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Convergence of multiple markers and analysis methods define the genetic distinctiveness of cryptic species $\stackrel{\text{\tiny{$\infty$}}}{=}$

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ABSTRACT

Using multiple markers and multiple analytical approaches is critical for establishing species boundaries reliably, especially so in the case of cryptic species. Despite development of new and powerful analytical methods, most studies continue to adopt a few, with the choice often being subjective. One such example is routine analysis of Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP) data using population genetic models despite disparity between method assumptions and data properties. The application of newly developed methods for analyzing this dominant marker may not be entirely clear in the context of species delimitation. In this study, we use AFLPs and mtDNA to investigate cryptic speciation in the Trimeresurus macrops complex that belongs to a taxonomically difficult lineage of Asian pitvipers. We analyze AFLPs using population genetic, phylogenetic, multivariate statistical, and Bayes Factor Delimitation methods. A gene tree from three mtDNA markers provided additional evidence. Our results show that the inferences about species boundaries that can be derived from population genetic analysis of AFLPs have certain limitations. In contrast, four multivariate statistical analyses produced clear clusters that are consistent with each other, as well as with Bayes Factor Delimitation results, and with mtDNA and total evidence phylogenies. Furthermore, our results concur with allopatric distributions and patterns of variation in individual morphological characters previously identified in the three proposed species: T. macrops sensu stricto, T. cardamomensis, and T. rubeus. Our study provides evidence for reproductive isolation and genetic distinctiveness that define these taxa as full species. In addition, we re-emphasize the importance of examining congruence of results from multiple methods of AFLP analysis for inferring species diversity.

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53 1. Introduction

Current efforts to discover and delimit species are usually facil-54 itated by DNA sequence-based evolutionary reconstructions. 55 However, this can be biased by locus-specific evolutionary con-56 straints and genomic non-representation. In the case of recently 57 diverged species, short nuclear sequences are often phylogeneti-58 cally uninformative (e.g. Bardeleben et al., 2005; Weisrock et al., 59 2010). Multilocus markers are therefore highly recommended 60 and offer quantitative advantages and genome-wide coverage 61 (Zhang and Hewitt, 2003; Meyer and Paulay, 2005; Brito and 62 63 Edwards, 2009; Dupuis et al., 2012; Leaché et al., 2014). Routine

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2015.06.001 1055-7903/© 2015 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. phylogenomic analysis is still constrained by issues such as differences in results across methods, the need to integrate evolutionary histories of multiple loci, the lack of guidelines for best practices, and extensive computational requirements (Song et al., 2012; Gatesy and Springer, 2013; Dell'Ampio et al., 2014; Faria et al., 2014; Leaché et al., 2014). Nonetheless, new methods have been developed and high-throughput sequence analysis is gaining popularity in evolutionary and speciation research (Morin et al., 2010; Springer et al., 2012; McCormack et al., 2013; Misof et al., 2014).

Alternatively, the use of non-sequence-based multilocus markers has also increased, often revealing surprisingly clear, fine-scale genetic structure undetected by morphology and sometimes even by mtDNA markers (Brown et al., 2007; Egger et al., 2007; Kingston et al., 2009; Meudt et al., 2009; Milá et al., 2010). Among these, Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP) (Vos et al., 1995) is a time-tested, cost-effective, and powerful technique requiring no sequence knowledge. AFLPs have continued to prove useful for

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resolving species-level taxonomy, recovering patterns of speciation,
evolutionary histories and inter-relationships, inferring population
structure and genetic diversity analyses in a wide-range of animal
species, such as butterflies (Kronforst and Gilbert, 2008; Quek et al.,
2010), cichlids (Albertson et al., 1999), salamanders (Wooten et al.,
2010), lizards (Ogden and Thorpe, 2002), dolphins (Kingston et al.,
2009), and pinnipeds (Dasmahapatra et al., 2009).

88 1.1. Dominant marker analysis

Usually, multilocus markers are analyzed using genetic cluster-89 90 ing and diversity analysis methods. These are implemented in pop-91 ulation genetics models using F-statistics calculations based on allele-frequencies. The uses of these methods with respect to 92 93 co-dominant datasets have been evaluated in both spatial and 94 non-spatial models (Latch et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2007; Frantz 95 et al., 2009). AFLPs, however, are dominant markers and do not 96 allow distinction between homozygous and heterozygous states 97 of an allele. Therefore, AFLP analysis using allele frequency-based population genetics models requires several assumptions to be 98 99 made. As this results in analytical limitations, it is highly recom-100 mended that multiple analysis methods are applied, and inferences are made with high confidence only when results show congruence 101 102 across methods (Carstens et al., 2013). However, the majority of 103 AFLP studies continue to apply population genetic methods and 104 derive biological inferences with rare discussion of possible analyt-105 ical biases (Hollingsworth and Ennos, 2004; Bonin et al., 2007). One 106 such example is the routine use of the popular, non-spatial cluster-107 ing program, STRUCTURE that uses a Bayesian MCMC algorithm to 108 infer *K* – the number of populations. Other such programs include 109 TESS, GENECLUST, and GENELAND that perform Bayesian cluster analysis under spatial models (Guillot et al., 2005a, 2005b; 110 François et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2007; Guillot, 2008; Guillot 111 112 et al., 2008).

113 The algorithm used in STRUCTURE accommodates dominant 114 data by assuming the presence of recessive alleles at a subset of 115 loci that provide partial information about diploid genotypes for 116 the entire dataset (Falush et al., 2007). GENELAND uses geographic 117 coordinates and identifies groups of individuals in Hardy-118 Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) (Guillot et al., 2005a, 2005b). 119 GENELAND was recently upgraded to correct allele frequency esti-120 mates from dominant data by taking into account observed genotypes and estimating unknown genotypes using model-based 121 122 MCMC simulations (Guillot and Santos, 2010). However, both STRUCTURE and GENELAND still assume that AFLP null-alleles 123 124 (i.e., band absences) are recessive alleles for allele frequency calcu-125 lations and subsequent K estimation. Common assumptions that 126 drive these analyses (such as HWE in a population and linkage dis-127 equilibrium between populations but not within populations) are 128 conceptually not applicable to dominant data. The models and 129 assumptions used for K estimation in STRUCTURE are less than straightforward and need to be used with caution as they could 130 yield inaccurate results (Pritchard et al., 2000). Furthermore, the 131 132 accuracy of K estimation using dominant datasets in GENELAND 133 is lower than in co-dominant datasets (Guillot and Santos, 2010). In some cases, tree-building analysis of AFLPs has performed better 134 135 at cluster identification due to the absence of population genetics model assumptions (Meudt et al., 2009). A certain degree of uncer-136 137 tainty is therefore unavoidable when using population genetic 138 models to estimate the number of *K*, to assign individuals to each 139 K, and to assess the genetic structure of each K. Hence, the need 140 for new and more appropriate methods for dominant marker anal-141 ysis has been identified (Hollingsworth and Ennos, 2004; Excoffier 142 and Heckel, 2006; Bonin et al., 2007; Meudt et al., 2009).

Multivariate methods (such as factor and cluster analysis, prin-cipal component analysis, Multi-Dimensional Scaling, Molecular

Analysis of Variance) implemented outside the confines of popula-145 tion genetics models have been extensively used to analyze AFLPs. 146 More recently, two tools that use a combination of multivariate 147 procedures to analyze multilocus genetic data were developed. 148 Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) was devel-149 oped in adegenet (R package) as a method for inferring genetic clus-150 ters and genetic diversity using dominant data (Jombart et al., 151 2010). Hausdorf and Hennig (2010) developed prabclus, also an R 152 package, for species delimitation and ordination-cluster analysis 153 using both dominant and co-dominant datasets. Both adegenet 154 and prabclus, have performed better than STRUCTURE in initial 155 studies (Hausdorf and Hennig, 2010; Jombart et al., 2010). These 156 methods could be useful for cluster and population structure anal-157 ysis and speciation research employing dominant markers. 158

Finally, Leaché et al. (2014) developed a new approach for AFLP and SNP based species delimitation by adapting a method called Single Nucleotide Polymorphism and AFLP Phylogenies (SNAPP) (Bryant et al., 2012). SNAPP produces posterior probability distributions of allele frequency changes and allows species tree estimation without the need for gene tree reconstruction and integration (Bryant et al., 2012). Grummer et al. (2013) first developed sequence-based Bayes Factor Delimitation (BFD) to perform marginal likelihood estimations (MLE) and test multiple species delimitation hypotheses. Species delimitation models are tested at the same time as species tree estimation, forgoing the need to specify a guide species tree (Grummer et al., 2013). Leaché et al. (2014) modified this and developed SNAPP BFD for species delimitation using SNPs and AFLPs. SNAPP BFD is implemented using MLE path sampling analysis in version 2 of Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Sampling Trees (BEAST) software (Drummond et al., 2012; Bouckaert et al., 2014).

1.2. The study group – Trimeresurus (Trimeresurus) macrops

Asian green pitvipers from the genus *Trimeresurus* (Serpentes: 177 Crotalidae: Crotalinae) (Lacépède, 1804) are well known for cryptic 178 speciation (e.g. Malhotra and Thorpe, 2000, 2004a; Vogel et al., 179 2004). The genus was divided into several genera in 2004 180 (Malhotra and Thorpe, 2004b), among which was Cryptelytrops 181 (Cope, 1860). Recently, as a result of new information on the type 182 species of Trimeresurus, Cryptelytrops was shown to be a junior 183 synonym of Trimeresurus (David et al., 2011). Therefore, the species 184 placed in Cryptelytrops by Malhotra and Thorpe (2004b) are now 185 correctly placed within Trimeresurus, whether defined in a broader 186 (by subsuming Malhotra and Thorpe's proposed genera as 187 subgenera) or narrower sense (continuing to accept the existence 188 of several well-defined, ecologically, genetically and morphologi-189 cally diagnosable generic-level units within the former larger 190 genus). 191

Trimeresurus macrops sensu lato (s.l.) is distributed across 192 Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, and Viet Nam, and was shown to consist 193 of three cryptic species with disjunct geographic ranges in the 194 highlands of Cambodia (Fig. 1), distinguished by variations in 195 several individual morphological characters corresponding to their 196 allopatric distributions (Malhotra et al., 2011a). The populations 197 have been proposed as three distinct species: (i) T. macrops sensu 198 stricto (s.s.) found in Thailand, south & central Laos, and northeast 199 Cambodia, (ii) T. cardamomensis (Cardamom Mountains green 200 pitviper), from southeast Thailand and the Cardamom mountains 201 of southwest Cambodia, and (iii) T. rubeus (Ruby-eyed green pitvi-202 per), found in southern Viet Nam and eastern Cambodia (Malhotra 203 et al., 2011a). The morphology and species ranges for each of these 204 putative species have been fully described (Malhotra et al., 2011a). 205 A multivariate morphometric analysis, however, was not com-206 pletely successful in separating the three species (Fig. A.1), possibly 207 due to geographic variation within each of the species. Thus, 208

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