

On the advantage of sharing a holdfast: effects of density and occurrence of kin aggregation in the kelp Lessonia berteroana

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1	Or	n the advantage of sharing a holdfast: effects of density and
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22		
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24	agg	gregation; kin selection; microsatellites

25 Abstract

Here we investigate the density-dependent and genetic relatedness that regulate the occurrence 26 of inter-individual (genet) fusion forming plurigenotypic organisms in the brown alga 27 28 Lessonia berteroana. Recruitment generally occurs at high densities in the intertidal, allowing contact of neighbouring holdfasts as they grow and expand on the substrate. Algal density, on 29 30 the other hand, is regulated by the effects of herbivory and wave impact, which often lead to low holdfast density. Herein, we investigated whether the occurrence of plurigenotypic 31 32 organisms and their genotypic composition (number of genotypes per plurigenotypic 33 organism) are density dependent and affected by kin selection in the intertidal kelp L. berteroana. Four microsatellite loci were used to analyse DNA from 260 samples obtained 34 35 from shared and non-shared holdfasts, at two sites with high and two with low holdfast 36 density. Analyses showed that fusions forming plurigenotypic organisms are extremely 37 common. Interestingly, the frequency of fusions was higher in low-density sites, in which 38 100% of the plants had at least two genotypes while the average was 3.5. In high-density sites, 39 62% of plants where plurigenotypic, with an average of 2.8 genotypes per plant. Additionally, 40 we found that genotypes that shared a holdfast had a significantly higher genetic relatedness 41 than on average in the population, compatible with a kin structure. Density dependence and 42 kin structure suggest that the occurrence of plurigenotypic organisms is linked to 43 environmental quality, and that kin or multilevel selection may be favouring the fusion of 44 genetically related genets.

45 Introduction

Different units of relevance for ecological and evolutionary processes can be delineated, 46 such as the population, the family or group of related individuals, the colony, and the 47 48 individual organism. Because most of these units can actually be nested one into the other (e.g. individuals into colonies or families, colonies into populations; see Nachtomy et al. 49 50 2002), the limits of the individual, as a basic ecological and evolutionary unit, are sometimes difficult to define. In fact, individuals of many species live in groups into which 51 52 they find both protection against environmental stresses (e.g. predation) and closeness to 53 other individuals for reproduction. The case of clumps and colonies is particularly interesting because the functional limits between the *genet*, issued from a single fertilized 54 55 egg, and the individual organism that is made of a mixture of different *genets*, are most 56 often indistinguishable. Such findings have stimulated important debate around the concept and definition of the individual and the organism (e.g. Nachtomy et al. 2002; Santelices 57 58 1999; Pepper & Herron 2008). Clumps have been reported in a wide variety of taxa, some of which are algal species (Santelices et al. 1996, 1999, 2003, Wernberg 2005; González & 59 60 Santelices 2008). In red algae, fusion of individuals results in a chimeric, plurigenotypic organism (PO), with complete loss of individual identity (Santelices et al. 1996, 1999; 61 Paine 1990). This process, known as coalescence in red and green algae (not formally 62 63 described in brown algae), is difficult to study in natural populations because it occurs 64 mainly at early microscopic stages (e.g. spores or sporelings; Santelices et al. 1996, 1999; Santelices & Aedo 2006). As a consequence, the factors that regulate the fusion of genets 65 66 have scarcely been explored.

67

Two non-exclusive hypotheses can be proposed to explain the occurrence of fusions

68	at the holdfast level in algal species: (1) fusions are correlated with density of recruits
69	which, during their development, grow and eventually get in such a close contact with their
70	neighbours, that they fuse together (i.e. they integrate their cell lines into a single tissue), or
71	(2) fusions are regulated by fitness differences between clumped and isolated genets. In the
72	first case, fusions are just a density-dependent process whereas selection and adaptation can
73	be invoked in the second hypothesis. Evidence based on higher survival rate of aggregates
74	compared to isolated individuals of red and brown algae suggest a selective advantage of
75	clumping (Santelices & Aedo 2006, Santelices & Alvarado 2008, Wernberg 2005). For
76	instance, holdfast aggregations of the kelp Ecklonia radiata have been observed in higher
77	frequency in exposed areas than in more protected ones, suggesting that aggregation
78	reduces mortality from dislodgement in exposed areas (Wernberg 2005).
79	Based on field observations of tagged sporophytes, Vásquez et al. (2008) and
80	Rodriguez et al. (2014) showed that fusions of individuals forming a PO might be recurrent
81	in the kelp Lessonia berteroana Montagne (formerly L. nigrescens, González et al. 2012).
82	This species dominates the low intertidal rocky shores of Chile and southern Peru
83	(Hoffmann & Santelices 1997) and its structure consists of a massive holdfast attached to
84	the rocky substrate. A variable number of stipes emerge from the holdfast. Stipes have
85	branches and each branch carries one frond distally. Holdfasts grow vertically and
86	horizontally leading to contact between neighbours that progressively grown and their
87	tissues mix forming a single unit that externally mimicks a single organism (Vásquez et al.
88	2008). A simple expectation from this growth pattern is that the rate at which genets fuse
89	increases with density (Rodriguez et al. 2014). However, if fusions confer some kind of
90	advantage under stressful environmental conditions, then the occurrence of fusions should

increase when the environment moves away from optimal conditions for the species. 91 92 To test these predictions, we quantified the number of different genets (i.e. multilocus microsatellite genotypes) per plant (stipes and fronds of a single holdfast) of L. 93 94 berteroana under two contrasting density of holdfasts in one natural population. In L. berteroana, density variability, spatial distribution, establishment of new 95 96 recruits, mortality rates, and growth patterns are regulated mainly by herbivory, wave impact and intraspecific competition for hard substrate (Ojeda & Santelices 1984; 97 98 Santelices & Ojeda 1984). The strength of these three selective agents differs in association 99 with distance between holdfasts. Net recruitment of *L. berteroana* is reduced in the 100 presence of herbivores (e.g. chitons and urchins) (Camus 1994; Ojeda & Santelices 1984), 101 while distance between holdfasts enhances herbivory (Vásquez & Santelices 1990). This 102 patterns result in a general negative relationship between kelp coverage and herbivore 103 abundance (Broitman et al. 2001), and pinpoint herbivory as a strong density dependent 104 selective pressure on *L. berteroana*. Wave impact is another major cause of mortality in benthic algae (Dayton et al. 1984; Vadas et al. 1990) that is considered a selective agent 105 106 driving morphological and physiological adaptation (Vásquez 1992; Blanchette 1997; 107 Martínez & Santelices 1998). Wave impact also imposes a high dynamic pressure that can 108 produce dislodgement or removal of settled plants (Vadas et al. 1990, 1992). In close 109 holdfast proximity, the interaction between water motion and the shape of the stipes and 110 fronds produce a wave movement known as the Whiplash Effect (WE, sensu Dayton 1994). Because of the WE, high holdfast density is beneficial for the kelp populations, allowing 111 112 the persistence of new recruits (Ojeda & Santelices 1984). Vásquez (1995) showed that when distance between holdfasts exceeds 2 m, the WE is reduced (i.e. environment is less 113

114	protective), increasing herbivory. Thus, both herbivory and WE have density-dependent
115	effects in both intertidal and subtidal Lessonia species (e.g. L. trabeculata, Vásquez 1992;
116	Vásquez & Buschmann 1997) that lead to greater survival of plants at high holdfast density.
117	High holdfast density implies intraspecific competition for substrate and light,
118	limiting the settlement of new recruits (Santelices & Ojeda 1984; Andrew & Viejo 1998;
119	Steen & Scrosati 2004). In this context, fusions between conspecifics may be seen as a
120	way to increase individual density without increasing substrate occupancy and to avoid
121	intraspecific competition. This kind of strategy has been found more frequently between
122	kin than unrelated individuals (Gerlash et al. 2007, Lizé et al. 2012). For example, plants
123	effectively experience strong social interactions and kin recognition to varying
124	physiological and morphological responses depending on the identity of the neighbour (de
125	Kroon 2007, Biedrzycki et al. 2010, Wu et al. 2013). However, as the Hamilton's (1964)
126	rule predicts, fusions may be an adaptive trait only if the benefits overpass the costs, and
127	close contact among individuals within a holdfast is likely to induce strong competition
128	among them (Novoplansky 2009). This cost can probably be reduced if fusion occurs
129	among relatives, so that benefits are expressed in terms of inclusive fitness (i.e. the direct
130	contribution of each genotype to the next generation's gene pool plus their indirect
131	contribution through the progeny of their relatives). Therefore, if fusion between relatives
132	enhances survival rate, then positive kin selection is a likely explanation (File et al. 2013).
133	In this context fusions between relatives in L. berteroana would be more frequent in low
134	environmental qualities (i.e. low density) in were isolated individuals (unigenotypic
135	organisms) may not persist.



The goal of this study was to shed light onto the factors that regulate the fusion of

137	genets into a single organism, by assessing genetic diversity of holdfasts at low and high
138	plant density and the genotypic relatedness within plants in the kelp L. berteroana.
139	

140 Material and Methods

141

142 Sampling, field measurements, and DNA extraction

143

144 Tissues of *L. berteroana* were sampled in an extensive intertidal kelp bed in Lagunillas, 145 Chile (30°06'S, 71°22'W) on areas showing no evidence of recent kelp harvest. In order to test for density dependence, twelve plants of different sizes were sampled in two sites of 146 low holdfast density (LD: 0.5 to 1 holdfasts/m²) and two of high holdfast density (HD: 5 to 147 148 8 holdfasts/ m^2). We use the term plant to refer to the organism identifiable macroscopically 149 on the shore, and which may be made of either a single or multiple *genets*. 150 From each of the 48 sampled plants, six tissue samples were collected each from a 151 different stipe selected at random, except for some small plants (i.e. less than six stipes). In 152 these cases, the samples were taken from all the available stipes (at least 5). Fresh tissue 153 samples of 2 cm in diameter were collected from the base of fronds avoiding reproductive 154 tissue and epiphytes. Collected pieces were dried using paper towel, placed in sealed individual bags with silica gel, and stored at room temperature until DNA extraction. DNA 155 156 was extracted from 30-40 mg of dried powdered tissue using a slightly modified version of the Cetyltrimethyl Ammonium Bromide (CTAB) DNA extraction that adds Polyvinyl 157 158 Pyrolidone to discard polyphenols (Martínez et al. 2003). Extracted DNA was quantified in a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies) and kept at -20°C. 159

160	To account for the effect of plant size on the frequency of fusions, three plant-to-
161	plant morphometric values were recorded for each sampled plant: maximum length,
162	holdfast diameter and number of stipes. In brown algae growth is highly related to
163	microhabitat conditions, thus kelp size is not necessarily related with age. In order to
164	consider genet-to-genet morphology, i.e., differences within the plant, for each sampled
165	stipe, we recorded the length, diameter, and number of dichotomies.
166	
167	Informative microsatellite loci determination
168	
169	To evaluate which loci were informative for the study, ten DNA samples from different
170	plants were randomly picked to explore eight microsatellite loci available for L. berteroana
171	(Faugeron et al. 2009). PCR's were performed in a final volume of 20 µl with: 1.5 ng of
172	DNA, 2 mM of 10X Buffer, 0.6 mM of dNTP mix, 1.8 mM of MgCl ₂ , 0.2 mM of each
173	primer, 0.075 mg/mL of Bovine Serum Albumin, and 0.2 U of Taq DNA polymerase
174	(Fermentas). Temperature cycling consisted of an initial soak of three min at 95 °C, then 10
175	touchdown cycles at 95 °C for 45 sec, 60 °C- 63 °C for 45 sec, and an extension of 45 sec
176	at 72 °C. Following, 30 cycles at 95 °C for 45 sec, 50 °C for 45 sec, 72 °C for 45 sec and a
177	final extension of 72 °C for 7 min. Amplicons were genotyped in an ABI Prism 3700
178	(Applied Biosystems) and the electrophenograms were visualized using GeneMarker v.
179	1.81 (SoftGenetics PA, USA).
180	The main criteria for considering loci as informative were the degree of
181	polymorphism in the local population and PCR amplification success. After checking for
182	polymorphism, genotypes were analysed in Microchecker 2.2 (Van Oosterhout et al. 2004)

183	to determine the probability of null alleles. The probability of finding twice the same
184	multilocus genotype by chance in each site of each density was calculated with Genealex v.
185	6 (Peakall & Smouse 2006). It was considered a sufficient number of informative loci when
186	each of the ten analysed DNA samples had different multilocus genotypes.
187	
188	Multilocus genotype data analyses
189	
190	Any holdfast with more than one multilocus genotype was considered a plurigenotypic
191	organism (PO). The effect of size and density was analysed using Generalized Linear
192	Mixed Models (GLMMs) with Poisson error implemented in the lme4 package in the
193	software R (R Core Team 2013). GLMMs are appropriate for non-normal data influenced
194	by fixed and random effects (Bolker et al. 2008; Crawley 2005; Grueber et al. 2011). In
195	each model, effects and interaction of plant-to plant morphometric values (MV) (holdfast
196	diameter, total length, and total number of stipes) and density (high and low denoted as LD
197	and HD, respectively) in the occurrence of POs was evaluated using each of the three MV
198	as covariables with the Site (St) nested into Density. The correlation between plant length
199	and holdfast diameter is well known in Lessonia (Santelices 1982; Vásquez & Santelices
200	1984; Vásquez 1991), however, the correlation of these variables and the number of stipes
201	is not consistent and only occurs when reproductive stipes are considered (Vásquez 1991).
202	Finally, differences in the number of genotypes between densities were evaluated in a
203	single GLMM using density (D) as categorical variable following the same structure than
204	previous models.

Strictly, site has a random effect because all levels of that factor are selected as a

206 random sample from all possible levels (sites) that could be included in the study area 207 (spatial pseudoreplication). So additionally, as an exploratory analysis of the relative importance of the factors in the models, according to the evidence weight of the AIC, the 208 209 site effect was evaluated as explanatory variable with fixed effects, and in interaction with variables that GLMMs showed to have a significant effect on number of genotypes. 210 211 Lastly, Principal Component Analyses (PCA) and Lineal Discriminant Analysis (LDA) were carried out with the log-transformed data of the three genet-to-genet variables 212 213 (length, diameter of the stipe and number of dichotomies) and the three plant-to-plant MV 214 variables (holdfast diameter, total length, number of stipes). The objective of these analyses was to observe possible differences in both densities considering genet-to-genet variance as 215 216 a way to include the morphological differences within the plant and plant-to-plant 217 differences between densities. Both analyses were carried out using MASS package, and the 95% confident ellipses where calculated with ELLIPSE package, both available in 218 219 CRAN R project (R Core Team 2013). 220 Relatedness among fused genets 221 222 To investigate the occurrence of kin aggregations within a PO, we tested whether 223 genotypes sharing a holdfast were genetically closer than on average in the population. This 224 was achieved by comparing the average pairwise coefficient of relatedness R (Ritland 225 1996) of each plant with the average inter-plant pairwise R. The upper limit of the onetailed 95% confidence interval for inter-plant R-values for each site was determined by 226

bootstrapping in R (R Core Team 2013) 10,000 values of mean R among ten randomly

228	sampled (with replacement) pairwise R -values obtained from pairs of genotypes from
229	different plants. Observed intra-plant mean <i>R</i> -values that were higher than the 95 % limit
230	were considered representing a significantly higher genetic relatedness than the background
231	population.
232	
233	Results
234	
235	Informative microsatellite loci identification
236	
237	Of the eight explored microsatellite loci, four (Less1T11, Less2D22, Less2D25 and
238	Less2D26) were polymorphic enough to unequivocally identify each of the 10 preliminary
239	sampled individuals, and thus were selected to characterize all samples. The probability of
240	finding twice the same multilocus genotype by chance using these four loci was 9.07 x 10^{-5}
241	\pm 0.0004 and 0.001 \pm 0.020 for LD and HD, respectively.
242	
243	Fusion of individuals in Lessonia berteroana
244	
245	Of the 260 tissue samples analysed, from 48 plants, 150 corresponded to different
246	individuals based on multilocus genotypes, which correspond to a total of 39 plurigenotypic
247	organisms (81.3% of the sampled holdfasts). There was an average of 3.17 multilocus
248	genotypes per plant, of a maximum of six that could be detected with the sampling scheme.
249	Only 18.5 $\%$ of the sampled holdfasts showed only one multilocus genotype. On the
250	opposite, 22.9 % showed at least five different multilocus genotypes, including small kelps

251 (e.g., all five stipes with a different multilocus genotype) (Fig. 1).

252 The evaluation of the effects of plant-to-plant MV using GLMM's revealed that neither total length nor holdfast diameter influenced on the number of genotypes per 253 254 holdfast (df: 41, p = 0.1130 and 0.1891, respectively), even when interacting with density (df: 41, p = 0.0970 and 0.0879, respectively) (Table 1). Interestingly, the number of 255 256 genotypes varied significantly with the number of stipes per holdfast (df: 41, p = 0.00721) with a significant effect of density in this model (df: 41, p = 0.00261), although the 257 258 interaction of density with the MV was not significant (df: 41, p=0.15932) (Table 1). The 259 effect of the size, particularly with the number of stipes as response variable was significant 260 only in HD, while in LD there was no relationship (Fig. 2). Moreover, holdfast density had a significant effect in the average number of genotypes per holdfast (df: 41, p = 0.0036) 261 262 (Table 1). In LD 100% of the holdfasts were plurigenotypic, whereas only 62.5 % at HD. 263 The average number of genotypes was also greater in LD, with 3.54 genotypes/holdfast, 264 versus 2.79 genotypes/holdfast in HD. This suggests that plant density explains the 265 observed data better than MV; a marginal association between number of stipes and 266 number of genotypes can be observed only in HD (Fig. 2). 267 Exploring the relative weights of each factor in the models considering the Site (St) as 268 a fixed predictor, the model of the interaction of Size and Density showed low values in terms of relative weights (according to the AICs), suggesting that density and size did not 269 270 act together as explanatory variables on the occurrence of POs and the number of genotypes

271 per holdfast. Site-to-site density variations seem to explain the differences between the

number of POs and number of genotypes per PO in each model (Fig. 1).

273 In the PCA analyses, using genet-to-genet morphological variables, the first two axes

274	explained 95.67% of the total variance. The first axis was composed by the three variables
275	that had similar loadings, and the second axis was mainly of stipe diameter, suggesting that
276	the three genet-to-genet variables are associated to morphological variation between
277	densities. The PCA showed two groups with an overlap of few genets that were
278	significantly differentiated (one-way ANOVA; $F_{1,258}$ =52.59, p<10 ⁻¹²) (Fig. 3). In this
279	analysis, results showed that genets in LD are in general smaller than in HD. The trend is
280	more evident for stipe diameter which tends to be thinner in LD than HD. The LDA
281	approach, with one canonical discriminant function (i.e. two classes HD-LD), showed that
282	the stipe diameter was the variable with the highest discriminant coefficient. This
283	discriminant function was capable to correctly assign 89.7% of the samples to their density.
284	Wrong predictions were in almost all the cases (except for one) for HD samples assigned as
285	LD. On the other hand, using plant-to-plant MV, the PCA showed only one
286	undistinguishable group and the LDA could correctly assign the plant to the density of
287	origin in 47.9% of the cases.
288	
289	Relatedness analyses
290	
291	From a total of 39 POs, 15 in HD and 24 in LD, 30 (i.e. 77%) displayed an intra-plant mean
292	relatedness significantly higher than expected given the inter-plant pairwise relatedness in

the population (Table 3). From these 30 holdfasts, 66.6% occurred in HD and 79.16% in

LD. There was strong heterogeneity in intra-plant relatedness: site A in HD (SA-HD) had

the lowest number of plants (three out of seven) with significantly higher mean relatedness

than population level, whereas every PO in the site B (SB-HD) displayed significantly

297	higher intra-plant mean R (Table 3). In LD, where relatedness is more common, most intra-
298	holdfast pairwise R-values are significant with only two and three POs from SA-LD and
299	SB-LD, respectively, with values within the expected range of inter-plant values.
300	
301	Discussion
302	
303	Occurrence of plurigenotypic holdfasts
304	
305	Our results indicate that the formation of plurigenotypic organisms (POs) in L. berteroana
306	is a highly frequent phenomenon. Thirty-nine of the forty-eight analysed plants bared at
307	least two different genets. As for a number of red and green coalescing algae (Santelices et
308	al. 1999; 2003), fusion of L. berteroana at the holdfast level results in a single macroscopic
309	organism in which the different genets are indistinguishable (Rodriguez et al 2014). The
310	average number of genotypes per holdfasts was surprisingly high, with 11 out of 35 POs
311	bearing at least 5 genotypes. Together with the observation that fusions were more frequent
312	in low-density (LD) than in high-density (HD) areas, the results indicate that the occurrence
313	of fusions is not a simple consequence of holdfast proximity. Therefore, fusions do not
314	occur during the plants' ontogeny, but instead as a consequence of reduced space when
315	plants grow and the increased distance between plants. Rodriguez et al. (2014), shows that
316	the coalescence in L. berteroana is a continuous process in which recruits may fuse with
317	other isolated recruits, groups or even in and between adults and senescent plants
318	(Rodriguez et al. 2014).
319	This has been proved to explain the early benefits of coalescence in microscopic stages of

320	red algae (Santelices et al. 1996; Santelices & Aedo 2006), which show a positive
321	relationship between the number of coalescing spores and the probability of survivorship
322	(Santelices et al. 1999; Santelices 2001; 2004). Small plants (i.e. less than 5 stipes) of L.
323	berteroana were found at both densities, but in LD every small plant is formed of up to five
324	multilocus genotypes, giving further support for the early selection of PO's against
325	unigenotypic organisms in LD. On the other hand, high densities seem to result from the
326	survival of both uni- and pluri-genotypic organisms, at least during early stages.
327	There are three main ways of coalescing at the microscopic stages of kelps: (1)
328	aggregated settlement of spores within a few mm ² producing a single PO when observable
329	by naked eye; (2) recruitment of spores on top of established holdfasts; and (3) vegetative
330	ramification of the female gametophyte that then produces multiple eggs (Avila et al.
331	1985) that could be fertilized by different males. This study was not designed to
332	discriminate among these possibilities. However, two major findings of this study allow
333	inferring on the causes of the fusions. On one hand, aggregated settlement should vary
334	among sites and be negatively correlated to population density in order to explain the
335	higher occurrence of PO in LD than in HD. On the other hand, multiple paternities in a
336	single ramified female gametophyte should create half-sibs relatedness, increasing the
337	degree of genetic relatedness among genotypes within a plant, compared to the population.
338	Alternatively, both aggregated and non-aggregated settlements occur everywhere, but only
339	closely settled gametophytes survive and reproduce. These points are discussed in the
340	following sections.
341	

342 Fusions of individuals as an environmentally mediated process

344	The occurrence of intraspecific fusion in L. berteroana seems strongly correlated with
345	environmental quality, as well as in other kelps (Wernberg 2005, Malm & Kausky
346	2004). Indeed, differences in population density of <i>L. berteroana</i> result from environmental
347	quality, which is heterogeneous, and optimal conditions favour high densities. However,
348	the negative correlation between holdfast density and occurrence of POs strongly suggests
349	that POs have certain advantages over non-PO in sub-optimal conditions, i.e. in low-density
350	areas. Unigenotypic organisms only occur at HD accounting for 75% of the small plants
351	with less than five stipes, suggesting that the optimal environmental conditions allow
352	recruitment and survival of the different kinds of organisms (uni- and plurigenotypic), as
353	opposed to LD. Similar results were obtained by Malm & Kausky (204) in Fucus
354	vesiculosus in which the proportion of fused individuals was greater in wave exposed areas.
355	In addition to that, our ordination analyses interestingly showed that plant density could be
356	effectively differentiated according to the morphology of the stipes. As is suggested by
357	Novoplasnky (2009), plant morphology can be modified as a response to competition in
358	contrasting densities.
359	Our results suggest that the quality of the environment on L. berteroana influences
360	both the occurrence and composition of the POs and the stipe-to-stipe intra-plant

361 morphology. High density implies intraspecific competition for substrate and light.

362 Concordantly, a positive correlation between mortality of recruits and plant density has

- been reported for other algae (e.g. of the genus *Fucus*, Steen & Scrosati 2004). As the
- 364 presence of adult conspecific inhibit recruitments (Santelices & Ojeda 1984), fusion poses
- 365 an additional challenge to each individual genotype, by potentially adding intra-plant

366	competition on top of intra-population competition. A precise evaluation of intra-specific
367	competition between genets within and between plants is necessary to further understand
368	the balance between both the environmental quality and the intraspecific competition.
369	Finally, our results add complexity to demographic studies in L. berteroana that
370	thus far have considered the whole plant as the individual entity (e.g. Santelices & Ojeda
371	1984, Ojeda & Santelices 1984). Our finding suggests than rather than the whole plant, it is
372	important to consider the stipes, which take into account possible differences between
373	genets into the clump.
374	
375	Kin aggregation
376	
377	An important result of this study was the observation that genotypes sharing a holdfast
378	were more genetically related than on average in the population. This kin aggregation is not
379	expected under the paradigm of stochastic spore settlement (i.e. with no choice of the
380	settlement site). However, kin aggregation is increasingly being detected in coastal species
381	including sessile (Veliz et al. 2006) and mobile invertebrates (Selkoe et al. 2006),
382	evidencing that mixing of propagules in the water column is less extensive than previously
383	considered.
384	At least three non-exclusive hypotheses could explain this strong trend, each as
385	post-settlement processes. First, higher R-values can result from fusions between
386	sporophytes sharing the same mother and multiple fathers (siblings or half-siblings).
387	Vegetative ramification and multiple egg production of the female gametophyte is a
388	common process in Laminariales (Muñoz et al. 2004; Nelson 2004). To determine whether

389 genotypes do correspond to full or half-sibs, a higher number of loci would be required in 390 order to reduce the large sampling variance that lowers the precision of estimated relatedness (Lynch & Ritland 1999). Second, dispersal and settlement may be non-random. 391 392 Kin-structured dispersal (the joint dispersal of seeds or juveniles that come from a same 393 family or a same mother) is an example of process that leads to kin aggregation in the adult 394 stage. It explains some cases of small-scale genetic structure in plants (Torimaru et al. 2007) and genetic patchiness in marine invertebrates (Johnson & Black 1982). Such 395 396 dispersal modes have been reported in some seaweeds that bear unitary reproductive organs 397 like the cystocarp in red algae, which can release bunches of spores surrounded by their maternal mucilage that keeps the spores together until settlement (Aedo 2007). This 398 399 phenomenon seems unlikely to apply to kelps, which release motile spores individually that 400 can hardly maintain proximity with their relatives because of the turbulence of the coastal 401 waters were they are released.

402 The third hypothesis argues that dispersal and settlement are random but survival of 403 the young sporophytes is determined by the genetic relatedness of the surrounding 404 individuals. If fusions between genets are environmentally mediated, it is possible that the 405 aggregation between relatives provides higher benefits to the PO than non-kin aggregates 406 would. This scenario is possible whenever intra-plant competition is reduced by the genetic 407 relatedness of individuals sharing the holdfast. This is particularly noteworthy because it 408 opens to a potential role of selection in determining the occurrence of kin aggregations 409 within plants. It is not necessarily kin selection, as it is known for social animal species, 410 particularly because the existence of high relatedness between interacting individuals is not by itself sufficient evidence that kin selection is the driving force (Griffin & West 2002). In 411

412	the case of L. berteroana, genotypes within a kin aggregate may have a higher survival up
413	to the adult stage than those within non-kin aggregates, as evidenced by the predominance
414	of PO in low-density areas, suggesting that kin aggregation brings fitness advantages over
415	random interaction. In this context, every life history trait that favours the fusion between
416	relatives to form PO should be selected for, including traits at the group level (File et al.
417	2013). Such multilevel selection (Wilson 1997) on group-living traits in kelps is an
418	interesting and testable hypothesis that emerges from the pattern observed in this study.
419	
420	Perspective: Fusion of individuals as an adaptive strategy
421	
422	Traditionally, L. berteroana has been considered as a unitary, aclonal species (sensu
423	Santelices 1982), wherein each plant corresponds to one individual (e.g. Ojeda & Santelices
424	1984; Santelices & Ojeda 1984). Here, we showed that one organism, made of a single
425	holdfast and a variable number of stipes and fronds can be composed of one or more
426	individuals, and large kelps are most likely colonies of different genets. As several other
427	intertidal species of red or green algae share this fusion capacity, it is possible that the
428	phenomenon of coalescence in algae is an adaptation to highly stressful and heterogeneous
429	environments such as the marine intertidal rocky shore. Direct benefits (i.e. higher survival,
430	protection of the recruits) to the individual genet when integrated within a PO lead to the
431	question whether fusion or coalescence is an adaptive strategy. This may be difficult to
432	answer because it requires characterizing traits of the PO that influence the individual
433	genet, as well as the relative contribution of PO's traits and individual genets traits to the
434	fitness of the genet. It requires also measuring the exact costs and benefits of being part of a

PO. So far, we have shown that the number of stipes of the PO is correlated with the
number of genotypes, and in LD stipes tend to be thinner than HD. The number of stipes is
a good indicator of the reproductive potential in *L. berteroana* (Santelices & Ojeda 1984),
and therefore the observed morphological differences could mean fitness differences in
terms of reproductive success.

440 At the individual level, the higher number of stipes in PO may indicate that the trade-off between sharing the holdfast and the opportunity to produce external structure (the stipes) 441 442 is reduced, as opposed to a situation in which the number of stipes would be fixed by 443 external factors. The predominance of POs in low density areas suggests that benefits largely exceed the eventual costs of sharing a holdfast, despite that plants tends to be 444 445 smaller in low- than in high-density areas. Better evaluation of these trade-offs (e.g. by 446 quantifying the number of stipes that each genotype is able to produce within a shared 447 holdfast, compared to a solitary holdfast) would allow an exact assessment of these costs 448 and benefits at the individual level.

449 Santelices (1999) showed that genetic homogeneity and uniqueness as well as 450 physiological autonomy of algae, are relevant criteria to define an individual. In this 451 context, the limits of an individual, as a functional basic unit of organization, may vary 452 according to the questions and approaches that focus on the model organism (Pepper & 453 Herron 2008). For example, ramets, clones, colonies and clumps can be defined as 454 individual organisms, although none of these would fit into the more traditional unitary organism concept (Santelices 1999). While an important debate still holds around universal 455 456 definitions of individual and organism (Nachtomy et al. 2002; Santelices 1999, Pepper & Herron 2008 among others), the ecological and evolutionary implications of different ways 457

458	of organization have received relatively little attention. The propensity of most species to
459	form groups has been considered as an adaptation that may maximize the inclusive fitness
460	of the individual-genotype. The adaptation of these concepts traditionally used in social
461	animals to non-animal models is a most challenging perspective of the study of
462	plurigenotypic organisms.
463	
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470	
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- 639

640	Table	captions

642	Table 1. Summary of the GLMM models using morphometric values of the plants. Table
643	shows the result of comparing high holdfast density (HD) with the other levels of the
644	factor. Ng: Number of genotypes; D: Density; St: sites; AIC: Akaike Information Criterion.
645	* Significant values ($p < 0.05$).
646	
647	Table 2: Summary of the GLMM model testing the effect of Density (D) on the Number of
648	Genotypes (Ng). St: sites; AIC: Akaike values; k: number of variables. * Significant values
649	(p < 0.05).
650	
651	Table 3. Estimates of intra- and inter-plant pairwise relatedness <i>R</i> -values. The name of the
652	sampled plant with more than one genotype is between brackets after each R -value. *
653	Indicates values significantly higher than expected from one-tailed 95% confidence interval
654	of mean inter-plant pairwise <i>R</i> -values.
655	
656	Figure Captions
657	
658	Fig. 1. Box-plot of number of multilocus genotypes per plant detected at two sites with
659	high (SA-HD and SB-HD) and two with low holdfast densities (SA-LD and SB-LD) in
660	Lessonia berteroana. Dashed horizontal line indicates total average of multilocus
661	genotypes in both densities.
662	

663	Fig. 2. Relationship between the number of multilocus genotypes per plant and the number
664	of stipes in high (a) and low (b) holdfast density in Lessonia berteroana.

Fig. 3. Bivariate plot of scores from principal components 1 (PC1) and 2 (PC2) of a PCA

of the 260 sampled genets of *Lessonia berteroana* and three genet-to-genet morphological

- values of stipes (length, diameter, and number of dichotomies). Blue points for low density
- and orange points for high density; the 95% confidence ellipses for each group are shown.

Table 1. Summary of the GLMM models using morphometric values of the plants. Table

- shows the result of comparing high holdfast density (HD) with the other levels of the
- 673 factor. Ng: Number of genotypes; D: Density; St: sites; AIC: Akaike Information Criterion.

Model	Estimate	Std. Error	Z value	<i>p</i> value 5
Ng = D x Number of Stipes + St(D) (AIC: 35.79)				676
Intercept	0.601	0.191	3.137	677 >0.001
Density (HD-LD)	0.780	0.259	3.010	678 0.003*
Number of stipes	0.018	0.006	2.687	679 0.007* 680
Density High-Low x Number of stipes	-0.018	0.013	-1.407	0.159 681
Ng = D x Total length + St(D) (AIC: 37.96)				682
Intercept	0.527	0.297	1.772	683
Density (HD-LD)	0.609	0.367	1.660	6847
Total length	0.003	0.002	1.585	685
Density High-Low x Total length	-0.001	0.002	-0.376	686
Ng = D x Holdfast diameter + St(D) (AIC: 38.14)				687
Intercept	0.558	0.322	1.730	688 0.083
Density High-Low	0.622	0.364	1.706	689 0.087
Holdfast diameter	0.028	0.021	1.313	690 0.189 691
Density High-Low x Holdfast diameter	-0.011	0.023	-0.466	0.641 692

674 * Significant values (p < 0.05).

693

- **Table 2:** Summary of the GLMM model testing the effect of Density (D) on the Number of
- 696 Genotypes (Ng). St: sites; AIC: Akaike values; k: number of variables. * Significant values
- (p < 0.05)

Model	Estimate	Std. Error	Z value	698 ue
Ng= D + St(D) (AIC: 22.2,df= 5, k = 3)				699
Intercept	0.9328	0.1280	7.286	< 0.001*
Density	0.4535	0.1637	2.769	0.006*

Table 3. Estimates of intra- and inter-plant pairwise relatedness *R*-values. The name of the
sampled plant with more than one genotype is between brackets after each *R*-value. *

702 Indicates values significantly higher than expected from one-tailed 95% confidence interval

	SA-HD	SB-HD	SA-LD	SB-LD
Intra-plant pairwise R-	0.046 *	0.215 *	0.058 *	0.065 *
values	(10)	(5)	(37)	(1)
	-0.006	0.094 *	0.030	0.094 *
	(11)	(7)	(38)	(3)
	0.023	0.624 *	0.318 *	0.077 *
	(24)	(8)	(39)	(4)
	0.124 *	0.233 *	0.058 *	0.174 *
	(27)	(15)	(40)	(6)
	0.027	0.026 *	0.046 *	0.049 *
	(28)	(16)	(41)	(13)
	0.024	0.300 *	0.892 *	0.033
	(32)	(17)	(42)	(22)
	0.211 *	0.088 *	0.071 *	0.041
	(33)	(19)	(43)	(29)
		0.360 *	-0.014	0.172 *
		(20)	(44)	(31)
			0.077 *	-0.059
			(45)	(34)
			0.283 *	0.084 *
			(46)	(35)
			0.478 *	0.058 *
			(47)	(39)
			0.941 *	0.338 *
			(48)	(50)
One-tailed 95% confidence interval for inter-plant pairwise <i>R</i> - values	-0.123 - 0.029	-0.149 - 0.020	-0.169 – 0.046	-0.144 - 0.042

703 of mean inter-plant pairwise *R*-values.

704



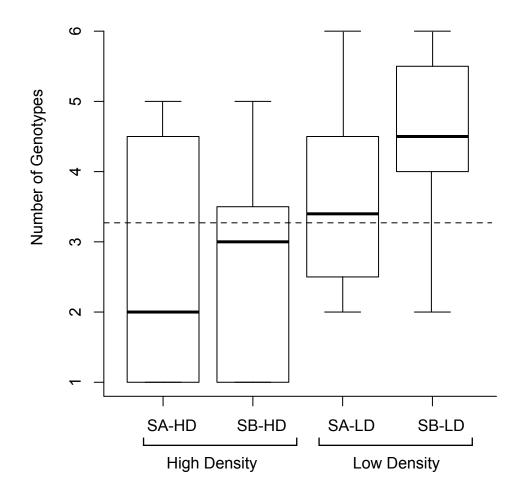


Figure 2

