

PNAS

www.pnas.org

1

2 **Main Manuscript for**

3 Genomics-informed models reveal extensive stretches of coastline
4 under threat by an ecologically dominant invasive species

5 Jamie Hudson^{1,*}, Juan Carlos Castilla², Peter R. Teske³, Luciano B. Beheregaray⁴, Ivan D.
6 Haigh¹, Christopher D. McQuaid⁵, Marc Rius^{1,3}

7 ¹ School of Ocean and Earth Science, University of Southampton, National Oceanography
8 Centre, Southampton, SO14 3ZH, United Kingdom

9 ² Departamento de Ecología and Estación Costera de Investigaciones Marinas, Las Cruces,
10 Facultad de Ciencias Biológicas, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Alameda Libertador B.
11 O'Higgins 340, Santiago, Chile

12 ³ Centre for Ecological Genomics and Wildlife Conservation, Department of Zoology, University of
13 Johannesburg, Auckland Park 2006, South Africa

14 ⁴ Molecular Ecology Lab, Flinders University, Bedford Park, 5042, South Australia, Australia

15 ⁵ Department of Zoology and Entomology, Rhodes University, Grahamstown 6140, South Africa

16

17 * Corresponding author: Jamie Hudson

18 **Email:** J.Hudson@soton.ac.uk

19 **Competing Interest Statement:** The authors declare no competing interests.

20 **Classification:** Biological sciences, Evolution

21 **Keywords:** Ascidiars, climate change, intertidal, invasion biology, population genomics, range
22 expansion, thermal biology.

23 **This PDF file includes:**

24 Main Text
25 Figures 1 to 3

26

27

28 **Abstract**

29 Explaining why some species are widespread whilst others are not is fundamental to
30 biogeography, ecology and evolutionary biology. A unique way to study evolutionary and
31 ecological mechanisms that either limit species' spread or facilitate range expansions is to
32 conduct research on species that have restricted distributions. Non-indigenous species,
33 particularly those that are highly invasive but have not yet spread beyond the introduced site,
34 represent ideal systems to study range size changes. Here, we used species distribution
35 modelling and genomic data to study the restricted range of a highly invasive Australian marine
36 species, the ascidian *Pyura praeputialis*. This species is an aggressive space occupier in its
37 introduced range (Chile), where it has fundamentally altered the coastal community. We found
38 high genomic diversity in both native and introduced populations, indicating high adaptive
39 potential in Chile. In addition, genomic data clearly showed that a single region from Australia
40 was the only donor of genotypes to the introduced range. We identified over 3,500 km of suitable
41 habitat adjacent to its current introduced range that has so far not been occupied, though species
42 distribution models were only accurate when genomic data were considered. Our results suggest
43 that a slight change in currents, or a change in shipping routes, may lead to an expansion of the
44 species' introduced range that will encompass a vast portion of the South American coast. Our
45 study shows how combining species distribution modelling and population genomic data can
46 unravel mechanisms shaping range sizes and forecast future range shifts of invasive species.

47 **Significance Statement**

48 Species with narrow distributions provide unique opportunities for understanding the mechanisms
49 that limit their spread. We studied a marine invader that exhibits ecological dominance within its
50 range, and has the capacity to fundamentally alter the coastal habitat when introduced to new
51 locations via artificial transport. We found evidence of the species' potential to establish itself far
52 beyond its present introduced range from both genomic and species distribution modelling data.
53 Therefore, minor oceanographic changes (due to for example contemporary climate change) or
54 alteration to human-mediated dispersal of species may trigger a large-scale invasion along vast
55 stretches of coastlines leading to alterations of community structure. Our work provides a holistic
56 framework to assess potential changes in the distribution of invasive species.

57

58 **Main Text**

59

60 **Introduction**

61

62 Fundamental to biogeography, ecology and evolutionary biology is understanding why some
63 species are widespread whereas other are not (1). Studies focussing on species ranges often use
64 predictive modelling to infer the potential spatial spread of species (2), with a growing number of
65 studies comparing fundamental niches (i.e., the entire set of conditions that a species can
66 tolerate) and realised niches [the actual set of conditions under which a species is found (3–5)]. In
67 recent times, our understanding of range sizes has advanced considerably thanks to integrative
68 studies (6, 7) that have provided key insights into how local adaptation (8), physiological
69 tolerance (9), and propagule dispersal (10) shape population persistence and spread potential.
70 Despite all this progress, our understanding of how ecological and evolutionary mechanisms
71 shape range sizes and niche occupancy remains limited (11–13).

72

73 Non-indigenous species (NIS) offer unique opportunities to study range sizes, especially when
74 they establish and spread into new geographic areas. Most studies to date have focused on
75 highly invasive species that have already had significant ecological and economic impacts (14,
76 15), and that have spread over large areas of their introduced range (16). In turn, relatively little
77 research has been afforded to invasive species with restricted introduced ranges, or naturalised
78 species [i.e., species that establish self-sustaining populations beyond their native range, but that
79 have not yet expanded from their point of introduction (17–19)]. These species represent unique
80 systems to study mechanisms mediating range sizes (18, 20), such as biotic resistance (e.g. 21,
81 22) and genetic bottlenecks (23). These study systems can thus be key for understanding
82 mechanisms responsible for limiting NIS spread and/or facilitating range expansions (24).

83

84 A rarely used approach to study NIS is the combined use of species distribution models (SDMs)
85 and population genomics (e.g. 25). SDM has become a widely used method to both identify
86 regions of suitable habitat across landscapes (26) and to predict areas at risk of future range
87 shifts (27)(28). In addition, recently developed analytical tools in population genomics offer
88 powerful ways of studying demographic history, fine-scale population structure, adaptive
89 divergence (29) and eco-evolutionary processes associated with NIS' range shifts (30, 31).
90 Therefore the use of both genomic data and SDM therefore has the potential of improving our
91 ability to characterise the mechanisms that shape range sizes. This includes allowing high
92 resolution spatial delineation of population structure (32), identification of landscape elements that
93 drive ecological and evolutionary patterns (33), and substantially improving our ability to predict
94 future range shifts (25, 34).

95

96 Here we used population genomics and SDMs to investigate ecological and evolutionary
97 mechanisms that shape the distribution of a species that has proven to be an aggressive invader,
98 but that has a geographically constrained introduced range. In addition, we evaluated the
99 potential for the spread of this species to adjacent areas. We specifically aimed to: i) understand
100 the nature of recent range size changes through the reconstruction of the species' invasion
101 history, ii) determine the occupancy levels of suitable habitat within and beyond the current native
102 and introduced ranges, and iii) evaluate if our data can explain the current constrained distribution
103 of the study species and predict future spread. We predicted that only a sub-set of the genomic
104 diversity from the native range would be present in the introduced range, potentially indicating the
105 presence of a genetic bottleneck that limits the spread potential of this NIS. Additionally, we
106 predicted that our genomics-informed SDM would reveal suitable habitat along adjacent

107 coastlines of the current introduced range, but that lack of adaptive capacity, as revealed by low
108 genomic diversity in introduced populations, would limit its spread.

109

110

111 **Results**

112

113 ***Processing of raw GBS data***

114 We retained a total of 1,205 putatively unlinked single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), with the
115 final dataset comprising 164 individuals from 13 sampling sites (see *SI Appendix* and Table S1). A
116 total of 49 candidate adaptive loci were identified by bayenv2 and 30 by Redundancy Analysis
117 (RDA) (Fig. S1), with 14 loci shared between the two methods (for a full description of the genotype-
118 environment association (GEA) analyses, see *SI Appendix*). We therefore treated the 65 loci that
119 were retained by either method as candidate adaptive loci (hereby called the “candidate dataset”)
120 and generated a “neutral dataset” using the remaining 1,140 putatively neutral SNPs.

121

122 ***Population structure and reconstruction of invasion routes***

123 ADMIXTURE, discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC), and F_{ST} (Figs. S2, S3, and
124 S4) analyses based on both the neutral and candidate datasets all supported the result of two
125 highly differentiated groups of populations within Australia. The individuals from Antofagasta Bay
126 were recovered in the same cluster as those from the eastern Australian sites (Fig. 1). When south-
127 eastern Australian populations were removed from the DAPC, the populations from Antofagasta
128 Bay and eastern Australia still clustered together (Figs. S3C, S3D). In contrast, there was no fine-
129 scale genomic structure within the introduced range (Figs. S3E, S3F). This was also the case when
130 only candidate loci associated with SST (as inferred from the RDA) were used (Fig. S5). Similarly,
131 Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) analyses showed that Antofagasta Bay was most likely
132 founded by individuals from eastern Australia (Probability $P=1.000$, 95% CI= $1.000, 1.000$; Table
133 S2 and Fig. S6), rather than from south-eastern Australia or from an admixture of the two Australian
134 lineages (Table S2). In addition, these simulations suggested that the effective population size
135 introduced to Chile from eastern Australia was of the order of thousands (Fig. S7).

136

137 ***Species distribution modelling***

138 When models were produced using the appropriate genetic lineage of *P. praeputialis* (i.e.
139 genomics-informed, see Fig. 2), coastlines adjacent to and far beyond the introduced range of
140 Antofagasta Bay were found to be suitable habitat for this species. These models showed a
141 dominating effect of the variable ‘distance to shore’, with ‘maximum sea surface temperature’ being
142 the second most important variable (Table S3). Upon removing the ‘distance to shore’ variable, we
143 observed models where the variables ‘maximum current velocity’ and ‘maximum sea surface
144 temperature’ were the most dominant (Table S4, Fig. S8). For comparison, SDMs produced
145 excluding the introduced range and built using native lineages including one lineage that did not
146 source the introduction (i.e. not genomics-informed, see Fig. 3) did not recover vast stretches of
147 coastline as suitable for *P. praeputialis*.

148

149

150 **Discussion**

151

152 Our study shows how combining SDMs and population genomic approaches can refine both our
153 understanding of mechanisms responsible for range size changes and our predictions of NIS
154 spread potential. By utilising genomics-informed SDMs, we unravelled the spread potential of a
155 regionally constrained introduced marine invasive species. We first found genomic evidence of
156 considerable adaptive potential in the highly restricted introduced range, suggesting great
157 potential for spread. In addition, our analyses revealed large population size in the introduced
158 range, which is in line with historic high levels of artificial transport between the native and
159 introduced ranges. Although only one of two lineages contributed to the successful introduction of
160 this species, no footprint of a genetic bottleneck could be found. With this information, our SDM
161 showed that over 3,500km of coastline along the eastern Pacific is potentially at risk of invasion.

162 The aggressive invasive behaviour shown by this bioengineering NIS within its introduced range
163 suggests that if this species expands its range, it could potentially threaten marine ecosystems
164 along thousands of kilometres of coastline (including the coastline of northern Chile, as well as
165 the entire coastline of Peru and much of the coast of Ecuador).

166
167 Our genomic dataset confirmed the presence of two native lineages of *P. praeputialis* and no
168 evidence of finer-scale cryptic population structure, as previously suggested using a limited
169 number of genetic markers (35, 36). We found that south-eastern Australian populations did not
170 contribute to the invasion of *P. praeputialis* in Chile, confirming a single-lineage introduction to
171 Chile (i.e. the lineage found on the east coast of Australia, Fig. 1C) (35, 37). The south-eastern
172 Australian lineage of *P. praeputialis* also inhabits a region with busy ports (e.g. Melbourne), and
173 one would expect that this region would also have been linked to South America through
174 historical shipping. Species that occur in multiple biogeographic zones are often subdivided into
175 distinct evolutionary lineages that are adapted to regional conditions (38), and movement to other
176 biogeographic zones can disrupt growth, reproduction, development, and survival of the migrants
177 (39, 40). Such effects may have limited the ability of the south-eastern Australian lineage to
178 colonise South America, an interpretation supported by the limited suitability of the Chilean
179 coastline for this lineage inferred by our SDMs (Fig. 3E). The first introduction of *P. praeputialis* to
180 Chile would most likely have occurred during the late 19th century when maritime traffic was not
181 only considerable between Australia and Chile, but when fouling organisms were rarely removed
182 from the wooden hulls of ships (41).

183
184 High standing genomic diversity is expected to be the primary cause of adaptive potential in NIS
185 (42) within both terrestrial (43, 44) and aquatic (45) environments. We found similar levels of
186 genomic diversity across the range of the study species (Table S5), and thus such observed
187 levels of genomic diversity within the introduced range were not consistent with our initial
188 hypothesis of a genetic bottleneck. Instead, these showed evidence of multiple introductions (46).
189 Our results therefore suggest that if the species was to spread beyond Antofagasta Bay, it may
190 have sufficient genomic variation to adapt to the variety of conditions found along the South
191 American coastline.

192
193 Research on local retention of marine organisms has shown that both active and passive
194 mechanisms can promote such retention, including nutrient composition (47), odour cues (48),
195 and hydrodynamic processes (49). Previous research has shown that idiosyncratic characteristics
196 of both Antofagasta Bay and *P. praeputialis* facilitate retention of this ascidian within the bay. For
197 example, an 'upwelling shadow' (sensu 50) is present within Antofagasta Bay, leading to
198 stratification due to a shallow thermocline, cyclonic circulation and high retention of water, with
199 the existence of a persistent warm-water patch (51–53). This patch is generally found within the
200 bay immediately downwind of an upwelling centre, with temperatures on average 2–3°C warmer
201 inside the bay than outside (52, 53). Such phenomena are not limited to Antofagasta Bay, with
202 similar features exhibited in the California current system (e.g. Monterey Bay and the Gulf of the
203 Farallones) where areas of larval retention lead to distinct zooplankton assemblages over
204 distances of just a few kilometres (52). In the particular case of Antofagasta Bay, the geometry of
205 the coastline further aids in trapping surface water within the northern portion of the bay, creating
206 an 'upwelling trap' (52) where the surface waters are retained for several days. This upwelling
207 trap has been proposed as a key retention mechanism for the planktonic larvae of *P. praeputialis*,
208 which remain pelagic for less than three hours (54). In contrast, other gregarious intertidal
209 organisms found within Antofagasta Bay, such as the mussel *Perumytilus purpuratus*, have
210 longer pelagic durations and extensive distributions along the west coast of South America (55).
211 In addition to the short pelagic life-history stage of *P. praeputialis*, gametes and larvae can be
212 retained by bio-foam produced by *P. praeputialis* adults (56), which further limits the dispersal of
213 this species along the coastline outside of Antofagasta Bay (52, 56).

214
215 Improved predictive power of SDMs requires input from both native and introduced ranges (57),
216 but this is not feasible for NIS that are either cryptic, or occupy limited areas in the introduced

217 range and thus remain unsampled. Genetic identification of source populations has previously
218 been used to inform climatic niche shifts (25), and our results showed the need for knowledge on
219 cryptic genetic diversity to accurately predict potential range expansion. The results of SDMs
220 using occurrence data from both the native and introduced ranges of the genomics-informed
221 source lineage indicate that the species has the potential to inhabit a much more extensive area
222 along the south-eastern Pacific than is currently observed (Fig. 2). However, using only
223 occurrence data from the eastern Australian lineage (i.e. excluding the introduced range),
224 Antofagasta Bay was considered unsuitable for *P. praeputialis* (Fig. 3H). Furthermore, when the
225 information on the exact source of the invasion was not considered, but the species' complete
226 native range or only its south-eastern Australian range (i.e. non-source native lineage) were used
227 without occurrence data from the introduced range, the Chilean coast was not identified as
228 suitable habitat (Fig. 3B).

230 Although our SDMs incorporated a wide variety of environmental variables, they did not
231 incorporate other important variables such as microhabitat characteristics and biotic interactions
232 (57). Interestingly, despite the lack of evidence of naturalisation or spread of *P. praeputialis* to
233 sites outside of Antofagasta Bay, work conducted by Castilla *et al.* (58) has shown that juvenile *P.*
234 *praeputialis* can be transplanted outside of Antofagasta, and continue to survive and grow.
235 Additionally, these authors concluded that there is no obvious biotic rationale, such as predator
236 intensification or competitive exclusion, for the lack of expansion from Antofagasta bay (58). This
237 is in contrast to other NIS, which show limited introduced ranges due to predation (21), genetic
238 bottlenecks (23), or population divergence (45). Successful transplantation of species outside of
239 their ranges, overcoming niche constraints, is not rare (59) and shows that dispersal is an
240 important explanatory variable of range limits. Therefore, it may be possible that Allee effects
241 (60), the positive relationship between mean fitness and population density (i.e. mate limitation in
242 broadcast spawners (61)), limit the ability of *P. praeputialis* to colonise naturally outside of
243 Antofagasta Bay. Our genomic data suggested limited structuring within Antofagasta Bay, with
244 sites closest to the mouth of the bay (C2 and C6, Table S1) genetically separated in the DAPC
245 results using loci associated with SST (Fig. S5). The warmest site within Antofagasta (C1) is also
246 the region with the largest individuals and highest biomass, whilst the site furthest to the south of
247 the bay (C6) has the lowest population density (53, 62). This in combination with larval retention
248 mechanisms suggests that, should the abiotic conditions present in Antofagasta Bay (upwelling
249 trap, sub-surface water bringing in water rich in chlorophyll, bay retention mechanisms, etc.)
250 change it has great potential for range expansion and subsequently alter biodiversity along the
251 eastern Pacific coast from Chile to Ecuador.

252
253 Studying failed introductions is inherently difficult as there is often no footprint left of the
254 introduction event (63). It would be unreasonable to assume that *P. praeputialis* exclusively
255 attached itself to ships that travelled between Australia and Antofagasta Bay (for more
256 information see text in *SI Appendix*). Despite this, we found no evidence behind an abiotic
257 rationale limiting the colonisation of additional regions along the eastern Pacific coastline. This
258 suggests that previously failed introductions may have been due to variables not included in our
259 analyses, changes in environmental conditions since the 19th century, or through limited
260 propagule pressure or opportunity (64). The jump between introduction to a limited geographic
261 area and widespread invasiveness has previously been linked to increased residence time (65).
262 Indeed, time since invasion has been reported as the best predictor of range sizes in marine
263 invertebrates (66), presumably enabling species to overcome the characteristic lag period of
264 biological invasions (67). Whilst *P. praeputialis* may be an exception to the lag phase rule of
265 biological invasions, as there has not been expansion along the coast in more than 100 years, we
266 nonetheless urge caution against complacency when monitoring NIS with restricted distributions.
267 Recreational boating with poorly maintained hulls or sea-chests could spread adult individuals
268 around, providing an opportunity for *P. praeputialis* to escape the unique oceanographic
269 conditions of Antofagasta Bay.

270

271 In summary, we showed how the study of species with restricted introduced ranges provides key
272 insights into the mechanisms shaping range sizes. We found that the highly invasive *P.*
273 *praeputialis* has great potential for spread beyond its point of introduction and thus threatens
274 coastal biodiversity along a large stretch of South American coastline. Thus, further monitoring of
275 this and others NIS with restricted introduced ranges is strongly recommended. Finally, future
276 studies should consider both habitat suitability and genomic data to holistically assess the
277 potential for spread of NIS.

278
279

280 **Materials and Methods**

281

282 **Study species and Pacific-wide distribution**

283 *Pyura praeputialis* (Heller, 1887), previously known as *P. stolonifera* or *P. stolonifera praeputialis*
284 (e.g. 68), is a solitary ascidian (Tunicata, Ascidiacea) that forms densely packed sessile
285 aggregates that can monopolise the intertidal and subtidal along extensive stretches of coastline.
286 Along its native Australian habitat, *P. praeputialis* ranges from Cape Otway in Victoria (south-east
287 coast) to southern Queensland (north-east coast) (Fig. 1), with a biogeographic barrier at
288 Wilson's Promontory separating two genetically-differentiated populations of the species (35, 36).
289 *Pyura praeputialis* is also present in South America as a single, isolated population in
290 Antofagasta Bay, northern Chile (Fig. 1) (35, 37). Here, *P. praeputialis* achieves ecological
291 dominance and the highest biomass per unit area ever reported for any intertidal species (69),
292 reducing survival of native species by growing over them (58). It has been proposed that *P.*
293 *praeputialis* was transported to Antofagasta Bay by shipping in the mid-late 19th century (62, 70)
294 during the onset of the nitrate trade between Chile and Australia (71, 72). Accordingly, genetic
295 studies show a close relation between Chilean and eastern Australian populations (35, 37).

296

297 **Field sampling**

298 A total of 190 individuals of *P. praeputialis* were collected along the coastline of Antofagasta Bay
299 and from several locations throughout the species' Australian range (Fig. 1, Table S1). Details on
300 tissue dissection are found in *SI Appendix*.

301

302 Genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) libraries were prepared at the University of Wisconsin
303 Biotechnology Centre following Elshire *et al.* (73) using the *ApeKI* restriction enzyme. The GBS
304 libraries were subsequently sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq6000 sequencer. The GBS reads
305 were assembled using ipyrad v. 0.7.30 (74) with parameters recommended for paired-end GBS
306 data (<http://ipyrad.readthedocs.io/>). As no published genome of any species for the family
307 Pyuridae is available, we used *de novo* assembly methods, as described in the *SI Appendix*.

308

309 These data were used to create two single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) datasets. First, a
310 dataset of candidate loci under environmental selection was generated using two GEA analyses,
311 bayenv2 (75) and RDA (76). The GEA methods were used to identify putative adaptive SNPs
312 based on hypothesised associations between genotype and thirteen environmental variables
313 related to temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen, and pH. These environmental variables were
314 chosen as they have been shown to influence distributions of ascidians (77, 78). Details on the
315 parameters used for the analyses are in *SI Appendix*. Secondly, a dataset of putatively neutral
316 loci was generated using loci not recovered by either GEA analysis.

317

318 **Comparative population genomics**

319 For each sampling site, population genomic statistics for the neutral dataset were calculated
320 using the R package "diveRsity" v.1.9.0 (79). These included observed heterozygosity
321 (H_o), expected heterozygosity (H_e) and inbreeding coefficient (F_{IS}) (80). Significance in F_{IS} values
322 were inferred using bootstrapping over 10,000 permutations using the neutral dataset.

323

324 Population structure was assessed using two methods that assign individuals to pre-defined
325 clusters (ADMIXTURE and DAPC), and by estimating F_{ST} for pairs of sites using both the neutral

326 and candidate datasets. ADMIXTURE v.1.3 (81) was used to estimate the likelihood that an
327 individual comes from one of a pre-defined number of putative sample populations (K), and a
328 DAPC (82) was performed using the R package “adegenet” v.2.1.1. We ran the DAPC with a
329 *priori* knowledge of individual populations. Pairwise population genetic differentiation was
330 examined by calculating F_{ST} values following Weir & Cockerham (80) in the R package “hierfstat”
331 v.0.04-30 (83), with significance assessed by running 10,000 permutations after correcting for
332 multiple comparisons using Benjamini-Yekutieli false discovery rate correction (84).

333
334 In order to reconstruct the invasion history of *P. praeputialis*, ABC analyses were conducted using
335 DIYABC v.2.1.0 (85). Two sets of scenarios were tested. The aim of the first was to infer the
336 colonisation history of *P. praeputialis* from Australia to South America, and the second was used
337 to estimate the effective population size of individuals that founded the population in Antofagasta
338 Bay (see *SI Appendix* for a detailed explanation of these scenarios and other methodological
339 considerations).

340

341 **Species distribution modelling**

342 To determine the extent of suitable habitat for *P. praeputialis* across both sides of the Pacific, we
343 used the maximum entropy method implemented in Maxent v.3.4.1 (86). We gathered spatial
344 records by combining occurrence data from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility
345 (www.gbif.com), the Ocean Biodiversity Information System (www.obis.org), and sample sites
346 from the present study plus three previous studies (35, 36, 87). We extracted 22 ecologically
347 relevant environmental datasets from Bio-ORACLE (88) and MARSPEC (89). To account for
348 redundancy and the effects of collinearity amongst variables, we removed environmental
349 variables that were highly correlated ($|r| > 0.7$) (90), retaining a total of eight variables (Table S6).
350 We produced models using all occurrence data and also models using only the occurrence points
351 relevant to the invasion (i.e. genomics-informed). We used the R package ENMeval to evaluate
352 model predictive ability and avoid overfitting, a frequently overlooked aspect of SDMs (91).
353 Additional details are given in *SI Appendix*.

354

355 **Acknowledgments**

356

357 We thank Mark de Bruyn, Rhiarn Hoban and Katie Dafforn for their help in providing samples of
358 *Pyura praeputialis* muscle tissue from Australia. MR received funds from ASSEMBLE (an EU FP7
359 research infrastructure initiative comprising a network of marine research stations) to visit the
360 Estación Costera de Investigaciones Marinas de Las Cruces and the Pontificia Universidad
361 Católica de Chile. PRT was supported by the University of Johannesburg (FRC/URC grant), and
362 LBB by the Australian Research Council. JCC acknowledges financial support from the Nucleo
363 Milenio en Conservación Marina. JCC sincerely acknowledges long-term financial support (PUC-
364 Escondida Project) from Minera Escondida Ltda, the last 10 years support from the Academic
365 Chair “Arauco-UC”, and the important and constant assistance and advice from Dr Patricio
366 Manríquez. CDM received funding from the South African Research Chairs Initiative of the
367 Department of Science and Technology and the National Research Foundation (Grant number
368 64801). The authors thank the University of Wisconsin Biotechnology Center DNA Sequencing
369 Facility for providing advice on their sequencing facilities and services.

370

371

372 **References**

- 373 1. J. H. Brown, G. C. Stevens, D. M. Kaufman, The Geographic Range: Size, shape,
374 boundaries, and internal structure. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **27**, 597–623 (1996).
- 375 2. A. Hastings, *et al.*, The spatial spread of invasions: new developments in theory and
376 evidence. *Ecol. Lett.* **8**, 91–101 (2005).
- 377 3. G. E. Hutchinson, Concluding Remarks. *Cold Spring Harb. Symp. Quant. Biol.* **22**, 415–427
378 (1957).

- 379 4. L. Gallien, T. Münkemüller, C. H. Albert, I. Boulangeat, W. Thuiller, Predicting potential
380 distributions of invasive species: where to go from here? *Divers. Distrib.* **16**, 331–342
381 (2010).
- 382 5. A. F. A. de Andrade, S. J. E. Velazco, P. De Marco, Niche mismatches can impair our ability
383 to predict potential invasions. *Biol. Invasions* **21**, 3135–3150 (2019).
- 384 6. R. Massatti, L. L. Knowles, Contrasting support for alternative models of genomic variation
385 based on microhabitat preference: species-specific effects of climate change in alpine
386 sedges. *Mol. Ecol.* **25**, 3974–3986 (2016).
- 387 7. E. W. Malone, *et al.*, Which species, how many, and from where: Integrating habitat
388 suitability, population genomics, and abundance estimates into species reintroduction
389 planning. *Glob. Change Biol.* **24**, 3729–3748 (2018).
- 390 8. K. E. Atkins, J. M. J. Travis, Local adaptation and the evolution of species' ranges under
391 climate change. *J. Theor. Biol.* **266**, 449–457 (2010).
- 392 9. P. Calosi, D. T. Bilton, J. I. Spicer, S. C. Votier, A. Atfield, What determines a species'
393 geographical range? Thermal biology and latitudinal range size relationships in European
394 diving beetles (Coleoptera: Dytiscidae). *J. Anim. Ecol.* **79**, 194–204 (2010).
- 395 10. J. P. Sexton, S. B. Hangartner, A. A. Hoffmann, Genetic isolation by environment or distance:
396 which pattern of gene flow is most common? *Evolution* **68**, 1–15 (2014).
- 397 11. R. Tingley, M. Vallinoto, F. Sequeira, M. R. Kearney, Realized niche shift during a global
398 biological invasion. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **111**, 10233–10238 (2014).
- 399 12. N. Battini, N. Fariás, C. B. Giachetti, E. Schwindt, A. Bortolus, Staying ahead of invaders:
400 using species distribution modeling to predict alien species' potential niche shifts. *Mar. Ecol.*
401 *Prog. Ser.* **612**, 127–140 (2019).
- 402 13. L. Sales, L. Culot, M. M. Pires, Climate niche mismatch and the collapse of primate seed
403 dispersal services in the Amazon. *Biol. Conserv.* **247**, 108628 (2020).
- 404 14. N. Bax, A. Williamson, M. Aguero, E. Gonzalez, W. Geeves, Marine invasive alien species: a
405 threat to global biodiversity. *Mar. Policy* **27**, 313–323 (2003).
- 406 15. J. L. Molnar, R. L. Gamboa, C. Revenga, M. D. Spalding, Assessing the global threat of
407 invasive species to marine biodiversity. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* **6**, 485–492 (2008).
- 408 16. E. V. Moran, J. M. Alexander, Evolutionary responses to global change: lessons from
409 invasive species. *Ecol. Lett.* **17**, 637–649 (2014).
- 410 17. D. M. Richardson, *et al.*, Naturalization and invasion of alien plants: concepts and definitions.
411 *Divers. Distrib.* **6**, 93–107 (2000).
- 412 18. M. F. Richardson, C. D. H. Sherman, R. Lee, N. Bott, A. J. Hirst, Multiple dispersal vectors
413 drive range expansion in an invasive marine species. *Mol. Ecol.* **25**, 5001–5014 (2016).
- 414 19. T. M. Blackburn, *et al.*, A proposed unified framework for biological invasions. *Trends Ecol.*
415 *Evol.* **26**, 333–339 (2011).
- 416 20. J. T. Carlton, J. K. Thompson, L. E. Schemel, F. H. Nichols, Remarkable invasion of San
417 Francisco Bay (California, USA) by the Asian clam *Potamocorbula amurensis*. I.
418 Introduction and dispersal. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* **66**, 81–94 (1990).
- 419 21. B. C. Harvey, J. L. White, R. J. Nakamoto, An emergent multiple predator effect may
420 enhance biotic resistance in a stream fish assemblage. *Ecology* **85**, 127–133 (2004).
- 421 22. M. Rius, E. E. Potter, J. D. Aguirre, J. J. Stachowicz, Mechanisms of biotic resistance across
422 complex life cycles. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **83**, 296–305 (2014).
- 423 23. A. P. Kinziger, R. J. Nakamoto, E. C. Anderson, B. C. Harvey, Small founding number and
424 low genetic diversity in an introduced species exhibiting limited invasion success (speckled
425 dace, *Rhinichthys osculus*). *Ecol. Evol.* **1**, 73–84 (2011).
- 426 24. M. Szűcs, *et al.*, Rapid adaptive evolution in novel environments acts as an architect of
427 population range expansion. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **114**, 13501–13506 (2017).
- 428 25. E. E. Sotka, *et al.*, Combining niche shift and population genetic analyses predicts rapid
429 phenotypic evolution during invasion. *Evol. Appl.* **11**, 781–793 (2018).
- 430 26. J. Elith, J. R. Leathwick, Species Distribution Models: Ecological Explanation and Prediction
431 Across Space and Time. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **40**, 677–697 (2009).
- 432 27. V. Srivastava, V. Lafond, V. C. Griess, Species distribution models (SDM): applications,
433 benefits and challenges in invasive species management. *CAB Reviews* **14**, 1–13 (2019).

- 434 28. A. Guisan, B. Petitpierre, O. Broennimann, C. Daehler, C. Kueffer, Unifying niche shift
435 studies: insights from biological invasions. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **29**, 260–269 (2014).
- 436 29. J. A. Grummer, *et al.*, Aquatic landscape genomics and environmental effects on genetic
437 variation. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **34**, 641–654 (2019).
- 438 30. M. Rius, S. Bourne, H. G. Hornsby, M. A. Chapman, Applications of next-generation
439 sequencing to the study of biological invasions. *Curr. Zool.* **61**, 488–504 (2015).
- 440 31. F. Viard, P. David, J. A. Darling, Marine invasions enter the genomic era: three lessons from
441 the past, and the way forward. *Curr. Zool.* **62**, 629–642 (2016).
- 442 32. A. Marcer, B. Méndez-Vigo, C. Alonso-Blanco, F. X. Picó, Tackling intraspecific genetic
443 structure in distribution models better reflects species geographical range. *Ecol Evol* **6**,
444 2084–2097 (2016).
- 445 33. O. Razgour, *et al.*, Scale-dependent effects of landscape variables on gene flow and
446 population structure in bats. *Divers. Distrib.* **20**, 1173–1185 (2014).
- 447 34. D. H. Ikeda, *et al.*, Genetically informed ecological niche models improve climate change
448 predictions. *Glob. Change Biol.* **23**, 164–176 (2017).
- 449 35. P. R. Teske, *et al.*, “Nested” cryptic diversity in a widespread marine ecosystem engineer: a
450 challenge for detecting biological invasions. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **11**, 176 (2011).
- 451 36. M. Rius, P. R. Teske, Cryptic diversity in coastal Australasia: a morphological and
452 mitonuclear genetic analysis of habitat-forming sibling species. *Zool. J. Linn. Soc.* **168**,
453 597–611 (2013).
- 454 37. J. C. Castilla, A. G. Collins, C. P. Myer, R. Guíñez, D. R. Lindberg, Recent introduction of the
455 dominant tunicate, *Pyura praeputialis* (Urochordata, Pyuridae) to Antofagasta, Chile. *Mol.*
456 *Ecol.* **11**, 1579–1584 (2002).
- 457 38. P. R. Teske, *et al.*, Thermal selection as a driver of marine ecological speciation. *Proc. R.*
458 *Soc. B* **286**, 20182023 (2019).
- 459 39. P. R. Teske, *et al.*, Oceanic dispersal barriers, adaptation and larval retention: an
460 interdisciplinary assessment of potential factors maintaining a phylogeographic break
461 between sister lineages of an African prawn. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **8**, 341 (2008).
- 462 40. I. Papadopoulos, P. R. Teske, Larval development reflects biogeography in two formerly
463 synonymised southern African coastal crabs. *Afr. J. Aquat. Sci.* **39**, 347–350 (2014).
- 464 41. J. T. Carlton, “The scale and ecological consequences of biological invasions in the world’s
465 oceans” in *Invasive Species and Biodiversity Management*, O. T. Sandlund, P. J. Schei, Å.
466 Viken, Eds. (Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1999).
- 467 42. C. K. Tepolt, Adaptation in marine invasion: a genetic perspective. *Biol. Invasions* **17**, 887–
468 903 (2015).
- 469 43. S. Lavergne, J. Molofsky, Increased genetic variation and evolutionary potential drive the
470 success of an invasive grass. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **104**, 3883–3888 (2007).
- 471 44. P. J. Prentis, J. R. U. Wilson, E. E. Dormontt, D. M. Richardson, A. J. Lowe, Adaptive
472 evolution in invasive species. *Trends Plant Sci.* **13**, 288–294 (2008).
- 473 45. K. W. Wellband, H. Pettitt-Wade, A. T. Fisk, D. D. Heath, Differential invasion success in
474 aquatic invasive species: the role of within- and among-population genetic diversity. *Biol.*
475 *Invasions* **19**, 2609–2621 (2017).
- 476 46. J. Roman, Diluting the founder effect: cryptic invasions expand a marine invader’s range.
477 *Proc. R. Soc. B* **273**, 2453–2459 (2006).
- 478 47. S. E. Swearer, J. E. Caselle, D. W. Lea, R. R. Warner, Larval retention and recruitment in an
479 island population of a coral-reef fish. *Nature* **402**, 799–802 (1999).
- 480 48. G. Gerlach, J. Atema, M. J. Kingsford, K. P. Black, V. Miller-Sims, Smelling home can
481 prevent dispersal of reef fish larvae. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **104**, 858–863 (2007).
- 482 49. P. R. Teske, J. Sandoval-Castillo, E. van Sebille, J. Waters, L. B. Beheregaray,
483 Oceanography promotes self-recruitment in a planktonic larval disperser. *Scientific Reports*
484 **6**, 34205 (2016).
- 485 50. W. M. Graham, J. L. Largier, Upwelling shadows as nearshore retention sites: the example of
486 northern Monterey Bay. *Cont. Shelf Res.* **17**, 509–532 (1997).

- 487 51. R. Escribano, P. Hidalgo, Spatial distribution of copepods in the north of the Humboldt
488 Current region off Chile during coastal upwelling. *J. Mar. Biol. Assoc. U.K.* **80**, 283–290
489 (2000).
- 490 52. J. C. Castilla, N. A. Lagos, R. Guíñez, J. L. Largier, “Embayments and nearshore retention of
491 plankton: the Antofagasta Bay and other examples” in *The Oceanography and Ecology of*
492 *the Nearshore and Bays in Chile*, J. C. Castilla, J. L. Largier, Eds. (Ediciones Universidad
493 Católica de Chile, Santiago, 2002), pp. 179–203.
- 494 53. A. Piñones, J. C. Castilla, R. Guíñez, J. L. Largier, Nearshore surface temperatures in
495 Antofagasta Bay (Chile) and adjacent upwelling centers. *Cienc. Mar.* **33**, 37–48 (2007).
- 496 54. M. Clarke, V. Ortiz, J. C. Castilla, Does early development of the Chilean tunicate *Pyura*
497 *praeputialis* (Heller, 1878) explain the restricted distribution of the species? *Bull. Mar. Sci.*
498 **65**, 745–754 (1999).
- 499 55. R. Guíñez, J. C. Castilla, A tridimensional self-thinning model for multilayered intertidal
500 mussels. *Am. Nat.* **154**, 341–357 (1999).
- 501 56. J. C. Castilla, *et al.*, Bio-foam enhances larval retention in a free-spawning marine tunicate.
502 *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **104**, 18120–18122 (2007).
- 503 57. H. Verbruggen, *et al.*, Improving transferability of introduced species’ distribution models:
504 new tools to forecast the spread of a highly invasive seaweed. *PLOS ONE* **8**, e68337
505 (2013).
- 506 58. J. C. Castilla, R. Guíñez, A. U. Caro, V. Ortiz, Invasion of a rocky intertidal shore by the
507 tunicate *Pyura praeputialis* in the Bay of Antofagasta, Chile. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*
508 **101**, 8517–8524 (2004).
- 509 59. A. L. Hargreaves, K. E. Samis, C. G. Eckert, Are species’ range limits simply niche limits writ
510 large? A review of transplant experiments beyond the range. *Am. Nat.* **183**, 157–173
511 (2014).
- 512 60. P. A. Stephens, W. J. Sutherland, R. P. Freckleton, What Is the Allee effect? *Oikos* **87**, 185–
513 190 (1999).
- 514 61. J. Gascoigne, L. Berec, S. Gregory, F. Courchamp, Dangerously few liaisons: a review of
515 mate-finding Allee effects. *Popul. Ecol.* **51**, 355–372 (2009).
- 516 62. J. C. Castilla, R. Guíñez, Disjoint geographical distribution of intertidal and nearshore benthic
517 invertebrates in the Southern Hemisphere. *Rev. Chil. Hist. Nat.* **73**, 585–603 (2000).
- 518 63. R. D. Zenni, M. A. Nuñez, The elephant in the room: the role of failed invasions in
519 understanding invasion biology. *Oikos* **122**, 801–815 (2013).
- 520 64. A. V. Suarez, D. A. Holway, P. S. Ward, The role of opportunity in the unintentional
521 introduction of nonnative ants. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **102**, 17032–17035 (2005).
- 522 65. M. L. Phillips, B. R. Murray, M. R. Leishman, R. Ingram, The naturalization to invasion
523 transition: Are there introduction-history correlates of invasiveness in exotic plants of
524 Australia? *Austral Ecol.* **35**, 695–703 (2010).
- 525 66. J. E. Byers, *et al.*, Invasion Expansion: Time since introduction best predicts global ranges of
526 marine invaders. *Sci. Rep.* **5**, 12436 (2015).
- 527 67. J. A. Crooks, M. E. Soulé, Lag times in population explosions of invasive species: causes
528 and implications. *Invasive species and biodiversity management. Based on papers*
529 *presented at the Norway/United Nations (UN) Conference on Alien Species, 2nd Trondheim*
530 *Conference on Biodiversity, Trondheim, Norway, 1-5 July 1996.*, 103–125 (1999).
- 531 68. P. Kott, The Australian Ascidiacea. Part 1, Phlebobranchia and Stolidobranchia. *Mem.*
532 *Queensl. Mus.* **23**, 1–439 (1985).
- 533 69. J. C. Castilla, R. Guíñez, J. L. Alvarado, C. Pacheco, M. Varas, Distribution, population
534 structure, population biomass and morphological characteristics of the tunicate *Pyura*
535 *stolonifera* in the Bay of Antofagasta, Chile. *Mar. Ecol.* **21**, 161–174 (2000).
- 536 70. M. Rius, P. R. Teske, A revision of the *Pyura stolonifera* species complex (Tunicata,
537 Ascidiacea), with a description of a new species from Australia. *Zootaxa* **2754**, 27–40
538 (2011).
- 539 71. V. Maino, *Islas oceánicas chilenas y el desarrollo de las rutas de comunicación en el Pacífico*
540 *suroriental* (Editorial Antártica S. A., 1985).
- 541 72. I. Arce, *Narraciones Históricas de Antofagasta* (Lama Industrial S.A., 1997).

- 542 73. R. J. Elshire, *et al.*, A robust, simple Genotyping-by-Sequencing (GBS) approach for high
543 diversity species. *PLOS ONE* **6**, e19379 (2011).
- 544 74. D. A. R. Eaton, I. Overcast, ipyrad: Interactive assembly and analysis of RADseq datasets.
545 *Bioinformatics* **36**, 2592–2594 (2020).
- 546 75. T. Günther, G. Coop, Robust identification of local adaptation from allele frequencies.
547 *Genetics* **195**, 205–220 (2013).
- 548 76. B. R. Forester, J. R. Lasky, H. H. Wagner, D. L. Urban, Comparing methods for detecting
549 multilocus adaptation with multivariate genotype–environment associations. *Mol. Ecol.* **27**,
550 2215–2233 (2018).
- 551 77. N. Shenkar, B. J. Swalla, Global diversity of Ascidiacea. *PLOS ONE* **6**, e20657 (2011).
- 552 78. D. M. Lins, P. de Marco, A. F. A. Andrade, R. M. Rocha, Predicting global ascidian invasions.
553 *Divers. Distrib.* **24**, 692–704 (2018).
- 554 79. K. Keenan, P. McGinnity, T. F. Cross, W. W. Crozier, P. A. Prodöhl, diveRsity: An R package
555 for the estimation and exploration of population genetics parameters and their associated
556 errors. *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **4**, 782–788 (2013).
- 557 80. B. S. Weir, C. C. Cockerham, Estimating F-statistics for the analysis of population structure.
558 *Evolution* **38**, 1358–1370 (1984).
- 559 81. D. H. Alexander, J. Novembre, K. Lange, Fast model-based estimation of ancestry in
560 unrelated individuals. *Genome Res.* **19**, 1655–1664 (2009).
- 561 82. T. Jombart, S. Devillard, F. Balloux, Discriminant analysis of principal components: a new
562 method for the analysis of genetically structured populations. *BMC Genetics* **11**, 94 (2010).
- 563 83. J. Goudet, hierfstat, a package for R to compute and test hierarchical F-statistics. *Mol. Ecol.*
564 *Notes* **5**, 184–186 (2005).
- 565 84. D. Yekutieli, Y. Benjamini, Resampling-based false discovery rate controlling multiple test
566 procedures for correlated test statistics. *J. Stat. Plan. Inference* **82**, 171–196 (1999).
- 567 85. J.-M. Cornuet, *et al.*, DIYABC v2.0: a software to make approximate Bayesian computation
568 inferences about population history using single nucleotide polymorphism, DNA sequence
569 and microsatellite data. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 1187–1189 (2014).
- 570 86. S. J. Phillips, R. P. Anderson, M. Dudík, R. E. Schapire, M. E. Blair, Opening the black box:
571 an open-source release of Maxent. *Ecography* **40**, 887–893 (2017).
- 572 87. A. R. Davis, M. Becerro, X. Turon, Living on the edge: Early life history phases as
573 determinants of distribution in *Pyura praeputialis* (Heller, 1878), a rocky shore ecosystem
574 engineer. *Mar. Environ. Res.* **142**, 40–47 (2018).
- 575 88. J. Assis, *et al.*, Bio-ORACLE v2.0: Extending marine data layers for bioclimatic modelling.
576 *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr.* **27**, 277–284 (2018).
- 577 89. E. J. Sbrocco, P. H. Barber, MARSPEC: ocean climate layers for marine spatial ecology.
578 *Ecology* **94**, 979–979 (2013).
- 579 90. C. F. Dormann, *et al.*, Collinearity: a review of methods to deal with it and a simulation study
580 evaluating their performance. *Ecography* **36**, 27–46 (2013).
- 581 91. N. S. Morales, I. C. Fernández, V. Baca-González, MaxEnt’s parameter configuration and
582 small samples: are we paying attention to recommendations? A systematic review. *PeerJ* **5**
583 (2017).
- 584

585 **Figures**

586

587 **Fig. 1.** Sample sites along the coast of (A) Australia and (B) within Antofagasta on the Chilean
588 coastline. Barplots in (A) and (B) represent the results of the ADMIXTURE clustering analysis
589 inferred with neutral loci at $K = 2$ (see full details in *SI Appendix*). (C) The most likely scenario, as
590 revealed using Approximate Bayesian Computation (see full details in *SI Appendix*), depicts the
591 invasion route that *P. praeputialis* followed from Australia to Antofagasta Bay.

592

593

594

595 **Fig. 2.** Maps illustrating the results of genomics-informed Maxent modelling. The figures show
596 habitat suitability for *Pyura praeputialis* across: (A) its native range, (B) the coastline adjacent to
597 Antofagasta Bay (inset, Antofagasta Bay indicated with an arrow) and the western coastline of
598 South America. This model includes distance to shore as a variable, explaining the observed
599 narrow regions of suitable habitat. For full list of variables used in model creation see Table S3.
600 The scale bar represents Maxent's logistic output representing habitat suitability, with "yellow"
601 indicating high habitat suitability. Crosses in (A) represent the Australian sample locations of *P.*
602 *praeputialis*. Note that the Maxent's logistic output only considers the genomic-informed relevant
603 sites (i.e. sites from Chile and the eastern coastline of Australia, see details in main text and *SI*
604 *Appendix*).

605

606

607 **Fig. 3.** Maps illustrating habitat suitability for *Pyura praeputialis* when genomic data are not
608 incorporated into the model. The figures show the output of Maxent modelling using occurrence
609 data from: both native lineages (A-C), only the south-eastern Australia lineage (D-F), and only the
610 eastern Australia lineage (G-I). Maps depict: native range (A,D,G); adjacent coastlines of
611 Antofagasta Bay (bay represented by arrow) (B,E,H); and extensive coastlines along the western
612 coast of South America continent (C,F,I). The scale bar represents Maxent's logistic output on
613 habitat suitability (see details in *SI Appendix*).

614