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FINAL REPORT

GENETIC DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN THE TWO AUSTRALIAN FEEDING AGGREGATIONS OF BLUE WHALES

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**DR LUCIANA MÖLLER
MS CATHERINE ATTARD
DR LUCIANO BEHEREGARAY**



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PROJECT TITLE

Novel Genetic Markers for Stock Identification of Blue Whales and Differentiation Between the Two Main Australian Feeding Aggregations.

SUMMARY

This report includes information about a manuscript on the genetic differentiation of the two main Australian feeding aggregations, development of the new microsatellite library and additional sample collection attempted at the Bonney Upwelling Region.

Manuscript Preparation A manuscript entitled Genetic structure of blue whales (*Balaenoptera musculus*) in Australian feeding aggregations (by Catherine Attard, Luciano B. Beheregaray, Curt Jenner, Peter Gill, Naohisa Kanda, Micheline Jenner, Margaret Morrice, John Bannister, Rick LeDuc, Luciana Möller) has been submitted to publication as a short communication in the Journal *Conservation Genetics*. The main findings from this study, which were based on six nuclear microsatellite loci and the mitochondrial DNA control region gene, revealed high gene flow between the two blue whale feeding aggregations at the Bonney Upwelling Region (southern Australia) and Perth Canyon (WA), strongly indicating they constitute one genetic population. This was especially evident when Australian samples were compared to Antarctic samples, suggesting low gene flow between Australian blue whales and the Antarctic subspecies of blue whales (*B. m. intermedia*). Please refer to manuscript submitted (below) for detailed information on findings from this study.

Microsatellite library development We have developed another microsatellite library using the enrichment protocol (Fischer, Bachmann, 1998) modified as in Saltonstall (2003), using the pCR 2.1-TOPO vector (Invitrogen). Please see Progress Report (February 2008) for detailed information on this method. We have sequenced so far

92 microsatellite enriched fragments and 18 unique sequences have been found. For unique sequences that contain microsatellite loci with sufficient flanking regions, primers will be designed using PRIMER3 (Rozen, Skaletsky, 1997). The development of this marker system will allow identification of blue whale stocks and, potentially, differentiation of blue whale subspecies.

Sample collection at Bonney Upwelling Sampling of additional blue whale samples was attempted at the Bonney Upwelling Region, around Portland (VIC) between 24/03 and 30/03 with Dr Peter Gill from the Blue Whale Study. Severe weather conditions precluded boat surveys to be carried out in all but one day. On 28/03 with marginal conditions (10-12kt NW wind, 3-4m swell) a survey was conducted between 08:00 and 13:00. The survey was curtailed due to a gale warning. During the survey two blue whales were sighted (one photo-identified by P. Gill, Blue Whale Study, fig.1). However, due to the weather conditions and whales' evasive behaviour, it was not possible to approach whales at close range for successful biopsying. Only one biopsy attempt was made but the dart dropped short. Figure 2 shows the survey track and positioning of whale sighting (provided by P. Gill, Blue Whale Study).

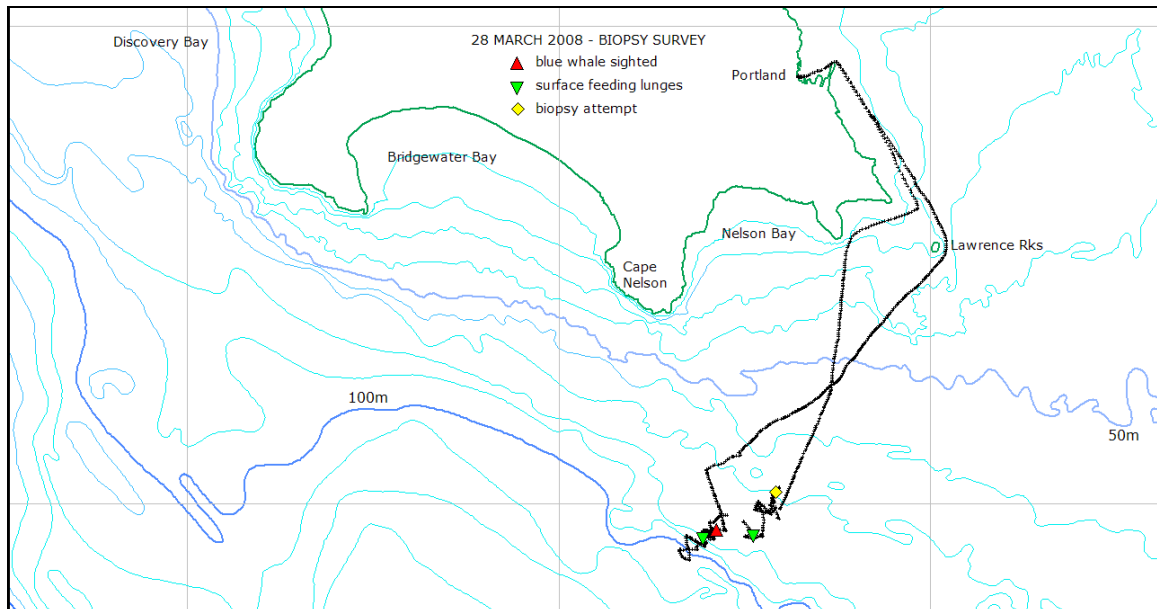
Figure #1

Left hand side of blue whale sighted on 28/03/08 in the Bonney Upwelling Region (photo by P. Gill, Blue Whale Study).



Figure #2

Survey track on 28/03/08 in the Bonney Upwelling Region, showing position of blue whale sighting and sampling attempt (provided by P. Gill, Blue Whale Study).



Genetic structure of blue whales (*Balaenoptera musculus*) in Australian feeding aggregations

Catherine Attard, Luciano B. Beheregaray, Curt Jenner, Peter Gill, Naohisa Kanda, Micheline Jenner, Margaret Morrice, John Bannister, Rick LeDuc, Luciana Möller*.

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Catherine Attard, Luciano Beheregaray

Department of Biological Sciences, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia

Curt Jenner, Micheline Jenner

Centre for Whale Research, P.O. Box 1622, Fremantle, WA 6959, Australia

Peter Gill, Margaret Morrice

Blue Whale Study, c/- Post Office, Narrawong, VIC 3285, Australia

John Bannister

The Western Australian Museum, Locked Bag 49, Welshpool DC, WA 6986, Australia

Naohisa Kanda

The Institute of Cetacean Research, 4-5 Toyomi-cho, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104-0055, Japan

Margaret Morrice

School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Deakin University, PO Box 423, Warrnambool, VIC, 3280

John Bannister

The Western Australian Museum, Locked Bag 49, Welshpool DC, WA 6986, Australia

Rick LeDuc

Southwest Fisheries Science Center, 8604 La Jolla Shores Drive, La Jolla, CA 92037-1508, USA

Luciana Möller

Graduate School of the Environment, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia

*Corresponding author, Luciana Möller, Graduate School of the Environment, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia. Phone: 61 (2) 9850 7998 Fax: 61 (2) 9850 7972

E-mail: luciana.moller@gse.mq.edu.au

Abstract

The worldwide distribution of blue whales (*Balaenoptera musculus*) has not prevented this iconic species from endangerment due to past whaling practices. In Australia there are two known feeding aggregations of blue whales, most likely to be of the pygmy blue whale subspecies (*B. m. brevicauda*). It is unknown whether individuals from these feeding aggregations migrate to different locations to breed. Six microsatellite loci and mitochondrial DNA control region markers were utilised to investigate the genetic structure of the Australian feeding aggregations. Both sets of markers revealed high gene flow between the two aggregations, strongly indicating they constitute one genetic population. This is especially evident when compared to low gene flow detected between Australian blue whales and the Antarctic subspecies of blue whales (*B. m. intermedia*). Our study provides key indicators to be incorporated into models for measuring recovery and status of blue whale populations in Australian waters.

Introduction

Whaling has reduced the abundance of the largest extant animal, the blue whale (*Balaenoptera musculus*), to a small fraction of their original numbers (Clapham et al. 1999; Branch et al. 2007). There are currently two recognised subspecies in the Southern Hemisphere: the ‘pygmy’ blue whale (*B. m. brevicauda*) and the Antarctic ‘true’ blue whale (*B. m. intermedia*). During the feeding season the former is found north of 54°S (Ichihara 1966) and the latter in higher latitudes (Rice 1998). Most whaling effort was applied to the Antarctic subspecies. High prey concentrations, such as densities that occur in upwelling regions, can induce the solitary blue whales to aggregate in certain areas (Branch et al. 2007). Australia has two known feeding aggregations of presumably pygmy blue whales. These are supported by upwelling systems: the Bonney Upwelling and adjacent waters in South Australia and Victoria (Gill 2002; Middleton and Bye 2007) and the Perth Canyon in Western Australia (McCauley et al. 2000; McCauley et al. 2004; Rennie et al. 2006). Soviet whaling records from the mid-1960s showed an almost continuous distribution of pygmy blue whales from Tasmania west to Madagascar (Mikhalev 2000).

The classic hypothesis for baleen whale migration (Kellogg 1929) suggests that Australian blue whales migrate between temperate Australian feeding grounds during warmer months to lower latitude breeding grounds during colder months. Blue whale monthly distribution, as determined using catch, sighting, stranding and acoustic records, suggests that individuals from Australia may migrate along the coast of Western Australia to Indonesia where they potentially breed (Branch et al. 2007). Blue whales have also been sighted off the Solomon Islands in winter (Ohsumi and Shigemune 1993), suggesting that they may also migrate up Australia’s east coast to

breed. However, migratory connections to breeding grounds for these two feeding aggregations have not yet been confirmed.

Pygmy blue whales have a potential characteristic vocalisation consisting of three call components (McCauley et al. 2000), however call types vary across pygmy blue whale distribution (McDonald et al. 2006). The same call type has been recorded from the Bonney Upwelling (R. D. McCauley personal communication) and the Perth Canyon (McCauley et al. 2000). Nonetheless, when 25 photo-identified individuals from the Bonney Upwelling were matched with 208 individuals from the Perth Canyon, only one resight was found (C. Jenner, M. Morrice and P. Gill, unpublished data).

Genetic studies of blue whales using microsatellite, mtDNA control region and intron markers between ocean basins have shown marked genetic differentiation (Conway 2005; LeDuc et al. 2007). These studies, however, were limited in their ability to perform analysis within ocean basins due to small sample sizes. The objectives of the current study were to assess the genetic structure and levels of gene flow between two known Australian blue whale feeding aggregations using microsatellite and mtDNA control region markers. We also compare results with DNA data obtained from samples of Antarctic blue whales. This study aids in conservation and management by carrying out an objective of the Australian Recovery Plan for Blue Whales (Department of the Environment and Heritage 2005), to provide indicators of population structure to be incorporated into models for measuring recovery and status of blue whale populations utilising Australian waters.

Methods

Sample collection

Samples were collected from the Bonney Upwelling ($N = 22$), the Perth Canyon ($N = 78$) and Antarctica ($N = 16$) (Fig. 1). The Antarctic samples, presumably from the Antarctic subspecies (*B. m. intermedia*), were utilised for comparative purposes.

Australian samples were obtained from the Centre for Whale Research (Perth Canyon) and the Blue Whale Study (Bonney Upwelling), and Antarctic samples from the Institute of Cetacean Research in Japan. Samples were procured as strandings, biopsies, sloughed skin, extracted DNA or genome amplified DNA. Sampling performed in collaboration with the Blue Whale Study in the Bonney Upwelling used a Paxarms biopsy system (Timaru, New Zealand), a pole similar to that described by Bilgmann et al. (2007), or sloughed skin removed from the suction cup of dive logger tags. Tissue samples were preserved in 20% DMSO saturated with NaCl as suggested by Amos and Hoelzel (1991) or 100% ethanol.

Genetic methods

NOAA Southwest Fisheries Science Center (USA) provided genetic information for some of the Australian samples; 64 mtDNA control region haplotypes, and additionally for 29 of these samples, the multilocus microsatellite genotypes at four of the six loci analysed. DNA was extracted from tissue using a modified salting-out protocol (Sunnucks and Hales 1996). The microsatellite loci analysed were GATA028, GATA098, GATA417 (Palsboll et al. 1997) and GT023 (Berube et al. 2000) from humpback whales, and BM032 and BM261 developed specifically for blue whales (Attard et al. unpublished data). Microsatellite fluorescent-labelled PCR products were produced based on Schuelke (2000). Amplifications were performed in a 10 μ l reaction containing ~50-100 ng template DNA, 2 pmol fluorescent-labelled

M13(-21) primer, 0.4 pmol forward primer and 2 pmol reverse primer, 200 μ M each dNTP, 2 mM MgCl₂ with the exception of 2.5 mM MgCl₂ for GATA098, 0.05 μ L 10% BSA, 0.5 U GoTaq Flexi DNA polymerase and its reaction buffer (Promega). The temperature profile was a touchdown PCR; 94°C for 3 min, then 35 cycles of 94°C for 20 s, 63°C for 45 s reducing by 2°C every cycle till stabilising at 53°C for 30 cycles, and 72°C for 1 min, then a final extension of 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were run on the ABI 3130xl (Applied Biosystems) and scored using GENEMAPPER 4.0 (Applied Biosystems).

Sequence data for a 394 bp fragment of mtDNA control region was obtained using the temperature profile described in Möller and Beheregaray (2001) with the primers Dlp-1.5 (Baker et al. 1998) and Dlp-5 (Baker et al. 1993). The mtDNA control region was amplified in a 30 μ L reaction containing ~50-100 ng of template DNA, 48 pmol each primer, 160 μ M each dNTP, 2.25 mM MgCl₂, 1.5 U *Taq* DNA polymerase and associated reaction buffer (Quiagen). PCR products were purified using an UltraClean 15 DNA Purification Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories), sequenced using an ABI 377 automated DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems), and cleaned and aligned using the program SEQUENCHER 3.0 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI). Sequences of novel blue whale mtDNA haplotypes were deposited in GenBank.

Microsatellite data analysis

Duplicate samples were tested by identifying unique microsatellite multilocus genotypes using the program EXCEL MICROSATELLITE TOOLKIT 3.1 (Park 2001), and confirmed when duplicates had the same mtDNA haplotype. The second entry of duplicate samples was removed from the data set. Genotyping or scoring

errors, caused by null alleles, stuttering and short allele dominance, were checked for each putative population using MICRO-CHECKER 2.2.3 (van Oosterhout et al. 2004).

Intra-population genetic variation was estimated by calculating the number of alleles, observed heterozygosity (H_o) and expected heterozygosity (H_E) for each locus using the EXCEL MICROSATELLITE TOOLKIT 3.1 (Park 2001). Allelic richness was determined using FSTAT 2.9.3.2 (Goudet 1995). Deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and linkage disequilibrium were tested using GENEPOP 3.4 (Raymond and Rousset 1995). Significance values for multiple, simultaneous comparisons on the same data were adjusted by Bonferroni correction (Rice 1989).

Genetic differentiation was tested with the fixation indices F_{ST} (Weir and Cockerham 1984) and R_{ST} (Slatkin 1995) using the program ARLEQUIN 3.11 (Excoffier *et al.* 2005) (significance assessed by 10000 permutations). A Bayesian analysis to test for population structure was performed using STRUCTURE 2.2 (Pritchard *et al.* 2000) (burn-in 100000 iterations then runs of 10^6 , K inferred from five independent runs of K = 1-3). Analyses were performed with the admixture model of ancestry and correlated allele frequency model, and without prior sampling location information. An exclusion test (Cornuet *et al.* 1999) was performed in GENECLASS 2.0 (Piry *et al.* 2004). This tests whether an individual can be excluded from each sampled population, and unlike STRUCTURE does not assume all source populations have been sampled. The Bayesian criteria of Rannala and Mountain (1997) and the Monte-Carlo resampling method of Paetkau *et al.* (2004), with 10000 simulated multilocus genotypes and the 'leave one out' procedure (Efron 1983), was used.

Mitochondrial DNA Data Analysis

Intra-population genetic variation was determined by calculating haplotype diversity (h) (Nei 1987) and nucleotide diversity (π) (Tajima 1983), and genetic differentiation using the fixation indices F_{ST} (Weir and Cockerham 1984) and Φ_{ST} (Excoffier *et al.* 1992) (significance assessed by 1000 permutations). The above tests were carried out with ARLEQUIN using a Kimura 2-parameter (Kimura 1980) genetic distance model and a gamma distribution of 0.5 where relevant. Genealogical relationships were determined by assembling a haplotype network using a parsimony method (Templeton *et al.* 1992) implemented in the program TCS 1.21 (Clement *et al.* 2000) with a 95% confidence level.

Results

Seven duplicate samples were identified in our sample of 87 blue whales. Five of the duplicate samples were recaptures within the same season and there were no resightings between feeding aggregations. No evidence for null alleles, stutter bands or short allele dominance was found in the microsatellite data set. No significant deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium or evidence of linkage disequilibrium were detected at any locus and putative population. Due to the array of tissue qualities, data were not able to be obtained for 29 samples at any microsatellite loci and 11 samples for the mtDNA control region.

Genetic Variation

Microsatellite variation was greater for Antarctica when compared with the Bonney Upwelling and the Perth Canyon. The mtDNA 394 bp fragment had 26 variable sites defining 26 unique haplotypes among 105 blue whales. Haplotypic and nucleotide diversity was relatively high in Antarctica compared to the Australian feeding aggregations (Table 1a).

Genetic Differentiation

Microsatellite based F_{ST} results showed no genetic differentiation between the Australian feeding aggregations but highly significant ($P < 0.001$) differentiation between each Australian feeding aggregation and Antarctica. R_{ST} revealed no significant differentiation between Australian feeding aggregations, significant ($P < 0.05$) differentiation between the Bonney Upwelling and Antarctica, and marginally non-significant ($P = 0.059$) differentiation between the Perth Canyon and Antarctica (Table 1b).

STRUCTURE estimated two genetic clusters (Fig. 2a); one encompassing Antarctica, and a second cluster encompassing the two Australian feeding aggregations. An analysis excluding the Antarctic samples did not provide evidence for subdivision in Australia. Therefore, for the GENECLASS exclusion test, Australian feeding aggregations were combined into one population. GENECLASS excluded ($P < 0.05$) all except one Antarctic individual (#13186) from the Australian population. In the Australian population, 14 out of the 55 individuals were excluded from the Antarctic population. No individuals were excluded from their sample population.

Mitochondrial fixation indices showed no significant differentiation between the two Australian feeding aggregations, but highly significant ($P < 0.001$) differentiation between each of the two Australian feeding aggregations and Antarctica (Table 1b). The haplotype network revealed that all the Bonney Upwelling haplotypes were also found in the Perth Canyon, however there were no haplotypes shared between Australian feeding aggregations and Antarctica (Fig. 2b).

Discussion

Blue whales in the Southern Hemisphere have shown surprising resilience at a genetic level to severe whaling practices in the 20th century, as evidenced by the relatively high levels of variability revealed in this study. We detected high gene flow between the two Australian feeding aggregations, to the extent that they may be classified as one genetic population. This means it is more likely that Australian blue whales are able to maintain their genetic diversity over time than if individuals from the feeding aggregations were from two separate populations. Our analysis emphasised the high gene flow between the two Australian feeding aggregations particularly when compared to the negligible and low gene flow between the two recognised Southern Hemisphere subspecies at mtDNA and microsatellite loci, respectively.

The maintenance of genetic variation despite severe whaling has also been observed in other baleen whales. For instance, whaling of humpback whales may have reduced their abundance to less than 10% of original numbers (Clapham et al. 1999), however they have maintained regional levels of genetic variation at mtDNA (Baker et al. 1993) and microsatellite (Valsecchi et al. 1997) loci similar to those found in this study of blue whales. Gray whales in the eastern North Pacific have mtDNA diversity levels comparable to those of the Antarctic blue whales (Steeves et al. 2001; LeDuc et al. 2002) despite whaling reducing their historical abundance to a few hundred individuals (Clapham et al. 1999). Western North Pacific sei whales also showed levels of genetic variation at microsatellite loci comparable to the Australian blue whales and no evidence of a genetic bottleneck (Kanda et al. 2006). LeDuc et al. (2007) previously revealed the high genetic variation of Antarctic blue whales compared to other Southern Hemisphere populations, despite that most whaling effort was applied to the Antarctic subspecies. This has also been observed in humpback

whales at microsatellite loci when comparing Antarctica and other worldwide populations (Valsecchi et al. 1997). These findings may be due to large historic population sizes or metapopulation structure.

The low sociality of blue whales and other baleen whales (Hoelzel 1994) may be a factor involved in the maintenance of mtDNA diversity compared to matrilineal whales and dolphins. Matrilineal taxa may have mtDNA selected based on cultural traits that are passed on to offspring in the natal group (Milius 1998; Whitehead 1998). Baker et al. (1993) suggests reasons for maintenance of mtDNA diversity in humpback whales; a long life-span, overlapping generations, and protection of the species. However, Nabholz et al. (2008) found that life history traits in mammals have little, if any, effect on mtDNA diversity. Instead, taxonomy accounts for a large amount of variation in diversity between species, potentially due to differences in mutation rates between taxonomic groups.

Based on previous circumstantial evidence regarding the structure of Australian blue whales (McCauley et al. 2000; Branch et al. 2007; C. Jenner, M. Morrice and P. Gill, unpublished data), it was perhaps likely that the two feeding aggregations composed a single genetic population. However, despite the relatively close proximity of the two Australian feeding aggregations and high mobility of many marine mammal species, other studies have shown remarkable differentiation between geographically close populations. Examples include southern right whales in Australia and New Zealand (Baker et al. 1999; Patenaude et al. 2007), beluga whales at different summer grounds in Alaska (O'Corry-Crowe et al. 1997) and long-finned pilot whales in four geographic areas of the North Atlantic (Fullard et al. 2000).

Humpback whales, a baleen whale extensively studied in Australia, show segregation in breeding and feeding grounds that was not observed in this study of blue whales. Humpback whales feed during warmer months in IWC Management Area IV and Area V as defined by Donovan (1991), then travel along migratory corridors in western Australia and eastern Australia respectively, to breed as far north as in the Kimberley in Western Australia and New Caledonia when migrating along the Australian east coast (Bannister 2005). Genetic studies have shown differentiation between western and eastern Australia (Baker et al. 1994; Baker et al. 1998), and Area IV and Area V (Loo et al. 2007). However, it is unknown whether humpback whales in South Australia migrate from Area IV or Area V (Kemper 2005).

Blue whales have also been observed by Burton et al. (2007) at Geographe Bay in Western Australia between September and January. This differs from the Bonney Upwelling and the Perth Canyon where blue whales are observed from November to May (Butler et al. 2002; Curt et al. 2002; Gill and Morrice 2003; McCauley et al. 2004). The role of Geographe Bay to the blue whales is uncertain, however Burton et al. (2007) has observed a blue whale excrete fecal matter in the bay, which is indicative of feeding, and blue whales travelling south and then west along the coast's contour.

A low recapture rate was observed between the Bonney Upwelling and the Perth Canyon using photo-ID (C. Jenner, M. Morrice and P. Gill, unpublished data) and, in the current study, there were no genetic recaptures between feeding aggregations. Burton et al. (2007) has also utilised photo-ID when studying blue whales at Geographe Bay in Western Australia. Even though Geographe Bay is approximately 200 km south of the Perth Canyon, only four resightings between the Perth Canyon

and Geographe Bay and three within Geographe Bay have been made from 473 animals photo-identified. No resightings were made within the same season. Burton et al. (2007) explained two potential reasons for a low resighting rate; a large population, or a low proportion of individuals travelling to both areas. The difference in when blue whales are observed in Perth Canyon and Geographe Bay must also be considered. The same two possible reasons apply to the low resights found between the two known Australian feeding aggregations. However, in this study it may also be accountable to the comparatively low level of current individual identification effort in the Bonney Upwelling.

Further research is required to elucidate the genetic identity of animals observed in Geographe Bay and to determine the importance of the bay to blue whales. Genetic and tagging studies also should be carried out to determine whether the Australian blue whales migrate to Indonesia, the Solomon Islands or elsewhere for breeding, and whether there is genetic continuity between blue whales found off Australia, Madagascar and New Zealand. Defining genetic stocks will be extremely important to future management and conservation efforts of blue whales.

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Figure Legends and Table Captions

Figure #3 Sample locations of blue whales showing the (a) Southern Hemisphere, including IWC management areas, and (b) a close-up of Australia. Sample locations include potential duplicate samples. Due to unknown GPS location, six samples from the Bonney Upwelling and three samples from the Perth Canyon are not shown.

Figure #4 (a) Clustering results of STRUCTURE analysis with no prior population information estimated two genetic clusters ($K = 2$). The length occupied by each colour in a column is proportional to that individual's membership probability to the associated cluster. (b) Minimum spanning network of 26 unique mtDNA control region haplotypes. The size of each circle reflects the frequency that the haplotype was observed. The proportion coloured within each circle reflects the frequency that the haplotype was observed in the associated putative population. Each line represents one unique mutational event. Each black oval represents haplotypes that were not sampled or are extinct.

Table #1 (a) Summary of genetic variability in blue whales based on six microsatellite loci and mtDNA control region sequences and (b) pairwise comparisons between three blue whale putative populations in the Southern Hemisphere based on six microsatellite loci.

Microsatellites and mtDNA fixation indices are below and above the diagonals respectively.

R_{ST} and Φ_{ST} estimates are presented in the upper matrix and F_{ST} in the lower matrix.

Significant results are marked with an asterisk.

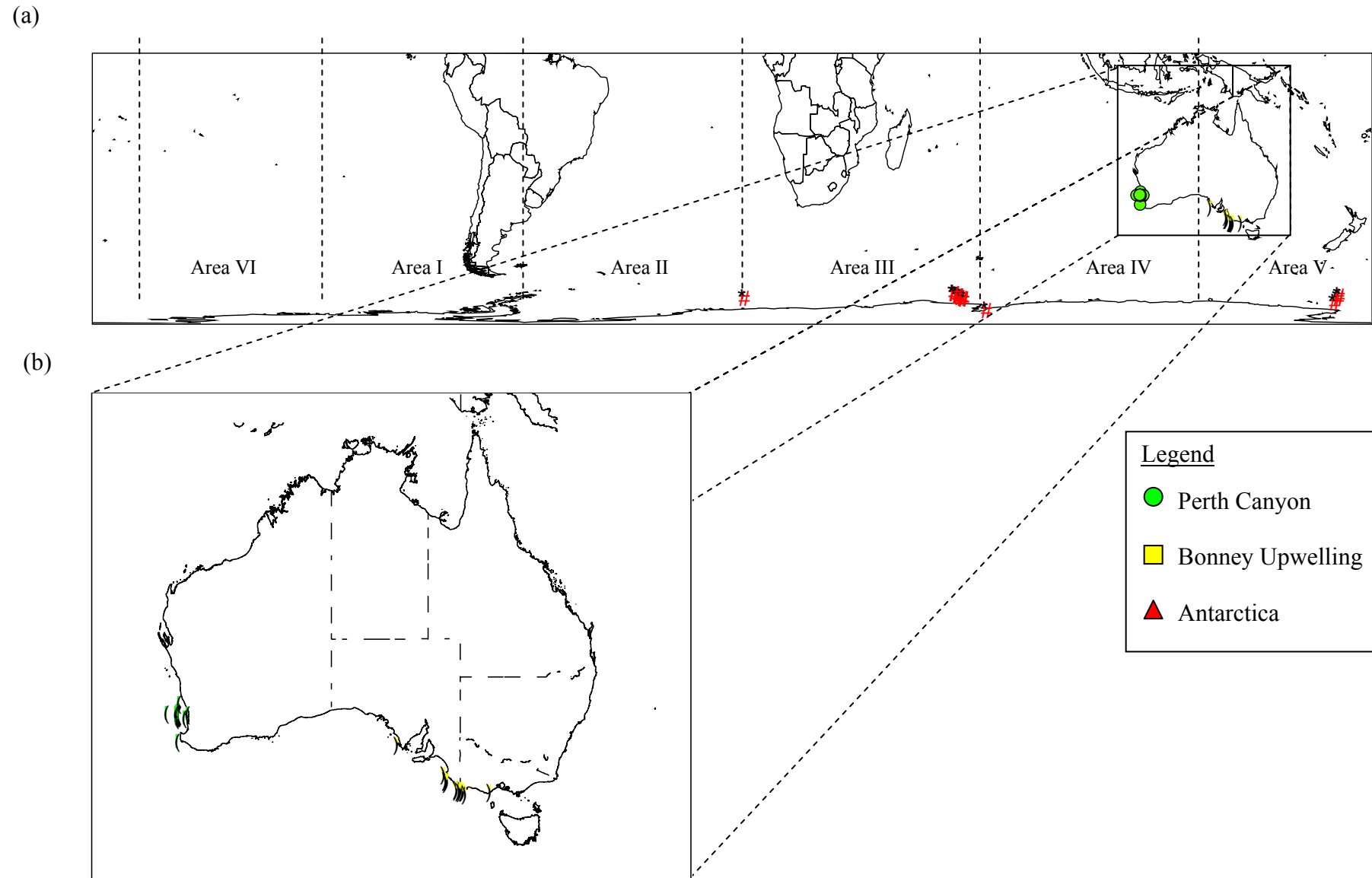
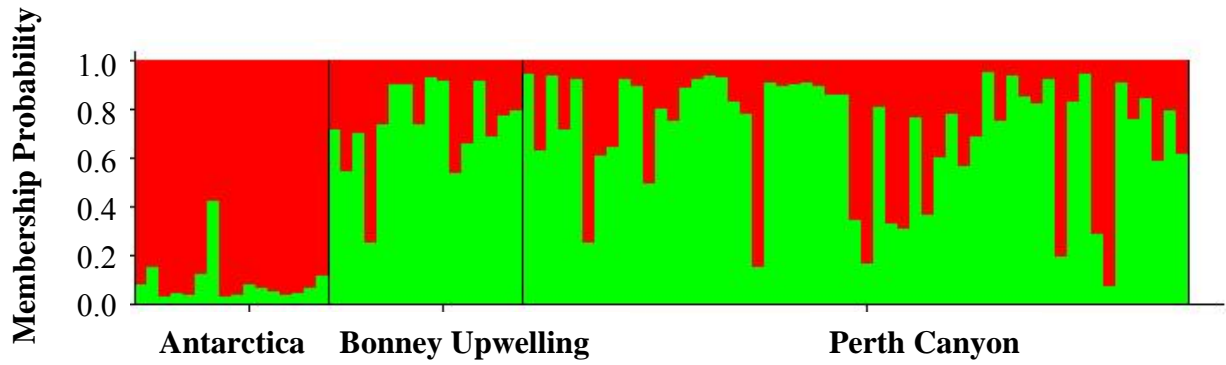


Figure #3

(a)



(b)

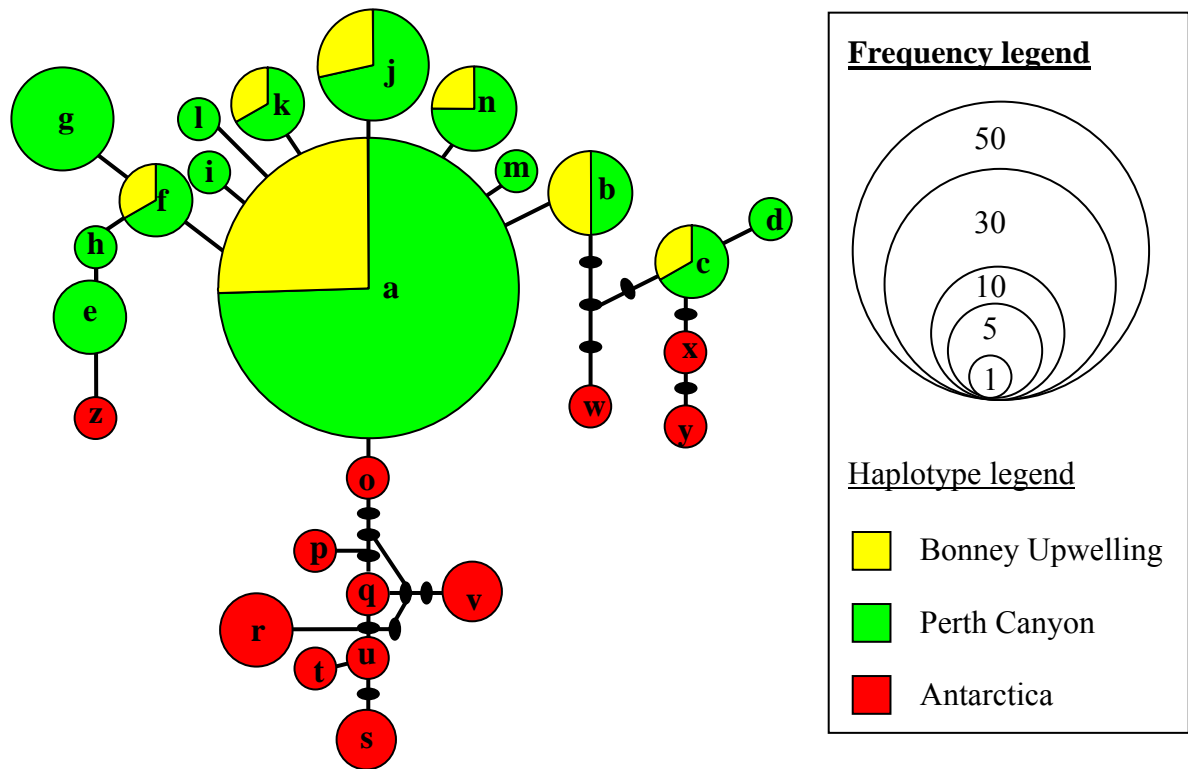


Figure #4

Table #1

(a)

	Microsatellites					mtDNA control region			
	<i>ns</i>	NA	H _O	H _E	AR	<i>ns</i>	NH	<i>h</i>	π
Antarctica	16	6.83 (2.56)	0.723 (0.046)	0.750 (0.073)	6.656	16	12	0.958 (0.036)	0.014 (0.008)
Bonney Upwelling	16	5.17 (2.48)	0.632 (0.050)	0.640 (0.064)	4.958	21	7	0.619 (0.118)	0.002 (0.002)
Perth Canyon	55	6.17 (3.49)	0.661 (0.026)	0.672 (0.052)	4.891	68	14	0.676 (0.062)	0.003 (0.002)

ns = number of samples; NA = mean number of alleles; H_O = mean observed heterozygosity; H_E = mean expected heterozygosity; AR = mean allelic richness; NH = number of haplotypes; *h* = haplotypic diversity; π = nucleotide diversity. Standard deviation shown in parentheses

(b)

	Antarctica	Bonney Upwelling	Perth Canyon
Antarctica		0.051*	0.511***
Bonney Upwelling	0.101***	0.219***	-0.018
Perth Canyon	0.094***	0.208***	-0.016

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$