species in South Eastern Australia. *Part* 2, 479.

Pirazzoli P.A. (1997). Sea-level changes: the last 20 000 years. Oceanographic Literature Review 8(44), 785.

Portnoy D., Hollenbeck C., Belcher C., Driggers III W., Frazier B., Gelsleichter J., Grubbs R., & Gold J. (2014). Contemporary population structure and post-glacial genetic demography in a migratory marine species, the blacknose shark, *Carcharhinus acronotus .Molecular Ecology* 23(22), 5480-5495.

Pritchard J.K., Stephens M., & Donnelly P. (2000). Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data. *Genetics*155(2), 945-959.

Rambaut A., Drummond A.J., Xie D., Baele G., & Suchard M.A. (2018) Posterior summarization in Bayesian phylogenetics using Tracer 1.7. Systematic Biology 67(5), 901.

Rawson P.D., & Harper F.M. (2009). Colonization of the northwest Atlantic by the blue mussel, *Mytilus trossulus* postdates the last glacial maximum. *Marine Biology* 156(9), 1857-1868.

Riginos C., & Liggins L. (2013). Seascape genetics: populations, individuals, and genes marooned and adrift. *Geography Compass*7(3), 197-216.

Rijsdijk K.F., Hengl T., Norder S.J., Otto R., Emerson B.C., Avila S.P., Lopez H., van Loon E.E., Tjorve E., & Fernandez-Palacios J.M. (2014). Quantifying surface-area changes of volcanic islands driven by Pleistocene

sea-level cycles: biogeographical implications for the Macaronesian archipelagos. *Journal of Biogeography* 41(7), 1242-1254.

Rissler L.J. (2016). Union of phylogeography and landscape genetics. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 113(29), 8079-8086.

Rosenberg N.A. (2004) DISTRUCT: a program for the graphical display of population structure. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 4(1), 137-138.

Rousset F. (2008). genepop'007: a complete re-implementation of the genepop software for Windows and Linux. *Molecular Ecology Resources* 8(1), 103-106.

Russell-Wood A. (2007). Settlement, colonization, and integration in the Portuguese-influenced world, 1415-1570. *Portuguese Studies Review*15(1-2), 1-36.

Ryman N., & Palm S. (2006). POWSIM: a computer program for assessing statistical power when testing for genetic differentiation. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 6(3), 600-602.

Samarasin P., Shuter B.J., Wright S.I., & Rodd F.H. (2017). The problem of estimating recent genetic connectivity in a changing world. *Conservation Biology* 31(1), 126-135.

Scavia D., Field J.C., Boesch D.F., Buddemeier R.W., Burkett V., Cayan D.R., Fogarty M., Harwell M.A., Howarth R.W., & Mason C. (2002). Climate change impacts on US coastal and marine ecosystems. *Estuaries* 25(2), 149-164.

Scheltema R. (1971). Dispersal of phytoplanktotrophic shipworm larvae (Bivalvia: Teredinidae) over long distances by ocean currents. *Marine Biology* 11(1), 5-11.

Selkoe K.A., Aloia C.C., Crandall E.D., Iacchei M., Liggins L., Puritz J.B., von der Heyden S., & Toonen R.J. (2016). A decade of seascape genetics: contributions to basic and applied marine connectivity. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 554, 1-19.

Silva F.A., & Menezes C.A. (1921). Elucidario Madeirense – 1 Volume A-E. Tipografia Esperanca, Funchal.

Sousa R., Delgado J., Pinto A.R., & Henriques P. (2017). Growth and reproduction of the north-eastern Atlantic keystone species *Patella aspera* (Mollusca: Patellogastropoda). *Helgoland Marine Research* 71(1), 1-13.

Sousa R., Vasconcelos J., Henriques P., Pinto A.R., Delgado J., & Riera R. (2019). Long-term population status of two harvested intertidal grazers (*Patella aspera* and *Patella candei*), before (1996–2006) and after (2007–2017) the implementation of management measures. *Journal of Sea Research* 144, 33-38.

Sousa R., Vasconcelos J., Riera R., Pinto A.R., Delgado J., & Henriques P. (2019a). Potential impact of harvesting management measures on the reproductive parameters of the limpets *Patella aspera* and *Patella candei* from Madeira Island. *Estuarine*, *Coastal and Shelf Science* 226, 106264.

Sousa R., Vasconcelos J., Riera R., Pinto A.R., Delgado J., & Henriques P. (2019b). Potential impact of harvesting management measures on the reproductive parameters of the limpets *Patella aspera* and *Patella candei* from Madeira Island. *Estuarine*, *Coastal and Shelf Science* 226, 106264.

Stange C.A., Sanchez-Villagra M.R., Salzburger W., & Matschiner M. (2018). Bayesian divergence-time estimation with genome-wide single-nucleotide polymorphism data of sea catfishes (Ariidae) supports Miocene closure of the Panamanian Isthmus. *Systematics Biology* 67(4): 681-699.

Stockwell C.A., Hendry A.P., & Kinnison M.T. (2003). Contemporary evolution meets conservation biology. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 18(2), 94-101.

Stramma L., & Siedler G. (1988). Seasonal changes in the North Atlantic subtropical gyre. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 93(C7), 8111-8118.

Vera-Escalona I., Habit E., & Ruzzante D.E. (2015). Echoes of a distant time: effects of historical processes on contemporary genetic patterns in *Galaxias platei* in Patagonia. *Molecular Ecology* 24(16), 4112-4128.

Waltari E., & Hickerson M.J. (2013). Late Pleistocene species distribution modelling of North Atlantic intertidal invertebrates. *Journal of Biogeography* 40(2), 249-260.

Wang I.J. (2010). Recognizing the temporal distinctions between landscape genetics and phylogeography. *Molecular Ecology* 19(13), 2605-2608.

Weber, L.I. & Hawkins, S.J., (2002). Evolution of the limpet *Patella candei* d'Orbigny (Mollusca, Patellidae) in Atlantic archipelagos: human intervention and natural processes. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* . 77: 341-353.

Weigelt P., Steinbauer M.J., Cabral J.S., & Kreft H. (2016). Late Quaternary climate change shapes island biodiversity. *Nature* 532(7597), 99-102.

Wilson G.A., & Rannala B. (2003). Bayesian inference of recent migration rates using multilocus genotypes. *Genetics* 163(3), 1177-1191.

Wood J.R., Alcover J.A., Blackburn T.M., Bover P., Duncan R.P., Hume J.P., Louys J., Meijer H.J., Rando J.C., & Wilmshurst J.M. (2017). Island extinctions: processes, patterns, and potential for ecosystem restoration. *Environmental Conservation* 44(4), 348-358.

World Tourism Organization (2019). Panorama OMT del turismo internacional.