

New karyotypic data for Asian rodents (Rodentia, Muridae) with the first report of B-chromosomes in the genus Mus.

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25 Abstract (216 words)

26

27 Karyotypes of 18 rodent species collected in various localities in Thailand were analysed as 28 part of an epidemiological survey of the region using conventional cytogenetic techniques. 29 The aim was to re-assess the reliability of karyotype-based diagnoses of Thai rodents using an 30 updated taxonomic framework. Species examined include Menetes berdmorei (Sciuridae), 31 Mus caroli, M. cervicolor and M. cookii, Hapalomys delacouri, Chiropodomys gliroides, as 32 well as several representatives of most of the lineages of the Rattini tribe i.e. Rattus exulans, 33 R. losea, R. tanezumi, Leopoldamys edwardsi, L. neilli, Maxomys surifer, Niviventer 34 fulvescens, Berylmys berdmorei, B. bowersi, Bandicota indica and B. savilei (Muridae). The 35 first descriptions of G- and/or C-banding karyotypes are provided for several of these i.e., B. savilei, L. edwardsi, M. surifer, B. berdmorei, B. bowersi, N. fulvescens and H. delacouri. 36 37 Although largely in agreement with available data, our findings on chromosomes morphology 38 differ slightly from those published for L. edwardsi, M. surifer, B. savilei, and the two 39 Berylmys species, B. berdmorei, and B. bowersi. In addition, we document the novel finding 40 of B-chromosomes in the genera Berylmys, Bandicota and the emblematic Mus. Importantly, 41 few species-specific chromosomal characters could be identified within most of the genera 42 investigated in our study and, contrary to previous claims, the usefulness of karyotypes for 43 diagnosing these Asian murid species appears limited.

45 INTRODUCTION

46

47 The non-ambiguous identification of species is critical for fundamental as well as applied 48 research, as it is the departure point for many aspects of comparative biology including 49 systematics (e.g., Sites & Marshall, 2003, and references therein), biodiversity assessments, 50 conservation (Crandall et al., 2000; Moritz, 2000), biogeography (e.g., Avise 2009), 51 community ecology and pests control (e.g., Hoffman, 2002). In particular, the lack of accurate 52 species-specific identification of hosts is an important consideration for current 53 epidemiological surveys since 1) numerous pathogens are carried by a restricted range of 54 hosts, and 2) each rodent species possesses its own life traits. These two aspects are pivotal 55 since they may lead to important differences in the role a host species can play in circulation 56 and transmission of pathogens. For instance, a species may be an important reservoir for a 57 human pathogen while its close, and sometimes morphologically similar relatives, are not 58 (e.g., the two cryptic species Mastomys natalensis and M. erythroleucus, and their association 59 with the Lassa Fever arenavirus in Africa; Lecompte et al., 2006). Additionally, some 60 species-specific ecological characteristics (such as commensality and hence the propensity to 61 transport with humans) and evolutionary properties (population structure and connectivity) are also central to epidemiological processes (reviewed in Mills & Childs, 1998). In such a 62 63 context, karyotypic data has been shown to be valuable, especially for identifying rodents that 64 belong to sibling species complexes.

65

We carried out a survey of various rodent species found in different localities in Thailand as part of an epidemiological survey in this region. In particular, we focused on murids (rats and mice) that are suspected of being important reservoirs for several human pathogens (i.e., those responsible for hantavirus-mediated hemorrhagic fevers, typhus, leptospirosis, among others). The first goal was to develop identification "tools" for use at the species-level. That this approach has application is illustrated by the Asian Hantaviruses (responsible for lethal haemorrhagic fevers) / rodents association found in Cambodian *Rattus* specimens that could not be discriminated at the species level (Reynes *et al.*, 2003).

74

75 Asia is the area of origin for the *Rattus sensu lato* complex (i.e., *Rattus sensu stricto* and 76 allied genera), a complex that includes the biological important index species, R. norvegicus 77 (Aplin et al., 2003). Surprisingly, given their epidemiological importance, karyotypic data on 78 species in this complex are limited. Even more importantly, numerous systematic 79 modifications (reviewed in Wilson & Reeder, 2005) have been proposed since the pioneering 80 cytotaxonomic work published in the late 1960s to the 1970s (see Marshall, 1977, and 81 references therein), further complicating interpretations of correspondence between karyotype 82 and host species. For example, many (if not most) of the taxa that were originally considered 83 as different R. rattus subspecies (e.g., tanezumi, argentiventer, rattus) are now regarded as 84 synonyms or have been elevated to distinct species. In the same manner, many congeneric species have been split into different genera (e.g., Bervlmys, Maxomys, Leopoldamys, 85 86 Niviventer). Consequently, species-specific karyotypes are often difficult to delimit, thus 87 making a cytotaxonomic approach to species identification problematic.

88

In an attempt at redress, we performed a conventional cytogenetic analysis of 18 rodent
species: *Menetes berdmorei* (Sciuridae), *Mus caroli, M. cervicolor* and *M. cookii*, *Chiropodomys gliroides, Hapalomys delacouri*, as well as representatives of most of the
lineages within the Rattini tribe (*sensu* Lecompte *et al.*, 2008), i.e. *Rattus exulans, R. losea, R. tanezumi, Leopoldamys edwardsi, L. neilli, Maxomys surifer, Niviventer* cf. *langbianis*,

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Berylmys berdmorei, *B. bowersi*, *Bandicota indica*, *B. savilei*. Our aim was to re-assess the
reliability of karyotype-based diagnoses of Thai rodents, in an updated taxonomic framework.

97 MATERIAL and METHODS

98

99 Thousands of rodents have been trapped and are currently under investigation as part of a 100 long-term epidemiological survey of rodent-borne pathogens in South Eastern Asia. Among 101 these, sixty five specimens were collected in 2006 and 2007 in Northern and North-Eastern 102 Thailand in the vicinity of the settlements Loei (17°29N 101°43E), Phrae (18°09N 100°08E) 103 and Kalasin (16°26N 103°31E) using locally made locally made cage-traps. Except where 104 otherwise detailed, taxonomy follows Carleton & Musser (2005). Species identifications were 105 based on external measurements, morphological features, and, in females, mammae formula 106 (Marshall, 1977; Corbet & Hill, 1992; Aplin et al., 2003). Moreover, taking into account the 107 ambiguous status of some of these diagnostic characters, most of the murine specimens were 108 also investigated using molecular analyses (Tab. 1) involving several mitochondrial 109 (cytochrome b, CO1, and 16S rDNA) and nuclear (IRBP) gene fragments. The DNA-based 110 analyses will be presented elsewhere as a separate phylogenetic study (Pagès et al., in prep.). 111 Importantly, however, and pivotal to the present work, our species-specific identifications 112 relied on correspondence in both morphological and molecular data.

113

The majority of chromosome preparations were done in the field using the air-drying method on femoral bone marrow following yeast stimulation (Evans *et al.*, 1963; Lee & Elder, 1980). In eleven instances (Tab. 1), intercostal tissue was sampled to establish fibroblast cell cultures using conventional techniques. Freshly prepared hypotonic (0.75 M KCl) and fixative (acetic acid-methanol 1:3) solutions were routinely used. Cell suspensions were stored in fixative and

119 transported to the laboratory where conventional staining, G- and C-banding (Seabright 1971; 120 Sumner 1972) and image capture using the Genus software (Applied Imaging), were 121 performed. A minimum of five complete metaphases were analysed for each specimen. Diploid (2n), fundamental (NF; i.e., total numbers of chromosomal arms in one cell) and 122 123 autosomal fundamental (NFa; i.e., NF excluding sex chromosomes) numbers were 124 determined, and karvotypes were arranged according to chromosomes morphology and size 125 (conventional staining) and/or banding patterns. Chromosome nomenclature for Rattus 126 followed Yosida (1976, 1977a).

127

128 **RESULTS and DISCUSSION**

129

130 All specimens were analyzed using conventional staining, thus allowing an overall description 131 of the species-specific karyotypes (Tab. 1). In addition, G-banded karyotypes were 132 constructed where feasible. However, in several instances, slight variation and/or ambiguities 133 in NF/NFa values were detected through conventional staining (Giemsa only) reflecting the 134 difficulty in categorizing acrocentric/subtelocentric chromosomes where chromosomal 135 contraction can be a confounding factor. Although not uncommon in mammalian 136 cytogenetics, subtle differences in chromosome morphology (such as telocentric vs. 137 subtelocentric) has been considered important in murine cytotaxonomy where it has been used 138 to underpin the species identification of several taxa (e.g., Marshall, 1977, p. 407-408). In an 139 attempt to constrain ambiguities introduced by terminology, we have chosen to view all 140 chromosomes that have no visible short arm as telocentric and those that possess minute arms 141 as acrocentric elements (subtelocentric chromosomes in some schemes) for NF/NFa 142 assessment. If the short arms were more pronounced and clearly and repeatedly observed, 143 chromosomes were considered to be as bi-armed (submetacentric and metacentric).

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145 *Menetes berdmorei* (Blyth, 1849) (Sciuridae)

146

The only squirrel (which is a sciurid, not a murid rodent) investigated in this study had a 2n=38 chromosome number. Most of the chromosomes were metacentric or submetacentric except for the five smallest pairs that were either telocentric or acrocentric (NF=76, NFa=72). This is in agreement with data previously published by Viegas-Péquignot *et al.* (1986) and Richard *et al.* (2003) on this species, and also specimens analysed by Marshall (1977) from Thailand. As a result the karyotype is not repeated here.

153

154 Rattus exulans (Peale, 1848), R. losea (Swinhoe, 1871) and R. tanezumi (Temmink, 1844)

155

156 In total 26 specimens of Rattus sensu stricto were karyotyped (Tab. 1; data not shown). These 157 included R. losea (n=5), R. tanezumi (n=13) and R. exulans (n=8). All but one specimen were 158 determined to have a diploid number of 42 with NF values ranging from 56-61, 58-60 and 54-159 59 in R. exulans, R. losea and R. tanezumi, respectively. The 2n=43 R. tanezumi specimen 160 was characterized by the presence of a G-negative and C-positive B-chromosome (data not 161 shown), as has previously been documented in this taxon (Yosida, 1976, 1977b; Gadi & 162 Sharma, 1983). The largely overlapping NF values are attributable to variation in the short 163 arms (p arms) of several pairs resulting in their classification as acrocentric and/or 164 submetacentric homologs (see Table 2). The polymorphisms most likely correspond to variation in pairs 1, 9 and 13 of Rattus r. tanezumi (now named R. tanezumi; see Wilson & 165 166 Reeder, 2005) sensu Yosida and colleagues (1971a, 1971b, 1976 and 1977a). This variation in 167 centromere position has been noted in several *Rattus* species and subspecies (Yosida *et al.*, 1971a, 1971b, 1974; Yosida, 1973, 1977a; Yosida & Sagai, 1973, 1975; Gadi & Sharma, 168

169 1983; Motokawa *et al.*, 2001) and is interpreted to result from pericentric inversion (Yosida *et al.*, 1971a, 1971b; Yosida, 1976, 1977a) and/or heterochromatin amplification/deletion 170 (Yosida & Sagai, 1975; Baskevich & Kuznetsov, 1998). However, the chromosomes and/or 172 the segments involved are small and thus difficult to interpret, even when using G-banding, 173 and the mechanism(s) underpinning this variation remains moot.

174

175 Importantly, Marshall (1977) proposed a number of apparently fixed (diagnostic) features 176 among R. exulans, R. losea and R. tanezumi (which is synonymous with R. r. thai sensu 177 Marshall; see Wilson & Reeder, 2005) in Thailand. On the basis of conventional staining, 178 Marshall argues (pp. 407-408) that: i) pair 1 is acrocentric in *R. tanezumi* and submetacentric 179 in R. exulans and R. losea, ii) pair 9 is submetacentric in R. losea but acrocentric in R. exulans 180 and *R. tanezumi*, and iii) pair 11 (most probably corresponding to pair 13 sensu Yosida et al.) 181 is submetacentric in R. exulans, whereas it is acrocentric in R. losea and R. tanezumi. 182 However, taking other studies into account (see above) and our own data (Table 2), it appears 183 that none of these chromosomal morphs (1, 9 or 13) can be considered as species-specific. 184 Moreover, heterozygotes for each of these three pairs were found in R. exulans and R. 185 tanezumi (our study, Tab. 2), suggesting that these chromosomal polymorphisms were present 186 in their last common ancestor and are therefore ancestral to the Rattus sensu stricto clade 187 (Yosida et al., 1971a, 1971b; Yosida & Sagai, 1975, Yosida, 1977) and date back ~2.2 My 188 (Robins et al., 2008).

189

190 Leopoldamys edwardsi (Thomas, 1882) and L. neilli (Marshall Jr, 1976)

191

192 The five *L. edwardsi* specimens investigated in this study all display identical karyotypes 193 (Fig. 1) with 2n=42 chromosomes. Most of the autosomes are acrocentric, except for four of the five largest autosomal pairs (pairs 1, 2, 3 and 5 in Fig. 1) which possess short arms, as well as the three smallest ones which are metacentric (pairs 18, 19 and 20). The X is a medium size acrocentric chromosome, whereas the Y is C-positive and dot-like (and most likely acrocentric) element (NFa=54). Clearly observable blocks of C-positive heterochromatin were detected in several pericentromeric and telomeric regions, as well as in an intercalary position on one of the largest pairs (Fig. 1b; pair 2 on Fig. 1a).

200

Although *L. edwardsi* (from an unknown locality) was recently proposed to have 2n=44 chromosomes (Sablina *et al.*, unpubl., quoted in the "Atlas of Mammalian Chromosomes", ed. S.J. O'Brien *et al.*, 2007), our karyotypic results are in agreement with other reports (Yong, 1970; Rickart & Musser, 1993, and references therein). However, there is also a difference in the morphology of the Y chromosomes: the Y identified by Yong (1970) is a normal sized acrocentric, while our Y clearly appears as a dot like element (Fig 1b), suggesting there may be more fundamental differences underlying these observations.

208

A single *Leopoldamys* female trapped in the vicinity of limestone karsts was referred to as *L. neilli* on the basis of morphology as well as unambiguous molecular results (Pagès *et al.*, in prep.). Even though our preparation was of poor quality (data not shown), making G-banding analysis problematic, the specimen unambiguously displayed 2n=44 chromosomes, with two large submetacentric and two small metacentric pairs (NF=52). These findings are in good agreement with previous reports (NF=52 in Marshall, 1977) but differ from the NF=50 noted by Rickart & Musser (1983).

216

217 It would appear, therefore, that the two *Leopoldamys* species can be distinguished by 218 karyotypes: *L. edwardsi* with 2n=42/NF=56 and *L. neilli* with 2n=44/NF=52. A third species, *L. sabanus*, which is morphologically similar to *L. edwardsi*, has also been described from
Thailand (Wilson & Reeder, 2005). The *L. sabanus* karyotype differs slightly from that of *L. edwardsi* since Marshall (1977) recorded a 2n=42/NF=54 complement for this species.
Unfortunately, no material was available to us to address the delimitation of the *L. edwardsi* / *L. sabanus* species. However, we anticipate that karyotypic differences between these two
taxa are subtle, therefore unreliable for diagnostic purposes.

225

226 Niviventer fulvescens

227

Taxonomy within *Niviventer* is in need of revision (Wilson & Reeder, 2005). The results of our preliminary molecular (Pagès *et al.*, in prep.) and morphological (Chaval, unpubl.) investigations are concordant and show that the three specimens analysed karyotypically by us form a natural grouping and are referred to herein as *N. fulvescens* (Pagès *et al.*, in prep.).

232 Of these three specimens, a male was used to establish a fibroblast culture but the resulting lines appear to have undergone de novo rearrangement in culture. Nonetheless, the rearranged 233 234 karyotype corresponds relatively well to the bone marrow karyotypes of the other two 235 specimens which were both characterized by 2n=46 (NFa=52; Fig. 2). All chromosomes are 236 acrocentric except for the submetacentric pair 2, as well as the three of the shortest autosomal 237 pairs which are metacentric. The X is a large acrocentric chromosome, and the Y is a tiny 238 acrocentric element which is entirely C-positive (data not shown). As far as we know, the G-239 banding karyotype of *N. fulvescens* (Fig. 2) is presented here for the first time.

240

There are few published karyotype reports on subspecies/species of *Niviventer* and these are
limited to using conventional staining, the only exception being Wang *et al.* (2003) on *N. confucianus*. Except for tiny differences in centromeric placement, *N. rapit, N. bukit, N.*

244 hinpoon (Yong, 1969; Markvong et al., 1973; Marshall, 1977), N. langbianis (Baskevich & 245 Kuznetsov, 2000), N. fulvescens (Duncan et al., 1970, 1974) and N. cremoriventer (Yong, 246 1969) are all invariant and closely resemble the cytotype that we present here for N. fulvescens. It is important to note that N. rapit and N. bukit from Thailand have since then 247 248 been collapsed into N. fulvescens (see Musser, 1981; Abe, 1983). The cytogenetic criteria 249 proposed to discriminate all these Niviventer species are based on subtle shape differences of 250 some pairs (see Table 2 in Wang et al., 2003) which are most probably due to variation in 251 heterochromatin, as observed between N. tenaster, N. fulvescens and N. langbianis (all from 252 Vietnam) following C-banding protocols (Baskevich & Kuznetsov, 2000). Although we 253 cannot state with certainty, it is highly probable that karyotypic variations within the genus 254 will be too obscure to provide reliable cytotaxonomic identification.

255

256 Maxomys surifer (Miller, 1900)

257

258 Five males and one female of *M. surifer* were analysed and the G-banded karyotype is 259 presented for the first time (Fig. 3). All specimens displayed 2n=52, with seven metacentric 260 (pairs 4, 5 and 14 in Fig. 3) or submetacentric (pairs 10, 12, 18 and 24) chromosomal pairs 261 (NF=66). The Y chromosome is the smallest element, is entirely heterochromatic (Fig. 3b), 262 and appears acrocentric in morphology. This is in agreement with available data for *M. surifer* 263 from South East Asia (see Rickart & Musser, 1993, and references therein) including 264 Thailand (Marshall, 1977). However, some differences exist between these studies and the 265 results of the present report especially with respect to the identification of the X chromosome. 266 The X was described as a metacentric in specimens collected from localities in Thailand 267 (Marshall, 1977), Vietnam and Malaysia (see Rickart & Musser, 1993, and references 268 therein), resulting in 2n=52/NFa=62. In sharp contrast, the X chromosome is one of the 269 largest chromosomal elements in specimens analysed by us, and is clearly acrocentric. Zoo-270 FISH analysis using a *R. norvegicus* X painting probe (Badenhorst *et al.*, unpubl.) allowed us 271 to confirm this result. Our *M. surifer* specimens are consequently characterized by NFa=64, 272 and not NFa=62. When one considers our findings on the morphology of the X chromosome, 273 the difference in NFa (NFa=62 vs 64) may be due to (i) a misidentification of the X in the 274 past, (ii) a polymorphism that would involve the X chromosome, or (iii) the co-existence of 275 different but cryptic Maxomys species that differ in the morphology of the X chromosome. 276 Further sampling and karyotyping will be required to address this point.

277

278 Berylmys berdmorei (Anderson, 1879) and B. bowersi (Blyth, 1851)

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280 A single B. berdmorei female, as well as one male and one female of B. bowersi were 281 karyotyped. All three specimens had 2n=40. The karyotype comprised two large (pairs 1 and 282 2 in Fig. 4 and 5), four medium-size (pairs 5, 6, 9 and 11) and one small submetacentric pairs 283 (pair 18), one large (pair 3), five medium-size (pairs 12-16) and one small metacentric pair 284 (pair 17), and three medium-size (pairs 4, 7, 8 and 10) and one short acrocentric (pair 19) 285 pairs of chromosomes (NFa=64; see Fig. 4 and 5). The X is a medium-size acrocentric 286 chromosome and the *B. bowersi* Y is a small acrocentric element. Our results are in good 287 agreement with previous reports (reviewed in Marshall and Newcomb, 1983) that suggested 288 2n=40 and NFa=64 for both species. An additional female *B. berdmorei* specimen was found 289 to have 2n=41 due to the presence of an extra C-negative metacentric element that did not 290 match with any of the other elements of the karyotype using G-banding comparison (Fig. 4) 291 suggesting that this may be a B-chromosome. To our knowledge, this is the first report of B-292 chromosomes in this genus.

294 Our results show some differences to those of Yong (1968) and Yosida (1973) who identified 295 six pairs of acrocentric, eight pairs of metacentric and five pairs of subtelocentric autosomes; 296 they also show a medium sized acrocentric X chromosome and a small acrocentric Y in 297 specimens of B. bowersi. This mirrors other conflicting reports regarding the B. berdmorei 298 karyotype. Marshall (1977) described six telocentric, six subtelocentric and seven metacentric 299 pairs of autosomes in *B. bowersi* from Thailand, whereas Yong (1968) recorded eight pairs of 300 metacentrics, nine pairs of subtelocentrics, two pairs of acrocentric autosomes and a medium 301 sized subtelocentric X in specimens from Malaysia. Conversely, Markvong et al. (1973) and 302 Duncan et al. (1970) identified five pairs of subtelocentrics, eight pairs of metacentrics and 303 six pairs of acrocentrics in this species in Thailand and Vietnam. The X and Y chromosomes 304 of B. bowersi described by Yong (1968) and Yosida (1973) are comparable to our own. 305 Conversely the *B. berdmorei* X has previously been reported as subtelocentric (Yong, 1968), 306 while our specimens clearly possessed an acrocentric X, in agreement with both Duncan et al. 307 (1970) and Markvong et al. (1973). Furthermore, we were unable to retrieve the two species-308 specific differences that were proposed to differentiate the karyotypes, i.e. a subtelocentric vs. 309 acrocentric pair 6, and an acrocentric vs. subtelocentric pair 11 in B. berdmorei and B. 310 bowersi, respectively (see Marshall, 1977). Given that our C-banding data show the presence 311 of several C-positive short arms (Fig. 4 and 5) which may be responsible for variations in 312 chromosome morphology (i.e., the interpretation of acrocentric vs. subtelocentric), it seems 313 prudent to conclude that the two *Berylmys* species cannot be distinguished cytogenetically 314 with any confidence.

315

316 Bandicota indica (Bechtein, 1800) and B. savilei Thomas, 1916

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Eight bandicoot-rats, including two *B. indica* (one male, one female) and six *B. savilei* (four
males, two females) specimens were karyotyped.

320

321 The *B. indica* specimens were characterized by 2n=44 and 45, respectively (data not shown). 322 Unfortunately, well resolved G- and C-banded chromosomes could not be produced due to the 323 poor quality of our preparations. That said, the 2n=45 male clearly possessed 26 bi-armed 324 chromosomes (NF=71) including a moderately large submetacentric X. The rest of the 325 karyotype was composed of acrocentric elements, most probably including the Y (which 326 would result in NFa=68) although its unambiguous identification was not possible from our 327 preparations. The 2n=44 female was characterized by the same karyotypic morphology, 328 except that it possessed one more acrocentric but one less bi-armed chromosome (data not 329 shown). Although the difference between the 2n=44 and 2n=45 karyotypes may suggest a 330 Robertsonian polymorphism in B. indica, based on our data we are unable to reach a 331 definitive conclusion. Consequently, other explanations (e.g., X-autosome translocations, B 332 chromosomes) cannot be excluded at this stage. For example, B. indica has been previously 333 reported to contain 1-3 B chromosomes (Gadi et al., 1982; Gadi & Sharma, 1983). 334 Importantly, however, our results are slightly different to those previously published for this 335 species collected from Thailand (2n=46; Markvong et al., 1973; Marshall, 1977), but are 336 consistent with data on specimens from India (2n=42 for *B. indica indica*, and 2n=44 for *B.* 337 indica nemorivaga; Ranjini, 1967; Avirachan et al., 1971; Gadi and Raman, 1977; Gadi & 338 Sharma, 1983). When taken together, the variation in 2n suggests a more complex systematic 339 situation than currently thought within B. indica, and/or that there is a chromosomal 340 polymorphism that remains to be described.

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342 Three males and two females of *B. savilei* were characterised by 2n=43 (Fig. 6). The diploid 343 number of an additional male specimen was determined to be 2n=45. Unfortunately, as for B. 344 indica, our preparations were of very poor quality thus greatly limiting the description of 345 these karyotypes and our interpretation of their differences. The fundamental number could 346 not be determined confidently from these five specimens. Nevertheless, we were able to 347 establish a cell line for one female allowing for a more detailed investigation of the *B. savilei* 348 karyotype. This specimen had 2n=43 comprising 23 meta- and submetacentric elements 349 (NF=64; Fig. 6). Among the bi-armed chromosomes two correspond to the large metacentric 350 X pair (as confirmed by Zoo-FISH using a Rattus norvegicus X paint; Badenhorst et al., 351 unpubl.), and one was a B chromosome (Fig. 6a). C-banding showed that the X long arms as 352 well as several acrocentric and metacentric centromeric regions were C-positive (Fig. 6b). 353 More surprisingly, the B-chromosome did not appear strongly stained following C-band (Fig. 354 6b). We are not aware of previous reports of B-chromosomes in B. savilei.

355

356 The karyotype described above differs from previous reports for specimens of this species 357 collected in Thailand (2n=44, NFa=58; Markvong et al., 1973). Markvong et al., (1973) 358 described a karyotype consisting of six pairs of small metacentrics and two pairs of 359 subtelocentrics and thirteen pairs of acrocentrics. Also, the largest autosomal pair was clearly 360 submetacentric. Furthermore, the X of B. savilei was previously identified as a medium-sized 361 acrocentric which differentiates it from other lesser bandicoot rats (Markvong et al., 1973; 362 Gadi & Sharma, 1983). In absence of comparable data, we are unable to explain such 363 differences. However, in our specimen the X was identified unambiguously by Zoo-FISH 364 analysis (Badenhorst et al., unpubl.) as a large submetacentric chromosome. Therefore, males of B. savilei should have a 2n=43+1B karyotype (i.e., XY1Y2 males). Clearly, this requires 365 366 confirmation by further cytogenetic investigations.

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368 Hapalomys delacouri Thomas, 1927

369

370 A fibroblast cell culture was established from a male H. delacouri specimen caught in the 371 vicinity of Loei, and our data are the first for this species from Thailand. Its karyotype was 372 characterized by 2n=48 chromosomes and an NFa=92 (Fig. 7). All the autosomes were bi-373 armed (metacentric or submetacentric). The metacentric X and the acrocentric Y were easily 374 recognizable since they were respectively the largest and the smallest elements in the 375 karyotype. Our findings differ significantly from published data on H. longicaudatus (Yong et 376 al., 1982) in that these authors describe specimens from Malaysia as having 2n=50, with the 377 X and Y chromosomes having similar morphology; all the autosomes were reported as 378 acrocentric. This suggests that cytotaxonomy may be a valuable diagnostic tool within the 379 genus. Our results constitute the first karyotypic data for this very poorly documented species. 380 Interestingly, two classes of C-positive material were identified on staining intensity 381 suggesting a different repeat composition for this heterochromatic material (Fig. 7b). The 382 genome appears to be particularly rich in heterochromatin, with some chromosome pairs 383 displaying entirely heterochromatic long arms.

384

385 Chiropodomys gliroides (Blyth, 1856)

386

A fibroblast cell culture was established from a male *C. gliroides* specimen that possessed an entirely acrocentric chromosomal complement (2n=42, NF=42), including the X and Y chromosomes (NFa=40). Unfortunately, the preparations were of poor quality and construction of a G-banded karyotype was not possible. Nevertheless, strongly positive Cbands could be clearly observed in all pericentromeric regions, whereas the Y chromosome 392 was entirely heterochromatic, although less heteropycnotic that the pericentromeric material 393 of the autosomes (Fig. 8). These results are in partial agreement with previous data 394 concerning this very poorly documented species. Yong (1973, 1983) reported that eight 395 Malayan specimens were characterized by 2n=42 with most chromosomes being acrocentric 396 in morphology with C-positive pericentromeric regions (Yong, 1983). Additionally there was 397 one metacentric chromosome pair, a submetacentric chromosome pair, and the sex 398 chromosomes were bi-armed. These bi-armed elements were all clearly absent in our single 399 specimen of this species (Fig. 8). At this point, we cannot distinguish whether the differences 400 are intraspecific (i.e. represent polymorphisms), or that they underpin the recognition of 401 apparently cryptic species within C. gliroides.

402

403 Mus caroli (Bonhote, 1902), M. cervicolor Hodgson, 1845 and M. cookii Ryley, 1914

404

405 Seven male and seven female mice, trapped close to or within pineapple fields in Loei, were 406 characterized by an identical 2n=40 acrocentric karyotype (NFa=38). The karyotypes of the 407 Thailand species M. musculus castaneus, M. caroli, M. cervicolor, M. cookii, M. shortridgei 408 and M. fragilicauda (see Auffray et al., 2003, and references therein) all have the same 409 invariant karyotype (Auffray et al., 2003) indistinguishable from that evidenced by our 410 specimens. Molecular typing using rDNA16S and rDNA28S nucleotide sequences of the 14 411 specimens analysed by us allowed the identification of three different species in our sample, 412 M. caroli, M. cervicolor and M. cookii (A. Orth, pers. comm.). Several of these animals were 413 caught in the same trap lines, often only meters apart, thus representing another report of true 414 syntopy as has been similarly suggested for *M. caroli*, *M. cervicolor* and *M. fragilicauda* in 415 Thailand (Auffray et al., 2003).

417 In addition, two female specimens, identified as *M. cookii* on nucleotide sequences (A. Orth, 418 pers. comm.), had 2n=41 chromosomes (Fig. 8). The two karyotypes each comprised 40 419 acrocentric chromosomes, in addition to one unpaired medium-size metacentric and one 420 unpaired acrocentric element respectively. These two unpaired chromosomes are G-negative 421 (not shown) and C-positive (Fig. 8b) and are considered by us to be B-chromosomes. To our 422 knowledge, this is the first report of B-chromosomes in the genus Mus. Although several 423 hypotheses have been proposed to explain some aspects of the biology of these extra, non-424 Mendelian chromosomes (reviewed in Camacho et al., 2000), little is known about their 425 origin and their impact on the genomes, especially in mammals. Keeping in mind the 426 importance of the mouse as a biological model, this observation clearly merits further 427 investigation.

428

429 Conclusion: chromosomal evolution in Thai rodents and epidemiological implications430

431 Despite a central role as reservoirs and/or vectors of several human diseases, reliable 432 systematic data necessary to underpin accurate species-specific geographical, ecological and 433 genetic information on Asian rodents are limited, and many taxonomic associations are 434 unclear. Cytotaxonomy has been of great help in similar epidemiological investigations on 435 other continents i.e., Africa), frequently providing unambiguous identification of species 436 including those that are morphologically cryptic (e.g., Duplantier et al., 1990; Volobouev et 437 al., 2002; Dobigny et al., 2003; Granjon & Dobigny, 2003; Rambau et al., 2003; Veyrunes et 438 al., 2004). However, apart from Hapalomys, the preliminary results presented here suggest 439 that this does not hold for the Asian species surveyed in our study. Although most genera can 440 routinely be discriminated on karyotype (as they often can on morphology), few species-441 specific chromosomal characters could be identified within genera investigated herein. For

442 instance, although L. neilli and L. edwardsi could be delimited cytogenetically, the two 443 Bervlmys, three Mus, three Rattus species analysed by us are indistinguishable on karyotype. 444 Although it remains to be confirmed, a similar situation may exist within Niviventer, as well 445 as between L. edwardsi and L. sabanus. Karyotypic criteria that have previously been claimed 446 to be diagnostic appear in our analyses to simply represent ancestral polymorphisms that are still undergoing idiosyncratic lineage sorting (i.e., hemiplasic characters sensu Avise & 447 448 Robinson, 2008; Robinson et al., 2008), thus impacting on the usefulness of these as 449 diagnostic markers in species identification. Our findings suggest that new diagnostic features 450 should be sought as a matter of urgency for use in these epidemiologically important rodent 451 groups. DNA-based methods such as primer-specific analysis that have been used 452 successfully in Africa (e.g., Lecompte et al., 2005) and Europe (e.g., Michaux et al., 2001) 453 are compelling candidates that should be prioritised for testing in Asian murids.

454

455

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605 Table and Figure Legends

606

607 Table 1: Specimens investigated in the present study. Those that were diagnosed using DNA sequencing are noted as "+" in the Id. DNA column. Individual numbers refer to the CBGP 608 609 Asian rodent collection (resp. Y. Chaval, Montpellier, France). Sex, origin, diploid (2n) and 610 autosomal fundamental (NFa) numbers, type of biological material (bm: bone marrow; cc: 611 cell culture), sex chromosomes morphology (X/Y) as well as number of B-chromosomes (Bs) 612 are provided for each animal. 613 614 Table 2: Chromosomal polymorphism observed for pairs 1, 9 and 13 (sensu Yosida and 615 colleagues; see text for details) in the Rattus specimens investigated here. M and A 616 correspond to meta-/submetacentric and acrocentric morphs, respectively. Like for Table 1, 617 individual numbers refer to the CBGP Asian rodent collection (resp. Y. Chaval, Montpellier, 618 France). 619 620 Fig. 1: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a male Leopolodamys 621 edwardsi (n°R5239). Arrows indicate C-positive intercalary bands and minute Y. 622 623 Fig. 2: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a female Niviventer fulvescens 624 (n°R4519). 625 626 Fig. 3: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a male Maxomys surifer 627 (n°R4404). The arrow indicates the C-positive Y chromosome.

- Fig. 4: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a female *Berylmys berdmorei*(n°R4406).
- 631
- Fig. 5: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a male *Berylmys bowersi*(n°R4400). The arrow indicates the C-positive Y chromosome.
- 634
- Fig. 6: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a female *Bandicota savilei*(n°R4408). Arrows indicate the X chromosomes.
- 637
- 638 Fig. 7: G-banded karyotype (a) and C-banded metaphase (b) of a male Hapalomys delacouri
- 639 (n°R5237). The arrow indicates the C-negative Y chromosome.
- 640
- 641 Fig. 8: C-banded metaphase of a male *Chiropodomys gliroides* (n°R5238).
- 642
- 643 Fig. 9: Conventionally stained (a) and C-banded (b) metaphases of one female Mus cooki
- 644 (n°R4105) showing the strongly C-positive and metacentric B-chromosome (arrows).
- 645

646 Table 1

Species	Id.	Individuals		Cytogenetics					
	DNA	individual	sex	origin	material	2N	X/Y	NFa	Bs
Menetes berdmorei	-	R4002	F	Kalasin	bm	38		72	
Rattus losea	+	R4203	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	58	
	+	R4229	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	58	
	+	R4230	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	57	
	+	R4260	F	Loei	bm	42	А	58	
	+	R4724	F	Loei	cc	42	А	56	
Rattus tanezumi	+	R4113	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	54	
	+	R4481	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	55	
	+	R4003	F	Kalasin	bm	42	А	57	
	-	R4008	М	Kalasin	bm	42	A/A	55	
	+	R4016	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	52	
	-	R4096	F	Loei	bm	42	А	52	
	-	R4145	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	54	
	+	R4182	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	56	
	+	R4436	М	Phrae	bm	43	A/A	59?	1
	-	R4447	М	Phrae	bm	42	A/A	55	
	-	R4450	М	Phrae	bm	42	A/A	56	
	-	R4542	F	Loei	bm	42	А	56	
	+	R4075	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	57	
Rattus exulans	-	R4033	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	58	
	-	R4035	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	59	
	-	R4100	F	Loei	bm	42	А	59	
	+	R4103	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	58	
	-	R4104	М	Loei	bm	42	?	?	
	-	R4112	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	54	
	+	R4140	F	Phrae	bm	42	А	?	
	-	R4216	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	58	
Bandicota indica	+	R4000	М	Kalasin	bm	45	?/?	?	
	+	R4265	F	Loei	bm	44	?	?	
Bandicota savilei	+	R4141	М	Phrae	bm	43	?/?	?	
	+	R4142	М	Phrae	bm	43	?/?	?	
	+	R4143	М	Phrae	bm	45	?/?	?	
	+	R4017	F	Phrae	bm	43	?	?	
	+	R4408	F	Loei	cc	43	SM	60	1
	+	R4021	М	Phrae	bm	43	?/?	?	
Leopoldamys edwardsi	+	R5239	М	Loei	cc	42	A/A	54	
	+	R5240	М	Loei	cc	42	A/A	54	
	+	R4070	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	54	
	+	R4098	М	Loei	bm	42	A/A	54	

	+	R4222	F	Loei	hm	42	Δ	54	
	,	R4222	1	Loci	UIII	72	11	54	
Leopoldamys neilli	+	R4477	F	Phrae	bm	44	A?	50	
Maxomys surifer	+	R4099	М	Loei	bm	52	A/A	64	
	+	R4107	М	Loei	bm	52	A/A	64	
	+	R4108	М	Loei	bm	52	A/A	64	
	+	R4223	М	Loei	bm	52	A/A	64	
	+	R4259	F	Loei	bm	52	А	64	
	+	R4404	М	Loei	сс	52	A/A	64	
Niviventer fulvescens	+	R4071	М	Loei	bm	46	A/A	52	
-	+	R4409	М	Loei	сс	44 (rearr.)			
	+	R4519	F	Loei	bm	46	А	52	
Rervlmvs herdmorei	+	R4266	F	Loei	hm	40	Δ	62	
Der ytings ber amorei	+	R4406	F	Loei	60	41	Δ	64	1
		14400	1	Loci		71	11	04	1
Berylmys bowersi	+	R4102	F	Loei	bm	40	А	62	
	+	R4400	М	Loei	сс	40	A/A	62	
Hapalomys delacouri	+	R5237	М	Loei	сс	48	M/A	92	
Chiropodomys gliroides	+	R5238	М	Loei	сс	42	A/A	40	
Mus cooki	+	R4074	М	Loei	bm	40	A/A	38	
	+	R4105	F	Loei	bm	41	А	40	1
	+	R4215	М	Loei	bm	40	A/A	38	
	+	R4097	М	Loei	bm	40	A/A	38	
	+	R4101	F	Loei	bm	40	А	38	
	+	R4106	М	Loei	bm	40	A/A	38	
	+	R4110	М	Loei	bm	40	A/A	38	
	+	R4111	F	Loei	bm	40	А	38	
	+	R4146	F	Phrae	bm	40	А	38	
	+	R4264	F	Loei	bm	40	А	38	
	+	R4147	F	Phrae	bm	41	А	39	1
Mus corricolor	+	R4100	М	Loei	hm	40	Δ/Λ	38	
	+	R4192	M	Phrae	hm	40	Δ/Λ	38	
	Г	103	141	1 111 ac	UIII	40	A/A	20	
Mus caroli	+	R4240	F	Loei	bm	40	А	38	

651 Table 2

Species	Individuals	Polymorphism in <i>Rattus</i> species					
		pair 1	pair 9	pair 13			
Rattus losea	R4203	MM	MM	AA			
	R4229	MM	MM	AA			
	R4230	MM	MM	AA			
	R4260	MM	MM	AA			
	R4724	MM	AA	AA			
Rattus tanezumi	R4113	AA	AA	AA			
	R4481	AA	AM	AA			
	R4003	AM	AM	AM			
	R4008	AA	AM	AA			
	R4016	AA	AA	AA			
	R4096	AA	AA	AA			
	R4145	AA	AA	AA			
	R4182	AA	MM	AA			
	R4436	AA	?	?			
	R4447	AM	AA	AA			
	R4450	AM	AM	AA			
	R4542	AA	MM	AA			
	R4075	AM	MM	AA			
Rattus exulans	R4033	MM	MM	AA			
	R4035	MM	MM	AA			
	R4100	MM	MM	AM			
	R4103	MM	MM	AA			
	R4104	?	?	?			
	R4112	MM	AA	AA			
	R4140	?	?	?			
	R4216	MM	AA	MM			

653 Fig. 1

654



658 Fig. 2



660 Fig. 3

661







669 Fig. 5



675

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- 676
- 677
- 678 Fig. 7





- Fig. 9