

Barcoding type specimens helps to identify synonyms and an unnamed new species in Eumunida Smith, 1883 (Decapoda : Eumunididae)

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- Barcoding type-specimens helps to identify synonyms and an unnamed new species in
- *Eumunida* Smith, 1883 (Decapoda, Eumunididae).
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- Running head: Barcoding type-specimens in *Eumunida*

Abstract

 The primary purpose of DNA-barcoding projects is to generate an efficient expertise 24 and identification tool. This is an important challenge to the taxonomy of the $21st$ century, as the demand increases and the expert capacity does not. However, identifying specimens using DNA-barcodes requires a preliminary analysis to relate molecular clusters to available scientific names. Through a case study of the genus *Eumunida* (Decapoda, Eumunididae), we illustrate how naming molecule based units, and thus provide an accurate DNA-based identification tool, is facilitated by sequencing type- specimens. Using both morphological and unlinked molecular markers (COI and 28S genes), we analyzed 230 specimens from 12 geographic areas, covering two thirds of the known diversity of the genus, including type-specimens of 13 species. Most hypotheses of species delimitation are validated, as they correspond to molecular units linked to only one taxonomic name (and vice-versa). However, a putative cryptic species is also revealed and three entities previously named as distinct species may in fact belong to a single one, and thus need to be synonymised. Our analyses, which integrate the current naming rules, enhance the alpha-taxonomy of the genus and provide an effective identification tool based on DNA-barcodes. They illustrate the ability of DNA-barcode, especially when type-specimens are included, to pinpoint where a taxonomic revision is needed.

Introduction

 When describing a new species, the taxonomists provide a species name and designate one (or several) type-specimens to which this name is permanently attached. A species name allows us to designate a testable species hypothesis, and the type-specimens provide the link with the name of this hypothesis. Designating species hypotheses by species names allows anyone to associate newly examined specimens to already proposed species hypotheses. However, proposing species hypotheses, species names and species identifications are three distinct tasks that should not be confused (Dayrat 2006). They can be distinguished as follows: (i) the scientific task consists of proposing hypotheses about species boundaries, based on the comparison of characters or on biological criteria; (ii) the naming task deals with assigning names to such species

 hypotheses; and (iii) the identification task is to identify specimens in the light of already named species hypotheses.

 Within this methodological framework, the primary purpose of DNA barcoding projects is not to produce new taxonomic hypotheses and to name them – task one and two – but to facilitate taxonomic identification – the third task – by developing a global standard for the identification of biological species based on molecular data (Hebert and Gregory 2005, Schindel and Miller 2005). However, identifying specimens using only their barcode sequences requires the constitution of a database that includes the sequences and the corresponding specimen data, authoritatively identified using morphological characters. Furthermore, a prior analysis of the molecular diversity of the groups is necessary to confirm (or reject) that DNA barcodes may be used as a diagnostic character for the species at hand, i.e. that intraspecific and interspecific genetic distances are separated by a "barcode gap". In that way, the identification of new specimens using such a DNA library would follow the opinion of the taxonomist that has identified the specimens of the DNA barcode library. Here, two problems need to be addressed. First, a link between DNA-based species hypotheses and already available morphological species hypotheses (and thus species names) needs to be assessed. For example, in the Smith's et al. (2007) study, it was not possible to ascertain the link between genetic clusters and available names with full confidence because no DNA barcode was obtained for the holotype; this uncertainty in the assignation of species names to species hypotheses was indicated by indicating the scientific names in quotation marks. Second, one important by-product of DNA barcoding as an identification tool for taxonomy is the detection of specimens that cannot be attributed to any available species hypothesis, and for which a new hypothesis – and thus a new name – may be proposed (*e.g.* Padial and De La Riva 2007). Once again, the attribution of available species names to genetic clusters is critical to clearly highlight genetic clusters that would deserve a new species name. Thus, because DNA barcodes can be used both to attribute species names to a given specimen and to flag genetic clusters for 81 which no name is available, we should clarify how names are $-$ or should be $-$ given to species hypotheses. This can be achieved by the sequencing of type specimens. Using a case study of the genus *Eumunida* Smith, 1883 (Decapoda,

Chirostyloidea, Eumunididae), we here illustrate the difficulties of this naming task, in

 the context of the development of DNA barcodes as an identification tool. We selected this genus because the description of most species is recent and the conservation of name-bearing specimens in the collections allows us to access to molecular characters. Many species were described using material that has been preserved in 70% ethanol, the samples are housed in the collection of the Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle in Paris, having been collected over a quarter of a century exploration in the South West Pacific area (Bouchet, Héros *et al.* 2008).In this case study we integrate the three tasks of taxonomy. Our specific aims are thus: (i) to test the robustness of recognized species hypotheses and if needed to propose new ones, (ii) to name the revised set of species hypotheses. This way, the efficiency of DNA barcodes as an identification key will also be evaluated. To that end, we gathered mitochondrial and nuclear data for 230 specimens attributed to the genus *Eumunida*, including type specimens, for a large proportion of the described species. We also compared the distribution of morphological characters used in the identification keys over the identified genetic clusters. The inclusion of type specimens in the dataset unambiguously links genetic clusters to taxa names.

Materials and methods

Material and DNA sequencing

 From the collections of the Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris (MNHN) we selected 230 specimens of *Eumunida* from the South West Pacific and Indian Oceans (Table 1). Among them, 9 are holotypes and 24 are paratypes, representing 13 different species. The 197 remaining specimens were morphologically authoritatively identified to the species level and attributed to 17 valid names of eumunid species. Thus, more than half of the species diversity currently recognized in the genus *Eumunida* is represented in our data set (Table 2 and 3). These 17 species hypotheses are represented by 1 to 95 specimens, with an average of 12.05 specimens per species (Table 1). These morphological identifications were used as primary species hypotheses. The morphological characters used in species identification for all the species in the genus were listed and used to build a morphological matrix (Tables 2 and 3).

- 116 DNA was extracted from a piece of muscle tissue using the DNeasy[®] 96 Tissue kit (Qiagen), and specimens were kept as vouchers. Fragments of the Cytochrome Oxydase I (COI) mitochondrial gene and 28S rDNA nuclear gene were amplified using universal primers LCO1490 (5'- GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3') and HCO2198 (5'- TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3') (Folmer, Black *et al.* 1994), and C1' (5'- ACCCGCTGAATTTAAGCAT-3', (Jovelin and Justine 2001) and D2 (5'- TCCGTGTTTCAAGACGG-3', (Dayrat, Tillier *et al.* 2001). All PCR reactions were 124 performed in 25 µl, containing 3 ng of DNA, 1X reaction buffer, 2.5 mM $MgCl₂$, 0.26 mM dNTP, 0.3 µM of each primer, 5% DMSO and 1.5 units of Q-Bio Taq, QBiogene for COI gene and Taq Core Kit 2, QBiogene for 28S rDNA gene. Thermocycles consisted of an initial denaturation step at 94°C for 4', followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30'', annealing at 48°C for COI gene and 56°C for 28S rDNA 129 gene for 40" and extension at 72°C for 1'. The final extension was at 72°C for 10'. 130 Some PCR products were purified using MontageTM PCR Centrifugal Filter Devices 131 (Millipore) and sequenced on a $Ceq2000^{TM}$ automated sequencer (Beckman) – corresponding to GenBank accession numbers AY800009-800046, AY800048, AY800050, AY800051, AY800055-800065 and DQ011181-011220. The other PCR products were purified and sequenced by the Genoscope (GenBank accession numbers EU243337 - EU243562 for COI gene and EU243574 - EU243663 for 28S rDNA gene). In all cases, both directions were sequenced to confirm accuracy of each haplotype sequences.
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Phylogenetic analyses

 Sequences were manually aligned for the COI gene, and the Clustal W algorithm (default parameters) implemented in BioEdit (Hall 1999) was used for alignment of our 28S rDNA sequences. Since all the species analyzed here belong to a single genus, the sequence variability and the number of gaps for the 28S gene were reduced. Consequently, we considered that homology was confidently inferred using Bioedit. The RNAalifold webserver (http://rna.tbi.univie.ac.at/cgi-bin/RNAalifold.cgi) was used to predict a consensus secondary structure for the 28S gene and to identify the loops and stems. Loops generally correspond to variable regions, as opposed to stems, which are

generally more conserved. In consequence, two different models of evolution were used

- for the phylogenetic analyses of the 28S data. Best-fit models of evolution were selected
- for the COI genes and for the loops and stems partitions of the 28S gene using
- Modelgenerator V.85 (Keane, Creevey *et al.* 2006) under the Bayesian Information
- Criterion, with four discrete gamma categories. The best-fit models of evolution are the
- 153 HKY+I+G (with I = 0.6 and α = 0.62) for the COI gene, the TrNef+I+G (I = 0.31, α =

154 0.15) for the 28S gene, the K80+G (α = 0.5) for the loops of the 28S gene and the

155 K80+G (α = 0.25) for the stems of the 28S gene.

 As distances-based methods are classically used in barcode studies, a genetic distance matrix including all sequences was calculated for COI gene under the K2P model and used to reconstruct a Neighbor-Joining (NJ) tree, using MEGA 5 (Tamura, Peterson *et al.* 2011). To accurately reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships within *Eumunida*, a Bayesian Analysis (BA) was also conducted using Mr. Bayes (Huelsenbeck, Ronquist *et al.* 2001); it consisted in two independent analyses (six Markov chains, 30,000,000 generations, with a sampling frequency of one tree each 5,000 generations). One different model (each with 6 substitution categories, a gamma- distributed rate variation across sites approximated in four discrete categories and a proportion of invariable sites) was applied for each partition (COI, 28S loops and 28S stems). Convergence of each analysis was evaluated using Tracer 1.4.1 (Rambaut and Drummond 2007), and analyses were terminated when ESS values were all greater than 200. We also used the AWTY application (a system for graphical exploration of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) convergence in Bayesian phylogenetic inference) for each run (two runs for the COI genes and two for the 28S gene): the cumulative split frequencies were stable after the burnin phase, the split frequencies in run pairs ("compare" analysis) were strongly correlated and the between-run distance was included in the range of the within run distances for more than half of the generations ("var" analysis). A consensus tree was then calculated after omitting the first 25% trees as burn-in. For both genes, we used *Munida acantha* (Macpherson, 1994) as outgroup to artificially root the tree (GenBank accession numbers: AY800033 for COI gene and EU249347 for 28S rDNA gene).

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- **Results**

Mitochondrial dataset

 We obtained 226 COI sequences of 658 bp in length with 219 polymorphic sites corresponding mostly to the first (47) and third codon position (164). This dataset is available in the BOLD project "Eumunida barcodes and taxonomy" under the accession numbers EUMU001-07 to EUMU226-07. The maximum K2P distance between pairs of COI sequences of the *Eumunida* genus is 0.158, with a minimum of 0 and a mean of 0.079 (Fig. 1A). The histogram representing all the distances between types and non- types specimens defines two groups (Fig. 1A): the first, with an upper boundaries of 0.033, includes all the distances between two type-specimens of one species, but also distances between the holotype of *E. parva* (de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990) and the type specimens (one holotype and five paratypes) of *E. karubar* (de Saint Laurent & Poupin, 1996); the second, characterized by a lower boundary of 0.043, includes only interspecific comparisons between types. NJ and bayesian phylogenetic trees were highly congurent (only the bayesian tree is shown in Fig. 2A) and revealed 16 terminal genetic units: genetic distances within each cluster are less than 0.033, and COI sequences placed in different genetic units are separated by genetic distances greater than 0.043. Among these 16 genetic units, 13 include several specimens and all are highly supported (Posterior Probabilities PP=1), and 10 contain 1 or several type specimens.

Nuclear dataset

 The 28S rDNA gene was much more difficult to sequence especially for older museum specimens and less specimens were sequenced compared to the CO1 dataset as a consequence. We obtained 89 sequences of 867 bp. Two groups of K2P distances are separated by a gap on the genetic distances histogram (Fig. 1B). The short-distance group has an upper bound of 0.001 and the long-distance group has a lower bound of 0.018. For each pair of specimens, a genetic distance less than 0.001 for this dataset corresponds to a genetic distance less than 0.033 with the COI gene. Conversely, when the genetic distance between two 28S rDNA sequences is greater than 0.018, the genetic distance between COI sequences corresponding to the same specimens is greater than 0.043. The intraspecific distances between type specimens fall in the short-distance

group whereas interspecific distances between type specimens fall in the long-distance

- group. The 28S dataset reveals the same monophyletic lineages than the COI dataset:
- among the 16 lineages defined with the COI gene, seven correspond with clusters
- identified by the 28S gene (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, one additional lineage, not
- sequenced with the COI gene, is defined with the 28S gene. The deeper nodes of the 28S
- tree are not as well resolved as the CO1 tree but the terminals are highly supported in all
- cases.
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Genetic units and species names

 Based on separate analyses of the two molecular data sets we are able to define 17 genetically distinct units (Fig. 2) that may be considered as species hypotheses. Eleven of these units include at least one sequence of one type specimen (holotype and/or paratypes) for at least one of the two genes, and can be directly linked to a species name. Types were included for *E. annulosa* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990, *E. bispinata* Baba, 1990, *E. keiji* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990, *E. marginata* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990, *E. minor* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990, *E. multilineata* de Saint Laurent & Poupin, 1996, *E. similior* Baba, 1990, *E. spinosa* Macpherson, 2006, *E. squamifera* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990, *E. sternomaculata* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990 and *E. treguieri* de Saint Laurent & Poupin, 1996. Four other genetic units do not include type specimens but are based on morphological identification key: *E. capillata* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990, *E. funambulus* Gordon, 1930, *E. laevimana* Gordon, 1930 and *E. picta* Smith, 1883. The name "*E. annulosa*" is attributed to two clades, one including the holotype. Since the specimens of the genetic unit without the holotype look like those from *E. annulosa* but are not closely related to *E. annulosa* (Fig. 2A and B), and in accordance with the Code of Zoological Nomenclature, we named this genetic group *E. aff. annulosa*. Finally, the remaining genetic unit unites specimens morphologically assigned to three different species (*E. karubar* de Saint Laurent & Poupin, 1996, *E. parva* de Saint Laurent & Macpherson, 1990 and *E. smithii* Henderson, 1885). For the COI dataset, the holotype of *E. parva,* five paratypes of *E. karubar* and the holotype of *E. karubar* are included within the same genetic unit (Fig. 2C). Genetic distances between sequences of paratypes and/or holotypes falling into this well supported clade are lower than between other paratypes of a single species name placed in a single clade (e.g. the two paratypes

of *E. bispinata*).

Discussion

The barcoding gap

 In our analysis, the distribution pattern of genetic distances for the two gene fragments used allows us to cluster genetically similar individuals that are separated from each other by relatively large distances. In the bimodal distribution of distances, the lower bound of the first mode – small distances – and the upper bound of the second mode – large distances (Meier, Zhang *et al.* 2008) are reliably estimated thanks to the larger number of specimens analyzed, allowing to assert that the observed gap is not an artifact resulting from a sampling bias. We are fully aware, like others (*e.g.* Meyer and Paulay 2005, Costa, deWaard *et al.* 2007, Hajibabaei, Singer *et al.* 2007, Wiemers and Fiedler 2007, Meier, Zhang *et al.* 2008), of the importance of the sampling scheme to interpret a gap in the distribution of the pairwise genetic distances, but insist that the originality of our dataset is the inclusion of type specimens. Interestingly, all the genetic distances between the paratypes of a given name fall in the first mode whereas genetic distances among the holotypes (and the paratypes from different names) fall into the second mode (except for the type specimens of *E. karubar* and *E. parva*), suggesting that the gap may be used in a first approach as a species threshold.

Concordance of most genetic units with primary species hypotheses

 Inclusion of a closely related outgroup in the analysis shows that each of the 17 defined genetic units has it own evolutionary history. Moreover, the two gene trees obtained with our two unlinked genetic markers are in concordance. This concordance suggests that genetic exchanges among individuals from different clades are unlikely. A previous study has shown that in two of these genetic units, gene flow occurs between populations over the geographic range of each species but not between species (Samadi, Bottan *et al.* 2006). These 17 genetic units can thus be considered robust species hypotheses.

 Among them, 15 units cluster specimens attributed, to a unique species and a single name using the morphological identification key,. Ten of these fifteen species

 clusters include also type specimens. These 15 clusters are therefore delimited unambiguously, even though inclusion of type specimens in such genetic units is the only way to unambiguously attribute species names to them ; but even though five units 279 do not include the type specimen for the name attributed from the key, we can define 15 primary species hypotheses as the best ones given the available data to date. However, our result is not fully congruent with previous species hypotheses of which four are questioned by the molecular analysis. Indeed our data suggest (i) occurrence of a cryptic 283 species – *i.e.* not yet identified using morphology – that needs a new name because no type specimen can be attributed to the corresponding cluster and (ii) the grouping of three previously admitted species hypotheses into one, and thus the synonymy of three available species names.

A cryptic species under the name **E. annulosa**

 The genetic divergence found between *E. annulosa* and *E. aff. annulosa* largely exceeds the average divergence found not only within the other species hypotheses of our data set, but also within other galatheoid species (Machordom and Macpherson 2004). Since one of the two clades includes the holotype of *E. annulosa*, the other clade (*E. aff. annulosa*), not yet detected by morphologists, should indisputably be described under a new name (Fig. 2A & 2B). Although this clade is more closely related to *E. treguieri* in the tree, morphological characters differ slightly only from those of *E. annulosa* or *E. sternomaculata*. On the basis of morphological characters, these two species are distinguished by the relative length of the first pair of anterolateral spines, longer in *E. sternomaculata* than in *E. annulosa*, the presence of two (*E. annulosa*) or three (*E. sternomaculata*) distal spines on the carpus of the chelipeds, and the posterior part of abdominal tergites, after last stria, more smooth in *E. annulosa* than in *E. sternomaculata* (Table 3, characters 6, 9 and 10). The larger specimens of *E. aff. annulosa* display, for these two characters, intermediate states: the relative size of the first anterolateral spine is intermediate between that described for *E. annulosa* and that 304 described for *E. sternomaculata* and a $3rd$ distal spine is present on the cheliped carpus, but generally is very small. However, these morphological characters, on which this new species may be diagnosed, are difficult to observe on small specimens and thus useful only for adult specimens identification. Since the two species are morphological

 "sibling species", as defined in Bickford et al. (Bickford, Lohman *et al.* 2007). This result stresses the importance of molecular analyses to detect such "cryptic species" not only within this genus, but also in others crustacean decapods (see the review by Knowlton 2000 and Bickford, Lohman *et al.* 2007). Contrary to most studies, that provide (at best) molecular data for name bearing specimens of new species names (*e.g.* Shih, Naruse *et al.* 2010, Ahyong, Chan *et al.* 2010), the inclusion of many name- bearing specimens into the analysis points to the necessity of a new name for this "cryptic species". For such cryptic taxa, the DNA barcode is obviously a more effective

very close but do not display sister relationships, they are "cryptic species", and not

- identification tool than a morphological identification key, being informative at all the
- life stages and thus having broader applications (*e.g.* De Ley, Tandingam De Ley *et al.*
- 2005, Savolainen, Cowan *et al.* 2005, Vences, Thomas *et al.* 2005).
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Synonymy of **E. karubar***,* **E. parva** *and* **E. smithii**

 Our analysis also suggests that three named species hypotheses (*E. karubar*, *E. parva*, *E. smithii*) should actually be merged into a single species hypothesis. When using a morphological identification key, the specimens attributed to one of these three species names, including the five paratypes, the holotype of *E. karubar* and the holotype of *E. parva*, are scattered among the different sub-clades without displaying any obvious significant pattern (Fig. 2C and 2D).

 The morphological distinction among *E. parva*, *E. karubar* and *E. smithii* is based on the occurrence (*E. smithii* and *E. karubar*) or absence (*E. parva*) of ventral spines on the merus of the chelipeds and on the presence (*E. smithii* and *E. karubar*) or absence (*E. parva*) of some ventromesial spines on the palm of the chelipeds (Table 3, characters 8 and 14). The distinction among these species is also based on the length of the ocular peduncles, shorter in *E. smithii* than in *E. karubar* and *E. parva* (Saint Laurent and Poupin 1996). By combining data from morphology, geography, and independent genetic characters, we suggest that the three names are synonymous (this amounts to considering *E. parva* and *E. karubar* as junior synonyms of *E. smithii*). This interpretation may yet be challenged by the molecular analysis of the holotype of *E. smithii*. This was not possible because the type specimens for this name were collected during the Challenger Expedition (1874-1876), are not housed at the MNHN, and tissue was not available for sequencing. In consequence, we used topotypic specimens,

collected from the type locality (Kei Islands, Indonesia). According to our

 interpretation, the morphological differences upon which description of new species hypotheses bearing new species names has been based in the past are the expression of intraspecific variability. This would imply that variability should be used with caution

 as a diagnostic trait at species level in this genus. The alternative hypothesis would be recent speciation events leading to low genetic divergence.

 Therefore, we propose that the genus *Eumunida* contains 28 species (see also Baba, Macpherson *et al.* 2008; Schnabel and Ahyong 2010) including the new cryptic species of *E. annulosa* and considering *E. parva* and *E. karubar* as junior synonyms of *E. smithii*). The diagnosis of *E. smithii* is as follows:

 Diagnosis — Carapace with distinct transverse ridges, laterally armed with 6 spines; 2 spines anterior to posterior cervical groove, anterior spine subequal to posterior spine, about half as long as lateral supraocular spine. No spine on gastric region. Third maxilliped merus with median spine and without distal spine on flexor margin. Sternite 3 with paired median spines; sternite 4 unarmed on each side. Cheliped carpus with 3 terminal spines; palm without ventral pad of densely packed hairs, longer than fingers, relatively massive, covered with short fine setae. Rudimentary pleopods present on abdominal segments 2-5 in males.

Name-bearing specimens integrated into a molecular revision of species hypotheses.

 One of the main problems when revising species hypotheses and identifying specimens in the context of DNA barcoding projects is the naming procedure. An appropriate sampling effort within species, a large taxonomic coverage within the genus, and the inclusion of as many type specimens as possible are necessary when confronting morphological species hypotheses to independent characters (DNA polymorphism) and various species delimitation criteria. In the case of the genus *Eumunida*, it allowed us (i) to support most of the morphology-based primary species hypotheses, (ii) to bring up new hypotheses, and (iii) to point at the necessity of a taxonomic revision. Overall, although we detected two discrepancies between our data and the current state of the taxonomy of the genus *Eumunida*, our results suggest that most morphological traits commonly used in this genus to propose primary species hypotheses stand up when

 other characters are used. By contrast with most studies, the inclusion of name-bearing specimens in the molecular study allows us to correctly assign names to the supported or reformulated species hypotheses and to unquestionably determine whether new names are needed or whether some names should be considered synonyms of older names. This point is particularly critical when cryptic species are detected, *i.e.*, when morphological keys do not help to attribute names to genetic units. Last, even though several *Eumunida* species are missing in this study and should be barcoded in the future, our study shows that the COI gene fragment is an effective tool to attribute species names to specimens, and vice versa, in the genus *Eumunida*, which is the primary purpose of DNA barcoding.

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Table 1: Description of the specimens analysed in this study

Table 2: Description of morphological characters (numbered from 1 to 16).

Table 3: Character state for each *Eumunida* species.

Species for which molecular data were obtained are indicated in bold.

Figure captions

Fig. 1: Histogram of genetic distances for (A) the COI gene and (B) the 28S gene datasets. Black bars: pairs of type-specimens. Grey bars: pairs of non-type-specimens.

Fig. 2: (A). Bayesian tree for COI gene dataset, with posterior probabilities indicated for each node. Clades are collapsed in triangles, with the height representing the number of specimens and the width the length of the branches. *: units including a type specimen; (B) Bayesian tree for the 28S gene dataset; (C) Detail of the COI gene tree for the *E. parva*/*E. karubar*/*E. smithii* clade. (D) Detail of the 28S gene tree for the *E. parva/E. karubar/E. smithii* clade.

K2P genetic distances

