1	Original Article.
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2	High levels of intra-specific genetic divergences revealed for Antarctic				
3	springtails: evidence for small-scale isolation during Pleistocene glaciation				
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19 Abstract

Aim To examine the levels of genetic variability within and among populations of three
 Antarctic springtail species (Arthropoda: Collembola) and test the hypothesis that genetic
 divergences occur among glacially-isolated habitats.

23 Location Southern Victoria Land, Ross Dependency, Antarctica.

Methods Samples were collected from locations in the vicinity of the Mackay Glacier. We analysed mitochondrial DNA (COI) sequence variability for 97 individuals representing three species (*Gomphiocephalus hodgsoni* n=67; *Cryptopygus nivicolus*, n=20; *Antarcticinella monoculata*, n=8). Haplotype diversity and genetic divergences were calculated and used to indicate population variability as well as infer divergence times of isolated populations using molecular clock estimates.

30 **Results** Two of the three species showed high levels of genetic divergence.

31 Gomphiocephalus hodgsoni, a widespread and common species showed 7.6% sequence

32 divergence on opposite sides of the Mackay Glacier. The more range restricted Cryptopygus

33 *nivicolus* species showed 4.0% divergence among populations. The third species,

34 *Antarcticinella monoculata*, was found in only one location. Molecular clock estimates based

35 on sequence divergences suggest that populations separated within the last 4 Mya.

36 Main Conclusions Habitat fragmentation resulting from Pliocene (5 Mya) and Pleistocene (2

37 Mya - 10 Kya) glaciations has promoted and maintained high levels of diversity among

38 isolated springtail populations on relatively small spatial scales. The region surrounding the

39 Mackay Glacier has provided refugia for springtail populations during glacial maxima and

40 remains an area of high genetic and species diversity for Collembola within the Ross Sea

41 region.

42	Key Words Collembola, glaciation, Ross Sea region, population genetics, springtails,
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60 Introduction

61 With only 0.34% (46,200 km²) of the total 14 million km² ice free and even marginally 62 habitable, the Antarctic continent represents one of the most extreme environments for terrestrial life (Convey et al., 2009; Hogg & Wall, 2012). The majority of these ice-free areas 63 lie within the Dry Valleys and Transantarctic Mountains of the Ross Dependency 64 65 (Janetschek, 1967a; Levy, 2012). Even here, exposed ground is often highly fragmented and 66 comprised of small, rocky outcrops separated by permanent snow fields and glaciers. Suitable 67 habitat is then further restricted by the availability of liquid water necessary to support life 68 (Hogg et al., 2006). This latter requirement is relevant for the soil arthropod fauna, 69 particularly the Antarctic springtails which lack a desiccation-resistant life stage and instead 70 use avoidance and super-cooling methods to allow survival in sub-zero temperatures 71 (McGaughran *et al.*, 2011a).

72 The terrestrial arthropods are represented primarily by springtails (Collembola) and mites 73 (Acari) and are the largest year-round taxa on the continent (Gressitt, 1967; Hogg & Stevens, 74 2002; Adams et al., 2006). These taxa, which lack survival and dispersal strategies possessed by other invertebrate groups such as nematodes (Adhikari et al., 2010; Nkem et al., 2006), 75 76 have been restricted to these fragmented, ice-free zones since the Middle Miocene (14-11 Mya; Stevens & Hogg, 2003; Stevens et al., 2006; McGaughran et al., 2010). At this time, 77 glaciation of the whole continent reached its fullest extent and the polar ice cap overflowed 78 79 the Transantarctic Mountains (Lewis et al., 2007). Small oases of ice-free ground existed 80 around the edge of the polar cap, the largest of which (the Dry Valleys) is still located within 81 the Transantarctic Mountain on the western edge of the Ross Ice Shelf (Clapperton & Sugden, 1990). Since then, the East Antarctic Ice Sheet (EAIS) has undergone numerous 82 83 glacial cycles, with the last glacial maximum ending 17 Kya (Suggate, 1990). This extensive

84 glacial history has resulted in extremely low species richness for the Antarctic fauna, with many habitats containing at most one or two arthropod taxa (Janetschek, 1967a). Species are 85 also rarely shared between regions (Gressitt, 1967; Wise, 1971; Sinclair & Stevens, 2006), 86 87 suggesting limited inter-habitat dispersal. Consequently, the current arthropod taxa are likely 88 to be long-term inhabitants and remnants of, once more widespread species (Convey et al., 89 2009). Even within regions, most species show high levels of genetic divergence across their distributional ranges suggesting the effects of long-term isolation and/or survival in glacial 90 91 refugia (Frati et al., 2001; Stevens & Hogg, 2003; McGaughran et al., 2008; Hawes et al., 92 2010; Stevens & D'Haese, 2014). Here, our aim was to extend these studies by focussing on 93 small-scale differences that might occur within faunally-diverse, yet heavily fragmented, 94 landscapes.

95 Ten species of springtail are currently known from the Ross Dependency, four in northern 96 Victoria Land, three in southern Victoria Land and three in the southern Transantarctic 97 Mountains. All species are range-restricted. Species from southern Victoria Land, the focus of our study, consist of three species covering a 3° latitudinal range. Within this region 98 Gomphiocephalus hodgsoni is the only relatively widespread species and is common 99 throughout southern Victoria Land (McGaughran et al., 2011b). Two additional species, 100 101 Cryptopygus nivicolus (recently redescribed from Neocryptopygus nivicous by Greenslade, 102 (2015)) and Antarcticinella monoculata are extremely range-restricted and known only from 103 one or two locations near the Mackay Glacier to the north of the Dry Valleys (Wise, 1971) 104 (Fig. 1), suggesting the possibility of a glacial refugium. Recent studies of lichens and mosses 105 also near the Mackay Glacier (Green et al., 2011), as well as haplotype diversity for springtail 106 (G. hodgsoni) and mite (Stereotydeus. mollis) taxa have further suggested this area as a likely 107 refugial zone (Stevens & Hogg, 2003, 2006; McGaughran et al., 2008; Demetras et al., 108 2010).

109 In order to determine the geographic scales on which genetic diversity may have been 110 promoted and/or maintained, we focused on small-scale genetic variability in a region of 111 comparatively high species diversity (Mackay Glacier, southern Victoria Land). This glacier 112 is one of only a few outlet glaciers that connect the EAIS with the Ross Ice Shelf in southern 113 Victoria Land (Clapperton & Sugden, 1990). Accordingly, we tested the hypothesis that this 114 region would support genetically divergent springtail populations among isolated habitats. We predicted that high levels of both genetic variability and genetic divergence would exist 115 116 among these habitats, potentially indicating refugial zones from the Pleistocene glaciations.

117 Methods

118 Study sites and sample collection:

119 Samples were collected from St John's Ranges near Victoria Valley and on the northern and southern sides of the Mackay Glacier in the northern Dry Valleys region of the Ross 120 121 Dependency (Fig. 1). Specimens were collected from the undersides of rocks using modified 122 aspirators (Stevens & Hogg, 2002). Soil samples were also taken from each site and returned 123 to the lab where they were suspended a 10% sucrose solution. Invertebrates were then 124 removed from the solution surface under a dissecting microscope (10X magnification) using 125 a fine wire loop. All specimens were stored in 95% ethanol and returned to the University of 126 Waikato for further processing. All specimens were morphologically identified to species 127 level using Gressitt et al., (1963) and Salmon, (1965). Specimens not used for DNA analyses 128 were archived at the School of Science, University of Waikato, under the care of IDH.

129 Genetic analyses:

Genetic analyses were jointly carried out at the University of Waikato and at the CanadianCentre for DNA Barcoding (CCDB) at the University of Guelph. At the University of

132 Waikato total genomic DNA was extracted from the tissue of entire specimens using a 133 Glassfiber Plate DNA Extraction (AcroPrep) method (Ivanova et al., 2006) at CCDB, and 134 Red Extract n Amp (Sigma-Aldrich) using 10 µl extraction solution and 2.5 µl tissue prep, 135 following manufacture's protocol. Polymerase Chain Reactions (PCRs) were comprised of a 15 µl reaction containing 5.7 µl MQH₂0, 7.5 µl PCR Master Mix Solution (i-Taq, Intron 136 137 Biotechnology), 0.4 µl of each primer and 1 µl of template DNA. A 658 bp fragment of the mitochondrial COI gene was amplified using the primers HCO2198 (sequence 5'-138 139 TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3') and an altered LCO1490 (sequence: 5'-AGTTCTAATCATTAARGATATYGG-3') (Folmer et al., 1994) for the G. hodgsoni 140 141 specimens. HCO and LepF1 (sequence: 5'-ATTCAACCAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3') 142 (Hajibabaei et al., 2006) were used to amplify the C. nivicolus and A. monoculata specimens. 143 The standard LCO1490 (sequence: 5'-GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3') was 144 used for both species (in place of the altered LCO1490 and LepF1) at CCDB. Primers were 145 used at 1.0 mM concentration. PCR conditions at CCDB were: initial denaturing at 94°C for 146 1 min; 5 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 45°C for 1.5 min and 72°C for 1.5 min; 35 cycles of 94°C 147 for 1 min, 50°C for 1.5 min and 72°C for 1 min followed by a final 72°C for 5 min. PCR conditions were: initial denaturing at 94°C for 5 minutes; 36 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 52°C 148 149 for 1.5 min and 72°C for 1 min, followed by a final 72°C for 5 min.

PCR products were cleaned using Sephadex (CCDB) or $0.2 \ \mu$ l ExonucleaseI (EXO) and $0.1 \ \mu$ l Shrimp Alkaline Phosphate (SAP) with 2.7 μ l MQH₂0 following manufactures protocol (Global Science & Tech Ltd.) at Waikato. DNA was sequenced in both directions on an ABI3130 sequencer at the University of Waikato DNA sequencing facility using the same primers used for amplification, or on an ABI3730x1 at CCDB. Sequences from the University of Waikato were aligned using Geneious, ver 5.4.2, and confirmed as the target species using the Barcode of Life DataSystems (BOLD; www.boldsystems.org) ver 3 COI animal identification searches. Previous analyses of Antarctic springtails (e.g. Stevens &
Hogg 2003), have shown that allozyme analyses were congruent with COI data and that the
latter can be used as a reliable indicator of genomic differences occurring among populations.
Primer sequences were trimmed from sequence fragments for further analyses. All sequences
were uploaded to the BOLD project Antarctic Terrestrial Arthropods (ANTSP) and crossreferenced to GenBank.

163 Phylogenetic Analysis

164 COI sequence fragments of 658 bp (219 codons) were obtained for 67 G. hodgsoni specimens 165 and 20 C. nivicolus specimens. Approximately 560 bp were obtained from single direction 166 reads (using primer LepF1) for eight A. monoculata specimens. No stop codons were 167 detected. Sequences of G. hodgsoni were unambiguous at 658 bp (no insertions or deletions). 168 However, sequences of C. nivicolus and A. monoculata contained ambiguous base pair 169 assignments which could not be easily resolved, so sequences were further trimmed at both 170 ends, resulting in sequence fragments of 547 bp (181 codons) for C. nivicolus and 527 bp 171 (175 codons) for A. monoculata. Two additional C. nivicolus sequences were also obtained from GenBank (Accession numbers DQ285403 and DQ285404). 172

173 Sequences for all species were initially examined in the context of generating a single 174 neighbour-joining tree using a Kimura 2-parameter distance model (Kimura, 1980). All 175 duplicate sequences were identified and removed to include only unique haplotypes in 176 subsequent analyses. Due to the lack of publically available sequence data for taxa that share 177 a recent common ancestor with our ingroup taxa (and that did not approach saturation), 178 analyses were run unrooted among the ingroup taxa. No significant changes were noted in 179 topography between these analyses and ones run previously using *Podura aquatic* as a test. 180 Chi-square tests (X^2) as implemented in PAUP* 4.0 (Swofford, 2002) were used to determine

181 whether the assumption of equal base frequencies among sites was violated on all sites and 182 on third codon positions only. JModel test 2.1.2 (Posada, 2008) was used to determine the 183 most appropriate substitution model for Maximum Likelihood (ML) analysis. Settings were 184 as follows: 11 substitution schemes (88 models), base frequencies +F, rate variation +I, + Γ , set to BioNJ. The model selected for the data set was $GTR + I + \Gamma$ (-lnL = 1,590.9). Maximum 185 186 Likelihood heuristic searches were conducted using this model in MEGA 5.10 (Tamura et al., 187 2011) using 1000 bootstrap replicates. Maximum Parsimony (MP) analyses were performed 188 in PAUP* using 1000 full-heuristic search bootstrap replicates.

189 MrBayes 3.2.6 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001) was used to conduct a Bayesian Inference 190 analysis. A general time reversal model (GTR +I + Γ) was used, with a log normal relaxed 191 clock model and speciation Yule process as the tree prior. The Markov chain Monte Carlo 192 (MCMC) was set to 1,100,000 generations, sampling trees every 200. A burn in of 100,000 193 trees was determined by plotting log-likelihood values against generation time in TRACER 194 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2007) and checking for the point at which normalization occurred. 195 The majority rule tree was acquired from the 11,004 trees sampled after the burn in period. 196 The tree was then visualized in Tree Annotator (Drummond et al., 2012).

Sequences for *G. hodgsoni* and *C. nivicolus* were split into separate data sets for analysis in the program TCS 1.21 (Clement *et al.*, 2000) and to construct networks of sequence haploytpes. Single representatives of each haplotype were used in the final analysis to simplify files, and sequences of *C. nivicolus* were trimmed at 547 bp to avoid anomalies, as described above. The *A. monoculata* sequences were not included in these analyses as they were only collected from a single site and consisted of only two similar haplotypes (<0.2% divergence). 204 Uncorrected pair-wise genetic distances between COI sequences for populations at different 205 locations were also calculated for the G. hodgsoni and C. nivicolus data sets in MEGA 5.10. The likelihood ratio test did not detect evidence of significant rate heterogeneity for G. 206 hodgsoni (X^2 =113.06; p<0.001; d.f=14) or C. nivicolus (X^2 =141.15; p<0.001; d.f=10). 207 208 Approximate geological timing of isolation for the populations was estimated through 209 molecular clock analyses in BEAST 1.8.2 (Drummond et al., 2012). Files generated in 210 BEAUti used a General Time Reversal model (GTR + I + Γ) with speciation Yule Processes 211 as the tree prior and the same MCMC set up as used for the BI tree analysis. A strict clock 212 model with a fixed rate of 0.0115 was used to simulate 2.3% sequence divergence per million 213 years, as determined using insect mitochondrial data (Brower 1994; Juan et al., 1996; Quek et 214 al., 2004; McGaughran et al., 2010). Despite being calibrated for insects, the 2.3% sequence 215 divergence per million years was considered a suitable estimate for Collembola as both taxa 216 have similar life cycles (McGaughran et al., 2010).

217 **Results**

218 Of the 658 bp analysed for G. hodgsoni, 515 characters were constant, 22 were parsimony 219 informative and the remaining 121 were parsimony uninformative. The nucleotide 220 composition averaged across all sequences showed an A-T bias of 64.0% (A = 27.7%, T = 36.7%, C = 19.3%, G = 16.7%). Nucleotide frequencies were not significantly different 221 among sequences for all codon positions ($X^2 = 2.19$, p = 1.0, d.f = 48) or for third codon 222 positions only ($X^2 = 7.18$, p = 1.0, d.f = 48). Of the 549 bp analysed for C. nivicolus, 433 223 224 characters were constant, 22 were parsimony informative and the remaining 94 were 225 parsimony uninformative. The nucleotide composition averaged across all sequences showed an A-T bias of 61.4% (A = 25.8%, T = 35.6%, C = 20.4%, G = 18.2%). Base pair frequencies 226 for C. nivicolus were not significantly different among sequences for all codon positions (X^2 227

228 = 1.41, p = 1.0, d.f = 36) or for third codon positions only ($X^2 = 5.77$, p = 1.0, d.f = 36). Of the 229 527 bp (175 codons) analysed for *A. monoculata*, 408 characters were constant, 1 was 230 parsimony informative and the remaining 118 were parsimony uninformative. The nucleotide 231 composition averaged across all sequences showed an A-T bias of 59.0% (A = 23.9%, T = 232 35.1%, C = 22.3%, G = 18.7%). Base pairs were not significantly different among sequences 233 for all codon positions ($X^2 = 3.39$, p = 1.0, d.f = 21) or for third codon positions only ($X^2 =$ 234 11.55, p = 0.95, d.f = 21).

235 Phylogenetic Analysis

236 A Maximum Likelihood (ML) tree is shown in Fig. 2. Tree constructions for Maximum 237 Parsimony (Fig.3) and Neighbour Joining (data not shown) showed similar topology and 238 node support. Linking nodes between the haplotype G16 and the rest of the G. hodgsoni 239 haplotypes had 100% bootstrap support in the ML and MP trees. The linking node between 240 the C. nivicolus haplotypes at Springtail Point and at Mt Gran also received 100% bootstrap 241 support in the ML and MP trees. Bootstrap values for the Mt England C. nivicolus haplotypes 242 indicated high support from both the ML and MP trees. The topology for the G. hodgsoni 243 haplotypes differed in the ML from both the MP and BI trees. Two clusters were apparent, 244 with 0.99 bootstrap support for the node. Collection locations of haplotypes were mixed between both clusters. The topology of the BI tree was also similar to all other trees for G. 245 246 hodgsoni, C. nivicolus and A. monoculata. Posterior probability values between C. nivicolus haplotypes at Springtail Point and at Mt Gran was 1.00, and also 1.00 between the Mt 247 248 England and Mt Gran group (Fig. 4). The topology and node support of these trees supports 249 the presence of high genetic structuring across the Mackay Glacier.

250 Haplotype networks

251 The geographic distribution of sequence haplotypes for G. hodgsoni and C. nivicolus was 252 investigated using haplotype joining networks. Subsequent haplotype assignments and their collection locations are shown in Table 1. Sixteen haplotypes were found from 67 G. 253 254 hodgsoni sequences. Maximum connection steps were fixed at 40 in order to connect 255 haplotype G16 to the rest of the haplotypes (Fig. 5). This network revealed 10 1-step 256 haplotypes, three 2-step haplotypes, two 3-step haplotypes and one 35-step haplotype. The 257 most divergent haplotype shown by this analysis was G16, representing three individuals 258 from Mt Gran. This difference was also supported by divergence values and phylogenetic 259 trees (Figs 2, 3, 4, 7). The remainder of the network which included haplotypes from the St 260 John's Range and Mt Seuss did not show high geographic structure, similar to that observed 261 in the tree-based approaches.

262 Twelve haplotypes were found from 22 C. nivicolus sequences. Maximum connection steps 263 were fixed at 30 in order to connect the Mt Gran and Mt England haplotypes to the Springtail point haplotypes (Fig. 6). This network revealed nine 1-step haplotypes, two 3-step 264 265 haplotypes and one 16-step haplotype. This network analysis showed two groups of 266 haplotypes that were connected by 16 missing mutational steps. These two groups 267 corresponded to populations at Springtail Point on the south edge of Mackay Glacier, and Mt 268 Gran and Mt Seuss to the north and in the centre of the glacier respectively. This difference 269 was supported by divergence values and phylogenetic trees. The 2-step link to haplotypes at 270 Mt England was also supported by divergence values and phylogenetic trees.

271 COI sequence divergence and molecular clock estimates

Genetic distances ranged from 0.0-8% for *G. hodgsoni* and 0.00-4.2% for *C. nivicolus* (Fig.7). Greatest differences were found between haplotype G16 at Mt Gran and the remainder of the *G. hodgsoni* haplotypes, and the genetic distance between *C. nivicolus* haplotypes at Mt Gran and Mt England, and those at Springtail Point. The St John's Range and Mt Seuss *G. hodgsoni* haplotypes showed an average divergence of 0.6% within the group (Fig.7). The single haplotype, G16, at Mt Gran showed an average of 7.6% sequence divergence from the other haplotypes.

The average sequence divergences among *C. nivicolus* haplotypes within each location were 0.1% at Mt Gran, 0.2% at Springtail Point and 0.2% at Mt England. Sequence divergences between locations showed the haplotypes at Mt Gran to be an average of 4.0% divergent from haplotypes at Mt England. Similarly, Springtail Point haplotypes were an average of 3.8% divergent from those found at Mt Gran. The Mt Gran and Mt England haplotypes were the most similar, with 0.8% sequence divergence between them.

285 Based on a strict molecular clock rate of 2.3% sequence divergence per million years, these 286 populations are all likely to have diverged within the last 4 My (Figs 7, 8). The oldest 287 estimated divergence dated the genetic separation of G. hodgsoni haplotypes at Mt Gran 288 (G16) and those in the St John's Range and at Mt Seuss at 3.8 Mya. Divergence dates 289 between the three C. nivicolus populations suggested that the Springtail Point haplotypes 290 diverged from the Mt Gran - Mt Seuss population 1.44 Mya. The difference between 291 haplotypes from Mt Gran and Mt Seuss relative to those at Mt England is much more recent by comparison, estimated at 0.38 Mya. 292

293 Discussion

Our mitochondrial DNA (COI) analysis of 97 Antarctic springtails from three taxonomic species revealed highly divergent populations across 65 km within the Mackay Glacier. Populations of *Gomphiocephalus hodgsoni* and *Cryptopygus nivicolus* on the lower slopes of Mt Gran were shown to be an average of 7.6% and 3.8% divergent from their nearest neighbours. For *G. hodgsoni*, this represents a considerably greater genetic divergence among 299 populations than the 2.4% divergence previously found for this species throughout the 300 McMurdo Dry Valleys (Stevens & Hogg, 2003; Nolan et al., 2006; McGaughran et al., 301 2008). High genetic structure, within both putative species, suggests that populations may 302 have survived in situ since the Antarctic continent became fully glaciated. Given the 303 elevations of surrounding mountains it is possible that several locations such as Mt Gran 304 (2235 m) and Mt Seuss (1190 m) protruded above the advancing Mackay Glacier, and 305 remained so since the early Pliocene (Janetschek, 1967a; Clapperton & Sugden, 1990). In 306 particular, this area is known to contain the highest species diversity of springtails in southern 307 Victoria Land, with G. hodgsoni, C. nivicolus and A. monoculata all known from this area 308 (Gressitt et al., 1963). The species diversity of mites, lichens and mosses have also been 309 shown to be high in the Mackay Glacier region relative to other nearby areas such as the Dry 310 Valleys (Demetras et al., 2010; Green et al., 2011). This suggests that this area has served as 311 a glacial refuge for multiple taxa during the last 5 Mya.

312 We now also highlight the potential for species-level genetic divergences within two 313 springtail taxa for populations on opposite sides of the Mackay Glacier, which may indicate 314 early stages of speciation. Our data suggest that the population of G. hodgsoni present on the 315 lower slopes of Mt Gran has been isolated from other known G. hodgsoni populations since 316 the Mid-Pliocene (4 Mya). Similarly, the population of C. nivicolus from the same location 317 has been isolated from a neighbouring population at Springtail Point by as much as 1.4 Mya. 318 The occurrence of A. monoculata at Springtail Point, coupled with the highly divergent 319 populations at Mt Gran supports the notion of high arthropod diversity for this area.

The differences in divergence estimates for *G. hodgsoni* (3.8 Mya) and *C. nivicolus* (1.4 Mya) may be the result of different evolutionary histories (e.g. later isolation) or possibly differences in mutation rates. For example, Stevens & Hogg (2006) suggested that differing 323 mutation rates may exist between G. hodgsoni and the mite Stereotydeus mollis. However, little is known about the life history of C. nivicolus. The lack of ecological knowledge for C. 324 325 nivicolus also makes it difficult to predict its dispersal abilities. Dispersal events in Antarctica 326 are likely to be rare, and often accidental, making it difficult to attribute the presence of a 327 species to ecological gradients (Janetschek, 1967b; Magalhães et al., 2012). G. hodgsoni is 328 known to survive floating on both sea and fresh water, and dispersal events through wind or accidental carriage by birds is also possible (Stevens & Hogg, 2002; Hawes, 2011; 329 330 McGaughran *et al.*, 2011a, 2011b).

331 As Mackay Glacier is an outlet glacier for the EAIS, it is unlikely to have undergone significant retreat during the interglacial periods of the Pleistocene as many of the alpine 332 glaciers did (Clapperton & Sugden, 1990; Sugden et al., 1999). This appears to have isolated 333 334 the Mt Gran population of G. hodgsoni from the populations on Mt Seuss in the centre of the 335 glacier, and those in the St John's Range bordering Victoria Valley. It is possible that the 336 presence of haplotypes from the St John's range in the Mt Seuss population relate to recent 337 dispersal since the last glacial maximum. The sharing of C. nivicolus haplotypes between Mt 338 Gran and Mt Seuss also indicates potentially recent dispersal from Mt Gran across the 339 glacier. Hawes, (2011) suggested that potential dispersal mechanisms may work in concert, 340 whereby individuals could be wind-blown onto glaciers and then moved by glacial surface 341 streams. The stochastic nature of dispersal events in Antarctica may explain why G. 342 hodgsoni has yet to disperse from the Mt Gran population.

One species, *A. monoculata*, was found at only one location in our study area, although another isolated population is known from Mt Murray 150 km to the north (Gressitt *et al.*, 1963). Similarly, haplotypes of *C. nivicolus* present at this site were not found elsewhere in our study area. Springtail Point is in an 'up-glacier' position, making dispersal through 347 temporary melt water to more sea-ward locations possible. However, there was no evidence 348 of water courses being formed by temporary streams in this area, and visual assessment of snow banks that surround the site indicate they have changed little since a previous visit 349 350 (Gressitt et al., 1963). Even with surface water, the dispersal mechanisms used by other 351 springtail species such as wind and stream flow may be limited for A. monoculata. The loss 352 of pigmentation, limited tolerance of UV light and presence deeper in the soil profile (Janetschek, 1967a) make it less likely that A. monoculata would experience accidental 353 354 dispersal by water or wind movement.

355 We conclude that the Mackay Glacier has provided a sufficient dispersal barrier to promote 356 and maintain high levels of genetic divergence in two Antarctic springtail species endemic to southern Victoria Land. This isolation likely occurred around the early Pliocene (4 Mya), and 357 358 has been maintained by on-going glaciations during the Pleistocene. The high genetic 359 diversity, both at the population and species level, suggests that high altitude sites in this region have served as glacial refugia over the past 4 Mya. The isolation of these sites 360 361 highlights the potential for high genetic diversity to be maintained on a small scale among the fragmented ice-free areas of Antarctica. Accordingly, we suggest that conservation efforts be 362 directed toward maintaining and protecting the integrity of highly fragmented landscapes 363 364 within the Transantarctic Mountains of the Ross Dependency.

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522				
523	Biosketch			
524	KRB is an MSc graduate from the University of Waikato with interests in animal			
525	conservation and connectivity among natural populations. Her primary target taxa are			
526	terrestrial Collembola and freshwater macroinvertebrates. She is also interested in the			
527	evolution of the New Zealand and Antarctic landscapes.			
528	Author contributions:			
529	IDH, KRB, BJA and PDNH conceived of the research and obtained funding. KRB and IDH			
530	conducted the field work and KRB conducted the primary analyses and was lead author of			
531	the manuscript in conjunction with IDH BJA and PDNH. All authors reviewed and			
532	contributed revisions to the final version of the manuscript.			

Table 1: Haplotypes, collection locations, coordinates and sequences (BOLD Process Id) associated with each haplotype for three species of Antarctic springtail. Two Mt England *C. nivicolus* sequences (N11, N12) were retrieved from GenBank.

Haplotype #	Location	Co-ordinates (south – east)	Process Id's
G. hodgsoni			
G1	St John's Range	-77.280 161.731	ANTSP131 ANTSP134 ANTSP136 ANTSP137 ANTSP138 ANTSP140 ANTSP141 ANTSP143 ANTSP129 ANTSP193 ANTSP151
G2			ANTSP133 ANTSP135 ANTSP139 ANTSP211 ANTSP212 ANTSP132
G3		-77.208 161.700	ANTSP213 ANTSP215
G4		-77.285 161.726	ANTSP150
G5			ANTSP142
G6			ANTSP146
G7		-77.208 161.700	ANTSP209
G8			ANTSP210
G9			ANTSP216
G10		-77.285 161.726	ANTSP217
611		-77.280 161.731	ANTSP144 ANTSP145 ANTSP147 ANTSP148
G11	Mt Seuss	-77.034 161.731	ANTSP149 ANTSP191 ANTSP192 ANTSP207 ANTSP219 ANTSP214 ANTSP128 ANTSP218
G12			ANTSP154 ANTSP157 ANTSP158 ANTSP159 ANTSP160 ANTSP163 ANTSP164 ANTSP165 ANTSP168 ANTSP169 ANTSP172 ANTSP174 ANTSP175 ANTSP220 ANTSP222 ANTSP221 ANTSP223 ANTSP224 ANTSP152 ANTSP225
G13			ANTSP162 ANTSP173

G14			ANTSP166 ANTSP153 ANTSP167
G15		77.034 161.731	ANTSP161
G16	Mt Gran	-76.966 161.179	ANTSP201 ANTSP202 ANTSP200

C. nivicolus

N1	Springtail Point	-77.167 160.710	ANTSP121 ANTSP188 ANTSP190 ANTSP230 ANTSP119
N2			ANTSP2234 ANTSP228
N3			ANTSP231 ANTSP226
N4			ANTSP227
N5			ANTSP118
N6	Mt Gran	-76.966 161.179	ANTSP233
N7			ANTSP199 ANTSP197
N8			
INO	Mt Seuss	-77.034 161.731	ANTSP156 ANTSP124
N9			ANTSP155
N10			ANTSP170
N11	M England	-77.046 162.450	DQ285403
N12			DQ285404

A. monoculata

A1	Springtail Point	-77.168 160.710	ANTSP196 ANTSP235
A2			ANTSP204 ANTSP205 ANTSP194 ANTSP195 ANTSP203

536 List of Figures

Figure 1: Sampling sites and Collembola species' locations in the Mackay Glacier vicinity. Two *C. nivicolus* specimens were taken from GenBank and were collected from Mt England in 2005. Map
adapted from the SCAR Antarctic Digital Database and the Landsat Image Mosaic of Antarctica
(LIMA) project.

Figure 2: Maximum Likelihood phylogram constructed in MEGA 5.10, based on the GTR+I+ Γ model derived from jModelTest, using 97 individual COI sequences reduced to unique haplotypes.Bootstrap values greater than 50 are shown. Tree is drawn to scale and branch lengths are the number of substitutions per site. Collection locations are indicated for genetically distinct groups.

Figure 3: Maximum Parsimony Phylogram constructed in PAUP*, using 97 individual COI sequences reduced to unique haplotypes.. Bootstrap values greater than 50 are shown. Tree is drawn to scale and branch lengths are the number of changes over the whole sequence. Collection locations are indicated for genetically distinct groups.

Figure 4: Bayesian Inference Phylogram constructed in MrBayes 3.2.6 based on the GTR+I+ Γ model derived from jModelTest, using 97 individual COI sequences reduced to unique haplotypes. Posterior probabilities for haplotype group nodes are presented above 0.5. Tree is drawn to scale and branch lengths are measured in the number of changes per site. Collection locations are indicated for genetically distinct groups.

Figure 5: Haplotype network analysis for 16 haplotypes from 67 individuals of *G. hodgsoni*. Haplotypes are indicated by their codes as referred to in Table 1. Missing haplotypes or mutational steps are indicated by black dots, or are collapsed into a count of missing steps as in the single white square. Figure 6: Haplotype network analysis for 12 haplotypes from 22 individuals of *C. nivicolus*.
Haplotypes are indicated by their codes as referred to in Table 1. Missing haplotypes or mutational
steps are indicated by black dots, or are collapsed into a count of missing steps as in the white square.

Figure 7: Genetic distances based on mitochondrial COI sequences of 97 springtails covering 30 unique haplotypes. Haplotype codes refer to those in Table 1. Collection locations for each haplotype are indicated in the bar at the top and side of the table.

Figure 8: Estimated divergence times for populations of *G. hodgsoni* (circle) and *C. nivicolus* (squares). The timeline on the left is in millions of years. Overarching geologic events are presented in the appropriate time zones. Each bar indicates the divergence range between populations as indicated by the associated number pair. Each number refers to haplotypes from geographic locations as follows: 1 = G. *hodgsoni* haplotypes from the St John's range and Mt Seuss; 2 = the *G. hodgsoni* haplotype at Mt Gran; 3 = C. *nivicolus* haplotypes from Springtail Point; 4 = C. *nivicolus* haplotypes from Mt Gran and Mt Seuss; 5 = C. *nivicolus* haplotypes from Mt England.

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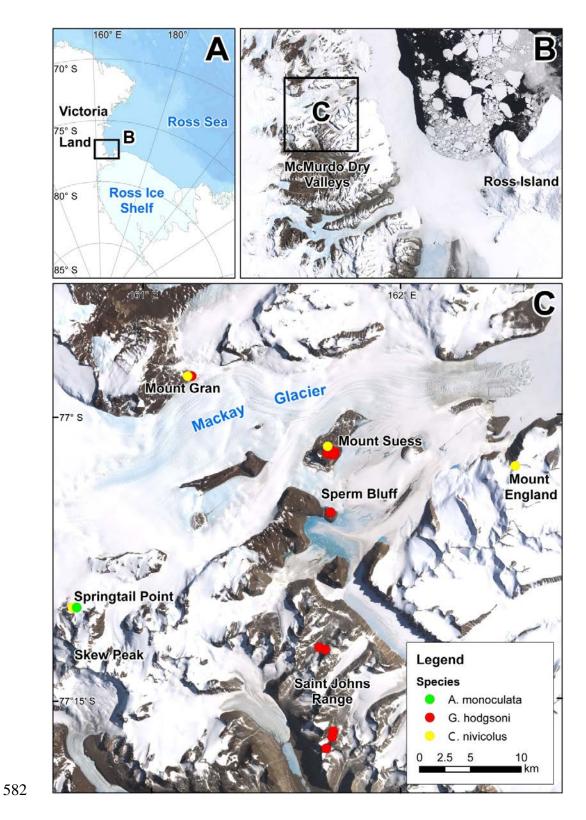
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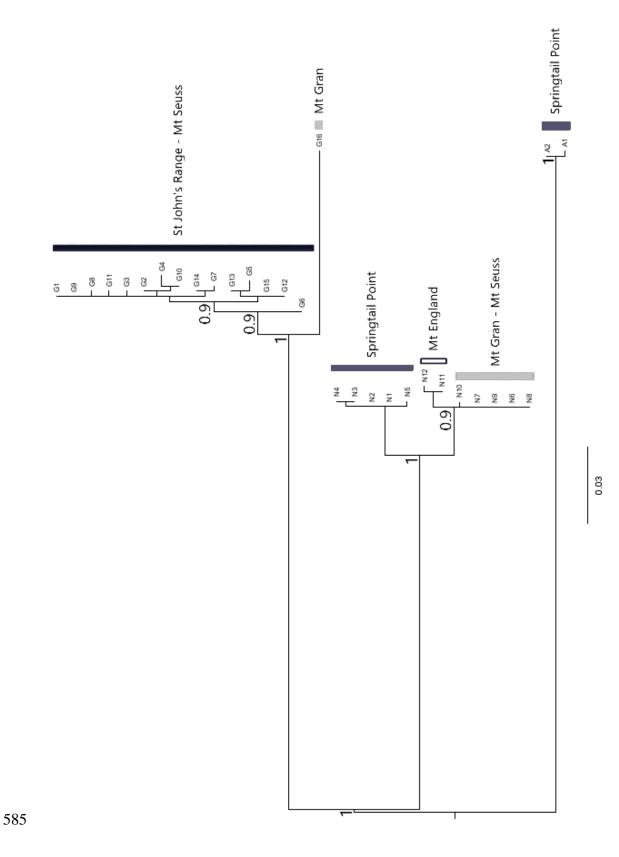
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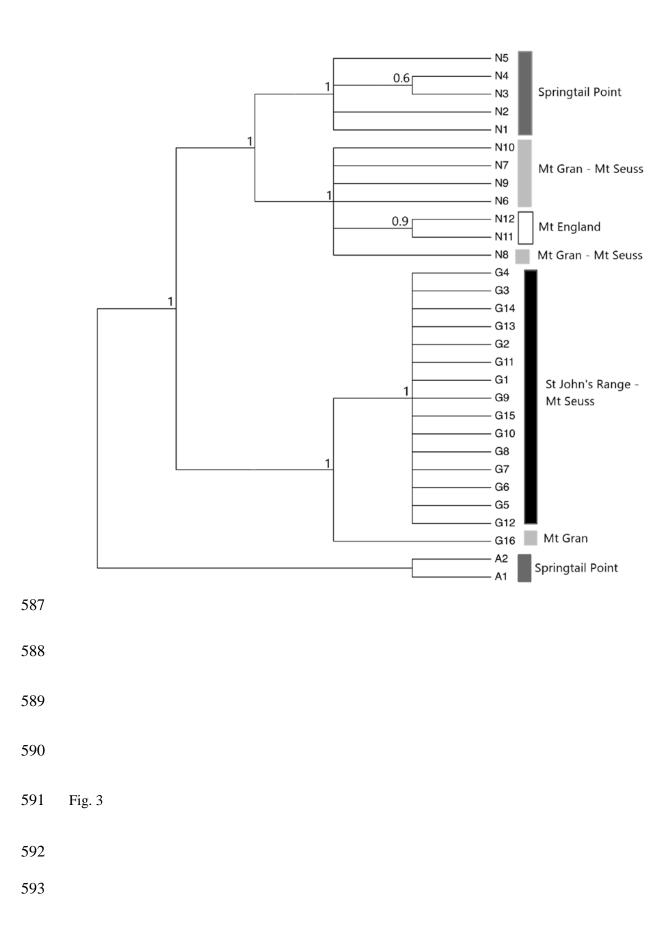
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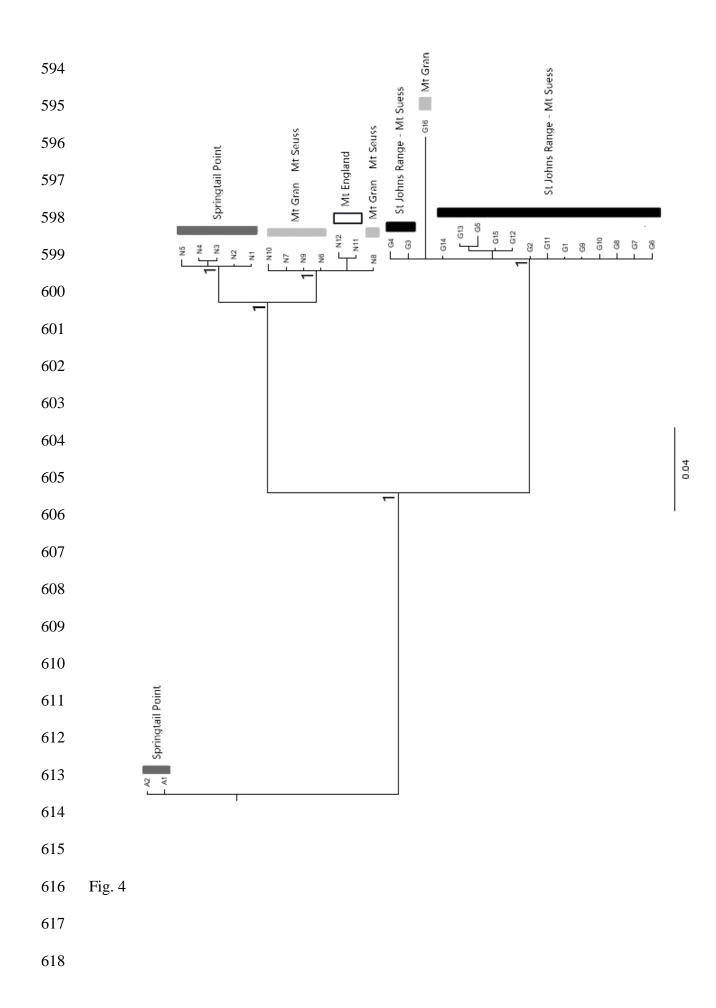


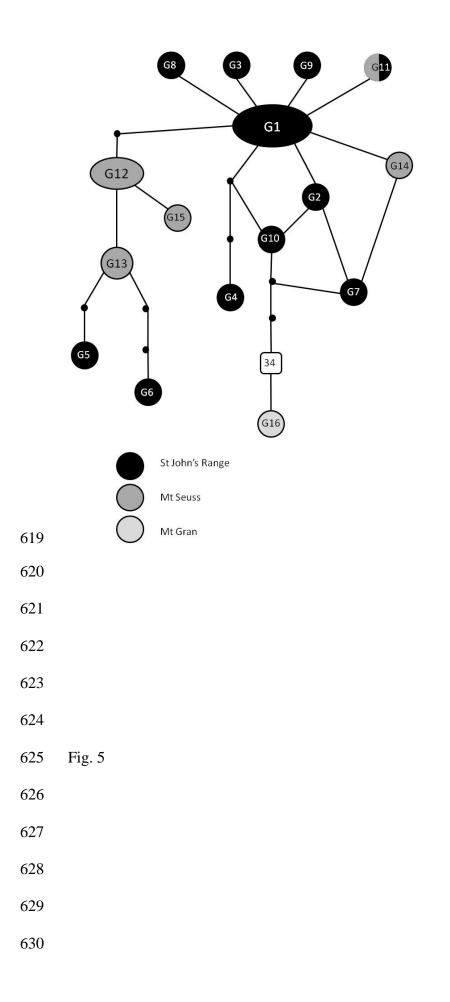
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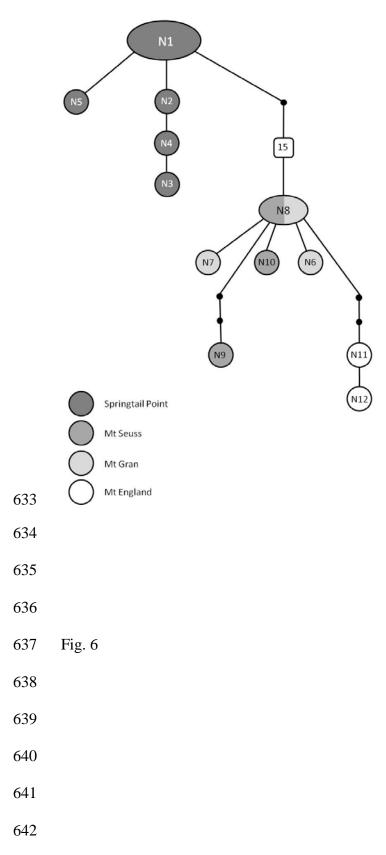


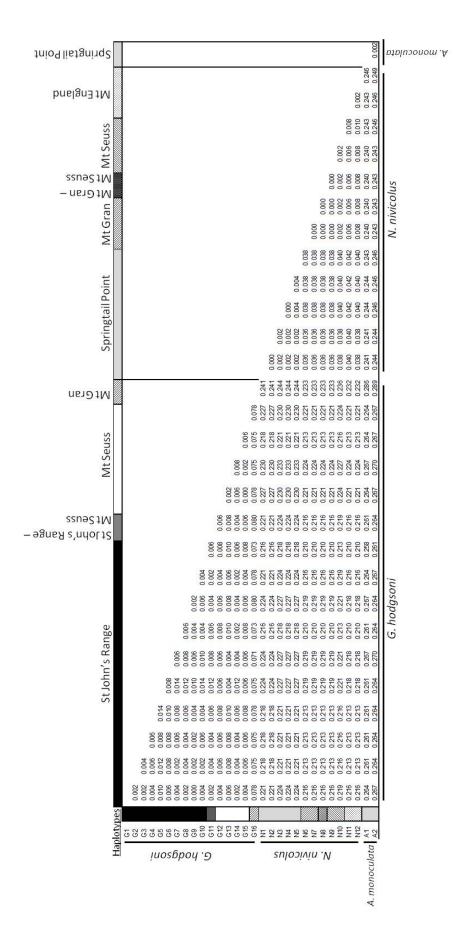
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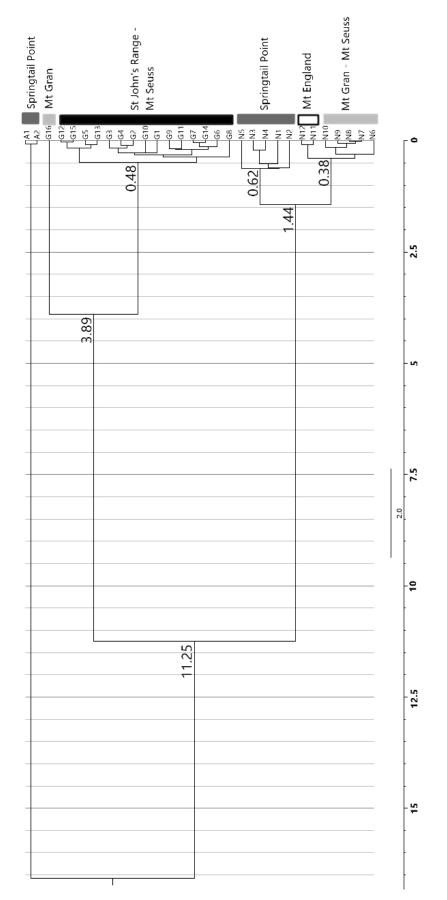








644 Fig. 7



646 Fig. 8