1 2	Strapline: Original article
3	Historical biogeography and phylogeny of <i>Typhlatya</i> cave shrimp
4	(Decapoda: Atyidae) based on mitochondrial and nuclear data
5	
6	Alejandro Botello ^{1,2} , Thomas M. Iliffe ³ , Fernando Alvarez ² , Carlos Juan ^{4*} , Joan Pons ¹ and
7	Damià Jaume ¹
8	
9	¹ IMEDEA (CSIC-UIB), Mediterranean Institute for Advanced Studies, 07190 Esporles (Balearic Islands),
10	Spain, ² National Collection of Crustaceans, Institute of Biology, National Autonomous University of Mexico,
11	Mexico 04510, D.F. Mexico, ³ Department of Marine Biology, Texas A&M University at Galveston, Galveston
12	TX, USA, ⁴ Department of Biology, University of the Balearic Islands, E-07122 Palma (Balearic Islands),
13	Spain
14	
15	*Correspondence: Carlos Juan, Department of Biology, University of the Balearic Islands,
16	cta. Valldemossa km 7.5, E-07122 Palma (Balearic Islands), Spain.
17	E-mail: cjuan@uib.es
18	

Running head: Zoogeography of *Typhlatya* cave shrimp

20 ABSTRACT

Aim Our aim was to produce a dated phylogeny of *Typhlatya*, a stygobiont shrimp genus
with an extremely disjunct localized distribution across the Mediterranean, Central Atlantic
and Eastern Pacific. Using phylogenetic analyses, we examine the role of dispersal and
plate tectonics in determining its distribution.

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26 Location Western Mediterranean, Ascension Island, Bermuda, Bahamas, Yucatán,

- 27 Caribbean, Galápagos, Western Australia.
- 28

29 Methods Thirteen of the 17 species of *Typhlatya* were analysed, using *Stygiocaris*,

30 Halocaridina and Antecaridina as outgroups. Fragments of three mitochondrial and three

31 nuclear genes were combined into a data set of 2449 mitochondrial bp and 1374 nuclear

32 bp.

33

34 **Results** Phylogenetic trees clearly showed *Typhlatya* to be paraphyletic, with the 35 Galápagos species clustering with Antecaridina. Only the phylogenetic position of 36 T. monae (Hispaniola and Puerto Rico) showed some uncertainty, appearing as the sister 37 group to the Australian genus *Stygiocaris* on the most likely topology. We estimated an 38 average age of 45 Myr (30.6–61.1 Myr) for the most recent common ancestor of *Typhlatya* 39 + Stygiocaris + Antecaridina + Halocaridina. All Typhlatya (except T. galapagensis) + 40 Stygiocaris derived from a node dated to 35.7 Ma (25.7–47.0 Ma), whereas the ancestor of 41 all Typhlatya species (excluding T. monae and T. galapagensis) lived 30.7 Ma (21.9-42 40.4 Ma).

2

44	Main conclusions <i>Typhlatya</i> is paraphyletic and apparently absent from the eastern
45	Pacific, with T. galapagensis clustering with Antecaridina. The remaining Typhlatya
46	species form a robust monophyletic group with Stygiocaris, and both molecular and
47	morphological evidence support the recognition of three sublineages: (1) Typhlatya s. str.,
48	Atlantic-Mediterranean, embracing all Typhlatya species minus T. monae; (2) Stygiocaris,
49	limited to north-western Australia; and (3) T. monae (Caribbean), for which a new genus
50	could be erected. No congruence was found between temporal and geographical
51	projections of cladogenetic events within Typhlatya/Stygiocaris and the major plate
52	tectonic events underlying Tethyan history.
53	
54	
55	Keywords
56	COI, cyt b, histone H3A, molecular clock, stygofauna, Tethyan relicts, 16S rRNA, 18S
57	rRNA, <i>28S</i> rRNA.

59

60 INTRODUCTION

61 Many aquatic subterranean crustaceans (stygobionts) exhibit broad transoceanic disjunct 62 distributions throughout tropical and subtropical latitudes, so that different congeneric 63 species may be isolated on continents or islands half the world apart (Stock, 1993). This 64 pattern is repeated in a diverse set of taxonomic groups including the remipedes. 65 thermosbaenaceans, amphipods, isopods, decapods, copepods and ostracods, and it has 66 been explained by the fragmentation of the continuous ranges of their ancestors by a series 67 of shared isolation events (Stock, 1993; Wagner, 1994). These so-called 'Tethyan' 68 distribution patterns are best explained in terms of the vicariant isolation of the ancestral 69 lineages coincident with the fragmentation in the late Mesozoic and Tertiary of the Tethys 70 Sea, a predominantly shallow-water circumtropical ocean that existed from the Middle 71 Jurassic until 20 million years ago (Ma) (Sterrer, 1973; Stock, 1993). The progressive 72 breakup of this east-west palaeo-seaway with the collision of continental landmasses and 73 the formation of broad, deep oceanic basins could have resulted in the allopatric 74 diversification of the ancestors of present species, which subsequently became stranded in 75 inland aquifers. It follows, therefore, that genera displaying such distributions should have 76 an age that at least precedes the establishment of deep-water conditions in the north-central 77 Atlantic Ocean. They must also have persisted since then in a state of morphological stasis, 78 or alternatively, converged morphologically under the shared selection pressures posed by 79 the subterranean habitat (Barr & Holsinger, 1985; Hart & Manning, 1986). 80 The major drawback to the hypothesized Tethyan origin for these taxa and their 81 vicariance by plate tectonics is their frequent occurrence on relatively young oceanic 82 islands that have never been connected to continental shelves. Hart et al. (1985) proposed

83 that representatives of these lineages on Atlantic islands might be survivors from the time

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when the Atlantic Ocean was very narrow, and that the forerunners of these islands were in
contact with or close to both shores of the ocean. Deep-sea dispersal along the crevicular
medium associated with the circumglobal system of spreading zones also represents a
feasible alternative explanation of the presence of some of these taxa on geologically
young oceanic islands (Boxshall, 1989).

89 Typhlatya Creaser, 1936 is a stygobiont genus of atyid shrimp with a punctuated 90 distribution throughout coastal continental and insular ground-waters of the Mediterranean, 91 north central Atlantic and east Pacific (Fig. 1). This taxon, which has never been reported 92 in open marine habitats but with most of the species inhabiting anchialine waters, has an 93 uncertain biogeographical history (see, for example, Croizat et al., 1974; Monod, 1975; 94 Rosen, 1975; Buden & Felder, 1977; Iliffe et al., 1983; Hart et al., 1985; Manning et al., 95 1986; Stock, 1993; Sanz & Platvoet, 1995, for proposals based on vicariance; and Chace & 96 Hobbs, 1969; Monod & Cals, 1970; Chace & Manning, 1972; Peck, 1974; Iliffe, 1986; 97 Stock, 1986; Banarescu, 1990, for alternative dispersalist explanations). The broad 98 distribution of *Typhlatya* has been described elsewhere as the result of Tethys 99 fragmentation (Buden & Felder, 1977; Stock, 1993). However, the ability of some 100 members of the (typically freshwater) family Atyidae to undertake part of their life cycle in 101 the marine environment (diadromy) and the presence of members of Typhlatya and other 102 closely related genera on young oceanic islands also support explanations based on marine 103 dispersal (Smith & Williams, 1981; Russ et al., 2010). Recently, divergent 104 phylogeographical patterns among anchialine shrimp have been related to differences in 105 the duration of their respective planktonic larval (dispersive) phases (Santos, 2006; Craft et 106 al., 2008; Russ et al., 2010).

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107 Several molecular phylogenetic analyses have dealt with *Typhlatya* species, but none 108 has addressed the phylogeny and biogeography of the genus as a whole. Thus, Hunter et al. 109 (2008) investigated the phylogeography of three species from Yucatán, the Caicos Islands 110 and Bermuda. Zakšek et al. (2007) analysed the molecular phylogeny of the stygobiont 111 genus Troglocaris Dormitzer, 1853, using species of Typhlatya from Spain and Yucatán as 112 outgroups. Page et al. (2008) found that T. pearsei (Yucatán) - the only Typhlatya included 113 in their analysis – was recovered as the closest relative of the endemic Western Australian 114 subterranean genus Stygiocaris, and suggested that they may have descended from a 115 common ancestor that lived in the coastal marine habitat of the ancient Tethys Sea, and 116 were subsequently separated by tectonic plate movements. Five Typhlatya species were 117 also included in a recent molecular phylogeny of the family Atyidae (von Rintelen et al., 118 2012). Using a relaxed molecular clock and different calibration priors, these authors 119 estimated an age range from early Cretaceous to Palaeogene for what they defined 120 informally as the 'Typhlatya group' (Antecaridina, Halocaridina, Halocaridinides, 121 Stygiocaris and Typhlatya). 122 Here, we present the first genetic survey undertaken to reconstruct the phylogeny of 123 *Typhlatya*, based on 4 kb of nuclear and mitochondrial sequences and a geographically 124 representative sample. Our aim was to use phylogenetic analyses to test the roles of 125 dispersal and of plate tectonics in generating the distribution of *Typhlatya*. With 126 transoceanic dispersal, we would expect disparate estimates for divergence times, 127 inconsistent with those of Tethys fragmentation. In contrast, large divergences, preceding 128 the establishment of deep-water conditions in the Atlantic Ocean, would be anticipated if 129 the distribution pattern of *Typhlatya* was better explained by ancient vicariance. 130

18

131 MATERIALS AND METHODS

132 Material examined

- 133 The 17 species of Typhlatya currently recognized are found on eastern Pacific and mid-
- 134 Atlantic islands, the coasts of the Caribbean, the Antillean Arch, the Bahamas and the
- 135 western Mediterranean (Fig. 1, Table 1); thirteen were included in the analysis. A single
- 136 population of each species was analysed, except for *T. galapagensis*, *T. consobrina*,
- 137 *T. miravetensis* and *T. monae* (see Table 2).
- 138 The two species of *Stygiocaris* Holthuis, 1960, plus *Halocaridina rubra* and
- 139 Antecaridina lauensis, were included in the data set because of their demonstrated
- 140 relationship to Typhlatya (Monod & Cals, 1970; Page et al., 2008). Other analyses using
- 141 only 16S rRNA [rrnL], 28S rRNA [LSU] and histone H3A sequences were performed in
- 142 conjunction with GenBank sequences from the closest relatives of the Typhlatya /
- 143 Stygiocaris cluster (von Rintelen et al., 2012).
- 144

145 Sequences and alignments

- 146 Genomic DNA was isolated from whole specimens using the DNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen,
- 147 Hilden, Germany). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was used to amplify fragments of the
- 148 mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI; two non-overlapping fragments),
- 149 cytochrome b (cyt b), and rrnL genes using the primers shown in Table 3. Fragments of
- 150 three other nuclear genes were also amplified: histone H3A, SSU, and 28S rRNA (LSU)
- 151 (Table 3). The combined data set consisted of 3823 bp (2449 bp of the mitochondrial and
- 152 1374 bp of the nuclear genome).
- 153 PCR was performed in a reaction containing $(1\times)$ NH₄ buffer, 3.5–5.0 mM MgCl₂,
- 154 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 0.2–0.4 μ M each primer, 0.5 U of *Taq* DNA polymerase and 1–5 μ L

of DNA template, in a final volume of 25 µL. The amplification conditions consisted of
one cycle of 94 °C for 2 min and 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 47–55 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C
for 1 min, followed by a final extension step at 72 °C for 10 min. The amplified fragments
were sequenced in both directions using the ABI Prism BigDye Reaction Kit v. 2.0 and an
ABI 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Nucleotide
sequences were aligned using MAFFT 4.0 software, taking into account the RNA secondary
structure of ribosomal genes (Katoh *et al.*, 2005).

162

163 **Phylogenetic analyses**

164 The program JMODELTEST (Posada, 2008) was used to select the best evolutionary model

165 for each partition, according to the Bayesian information criterion (BIC). The best model

166 was HKY+ Γ , except for the *SSU*+*LSU* partition, for which GTR+ Γ was the best.

167 Incongruence length difference (ILD) tests (Farris et al., 1995) were performed with PAUP*

168 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002) to check for incongruence among genes. We implemented

169 different evolutionary models, data partitioning strategies, tree construction methods and

170 clock estimation methods to assess their effect on tree topologies, branch lengths, and

171 evolutionary rates (Phillips, 2009). We explored five different partitioning strategies: (1)

172 seven partitions: considering first, second and third codon positions of mtDNA as three

173 different partitions, plus *rrn*L, histone *H3A*, *SSU* and *LSU* as individual partitions; (2) six

174 partitions: as above, but combining the first and second mtDNA positions into a single

175 partition; (3) five partitions: as in (2), but with the nuclear ribosomal genes merged into a

176 single partition; (4) each gene as an independent partition (six partitions); and (5) the

177 mitochondrial and nuclear sequences treated as two different partitions. The competing

178 partition strategies were compared using Bayes factors (Brown & Lemmon, 2007).

179	Marginal likelihoods and harmonic means were estimated using TRACER 1.4 (Rambaut &
180	Drummond, 2007). The best partition scheme among the five tested was option 3.
181	Bayesian phylogenetic analyses were conducted in the parallel version of MRBAYES
182	3.1.2 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001). In each Bayesian search, two independent runs
183	were performed, starting with the default prior values, random trees, and three heated and
184	one cold Markov chains, which ran for two million generations, sampled at intervals of
185	1000 generations. All parameters were unlinked and rate models were allowed to vary
186	freely over partitions. The convergence of all parameters of the two independent runs was
187	assessed in MRBAYES 3.1.2 and TRACER 1.4, obtaining effective sample sizes > 200
188	(Rambaut & Drummond, 2007). After the 10% burn-in samples, the remaining trees from
189	the two independent runs were combined into a single majority consensus topology, and
190	the frequencies of the nodes in the majority rule tree were taken as the posterior
191	probabilities (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001).
192	Maximum likelihood (ML) analyses using the partition schemes described above were
193	performed using RAXML 7.0.4 (Stamatakis et al., 2005). Bootstrap support values were
194	estimated using the fast bootstrapping method, with 500 replicates.
195	
196	Molecular clock analyses
197	We estimated node ages using BEAST 1.6.0 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007), enforcing a
198	relaxed molecular clock with an uncorrelated lognormal distribution and a Yule speciation

199 model. For tree calibration, we used the known age ranges of three major events affecting

200 the diversification of particular lineages as flat priors: (1) the isolation of the populations of

201 T. galapagensis from Santa Cruz and Isabela islands in the Galápagos, which cannot be

202 older than the age of the Cocos Ridge and associated seamounts. These now-submerged

203	structures probably formed when the oceanic crust moved over the Galápagos hotspot, and
204	it is probable that an archipelago has existed continuously above the current Galápagos
205	area for the past 14.5 Myr (see Werner et al., 1999, and references therein), so the interval
206	5–14 Ma has been proposed for the separation of the two populations; (2) the isolation of
207	the ancestor of Stygiocaris lancifera and S. stylifera after the emergence of the Cape Range
208	anticline in north-western Australia (7–10 Ma; Page et al., 2008; see above); and (3) the
209	occlusion of the Havana–Matanzas Channel in Cuba at 5–6 Ma (Iturralde-Vinent et al.,
210	1996), which could have triggered the isolation of the ancestors of the sister species
211	T. consobrina and T. taina.
212	We assumed three independent substitution rates, implemented as three clocks: a rate
213	for the mitochondrial protein-coding genes (COI , cyt b), another for $rrnL$, and the third for
214	the nuclear data set (histone H3A, SSU and LSU). BEAST analyses were run for fifty million
215	generations, sampling every 1000 generations. The outputs were analysed with TRACER 1.4
216	and TREEANNOTATOR 1.6.0 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007), after the first five million
217	generations had been discarded.
218	
0 10	

219 **RESULTS**

- 220 Data regarding the species, populations, collection sites, and corresponding EMBL
- accession numbers of the DNA sequences used in this study are shown in Table 2. Note
- that it was not possible to recover the entire sequences of some gene fragments for some
- 223 populations.

224

225 Intraspecific divergences

226 Typhlatya galapagensis from Santa Cruz and Isabela islands showed a considerably higher 227 pairwise COI genetic distance (8%) than those found among populations of T. monae or 228 T. miravetensis, or between T. garciai and T. kakuki (see Appendix S1 in Supporting 229 Information). This suggests that these two island populations are differentiated at the 230 species level. 231 The three different *T. monae* populations from Hispaniola, located at opposite corners 232 of the Dominican Republic, and the population from Bosque Guánica in Puerto Rico 233 showed very low genetic divergences (< 0.5% for *COI*). Moreover, a comparison of 234 T. monae from Playa Frontón (Samaná Peninsula, northern Dominican Republic) and 235 T. utilaensis from the single locality known thus far showed that two of the four diagnostic 236 morphological characters considered for the latter species (Alvarez et al., 2005) are similar

in both taxa. Unfortunately, the single T. utilaensis specimen available proved to be useless

for molecular analysis. Sequencing further samples could confirm the conspecific status ofthese two taxa in the future.

240 *Typhlatya garciai* from Providenciales (Caicos Islands) and *T. kakuki* from Acklins

241 Island (Bahamas; see Table 2) showed identical histone H3A sequences and low

242 divergences for *COI* and *rrn*L (< 0.6%). We consider here that *T. kakuki* is only a

243 population of *T. garciai* that has a completely regressed cornea.

244 Three populations of *T. miravetensis*, separated by up to 40 km in eastern Spain,

showed a divergence in the mitochondrial markers of 1-3%, but their nuclear sequences

246 were identical. The two Cuban populations of *T. consobrina* included here showed

significant divergences in rrnL (2.3%), cyt b (6.1%) and COI (4.7%).

248

237

249 Phylogenetic analyses

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250	A preliminary Bayesian analysis including our species data set plus a selection of the taxa
251	considered by von Rintelen et al. (2012), and using the same three gene markers as those
252	authors, showed that the cluster Antecaridina-Halocaridina-T. galapagensis is the
253	monophyletic sister group of the remaining Typhlatya/Stygiocaris species (Fig. 2). ILD
254	tests of our complete data set indicated that the six partitions were not incongruent (P
255	> 0.13). Total evidence derived from the Bayesian and maximum likelihood phylogenetic
256	trees corroborated the paraphyly of the genus Typhlatya because the Galápagos species
257	clustered with A. lauensis with a high posterior probability ($PP = 1.0$; Fig. 3). The
258	Australian genus Stygiocaris clustered as nested to Typhlatya, as suggested by Page et al.
259	(2008). The only tree node showing weak support involved <i>T. monae</i> , which appeared as
260	the sister group to <i>Stygiocaris</i> (PP = 0.93 ; 56% bootstrap support in the ML analysis).
261	However, this species appeared basal to the rest of <i>Typhlatya</i> + <i>Stygiocaris</i> ($PP = 0.87$) in
262	an analysis that included additional outgroup species and a reduced (three genes) data set
263	(Fig. 2). Shimodaira-Hasegawa tests revealed no significant differences between the two
264	alternative topologies.
265	Based on the most probable topology and molecular rates, and using the three
266	palaeogeographical events as calibration points, a relaxed molecular clock estimated an age
267	of 30.6–61.1 Myr for the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of Typhlatya +
268	Stygiocaris + Antecaridina + Halocaridina (Figs 4 & 5, Appendix S2). This analysis also
269	estimated an age of 5.0–7.7 Myr for the ancestor of the divergent populations of
270	T. galapagensis from Santa Cruz and Isabela (node 'f' in Fig. 4). The age of the MRCA of
271	all Typhlatya species (minus T. galapagensis) + Stygiocaris (node 'b' in Fig. 4) was 25.7-
272	47.0 Myr, whereas the ancestor of all Typhlatya species (minus T. monae and
273	T. galapagensis) (node 'e' in Fig. 4) lived 21.9–40.4 Ma.

274

275 **DISCUSSION**

276 Molecular dating using the node age priors separately or in combination produced 277 compatible age estimates, particularly for the most recent nodes (< 20 Myr; see Fig. 5 and 278 Appendix S2). We found a marked inconsistency between the divergence time estimates in 279 our phylogeny and one of the major palaeogeographical events in Tethys history – the 280 establishment of deep water between the two shores of the north-central Atlantic Ocean at 281 about 110 Ma (Sclater et al., 1977; Jones et al., 1995). Our estimates date the separation 282 between the western Atlantic / Caribbean (minus T. monae) and the Mediterranean lineage 283 of Typhlatya at 21.9–40.4 Ma (see Fig. 4), which is much later than the disruption of the 284 shallow-water connections between the two shores of the Atlantic. Thus, the distribution of 285 Typhlatya / Stygiocaris cannot be explained solely by the vicariant isolation that 286 accompanied the fragmentation of Tethys Sea. We suggest that this disjunct amphi-Atlantic 287 distribution could be the result of the extinction of species from central and eastern Atlantic 288 archipelagos, and that new Typhlatya species might even await discovery in the 289 Macaronesian islands. There is compelling geological evidence for the presence of 290 drowned archipelagos and seamounts in the central East Atlantic Ocean from at least 291 60 Ma (Geldmacher et al., 2001, 2005; Fernández-Palacios et al., 2011). These Palaeo-292 Macaronesian islands were located much closer to the western Mediterranean than they 293 would be today and were affected by the east-to-west warm circumeguatorial marine 294 Tethys Sea current (Fernández-Palacios et al., 2011). The existence of these vanished 295 archipelagos supports the potential presence of *Typhlatya* in the area and also the relatively 296 recent divergence of the Mediterranean and western Atlantic Typhlatya lineages (21.6-297 44.4 Ma; see Fig. 4).

39

298	The sister relationship found between Typhlatya and the Australian genus Stygiocaris
299	(with the caveat that corroboration is needed from additional molecular evidence) is hardly
300	compatible with their presumed vicariant divergence due to the occlusion of the connection
301	between the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean (Page et al., 2008). The time frame
302	established for the collision of the Arabian Plate with Anatolia (16–20 Ma; Meulenkamp &
303	Sissingh, 2003) not only post-dates our age estimate for the divergence of <i>Typhlatya</i> s. str.
304	and Stygiocaris (25.7-47.0 Ma; Fig. 4), but also (and more relevantly) the divergence of
305	the sister taxa <i>T. monae</i> and <i>Stygiocaris</i> (22.0–42.3 Ma; Fig. 4).
306	
307	Paraphyly of <i>Typhlatya</i>
308	Monod & Cals (1970) assigned a series of juvenile blind atyids from Santa Cruz and
309	Isabela in the Galápagos to Typhlatya, although they noted some morphological similarities
310	to Antecaridina. In our phylogenetic analyses, Typhlatya galapagensis is placed as the

311 sister taxon to Antecaridina lauensis with strong statistical support, rendering the genus

- 312 *Typhlatya* paraphyletic in its current conception. Our study also suggests a possible
- 313 species-level differentiation between the populations of *T. galapagensis* from the islands
- 314 Santa Cruz and Isabela. COI genetic distance between these two populations (8%)
- 315 approaches the minimum of 10% found in our study to distinguish different *Typhlatya*
- 316 species (Appendix S1), but is considerably higher than the maximum interpopulational
- 317 distances we identified for *T. monae*, *T. garciai / kakuki* and *T. miravetensis*.

318

319 Stygiocaris and Typhlatya monae

320 Stygiocaris and T. monae are morphologically peculiar, even though they cluster with the

321 rest of the *Typhlatya* species in a robust monophyletic group (Fig. 3). The position of

T. monae is not fully established on the tree, but occurs either as the sister taxon to the rest
of *Typhlatya* or as the sister taxon to *Stygiocaris* (as shown in Figs 2 & 3, respectively). In
any event, our analysis confirms the long-independent evolution of these three sublineages
(i.e., *Typhlatya* s. str., *Stygiocaris* and *T. monae*; see Fig. 3). *Stygiocaris* is a stygobiont genus endemic to north-western Australia, composed of
three species, only two of which have been formally described (Holthuis, 1960; Page *et al.*,
2008). Page *et al.* (2008) have already noted the sister relationship between *Stygiocaris* and

329 *Typhlatya* based on molecular evidence. Using a combined nuclear and mitochondrial

330 sequence data set, they found that the Mexican *T. pearsei* was the sister taxon of

Stygiocaris, rather than any surface or cave atyids from Australia or the Indo-Pacificregion.

Typhlatya monae, with an apparently broad distribution in the Caribbean, is unique in
displaying a uniramous pereiopod (the fifth), whereas the other *Typhlatya* species display a
well developed exopod on all pereiopods. The introduction of a new genus to
accommodate *T. monae* on the basis of this feature should be considered, and would give
taxonomic relevance to the broad molecular divergence of the *Typhlatya* s. str., *Stygiocaris*

338 and *T. monae* lineages.

Zakšek *et al.* (2007) and Sket & Zakšek (2009) have, however, recently challenged the relevance of features such as the presence of certain spines on the anterior margin of the cephalothorax or the absence of exopods on the pereiopods in distinguishing atyid genera. These authors, based on molecular markers, have shown that a presumed *Typhlatya* from the Balkans is actually a modified *Troglocaris*, which displays smooth anterior margins on its cephalothorax and uniramous pereiopods. Our own data for *Antecaridina* lend support to this hypothesis, because *T. galapagensis* (which lacks spines on the anterior margin of

346 the cephalothorax) occurs in our phylogram as a sister group to A. lauensis, a taxon

347 displaying both suborbital and pterygostomial spines. Our own observations of the shape of

348 the sternal process in *Typhlatya* s. str. also indicate that it is identical to *Stygiocaris*,

349 supporting the congeneric status of the two taxa.

350

351 Dispersal, population structure and divergence of *Typhlatya* species

352 The distribution patterns of the Atyidae are dependent on life-history traits, such as their

353 dispersal capacities and species-specific tolerance to local conditions (Page & Hughes,

354 2007). *Typhlatya* species are usually very localized, limited in most instances to a single

island or narrow portion of coast. However, several *Typhlatya* species display relatively

356 broad distributions that, in some instances, include territories separated by stretches of sea.

357 Thus, *T. monae* is known from Mona Island, Puerto Rico and Hispaniola (Greater Antilles),

358 the more distant Barbuda (Lesser Antilles), and Curaçao and San Andrés islands, the last

two at opposite sides of the Caribbean (see Table 1). Our own data for three different

360 populations from Hispaniola and one from Puerto Rico suggest the occurrence of panmixia

361 (Appendix S1).

362 *Typhlatya garciai / kakuki* is known from north-eastern and north-western Cuba,

363 Providenciales (Caicos Islands) and Acklins Island (Bahamas; see Table 1). Our own

364 observations of the latter two populations, separated by a deep-water sea arm of 173 km,

365 indicated very low molecular divergence, which could be explained either by continuous

366 gene flow through dispersal over sea or, more likely given the separation of the

367 populations, by recent colonization and subsequent isolation.

The high dispersal potential of *Typhlatya* across subterranean waters has already been pointed out by Hunter *et al.* (2008) on the Yucatán Peninsula, where haplotypes of

T. mitchelli are shared between populations separated by up to 235 km. However, we found
significant isolation among the populations of *T. consobrina* (sampled from two locations
in Cuba about 330 km apart) and *T. miravetensis* (three populations separated by up to
40 km in eastern Spain) (Appendix S1).

374

375 Trans-oceanic dispersal of Typhlatya

376 Two closely related species, Typhlatva iliffei (Bermuda) and T. rogersi (Ascension), are 377 found on mid-oceanic islands in the Atlantic. Bermuda is the cap of a mid-plate rise in a 378 sector of the north-western Atlantic with no other seamounts or ridges that could have 379 harboured members of Typhlatva in the past. The pillow lavas that formed the original 380 Bermuda shield volcano are no older than 47-40 Myr, and at 40-36 Ma, the Bermuda 381 platform had already risen to sea level (Vogt & Jung, 2007). Ascension, located about 382 7000 km to the southeast of Bermuda, occurs 90 km west of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge on 7-383 Myr-old oceanic lithosphere. Its oldest subaerial lava flows have been dated recently at 384 2.5 Ma (Minshull et al., 2010).

385 Iliffe et al. (1983) proposed that T. iliffei and T. rogersi represent an ancient atvid 386 stock that survived on submerged and emergent seamounts along or associated with the 387 Mid-Atlantic Ridge. Alternatively, Hart et al. (1985) and Manning et al. (1986) proposed 388 that the ancestral form of *Typhlatya* was a deep-sea benthic organism that originally 389 entered the cave environment directly from deep water via cracks and fissures on 390 submerged seamount slopes during the Mesozoic. Opposing this view is the alleged 391 primary freshwater condition of the family Atyidae, which already included limnic 392 representatives by the middle Cretaceous (Rabadà y Vives, 1993), and the fact that 393 Typhlatya has never been recorded in open marine habitats. Hunter et al. (2008) favoured

394

395 transoceanic dispersal of a shallow-water ancestor. These researchers identified a sister 396 relationship between T. iliffei from Bermuda and T. garciai from Providenciales (Caicos 397 Islands) based on molecular evidence, and suggested that the taxon from Bermuda might 398 have derived from a Bahamian ancestor dispersed via the Gulf Stream. 399 The most common recent ancestor of the Bahamas, Ascension and the Bermudian taxa 400 lived 18.6–33.9 Ma (see Fig. 4), which is compatible with the colonization of Bermuda by 401 overseas dispersal of a Bahamian ancestor, as proposed by Hunter et al. (2008) (the age of 402 Bermuda is 40–36 Myr; see above). Our estimate for the divergence of the Bermuda– 403 Ascension lineages (1.9–5.3 Ma; see Fig. 4) is also compatible with the age of Ascension 404 (2.5 Myr; see above). Although both islands are separated by a huge expanse of ocean and 405 the prevailing equatorial currents would make the derivation of one from the other by long-406 distance over-sea dispersal untenable, the most likely explanation for their origin is that 407 they derived from a diadromous Bahamian lineage which colonized Bermuda first and 408 subsequently colonized Ascension Island.

an alternative scenario, where mid-Atlantic species reached their present distributions by

409

410 CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we examined the molecular phylogeny of *Typhlatya* shrimp using nuclear and mitochondrial gene sequences and a relaxed molecular clock. These stygobiont atyids show an extremely disjunct distribution, which has been suggested to derive from plate-tectonic vicariance. Our results confirm the paraphyly of *Typhlatya*, because *T. galapagensis* from the Galápagos Islands is the sister taxon to *Antecaridina*. Furthermore, the Greater Antillean *T. monae* probably represents an independent sister lineage to the Australian genus *Stygiocaris*. We have analysed the relaxed molecular clock for *Typhlatya* using three

different calibration points based on three independent palaeogeographical events. We
show that in *Typhlatya / Stygiocaris*, the ages of the corresponding subclades postdate the
establishment of deep water between the north-central Atlantic Ocean shores. In addition,
the divergence of the *T. monae* lineage from the rest of the genus *Typhlatya* preceded the
cladogenesis of *Typhlatya* s. str. into a Mediterranean and a Caribbean/Mid-Atlantic clade.
Therefore, our results are inconsistent with a simple explanation of the origin of the group
based on plate-tectonic vicariance.

425

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662SUPPORTING INFORMATION

663Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

664

665Appendix S1 Percentage uncorrected pairwise genetic distances among the COI sequences.

666Appendix S2 Mean ages of the tree nodes in Fig. 4 and molecular evolutionary rates,

667 calculated using different calibration points.

668

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672information (other than missing files) should be addressed to the authors.

673

BIOSKETCH

Alejandro Botello is a carcinologist who shares with the other authors a vivid interest on 677the evolution and biogeography of anchialine crustaceans. His research is mainly focused on 678the cave decapod fauna of the Yucatán Peninsula.

680Author contributions: A.B., C.J. and D.J. conceived the ideas; A.B., F.A., T.I. and D.J.

681collected the data; A.B, J.P. and C.J. analysed the data; and A.B., C.J. and D.J. led the writing.

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685 Table 1 Typhlatya diversity and distribution	. Asterisks denote species retaining pigmented
686eyespots.	

Species	Distribution	References
T. arfeae Jaume & Bréhier, 2005	France	Jaume & Bréhier (2005)
<i>T. campechae</i> Hobbs & Hobbs, 1976	Yucatán Peninsula (Mexico)	Hobbs & Hobbs (1976)
<i>T. consobrina</i> Botosaneanu & Holthuis, 1970	Cuba	Botosaneanu & Holthuis (1970)
<i>T. dzilamensis</i> Alvarez, Iliffe & Villalobos, 2005	Yucatán Peninsula (Mexico)	Alvarez et al. (2005)
T. elenae Juarrero, 1994	Cuba	Juarrero (1994)
<i>T. galapagensis</i> Monod & Cals, 1970	Santa Cruz and Isabela Islands (Galápagos)	Monod & Cals (1970)
<i>T. garciadebrasi</i> Juarrero & Ortiz, 2000	Cuba	Juarrero & Ortiz (2000)
T. garciai Chace, 1942	Cuba; Caicos Islands	Botosaneanu & Holthuis (1970); Buden & Felder (1977); Chace (1942); Holthuis (1977)
* T. iliffei Hart & Manning, 1981	Bermuda	Hart & Manning (1981)
* <i>T. kakuki</i> Alvarez, Iliffe & Villalobos, 2005	Acklins (Bahamas)	Alvarez et al. (2005)
<i>T. miravetensis</i> Sanz & Platvoet, 1995	Spain	Sanz & Platvoet (1995)
T. mitchelli Hobbs & Hobbs, 1976	Yucatán Peninsula (Mexico)	Hobbs & Hobbs (1976)
* <i>T. monae</i> Chace, 1954	Puerto Rico; Dominican Republic; Mona Island (Puerto Rico); Barbuda (Lesser Antilles); Curaçao (Netherlands Antilles); San Andrés Island (Colombia)	Chace (1954; 1975); Debrot (2003); Sket (1988)
T. pearsei Creaser, 1936	Yucatán Peninsula (Mexico)	Cárdenas (1950); Creaser (1936; 1938); Hobbs & Hobbs (1976)
* T. rogersi Chace & Manning, 1972	Ascension Island	Chace & Manning (1972)
T. taina Estrada & Gómez, 1987	Cuba	Estrada & Gómez (1987)
* T. utilaensis Alvarez, Iliffe & Villalobos, 2005	Utila Island (Honduras)	Alvarez et al. (2005)
Typhlatya sp.	Belize	T. Iliffe, pers. obs.
<i>Typhlatya</i> sp.	Aruba (Netherlands Antilles)	L. Botosaneanu, Zoölogisch Museum, Amsterdam. pers, comm.
<i>Typhlatya</i> sp.	Bonaire (Netherlands Antilles)	L. Botosaneanu, Zoölogisch Museum, Amsterdam. pers, comm.

Table 2 Collection sites and EMBL accession numbers of *Antecaridina*, *Halocaridina*, *Stygiocaris* and *Typhlatya* species included in this 690analysis. Accession numbers in bold correspond to sequences obtained from GenBank (Ivey and Santos 2007; Page *et al.*, 2008). 691

				EM	BL accessior	n numbers		
Species	Collection site	COI 5'	COI 3'	cyt b	rrnL (16S)	Histone H3A	SSU (18S)	LSU (28S)
Antecaridina lauensis	North East Point, Christmas Island (SE Indian Ocean)	HE80089 8	HE80091 9	N/A	EU12385 1	HE80096 5	HE80101 6	N/A
Halocaridina rubra	Kohala District (Hawaii Is.; Hawaii): anchialine pool PT (Santos, 2006)	DQ9174 32	DQ9174 32	DQ9174 32	FN99536 8	HE80096 4	HE80101 5	HE801036
Stygiocaris lancifera	Cape Range (W Australia): Tulki well	HE80090 1	HE80092 2	HE80094 8	EU12382 7	HE80096 8	HE80101 9	HE801039
Stygiocaris stylifera	Cape Range (W Australia): Kuddamurra well (Palms)	N/A	HE80092 3	N/A	EU12383 6	HE80096 9	HE80102 0	HE801040
Typhlatya arfeae	Salses (Perpignan; France): Font Estramar	HE80090 6	HE80092 9	HE80095 4	HE80100 0	HE80097 5	HE80102 5	HE801045
Typhlatya consobrina	Bolondrón (Matanzas; Cuba): Cueva Chicharrones	HE80091 0	HE80093 3	HE80095 6	HE80100 4	HE80097 9	HE80102 8	HE801048
	El Veral (Guanahacabibes Peninsula; W Cuba): Cueva del Agua	HE80091 5	HE80094 0	HE80096 2	HE80101 1	HE80098 6	HE80103 4	N/A
Typhlatya dzilamensis	Dzilam de Bravo (Yucatán; Mexico): Cenote Cervera	N/A	HE80092 6	HE80095 1	HE80099 7	HE80097 2	N/A	N/A
Typhlatya galapagensis	Sta. Cruz Is. (Galápagos)	HE80089 9	HE80092 0	HE80094 6	HE80099 1	HE80096 6	HE80101 7	HE801037
	Isabela Is. (Galápagos)	HE80090 0	HE80092 1	HE80094 7	HE80099 2	HE80096 7	HE80101 8	HE801038
Typhlatya garciai	Providenciales (Caicos)	HE80090 9	HE80093 2	HE80095 5	HE80100 3	HE80097 8	N/A	N/A
Typhlatya iliffei	Bermuda: Tucker's Town Cave	HE80090 4	HE80092 7	HE80095 2	HE80099 8	HE80097 3	HE80102 3	HE801043
Typhlatya kakuki	Salinas Point (Acklins Is.; Bahamas): Shrimp Hole	N/A	HE80094 1	N/A	HE80101 3	HE80098 8	N/A	N/A
Typhlatya miravetensis	Pla de Cabanes (Castellón; Spain): Ullal de la Rambla de Miravet	HE80090 5	HE80092 8	HE80095 3	HE80099 9	HE80097 4	HE80102 4	HE801044
	Well at Peñíscola (Castellón; Spain)	HE80091 6	N/A	HE80096 3	HE80101 2	HE80098 7	HE80103 5	N/A
	Well at Alcalá de Xivert (Castellón; Spain)	HE80091 7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Typhlatya mitchelli	Hoctún (Yucatán; Mexico): Cenote de Hoctún	HE80090 2	HE80092 4	HE80094 9	HE80099 5	HE80097 0	HE80102 1	HE801041
Typhlatya monae	Well at Juan Dolio (Dominican Rep.)	HE80090 7	HE80093 0	N/A	HE80100 1	HE80097 6	HE80102 6	HE801046
	Jaragua NP (Oviedo; Pedernales; Dominican Rep.): Pozimán Cadena	N/A	HE80093 5	N/A	HE80100 6	HE80098 1	N/A	HE801050
	Cave at Bosque Guánica (SW Puerto Rico)	HE80091 2	HE80093 6	HE80095 8	HE80100 7	HE80098 2	HE80103 0	N/A
	Cave at Bosque Guánica (SW Puerto Rico)	HE80091 3	HE80093 7	HE80095 9	HE80100 8	HE80098 3	HE80103 1	N/A
	Cave at Bosque Guánica (SW Puerto Rico)	HE80091 4	HE80093 8	HE80096 0	HE80100 9	HE80098 4	HE80103 2	N/A
	Cave at Bosque Guánica (SW Puerto Rico)	N/A	HE80093 9	HE80096	HE80101 0	HE80098 5	HE80103	N/A
	Samaná Peninsula (Dominican Rep.): well at Plava del Frontón	N/A	HE80094 2	N/A	HE80101 4	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Well at Juan Dolio (Dominican Rep.)	N/A	HE80094 3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Well at Juan Dolio (Dominican Rep.)	N/A	HE80094 4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Typhlatya pearsei	Sacalum (Yucatán; Mexico): Cenote Nohchen	HE80090 3	HE80092 5	HE80095 0	HE80099 6	HE80097 1	HE80102 2	HE801042
Typhlatya rogersi	Anchialine pool at Ascension Is.	N/A	HE80093 1	N/A	HE80100 2	HE80097 7	HE80102 7	HE801047
Typhlatya taina	Puerto Escondido (Sta. Cruz del Norte; La Habana; Cuba): Cueva de la India	HE80090 8	HE80093 4	HE80095 7	HE80100 5	HE80098 0	HE80102 9	HE801049

694 Table 3	3 Primers	used to	amplify	different	mitochor	ndrial ar	nd nuclear	fragments.
695								

Amplified fragment	Primer	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Reference
Mitochondrial			
COI	LCO1490	GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG	Folmer et al. (1994)
	HCO2198	TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA	Folmer et al. (1994)
	NANCY	CCYGGTAAAATTAAAATATAAATCTC	Simon et al. (1994)
	Pat	TCCAATGCACTAATCTGCCATATTA	Simon et al. (1994)
	Jerry	CAACATTTATTTTGATTTTTTGG	Simon <i>et al.</i> (1994)
	COIF1	AAAAAAGAAACMTTYGGYACNYTAGG	This study
	COIR1	TTNARDCCTARGAARTGYTGRGG	This study
	F12	GCCTTCCCCCGGATRAAYAAYAT	This study
	R27	CGGTCGGTCAGCAGYATNGTRATNGC	This study
eyt b	CB1	TATGTACTACCATGAGGACAAATATC	Barraclough et al. (1999)
	CB4	AAAAGAAARTATCATTCAGGTTGAAT	Barraclough et al. (1999)
rnL (16S)	M14	CGCCTCTTTATCAAAAACAT	Xiong & Kocher (1991)
	M74	CTCCGGTTTGAACTCAGATCA	Xiong & Kocher (1991)
Nuclear			Č ()
Histone H3A	H3aF	ATGGCTCGTACCAAGCAGACVGC	Colgan et al. (1998)
	H3Ar	ATATCCTTRGGCATRATRGTGAC	Colgan <i>et al.</i> (1998)
SSU (18S rRNA)	18S3'	CACCTACGGAAACCTTGTTACGAC	Shull <i>et al.</i> (2001)
	18S2.0	ATGGTTGCAAAGCTGAAAC	Shull et al. (2001)
<i>LSU (28S</i> rRNA)	Ver28Sf	CAAGTACCGTGAGGGAAAGTT	Lefébure et al. (2006)
	Ver28S2	GTTCACCATCTTTCGGGTC	Lefébure et al. (2006)

697698Figure captions699

distribution of Typhlatya in the Caribbean region. See Table 1 for the precise
distribution of each taxon. Typhlatya mitchelli and T. pearsei are broadly distributed
throughout the northern Yucatán Peninsula, and are shown schematically.
Figure 2 Bayesian phylogram of Typhlatya / Stygiocaris and related genera based on
rrnL, LSU and histone H3A sequences. Numbers beside nodes show Bayesian posterior
probabilities.
Figure 3 Bayesian phylogram showing the relationships among the <i>Typhlatya</i> /
Stygiocaris species based on rrnL, COI, cyt b, LSU, SSU and histone H3A sequences,
with Halocaridina rubra and Antecaridina lauensis as the outgroups. The numbers
above the nodes show the Bayesian posterior probabilities, and those below the nodes
show the bootstrap support values estimated with maximum likelihood.
Figure 4 Chronogram showing the estimated age ranges (Ma; 95% high posterior density
limits as confidence intervals) of the cladogenetic events within the Typhlatya-
Stygiocaris-Antecaridina-Halocaridina lineage. Asterisks indicate the nodes used as
calibration points (see text for details).
Figure 5 Plot showing the mean age estimates (Myr) for the nodes shown in Fig. 4,
obtained with three different calibration points (see text for details). Black broken lines
show the 95% high posterior density limits for the node ages using the three-point
combined calibration.





0.09 nt substitutions



0.07 nt substitutions



Node age (Myr)



	1	<u>ר</u>	2	4	5	6	7	0	0	10	11	12	12	1.4	15	16	17	10	10	20	21	22	22	24	25	26	27	20 20
1 H mibra	1	2	3	4	3	0	/	ð	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	10	1/	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	23	20	21	28 29
2 4 lawansis	-																											
2 A. iuuensis	19.49	-																										
3 <i>I. galapag.</i> (Sta Cruz)	22.59	16.59	-																									
4 <i>I. galapag.</i> (Isabela)	22.09	1/.14	8.01	-																								
5 S. lancifera	22.06	19.02	18.29	18.16	-																							
6 S. stylifera	19.50	19.16	19.94	18.59	14.78	-																						
7 T. mitchelli	22.72	22.32	20.27	19.16	18.98	20.65	-																					
8 T. pearsei	22.16	20.61	19.93	18.82	17.66	19.38	10.28	-																				
9 T. dzilamensis	20.36	19.80	21.70	20.74	19.81	19.45	17.42	16.32	-																			
10 T. iliffei	21.53	21.45	21.91	23.53	21.42	19.99	21.87	20.99	23.84	-																		
11 T. arfeae	18.89	19.14	21.23	18.70	18.60	17.37	19.82	18.63	18.22	20.58	-																	
12 T. monae (J. Dolio)-1	20.38	19.05	19.59	19.70	17.25	17.52	19.05	18.10	19.56	20.09	17.35	-																
13 T. monae (J. Dolio)-9	20.60	18.11	18.86	19.33	17.17	17.40	20.21	17.80	19.71	21.07	16.52	0.00	-															
14 T. monae (J. Dolio)-8	20.60	18.11	18.86	19.33	17.17	17.40	20.21	17.80	19.71	21.07	16.52	0.00	0.00	-														
15 T. monae (Oviedo)-2	20.88	18.33	19.30	19.99	17.02	17.85	20.16	18.00	19.57	21.27	16.73	0.18	0.19	0.19	-													
16 T. monae (Samaná)-7	20.60	18.11	18.86	19.33	17.17	17.40	20.21	17.80	19.71	21.07	16.52	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.19	-												
17 T. monae (P. Rico)-3	20.25	19.02	19.68	19.69	17.13	18.32	19.83	18.13	19.54	20.42	17.72	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.22	0.00	-											
18 T. monae (P. Rico)-4	20.26	19.21	19.77	19.78	17.24	18.55	19.64	18.13	19.13	20.51	17.81	0.18	0.44	0.44	0.23	0.44	0.18	-										
19 T. monae (P. Rico)-5	20.15	19.15	19.90	19.85	17.29	18.54	19.90	18.32	19.15	20.78	18.11	0.19	0.43	0.43	0.23	0.43	0.19	0.00	-									
20 T. monae P. Rico 6	20.28	17.98	19.01	19.34	16.98	18.13	22.04	17.85	19.73	21.64	17.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.21	0.00	0.00	0.44	0.43	-								
21 T. rogersi	20.37	20.39	21.91	22.87	21.28	22.37	21.37	20.83	24.43	9.23	20.72	20.28	21.51	21.51	21.61	21.51	20.34	20.52	21.07	21.54	-							
22 T. garciai	18.03	19.14	21.11	20.75	21.35	22.02	21.54	20.58	17.47	20.67	18.91	20.14	20.00	20.00	20.37	20.00	19.76	19.77	19.74	19.25	22.66	-						
23 T. kakuki	16.89	16.99	19.29	20.06	19.41	21.17	21.92	20.04	17.92	18.22	17.50	19.21	19.42	19.42	19.65	19.42	19.25	19.28	19.30	19.47	21.96	0.42	-					
24 T. consobrina (Veral)	21.49	19.94	21.10	18.95	18.33	19.40	17.87	17.52	19.23	20.73	19.68	19.22	18.76	18.76	19.03	18.76	19.31	19.49	19.75	19.02	20.98	18.18	15.97	-				
25 T. consobr. (Bolondrón)	21.22	18.60	20.62	18.73	17.94	18.54	17.88	16.83	17.44	20.03	18.79	18.21	17.77	17.77	18.21	17.77	18.55	18.73	19.13	18.34	19.86	17.94	15.90	4.70	-			
26 T. taina	19.88	19.63	18.62	17.95	17.45	19.73	17.46	17.38	16.46	21.52	18.53	17.46	18.07	18.07	17.95	18.07	17.83	17.65	17.77	18.89	21.37	18.04	16.36	12.25	11.53	-		
27 T. miravet. (Cabanes)	19.43	20.15	20.39	18.45	18.75	17.49	18.11	16.87	18.55	19.81	10.08	16.00	14.58	14.58	15.16	14.58	16.34	16.44	16.55	15.28	20.23	17.52	15.78	17.49	17.16	17.07	-	
28 T. miravet. (Peñíscola)	18.84	21.69	20.38	19.04	18.03	n/a	18.31	17.69	n/a	20.32	10.41	18.12	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	18.15	18.14	18.86	n/a	20.14	20.25	n/a	18.88	18.15	17.68	3.24	-
29 T. miravet. (Xivert)	19.14	21.79	22.10	20.13	17.00	n/a	18.64	17.95	n/a	20.66	11.31	17.70	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	17.74	17.73	18.38	n/a	20.13	19.38	n/a	19.50	17.70	16.77	3.13	1.20 -

Appendix S1 Percentage of uncorrected pairwise genetic distance among the 29 COI sequences of *Halocaridina*, *Antecaridina*, *Stygiocaris*, and *Typhlatya* species studied here. Both COI fragments were combined to estimate the distances. Bold numbers highlight intra-specific divergences.

Appendix S2. Mean ages for the tree nodes of Figure 4 in Myr plus lower and higher confidence interval values estimated from 95% high posterior densities for three different calibration points and their combined analysis. Calibration 1: 5–14 Ma as the age interval of the MRCA of *Typhlatya galapagensis* from Santa Cruz and Isabela islands in the Galapagos (Werner *et al.*, 1999); calibration 2: age interval of the MRCA of *Stygiocaris lancifera* and *S. stylifera* explained by the emergence of the Cape Range anticline in NW Australia at 7–10 Ma (Page *et al.*, 2008) and calibration 3: 5–6 Ma as the age interval of the MRCA of *Typhlatya consobrina* and *T. taina* using the occlusion of the Havana-Matanzas Channel in Cuba (Iturralde-Vinent *et al.*, 1996). The last three rows show the inferred molecular rates per million years per lineage for different gene partitions (x10⁻²).

	Calib	oration p	oint 1	Calib	pration po	oint 2	Cali	bration p	oint 3	combined				
Tree nodes	mean	lower	upper	mean	lower	upper	mean	lower	upper	mean	lower	upper		
root	52.97	25.28	90.16	36.53	20.52	55.71	32.54	18.09	48.51	45.08	30.56	61.11		
а	50.30	24.23	86.47	34.57	18.37	53.29	30.84	16.38	46.44	42.96	28.17	59.24		
b	42.80	19.66	73.60	30.12	17.90	44.55	26.82	15.96	39.06	35.75	25.75	47.01		
С	19.66	9.20	33.74	13.57	7.22	21.11	12.18	6.53	18.51	16.66	10.93	23.15		
d	37.92	16.50	65.55	26.85	15.35	39.60	23.82	13.70	35.15	31.62	22.01	42.29		
e	36.78	16.93	63.24	25.74	14.96	38.10	23.04	13.87	33.29	30.72	21.88	40.43		
f	6.48	5.00	9.95	3.85	1.66	6.35	3.42	1.51	5.57	5.91	5.00	7.73		
g	10.22	3.74	18.86	8.08	7.00	9.65	6.63	3.46	10.21	8.33	7.00	9.75		
h	9.14	3.66	16.58	6.31	3.02	10.24	5.63	2.71	9.00	7.63	4.18	11.34		
i	31.30	14.28	54.19	22.01	13.21	32.81	19.78	12.05	28.22	25.95	18.64	33.94		
j	25.16	10.77	44.02	17.63	9.86	26.69	15.84	9.23	23.34	20.84	13.97	28.46		
k	24.43	10.93	42.74	17.27	9.87	25.56	15.60	9.71	22.25	20.12	14.24	26.54		
I	4.21	1.45	7.88	2.98	1.38	4.85	2.67	1.30	4.24	3.45	1.88	5.26		
m	7.55	2.52	14.15	5.46	2.72	8.64	5.42	5.00	5.92	5.52	5.05	5.99		
n	17.99	7.57	31.52	12.73	6.92	19.31	11.48	6.68	16.83	14.91	9.70	20.22		
0	5.69	2.15	10.41	4.06	2.02	6.50	3.66	1.85	5.68	4.70	2.70	6.90		
Molecular evolutionary rates														
Mitochondrial protein coding genes														
(COI + Cyt b)	4.52	1.76	7.45	6.18	3.25	9.64	6.97	3.67	11.01	5.00	3.08	7.19		
<i>rrnL</i> (16 rRNA)	0.87	0.34	1.45	1.19	0.63	1.83	1.31	0.73	1.99	0.96	0.63	1.33		
Nuclear genes combined	0.15	0.07	0.24	0.21	0.12	0.31	0.24	0.14	0.35	0.17	0.12	0.22		