# The complete mitochondrial genome of the Mexican-endemic cavefish Ophisternon infernale (Synbranchiformes, Synbranchidae): insights on patterns of selection and implications for synbranchiform phylogenetics 

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#### Abstract

Ophisternon infernale is one of the 200+ troglobitic fish species worldwide, and one of the two cavedwelling fishes endemic to the karstic aquifer of the Yucatán Peninsula, Mexico. Because of its elusive nature and the relative inaccessibility of its habitat, there is virtually no genetic information on this enigmatic fish. Herein we report the complete mitochondrial genome of $O$. infernale, which overall exhibits a configuration comparable to that of other synbranchiforms as well as of more distantly related teleosts. The $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{A}} / \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{S}}$ ratio indicates that most mtDNA PCGs in synbranchiforms have evolved under strong purifying selection, preventing major structural and functional protein changes. The few instances of PCGs under positive selection might be related to adaptation to decreased oxygen availability. Phylogenetic analysis of mtDNA comparative data from synbranchiforms and closely related taxa (including the indostomid Indostomus paradoxus) corroborate the notion that indostomids are more closely related to synbranchiforms than to gasterosteoids, but without rendering the former paraphyletic. Our phylogenetic results also suggest that New World species of Ophisternon might be more closely related to Synbranchus than to the remaining Ophisternon species. This novel phylogenetic hypothesis, however, should be further tested in the context of a comprehensive systematic study of the group.


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## Keywords

Blind swamp eel, karst aquifer, mitogenome, systematics, troglobitic, Yucatan Peninsula

## Introduction

Ophisternon infernale (Synbranchiformes, Synbranchidae), commonly known as the blind swamp eel, is a rare and elusive freshwater teleost fish endemic to the cenotes and submerged caves of the Yucatan Peninsula (YP) in southeastern Mexico. Like most troglobites, $O$. infernale exhibits typical regressive troglomorphic traits associated with life in absolute darkness, such as the absence of both pigmentation and eyes. Besides its endemism and troglomorphism, $O$. infernale is exceptional in that it is one of two fish species that permanently inhabit the dark and oligotrophic subterranean waters of the YP karst aquifer; the other being the Mexican blind brotula (Typhlias pearsei) (Arroyave 2020). The relative inaccessibility of its habitat-submerged caves or cenotes well inside dry caves-coupled with its highly cryptic lifestyle-often found burrowed under the sediment or hiding inside tangles of submerged roots and crevices-have made the study of the blind swamp eel particularly challenging, and as a result very little is known about this intriguing fish species. Notably, the total number of occurrence records for $O$. infernale is less than 20 localities throughout its potential range of distribution (Arroyave et al. 2019). By virtue of its rarity, endemism, and restricted geographic distribution, in addition to the current threats faced by its habitat and region, $O$. infernale has recently been categorized as Endangered (EN) (Arroyave et al. 2019). Unsurprisingly, genetic data from $O$. infernale are virtually nonexistent, and this has hampered efforts at establishing its exact phylogenetic placement (Perdices et al. 2005). Besides their importance for phylogenetic and biogeographic research, genomic data are fundamental for addressing other evolutionary lines of inquiry, such as the genetic basis of troglomorphism (Protas and Jeffery 2012). Hence the need for generating genomic information of such a unique, endangered, and understudied species such as $O$. infernale. In order to provide genomic resources potentially informative for future evolutionary studies, here we present the first complete mitochondrial genome of the troglomorphic and YP-endemic $O$. infernale. In addition to sequencing, assembling, and annotating its mitogenome, we present detailed descriptive (genome size and organization, protein-coding genes [PCGs], non-coding regions, and RNAs features) and comparative (patterns of selection on PCGs, phylogenetic) analyses. Leveraging novel mitogenomic data to shed light on the systematics of Synbranchiformes is particularly relevant and timely because of ongoing conflicting hypotheses of relationships regarding the limits and composition of this teleost order that involve the phylogenetic placement of the monogeneric family Indostomidae with respect to synbranchiforms and closely related euteleost lineages (Van Der Laan et al. 2014; Nelson et al. 2016; Betancur-R et al. 2017). Furthermore, the phylogenetic position of the blind swamp eel, $O$. infernale, in the context of the diversification of the family Synbranchidae, has yet to be established (Perdices et al. 2005).

## Material and methods

## Sample collection and raw data generation

All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations, and the study was carried out in compliance with the ARRIVE guidelines. Sampling of the $O$. infernale individual used to generate the mitogenome presented here was accomplished with the assistance of a professional cave diver who captured the specimen using a custom-made hand net specifically designed for efficient capture and secure storage while cave diving. The sample was collected under collecting permit SGPA/DGVS/05375/19 issued by the Mexican Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources (Secretaría de Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales; SEMARNAT) to JA. The sampling locality is the cenote Kan-Chin (Huhí, Yucatán), located at $20^{\circ} 40^{\prime} 111^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$, $89^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 6^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. The voucher specimen was euthanized with MS-222 prior to preservation in accordance with recommended guidelines for the use of fishes in research (Nickum et al. 2004), fixed in a $10 \%$ formalin solution, and subsequently transferred to $70 \%$ ethanol for long-term storage in the Colección Nacional de Peces (CNPE) of the Instituto de Biología (IB) at the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), where it has been catalogued and deposited (CNPEIBUNAM 23285). A tissue sample (muscle fragment) was taken prior to specimen fixation, preserved in $95 \%$ ethanol, and eventually cryopreserved at $-80^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. High-molecular genomic DNA was extracted using the phenol-chloroform protocol (Sambrook et al. 1989). The DNA was sheared by sonication with a Bioruptor pico of Diagenode and Minichiller. Sonication was performed using six cycles of alternating 30 s ultrasonic bursts and 30 s pauses in a $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ water bath. For library preparation we used a DNA sample of 200 ng which was quantified using a Qubit fluorometer (Invitrogen). Library preparation was carried out using the KAPA Biosystem Hyper Kit (Kapa, Biosystem Inc., Wilmington, MA). Fragmented DNA was ligated to custom, TruSeq-style dual-indexing adapters (Glenn et al. 2016). Fragments were size selected in a $-300-500 \mathrm{bp}$ range which was enriched through PCR, purified and normalized. The Illumina NextSeq v2 300 cycle kit was used for sequencing paired-end 150 nucleotide reads at the Georgia Genomics Facility, University of Georgia, Athens, USA.

## Mitogenome assembly and annotation

The quality of the raw data was assessed with FastQC (Andrews, 2010). Goodquality sequences that did not contain ambiguous nucleotides and reads with average quality of 30 Q were demultiplexed, trimmed and merged using Geneious Prime 2020.0.4 (https://www.geneious.com). Mitogenome assembly was conducted with MITObim v.1.9 (Hahn et al. 2013) using two reference mitogenomes from close relatives of $O$. infernale available in GenBank: Ophisternon candidum (MT436449) and Synbranchus marmoratus (AP004439). These reference mitogenomes were aligned in order to generate a consensus sequence for use during the annotation procedure.

MitoFish MitoAnnotator (Iwasaki et al. 2013) and MITOS (Bernt et al. 2013) were used to identify and annotate protein-coding genes (PCGs), transfer RNAs (tRNAs), and ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs). The resultant annotated $O$. infernale mitochondrial genome was deposited in the GenBank database under accession number OM388306.

## Descriptive analyses

Nucleotide and amino acid composition, codon usage profiles of protein-coding genes (PCGs), Relative Synonymous Codon Usage (RSCU), and characterization the non-coding mtDNA control region (CR) were computed with mega X (Kumar et al. 2018). Nucleotide composition skewness was calculated with the formulas AT skew $=(A-T) /(A+T)$ and $G C$ skew $=(G-C) /(G+C)$ (Perna and Kocher 1995). Prediction of tRNAs secondary structure was accomplished with tRNAScan-SE 2.0 (Chan and Lowe 2019) through the webserver http://lowelab.ucsc.edu/tRNAscanSE/, using Infernal without HMM filter search mode and "vertebrate mitochondrial" as sequence source (Lowe and Chan 2016). Analysis and prediction of CR secondary structure in $O$. infernale was accomplished using the software ClustalW (Thompson et al. 2003) as implemented in mega $X$ (Kumar et al. 2018) by comparison (via multiple sequence alignment) with reports of secondary CR structure from two other teleost fishes, namely Siniperca chuatsi (EU659698) (Zhao et al. 2006) and Cyprinion semiplotum (MN603795) (Sharma et al. 2020).

## Comparative analyses

We investigated patterns of selection on PCGs on a mitogenomic scale and phylogenetic relationships among major synbranchiform lineages based on all mitogenomic comparative data for the group available on GenBank. To measure of the strength and mode of natural selection acting on PCGs, we estimated the ratio of non-synonymous $\left(\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{A}}\right)$ to synonymous $\left(\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{S}}\right)$ substitutions $\left(\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{A}} / \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{S}}\right.$, also known as $\omega$ or $\left.d_{\mathrm{N}} / d_{\mathrm{S}}\right)$ using the HyPhy 2.5 package (Kosakovsky Pond et al. 2020) as implemented in mega X (Kumar et al. 2018) based on the newly assembled mitochondrial genome (Ophisternon infernale, OM388306) and seven additional synbranchiform mitogenomes previously available in GenBank: Ophisternon candidum (MT436449), Synbranchus marmoratus (AP004439), Monopterus albus (NC003192), Mastacembelus armatus (NC023977), Mastacembelus erythrotaenia (NC035141), Macrognathus aculeatus (KT443991), and Macrognathus pancalus (NC032080). To compare patterns of selection between synbranchiform families, we conducted two separate $K_{A} / K_{S}$ analyses, one for synbranchids and one for mastacembelids. The taxonomic sampling for phylogenetic analyses included representatives of the synbranchiform families Synbranchidae and Mastacembelidae, as well as a representative of Indostomidae, a monogeneric family historically classified in the Gasterosteiformes on the basis of morphological evidence (Van Der Laan et al. 2014; Nelson et al. 2016) but more recently assigned to the Synbranchiformes in accordance to the results of molecular phylogenetic studies (Betancur-R. et al. 2013;

Betancur-R et al. 2017). The lack of published mitochondrial genomes of fishes from the synbranchiform family Chaudhuriidae prevented us from including representatives of this taxon in our analyses. The ingroup consisted of the synbranchids Ophisternon infernale (OM388306), Ophisternon candidum (MT436449), Synbranchus marmoratus (AP004439) and Monopterus albus (NC003192), the mastacembelids Mastacembelus armatus (NC023977), Mastacembelus erythrotaenia (NC035141), Macrognathus aculeatus (KT443991) and Macrognathus pancalus (NC032080), and the indostomid Indostomus paradoxus (NC004401). The outgroup consisted of representatives of close relatives of Synbranchiformes such as the anabantiforms Channa micropeltes (NC030542) and Nandus nandus (AP006809), and the gasterosteiforms Gasterosteus aculeatus ( NC 041244 ) and Pungitius pungitius ( NC 011571 ); the last two included to test the phylogenetic position of I. paradoxus with respect to members of the Gasterosteiformes. The phylogeny was rooted at the viviparous brotula Diplacanthopoma brachysoma (AP004408). Phylogenetic relationships were inferred based on a concatenated alignment of all 13 PCGs. DNA sequence data from each PCG was independently aligned via multiple sequence alignment using the software MUSCLE (Edgar 2004) under default parameters via the "translation align" tool of the software Geneious Prime 2020.0.4 (https://www.geneious.com). The best-fit substitution model for each PCG was determined according to the corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) with the software jModelTest2 (v. 2.1.10) (Darriba et al. 2012) under the following likelihood settings: number of substitution schemes = " 3 "; base frequencies $="+\mathrm{F}$ "; rate variation $="+\mathrm{I}$ and +G with $\mathrm{nCat}=4$ "; base tree for likelihood calculations = "ML optimized"; and base tree search = "Best" (effectively evaluating among all 24 "classical" GTR-derived models). Individual alignments ( $A T P 6=681 \mathrm{bp}$, $A T P 8=168 \mathrm{bp}, C O X 1=1,539 \mathrm{bp}, C O X 2=690 \mathrm{bp}, C O X 3=783 \mathrm{bp}, C Y T B=1,137 \mathrm{bp}$, $N A D 1=975 \mathrm{bp}, N A D 2=1,053 \mathrm{bp}, N A D 3=348 \mathrm{bp}, N A D 4=1,380 \mathrm{bp}, N A D 4 L=294$ $\mathrm{bp}, N A D 5=1,836 \mathrm{bp}$, and $N A D 6=525 \mathrm{bp}$ ) were subsequently concatenated using the software 2 matrix (Salinas and Little 2014), yielding a data matrix totaling 11,409 aligned bp. Maximum Likelihood inference of phylogeny was carried out on the concatenated alignment partitioned by gene using the software RAxML-NG (v. 1.0.1) (Kozlov et al. 2019) through the CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller et al. 2010), with nodal support estimated by means of the bootstrap character resampling method (Felsenstein 1985) based on 1000 pseudoreplicates.

## Results and discussion

## Genome size and organization

The complete mitochondrial genome of $O$. infernale presented herein (GenBankaccession number OM388306) is $16,804 \mathrm{bp}$ in total length (Fig. 1; Table 1), a somewhat larger size than previously published synbranchiform mitogenomes, which range from 16,493 bp (in M. erythrotaenia) (or from 16,152 bp if considering the putative synbranchiform


Figure I. Annotated map of the mitochondrial circular genome of $O$. infernale. The outer ring corresponds to the H - (outermost) and L-strands, and depicts the location of PCGs (in black, except for ND6 which is encoded in the L-strand and is portrayed in red), the non-coding control region (in dark brown), tRNAs (in red), and rRNAs (in light brown). The inner ring (black sliding window) denotes GC content along the genome. Live specimen photograph taken in the Cenote Kancabchen (Homún, Yucatán), courtesy of cave diver Erick Sosa.
I. paradoxus) to $16,622 \mathrm{bp}$ (in M. albus). Although the mitogenome of the synbranchid S. marmoratus reported in GenBank (AP004439) is considerably shorter ( 15,561 bp ), this significant difference in length is actually due to it missing the NAD1 gene (normally $\sim 1,000 \mathrm{bp}$ ) as a result of reported technical difficulties during sequencing (Miya et al. 2003). The composition and general arrangement of mitochondrial genes in O. infernale is identical to that reported for other synbranchiforms (Li et al. 2016; Han et al. 2018; White et al. 2020) as well as for more distantly related teleosts (Miya et al. 2001, 2003; Satoh et al. 2016), and consists of a total of 37 genes divided into

Table I. Mitochondrial genes and associated features of $O$. infernale. Intergenic space (IGS) described as intergenic ( + ) or overlapping nucleotides $(-)$. AA $=$ amino acid.

| Locus | Type | One-letter code | Start | End | Length (bp) | Strand | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { \# of } \\ \text { AA } \end{gathered}$ | Anticodon | Start codon | Stop codon | IGS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $t R N A^{\text {Pbe }}$ | tRNA | F | 1 | 69 | 69 | H |  | GAA |  |  | 0 |
| 12s rRNA | rRNA |  | 70 | 1017 | 948 | H |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| $t R N A^{\text {val }}$ | tRNA | V | 1018 | 1091 | 74 | H |  | TAC |  |  | 0 |
| 16 r rRA | rRNA |  | 1092 | 2766 | 1092 | H |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| tRNA-Leu | tRNA | L | 2767 | 2840 | 74 | H |  | TAA |  |  | 63 |
| NAD1 | Protein-coding |  | 2904 | 3872 | 951 | H | 316 |  | ATG | TAA | 7 |
| $t$ RNA ${ }^{\text {le }}$ | tRNA | I | 3880 | 3949 | 70 | H |  | GAT |  |  | 8 |
| $t R N A^{G / n}$ | tRNA | Q | 3958 | 4028 | 71 | L |  | TTG |  |  | -1 |
| $t R N A^{\text {Mct }}$ | tRNA | M | 4028 | 4097 | 70 | H |  | CAT |  |  | 0 |
| NAD2 | Protein-coding |  | 4098 | 5144 | 1047 | H | 337 |  | ATG | AGA | -3 |
| $t R N A^{\text {Tp }}$ | tRNA | W | 5142 | 5211 | 70 | H |  | TCA |  |  | 1 |
| $t$ RNA ${ }^{\text {Ala }}$ | tRNA | A | 5213 | 5281 | 69 | L |  | TGC |  |  | 1 |
| $t R N A^{4 n}$ | tRNA | N | 5283 | 5355 | 73 | L |  | GTT |  |  | 53 |
| $t$ RNA ${ }^{\text {Gs }}$ | tRNA | C | 5409 | 5475 | 67 | L |  | GCA |  |  | 0 |
| $t R N A^{\text {Tr }}$ | tRNA | Y | 5476 | 5542 | 67 | L |  | GTA |  |  | 1 |
| COX1 | Protein-coding |  | 5544 | 7082 | 1539 | H | 489 |  | GTG | AGA | -4 |
| $t R N A^{\text {ser }}$ | tRNA | S | 7127 | 7197 | 71 | L |  | TGA |  |  | 2 |
| $t$ RNA ${ }^{\text {spp }}$ | tRNA | D | 7200 | 7270 | 71 | H |  | GTC |  |  | 2 |
| COX2 | Protein-coding |  | 7273 | 7963 | 691 | H | 225 |  | ATG | T | 0 |
| $t R N A^{\text {Lss }}$ | tRNA | K | 7964 | 8036 | 73 | H |  | TTT |  |  | 1 |
| ATP8 | Protein-coding |  | 8038 | 8205 | 168 | H | 51 |  | ATG | TAA | -8 |
| ATP6 | Protein-coding |  | 8196 | 8878 | 683 | H | 223 |  | ATG | TA | 0 |
| COX3 | Protein-coding |  | 8879 | 9662 | 784 | H | 249 |  | ATG | T | 0 |
| $t R N A^{G l y}$ | tRNA | G | 9663 | 9731 | 69 | H |  | TCC |  |  | 0 |
| NAD3 | Protein-coding |  | 9732 | 10079 | 348 | H | 112 |  | ATG | GAC | 0 |
| ${ }^{\text {RRNA }}{ }^{\text {Arg }}$ | tRNA | R | 10080 | 10148 | 69 | H |  | TCG |  |  | 0 |
| NAD4L | Protein-coding |  | 10149 | 10445 | 297 | H | 97 |  | ATA | TAA | -5 |
| NAD4 | Protein-coding |  | 10439 | 11819 | 1380 | H | 445 |  | ATG | T | 0 |
| $t$ RNA ${ }^{\text {His }}$ | tRNA | H | 11820 | 11888 | 69 | H |  | GTG |  |  | 0 |
| $t R N A^{\text {ser }}$ | tRNA | S | 11889 | 11952 | 64 | H |  | GCT |  |  | -1 |
| $t$ RNA ${ }^{\text {Leu }}$ | tRNA | L | 11952 | 12024 | 73 | H |  | TAG |  |  | 1 |
| NAD5 | Protein-coding |  | 12026 | 13855 | 1830 | H | 598 |  | ATG | TA | -2 |
| NAD6 | Protein-coding |  | 13852 | 14373 | 522 | L | 172 |  | ATG | T | 1 |
| ${ }_{\text {R }}$ NAA ${ }^{\text {G/u }}$ | tRNA | E | 14375 | 14443 | 69 | L |  | TTC |  |  | 2 |
| CYTB | Protein-coding |  | 14446 | 15586 | 1141 | H | 369 |  | ATG | T | 0 |
| $t R N A^{7 n}$ | tRNA | T | 15587 | 15662 | 76 | H |  | TGT |  |  | -1 |
| $t R N A^{P_{0}}$ | tRNA | P | 15662 | 15730 | 69 | L |  | TGG |  |  | 0 |
| D-loop | Non-coding |  | 15731 | 16804 | 1074 | H |  |  |  |  | 0 |

the following categories: 13 PCGs, 2 rRNAs, 22 tRNAs, and the non-coding control region (CR) (Fig. 1; Table 1). Twenty-eight genes (12 PCGs, 2 rRNAs, 14 tRNAs) plus CR are located on the H -strand, while the remaining nine genes (NAD6 and 8 tRNAs) are located on the L-strand (Table 1); a configuration that corresponds to those of previously reported synbrachiform mitogenomes (Li et al. 2016; Han et al. 2018; White et al. 2020). The overall base composition of the $O$. infernale mitogenome is $\mathrm{T}=28.7 \%, \mathrm{~A}=31.6 \%, \mathrm{G}=13.2 \%$, and $\mathrm{C}=26.5 \%$, which is fairly similar to those of other synbrachiform mitogenomes (Table 2). Nucleotide composition, however, is biased
toward $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{T}(60.4 \%)$, with $O$. infernale displaying the highest values of this metric among the analyzed synbranchiforms. The mitogenome of $O$. infernale exhibits positive AT (0.046) and negative GC ( -0.277 ) skewness, a general pattern shared with other species of the Synbranchiformes (Table 2).

Table 2. Size and nucleotide composition of the complete synbranchiform mitochondrial genomes (and their concatenated PCGs) analyzed in this study. ${ }^{*} N A D 1$ gene missing from published mitogenome.

| Species | GenBank Accession \# | Entire genome |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Protein-coding genes |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Length (bp) | A(\%) | T(\%) | C(\%) | G(\%) | AT(\%) | AT skew | $\begin{gathered} \text { GC } \\ \text { skew } \end{gathered}$ | Length (bp) | AT(\%) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { AT } \\ & \text { skew } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { GC } \\ \text { skew } \end{gathered}$ |
| Ophisternon infernale | OM388306 | 16804 | 31.6 | 28.7 | 26.5 | 13.2 | 60.4 | 0.046 | -0.277 | 11449 | 60.1 | -0.038 | -0.348 |
| Ophisternon candidum | MT436449 | 16526 | 31.5 | 27.5 | 27.9 | 13.1 | 59 | 0.067 | -0.36 | 11377 | 59.1 | -0.015 | -0.374 |
| Synbranchus marmoratus* | AP004439 | 15561 | 30.7 | 26.8 | 28.5 | 14 | 57.5 | 0.067 | -0.341 | 10529 | 57.1 | -0.027 | -0.355 |
| Monopterus albus | NC003192 | 16622 | 28.9 | 27.2 | 29.4 | 14.5 | 56.1 | 0.03 | -0.34 | 11430 | 54.9 | -0.052 | -0.356 |
| Mastacembelus armatus | NC023977 | 16487 | 29.1 | 25.3 | 30.9 | 14.7 | 54.4 | 0.069 | -0.355 | 11404 | 53.1 | -0.013 | -0.381 |
| Mastacembelus erythrotaenia | NC035141 | 16493 | 29 | 24.5 | 31.6 | 14.9 | 53.4 | 0.086 | -0.357 | 11417 | 52.2 | -0.003 | -0.382 |
| Macrognathus aculeatus | KT443991 | 16543 | 30 | 26.5 | 28.7 | 14.8 | 56.4 | 0.063 | -0.322 | 11420 | 55.9 | -0.014 | -0.345 |
| Macrognathus pancalus | NC032080 | 16549 | 29.7 | 26 | 29.6 | 14.7 | 55.7 | 0.664 | -0.337 | 11420 | 54.9 | -0.02 | -0.363 |

## Protein-coding genes

The 13 PCGs, altogether totaling $11,449 \mathrm{bp}$, correspond to $68.1 \%$ of the $O$. infernale mitogenome. These genes consist of seven regions that code for the subunits of the NADH dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) protein complex (NAD1-6, NADL4), three that code for the subunits of the enzyme cytochrome c oxidase (COX1-3), one that codes for the enzyme cytochrome $\mathrm{b}(C Y T B)$, and two that code for the subunits 6 and 8 of the enzyme ATP synthase $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{o}}$ (ATPG, ATP8). Except for $C O X 1$ and $N D 4 L$, PCGs exhibit an ATG (Met) start codon, which is the standard in eukaryotic systems (Kozak 1983). The start codon exhibited by COX1 (GTG), however, is fairly common among vertebrates (Nwobodo et al. 2019). Conversely, an initiation-codon change from ATG (Met) to ATA (Ile) such as the one observed in ND4L is less common. Notably, of the synbranchiform mitogenomes analyzed, only that of $O$. infernale displays ATA as ND4L initiation codon. Most PCGs (10 out of 13) exhibit a TAA stop codon, which is a standard termination codon common in vertebrate mtDNA. However, of these 10 genes only three (NAD1, NAD4L, ATP8) display a complete codon (TAA), while the remaining seven (ATP6, COX2, COX3, NAD4, NAD5, NAD6, CYTB) contain an incomplete stop codon (either TA or T). Of the remaining three PCGs, NAD2 and COX1 have the stop codon AGA, while NAD3 has the stop codon GAC (Table
2). PCGs in the mitogenome of $O$. infernale exhibit levels of $A+T$ content ( $60.1 \%$ ) comparable to-though slightly higher than-those of other synbranchiforms, which range from $53.1 \%$ in $M$. armatus to $59.1 \%$ in $O$. candidum (Table 2). In contrast to our findings for the entire mitogenome, AT-skews in PGCs across all synbranchiform mitogenomes analyzed exhibit negative values. Conversely, and in correspondence with our whole-mitogenome results, GC-skews in PGCs also exhibit negative values and highly similar across most analyzed synbranchiforms. A total of 3816 amino acids are encoded by PCGs in the mitogenome of $O$. infernale, with Leu (14.7\%), Ser (9.4\%), Thr ( $7.8 \%$ ), and Pro ( $7.7 \%$ ) being the most frequent, while Met ( $1.1 \%$ ) being the least common. RSCU values represent the ratio between the observed usage frequency of one codon in a gene sample and the expected usage frequency in the synonymous codon family, given that all codons for the particular amino acid are used equally. The synonymous codons with RSCU values $>1.0$ have positive codon usage bias and are defined as abundant codons, whereas those with RSCU values < 1.0 have negative codon usage bias and are defined as less-abundant codons (Gun et al. 2018). Results from RSCU analysis of PCGs in the mitogenome of $O$. infernale indicate that the most frequently used codons are ACC (1.59\%), AAA (1.56\%), TTA, ATA, and GAA (1.49\%), which code for the amino acids Thr, Lys, Leu, Met, and Glu, respectively. On the other hand, codons encoding Prol (CCG, 0.16\%), Thr (ACG, 0.2\%), Ala (GCG, $0.23 \%)$, Ser (TCG, $0.39 \%$ ), and Leu (CTG, $0.4 \%$; TTA, $0.48 \%$ ) are the least frequent (Fig. 2; Table 3).


Figure 2. Results from analysis of Relative Synonymous Codon Usage (RSCU) of the mitochondrial genome of $O$. infernale. Codon families are plotted on the $x$-axis. The label for the 2,4 , or 6 codons that compose each family is shown in the boxes below the x -axis, and the colors correspond to those in the stacked columns. RSCU values are shown on the $y$-axis.

Table 3. Results from the Relative Synonymous Codon Usage (RSCU) analysis for the PCGs of the mitochondrial genome of $O$. infernale.


## Transfer and ribosomal RNAs

The mitogenome of $O$. infernale contains the typical 22 tRNAs usually documented for mitogenomes of other teleosts and vertebrates (Lee et al. 1995; Díaz-Jaimes et al. 2016; Satoh et al. 2016; Nwobodo et al. 2019; White et al. 2020). The genomic organization of tRNAs in O. infernale is identical to that reported for O. candidum (White et al. 2020) and other synbranchids (Li et al. 2016; Han et al. 2018). Altogether, tRNAs total 1547 bp , with individual ones ranging from $64 \mathrm{bp}\left(\mathrm{tRNA}^{\text {Ser }}\right.$ ) to $76 \mathrm{bp}\left(\mathrm{tRNA}^{\mathrm{Th} r}\right)$ (Table 1). Fourteen tRNAs are encoded in the H-strand, while the remaining eight in the L-strand (Fig. 1; Table 1). Twenty-one of the 22 tRNAs fold into the canonical cloverleaf secondary structure that consists of four domains (AA stem, D arm, AC arm, and T arm) and a variable loop (Fig. 3). Notably, the tRNA ${ }^{\text {Ser }}$ (11889-11952) exhibits an unusual structure in which the D arm is missing. Although any change in tRNA secondary structure could potentially alter its amino acid recognition capability (Nwobodo et al. 2019), it has been
Phenylalanine (Phe) Valine (Val) Leucine (Leu) Isoleucine (Ile)
Glutamine (Gln)





Tyrosine (Tyr)
-

Serine (Ser)

$$
\therefore
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erine (Ser) Aspartic (Asp)
ニ.

Lysine (Lys)
Glycine (Gly)


Figure 3. Secondary structure of the 22 tRNA genes of the mitochondrial genome of $O$. infernale predicted by tRNAScan-SE 2.0.
shown that loss of the D arm does not necessarily imply reduced functionality; in fact, almost all tRNAs ${ }^{\text {ser }}$ for AGY/N codons lack the D arm, and truncated tRNAs appear to have been compensated for by several interacting factors (Watanabe et al. 2014). Furthermore, among fishes, loss of the $\mathrm{tRNA}{ }^{\text {ser }} \mathrm{D}$ arm is not unique to $O$. infernale, for
it has been reported in several species, including chondrichthyans such as Chiloscyllium griseum (Chen et al. 2013), Triaenodon obesus (Chen et al. 2016), and Cephalloscyllium umbratile (Zhu et al. 2017), as well as teleosts such as Oreochromis andersonii and O. macrochir (Bbole et al. 2018). Although most tRNAs present the canonical 7-bp T loop, nonstandard T-loop lengths were observed in $\mathrm{tRNA}^{\text {Met }}$ ( 6 bp ), $\mathrm{tRNA}^{\text {Phe }}(8 \mathrm{bp})$, and tRNA ${ }^{\text {Ser }}(9 \mathrm{bp})$. Other deviations from the traditional tRNA secondary structure that could affect functionality is the presence of extra loops. The tRNA ${ }^{\text {Arg }}(10080-10148)$ in the mitogenome of $O$. infernale exhibits a loop at the base of the AA stem, thus potentially affecting aminoacylation. The nucleotide composition in the tRNAs of the $O$. infernale mitogenome is $\mathrm{T}=29 \%, \mathrm{~A}=31.4 \%, \mathrm{G}=20.2 \%$, and $\mathrm{C}=19.3 \%$. The genes that code for the mitochondrial 12 S and 16 S rRNA subunits in $O$. infernale are 948 bp and 1092 bp long, respectively, and are located on the H -strand separated by the $\mathrm{tRNA}{ }^{\text {Val }}$, just like in most teleost fishes (Lee et al. 1995; Satoh et al. 2016).

## Non-coding regions

The mtDNA control region of $O$. infernale is 1074 bp long (15731-16804), encoded in the H-strand, and flanked by tRNA ${ }^{\text {Pro }}$ and $\mathrm{tRNA}^{\text {Phe }}$ at the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ ends, respectively (Fig. 1; Table 1), which is consistent with our understanding of mitogenome structure and organization in fishes (Lee et al. 1995; Rasmussen and Arnason 1999; Satoh et al. 2016). Ophisternon infernale CR nucleotide composition is $\mathrm{T}=33.1 \%, \mathrm{~A}=36.7 \%, \mathrm{G}=10.9 \%$, and $\mathrm{C}=19.3 \%$, with $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{T}$ content ( $69.8 \%$ ) larger than that of the entire mitogenome but similar to that of other fishes including synbranchids (Li et al. 2016; Han et al. 2018). Like in other fishes, CR in $O$. infernale is divided into three domains: a central conserved domain flanked and two hypervariable domains (upstream and downstream). Three conserved sequence blocks (CSBs) were detected at the central conserved domain (CSB-F, CSB-E, CSB-D) as well as at the downstream hypervariable region (CSB1, CSB2, CSB3) (Fig. 4). Although additional CBSs have been identified for the central conserved domain (CSB-B, CSB-C) in mammals (Southern et al. 1988), the three identified herein for O. infernale are those commonly found in fishes (Broughton and Dowling 1994; Chen et al. 2012). The upstream hypervariable domain in the CR of $O$. infernale has a length of 256 bp and includes two copies of the motif TACAT and three copies of palindromic motif ATGTA. A change in the motif sequence (TGCAT) was observed in C. semiplotum and S. chuatsi but not in $O$. infernale. Compared to those from the central conserved domain, CSBs in the downstream hypervariable domain displayed larger variation across the three fish species compared. Notably, CSB2 and CSB3 were slightly more conserved than CSB1, a pattern that has been reported for other fishes (Chen et al. 2012).

## Patterns of selection on PCGs

Results from $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{A}} / \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{S}}$ analyses (Fig. 5) indicate that most mtDNA PCGs in synbranchiform fishes have evolved under strong purifying selection $\left(\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{A}} / \mathrm{K}_{S} \ll 1\right)$, preventing major structural and functional protein changes. Exceptions to this general pattern were observed for COX1 and NAD6 in synbranchids (Fig. 5a) and for NAD4 and NAD6 in


Figure 4. Comparison (multiple sequence alignment) of the mtDNA control region of $O$. infernale with those of fellow teleosts Siniperca chuatsi and Cyprinion semiplotum. The alignment displays the three canonical domains distinguished by Termination Associated Sequences (TAS) of the upstream hypervariable region (in red), central conserved domain blocks (CSB-F, CSB-E, CSB-D) (in blue), and conserved sequence blocks of the downstream hypervariable region (CSB-1, CSB-2 and CSB-3) (in green).
mastacembelids (Fig. 5b), where significant signals of positive selection were detected. Studies in different groups of animals, including cephalopods (Almeida et al. 2015), rodents (Tomasco and Lessa 2011), and humans (DeHaan et al. 2004), have linked amino acid replacements in NAD6 to adaptive selection to hypoxic conditions. Because numerous synbranchiform species are known to be fossorial and to inhabit low-oxygen waters, the observed signature of positive selection in NAD6 might be related to adaptation to decreased oxygen availability. Notably, a recent comparative mitogenomic study of the African tilapias Oreocrhomis andersonii and O. macrochir similarly uncovered a pattern of positive selection in $N A D 6$ suggestive of adaptation in response to changing environments (Bbole et al. 2018). In contrast to the pattern observed for NAD6, selection in COX1 and NAD4 is completely conflicting between synbranchiform families. While in mastacembelids COX1-like most mitochondrial genes-has evolved under purifying selection $\left(\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{A}} / \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{S}}<1\right)$, the opposite happens in synbranchids. Although speculative at this point, the fact that half of our synbranchid dataset consists of troglomorphic cave-dwelling species ( $O$. infernale and $O$. candidum) (vs. none in the mastacembelid dataset) could explain the observed differences in COX1 selection patterns. Compared to surface waters, subterranean waters such as those of karst environments that harbor populations of $O$. infernale and $O$. candidum (in Mexico and Australia, respectively) contain low dissolved oxygen (Huppop 2000). Because of its role in aerobic metabolism, COX1 might therefore be a target of directional selection promoting the evolution of more metabolically efficient variants in hypogean lineages (Boggs and Gross 2021). In contrast, the observed conflicting patterns of selection in NAD4-another gene involved in cellular respiration-between mastacembelids (positive) and synbranchids (purifying), do not seem to be readily explained by ecological differences related to cave life.
(a)

Synbranchidae

(b)

Mastacembelidae


Figure 5. Patterns of selection in mtDNA PCGs of synbranchiform fishes. Results from $K_{A} / K_{S}$ ratio analysis on mitochondrial PCGs ( x -axis) in synbranchiform fishes of the families Synbranchidae (a) and Mastacembelidae (b).

## Phylogeny and systematics of synbranchiform fishes

Our understanding of phylogenetic relationships in synbranchiform fishes is incipient compared to that of other teleost groups. Despite the fact that for the past two decades molecular systematics has been routinely employed to refine and update the classification of fishes and our knowledge of their evolutionary history (Betancur-R et al. 2017), a comprehensive molecular phylogeny of the Synbranchiformes has yet to be proposed. Apart from a phylogenetic study focused on Central American synbranchids (Perdices et al. 2005), no studies have investigated synbranchiform relationships using comparative DNA sequence data. Surprisingly, recent phylogenetic studies focused on higher-level
relationships among major lineages of bony fishes (Betancur-R. et al. 2013; Betancur-R et al. 2017) resulted in the reassignment of armored sticklebacks (family Indostomidae, traditionally placed in the suborder Gasterosteoidei, order Scorpaeniformes) to the order Synbranchiformes. Although the classification of indostomids as gasterosteoids had been previously questioned on the basis of mitogenomic evidence (Miya et al. 2003, 2005; Kawahara et al. 2008), it was not until the phylogenetic classification of Betancur et al. $(2013,2017)$ that the family Indostomidae was transferred to the order Synbranchiformes. This proposal, however, was not adopted by the most authoritative contemporary standard references of fish systematics (Van Der Laan et al. 2014; Nelson et al. 2016), on the grounds of lack of morphological support and the need for further corroboration. It should be noted that previous molecular phylogenetic studies that cast doubt on the traditional placement of indostomids, whether based on "legacy" markers (Betancur-R. et al. 2013; Betancur-R et al. 2017) or complete mitochondrial genomes (Miya et al. 2003, 2005; Kawahara et al. 2008), relied on a very limited representation of synbranchiform diversity. In contrast, our phylogenetic analysis used mitogenomic data from a comparatively larger taxon sampling that included eight synbranchiform species from five genera (Ophisternon, Synbranchus, Monopterus, Mastacembelus, and Macrognathus) and two families (Synbranchidae, Mastacembelidae). Notably, our phylogenetic results (Fig. 6) corroborate the notion that indostomids are more closely related to synbranchiforms than to gasterosteoids. Nevertheless, contrary to the findings of studies that have recently challenged the traditional classification of indostomids with respect to synbranchiforms (Kawahara et al. 2008; Betancur-R. et al. 2013; Betancur-R et al. 2017), our inferred phylogenetic placement of Indostomus does not render Synbranchiformes paraphyletic. With the caveat that our sampling of synbranchiforms and closely related lineages is only partial, our results imply that indostomids are in fact the sister lineage of the order Synbranchiformes. While this phylogenetic pattern (topology) might be considered sufficient for lumping indostomids with synbranchiforms, examination of relative branch lengths (Fig. 6) suggests that Indostomus is indeed a highly divergent lineage. In order to acknowledge their genetic and morphological (Britz and Johnson 2002) distinctiveness, indostomids may in fact warrant an order of their own. Within Synbranchiformes, our results remarkably do not support the monophyly of the synbranchid genus Ophisternon, for O. infernale is resolved as more closely related to Symbranchus marmoratus than to $O$. candidum (Fig. 6). While at first sight this novel finding of a sister-group relationship between $O$. infernale and $S$. marmoratus is certainly unexpected, this hypothesis might not be that far-fetched from a biogeographic perspective, and when considering both the striking external morphological similarity between the two genera and the taxonomic ambiguities surrounding the classificatory history of the group (Rosen and Greenwood 1976). Synbranchus is restricted to the New World and comprises three species: S. marmoratus (Central and South America), S. madeirae (Madeira River basin, Bolivia), and S. lampreia (Pará, Brazil). Ophisternon as currently delimited exhibits an essentially Gondwanan distribution, with six valid species distributed in Middle America (O. infernale, O. aenigmaticum), Australia (O. candidum, O. gutturale), South


Figure 6. Phylogenetic relationships of major synbranchiform lineages. Molecular phylogeny based on comparative mitochondrial PCGs from relevant available mitogenomes and the newly generated herein for $O$. infernale. Troglobitic cave-dwelling species are marked with an asterisk to distinguish them from surface-dwelling ones. Outgroup taxa not shown. Colored circles on nodes indicate degree of clade support as determined by bootstrap values.

Asia and Western Pacific (O. bengalense), and West Africa (O. afrum). Assuming that Gondwanan drift vicariance is the main process responsible for the present-day globally disjunct distribution of the genus (Rosen 1975), the split between the Mexicanendemic $O$. infernale and the West Australian-endemic $O$. candidum should be at least as old as the Middle Jurassic separation of Eastern Gondwana (Antarctica, Madagascar, India, and Australia) from Western Gondwana (South America and Africa), dated at ca 165 Ma (McLoughlin 2001). From this it follows that the split between Ophisternon and Synbranchus should be even older. Notably, the only phylogenetic study that has
investigated divergence times via molecular dating in a group of synbranchiforms (Perdices et al. 2005) estimated a comparatively much younger age (<20 Ma) for the split between Ophisternon (aenigmaticum) and Synbranchus (marmoratus). Although marine dispersal and extinction could be invoked in an attempt to reconcile biogeographic patterns with our admittedly limited knowledge of the timescale of synbranchiform diversification, the paraphyly of Ophisternon remains problematic. Our phylogenetic results coupled with the abovementioned estimates of synbranchid divergence times (Perdices et al. 2005) lead us to hypothesize that perhaps New World species of Ophisternon ( $O$. infernale and $O$. aenigmaticum) are in fact more closely related to Synbranchus species than to the remaining Ophisternon species. As such, New World species of Ophisternon would have to be transferred to the genus Synbranchus. This phylogenetic scenario is also compatible with a likely very recent origin of the cave-dwelling $O$. infernale. Although there is virtually no information regarding the timing of origin and colonization of the fishes that inhabit the cenotes and submerged caves of the YP karstic aquifer (Arroyave et al. 2021), these aquatic habitats are supposed to be extremely young, effectively established not before 20,000 years ago, at the end of the last glacial maximum in the Northern Hemisphere, when rising sea levels eventually resulted in the flooding of karstic sinkholes and dry caves (Coke IV 2019). Such a recent origin for $O$. infernale is certainly much easier to explain as a result of speciation from a fellow New World lineage, such as $O$. aenigmaticum or S. marmoratus. Regardless of the appeal and feasibility of these hypotheses concerning the systematics of New World Ophisternon in general and the origins of O. infernale in particular, our phylogenetic findings and their interpretation need to be taken with caution because of their absolute reliance on mtDNA only. It is well known that the mitochondrial genome is effectively a single locus (Avise 2012), that individual gene and species trees are not always congruent (Maddison 1997), and that nuclear and mtDNA inheritance patterns are not always congruent either (Funk and Omland 2003). Notwithstanding these limitations, our results emphasize the pressing need for a comprehensive systematic and biogeographic study of synbranchiform fishes, ideally based on genome-wide sequence data.

## Conclusions

The first complete annotated mitochondrial genome of $O$. infernale, herein reported, exhibits an organization and arrangement similar to that of other synbranchiform fishes as well as of more distantly related teleosts. Based on our comparative mitogenomic dataset, most mitochondrial PCGs in synbranchiforms appear to have evolved under strong purifying selection, which has prevented major structural and functional protein changes. The few instances of mtDNA PCGs under positive selection might be related to adaptation to decreased oxygen availability and the evolution of more metabolically efficient variants in hypogean synbranchiform lineages. Phylogenetic analysis of mtDNA comparative data from synbranchiforms and closely related taxa (including
the indostomid Indostomus paradoxus) corroborate the notion that indostomids are more closely related to synbranchiforms than to gasterosteoids, but without rendering the former paraphyletic. Our phylogenetic results also suggest that New World species of Ophisternon might be more closely related to Synbranchus than to the remaining Ophisternon species. This novel phylogenetic hypothesis, however, should be further tested in the context of a comprehensive systematic study of the group.

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# New species of Urodeta Stainton, I869 (Lepidoptera, Elachistidae, Elachistinae) from Ghana and Democratic Republic of the Congo, with identification keys to the Afrotropical species of the genus 

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#### Abstract

Two new species, Urodeta falcata sp. nov. from Ghana and U. bisigna sp. nov. from Democratic Republic of the Congo are described. The habitus and genitalia are diagnosed and illustrated in detail. Identification keys to the Afrotropical species of the genus Urodeta, based on male and female genitalia, are provided.


## Keywords

Microlepidoptera, mining moths, morphology, Sub-Saharan Africa, taxonomy

## Introduction

The genus Urodeta was established by Stainton (1869) with U. cisticolella Stainton, 1869 as the type species. Originally, Stainton (1869) indicated its closeness to Elachista Treitschke, but subsequent classifications have associated it with several different families and subfamilies (De Prins and Sruoga 2012).

Moths of the genus Urodeta are very small to small with a wingspan of 4-8 mm. The labial palpus is porrect and shorter than the diameter of the head. The forewing pattern is mostly inconspicuous, being unicolourous or with indistinct markings. The

[^2]most distinctive feature in the male genitalia is the anteriorly directed spines of the gnathos, and females are easily recognized by the apophyses anteriores, which, when present, extend from the middle of segment 8 and spread apart laterad. A more detailed list of the morphological characters diagnosing this genus have been summarized and verified by Kaila $(2004,2011)$ and Sruoga and De Prins $(2011,2013)$. The known larvae are leaf-miners in dicotyledonous plants in the families Cistaceae (Stainton 1869; Lhomme 1946-1963; Zerkowitz 1946) and Combretaceae (Kaila 2011).

Until 2009, Urodeta was thought to be monotypic and its distribution restricted to the Mediterranean region. Taxonomic interest in this genus increased following the description of a considerable number of new species from tropical Africa (Mey 2007; Sruoga and De Prins 2009, 2011; De Prins and Sruoga 2012), Australia (Kaila 2011) and Asia (Sruoga and De Prins 2013; Sruoga and Rocienė 2018; Sruoga et al. 2019). The genus Urodeta now comprises 26 accepted and validly named species (Kaila 2019) distributed in Europe, Africa, Asia and Australia, but most of the species are known from tropical Africa (Table 1). Kaila (2011) recognized one additional species, but did not name it.

Table I. Urodeta species and their distributions.

| Urodeta species | Distribution | Notes | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hibernella (Staudinger, 1859) | Mediterranean Region | Male and female | Staudinger (1859); Bengtsson (1997); Koster and Sinev (2003) |
| falcata sp. nov. | Ghana | Male only | Present study |
| absidata Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Cameroon | Male and female | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| aculeata Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Cameroon | Male only | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| crenata Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Cameroon | Male only | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| cuspidis Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Cameroon | Male only | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| faro Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Cameroon | Female only | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| tortuosa Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Cameroon | Female only | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| acerba Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Democratic Republic of Congo | Male and female | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| bisigna sp. nov. | Democratic Republic of Congo | Female only | Present study |
| bucera Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Democratic Republic of Congo | Male and female | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| talea Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 | Democratic Republic of Congo | Male and female | Sruoga and De Prins (2011) |
| falciferella (Sruoga \& De Prins, 2009) | Kenya | Female only | Sruoga and De Prins (2009) |
| gnoma (Sruoga \& De Prins, 2009) | Kenya | Male only | Sruoga and De Prins (2009) |
| spatulata (Sruoga \& De Prins, 2009) | Kenya | Male and female | Sruoga and De Prins (2009) |
| tantilla (Sruoga \& De Prins, 2009) | Kenya | Male only | Sruoga and De Prins (2009) |
| maculata (Mey, 2007) | Namibia | Male and female | Mey (2007) |
| taeniata (Mey, 2007) | Namibia | Male only | Mey (2007) |
| acinacella Sruoga \& De Prins, 2012 | South Africa | Female only | De Prins and Sruoga (2012) |
| quadrifida Sruoga \& De Prins, 2012 | South Africa | Female only | De Prins and Sruoga (2012) |
| trilobata Sruoga \& De Prins, 2012 | South Africa | Male and female | De Prins and Sruoga (2012) |
| jurateae Sruoga \& Rociené, 2018 | India | Male and female | Sruoga and Rocienė (2018) |
| pectena Sruoga \& Rocienė, 2018 | India | Female only | Sruoga and Rocienė (2018) |
| noreikai Sruoga \& De Prins, 2013 | Nepal | Male and female | Sruoga and De Prins (2013) |
| longa Sruoga \& Kaila, 2019 | Thailand | Female only | Sruoga et al. (2019) |
| inusta Kaila, 2011 | Australia | Male and female | Kaila (2011) |
| Urodeta sp. | Australia | Described, but not named; male and female | Kaila (2011) |

In this study, we describe two new species in the genus Urodeta and provide keys to all the known Afrotropical species.

## Materials and methods

Adult specimens were examined externally using MBS-10 and Euromex Stereo Blue stereomicroscopes. The forewing length was measured along the costa from wing base to the apex of the terminal fringe scales. For a wingspan, the forewing length was doubled and thorax width added. The width of the head was measured between the inner edges of the antennal bases. Genitalia were prepared following the standard method described by Robinson (1976) and Traugott-Olsen and Nielsen (1977). The genitalia were studied and some morphological structures were photographed in glycerol before permanent slide-mounting in Euparal. The male genital capsule was stained with fuchsin and the abdominal pelt with chlorazol black (Direct Black 38/Azo Black). The genital morphology was examined using a Novex B microscope. Habitus images were taken using a Canon EOS 80D camera fitted with a MP-E 65 mm Canon macro lens, attached to a macro rail (MJKZZ Qool Rail). The photographs of genitalia were made using a Novex B microscope and a E3ISPM12000KPA digital camera. The descriptive terminology of morphological structures follows Kaila (1999, 2011) and Kristensen (2003).

Type specimens are deposited in the Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences, Belgium (RBINS).

## Taxonomy

## Key to the Afrotropical species of Urodeta species based on male genitalia

[males of the following species are unknown and not included in the key: $U$. bisigna sp. nov., U. falciferella, U. quadrifida and $U$. tortuosa]

1 Sacculus entirely separated from remaining valva as an elongate lobe ......... 2

- Sacculus not separated from remaining valva .............................................. 3

2 Valva divided into two separate lobes (sacculus and remaining part of valva); sclerotized phallic tube not dilated basally (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 25-28) U. acerba

- Valva divided into three distinct lobes (sacculus entirely separated and termen of remaining part of valva deeply emarginated so appear divided into long and narrow lobes); sclerotized phallic tube strongly dilated basally (De Prins and Sruoga 2012, figs 22 and 23) U. trilobata

3 Ventral margin of sacculus partly serrated (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 52-55)
U. crenata

- Ventral margin of sacculus not serrated ....................................................... 44 Spinose knob of gnathos divided into two separated lobes (Sruoga and DePrins 2011, figs 39-41)U. bucera
- $\quad$ Spinose knob of gnathos not divided ..... 55 Inner processes of valvae fused apically and embedded with many small cusp-shaped spines (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 15-20)
- Valva without inner process embedded with spines ..... 6
6 Phallus with strongly sclerotized band along ventral margin ..... 7
- Phallus without strongly sclerotized band along ventral margin ..... 11
$7 \quad$ Valvae are tightly fused together dorso-proximally (Sruoga and De Prins2011, figs 74-76)U. talea
- Valvae not fused together dorso-proximally ..... 88 Indentation of distal margin of juxta wider than width of juxta lobe (Sruogaand De Prins 2011, figs 35 and 36).U. aculeata
Indentation of distal margin of juxta is not wider than juxta lobe or juxta notindented9$9 \quad$ Vesica with a cluster of small internal spines and two large, claw-shaped cor-nuti (this paper, Figs 4, 6-7, 9, and 10)Vesica with a cluster of small internal spines and more than two large cor-nuti10
10 Vesica with a cluster of small internal spines and four large cornuti (Mey 2007, figs 33 and 34) U. maculata
11
Sclerotized phallic tube about 7 times longer than wide; vesica without cor- nuti (Mey 2007, figs 35 and 36) ..... U. taeniata
$-$ cornuti and many tiny internal spines ..... 12
12 Vesica with one large cornuti and with group of minute spines (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 58-63) ..... U. cuspidis
Vesica with more than one large cornuti and can be with group of minute spines ..... 13
13 Sacculus meeting cucullus at sharp angle (about $50-80^{\circ}$ ); apex of phalluspointed (Sruoga and De Prins 2009, figs 37, 39, and 40)............. U. gnoma
- $\quad$ Sacculus meeting cucullus at blunt angle (about $110-145^{\circ}$ ); apex of phal-lus with broad, strongly sclerotized process (Sruoga and De Prins 2009, figs44-47)
U. spatulata
Key to the Afrotropical species of Urodeta species based on female genitalia
[females of the following species are unknown and not included in the key: $U$. aculeata,U. crenata, U. cuspidis, U. falcata sp. nov., U. faro, U. gnoma, U. taeniata, U. tantilla]
1 Corpus bursae with signum ..... 2
- Corpus bursae without signum ..... 9
2 Corpus bursae with two signa (this paper, Fig. 14) ..... U. bisigna
Corpus bursae with one signa ..... 3
3 Both pairs of apophysis (anterioris and posterioris) present ..... 4
Apophysis anterioris absent ..... 7
4 Ductus bursae not coiled ..... 5
- Ductus bursae coiled (Sruoga and De Prins 2009, figs 41-43) ..... U. falciferella
5 Apophysis posterioris long, more than 9 times longer than wide ..... 6
- Apophysis posterioris very short, about 4.5 times longer than wide (Sruogaand De Prins 2011, figs 42-49)U. bucera6 Ductus bursae with longitudinal folds; signum sickle-shaped (De Prins andSruoga 2012, figs 6-10)U. acinacella
- Ductus bursae without longitudinal folds; signum formed by two weaklyconnected plates, each with a large spine and few smaller ones (De Prins andSruoga 2012, figs 14-16)U. quadrifida
7 Signum formed by oval sclerotized plate with one large and several smallspines (De Prins and Sruoga 2012, figs 24-28)U. trilobata
- Signum formed by weakly sclerotized plate with long teeth in row. ..... 8
Ductus bursae coiled; corpus bursae with minute internal spines, signumformed from 6-7 stout teeth (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 77-82)U. talea
Ductus bursae not coiled; corpus bursae without minute internal spines, sig-num formed from 4 stout teeth (Mey 2007, figs 30 and 31) ..... U. maculata
9 Corpus bursae divided by narrow prolonged constriction into two parts(Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 29-32)U. acerba
- Corpus bursae not divided ..... 10
10 Corpus bursae narrow and long, about 4 times longer than wide (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 21 and 22) U. absidata
- Corpus bursae rounded ..... 11
11 Antrum with strongly sclerotized longitudinal folds (Sruoga and De Prins2009, figs 48 and 49)U. spatulata
- Antrum without strongly sclerotized longitudinal folds ..... 12
12 Colliculum about 3 times longer than wide; antrum long and weakly scle-rotized (Sruoga and De Prins 2011, figs 66-71)
- Colliculum as long as wide; antrum short and strongly sclerotized (Sruogaand De Prins 2011, figs 85-88)U. tortuosa


## Urodeta falcata sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/50E30AD5-4F6B-47E5-B9F9-3662FD9350CC
Figs 1, 2, 5-14
Material examined. Holotype. Ghana - ठ; Ashanti Bobiri, 4 km NE Kubease, $6^{\circ} 41^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 1^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{W} ; 230 \mathrm{~m}$ alt.; 25 May 2011; J. \& W. De Prins leg., gen. prep. VS510.

Diagnosis. Urodeta falcata is a small, dark-coloured species with indistinct wing markings. In wing pattern and male genitalia, the new species is most similar to U. aculeata Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011, known from Cameroon, U. tantilla Sruoga


Figures I-4. Collecting localities in Sub-Saharan Africa I, 2 Bobiri Forest, Ashanti, Ghana 3, 4 Mayumbe Forest, Bas-Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo.
\& De Prins, 2011, known from Kenya and U. maculata (Mey, 2007), known from Namibia. However, $U$. falcata can be distinguished most easily by the presence of two claw-shaped cornuti, pointed apex of phallus and long ventral shield of juxta.

Description. Male (Figs 5, 6). Forewing length 2.2 mm ; wingspan 5.0 mm ( $N=1$ ). Head: frons, vertex and neck tuft pale grey, weakly mottled with dark brown tipped scales; labial palpus vestigial, visible only as very short greyish extension; scape greyish white below, brownish grey above, pecten pale grey; flagellum pale brown, weakly annulated with darker rings basally and slightly serrated apically. Thorax and tegula strongly mottled with scales basally pale grey and distally brownish grey. Forewing: strongly mottled with scales basally pale grey and distally brownish grey; wing darker beyond middle; fringe brownish grey. Hindwing and its fringe brownish grey.

Female. Unknown.
Male genitalia (Figs 7-14). Uncus short. Spinose knob of gnathos long oval, twice as long as wide, oriented posteriorly (Fig. 12). Valva short and broad; costa concave; ventral margin of sacculus convex, distally meeting emargination of termen at a blunt angle; cucullus short and narrow, tapered apically, inner surface covered with long setae; transtilla short, strongly sclerotized. Ventral shied of juxta about 3 times as long


Figures 5-14. Urodeta falcata sp. nov., male, holotype $\mathbf{5}$ habitus $\mathbf{6}$ head, fronto-lateral view $\mathbf{7}$ general view of male genitalia (phallus removed) $\mathbf{8}$ sclerotized phallic tube $\mathbf{9}$ male genitalia, lateral view $\mathbf{I O}$ central part of genitalia II distal part of phallus $\mathbf{I 2}$ gnathos and apices of cucullus, distal view 13 ventral cornutus 14 dorsal cornutus (5,6,8-10 in glycerol before permanent mounting in Euparal).
as wide, strongly sclerotized. Vinculum U-shaped, proximal margin weakly concave. Sclerotized phallic tube short, as long as valva, with strongly sclerotized, wide band along ventral margin; distally tapered towards pointed apex; vesica with 2 large curved cornuti and numerous tiny, elongate spines.

Biology. Unknown.
Flight period. Based on the specimen available, adults fly in May.
Distribution. So far, this species is known only from southern Ghana (Figs 1, 2).
Etymology. The species name is derived from the Latin falcata (sickle-shaped) in reference to the shape of cornuti in male genitalia.

Remarks. The head of the holotype is somewhat abraded, therefore the description is approximate.

## Urodeta bisigna sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/718EA81F-1BC6-45BA-83DB-0B6F4453571A
Figs 3, 4, 15-18

Material examined. Holotype. Congo Dem. Rep. • ; Bas-Congo, Nat. Res. LukiMayumbe, $05^{\circ} 27^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$, $13^{\circ} 05^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$; 320 m alt.; 29 Mar. 2006; J. De Prins leg., gen. prep. VS511.

Diagnosis. Urodeta bisigna is a small, lightly-coloured species, with indistinct wing markings. In female genitalia, the new species is comparable to Afrotropical species with vestigial apophyses and a comb-shaped signum consisting of few stout spines, i.e., U. maculata (Mey, 2007) known from Namibia, U. bucera Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011 and U. talea Sruoga \& De Prins, 2011, known from Democratic Republic of the Congo. However, U. bisigna is distinguished most easily by its additional irregularly shaped signum.

Description. Female (Figs 15, 16). Forewing length 2.2 mm ; wingspan 5.0 mm ( $N=1$ ). Head: frons, vertex and neck tuft creamy white, neck tuft weakly mottled with brown tipped scales; labial palpus vestigial, visible only as very short greyish extension; scape creamy white, mottled with brown tipped scales above, pecten creamy white; flagellum greyish brown, annulated with paler rings basally and slightly serrated apically. Thorax and tegula creamy white, mottled by brown tipped scales. Forewing: creamy white powdered with brownish creamy tipped scales. Denser grey brown scales forming two irregular patches: one in basal part of wing; other extending obliquely at $2 / 5$ of costa towards tornus of wing. Blackish brown scales forming two small irregular spots: one at $2 / 5$ of costa and other opposite at dorsum; fringe greyish white. Hindwing and its fringe pale brownish grey.

Male. Unknown.
Female genitalia (Figs 17, 18). Papilla analis very short, ventral surface setose. Apophysis posterioris vestigial, visible only as tiny extension basolaterally, apophysis anterioris absent. Ostium bursae situated in membrane between sterna 7 and 8. Antrum and colliculum not distinct. Ductus bursae very long, spirally coiled in proximal


Figures 15-18. Urodeta bisigna sp. nov., female, holotype $\mathbf{1 5}$ habitus $\mathbf{1 6}$ head, fronto-lateral view I7 caudal part of female genitalia 18 ductus and corpus bursae.
$1 / 2$. Corpus bursae with minute internal spines and two signa, one comb shaped, consisting of 5 stout teeth, slightly varying in size and few smaller spines; another signum irregularly shaped, with one short spine.

Biology. Unknown.
Flight period. Based on the specimen available, adults fly in March.
Distribution. So far, this species is known only from western Democratic Republic of the Congo (Figs 3, 4).

Etymology. The species name is derived from the Latin prefix bi (two), and signum in reference to presence of two signa in female genitalia.

Remarks. The forewing in the holotype is somewhat abraded, therefore the description is approximate.

## Discussion

In these times of biodiversity loss (De Prins 2022) in Central Africa and elsewhere we recognize the importance of adding two new species for science. The description of two new species brings the total number of known species of Afrotropical Urodeta to 20. They comprise nearly $77 \%$ of the world fauna of the genus. The largest species richness of Urodeta in tropical Africa is reported from Cameroon ( 6 spp ), Democratic Republic of the Congo ( 4 spp ), and Kenya ( 4 spp ). With the description of Urodeta falcata sp. nov., the genus Urodeta and the subfamily Elachistinae are recorded from Ghana for the first time.

The recent discoveries of Urodeta species from Africa, Asia and Australia (Mey 2007; Sruoga and De Prins 2009, 2011, 2013; Kaila 2011; De Prins and Sruoga 2012; Sruoga and Rocienė 2018; Sruoga et al. 2019) show that species richness and geographical distributions are much greater than were previously assumed. The main reason for our limited understanding of this group of moths in the Afrotropical region is a lack of adequate field work. All Afrotropical species of Urodeta are known only from their type localities. Although a trend towards endemism of micromoths is evident (De Prins and De Prins 2011-2021), distributions of smaller, more obscure moths might change with targeted collecting efforts outside of the type localities (De Prins et al. 2009).

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# A new species of anthothelid octocoral (Cnidaria, Alcyonacea) discovered on an algal reef of Taiwan 

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#### Abstract

A molecular phylogenetic analysis of 132 octocoral species reveals a close relationship between specimens collected from the intertidal pools of the Datan Algal Reef, Taoyuan, Taiwan, and Erythropodium caribaeorum (Duchassaing \& Michelotti, 1860), but the two species have distinct morphological features. On the basis of morphological differences in polyps and sclerites, we identify and describe a new Erythropodium species: $E$. taoyuanensis $\mathbf{s p}$. nov. The distinct identifying features of $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov. include the upright contractile polyps from thin encrusting membranes and abundant 6 -radiate sclerites. Using an integrative approach, we present the findings of morphological comparisons and molecular phylogenetic analyses to demonstrate that $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov. is distinct from other Erythropodium species. Our study contributes to the knowledge of octocoral biodiversity in marginal habitats.


## Keywords

$28 S r D N A$, Anthothelidae, cox2-IGR-cox1, molecular phylogeny, msh1, northwestern Pacific, Scleraxonia

## Introduction

The Datan Algal Reef located in northwestern Taiwan, which occupies the intertidal flat toward the sublittoral along the $27-\mathrm{km}$ long coastline of Taoyuan City, is composed of crustose coralline algae. Both sandy and muddy habitats occur in a

[^3]mosaic pattern within the algal reef (Kuo et al. 2020). The porous algal reefs host a relatively high benthic diversity and biomass, such as crustaceans, polychaetes, and sipunculans (Lin 2020). Because of the geographic location and availability of hard substratum, the Datan Algal Reef may be a stepping stone to connecting reefassociated species between tropical corals and non-reefal coral communities in the Taiwan Strait (Chen 2017), while the physical environment in the algal reef may be considered a marginal habitat for most corals (Kuo et al. 2020). The sedimentation rates in the Datan Algal Reef are extremely high, ranging between 3,818 and 29,166 $\mathrm{mg} \mathrm{cm}^{-2}$ day $^{-1}$ (Kuo et al. 2020), which far exceeds the rate $\left(10 \mathrm{mg} \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\right.$ day $\left.^{-1}\right)$ in a healthy shallow water tropical to subtropical coral reef (Rogers 1990). Therefore, the water column in rock pools is turbid and contains a high concentration of sand and particles formed by erosion, wave action, and tidal currents. Although the physical conditions may deter most corals, a stable population of the caryophyllid coral Polycyathus chaishanensis Lin et al., 2012 live in the tidal pool off the Datan Algal Reef (Kuo et al. 2020).

Meanwhile, the Datan Algal Reef is currently facing destruction from the development and construction of liquefied natural gas (LNG) storage terminals and ports by the Taiwan Chinese Petrol Corporation (CPC). Therefore, multiple environmental impact assessment surveys have been conducted. The intertidal surveys led to the discovery of a species of Erythropodium Kölliker, 1865 in the tidal pools (Lin 2020).

Erythropodium is a genus of shallow water soft corals forming endosymbiotic association with Symbiodiniaceae belonging to the family Anthothelidae Broch, 1916. Although it is widely distributed from tropical to temperate regions, its populations are not abundant (Bayer 1961). Erythropodium has been documented in a relatively small and fragmented geographical range, including the Caribbean Sea, the Southwestern Atlantic, northern Australia, and the Solomon Islands, with only three nominal species recorded worldwide (Duchassaing and Michelotti 1860; Bayer 1961; Utinomi 1971; Carpinelli et al. 2020). Furthermore, Erythropodium has not been recorded in the North Pacific Ocean. Its traditional diagnostic morphological features include thick encrusting sheet-like colonies without conspicuous upright lobes or branches, predominant 6-radiate sclerites, and a purplish red coenenchyme surface (Kölliker 1865; Bayer 1961, 1981) separate it from other genera within Anthothelidae. Erythropodium caribaeorum (Duchassaing \& Michelotti, 1860), the type species of this genus is originally distributed in the Caribbean Sea and has invaded into the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean (Carpinelli et al. 2020). The other two species only reported in their type locality include E. salomonense Thomson \& Mackinnon, 1910 in the Indian Ocean and E. hicksoni (Utinomi, 1971) in the south Pacific Ocean. Here, we describe and illustrate an additional species, E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. The freshly collected material was also subjected to molecular phylogenetic analyses, the results of which substantiated the taxonomic findings that led us to assign the new Erythropodium species.

## Materials and methods

## Collection and morphological analysis

Based on an environmental impact assessment report, the Datan Algal Reef, Taoyuan, Taiwan was divided into two subsections, Datan G1 and Datan G2 (Kuo et al. 2020). Collection and observation were conducted in Datan G2, during the spring low tide on June 24, 2021. Specimens were collected by reef walking and stored in seawater. After collection, one of the specimens (NMMB-CR000148) was preserved in absolute ethanol, and the remaining specimens were maintained in seawater with the addition of magnesium chloride overnight and then preserved in $75 \%$ ethanol. The holotype and paratypes are deposited at the National Museum of Marine Biology and Aquarium, Pingtung County, Taiwan (NMMB-CR). Selected fragments from four specimens were dissolved in sodium hypochlorite to examine sclerites under both light microscope and scanning electron microscope (S-3000N, Hitachi, Japan).

## Molecular phylogenetic analysis

Polyps from four colonies (NMMB-CR000148 to NMMB-CR000151) were used to extract DNA. DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen, CA, USA) was used for DNA extraction, according to the manufacturer's protocol. The primer pair COII8068XF and COIoctR was used to amplify cox2-IGR-coxl (France and Hoover 2002; McFadden et al. 2011). Furthermore, we designed a new primer pair (MSH-Antho-F: ARTTCTATGAACTTTGGCATGAGC and MSH-Antho-R: YTAGCATVGGGTTCAGAGGG) from sequences of Anthothelidae including Erythropodium, Anthothela, and Iciligorgia to amplify partial $m t M u t S$ region. The nuclear $28 S r D N A$ was amplified according to Halàsz et al. (2015), using the primers 28S-Far and 28S-Rab (McFadden and van Ofwegen 2013). The amplicons were purified and further sequenced using the ABI 3730 DNA Analyser. The sequences of NMMB-CR000148 were deposited in GenBank with accession numbers, OK480042, OK483343, and OK482879 for cox2-IGR-cox1, $m t M u t S$, and $28 S r D N A$, respectively and compared with sequences listed in McFadden and van Ofwegen (2012) and partial species in van der Ham et al. (2009) (Suppl. material 1: Table S1).

The obtained sequences were edited using Geneious Prime v. 2021.2.2 (Biomatters, New Zealand) aligned to data from McFadden and van Ofwegen (2012) and partial species in van der Ham et al. (2009) using MUSCLE alignment. Maximum-likelihood (ML) analyses were run using RAxML-NG v. 1.0.3 (Kozlov et al. 2019) with $T V M+I+G$ and $G T R+I+G$ models applied to mitochondrial genes and $28 S$ rDNA, respectively. Bayesian inference (BI) was run using MrBayes v. 3.2.7 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist 2001) with the same data partitions, while a GTR model was applied separately to each partition because MrBayes does not support the TVM model. Topologies were edited using FigTree v. 1.4.4 (accessible at http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/ figtree/). Because the stoloniferan genus Cornularia Lamarck, 1816 is the sister taxon
to all other octocorals, the sequences of C. cornucopiae (Pallas, 1766) and C. pabloi McFadden \& van Ofwegen, 2012 were used as outgroups to root the phylogenetic trees (McFadden and van Ofwegen 2012).

## Results

Taxonomy

The following key used to identify species of Erythropodium is based on the original descriptions of E. caribaeorum, E. hicksoni, and E. salomonense (Duchassaing and Michelotti 1860; Thomson and Mackinnon 1910; Utinomi 1971), Bayer's (1961) description of $E$. caribaeorum, and the direct examation of type specimens of the new described $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov.

## Key to species of Erythropodium

1 Coenenchyme thin generally $<1 \mathrm{~mm}$. Polyps contractile, do not fully retract into coenenchyme
E. taoyuanensis sp. nov.

- Coenenchyme thick generally $>1 \mathrm{~mm}$. Polyps retractile, fully retract into coenenchyme2
2 Sclerites in the form of rod present E. caribaeorum
Sclerites in the form of rod absent. ..... 3
3 Coenenchymal sclerites are capstan-like triradiates or tetraradiates E. bicksoni
- Coenenchymal sclerites are double-spheres .......................... E. salomonense


## Systematics

> Class Anthozoa Ehrenberg, 1831
> Subclass Octocorallia Haeckel, 1866
> Order Alcyonacea Lamouroux, 1812
> Family Anthothelidae Broch, 1916
> Genus Erythropodium Kölliker, 1865

## Erythropodium taoyuanensis, sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/A83374ED-B308-4C8C-9708-531A5A32840C
Figs 1-4
Material examined. Holotype. Tarwan, Taoyuan, Datan Algal Reef; 25 ${ }^{\circ} 02^{\prime} 7.849^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$, $121^{\circ} 02^{\prime} 56.059^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E} ;-30 \mathrm{~cm}$ (below sea level); 24 Jun. 2021; T.-H. Tu and E.-J. Lin leg.; tidal pool, hand collecting; GenBank: OK480042, OK483343, and OK482879; NMMB-CR000148.

Paratype. TAIwAN; same data as holotype; NMMB-CR000149.
Other material. Tarwan; same data as holotype; 21 Sep. 2020; NMMBCR000150.Taiwan; same data as holotype; 21 Sep. 2020; M.-H. Lin and L.-C. Liu leg.; NMMB-CR000151.

Diagnosis. The holotype colony is composed of upright polyps arising separately from a encrusting membrane less than 1 mm thick or a network of ribbon-like stolons. When fully extended, polyps are around 3 mm long, and the tentacles are slender with 10-13 pairs of pinnules on either side of the rachis. Polyps are contractile and cannot fully retract into the basement layer. Sclerites are mostly 6-radiate sclerites, with a few being irregular radiates. When alive, polyps are yellowish pink, and the basement layer is magenta.

Description of the holotype. (Figs 1, 2). Colonial morphology. The holotype is an encrusting colony and attaching on barnacles and coralline algal substrate. When alive, the colony consisted of densely distributed polyps, up to $20 / \mathrm{cm}^{2}$, arising from the basement layer, which is completely covered by sand (Fig. 1a). In its preserved state, the holotype measures $57.0 \mathrm{~mm} \times 33.8 \mathrm{~mm} \times 22.8 \mathrm{~mm}$. The thickness of the basal membrane in the alcohol-preserved holotype is less than 1 mm .

Polyps. When fully extended, the polyps may attain approximately $2.5-3.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length (Fig. 1b). The fully spread tentacles are cylindrical, slender, and up to $2.5 \mathrm{~mm} \times 0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$, with $10-13$ pairs of pinnules arranged in a single row on either side of the tentacle rachis (Fig. 1b). The polyps are contractile in both live and preserved state (Fig. 1); when contracted, they are cylindrical and measuring from the attachment at stolons to the tentacle base are around 1.5 mm in width (Fig. 1c, d). The pinnules ( $0.2-0.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ long) gradually taper at the end to a sharp tip. The polyps are associated with symbiotic unicellular algae.

Sclerites. Sclerites are present in all parts of the holotype and evenly distributed in the coenenchyme, polyp body wall, tentacles, and pinnules. Six-radiate sclerites are the commonest type, representing more than $90 \%$ of sclerites in anthocodiae and tentacles. They are $0.032-0.068 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length and $0.025-0.036 \mathrm{~mm}$ in width with simple tubercles (Fig. 2a). The polyp wall contains abundant 6-radiate sclerites, derivatives of radiates which are $0.028-0.132 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length and $0.025-0.083 \mathrm{~mm}$ in width, with prominent tubercles and table-radiates (Fig. 2b). The average size of sclerites in the polyp wall is greater than that in the polyps. Sclerites in the cortex are similar to those of the polyp wall but larger in size, including 6-radiate sclerites $(0.042-0.120 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length and $0.034-0.076 \mathrm{~mm}$ in width) and irregular radiates ( $0.046-0.080 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length and $0.100-0.130 \mathrm{~mm}$ in width) (Fig. 2c). Furthermore, some sclerites in the cortex are fused to form clumps.

Color. In life, colors of tissue, autozooids, and cortical layer are translucent, white to yellowish, and pink to magenta, respectively. Under light microscope, sclerites are translucent, magenta, or reddish.

Variation. Paratype (NMMB-CR000149) and non-type specimens (NMNBCR000150 and NMNB-CR000151) show variation in the density of polyps ranging $5-20 / \mathrm{cm}^{2}$. Six-radiate sclerites are the commonest type of sclerites in the examined specimens, while their sizes are varied not only in different parts of a colony but also differ from what was observed in the holotype and across the specimens.

The length and width of 6-radiate sclerites in the examined specimens is $0.020-0.068$ mm and $0.020-0.053 \mathrm{~mm}$, respectively, in polyp tissue; $0.024-0.098 \mathrm{~mm}$ and $0.018-$ 0.070 mm , respectively, in polyp wall; and $0.022-0.118 \mathrm{~mm}$ and $0.026-0.075 \mathrm{~mm}$, respectively, in cortex (Figs 3, 4). All examined specimens possess similar diagnostic features as the holotype from the level of colony to sclerits including upright polyps arising from a encrusting membrane, contraticle polyps, and predominant six-radiate sclerites. The major differences between examined specimens are reflected in the density and size variation of polyps and sclerites, respectively.


Figure I. Erythropodium taoyuanensis sp. nov. a intertidal population in situ $\mathbf{b}$ close-up of a c, d contracted polyps in situ e holotype (NMMB-CR000148) in preserved state $\mathbf{f}$ paratype (NMMB-CR000149) in preserved state.

Differential diagnosis. When comparing the morphology of E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. to the other three Erythropodium species, basal membrane, pinnule arrangement, retractile or contractile ability of polyps, and shape and size of sclerites (Table 1) were examined, with the contractibility of polyp and shape of sclerites considered as the most distinct characters.

According to Duchassaing and Michelotti (1860), Bayer (1961), and Carpinelli et al. (2020), the diagnostic features of E. caribaeorum include an encrusting and membranous carpet-like colony, retractile polyps, elongated pinnules, thick cortical layer, and predominantly 6 -radiate sclerites (Table 1). While the colonies of E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. form firm expansions on rocks similar to the colonial form of E. caribaeorum, the thinner cortical layer, shorter pinnules, and contractile polyps are distinct features. Furthermore, the types and shapes of radiates are the main features to distinguish these two species. Compared with E. caribaeorum, E. taoyuanensis sp . nov. possesses irregular radiates with generally enlarged tubercles having tiny protuberances. Compared with the creamy white and 3-mm-thick basal membrane in E. hicksoni (Table 1), the basal membrane in E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. is pink in the preserved state, similar to the color as in life, and thinner-generally less than 1 mm thick. Although pinnules in both species are arranged in a single pair of rows (one at each side of a tentacle), E. hicksoni normally has nine pairs of pinnules per tentacle, whereas $E$. taoyuanensis has 10-13 pairs. In addition, the polyps are retractile in E. hicksoni but contractile in E. taoyuanensis. Sclerites in E. hicksoni include triradiates, tetraradiates, flattened rods, and spindles. However, E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. has only 6-radiate sclerites. Finally, E. salomonense and E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. can be distinguished by the type and shape of the radiates. Additionally, the retractile polyps in E. salomonense (Table 1) are distinct from the contractile polyps in E. taoyuanensis. The above variations support that $E$. taoyuanensis is distinct from the other nominal Erythropodium species.

Etymology. The specific name taoyuanensis alludes to the city's name, Taoyuan, where the specimens were collected.

Table I. Diagnostic traits of nominal Erytropodium species.

| Species name | Diagnostic traits |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Colony | Coenenchyme | Polyp | Sclerite | References |
| Erythropodium caribaeorum | Encrusting, <br> membranous <br> carpet-like colony | Thick cortical <br> layer, -3 mm | Retractile polyps <br> with elongated pin- <br> nules arragned in a <br> single pair of rows | Dominant 6-radi- <br> ate sclerites and <br> irregular radiate <br> scleirtes | Duchassaing and Michelotti <br> 1860: pl. I. figs 8-11; Bayer <br> 1961: 75; fig. 16e-h; Carpi- <br> nelli et al. 2020: 177; figs 1, 2 |
| Erythropodium hicksoni | Membranous <br> colony | Thick cortical <br> layer, -3 mm | Retractile polyps <br> with 9 pairs of pin- <br> nules per tentacle | Triradiates, quad- <br> riradiates, flattened <br> rods, and spindles | Utinomi 1971: 8-10, fig. 2; <br> pl. 7. fig. 3 |
| Erythropodium salomonense | Encrusting form | Thick cortical <br> layer, 1.5-2 mm | Retractile polyps | Spindles, double <br> spheres, irregular <br> sclerites | Thomson and Mackinnon <br> 1910: 174-175; pl. 12, fig. 8; <br> pl. 13, fig. 9 |
| Erythropodium taoyuanensis | Encrusting, <br> membranous | Think <br> cortical layer, | Contractile polyps <br> with 10-13 pairs of <br> pinnules per tentacle | Dominant 6-radiate <br> sclerites and deriva- <br> tives of radiates | Present study |



Figure 2. Erythropodium taoyuanensis, holotype, NMMB-CR000148 a sclerites of the polyp b sclerites of the polyp wall $\mathbf{c}$ sclerites of the cortex.


Figure 3. Erythropodium taoyuanensis, paratype, OCT133 NMMB-CR000149 a sclerites of the polyp b sclerites of the polyp wall $\mathbf{c}$ sclerites of the cortex.


Figure 4. Erythropodium taoyuanensis, NMMB-CR000151 a sclerites of the polyp b sclerites of the polyp wall $\mathbf{c}$ sclerites of the cortex $\mathbf{d}$ fused sclerites in the cortex.

Distribution. The Datan G2 in Datan Algal Reef, Taoyuan, Taiwan, is the only location where this species is known; it has a biodiverse coralline algal reef. Erythropodium taoyuanensis sp. nov. is one of the dominant sessile organisms encrusting the rocks at this location and is generally restricted to near the low tidal line, and it may be exposed to the air during the spring low tide.

## Phylogenetic analyses

Sequencing nuclear $28 S r D N A$, and mitochondrial cox2-IGR-cox1 and msh1 resulted in 784,777 , and 585 bps, respectively, yielding a concatenated alignment of 2542 bps containing 1641 phylogenetically informative sites. All four $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov. specimens in this collection had identical genotypes at the sequenced regions. The genetic distances (uncorrected $p$ ) between the specimens from the Datan Algal Reef and E. caribaeorum are $6.2 \%$ at $m s h 1,3.7 \%$ cox2-IGR-cox1, and $4.5 \%$ at 285 . As has been demonstrated previously based on analyses of similar datasets (McFadden and van Ofwegen 2012, 2013), both ML and BI indicated that the concatenated alignment supported the division of octocorals into two major clades: one composed of HolaxoniaAlcyoniina and the other composed of the majority of Calcaxonia, Pennatulacea, Heliopora, and Scleraxonia (Fig. 5). In the latter clade, the family Parasphaerascleridae McFadden \& van Ofwegen, 2013 of Alcyonacea is strongly supported as the sister taxon to a group consisting of previously recognized Calcaxonia-Pennatulacea and AnthomastusCoralliidae clades, and a small subgroup of a heterogenous mix of scleraxonians plus the stoloniferan genus Telestula Madsen, 1944 (Fig. 5). Both phylogenetic analyses placed specimens of $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov. in the subgroup composed of heterogeneous scleraxonians including the genera Erythropodium, Ideogorgia, Homophyton, and Diodogorgia of Anthothelidae and Briareum of Briaeidae (Fig. 5) with strong support (ML bootstrap $=100 \%$; BI poster probability $=1.0$ ). Within the subgroup, both ML and BI indicated that E. taoyuanensis sp. nov. is a sister taxon to E. caribaeorum (GenBank accession number: GQ342480, specimen RMNH.Coel. 40829).

## Discussion

Erythropodium taoyuanensis sp. nov. has only been discovered in the tidal pools at Datan G2 of the Datan Algal Reef. The tidal pool is periodically exposed to air and experiences variation in salinity, dissolved oxygen content, and temperature. Therefore, it is not a typical habitat for octocorals, and only a couple of species of Sinularia or Asterospicularia of Xeniidae have been observed in Taiwanese reefs (Dai 1991; Benayahu et al. 2004). By contrast, the low-water level also brings plentiful sunlight, which helps intertidal plant life grow quickly. In the Datan Algal Reef, the water column has a high sediment rate (Kuo et al. 2020). Therefore, living in tidal pools might help the zooxanthellate E. taoyuanensis overcome the turbid water. Erythropodium taoyuanensis sp. nov. is the first Erythropodium species identified to be distributed in the subtropical Indo-

0.1

Figure 5. Phylogenetic relationship reconstruction ( 2543 nt of concatenated msh1, cox2-IGR-cox1, 28 S $r D N A$ ) of the Holaxonia-Alcyoniina clade of Octocorallia. Solid circles at nodes indicate strong support from both maximum-likelihood (bootstrap value > 70\%) and Bayesian inference (posterior probability > 0.95 ); split circles indicate strong support from one analysis only (left half solid: supported by maximumlikelihood; right half solid: supported by Bayesian analyses).

Pacific Ocean; other Erythropodium species have been reported in the Caribbean Sea, southwestern Atlantic, and temperate waters of the Indo-Pacific (Bayer 1961; Utinomi 1971; Carpinelli et al. 2020). This study is also the first to document an Erythropodium species off Taiwan. Meanwhile, the restricted distribution of $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov. and members of Erythropodium in Taiwan further emphasize that their conservation is urgent. Unfortunately, their only known habitat, the Datan Algal Reef, is currently polluted by concrete from the construction of LNG receiving terminals and ports.

Morphologically, the specimens (NMMB-CR000148 to NMM-CR000151) collected from the Datan Algal Reef possessed the diagnostic feature of Erythropodium, such as thin, firm colony expansions on rocks and sclerites that are all derivatives of 6 -radiate sclerites (Kölliker 1865; Bayer 1961). Therefore, they are considered to be an Erythropodium species, while the morphological features of polyps and composition of sclerites subsequently separate the specimens from the nominate species of Erythropodium.

As the orginal descriptions of the three norminal Erythropodium species were based on the light-microsope observations and lacking definite figures representing diaonstic features, a future thorough redescription of the type specimens will contribute towards further identification of this genus. Molecular evidence has revealed that the genetic distances between the specimens from the Datan Algal Reef and E. caribaeorum are greater than general intraspecific variation of most octocorals, thereby further supporting that the specimens are a new Erythropodium species. Although E. salomonense and E. hicksoni were not included in our molecular analyses, the distinct morphological features still support the separation of $E$. taoyuanensis sp. nov. from the two nominal species. In summary, the new species described here is supported by both morphological and molecular evidence.

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## Supplementary material I

## Table S1

Authors: Tzu-Hsuan Tu, Chang-Feng Dai
Data type: xlsx file
Explanation note: Sequnece used for phyloenetic reconstruction and their respective GenBank Accession numbers, according to McFadden \& Ofwegen (2012).
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# A new genus of minute stingless bees from Southeast Asia (Hymenoptera, Apidae) 

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#### Abstract

A new genus of minute stingless bees (Meliponini: Hypotrigonina) is described from Southeast Asia. Ebaiotrigona Engel \& Nguyen, gen. nov., is based on the type species Lisotrigona carpenteri Engel, recorded from Vietnam, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, and southern China. The species was previously considered an enigmatic member of Lisotrigona Moure, but is removed to a new genus based on its unique male terminalia that differs considerably from that of Lisotrigona and instead shares resemblances with Austroplebeia Moure, and the presence of yellow maculation (also similar to that of Austroplebeia). It is possible that Ebaiotrigona is the extant sister group of Austroplebeia, but this requires confirmation by future phylogenetic analyses. Based on available biological observations, Ebaiotrigona carpenteri could not be confirmed as lachryphagous as is well documented from the tear-drinking species of Lisotrigona and Pariotrigona Moure.


#### Abstract

Vietnamese Một giống mới của ong không ngòi đốt (Meliponini: Hypotrigonina) được mô tả ở Đông Nam Châu Á, Ebaiotrigona Engel \& Nguyen, gen. nov. dựa trên loài chuẩn Lisotrigona carpenteri Engel, được ghi nhận ở Việt Nam, Thái Lan, Lào, Cămpuchia và miển nam Trung Quốc. Loài này trước đây được coi là một thành viên bí ẩn của giống Lisotrigona Moure, nhủng đã được chuyển sang giống mới dựa trên các đặc


[^4]điểm độc nhất của bộ phận sinh dục có sự khác biệt đáng kể so với các loài khác của giống Lisotrigona và thay vào đó có nhửng điểm tương đông với giống Austroplebeia Moure, cùng với sự hiện diện của các đốm màu vàng trên cơ thể (cunng tương tự như ở giống Austroplebeia). Có thể giống Ebaiotrigona có mối quan hệ gần gũi với giống Austroplebeia, nhưng điều này cân được chứng minh bằng các phân tích về phát sinh loài trong tương lai. Dựa trên các quan sát về sinh học hiện có, Ebaiotrigona carpenteri chưa thể được khẳng định là một trong những loài uống nước mắt (lachyrphagous) như đã được ghi nhận roo ràng vể tập tính của các loài thích uống nước mắt ở hai giống Lisotrigona và Pariotrigona Moure.

## Keywords

Apoidea, Lisotrigona, Meliponini, taxonomy, Vietnam

## Introduction

Among the considerable diversity of stingless bees (Meliponini), several species stand out for their Lilliputian sizes, typically with body sizes under 4.1 mm . Concomitant with these minute proportions is the further reduction of the wing venation beyond that of most meliponines, lacking closed cells in the hind wing, lacking defined submarginal cells, and the disappearance of $2 \mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ or 3 M without a bend apically (Michener 2001). Such diminutive bees occur independently in various lineages of Meliponini and can be found in the genera Austroplebeia Moure, Plebeia Schwarz, Proplebeia Michener, Scaura Schwarz, and Tetragonula Moure. In addition, ten genera include exclusively tiny species: Asperplebeia Engel, Exebotrigona Engel \& Michener, Friesella Moure, Hypotrigona Cockerell, Kelneriapis Sakagami, Liotrigona Moure (sensu Engel et al. 2021), Liotrigonopsis Engel, Lisotrigona Moure, Pariotrigona Moure, and Trigonisca Moure (Michener 2001). Michener (2001) discussed the various features of minute Meliponini as well as traits that indicate the relationship, or lack of a close relationship, among the various groups, and considered some genera of this group as synonyms of others (e.g., Friesella as a synonym of Plebeia, Tetragonula as a synonym of Heterotrigona Schwarz in a polyphyletic Trigona Jurine).

During a revision of Lisotrigona (Engel 2000), one species stood out as remarkably distinct from its congeners. Lisotrigona carpenteri Engel, based on a type series collected in northern Vietnam, was unique among all other members of the genus for the presence of yellow maculation on the face, pronotal lobe, and sometimes the mesoscutellar apex. At that time, males for any species of the genus were unknown and $L$. carpenteri was interpreted to be an autapomorphic taxon based on these morphological features of the worker caste. Subsequently, males of L. furva Engel (Michener 2007a) and L. cacciae (Nurse) (under two synonymic names: Viraktamath and Sajan Jose 2017) were discovered, revealing a unique and remarkably distinctive morphology, further emphasizing the distinctiveness of Lisotrigona from other minute genera, and particularly its relatives in Asia and Australia, Pariotrigona and Austroplebeia. Moreover, it was also discovered that Lisotrigona and Pariotrigona were lachryphagous, collecting tears from the eyes of various vertebrates (Bänziger et al. 2009, 2011; Bänziger and Bänziger 2010; Bänziger 2018). While these significant revelations were brought forward, the biology and males of $L$. carpenteri remained elusive.

Recently, two groups have independently discovered males of L. carpenteri and noted the considerable morphological departure in the characters of the terminalia from other Lisotrigona (Li et al. 2021; herein). In fact, the terminalia are generally more similar to that of Austroplebeia than to any other minute Meliponini, and certainly lack the synapomorphies that otherwise characterize Lisotrigona (Michener 2007a). The male terminalia of $L$. carpenteri are so remarkably different from Lisotrigona that the species is here considered to belong to a separate genus. Here we provide a description of the genus and the male, and encourage melittologists to seek additional nests, immature stages, and further biological data for this unique species among the Southeast Asian bee fauna.

## Materials and methods

Material of L. carpenteri was examined from the following collections: Division of Entomology, University of Kansas Natural History Museum, Kansas (SEMC); Division of Invertebrate Zoölogy, American Museum of Natural History, New York (AMNH); and Insect Ecology Department, Institute of Ecology \& Biological Resources (IEBR), Hanoi, Vietnam. Morphological terminology follows that of Engel (2001, 2019), Michener (2007b), and Engel et al. (2021). The format for the generic description follows that of Rasmussen et al. (2017), Engel (2019), and Engel et al. (2021). Bees were sampled from sites with a series of nests and swept by net from around the nesting area. Most nests were left undisturbed, although two were exposed but contents were not sampled. Figs 1, 4 were prepared at the University of Kansas, while the remainder were prepared by the Institute of Ecology \& Biological Resources.

## Systematics

## Ebaiotrigona Engel \& Nguyen, gen. nov.

http://zoobank.org/99CCDC03-E122-46B9-81F6-D8C11E432DA2
Type species. Lisotrigona carpenteri Engel, 2000.
Diagnosis. The new genus resembles both Lisotrigona and the smallest individuals of Austroplebeia. The presence of yellow maculation on the face and mesosoma of the worker differentiates this caste from those of Lisotrigona (Figs 1, 5-7), while in males the clypeus can be brownish to black (refer to Description, vide). In addition, workers of Lisotrigona have distinct erect bristles on the antennal scape (lacking in Ebaiotrigona) and have minute plumose facial setae covering the entire face, including the upper frons (in Ebaiotrigona the upper frons is lacking in plumose setae and instead covered by minute, fine, simple setae). While yellow maculation is shared between workers of Ebaiotrigona and Austroplebeia, the latter has a more complete wing venation (Fig. 1D for Ebaiotrigona venation), with $1 \mathrm{Cu}, 2 \mathrm{Cu}$, and 3 Cu present, at least as nebulous if not tubular veins, and thereby a more completely delimited subdiscoidal (= second cubital) cell. Additionally, Austroplebeia s.str. has 6 distal hamuli (versus 5 in Ebaiotrigona,

Lisotrigona, and Anteplebeina), and Anteplebeina has 1M and 1cu-a confluent (versus 1M distad 1cu-a in Lisotrigona and Austroplebeia s.str.). Perhaps the most dramatic differences between Ebaiotrigona and other minute stingless bees are in the male terminalia. The male terminalia of Ebaiotrigona (Fig. 4) lack those distinctive features of Lisotrigona, that is, in the latter the gonocoxae are enormously expanded proximally into an incomplete ring, the slender gonostyli with apical setae are articulated at about midlength on the elongate gonocoxae, the genital capsule is schizogonal, and sterna VI and VII are entirely different (cf. Fig. 4 vs figs 4 , 5 of Michener 2007a). Instead, in Ebaiotrigona the genital capsule is rectigonal, with more transverse gonocoxae in which the gonostyli articulate more distally. Furthermore, the gonostyli are uniquely modified: flattened laterally, with lamellate margins broadened proximally on both ventral and dorsal sides, and tapering apically to an acute point lacking setae. The bulb of the penis valve is enlarged and longer than broad, and abruptly tapers to a thin apical process that is shorter than the basal bulb. In Lisotrigona, the bulb is smaller and about as long as the apical process, the former gently tapering into the latter (Michener 2007a).

Description. P : Minute, total length ca $3.95-4.15 \mathrm{~mm}$, forewing length ca $2.96-$ 3.10 mm ; integument generally smooth and polished, some places with widely scattered minute punctures on head and mesosoma, with distinct pale yellow maculation on face, specifically undersurface of scape, supraclypeal area, and clypeus; pronotal lobe; and sometimes as small triangle on lower parocular area, as thin line on lateral margin of mesoscutum bordering tegula and as apicolateral spots on mesoscutellar apical margin (such yellow maculation absent in Lisotrigona and Pariotrigona, present but more extensive in Austroplebeia). Setae generally pale to white; those of body fine, short, and simple, face with minutely plumose setae except on upper frons with only minute simple setae (in Lisotrigona the minutely plumose setae distributed across face, including upper frons), scape with fine minute simple setae but without erect short bristles (erect short bristles present in Lisotrigona); mesoscutum with numerous erect, fine, short, simple setae; disc of mesoscutellum with similar setae to those of mesoscutum except twice as long or longer, particularly along posterior margin.

Head as broad as mesosoma, slightly broader than long, with face narrower than compound eye length; vertex gently rounded, not produced or ridged; preoccipital area rounded; scape shorter than antennal-ocellar distance, not reaching median ocellus; ocelli near top of vertex; flagellomere I trapezoidal, longer than flagellomere II; flagellomere II about as long as flagellomere III, each slightly broader than long; middle flagellomeres about as long as or slightly longer than broad; intertorular distance slightly shorter than torulocular distance; upper torular tangent below facial midlength; gena rounded, narrower than compound eye in profile; supraäntennal area with triangular medial elevation bordered laterally by converging furrows forming distinct scapal basins; frontal carina absent, indicated on supraäntennal triangle by weakly demarcated ridge, otherwise a narrowly polished line to median ocellus; malar area nearly linear, subequal to or shorter than $0.5 \times$ flagellar diameter (similar to Lisotrigona and Austroplebeia s.str.; Pariotrigona with malar space slightly longer than flagellar diameter; Anteplebeina with malar space as long as flagellar diameter); labrum transverse, simple, apical margin
rounded; mandible with apical margin slightly oblique, largely edentate except for two small teeth on upper margin of margin (thus, bidentate), teeth well defined, acute, and incised, interdental spaces distinct but not broadly incised; labial palpomeres I and II with a few, scattered, elongate, apically arched to slightly wavy setae, such setae more clustered apically and sparse elsewhere (similar to that of Lisotrigona).

Mesoscutum with median sulcus faintly impressed, extending to slightly beyond mesoscutal midlength; notauli scarcely evident, not impressed; mesoscutellum short, acutely rounded in lateral aspect, overhanging metanotum and extreme base of propodeum, shining transverse depression on mesoscuto-mesoscutellar sulcus simple. Propodeum gently sloping; basal area slightly longer than mesoscutellum, shining, finely and faintly tessellate; propodeal spiracle elongate, nearly meeting metapostnotal lateral arms.

Forewing extending beyond apex of metasoma, with $2 \mathrm{Rs}, 1 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}, 1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}, 3 \mathrm{M}, 4 \mathrm{M}$, $1 \mathrm{Cu}, 2 \mathrm{Cu}, 3 \mathrm{Cu}$, and $2 \mathrm{cu}-\mathrm{a}$ absent or at most indicated by spectral traces; membrane hyaline, clear, with weak iridescent reflections apically; prestigma short, subequal to anterior width of 1 Rs; pterostigma slender, subparallel margins slightly widening distally to point of $1 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{rs}$, then arching to anterior margin along marginal cell base; marginal cell separated from wing apex by more than its maximum width, apex broadly open, opening about $0.75 \times$ maximum marginal cell width, 4 Rs trace not angled apically (i.e., not appendiculate); 1 M distad $1 \mathrm{cu}-\mathrm{a}$ (thus, minute $2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}$ present); submarginal slightly acute; 1 M weakly arched; 2 M not angled apically (i.e., angle between 2 M and spectral 3 M linear or at most faintly less than $180^{\circ}$ ) r -rs slightly longer than 3Rs. Hind wing with 5 distal hamuli; no closed cells and veins posterior to R absent except proximal arch of $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}$.

Metatibia approximately triangular, approximately $2.8-3.0 \times$ as long as greatest width; retromargin gently curved with subangulate distal superior angle, retromarginal setae and superior prolateral surface setae simple; prolateral surface shallowly concave apically, with corbicula occupying slightly less than apical half; retrolateral surface with broad keirotrichiate zone and narrow superior subglabrous zone, without defined clivulus except proximally; keirotrichiate zone approximately $4 \times$ as broad as superior glabrate zone, keirotrichiate zone extending to apical margin, with keirotrichiate zone narrowing and superior glabrate zone broadening in apical-most portion of metatibia; inferior penicillum and rastellar comb present, each composed of fine soft setae. Metabasitarsus with proventral margin straight, retrodorsal margin generally paralleling proventral margin, apical margin weakly convex to comparatively straight, distal superior angle not projecting; retrolateral surface without basal sericeous area.

Metasoma subtriangular, about as wide as mesosoma, with metasomal terga smooth and shining except apical margins more matte and faintly and minutely imbricate, all terga almost glabrous, except by minute, erect, simple setae apically forming a narrow band on apical margin, such setae progressively longer, more abundant, and more spread on apical-most terga; sterna largely smooth and glabrous, with long to elongate, fine, erect, simple setae apically.
$\sigma^{\top}$ : Darker than worker, apparently without facial maculation of worker (Figs 2, 3), instead yellow areas of worker dark brown to black in drone [brown in Vietnamese
male, wholly black in Chinese male (Li Yuran, pers. comm. and unpublished images to MSE)] [note that sometimes areas of yellow maculation start off brownish in individuals who are not fully pigmented and so brown areas of the male could eventually become fully yellow as in the worker; however, the fact that the Vietnamese male appears to be fully pigmented elsewhere on the body (Figs 2, 3) and that the Chinese male is wholly black tends to suggest that drones of Ebaiotrigona truly lack facial maculation, but this will require confirmation through extensive future sampling of males throughout the range of the species], except pronotal lobe consistently yellow. Scape shorter and broader than that of worker (Fig. 3); flagellomere I trapezoidal, shorter than pedicel or flagellomere II; flagellomere II about as long as flagellomere III, each slightly longer than broad. Metasomal sternum VI medioapically chamfered, bilobed; sternum VII medially broadly convex and slightly depressed, with shallow apicolateral concavities; genital capsule rectigonal (Fig. 4); gonobase somewhat transverse; gonocoxae broader than long, with gonostylus articulating somewhat proximally; gonostylus elongate and bladelike, flattened laterally, and broadened proximally and lamelliform mesally on dorsal and ventral sides, tapering apically to acute point with a single fine apical seta, seta simple (Fig. 4); penis valves elongate, bulb enlarged, longer than broad, well sclerotized, abruptly tapering to thin elongate apical process, process gently arched and acutely rounded apically, process slightly shorter than bulb, blub without elongate proximal apodeme, instead with short, twisted apodeme (Fig. 4).

Etymology. The new generic name is a combination of the Ancient Greek adjective ébaiós ( $\dot{\eta} \beta a \iota o ́ s, ~ m e a n i n g ~ " s m a l l ") ~ a n d ~ t h e ~ g e n e r i c ~ n a m e ~ T r i g o n a ~ J u r i n e . ~ T h e ~ g e n d e r ~$ of the name is feminine.

Included species. Currently, the genus includes only the type species, Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), new combination.

The following modifications to the key of Rasmussen et al. (2017) and Engel et al. (2018) allow for the incorporation of Ebaiotrigona.

1 Forewing length less than 3.2 mm , wing venation greatly reduced and retrodorsal margin of metatibia without plumose setae; hind wing without closed cells, veins closing radial and cubital cells, if visible at all, clear and unpigmented (spectral); forewing with 2Rs and $1 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}$ almost always completely absent, thus without indication of submarginal cells; at least distal part of second cubital cell of forewing undefined or defined completely by unpigmented spectral vein traces (i.e., at least 2 Cu and 3 Cu absent or spectral); vein M of forewing terminating without bend at about position of anterior end of $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ which, however, is absent (i.e., 3M lacking)2

- Forewing length typically over 4 mm , wing venation typically not greatly reduced for Meliponini, but if minute and with some wing reduction, then retrodorsal margin of metatibia with plumose setae intermixed with simple setae; hind wing typically with radial and cubital cells closed by at least weakly brownish nebulous veins; forewing with one or two submarginal cells usually weakly indicated by nebulous traces of 2Rs and 1rs-m, first submarginal cell usually
recognizable; second cubital cell of forewing completely indicated by at least faint nebulous veins (i.e., 2 Cu present); vein M of forewing usually extending at least slightly beyond position of $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ and angular at apex of tubular portion of vein (i.e., 3 M present), the stub of which is usually at least faintly visible ........ 3
2 Malar space shorter than flagellar diameter; inner margins of compound eyes converging below
- Malar space almost one-fifth as long as compound eye, much longer than flagellar diameter; inner margins of compound eyes nearly parallel
$\qquad$
Yellow maculation present in worker on scape, supraclypeal area, clypeus, pronotal lobe and sometimes on lower parocular area, apically on mesoscutellum, and laterally on mesoscutum; scape without erect bristles; minutely plumose facial setae absent on upper frons; gonocoxae unmodified, with gonostyli articulating more distally; gonostyli elongate, bladelike, expanded and lamellate proximally; genital capsule rectigonal; metasomal sternum VI medioapically chamfered, bilobed Ebaiotrigona, gen. nov.
- Yellow maculation lacking, at most with pale yellow brown areas; scape with erect bristles; minutely plumose facial setae extending across upper frons; gonocoxae with enormous, arched, proximal extensions, with gonostyli articulating near midlength; gonostyli slender elongate; genital capsule schizogonal; metasomal sternum VI with a single medioapical process

Lisotrigona Moure

## Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov.

Figs 1-7
Lisotrigona carpenteri Engel, 2000: 232. Holotype 9 (visum, AMNH).

Remark. The worker of this species has been described by Engel (2000). We do not repeat that material here but instead provide descriptive details for the hitherto undocumented male.

Descriptive notes. $\delta^{\lambda}$ : Body length 3.5 mm ; forewing length 2.9 mm ; head width 1.29 mm ; head length (lower margin of clypeus to anterior margin of median ocellus and to summit of head) $1.04 \mathrm{~mm}, 1.19 \mathrm{~mm}$, respectively; compound eye length, upper and lower interorbital distances $0.92 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.53 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.45 \mathrm{~mm}$, respectively.

Compound strongly converging below, inner orbits only feebly concave above; compound eye length greater than upper interocular distance; antennae arising below lower third of face so that distance from lower clypeal margin to lower margin of antennal torulus is about one-half distance from upper margin of torulus to lower margin of median ocellus; clypeus about twice as broad as long, lower margin scarcely below lower ocular tangent, upper margin separated from antennal torulus by about one-half torular diameter; head surface in vicinity of antennal toruli depressed, not visible in
profile; interocellar distance over twice ocellocular distance, almost $3 \times$ ocellar diameter; ocelli on submit of vertex, head surface declivitous immediately behind lateral ocelli with no ridge or carina; genal area much narrower than compound eye in profile; malar area linear (mandibular base almost in contact with lower compound eye margin); mandibles comparatively long, conspicuously crossing one another, mandibular apex slender, apical margin oblique with lower apical angle pointed, upper portion of apical margin faintly sinuous and simulating a faint preapical bump (scarcely large enough to denote as a "tooth") (Fig. 3B); antennal scape short, its length less than half


Figure I. Worker of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov., light morph A lateral habitus $\mathbf{B}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{C}$ facial view $\mathbf{D}$ forewing.
distance from antennal torulus to median ocellus; flagellum slightly tapering, covered with short, dense setae; flagellomere I shorter than pedicel, nearly $3 \times$ as broad as long; flagellomere II about $1.25 \times$ as broad as long, flagellomere III about as broad as long, subsequent flagellomeres progressively shorter so that flagellomeres IV-VI are shorter than broad, flagellomeres VII-X progressively longer, longer than broad, flagellomere XI with broadly rounded apex. Male terminalia as in Fig. 4.

Integument of head and mesosoma black except basal one-third of scape (grading into black distal half), mandible, labrum, clypeus, spot between antennae, mesoscutellum, metanotum, propodeum, legs except coxae and femora, and all metasomal segments, brown or suffused with brown ranging to black (darkest in Chinese male: Li Yuran, pers. comm. and image to MSE); pronotal lobe markedly yellow; protibia, meso- and metatibial apices, and tarsi light yellowish brown; tegulae yellowish brown; wings clear, veins light brown; stigma translucent, light brownish.


Figure 2. Drone of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov. A lateral habitus B dorsal habitus.

Integument shining, smooth, head and mesosoma with well separated, fine, small punctures, punctures on lateral part of mesoscutum denser; punctures on mesoscutellum much stronger and denser than those on mesoscutum, separated by $2-3 \times$ a puncture width; mesepisternum centrally with coarse punctures separated by $2-3 \times$ a puncture width, otherwise integument between punctures smooth; basal area of propodeum shining, minutely tessellate, glabrous; posterior surface smooth, shining. Metasomal terga smooth except minute punctures on narrow posterior margins.


Figure 3. Drone of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov. A facial view $\mathbf{B}$ outer view of mandible C metatibia and metatarsus.


Figure 4. Male terminalia of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov. A genital capsule (left = dorsal, right = ventral) B metasomal sternum VII C sternum VI.

Pubescence mostly exceptionally short, mostly yellowish white, setae of lower half of face white and conspicuously plumose, other setae simple or nearly so. Posterior part of mesoscutellum with zone of upcurved setae, longest on body except for some on apical margin of clypeus and mandible, about $2.5 \times$ as long as median ocellar diameter, otherwise long setae (nearly $2 \times$ ocellar diameter) sparse on apical margin of clypeus, vertex, coxae, and trochanters, rather numerous on mandibular lower margin. Setae of mesoscutum short, some setae at apicolateral corner longer, about as long as ocellar diameter. Metasomal terga I-IV glabrous except for minute erect setae on posterior margins.


Figure 5. Worker of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov., dark morph $\mathbf{A}$ lateral habitus $\mathbf{B}$ dorsal habitus.


Figure 6. Worker of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov., intermediate light morph A lateral habitus $\mathbf{B}$ dorsal habitus.

Variation. Workers exhibit noticeable variation in overall coloration, and can loosely fall into a lighter and dark morph, although there are individuals who seemingly intergrade and so these morphs are not discrete (Figs 1, 5-7). Generally, areas of maculation on the clypeus, ventral surface of scape, mesoscutal lateral borders, axilla, apicolaterally


Figure 7. Worker faces of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov., showing identical patterns in both dark and intermediate light morph $\mathbf{A}$ dark morph $\mathbf{B}$ intermediate light morph.
on mesoscutellum, foreleg, and in isolated areas on the mid- and hind legs can vary from pale to vivid yellow, while the males the tarsi are more consistently yellowish brown to yellow and the podites basal to the tarsi are brown to black (darkest in the Chinese male: Li Yuran, pers. comm. and image to MSE). In addition, the width of the marks on the mes-
oscutum and mesoscutellum can be exceptionally narrow (mesoscutum) or faint (mesoscutellum), such that they can appear superficially absent. Most noticeably, areas of black on the mesosoma and legs can vary to dark brown (e.g., cf. Figs 1, 5, 6). The metasoma can range from being largely black to dark reddish brown, with lighter brown on the first tergum and basal sterna, to the same pattern but from pallid yellow on the basal sterna and first tergum, with ferruginous on the remaining terga, but blending from light proximally to dark apically, and within a given tergum darkening slightly toward each marginal zone. It should be noted that the holotype worker (AMNH) is of the darker morph.

New material examined. Vietnam: $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}, 6799$, Tân Thành [Village], Yên Thịnh [Community], Yên Thủy [District], Hòa Bình [Province] [ $20^{\circ} 21.35^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 105^{\circ} 39.47^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ ], 22 June 2021, coll. Tuấn Anh Trương et al. [1 ${ }^{\lambda}, 699$, nest \#1; 599, nest \#2; 599, nest \#3; 399, nest \#4; 299, nest \#5; 1299, nest \#7; 89P, nest \#9; 89P, nest \#19; 129 nest \#16; 699, nest \#21] (IEBR); 189P, Yên Hân [Community], Chợ Mới [District], Bắc Kạn [Province], 27 June 2021, coll. Tuấn Anh Trương et al. [119P, nest \#11; 199, nest \#18; 69P, nest \#13] (IEBR); 539P, Nam Cường [Community], Chợ Đổn [District], Bắc Kạn [Province], coll. Tuấn Anh Trương et al. (69P, nest \#9; 1699, nest \#11; 2199, nest \#21); 219 P, Lân Nghè, Hữu Liên Natural Reserve, Hữu Liên [District], Lạng Sơn [Province], $21^{\circ} 33^{\prime} 48.6^{\prime \prime N}$, $106^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 36.4^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, ca $289 \mathrm{~m}, 11$ June 2018, coll. Liên Thị Phương Nguyễn et al. (IEBR).

Dark morph: 2399, Vũ Quang National Park, Vũ Quang [District], Hà Tĩnh [Province], $18^{\circ} 17^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime N}, 105^{\circ} 22^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 12$ December 2020, coll. Ngát Thị Trần \& Cường Quang Nguyễn (IEBR).

Comments. More than 10 nests were observed in a rocky wall in Yên Thủy, Hòa Bình Province, while six or seven were seen in one locality in limestone cliffs in Bắc Kạn Province (Figs 8, 9). The bees appear to prefer nesting in cavities between stones, either natural limestone cliffs or even amid the rocks of human-built walls, much like that of Pariotrigona (Bänziger et al. 2011). The bees were quite a nuisance and frequented human skin where they were lapping sweat, and attempted to approach the eyes of the collectors (Truong pers. obs.), although it is unclear if this was to collect tears or merely as a timid form of defense from a perceived threat near the nests. Similar observations on the behavior of the bees were made in southern China (Li et al. in press). It is possible that the bees rely on tears (lachryphagous) in the same manner as Pariotrigona and Lisotrigona, although no tear collection could be confirmed nor were bees observed visiting the eyes of cattle or other vertebrates. The bees and nests have a strong foul odor, and future work on the chemistry of their nests and stores is needed to determine their composition and the potential derivation of these smells. Future work will more fully explore the nesting biology, nest architecture, and immature stages of E. carpenteri.

## Discussion

While E. carpenteri was always a unique species as the only minute stingless bee in Southeast Asia with yellow maculation, it has not been until the discovery of the male that its real distinction was revealed. The male terminalia are clearly not of the structure
so typical for Lisotrigona. Specifically, E. carpenteri lacks the enormous proximal extensions of the gonocoxae unique to species of Lisotrigona (Michener 2007a). While this form is wholly unique among Meliponini, the result of the almost proximally ringlike gonocoxae approximates the schizogonal condition as the proximal fossae of the gono-


Figure 8. Nests and habitat of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov., at Bắc Kạn Province, Vietnam $\mathbf{A}$ general habitat $\mathbf{B}$ nest entrance in limestone cliff $\mathbf{C}$ exposed nest from between limestone slabs.


Figure 9. Nests of Ebaiotrigona carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov., at Bắc Kạn Province, Vietnam A nest entrance B exposed nest from between limestone slabs.
coxae open mesally (Michener 1990). Conversely, in Ebaiotrigona, Pariotrigona, and Austroplebeia, the gonocoxae are not so modified, and the opening of the gonocoxae are directed proximally (Michener 2001; Dollin et al. 2010), and thus of the rectigonal configuration with the sole exception of Pariotrigona, which is more amphigonal. In addition, in Lisotrigona the gonostyli articulate with the gonocoxae about midlength, whereas in the others, including Ebaiotrigona, the gonostyli articulate more distally. Unlike all of the other genera, the gonostyli of Ebaiotrigona are broadened proximally as lamellae, elongate, and almost bladelike. This form is unique to the genus.

In several respects Ebaiotrigona appears more similar to Austroplebeia, and this is borne out by the form of the male genitalia. In both genera the basal bulb of the penis valve is quite enlarged and sclerotized, and tapers apically to an elongate, thin, clawlike process. Note that these extensions in Austroplebeia and Ebaiotrigona, although well sclerotized and often melanized, are easily broken near their base (e.g., from the photograph of Li et al. (2021: fig. 2d), and in additional images of this male sent to MSE these are broken off in the Chinese male reported therein; nonetheless, the Chinese populations should be further explored in the future as to whether or not they represent a species distinct from E. carpenteri). In Pariotrigona the basal bulb is smaller and somewhat transverse, and is abruptly narrowed to the thin elongate process. In Lisotrigona, the penis valves are comparatively short relative to the overall size of the genitalia, with a broad basal bulb and tapering to a comparatively short process that is scarcely longer than the bulb. While the Asian and Australian minute species lack a
spatha, Pariotrigona is an outlier in that the spatha is present as a large membranous structure. The form of each of these genera is seemingly apomorphic when compared to putative outgroups among related members of the Hypotrigona group of genera (Table 1: sensu Engel et al. 2021). Liotrigona has another wholly unique form of genitalia. The capsule is elongate and permanently schizogonal, with the gonocoxae much longer than broad and fused ventrally, while the gonostyli articulate apically (Michener 1990). By comparison, the genitalia of Hypotrigona are comparatively drab and more generalized with conditions observed broadly across Meliponini. In Hypotrigona the capsule is rectigonal, but apomorphically the opening opens dorsally, while the gonocoxae are short and transverse (Michener 1990). The basal bulb of the penis valve is membranous.

Another unique feature of Ebaiotrigona is the shape of the sixth metasomal sternum, which is apically bilobed, versus the single medial process of Lisotrigona, Pariotrigona, and Austroplebeia. The seventh sternum also differs from these genera and therefore highlights the distinctiveness of the new genus among Old World Meliponini.

Given the similar male terminalia and the presence of yellow facial maculation, it leads one to wonder if Ebaiotrigona could be the extant sister group of Austroplebeia, diverging from this genus prior to the Miocene and when the latter still had a presence in mainland Asia (Engel et al. 2021). Naturally, future phylogenetic analyses of morphological and molecular data need to include a broader sampling of Asian species, and certainly including samples of $E$. carpenteri.

Table I. Asian and Australian species of the Hypotrigona group (sensu Engel et al. 2021). Occurrences in brackets are likely but not yet confirmed; data taken from: Ascher et al. (2016), Chinh et al. (2005), Dollin et al. (2015), Engel (2000), Engel et al. (2021), Karunaratne et al. (2017), Le et al. (2021a, 2021b), Lee et al. (2016), Li et al. (in press), Michener (2001, 2007a, 2007b), Nguyen et al. (2021), and Thangjam et al. (in press).

[^5]The nests and the biology of E. carpenteri remain to be explored in greater detail, work that the authors hope to undertake in the forthcoming years. Limited observations on nests were presented by Chinh et al. (2005), who reported nests in tree trunks, rock crevices, and human-made structures. Chinh et al. (2005) reported amorphous brood clusters, like those observed in here (Figs 8, 9). The contents of the honey pots were not explored. Therefore, for the moment one must wonder whether E. carpenteri is actually lachryphagous like Lisotrigona and Pariotrigona, or a typical floral visitor as in Austroplebeia. Certainly current observations suggest that while the species laps sweat, like many bees, E. carpenteri may not actually imbibe tears (Li et al. in press; herein). A further elaboration of the nests and biology of $E$. carpenteri will be of considerable significance for understanding the distribution and occurrence of lachyrphagy in Asiatic Meliponini. If true, lachryphagy is restricted to Lisotrigona and Pariotrigona, then it may be that this is a biological synapomorphy for these two genera, with Ebaiotrigona more closely allied to Austroplebeia. Ideally, once the biology has been more fully elucidated for $E$. carpenteri, an analysis of morphological and molecular data can be undertaken for the Hypotrigona group (Table 1) to explore not only phylogenetic relationships but also patterns of biogeographic and biological significance. Fortunately, a large number of nests are available at localities in northern Vietnam for future investigation.

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# Parasitic crustaceans (Branchiura and Copepoda) parasitizing the gills of puffer fish species (Tetraodontidae) from the coast of Campeche, Gulf of Mexico 

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[^6]http://zoobank.org/48EA9BA7-B23F-403E-859A-BACA28ABD63E
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#### Abstract

New information on the marine parasitic crustaceans from the Campeche coast, Gulf of Mexico (GoM), can improve our baseline knowledge of the ecology of both the host and parasite by providing, for example, parameters of infection. Such knowledge is especially important for fish farming, so that appropriate quarantine measures can be established. Our aim was to morphologically identify the parasitic crustaceans infecting puffer fish of commercial importance in the coastal zone of Campeche, Mexico. We provide new information on four known species of parasitic crustaceans from 92 specimens representing five species of tetraodontid fish. The parasitic crustaceans Argulus sp. (Branchiura, Argulidae), Caligus haemulonis (Caligidae), Pseudochondracanthus diceraus (Chondracanthidae), and Taeniacanthus lagocephali (Taeniacanthidae) (all Copepoda) were found on Lagocephalus laevigatus, Sphoeroides nephelus, S. parvus, S. spengleri, and $S$. testudineus. This study revealed the occurrence of $P$. diceraus, which is of importance in aquaculture, on Sphoeroides annulatus in the Mexican Pacific. Additionally, our results and other documentary records provide the first evidence of the interoceanic occurrence of the same parasitic crustacean species in the south-southwest of Gulf of Mexico, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Pacific Ocean. Moreover, our study provides valuable information on the biodiversity of parasitic crustaceans present in the GoM on puffer fish which are of great commercial importance for human consumption, fisheries, and aquaculture.


## Keywords

Argulidae, aquaculture, biodiversity, Caligidae, Chondracanthidae, fisheries, interoceanic, Taeniacanthidae

[^7]
## Introduction

Parasitic crustaceans are commonly known to cause serious lesions on farmed fish, causing destruction of gill tissue and favoring secondary infection, diseases, and massive mortality worldwide (Dezfuli et al. 2011; Aneesh et al. 2014; Misganaw and Getu 2016). Consequently, their presence represents a significant threat in aquaculture, with substantial potential economic losses. The probability of these organisms being introduced into farming systems is high, especially when an infected fish is caught from the wild and introduced into marine aquaculture (Bouwmeester et al. 2021).

In Mexico, studies on parasitic crustaceans belonging to Branchiura and Copepoda are scarce considering the high diversity of host species inhabiting the vast aquatic ecosystems (Morales-Serna et al. 2012). Knowledge of parasite diversity is an important step to understand how an ecosystem will respond to environmental stressors (Bennett et al. 2021). In particular, changes in the richness of parasitic species or individual parasites are indicative of environmental impact (Sures et al. 2017; Vidal-Martínez et al. 2019, 2022). The Gulf of Mexico (GoM) is characterized by activities such as overfishing and extraction of petroleum, which have a negative effect on biodiversity (Soto et al. 2014; Mendoza-Franco et al. 2018). However, this impact is difficult to estimate because of the limited biodiversity data.

The diversity of fish on the Campeche coast includes species such as puffer fish (Tetraodontiformes, Tetraodontidae) which are considered an economically important resource in southern Mexico and have the potential for aquaculture (Chávez-Sánchez et al. 2008). Notwithstanding this potential, knowledge of their parasitic crustaceans is rudimentary. This information is crucial to implement control tools and to create strategies for their safe management, especially for the commercial species.

Our aim was to identify morphologically the parasitic crustaceans infecting Lagocephalus laevigatus (Linnaeus, 1766), Sphoeroides nephelus (Goode \& Bean, 1882), S. parvus (Shipp \& Yerger, 1969), S. spengleri (Bloch, 1785), and S. testudineus (Linnaeus, 1758), all commercially important in the coastal zone of Campeche, Mexico. The geographic distribution of these copepods on puffer fish from the tropics is briefly discussed based on our findings and previous records.

## Material and methods

Using gill nets, we collected 92 puffer fish ( 69 L. laevigatus, 17 S. spengleri, 2 S. testudineus, 2 S. parvus, and 2 S. nephelus) from Seybaplaya, Campeche, southern Gulf of Mexico ( $19^{\circ} 42.580^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 90^{\circ} 44.155^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$ ), between November 2020 and April 2021. Fish were kept on ice for a maximum of 8 h and transported to the Laboratory of Aquatic Parasitology of EPOMEX (Instituto de Ecología, Pesquerías y Oceanografía del Golfo de México), Universidad Autónoma de Campeche (UAC). In the laboratory, we removed fish gills, placed them in bowls with $4 \%$ formaldehyde solution, and examined them under a Leica EZ4 stereomicroscope. We detached the parasitic crustaceans from gills by
using fine needles, counted them, preliminarily identified them, fixed them in $70 \%$ alcohol, labeled them, and stored them in vials. We mounted individual specimens on slides and cleared them with glycerin at different concentrations (1:10, 1:5, 1:2). We examined dissected crustacean body parts following Humes and Gooding (1964). We identified crustaceans based on morphometrics using an Olympus microscope DM 2500. We follow the terminology of Ho (1970), Ho and Lin (2004), Lin and Ho (2006), and Møller et al. (2008) for Caligus, Taeniacanthus, Pseudochondracanthus, and Argulus, respectively. Measurements are provided in millimeters and expressed as a range. The prevalence, mean abundance, and intensity range are those proposed by Bush et al. (1997). We obtained synonyms for each host and crustacean species from FishBase (Froese and Pauly 2021) and World of Copepods (Walter and Boxshall 2021), respectively. Host body lengths are expressed as total length (TL). We deposited voucher specimens in the Colección Nacional de Invertebrados (CNIN), Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Mexico City, Mexico.

## Results

In total, 92 tetraodontid fish specimens were collected. The most abundant fish species was L. laevigatus, followed by S. spengleri, while S. testudineus, S. parvus, and S. nephelus were the least abundant species. Three parasitic crustacean species were found on L. laevigatus and a single species was found on the four Sphoeroides spp.

Subclass Branchiura Thorell, 1864
Order Arguloida Yamaguti, 1963
Family Argulidae Leach, 1819
Genus Argulus Müller, 1785

## Argulus sp.

Current host. Smooth puffer Lagocephalus laevigatus (Linnaeus) (Tetraodontidae) (TL: 27.5-47 cm).

Site of infection. Gills.
Infection parameters. Prevalence: 9\% (six fish infected of 69 examined); mean abundance: $0.14 \pm 1.03$; intensity range: $1-3$ individuals.

Source of current specimens. Two voucher specimens deposited in the CNIN (171); collected on 30 November 2020.

Remarks. These specimens are identified morphologically as Argulus sp., mainly by the shape and armature of cephalothoracic appendages, the presence of a modification of the first maxilla into a cup-like, stalked sucker, and legs (Møller et al. 2008). However, the specimens are larval stages, so their shape and size had not yet sufficiently developed for specific identification (Fig. 1). We report a species of Argulus from the coast of Campeche, Mexico, for the first time.


Figure I. Parasitic crustacean Argulus sp. (Branchiura, Argulidae) on Lagocephalus laevigatus from the Campeche coast, Gulf of Mexico.

Subclass Copepoda Milne Edwards, 1840
Order Cyclopoida Burmeister, 1834
Family Chondracanthidae Milne Edwards, 1840
Genus Pseudochondracanthus Wilson, 1908
Pseudochondracanthus diceraus Wilson, 1908

Previous records. Sphoeroides maculatus (Bloch \& Schneider, 1801) (type host) from California (Wilson 1908); S. nephelus and L. laevigatus from Florida (Bere 1936); S. spengleri and S. trichocephalus (Cope, 1870) (as S. tricocephalus) from the coast of North Carolina to Florida, USA (Ho 1970); S. annulatus (Jenyns, 1842) (all Tetraodontidae) from the Pacific coast of Mexico (Morales-Serna et al. 2011).

Current hosts. Southern puffer Sphoeroides nephelus (TL: 21.6-21.6 cm), least puffer $S$. parvus (TL: $19.5-23 \mathrm{~cm}$ ), bandtail puffer S. spengleri (TL: 13.9-24.0 cm), and checkered puffer $S$. testudineus (TL: 17.2-26.0 cm).

Site of infection. Gills.
Infection parameters. Sphoeroides nephelus: prevalence: 100\% (two fish infected of two examined); mean abundance: $5 \pm 1.4$; intensity range: 4-6 copepods. S. parvus: $100 \%$ (two fish infected of two examined); $2 \pm 1.4 ; 1-3$ copepods. S. spengleri: $89 \%$ ( 16 fish infected of 18 examined); $5.72 \pm 4.89 ; 1-19$ copepods. S. testudineus: $100 \%$ (two fish infected of two examined); $4 \pm 1.4 ; 3-5$ copepods.

Source of current specimens. Ten voucher specimens (5 す, 5 O) from S. spengleri plus voucher and two specimens from S. nephelus, S. parvus, and S. testudineus deposited in the CNIN (172); collected on 27 April 2021.

Description (based on $\mathbf{1 0}$ females and 7 males). Adult female body 2.20-3.57 long. Head $0.75-0.87$ long and $0.50-0.80$ wide. Female genital complex elliptical, and entirely covered with small spines. Length of genital portion 1.34-2.35, and 0.561.0 wide. Length of egg strings 2.29-4.21 (Fig. 2A). Male body, $0.25-0.43$ long and $0.12-0.20$ wide (Fig. 2B). Urosome curved ventrally. Legs absent.

Remarks. Pseudochondracanthus diceraus was originally described by Wilson (1908) on the gills of common puffer S. maculatus from Massachusetts, USA. This parasitic copepod has also been reported in the same host from Massachusetts to North Carolina, in S. spengleri from North Carolina to Florida, in S. trichocephalus from the East coast of US, as well as in L. laevigatus and S. nephelus from the Gulf of Mexico, US coast (Wilson 1908; Bere 1936; Ho 1970). In Mexican Pacific waters, P. diceraus infected S. annulatus (Morales-Serna et al. 2011). Pseudochondracanthus diceraus differs from the other congeneric species in having the trunk region covered with scale-like sclerotization (see Ho 1970: figs 236-251), which we clearly observed in the present specimens. Morphometrical comparison between the newly collected specimens and previous descriptions revealed insignificant differences. Sphoeroides parvus and $S$. testudineus are new host records for $P$. diceraus, and Seybaplaya, Campeche, Mexico, is a new geographic record for this copepod species.


Figure 2. Parasitic copepods Pseudochondracanthus diceraus (Copepoda, Chondracanthidae) on puffer fish from the Campeche coast, Gulf of Mexico $\mathbf{A}$ female $\mathbf{B}$ male.

# Family Taeniacanthidae Wilson, 1911 Genus Taeniacanthus Sumpf, 1871 

## Taeniacanthus lagocephali Pearse, 1952

Irodes lagocephali Pillai, 1963: 124, fig. 7. Syn.
Taeniacanthus sabafugu Yamaguti \& Yamasu, 1959: 102, pl. 4, figs 79, 89.
Previous records and localities. Lagocephalus laevigatus (type host) from Padre Island (Texas coast), Brazil, Alabama (Texas), Mississippi, and the Argentine Sea (Pearse 1952; Dojiri and Cressey 1987; Cantatore et al. 2012); L. spadiceus (Richardson, 1845) from Japan and the Mediterranean coast of Turkey (Yamaguti and Yamasu 1959; Özak et al. 2012); L. lunaris (Bloch \& Schneider, 1801) from India (Pillai 1963); L. inermis (Temminck \& Schlegel, 1850) from India (Umadevi and Shyamasundari 1980); L. gloveri (Abe \& Tabeta, 1983) from Japan (Izawa 1986); L. wheeleri (Abe, Tabeta \& Kitahama, 1984) from Taiwan (all Tetraodontidae) (Lin and Ho 2006).

Current host. Smooth puffer Lagocephalus laevigatus (Linnaeus) (Tetraodontidae) (TL: 20.3-48.5 cm).

Site of infection. Gills.
Infection parameters. Prevalence: 40\% (28 fish infected of 69 examined); mean abundance: $1.10 \pm 2.90$; intensity range: $1-9$ copepods.

Source of current specimens. Ten voucher specimens (10 $q$ ) deposited in the CNIN (173); collected on 30 November 2020.

Description (based on 10 females). Total body length (not including setae of caudal rami) 2.52-3.33; cephalothorax length $0.54-0.76$ and width $0.76-1.01$ (Fig. 3A). Three thoracic segments as wide as cephalothorax ( $0.53 \times 0.96 ; 0.53 \times 0.90$; $0.64 \times 0.83$ ). Urosome comprises five segments; genital complex (double-somite) much wider $0.26-0.35$ than long $0.13-0.21$. Anal somite with four interrupted rows of spinules and one row near the intersection of each caudal ramus. Caudal ramus $(0.050 \times 0.04)$ bearing six setae: two long apical, one short subterminal at inner and outer corners, one short dorsal, and one short seta on outer margin near center. Maxillary hook large, slender, slightly curved, located on the anteroventral surface of cephalothorax to junction of first and second segments of first antenna. First maxillae with two pinnate setae. Second maxillae bi-segmented, bearing two terminal spiniform processes on second segment. Maxilliped three-segmented; basal segment unarmed; second segment armed with two basal setae; and terminal segment forming a claw curved with serrations on convex margin of distal portion.

Remarks. Pearse (1952) originally described T. lagocephali infecting the gills of L. laevigatus from Padre Island, Texas. Yamaguti and Yamasu (1959) reported it as Taeniacanthus sabafugu from L. spadiceus from Japan, and Pillai (1963) described it as Irodes lagocephali from L. lunaris and L. inermis from India. Subsequently, Ho (1970) recognized all these copepod species from L. spadiceus, L. lunaris, and L. inermis as synonyms of T. lagocephali. This parasitic copepod is characterized by having


Figure 3. Parasitic copepods on Lagocephalus laevigatus from the Campeche coast, Gulf of Mexico.
A Taeniacanthus lagocephali B Caligus haemulonis
a cephalothorax with three thoracic segments equal in width, a maxilliped with a terminal curving claw, and a digitiform process (Dojiri and Cressey 1987: fig. 33). We also observed these morphological characteristics in our specimens, and they are consistent with the original description and the specimens redescribed by Dojiri and Cressey (1987), Lin and Ho (2006), and Özak et al. (2012). However, some metric differences were observed in the total length between the newly collected specimens from T. lagocephali and those reported from L. spadiceus by Özak et al. (2012) from the Mediterranean coast of Turkey ( 2.95 mm vs 1.9 mm ). These are probably due to intraspecific variation over large geographic distances or from effects of hosts; that is, host body size is one of five alternative hypotheses which can potentially generate a geographic pattern in parasite body size, while following the Bergmann's rule suggested by Poulin (2021). Studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between the parasite body size and the host body size (Poulin et al. 2003). So, L. laevigatus reaches sizes larger than $L$. spadiceus ( 100 cm vs 37.4 cm ), and this can explain the metric differences of T. lagocephali found on these hosts. Furthermore, Lin and Ho (2006) reported four setae on the third segment of the antennule, while Dojiri and Cressey (1987) and Özak et al. (2012) reported five on the same segment, the number we observed in our specimens. Additionally, the number of rows of spinules on the ventral
surface (three) of the anal segment reported by Lin and Ho (2006) contrast with the four rows of spinules reported by Dojiri and Cressey (1987), Özak et al. (2012), and in our material. Another explanation for these morphological differences could be result of a phenotypic variation in this species, and a phylogenetic study comparing these morphologic differences may contribute to a better understanding of this variation.

Taeniacanthus lagocephali has been reported on Lagocephalus spp. from the Oriental region (Japan and Taiwan), the Ethiopian region (West Africa), the Nearctic region (GoM coast of Mississippi, Alabama, and Texas), and the Neotropical region (Brazil) (Pearse 1952; Yamaguti and Yamasu 1959; Pillai 1963; Umadevi and Shyamasundari 1980; Izawa 1986; Dojiri and Cressey 1987; Lin and Ho 2006; Cantatore et al. 2012; Özak et al. 2012). The wide distribution of this parasite could be attributed to its host specificity to the genus Lagocephalus and its capacity to exploit this host genus in different geographic ranges. Host specificity is a determinant key in how the parasites can be established into new areas (Poulin et al. 2011). In Mexico, Taeniacanthidae has been represented only by Taeniacanthodes dojirii Braswell, Benz \& Deets, 2002 in the ray Narcine entemedor (Narcinidae) from Bahía de Los Angeles, Santa Rosalía, Gulf of California (Braswell et al. 2002). Our present record is the first occurrence of T. lagocephali on L. laevigatus from the GoM. Together with the only species previously reported (Braswell et al. 2002), the number of species of Taeniacanthidae in Mexico is now two.

## Order Siphonostomatoida Burmeister, 1835

Family Caligidae Burmeister, 1835
Genus Caligus Müller, 1785

## Caligus haemulonis Krøyer, 1863

Previous records. See Table 1.
Current host. Smooth puffer Lagocephalus laevigatus (Linnaeus) (Tetraodontidae) (TL: 20.3-48.5 cm).

Site of infection. Gills.
Infection parameters. Prevalence: 49\% (34 fish infected of 69 examined); mean abundance: $3.63 \pm 7.45$; intensity range: $1-30$ copepods.

Source of current specimens. Ten voucher specimens ( $5 q, 5 \delta^{\top}$ ) deposited in the CNIN (174); collected on19 January 2021.

Description (based on 10 females and 10 males). Adult female body caligiform, 2.70-3.30 long. Cephalothorax 1.50-1.80 long and $1.43-1.63$ wide. Female genital complex longer than wide, lacking distinct posterolateral lobes (Fig. 3B). Caudal rami armed with five pinnate setae. Female antenna with distal claw strongly curved. Sternal furca of female with incurved tines. Maxilliped with smooth myxal margin, with a tiny process on inner margin of the claw. Male 2.10-2.50 long. Cephalothorax 1.10-1.30 long and $0.95-1.47$ wide. Sternal furca more incurved in males. Male maxilliped with
large, acutely pointed process on myxal margin opposing tip of claw. In both sexes, post-antennal process large and strongly curved. Last exopodal segment of leg I with one long seta at inner distal angle, three distal spines, and posterior margin a single naked vestigial seta. Outer margin of second endopodal segment of leg II with setules. Leg IV with robust first exopodal segment bearing marginal setule; second segment with well-developed spines.

Remarks. Currently, the genus Caligus comprises more than 270 valid species worldwide (Walter and Boxshall 2021) on a wide variety of marine fish. In Mexican waters 31 species of Caligus are known, 21 from the Pacific, seven from GoM, and three from both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts (Morales-Serna et al. 2014). Caligus haemulonis has been recorded on the Atlantic coast from Florida to Brazil on a wide variety of fish families and only one species of ray (Aetobatus narinari) on the Campeche coast (Rodríguez-Santiago et al. 2016) (Table 1). The morphologic characteristic of our specimens coincide with the original description of C. haemulonis (Krøyer 1863; Boxshall and El-Rashidy 2009).

Caligus haemulonis and 13 other parasitic copepods are included in the Caligus productus group; they are characterized by loss of two and reduction or loss of the third of the three plumose setae on the distal exopod segment of the first swimming leg (see Boxshall and El-Rashidy 2009: figs 5, 6). In particular, C. haemulonis lacks the plumose setae and has a tiny naked vestigial seta on the posterior margin of the distal exopodal segment of leg I, as seen in the present specimens and the description of Cressey (1991), who was the first to observe this character. We found differences in the body length between our specimens and those reported by SuárezMorales et al. (2010): females $2.70-3.30 \mathrm{~mm}$ vs $3.1-3.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ from $H$. sciurus and H. plumierii (Haemulidae) in Suárez-Morales et al. (2010) from Mexico, 3.56 mm in Cressey (1991), 3.33-3.92 mm on Orthopristis ruber and Haemulon steindachneri (all Haemulidae) from Brazil in Luque and Takemoto (1996), and 2.96-3.92 mm in Boxshall and El-Rashidy (2009) from Brazil; males measured $2.10-2.50 \mathrm{~mm}$ vs $1.75-1.81 \mathrm{~mm}$ from haemulids in Suárez-Morales et al. (2010) from Mexico; $1.86-3.26 \mathrm{~mm}$ in Cressey (1991) from Florida and Boxshall and El-Rashidy (2009) from Brazil. The variability in the size of parasites can be attributed to their stage of maturity, because the measurements of the collected specimens (females and males) are within the size range reported in previous studies (Cressey 1991; Luque and Takemoto 1996; Boxshall and El-Rashidy 2009; Suárez-Morales et al. 2010). The characteristics of the female sternal furca (i.e., tines slightly thinner) in our specimens and those reported by Suárez-Morales et al. (2010) are identical (see SuárezMorales et al. 2010: 169, 171, figs 1, 2). Caligus haemulonis is an ectoparasite on a wide variety of teleosts (Margolis et al. 1975; Cressey 1991; Chaves and Luque 1999; Boxshall and El- Rashidy 2009; Suárez-Morales et al. 2010) and some elasmobranchs (Kabata 1979; Tang and Newbound 2004; Rodríguez-Santiago et al. 2016). Our material represents a new host record of this parasitic copepod species in the Mexican GoM.

Table I. Previous records of Caligus haemulonis on a wide variety of fish teleost (14 families) and one elasmobranch species having cosmopolitan distribution.

| Host | Locality | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ariidae |  |  |
| Ariopsis felis (Linnaeus, 1766) (as Hexanematichthys felis, Galeichthys felis and Arius felis) | Atlantic coast of USA | Wilson 1908 |
| Aspistor luniscutis (Valenciennes, 1840) (as Arius luniscutis, Notarius luniscutis) | Brazil | Luque and Tavares 2007 |
| Bagre marinus (Mitchill, 1815) (as Felichthys marinus and Bagre marina) | Atlantic coast of USA | Wilson 1908 |
| Carlarius heudelotii (Valenciennes, 1840) (as Arius heudelotii) | Africa, Mediterranean | Brian 1924 |
| Genidens barbus (Lacepède, 1803) | Brazil | Luque and Tavares 2007 |
| Carangidae |  |  |
| Campogramma glaycos (Lacepède, 1801) (as Lichia vadigo) | Mediterranean | Brian 1924 |
| Caranx crysos (Mitchill, 1815) | Louisiana | Causey 1953 |
| Caranx rhonchus Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, 1817 (as Caranx angolensis) | Africa South | Capart 1959 |
| Trachurus trachurus (Linnaeus, 1758) | Africa South | Capart 1959 |

## Engraulidae

Anchoa marinii Hildebrand, 1943 Brazil Luque and Tavares 2007

## Ephippidae

Chaetodipterus faber (Broussonet, 1782)
Brazil, Florida
Cezar and Luque 1999

## Haemulidae

Anisotremus virginicus (Linnaeus, 1758)
Haemulon carbonarium Poey, 1860
Haemulon macrostomum Günther, 1859
Haemulon plumierii (Lacepède, 1801)
Haemulon sciurus (Shaw, 1803) (type host)
Haemulon steindachneri (Jordan \& Gilbert, 1882)
Orthopristis ruber (Cuvier, 1830)
Plectorhinchus mediterraneus (Guichenot, 1850) (as Dia-
gramma mediterraneum)

## Kyphosidae

Girella tricuspidata (Quoy \& Gaimard, 1824)
Australia
Boxshall and El-Rashidy
2009

## Monacanthidae

Aluterus schoepfii (Walbaum, 1792) (as Aleuterus schoepfi)

## Myliobatidae

Aetobatus narinari (Euphrasen, 1790) (as Stoasodon narinari)

## Polynemidae

Polydactylus quadrifilis (Cuvier, 1829)
Florida
Cressey 1991
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{cc}\text { Tabasco to Campeche coast Gulf of } \\
\text { Mexico }\end{array}
$$ \begin{array}{c}Rodríguez-Santiago et al. <br>
Africa <br>
Oldewage and Avenant- <br>

Oldewage 1993\end{array}\right]\)| Brian 1924 |
| :---: |

Pomatomus saltatrix (Linnaeus, 1766) (as Temnodon saltator)
Mediterranean
Brian 1924

## Rachycentridae

Rachycentron canadum (Linnaeus, 1766)
USA

## Sciaenidae

Argyrosomus regius (Asso, 1801) (as Sciaena aquila)
Bairdiella chrysoura (Lacepède, 1802)
Menticirrhus americanus (Linnaeus, 1758) (as Menthicirrhus americanus)
Micropogonias furnieri (Desmarest, 1823) (as Micropogon furnieri)

Williams and BunkleyWilliams 1996

Brian 1924
Cressey 1991
Chaves and Luque 1999

Alves and Luque 2000

| Host | Locality | Reference |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Paralonchurus brasiliensis (Steindachner, 1875) | Brazil | Ribeiro et al. 2002, Luque |
|  |  | et al. 2003 |
| Pogonias cromis (Linnaeus, 1766) | Florida | Bere 1936 |
| Pseudotolithus moorii (Günther, 1865) (as Corvina camaron- | Africa South | Capart 1959 |
| ensis) |  |  |
| Sciaena umbra Linnaeus, 1758 (as Corvina nigra) | Mediterranean | Brian 1924 |
| Sciaenops ocellatus (Linnaeus, 1766) (as Sciaenops ocellata) | Louisiana | Causey 1953 |
| Umbrina sp. | Africa South | Capart 1959 |
| Serranidae |  |  |
| Centropristis striata (Linnaeus, 1758) | Florida | Wilson 1908 |
| Sparidae | Florida | Cressey 1991 |
| Archosargus probatocephalus (Walbaum, 1792) | Brazil | Cordeiro and Luque 2005 |
| Archosargus rhomboidalis (Linnaeus, 1758) | Brian 1924 |  |
| Dentex sp. | Africa South | Capart 1959 |
| Dentex gibbosus (Rafinesque, 1810) (as D. filosus) | Africa, Mediterranean | Brian 1924 |
| Pagrus sp. | Brazil | Paraguassú et al. 2002 |
| Pagrus pagrus (Linnaeus, 1758) |  |  |
| Triglidae | Brazil | Bicudo et al. 2005 |
| Prionotus punctatus (Bloch, 1793) | Africa South | Capart 1959 |
| Trigla lyra Linnaeus, 1758 |  |  |

## Discussion

This study represents the first records of branchiuran and copepod parasites on tetraodontids of the Campeche coast. Previous records from this area mentioned the presence of 15 species of copepods parasitizing elasmobranchs; some have also been reported for other elasmobranch species worldwide (Rodríguez-Santiago et al. 2016). However, of these species only one copepod (C. haemulonis) coincides with those reported in our study. All records we have reported here are new host records or new geographic records. Below, we briefly discuss the distribution of the puffer fish hosts that these crustaceans parasitize.

Members of Argulus have a wide range of fish hosts and environments (freshwater and marine) around the world. In the GoM, 10 species have been reported, especially from the north-northwest coast of the USA (Poly 2009). In Mexican waters, six species of Argulus are recorded: Argulus chromidis Krøyer, 1863 and Argulus rhamdiae Wilson, 1936 on Rhamdia guatemalensis Günther, 1864 from Yucatán (Wilson 1936), Argulus flavescens Wilson, 1916 on Ariopsis assimilis Günther, 1864 (as Arius assimilis) from Chetumal (Suárez-Morales et al. 1998), Argulus mexicanus Pineda, Paramo \& del Rio, 1995 on Atractosteus tropicus Gill, 1863 from Tabasco (Pineda et al. 1995), Argulus ambystoma Poly, 2003 on Ambystoma dumerilii Dúges, 1870 from Lake Patzcuaro, Michoacan (Poly 2003), and Argulus yucatanus Poly, 2005 on Mayaheros urophthalmus Günther, 1862 (as Cichlasoma urophthalmus) from Yucatán (Poly 2005). All these records are from freshwater fishes, except for A. flavescens, which occurs in freshwater, marine, and brackish-water fishes (Suárez-Morales et al. 1998). These infections have rarely been found to have severe effects on natural fish populations (Taylor et al. 2005). However, their presence is important, especially in fishes with aquaculture potential,
such as puffer fish. These ectoparasites cause dermal damages that promotes secondary infections and, in severe cases, high mortality in aquaculture systems where these types of infections are intensified (Patra et al. 2016). Additional adult specimens of Argulus sp . are necessary to determine the species.

The morphological characteristics of specimens Taenicanthus lagocephali in L. laevigatus collected here agree with the original description and redescription of specimens from North and South America (Pearse 1952; Dojiri and Cressey 1987). The geographic proximity of GoM to the Atlantic Ocean and the wide host distribution could explain the morphological similarity of our specimens to Atlantic populations. However, some differences have been found with the description of T. lagocephali from the Mediterranean coast and Taiwan. These could probably be attributed to intraspecific variation in the geographic distance of the hosts. We believe that future studies incorporating phylogenetic analyses are necessary to confirm the identity and to accurately assess the distribution of these species, as well as to understand their host specificity.

Cressey (1991) and Suárez-Morales et al. (2010) have suggested that in the Mexican Caribbean, despite its high ichthyological diversity, haemulids are the preferred hosts of C. haemulonis, with a prevalence ranging from 6 to $13 \%$. However, we found a higher prevalence in L. laevigatus (> 40\%), which suggests that C. haemulonis does not present a host preference, as proposed. However, to affirm this assumption, a study is necessary that includes the haemulids as the abundant fishes on the Campeche coast (Crespo-Guerrero et al. 2019; Borges-Ramírez et al. 2020). Caligus haemulonis has a broad host range; this characteristic is especially important to fish farming because the introduction of infected wild fish could cause its transmission to new hosts. Therefore, the record of C. haemulonis in puffer fishes from southern Mexico accounts for the geographic range of this parasitic copepod and its expansion to new hosts in the region. In addition, this information could contribute to implementation of measures to prevent its transmission-that is, quarantine of wild fish—to farmed fish such as puffer fish.

With exception of L. laevigatus, all other species of Sphoeroides examined were parasitized with $P$. diceraus. This suggests that Sphoeroides spp. could be the preferred hosts of this parasite. Future examination of other hosts in the same area is necessary to confirm this assumption. This is the first record of $P$. diceraus parasitizing a puffer fish from the GoM. In previous studies on parasitofauna of puffer fishes from the southern of GoM (Vidal-Martínez and Mendoza-Franco 2008; Pech et al. 2009), this copepod was not reported. Special attention should be paid to the presence of $P$. diceraus, which has caused high mortality in the culture of S. annulatus (Fajer-Ávila et al. 2011).

Our findings suggest that the composition of ectoparasites on puffer fishes from the Campeche coast differs from that reported for the Yucatán Peninsula by VidalMartínez and Mendoza-Franco (2008) and Pech et al. (2009), despite the wide distribution of host species. These differences in ectoparasite composition might be due to the physicochemical (water quality, nutrients, and water flow rates) and biological characteristics of the regions along the south-southwest coast from Tabasco to Campeche, and along the south-southeast coast in the Yucatán Peninsula. This hypothesis
has been partially tested through a comparative study of the parasitofauna of flounder fish from the Yucatán Peninsula (i.e., Syacium papillosum and Syacium gunteri) (VidalMartínez et al. 2019). Vidal-Martínez et al. (2019) found variation in the parasite composition associated with environmental variables, suggesting the existence of two subregions in the Yucatán Peninsula (the Campeche Sound and the Yucatán Shelf). However, a comparative study of the parasitofauna of Sphoeroides spp. between the two regions, considering the ecological data, could contribute to a better understanding of the differences.

The occurrence of P. diceraus in the Pacific and along the Campeche coast is noteworthy. Pseudochondracanthus diceraus was originally described in commercially important fish Sphoeroides maculatus from the Atlantic and Pacific coast of the USA (Wilson, 1908); however, S. maculatus is a fish native to the North Atlantic. Its presence in the Pacific is remarkable and it is tempting to speculate that its presence there is the result of translocation of parasites associated with the natural distribution of their hosts or a consequence of anthropogenic activities (i.e., host introductions; Goedknegt et al. 2016; Paredes-Trujillo et al. 2020). However, the distribution mechanisms of copepod species are not well understood, and information has mainly focused on taxonomy. Nevertheless, P. diceraus has previously been reported on S. spengleri and S. nephelus from Florida and the US Gulf Coast (Wilson 1908; Bere 1936; Ho 1970). The GoM is part of the geographical range of this puffer fish, so the presence of $P$. diceraus on the Campeche coast can be attributed to the natural distribution of these Sphoeroides spp.

On the other hand, the broad geographic distribution of $P$. diceraus could be explained by a hypothesis suggested by Kritsky (2012) who suggested that the geological formation of the Panamanian isthmus approximately 3.2 Ma ago divided ancestral hosts as well as their monogeneans into eastern Pacific and western Atlantic populations.

Therefore, the geographical distribution of both parasitic crustacean and the monogeneans could be attributed to the dispersal capabilities of their hosts (Skern-Mauritzen et al 2014; Paladini et al 2021). Therefore, we suggest that parasitic crustaceans could have undergone a similar distribution and speciation. However, a phylogenetic hypothesis based on molecular and morphological data for these parasitic crustaceans on puffer fish would provide the needed information on their diversification as evidence of a speciation process associated with geological history or the influence of ecological factors; this would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the biogeographical distribution of parasitic crustaceans in the tropics.

## Conclusions

We have revealed the occurrence of marine parasitic crustaceans of importance for fish aquaculture on the Campeche coast. We have deduced that the composition of ectoparasites on puffer fishes of the Campeche coast and Yucatán Peninsula differ and this difference is associated with differing environmental characteristics of each area, despite the geographical proximity. Our results represent only a small fraction of
diversity of parasitic crustaceans present in the GoM, but they provide valuable new information on the geographical distribution and hosts in the region (i.e., the occurrence of an interoceanic copepod species), which is especially relevant aquaculture. To explore host specificity, the ecological and parasite-host interaction associated with their distribution, studies focusing on morphology and phylogenetics are essential.

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# First and second instar larvae and adults of a new Homidia species (Collembola, Entomobryidae) recorded from Xizang Autonomous Region with three new records 

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#### Abstract

Three new recorded species of genus Homidia were collected from Xizang Autonomous Region, China, in the present paper. Among them, a new species, Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov., is included in the present paper. This new species can be identified by having a single uninterrupted dark band on central thoracic segment III; 14 macrochaetae on abdominal segment I and seven on the posterior central abdominal segment IV (half segment); and very short bothriotricha on abdominal segments II-IV. It can be easily discriminated from similar species of Homidia by its colour pattern, chaetotaxy of the labium, and abdominal segments I and IV. The chaetotaxy of the first and second instar larvae of this new species and a key to four species of genus Homidia from Xizang are also provided.


## Keywords

Entomobryini, key, larvae, taxonomy, Xizang

## Introduction

The genus Homidia Börner, 1906 is collembolan taxon widely distributed in southeast China and is generally found in every habitat, such as in leaf litter of forest, farmland, vegetable field, residential area and so on. This genus was established as a subgenus of

[^8]Entomobrya (Rondani, 1861) by Börner (1906) and later raised to the generic level by Denis (1929). The significant character for the identification is that the dens bears spines and abdominal segment IV has an anterior series of macrochaetae transversely arranged as "eyebrows" in adults. Also, individuals with transverse bands, spots, or without pigment on the dorsal body are distinctive. Homidia species are good at jumping and large enough to be seen in wild by the naked eye. To date, 74 species of this genus have been reported worldwide (Bellinger et al. 1996-2021), and 42 are recorded from China (Ma and Pan 2017; Zhuo et al. 2018; Pan and Yang 2019; Pan and Ma 2021). However, among them only one species, Homidia tibetensis Chen $\&$ Zhong, 1998, was reported from Xizang.

Lhasa is the administrative centre of Xizang Autonomous Region, and with an altitude around 3600 m , it is one of the highest altitude cities in the world. Annual sunshine averages 3000 h and rainfall 200-510 mm. The climatic conditions results in unique biodiversity, including among Collembola. In order to gather more information about the diversity of Collembola from this region, we spent several days collecting around Lhasa in August 2019. Among the collected material, we found two new records and one new species of the genus Homidia. The chaetotaxy of the adult as well as the first and second instar larvae of the new species is described in detail. A comparison of the new species with the most similar species of the genus Homidia is provided. A checklist of all Homidia species found from Xizang is included as well as a key to separate them.

## Materials and methods

Collembolan individuals were sieved from leaflitter in the field, collected with an aspirator, and stored in $99 \%$ ethanol at -20 C in the laboratory. Specimens were photographed using a Nikon DS-Fil camera mounted onto a Nikon SMZ1000 stereomicroscope, then cleared in lactic acid, mounted in Hoyer's medium under a coverslip, and examined with a Nikon 80i phase-contrast microscope. Lengths of morphological structures were measured from specimens in ethanol by NIS-Elements 3.1 software. Photographs, illustrations, and labels were enhanced by Photoshop CS5 (Abode Systems).

Dorsal chaetotaxy is provided for only one side of the body. The nomenclature of cephalic chaetotaxy, labial palp, labial chaetae, and dorsal thoracic and abdominal chaetotaxy follows the systems of Rueda and Jordana (2020), Fjellberg (1998), Gisin (1967), and Szeptycki (1979), respectively.

Specimens and all types are deposited in the School of Life Sciences, Taizhou University (TZU).

## Abbreviations

Abd. abdominal segment;
Ant. antennal segment;

| Gr. | group; |
| :--- | :--- |
| mac | macrochaeta/e; |
| mic | microchaeta/e; |
| ms | specialized microchaeta/e; |
| sens | specialized ordinary chaeta(e); |
| S-chaeta/e | specialized chaeta/e, including ms and sens; |
| Th. | thoracic segment; |
| VT | ventral tube; |
| l.p. | lateral process; |
| asl | above sea level. |

## Taxonomic account

Fourteen samples (4687-4700) were collected in total from Lhasa from 1-VIII-2019 to 8-VIII-2019. The collection included two new records and one new species of the genus Homidia: Homidia sichuanensis Jia et al., 2010, Homidia sinensis Denis, 1929, Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. (Figs 1, 2, 4-8). A fourth species, Homidia tibetensis Chen \& Zhong, 1998 (Fig. 3), which had been recorded from Xizang in a previous study (Chen and Zhong 1998), was absent from the present sampling.

The sampling information of three Homidia species recorded here are listed in Table 1. Homidia sichuanensis was described by Jia et al. (2010) from Sichuan Province, China, and is identified by its colour pattern and the presence of mac p4 and A6-A10 on Th. III and Abd. IV, respectively. It is widely distributed in western China, from Sichuan Province to Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region (recorded in our collection S09022603). Homidia sinensis was reported by Denis (1929) from Foochow, Fujiang Provnice, China, and is distinct from other species of Homidia by its colour pattern, chaetotaxy of the labium and Abd. I, III, and IV. It has a wide distribution, and we found it in most regions of China. Homidia tibetensis was described by Chen and Zhong (1998) from Xizang and is only know from there, but the detailed collecting information is not provided in the original description. This species, which is well-characterized morphologically by its colour pattern and chaetotaxy, is not included in our collections.

## Key to the Homidia species from Xizang

1 Dorsal body with distinct transverse dark bands ..... 2

- Dorsal body without transverse dark band H. tibetensis
2 Lateral head without longitudinal dark band ..... 3
- Lateral head with longitudinal dark bands

Table I. Sampling information of Homidia species from Xizang Autonomous Region of China in the present study. All specimens were collected from Chengguan District of Lhasa City, in Xizang.

| Sample no. | Location | Coordinates | asl (m) | Habitat | Collector | Species |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4688 | Lalu National Wetland Park | $\begin{aligned} & 29^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 5.71^{\prime \prime N}, \\ & 91^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 55.15 \mathrm{E} \text {, } \end{aligned}$ | $3603 \pm 5$ | Leaf litter of white poplar forest | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Z-X. Pan, } \\ & \text { C-C. Si } \end{aligned}$ | H. sichuanensis |
| 4692 | Gesan Flower Park | $\begin{gathered} 29^{\circ} 39^{\prime} 59.57^{\prime \prime N}, \\ 91^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 18.38^{\prime \prime \mathrm{E}} \end{gathered}$ | $3634 \pm 5$ | Leaf litter of family Rosaceae | $\begin{gathered} \text { Z-X. Pan, } \\ \text { C-C. Si, J-F, Jia } \end{gathered}$ | H. breviseta sp. nov. |
| 4696 | Nanshan Park | $\begin{gathered} 29^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 15.69 \mathrm{CN}, \\ 91^{\circ} 6^{\prime} 50.16^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E} \end{gathered}$ | $3633 \pm 5$ | Leaf litter of Populus simonii | $\begin{gathered} \text { Z-X. Pan, } \\ \text { C-C. Si } \end{gathered}$ | H. sichuanensis |
| 4698 | Nongke Road, Germplasm Center of Xizang | $\begin{gathered} 29^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 27.28^{\prime \prime N}, \\ 91^{\circ} 1^{\prime} 55.58^{\prime \prime \mathrm{E}} \end{gathered}$ | $3584 \pm 5$ | Leaf litter of family Asteraceae | $\begin{gathered} \text { Z-X. Pan, J-F, } \\ \text { Jia } \end{gathered}$ | H. sinensis |

## Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/F1734E97-767C-44B8-B096-218E146502B5
Figures 1-51
Type material. Holotype. $1 q$ on slide, China, Xizang autonomous region, Lhasa city, Chengguan District, Gesan flower park, $29^{\circ} 39^{\prime} 59.5764^{\prime \prime N}$, $91^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 18.3828$ "E, $3634 \pm 5$ m asl, sample number 4692, collected by Z-X Pan, C-C Si, and F-H Jia, 3-VIII-2019. Paratypes. 7 q adults, 1 first and 1 second instar larva on slides and 5 adults in ethanol, same data as holotype.

Descriptions of adults. Size. Body length up to 1.62 mm . Colour pattern. Ground colour yellow-white in ethanol. Eye patches dark blue. Antennae gradually darker from Ant. I to Ant. IV. A dark narrow transverse band between basal antennae. Lateral Th. II-III with longitudinal bands, and dorsal Th. III with central transverse uninterrupted dark band. Coxa with dark pigment. Dorsal Abd. II and Abd. IV with central irregular dark bands. Dorsal Abd. III and Abd. V from anterior to posterior margin with dark transverse bands, and Abd. III with two lateral unpigmented areas. Dorsal Abd. IV with two middle and posterior transverse bands, the central one interrupted by a middle line (Figs 4, 5). Ventral side of body and VT pale white, without pigment (Fig. 6). Subadults with the same colour pattern as adults, but paler (Fig. 7).

Head. Eyes $8+8$, G and H smaller than others and always difficult to observe under light microscope; three chaetae ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{r}$, and t ) within eye patches, with p largest (Fig. 10). Antenna 1.56-2.16 times as long as cephalic diagonal; antennal segments ratio as I:II:III:IV = 1:1.11-1.72: 1.15-1.76:1.97-2.73. Ant. I base with seven (rarely as three) dorsal smooth mic and four ventral (Fig. 11). Ant. II base with five smooth mic (Fig. 12). Ant. III organ with two rod-like and three short guard S-chaetae (Fig. 13). Apical bulb on Ant. IV bilobed (Fig. 14). Prelabral and labral chaetae as $4 / 5$, 5,4 , all smooth; without labral papillae. Clypeus with $16(6 / 7 / 3)$ chaetae in three lines (Fig. 15). Cephalic chaetotaxy on dorsal side shown in Fig. 10, An series with four (An1-3, An3a), A series with four (A0, A1, A3, A5), M series with four (M1-4), S series with eight (S0-5, S4i, S5i), P series with 18 (Ps2, Ps5, Pi1, Pa1-5, Pm1-3, Pm5, Pp1-3, Pp5, Pple, Pp3e) mac. Chaetae on labium basis as MReL $L_{2}$, chaeta e smooth; postlabial chaetae not expanded, with $G_{1-4}, H_{1-4}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X$ all ciliate, $X_{4}$ unclear; five


Figures I-3. Colour pattern of Homidia species recorded from Xizang I Homidia sichuanensis $\mathbf{2}$ Homidia sinensis 3 Homidia tibetensis (following Chen and Zhong 1998). Scale bars: $1000 \mu \mathrm{~m}$
proximal chaetae (Fig. 16). Five papillae A-E on labial palp with $0,5,0,4,3$ guard chaetae, respectively; l.p. normal, with tip beyond apex of papilla E (Fig. 17). Maxillary outer lobe with single apical chaeta, one subapical chaeta, and three sublobal hairs on sublobal plate; subapical chaeta subequal in length to apical one (Fig. 18). Mandible with $4 / 5$ apical teeth and basal strong molar plate (Fig. 19)

Thorax. Complete body sens from Th. II to Abd. IV as 2, 2/1, 2, 2, 28 (26 elongate and two of normal length), 3 , ms as $1,0 / 1,0,1,0,0 . \mathrm{Th}$. II with seven medio-medial ( $\mathrm{m} 1, \mathrm{~m} 1 \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{m} 2, \mathrm{~m} 2 \mathrm{i}$ and m 2 i 2 and other two additional mes; arrow shown in Fig. 20), three medio-sublateral ( $\mathrm{m} 4, \mathrm{~m} 4 \mathrm{i}$ and m 4 i 2 ) mac and three S -chaetae ( ms anteroexternal to sens); posterior with $39-43 \mathrm{mac}$; p 6 as mic. Th. III with $42-47 \mathrm{mac}$ and two sens; $\mathrm{p} 5, \mathrm{p} 6$ and m 6 as mac, p 4 as mic (Fig. 20). Coxal macrochaetal formula as 3 (two pseudopores)/4+1, 3 (three pseudopores)/ $4+2$ (one pseudopore) mac (Fig. 21). Trochanteral organ with 31-40 smooth chaetae, six or seven in ventral line, and five or six in posterior line (Fig. 22). Inner side of tibiotarsus with slightly ciliated chaetae. Tenent hairs clavate, slightly shorter than inner edge of unguis in length. Unguis with four inner and two lateral teeth. Unguiculus lanceolate with outer edge smooth (Fig. 23).

Abdomen. Abd. IV 5-8 times longer than Abd. III along the dorsal axis. Abd. I with $14 \mathrm{mac}(\mathrm{a} 1-3, \mathrm{a} 5$, a1a, a1i, a2i, m2-5, m2i, m4i, m4p) and two S-chaetae (ms antero-external to sens). Abd. II with seven central (a2, a3, m3, m3e, m3ea and $\mathrm{m} 3 \mathrm{ep}, \mathrm{m} 3 \mathrm{ei}$ ) and one lateral (m5) mac. Abd. III with two central (a2 and m3) and two lateral (am6, pm6, p6 and m7) mac, two sens and one ms (Fig. 24). Abd. IV with 26 elongated and two normal length sens, and 6-9 mac arranged in anterior transversal line; postero-central area with seven mac (A4-6, B4-6, Ae6; one individual


Figures 4-9. Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. 4-9 habitus $\mathbf{4}$ dorsal view of adults $\mathbf{5}$ lateral view of adults $\mathbf{6}$ ventral view of adults $\mathbf{7}$ dorsal view of subadults $\mathbf{8}$ dorsal view of the first instar larvae $\mathbf{9}$ dorsal view of Abd. IV, showing mac sockets and short bothriotricha. Scale bars: $1000 \mu \mathrm{~m}(4-6) ; 500 \mu \mathrm{~m}(\mathbf{7 - 8}) ; 50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (9; left bar corresponds to large figure, right one to inset).
examined with Ae4 and Ae7), bothriotricha short and no more than two times as long as normal ciliate chaetae (Figs 9, 25). Abd. V with three sens, the middle one posterior to m 3 , the lateral one between chaetae a 5 and m 5 ; a1 as mic; a3, m3, m5, a5, m5, and a6 as mac (Fig. 25). Anterior face of VT with many ciliate chaetae, $3+3$ of them as mac, the line connecting proximal (Pr) and external-distal (Ed) mac obliquely to median furrow (Fig. 26); lateral flap with 5-7 smooth and 10-17 ciliate chaetae on each side (Fig. 27); apical posterior face as five $(2+1+2)$ smooth chaetae (two specimens examined here with four smooth chaetae) (Fig. 28). Manubrial plate with three pseudopores and eight or nine ciliate chaetae (Fig. 29). Dens with 2333 inner spines, distal smooth part slightly shorter than mucro (only basal part shown in Fig. 30). Mucro bidentate with subapical tooth larger than apical one; basal spine


Figures 10-19. Adults of Homidia breviseta Pan sp. nov. 10 cephalic chaetotaxy on dorsal side II base of Ant. I $\mathbf{1 2}$ base of Ant. II $\mathbf{1 3}$ Ant. III organ 14 distal part of Ant. IV 15 clypeal chaetotaxy 16 labium 17 labial papilla E $\mathbf{1 8}$ maxillary outer lobe $\mathbf{1 9}$ right mandible. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$


Figures 20-23. Adults of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. $\mathbf{2 0}$ chaetotaxy of Th. II-III $\mathbf{2 I}$ coxae (a fore leg b mid leg chind leg) $\mathbf{2 2}$ trochanteral organ $\mathbf{2 3}$ distal part of tibiotarsus and claw of hind leg. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.


Figures 24-3 I. adults of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. $\mathbf{2 4}$ chaetotaxy of Abd. I-III $\mathbf{2 5}$ chaetotaxy of Abd. IV-V $\mathbf{2 6}$ anterior face of VT $\mathbf{2 7}$ lateral flap of VT $\mathbf{2 8}$ posterior face of VT $\mathbf{2 9}$ manubrial plaque 30 basal part of dens $\mathbf{3 1}$ tenaculum. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
short, with tip reaching subapical tooth. Tenaculum with $4+4$ teeth and single large, multi-laterally, basally ciliate chaeta (Fig. 31).

Description of the first instar larva. Size. Body length up to 0.59 mm . Colour pattern. Ground colour whitish, only eye patches dark blue, others all without pigment (Fig. 8).



Figures 32-39. The first instar larva of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. 32 chaetotaxy of Ant. I-III 33 labium $\mathbf{3 4}$ chaetotaxy of Th. II-Abd. III $\mathbf{3 5}$ chaetotaxy of Abd. IV-V $\mathbf{3 6}$ ventral tube $\mathbf{3 7}$ manubrium 38 dens 39 tenaculum. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

Body. Complete tergal sens from Th. II to Abd. V as 2, 2/1, 2, 2, 28, 3, ms as 1, $0 / 1,0,1,0,0$. Cephalic chaetotaxy on dorsal side with three (An1-3), six (A0-5), four (M1-4), six (S0-5) mac of An, A, M, S series, respectively; eyes $8+8$, eye patches with three chaetae ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{r}$, and t ; p largest). Labium with three proximal chaetae, four chaetae (M, e, A and B) in basomedial field and five chaetae (C, D, F, $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ ) in basolateral field, chaetae $M, L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ ciliate, and others smooth; posterior area of labium with two ciliate mac along median furrow (Fig. 33). Th. II with seven anterior (a1-7), six median ( $\mathrm{m} 1-2, \mathrm{~m} 4-7$ ), and six posterior ( $\mathrm{p} 1-6$ ) primary chaetae arranged in three rows; chaetae $\mathrm{a} 7, \mathrm{~m} 2, \mathrm{~m} 5, \mathrm{~m} 7$, and $\mathrm{p} 4, \mathrm{p} 6$ as mic, others as mac, and with three S-chaetae ( ms anteroexternal to sens). Th. III with seven anterior (a1-7), five median ( $\mathrm{m} 1, \mathrm{~m} 4-7$ ), and six posterior ( $\mathrm{p} 1-6$ ) primary chaetae arranged in three rows and two S-chaetae; chaetae a4, $\mathrm{a} 7, \mathrm{~m} 1, \mathrm{~m} 4, \mathrm{~m} 5, \mathrm{~m} 7$, and $\mathrm{p} 4-6$ as mic, others as mac. Abd. I with five anterior (a1-3, a5-6), five median (m2-6), and two posterior (p5-6) primary chaetae arranged in three rows and two S-chaetae ( ms antero-external to sens); chaetae $\mathrm{m} 2-\mathrm{m} 4$ as mac, others as mic. Abd. II with six anterior (a1-3, a5-7), six median (m2-7), and four posterior ( $\mathrm{p} 4-7$ ) primary chaetae arranged in three rows, an additional chaeta external to p 7 and


Figures 40-42. Left legs of the first instar larva of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. 40 fore leg 41 mid leg 42 hind leg. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
two S-chaetae; chaetae m 3 and m 5 as mac, a 5 and m 2 as bothriotricha, others as mic. Abd. III with six anterior (a1-3, a5-7), seven median ( $\mathrm{m} 2-5$, am6, pm6, m7), and four posterior ( $\mathrm{p} 4-7$ ) primary chaetae arranged in three rows, five additional chaetae in lateral region, and three S-chaetae (one ms and two sens); chaeta m3 as mac, m2, a5, and m5 as bothriotricha, others as mic (Fig. 34). Abd. IV with five (A1-4, A6), six (B1-6), four (C1-4), seven (T1-7), three (D1-3), three (E1-3), and three (F1-3) primary ciliate chaetae arranged in seven longitudinal lines, one side with an additional ciliate chaeta between C2 and C3 (shown by arrow in Fig. 35), and 26 elongated and two normal sens; T2 and T4 as bothriotricha. Abd. V with 13 primary chaetae (m2, m3 and m 5 as mac; others as mic) and three sens, the median sens posterior to m 3 (Fig. 35).

Appendages. Ant. I with 11 ciliate chaetae arranged in one whole and one basal smooth chaeta. Ant. II with 25 ciliate chaetae, arranged in three wholes (from basis to apex as $8 / 8 / 9$ ), basis without smooth spiny chaetae. Ant. III with 37 ciliate chaetae


Figures 43-45. The second instar larva of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. 43 cephalic chaetotaxy 44 labium 45 chaetotaxy of Th. II-Abd. III. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
arranged in four wholes (11/12/13/2) and five S-chaetae (Ant. III organ) (Fig. 32). Primary chaetae on Ant. IV unclear. Ventral tube with two smooth chaetae on the posterior face and on each lateral flap, anterior face without chaetae (Fig. 36). Manubrium with 46 ciliate chaetae (Fig. 37); dens with numerous ciliate chaetae, without inner dental spines; chaetae bs2, bs1, pi unclear; mucro with subapical tooth larger than apical one, basal spine absent (Fig. 38). Tenaculum with $4+4$ teeth and without basal chaetae (Fig. 39). Four segments of fore, mid and hind leg with numerous chaetae, subcoxae with $1,2,3$ ciliate chaetae, coxae with $1,1,2$ ciliate chaetae, pseudopore(s) unclear; trochanters with six (one smooth), six (two smooth), five (one smooth and


Figures 46-5I. The second instar larva of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. $\mathbf{4 6}$ chaetotaxy of Abd. IV $\mathbf{4 7}$ chaetotaxy of Abd. V $\mathbf{4 8}$ ventral tube $\mathbf{4 9}$ manubrium $\mathbf{5 0}$ dens $\mathbf{5 I}$ tenaculum. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
one spine like) chaetae; femurs with 17 (three smooth), 17 (smooth chaetae unclear), 17 (two smooth) chaetae; tibiotarsus with 39 (10/8/8/8/4 ciliate and one tenent hair), 41 (10/8/8/8/6 ciliate and one tenent hair), 48 (10/7/9/9/9/2, one tenent hair and one inner smooth chaetae) ciliate chaetae (Figs 40-42).

Description of the second instar larva. Colour pattern. Ground colour whitish; eye patches dark blue. The colour pattern of the second instar larva is similar to adult, but slighter.

The chaetotaxy of the second instar larva is more complex than first instar, and several primary chaetae with secondary chaetae present in the second instar (Figs 43-54). The detailed comparison between these two instars are tabulated in Table 3.

Ecology. All stages were found in leaf litter of the Family Rosaceae.
Etymology. The specific epithet refers to the very short chaeta bothriotricha on dorsal Abd. II-IV (brevi and seta).

Remarks. This new species is mostly similar to Homidia similis Szeptycki, 1973 in having Th. III, Abd. III, and the middle and posterior of Abd. IV and Abd. V with transverse bands; in the chaetotaxy of the labium, head, Th. III, and Abd. II-III; and


Figures 52-54. Legs of the second instar larva of Homidia breviseta Pan, sp. nov. $\mathbf{5 2}$ fore leg $\mathbf{5 3}$ mid leg 54 hind leg. Scale bars: $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
smooth chaetae on posterior face (five) and lateral flap (six) of VT. However, the new species can be differentiated from H. similis by the uninterrupted band on Th. III (interrupted by a central line in latter), a broad band from the anterior to posterior margin of Abd. III (anterior margin not pigmented in the latter), 14 mac on Abd. I (nine in the latter), and seven posterior central mac on Abd. IV (eight in the latter). Also, the new species is similar to H. bilineata Lee \& Park, 1984 and Homidia huashanensis Jia et al., 2005 in having mac on the dorsal head, Th. II-III, and Abd. II and chaetal formula on labium; however, they can be discriminated by colour pattern, chaetotaxy on Abd. I and posterior central Abd. IV. A detailed comparison of these four similar species is given in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparison between the new species and other similar species of Homidia.

| Characters | H. breviseta sp. nov. | H. similis | H. bilineata | H. buashanensis |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pigment on central Th III | as one complete band | separated to two <br> parts by middle line ${ }^{* \dagger}$ | without | not as band |
| no |  |  |  |  |

*Refers to the description by Szeptycki (1973), ${ }^{\dagger}$ Refers to the description by Jordana (2012), ${ }^{\ddagger}$ Refers to the description by Chen et al. (2011).

Table 3. Detailed comparison of chaetotaxy between the first and second instar larvae of Homidia breviseta sp. nov.

| Characters |  |  | First instar | Second instar |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Th. II | $\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{p}$ series |  | 7/6/6 | 11/9/11 |
| Th. III | $\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{p}$ series |  | 7/5/6 | 8/6/9 |
| Abd. I | $\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{p}$ series |  | 5/5/2 | 5/6/3 |
| Abd. II | $\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{p}$ series |  | 6/6/4 | $6 / 9$ (m3e present) $/ 5$ |
| Abd. III | $\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{p}$ series |  | 6/6/4 | 8/?/4 |
| Abd. IV | ciliate chaetae |  | 30 | 53 |
| Abd. V | ciliate chaetae |  | 13 | 27 (m3a present) |
| Fore leg | subcoxa |  | 1 | 2 |
|  | coxa |  | 1 | 2 |
|  | trochanters |  | $6\left(4 c^{*}+2 s^{\dagger}\right)$ | 6 (4c+2s) |
|  | femurs |  | 17 (14c+3s) | 18 |
|  | tibiotarsus ${ }^{3}$ | whole I | 10 | 10 |
|  |  | whole II | 8 | 8 |
|  |  | whole III | 8 | 8 |
|  |  | whole IV | 8 | 8 |
|  |  | additional | 4 | 7 |
| Mid leg | subcoxa |  | 2 | 5 |
|  | coxa |  | 1 | 5 |
|  | trochanters |  | 6 (4c+2s) | 7 |
|  | femurs |  | 17 | $21(19 \mathrm{c}+2 \mathrm{~s})$ |
|  | tibiotarsus ${ }^{3}$ | whole I | 10 | 10 |
|  |  | whole II | 8 | 8 |
|  |  | whole III | 8 | 8 |
|  |  | whole IV | 8 | 8 |
|  |  | additional | 6 | 3 |
| Hind leg | subcoxa |  | 3 | 2 |
|  | coxa |  | 2 | 5 |
|  | trochanters |  | 5 (1 spine) | 6 (1 spine) |
|  | femurs |  | 17 (15c+2s) | 22 (21c+1s) |


|  | Characters |  | First instar | Second instar |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Hind leg | tibiotarsus $^{3}$ | whole I | 10 | 10 |
|  |  | whole II | 7 | 9 |
|  |  | whole III | 9 | 9 |
|  |  | whole IV | 9 | 9 |
|  |  | whole V | $9+2$ | 9 |
| Labium |  | 3 s | 5 s |  |
| Ventral tube | proximal chaetae |  | 0 | $1 \mathrm{c}+1 \mathrm{c}$ |
|  | anterior face |  | $2 \mathrm{~s}+2 \mathrm{~s}$ | $5 \mathrm{~s}+5 \mathrm{~s}$ |
|  | lateral flap | 2 s | 3 s |  |
| Tenaculum | posterior face | 0 | 1 |  |
| Manubrium | basal chaeta |  | 46 c | 77 c |
| Mucro | chaetae | absent | present |  |

${ }^{*}$ Ciliate, ${ }^{\dagger}$ Smooth, $\ddagger$ Chaetae on tibiotarsus, not including tenent hair and smooth apical chaeta.

This species is the second species of genus Homidia described from Xizang, and it can be easily distinguished from the first new species recorded from this region (H. tibetensis Chen \& Zhong, 1998) by the colour pattern (dorsal central pigments on Th. III and Abd. III in the new species, absent in H. tibetensis), chaetotaxy on the labial triangle (M2 absent in the new species, but present in H. tibetensis), Abd. I (14 mac in the new species, and 11 in $H$. tibetensis), and posterior part of Abd. IV (seven in new species and only two in $H$. tibetensis).

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# A new species of Homatula (Teleostei, Cobitoidea, Nemacheilidae) from the Pearl River drainage, Yunnan, China 

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#### Abstract

Based on morphological and molecular analysis of Homatula species distributed in the Nanpanjiang River in Yunnan, China, we described a new species, Homatula robusta sp. nov. It differs from its congeners by a combination of the following characters: naked and robust body with well-developed crests (caudal peduncle depth as a percentage of its length: 70.5-78.5\%); lateral line complete; median notch on lower jaw; median gap on lower lip; three pairs of short barbels, with maxillary barbels extending posteriorly to anterior edge of eyes; branched dorsal-fin rays $81 / 2$; and vertebrae 37 - 39 . It can further be distinguished from $H$. nanpanjiangensis by several differences of the caudal skeleton such as the number of hypural elements, the presence of epurale and the shape of neural and haemal spines. Phylogenetic analysis of the mitochondrial cytochrome coxidase subunit I (COI) gene indicated that the new species represents an independent lineage. It is separated from other Homatula species by a minimum of $5.3 \%$ Kimura-2-parameter distance in the COI gene. Furthermore, we confirmed that Homatula wenshanensis should be a member of Homatula based on both skeleton and molecular evidence.


## Keywords

Molecular phylogeny, morphology, Nanpanjiang River, osteology, taxonomy

## Introduction

Homatula, a group of benthic nemacheilids distributed in the eastern slope of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, was established by Nichols in 1925 based on Nemachilus potanini Günther, 1896 from the Minjiang River (a tributary of the Yangtze River, Sichuan, China) (Kottelat 1990; Bănărescu and Nalbant 1995; Min et al. 2012). Species of Homatula are characterized by the crests along the dorsal and ventral margins of the caudal peduncle supported by rudimentary procurrent caudalfin rays, the presence of a degenerated non-ossified secondary gas-bladder chamber, and a medium to large-sized body with a maximum standard length of 190 mm (Zhu 1989; Kottelat 1990; Bănărescu and Nalbant 1995; Endruweit et al. 2018).

Currently, 21 valid species are recognized, mostly distributed in China, and only one species is recently reported from Vietnam (Nguyen et al. 2021; Zhou et al. 2021). In China, six species are in the Palaearctic drainages of the Yangtze and Yellow River, four in the Lancangjiang River (upper reaches of the Mekong River), three in the Nujiang River (Salween River), four in the Red River, and three in the Nanpanjiang River (upper reaches of the Pearl River), respectively. None of them is distributed across these large river systems.

Three Homatula species have been reported from the Nanpanjiang River, i.e., H. oligolepis (Cao \& Zhu, 1989), H. longidorsalis (Yang, Chen \& Kottelat, 1994) and H. nanpanjiangensis (Min, Chen \& Yang, 2010). In 2009, a medium-sized loach was collected from Luoping County, Yunnan Province, China, which belongs to the Nanpanjiang River drainage. By comparing it to other Homatula species, especially the species distributed in the Nanpanjiang River, we describe it as a new species here.

## Materials and methods

All specimens were collected in 2009 from Yunnan Province, China and they were fixed either in $95 \%$ ethanol or $10 \%$ formalin and transferred to $75 \%$ ethanol for preservation. For DNA analysis, tissue samples from the left pelvic fin were excised from one or more specimens and placed in $95 \%$ ethanol. General methods for measurements and counts were done following Kottelat (1990), pore counts followed Armbruster (2012). Measurements were made with digital calipers to the nearest 0.1 mm from the left side. X-ray images were used to count vertebrae and simple fin rays. Lateral line pores and rays of paired fins were counted under a binocular microscope. The Weberian apparatus was counted as four vertebrae. Caudal vertebrae encompassed all centra bearing a haemal spine, including the urostyle, which was counted as one vertebra. Eye diameter was measured horizontally. Body depth was measured at the dorsal-fin origin. Lateral head length was measured from snout tip to the posterior margin of the operculum, excluding the opercular membrane. Examined specimens were deposited in the collection of the Kunming Natural His-
tory Museum of Zoology, Kunming Institute of Zoology (KIZ), Chinese Academy of Sciences.

In order to compare skeletal morphology, we applied Computed Microtomographic $(\mu \mathrm{CT})$ scans of the holotype of H. robusta (KIZ 2009000125), a paratype of H. nanpanjiangensis (KIZ 1994000029) and a specimen of H. wenshanensis (KIZ 2014005686). Specimens were scanned using a GE Phoenix v|tome|x m dual tube $300 / 180 \mathrm{kV}$ system in the Key Laboratory of Vertebrate Evolution and Human Origins, Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and Paleoanthropology (IVPP), Chinese Academy of Sciences. The specimen was scanned with an energy beam of 80 kV and a flux of $80^{*} \mu \mathrm{~A}$ using a $360^{\circ}$ rotation and then reconstructed into a $4096^{*} 4096$ matrix of 1536 slices. The final CT reconstructed skeleton images were exported with a minimum resolution of $6.099 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. The skeleton images were exported from the virtual 3D model which was reconstructed using Volume Graphics Studio 3.0. Osteological terminology generally follows that of Prokofiev (2009) and Conway (2011) with modifications.

DNA was extracted from fin tissues using standard phenol-chloroform extraction (Sambrook et al. 1989). Mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The PCR protocols were conducted in $50-\mu \mathrm{l}$ reactions as follows: initial denaturation step at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $5 \mathrm{~min}, 35$ cycles at $94{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $30 \mathrm{~s}, 56^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 45 s , and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min , and final extension at $72{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min . The primers used for COI were LCOIa (CCT ACC TgT ggC AAT CAC RCg C ), HCOI (gTg AAT Agg ggg AAT CAg Tg) (Liu et al. 2012). Fragments were sequenced by the Shanghai DNA Biotechnologies Company (China). DNA sequences were aligned using default settings in MAFFT v7 (http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/) (Katoh and Standley 2013), and, if necessary, adjusted by eye. MEGA7 (Kumar et al. 2016) was used to calculate the Kimura's 2-parameter genetic distance (K2P). The phylogeny was analyzed using MrBayes 3.2 (Ronquist et al. 2012) with the generalized time reversible model ( $\mathrm{nst}=6$ ) and the gamma-distributed rate variation and proportion of invariable positions (GTR+I) for the COI datasets. We ran four simultaneous Monte Carlo Markov chains for 2000000 generations, with sampling every 1000 generations, and the first $25 \%$ of samples were discarded as burn-in.

## Comparative materials

Homatula longidorsalis (Yang, Chen $\&$ Kottelat, 1994) ( $N=24$ ): Holotype: China; Yunnan, Yiliang, Jiuxiang; KIZ 1987003989, 82.0 mm SL. Paratypes: China; Yunnan, Yiliang, Jiuxiang; KIZ 1987003990, 3991-3993, 5090, 5091, 57365752, 46.0-89.5 mm SL.
Homatula nanpanjiangensis (Min, Chen \& Yang, 2010) ( $N=20$ ): Holotype: China; Yunnan, Qujing, Luoping; KIZ 1994000023, 86.8 mm SL. Paratypes: China: Yunnan: Qujing: Luoping; KIZ 1994000018-22, 024-037, 72.4-89.7 mm SL.
Homatula oligolepis (Cao \& Zhu, 1989) $(N=2)$ : China; Yunnan, Zhanyi; KIZ 1985000829 , KIZ 652099, 138.2-170.7 mm SL.

Homatula potanini (Günther, 1896) ( $N=5$ ): China; Sichuan, Meishan; KIZ 2010000266; China; Sichuan, Luoshan; KIZ 2010000279-82, 70.6-80.1 mm SL.
Homatula variegata (Dabry de Thiersant, 1874) ( $N=9$ ): China; Sichuan, Panzhihua; KIZ 2009002724-2727, 77.4-95.2 mm SL; China; Yunnan, Zhaotong, Yanjin; KIZ 2004008050, 52-53, 57, 61, 76.3-101.6 mm SL.
Homatula laxiclathra Gu \& Zhang, 2012 ( $N=2$ ): China; Shanxi: Ankang: Ningshan: Weihe River: KIZ $2012002359-60,100.5-120.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL.
Homatula guanheensis Zhou, Ma, Wang, Tang, Meng \& Nie, $2021(N=6)$ : China: Shanxi, Ankang, Ningshan, Yangtze River; KIZ 2005014508-13, 104.5-135 mm SL.
Homatula wuliangensis Min, Yang \& Chen, 2012 ( $N=34$ ): Holotype: China; Yunnan, Jingdong; KIZ 2008008158, 181.9 mm SL. Paratypes: China; Yunnan, Jingdong; KIZ 2008008156-157, 159-172, 175-176, 179, 184, 197, 199-201, 203, 205, 207, 211, 214-215, 316-318, 64.6-191.1 mm SL.
Homatula disparizona Min, Yang \& Chen, 2013 ( $N=21$ ): Holotype: China; Yunnan, Wenshan, Xichou; KIZ 2012000623. Paratypes: China; Yunnan, Wenshan, Xichou; KIZ 2012000622, 624-634. China; Yunnan, Wenshan, Xichou; KIZ 2014005623-30, 62.8-92.4 mm SL.
Homatula acuticephala (Zhou \& He, 1993) ( $N=26$ ): China; Yunnan, Dali, Haixihai; KIZ 2008005990-6015, 33.7-51.5 mm SL.
Homatula anguillioides (Zhu \& Wang, 1985) ( $N=12$ ): China; Yunnan, Dali, Eryuan, KIZ 2008006532-6543, 68.8-143.3 mm SL.
Homatula pycnolepis Hu \& Zhang, 2010 ( $N=6$ ): China; Yunnan, Dali, Yangbi; KIZ 1998004817, 19, 22, 25, KIZ 2009005288, KIZ 2009005388, 120.1177.1 mm SL.

Homatula change Endruweit, 2015 ( $N=12$ ): Holotype: China; Yunnan, Puer, Jiangcheng; KIZ 2012004205, 107.6 mm SL. Paratypes: China; Yunnan, Puer, Jiangcheng; KIZ 2012004208, 4209, 4211, 4215-18, 4221-24, 37.9-76.5 mm SL.
Homatula coccinocola Endruweit, Min \& Yang, 2018 ( $N=5$ ): Holotype: China, Yunnan, Honghe; KIZ 2011002847, 99.6 mm SL. Paratypes: China, Yunnan, Honghe; KIZ 2012001866-1869, 51.1-79.0 mm SL.
Homatula cryptoclathrata Li, Che \& Zhou, 2019 ( $N=2$ ): China; Yunnan, Lincang; KIZ 2005012637, 39, 91.3-100 mm SL.
Homatula wenshanensis Li, Yang, Li \& Liu, 2017 ( $N=3$ ): China; Yunnan, Wenshan; KIZ 2014005685-87, 60.2-110.9 mm SL.

We obtained information on H. wujiangensis Ding \& Deng, 1990 from Ding and Deng (1990), on H. anteridorsalis Li, Che \& Zhou, 2019 and H. nigra Li, Che \& Zhou, 2019 from Li, Che and Zhou (2019), and H. dotui Nguyen, Wu, Cao \& Zhang, 2021 from Nguyen et al. (2021).

GenBank Accession numbers are listed in Table 1.

Table I. Voucher and Genbank numbers for study samples; sequences downloaded from GenBank are without voucher numbers.

| Taxon | Voucher number | GenBank number |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Triplophysa brevicauda | KIZ 050422024 | MZ677092 |
| Triplophysa scleroptera | KIZ 20100076 | MZ677093 |
| Triplophysa obscura | - | MG238209 |
| Claea dabryi | KIZ 2009003600 | MZ677094 |
| Schistura fasciolata | KIZ 2012003668 | MZ677096 |
| Schistura macrocephalus | KIZ 2010003135 | MZ677098 |
| Schistura latifasciata | KIZ CXY2008062 | MZ677099 |
| Schistura callichroma | KIZ 200401055 | MZ677095 |
| Schistura caudofurca | KIZ 20150307022 | MZ677097 |
| Homatula wujiangensis | - | IHB0301075 |
| Homatula potanini | KIZ 2010000235 | MZ677100 |
| Homatula potanini | KIZ 2010000281 | MZ677101 |
| Homatula guanheensis | KIZ 2005014512 | MZ677105 |
| Homatula guanheensis | KIZ 2005014513 | MZ677104 |
| Homatula longidorsalis | KIZ 2008005909 | MZ677121 |
| Homatula longidorsalis | KIZ 2008005910 | MZ677118 |
| Homatula variegata | KIZ 2009002770 | MZ677110 |
| Homatula variegata | KIZ 2009002724 | MZ677115 |
| Homutula robusta | KIZ 2009000146 | MZ677106 |
| Homatula robusta | KIZ 2009000144 | MZ677107 |
| Homatula coccinocola | KIZ 2012001867 | MF953210 |
| Homatula coccinocola | KIZ 2012001868 | MF953211 |
| Homatula change | KIZ 2015005116 | MZ677109 |
| Homatula change | KIZ 2015005117 | MZ677108 |
| Homatula cryptoclathrata | KIZ 2005012639 | MZ677116 |
| Homatula cryptoclathrata | KIZ 2005012637 | MZ677117 |
| Homatula pycnolepis | KIZ 2009003860 | MZ677111 |
| Homatula pycnolepis | KIZ 20050423002 | MZ677114 |
| Homatula anguillioides | KIZ 2008006539 | MZ677124 |
| Homatula acuticephala | KIZ 2008005994 | MZ677122 |
| Homatula anguillioides | KIZ 2008006536 | MZ677125 |
| Homatula acuticephala | KIZ 2008005990 | MZ677123 |
| Homatula wuliangensis | KIZ 2008008160 | MF953221 |
| Homatula wuliangensis | KIZ 2008008159 | MF953220 |
| Homatula wenshanensis | KIZ 2014005686 | MZ677102 |
| Homatula wenshanensis | KIZ 2014005687 | MF953193 |
| Homatula disparizona | KIZ 2012000626 | MF953190 |
| Homatula disparizona | KIZ 2012000622 | KT781503 |
| Botia dario |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

## Results

## Taxonomy

Homatula robusta sp. nov.
http://zoobank.org/A27C86D0-FD58-448C-9A85-6129B1A18F66
Figs 1-5, Tables 2, 3
Material. Holotype. KIZ 2009000125, 83.12 mm SL; collected by Wansheng Jiang and Weiying Wang on 14 March 2009 at Changdi village, Luoping County, Qu-


Figure I. Lateral A dorsal B and ventral views C of H. robusta sp. nov., holotype, KIZ 2009000125, 83.12 mm SL.


Figure 2. Homatula robusta sp. nov., paratype, KIZ 2009000122, 81.32 mm SL, head in lateral $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal $\mathbf{B}$ and ventral $\mathbf{C}$ views.


Figure 3. Lateral view of H. robusta sp. nov. KIZ 2009000122 paratype A H. longidorsalis KIZ 1987003989 B H. nanpanjiangensis KIZ 1994000023 C H. potanini KIZ 2010000266 D.
jing City, Yunnan Province, China; Nanpanjiang River, upper Pearl River $\left(25^{\circ} 02^{\prime} \mathrm{N}\right.$, $104^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$; ca 1210 m$)$. Paratypes. KIZ 2009000122, 144, 146, 3 ex. 61.16-81.32 mm SL, same data as for holotype.

Diagnosis. The new species can be distinguished from all other species of Homatula by having the following combination of characters: naked and robust body with welldeveloped crests (caudal peduncle depth as a percentage of its length: 70.5-78.5\%), lateral line complete, median notch on lower jaw, median gap on lower lip, three pairs of short barbels, with maxillary barbels extending posteriorly to the anterior edge of eyes, branched dorsal-fin rays $81 / 2$, emarginated caudal fin, and vertebrae 37-39.

Table 2. Measurements of four type specimens of Homatula robusta sp. nov.

| Measurements (mm) | H. robusta |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2009000125 | 2009000122 | 2009000144 | 2009000146 |
| SL | 83.12 | 81.32 | 73.70 | 61.16 |
| Head length | 18.76 | 18.28 | 16.58 | 13.28 |
| Predorsal length | 38.78 | 37.34 | 35.16 | 29.06 |
| Preventral length | 41.80 | 40.94 | 37.06 | 29.98 |
| Preanal length | 60.42 | 60.46 | 54.52 | 45.60 |
| Preanus length | 55.92 | 56.00 | 50.16 | 41.96 |
| Body depth | 14.40 | 13.82 | 11.72 | 10.28 |
| Caudal peduncle length (CPL) | 16.56 | 14.78 | 13.32 | 9.96 |
| Caudal peduncle depth (CPD) | 11.68 | 11.60 | 10.20 | 7.04 |
| Body width | 9.36 | 9.38 | 8.66 | 7.06 |
| Dorsal-fin length | 11.28 | 11.48 | 10.24 | 7.12 |
| Anal-fin length | 12.32 | 11.94 | 11.58 | 9.14 |
| Pelvic-fin length | 12.12 | 12.28 | 11.22 | 8.72 |
| Pectoral-fin length | 14.82 | 14.76 | 13.50 | 11.12 |
| Head depth at neck | 11.84 | 11.72 | 10.70 | 8.56 |
| Snout length | 8.64 | 8.48 | 7.48 | 6.10 |
| Head width at eye | 13.12 | 13.34 | 12.40 | 9.46 |
| Max head width | 14.08 | 13.90 | 12.88 | 10.78 |
| Interorbital width | 4.30 | 4.44 | 4.24 | 3.74 |
| eye diameter | 2.62 | 2.34 | 2.28 | 2.10 |

Description. Anterior body cylindrical, posterior body laterally compressed; robust, depth 5.8-6.3 times in length. Caudal peduncle stout, depth 1.27-1.42 times in its length. Crests on dorsal and ventral midlines present and supported by rudimentary procurrent caudal-fin rays; dorsal crest starting immediately posterior of dorsal-fin base, ventral crest starting immediately posterior of anal-fin base.

Snout blunt in lateral view, cheeks inflated. Eyes elliptical horizontally, dorsolaterally positioned. Mouth inferior, slightly arched. Anterior nostril in flap, next to posterior nostril. Lips moderately thick, upper lip smooth, slightly notched medially, lower lip with shallow furrows and median gap. Processus dentiformis on upper jaw present with circular arc edge; lower jaw spoon-like with a median notch. Three pairs of barbels, maxillary barbel reaching anterior margin of eye, outer rostral barbel reaching inner corner of mouth and inner rostral barbel not.

Dorsal-fin rays iv, $81 / 2$, distal margin slightly convex. Pectoral-fin rays 11 , reaching about halfway from insertion of pectoral fin to insertion of pelvic fin. Pelvic-fin rays 6-8, reaching close to anus, inserted opposite of the first branched dorsal-fin ray. Anus located 1.53-2.17 times eye diameter in front of anal-fin origin. Anal-fin rays iii, 512.2. Caudal-fin rays $9+8$, distal margin of caudal fin emarginated with upper and lower lobes almost equal in length. Moderate axillary pelvic lobe with free tip.

Body scaleless, or sparse scales scattered along lateral line after posterior end of anal-fin base, embedded beneath skin. Lateral line completed with $85-89$ pores. Supraorbital pores 7 , postorbital pores 3, sub- and preorbital pores 12, preoperculo-mandibular pores 10 , supratemporal pores 3 .


Figure 4. Lateral CT scans of: A H. robusta sp. nov., KIZ 2009000125, lateral view and structure of caudal skeletons B H. nanpanjiangensis, KIZ 1994000029, lateral view and structure of caudal skeletons C H. wenshanensis, KIZ 2014005686, lateral view. Abbreviations: ph-partypurale, ns-neural spine, hs-haemal spine, h-hypural, epu-epurale, pst-pleurostyle.

Vertebrae (three specimens), 4+37-39; four hypural elements with h-1 \& h-2 fused, epurale present, last four neural spines (ns-1 to ns-4) and last three haemal spines (hs-1 to hs-3) on the caudal vertebrae are significantly enlarged. U-shaped stomach; intestine almost straight, with small bend next to stomach posterior. Longest recorded length is $83.1 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}, 95.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ total length (KIZ 2009000125, holotype).

Table 3. Morphometrics of Homatula robusta sp. nov. and Homatula nanpanjiangensis. SD, standard deviation.

|  | H. robusta |  |  |  |  | H. nanpanjiangensis |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Measurements | $\mathbf{N}$ | Min | Max | Mean | SD | N | Min | Max | Mean | SD |
| SL (mm) | 4 | 61.1 | 83.12 | 74.83 | 8.65 | 19 | 63.82 | 88.74 | 78.37 | 7.56 |
| As percent of SL |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Head length | 4 | 13.28 | 18.76 | 16.73 | 2.15 | 19 | 15.46 | 20.36 | 18.63 | 1.53 |
| Predorsal length | 4 | 45.92 | 47.71 | 46.95 | 0.72 | 19 | 45.62 | 50.47 | 47.98 | 1.37 |
| Preventral length | 4 | 49.02 | 50.34 | 49.98 | 0.56 | 19 | 49.58 | 54.03 | 51.14 | 1.14 |
| Preanal length | 4 | 72.69 | 74.56 | 73.89 | 0.73 | 19 | 71.25 | 76.94 | 74.37 | 1.47 |
| Preanus length | 4 | 67.28 | 68.86 | 68.20 | 0.61 | 19 | 66.55 | 70.46 | 69.03 | 1.01 |
| Body depth | 4 | 15.9 | 17.32 | 16.76 | 0.53 | 19 | 12.64 | 15.30 | 13.77 | 0.73 |
| Caudal peduncle length (CPL) | 4 | 16.29 | 19.92 | 18.11 | 1.29 | 19 | 16.49 | 20.92 | 18.64 | 1.06 |
| Caudal peduncle depth (CPD) | 4 | 11.51 | 14.26 | 13.42 | 1.11 | 19 | 9.45 | 12.06 | 10.83 | 0.66 |
| Body width | 4 | 11.26 | 11.75 | 11.52 | 0.17 | 19 | 9.24 | 13.65 | 10.73 | 1.10 |
| Dorsal-fin length | 4 | 11.64 | 14.12 | 13.31 | 0.98 | 7 | 12.00 | 15.83 | 14.21 | 1.19 |
| Anal-fin length | 4 | 14.68 | 15.71 | 15.04 | 0.40 | 6 | 14.47 | 16.99 | 15.56 | 0.82 |
| Pelvic-fin length | 4 | 14.26 | 15.22 | 14.79 | 0.39 | 6 | 13.47 | 15.67 | 14.40 | 0.68 |
| Pectoral-fin length | 4 | 17.83 | 18.32 | 18.12 | 0.18 | 6 | 15.35 | 19.30 | 17.49 | 1.16 |
| As percent of head length |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Head depth at neck | 4 | 63.11 | 64.54 | 64.06 | 0.57 | 19 | 49.88 | 61.19 | 55.01 | 3.79 |
| Snout length | 4 | 45.11 | 46.39 | 45.87 | 0.47 | 19 | 40.92 | 47.69 | 44.16 | 2.28 |
| Head width at eye | 4 | 69.94 | 74.79 | 72.23 | 1.83 | 19 | 49.63 | 72.79 | 59.56 | 6.77 |
| Max head width | 4 | 75.05 | 81.17 | 77.49 | 2.33 | 19 | 63.22 | 77.27 | 69.29 | 3.72 |
| Interorbital width | 4 | 22.92 | 28.16 | 25.24 | 1.93 | 19 | 22.21 | 26.67 | 24.29 | 1.17 |
| Eye diameter | 4 | 12.8 | 15.81 | 14.08 | 1.09 | 19 | 13.79 | 17.94 | 15.95 | 1.05 |
| CPD/CPL (\%) | 4 | 70.53 | 78.48 | 74.07 | 3.53 | 19 | 49.50 | 65.66 | 58.22 | 4.22 |



Figure 5. Distribution of Homatula from the Nanpanjiang River.

Coloration of preserved specimens．Body light brown with vertical brown bars in formalin－fixed specimens．Bars on predorsal body usually blurred and indistinct，or countable and separated by extraordinary narrow interspaces just in KIZ 2009000122. Bars and interspaces getting wider towards caudal－fin base and approximately equal width on posterior body．Usually，bars regularly shaped and jointed on dorsal midline from opposite sides，or two bars met on upper body and last bar diffused or formed by two combined bars（KIZ 2009000122）．Dark black bar on caudal－fin base，reaching dorsal and ventral extremities．All fin rays pale brown and covered by melanophores， series of stripes halfway up each dorsal－fin ray．Color in alcohol－fixed specimens is paler than those in formalin－fixed specimens．

Sexual dimorphism．No sexual dimorphism was observed．
Etymology．Robusta is a Latin word meaning＇strong＇，in reference to the stout body and caudal peduncle．The Chinese common name is suggested as 粗壮荷马条鳅．

Distribution．Only known from the type locality，Changdi village，Luoping County，Qujing City，Yunnan Province，China（Fig．5）．

## Phylogenetic characterization and relationships

The COI molecular dataset included 39 terminal taxa representing 25 species， 15 of which belonged to Homatula（Table 1）．The COI gene was 1116 bp in length with 313 informative sites， 68 singleton sites，and 717 constant sites．The Bayesian inference （BI）phylogenetic analysis recovered the monophyly of $H$ ．robusta，H．wenshanensis and most species of Homatula（Fig．6）．The K2P distance between H．robusta and its closest species on the tree，H．longidorsalis，is $5.3 \%$ ．Homatula wenshanensis was the sister group of H．disparizona．Homatula potanini and H．wujiangensis（Ding \＆Deng， 1990）were clustered together，with a K2P distance of $1.5 \%$ ，and $H$ ．acuticephala and H．anguillioides were clustered together，with a K2P distance of $0.2 \%$ ．

## Discussion

Homatula robusta sp．nov．can be distinguished from its congeners except H．disparizona，H．nanpanjiangensis，$H$ ．wujiangensis，$H$ ．oligolepis，$H$ ．dotui and $H$ ． wenshanensis by body scaleless，or sparse scales scattered along the lateral line after anal－fin base（vs．anterior body scaleless or with rudimentary scales in H．berezowskii， H．guanheensis，H．laxiclathra，H．longidorsalis，H．potanini，and H．variegata；whole body scaled besides the head in $H$ ．acuticephala，$H$ ．anguillioides，$H$ ．anteridorsalis，$H$ ． change，H．coccinocola，H．cryptoclathrata，H．nigra，H．pycnolepis，H．wuliangensis）． The new species can be distinguished from $H$ ．dotui and $H$ ．wujiangensis by the complete lateral line（vs．incomplete），presence of brown bars on the body（vs． absence in $H$ ．dotui），37－39 vertebrae（vs． 31 in $H$ ．dotui），normally developed eye， $12.8-15.8 \%$ of HL （vs．rudimentary， $4-6 \%$ in $H$ ．dotui），caudal－fin rays $9+8$（vs．


Figure 6. COI MrBayes phylogenetic reconstruction of Homatula. BI posterior probabilities of more than 0.95 are plotted on the branches.
$8+7$ in H. dotui), dorsal crest reaching forward beyond the origin of anal-fin base (vs. not reaching the posterior point of anal-fin base in $H$. wujiangensis) and from $H$. oligolepis by the regular bars on the side of the body (vs. vermiform markings on the
head and body), $81 / 2$ branched dorsal-fin rays (vs. $9^{1 / 2}$ ), vertebrae 37-39 (vs. 39-41). It can be distinguished from $H$. disparizona and $H$. wenshanensis by the stronger body with BD 15.9-17.3\% of SL (vs. 12.1-15.4\% in H. disparizona, 12.1-14.8\% in H. wenshanensis), vertebrae 37-39 (vs. 39-40 in H. disparizona, 47-48 in H. wenshanensis), stout caudal peduncle with CPD 70.5-78.5\% of Caudal peduncle length (CPL) (vs. 47-62\% in H. disparizona, 27.3-35\% in H. wenshanensis), and the median notch on the lower jaw present (vs. absent), caudal fin slightly emarginated (vs. forked in H. wenshanensis). Homatula robusta can be distinguished from its most similar species, H. nanpanjiangensis, on external morphology by the stouter caudal peduncle with CPD 70.5-78.5\% of CPL (vs. 49.5-65.7\%), deeper body depth (BD) $15.9-17.3 \%$ of SL (vs. 12.6-15.3\%), shorter barbel with maxillary barbel reaching the anterior margin of the eye (vs. between middle and posterior margin of eye) (Table 3, Fig. 3C), and differed from H. nanpanjiangensis on the structures of the caudal skeleton by having four hypural elements with $\mathrm{h}-1$ and $\mathrm{h}-2$ fused (vs. five, $h-1$ and $h-2$ separated), epurale present (vs. absent), last four neural spines and last three haemal spines of the caudal centra significantly enlarged (vs. slightly enlarged) (Fig. 4).

Homatula wenshanensis was questioned as member of the genus Homatula by Nguyen et al. (2021), because of its indistinct adipose crests along the dorsal and ventral midlines of caudal peduncle, a forked caudal fin and 4+47-48 vertebrae that are not shared by species of Homatula. The results of our skeleton scan showed that H. wenshanensis has the typical generic character of Homatula - crests on caudal peduncle supported by rudimentary procurrent rays (Fig. 4C) - and our COI-based phylogeny showed that $H$. wenshanensis formed an independent lineage sister to $H$. disparizona. Therefore, H. wenshanensis is confirmed as a species of the genus Homatula.

Homatula is previously believed to be restricted to China. Recently, H. dotui, a cave-dwelling species, was reported from central Vietnam (Nguyen et al. 2021). Homatula dotui is between Schistura and Homatula as an independent lineage in the phylogenetic tree built by the cytb gene (Nguyen et al. 2021), which indicates that this cavefish species could belong to an undescribed genus. As stated by Nguyen et al. (2021: 8), a further study should be addressed to confirm the placement of $H$. dotui.

Three species of Homatula have been previously reported from the Nanpanjiang River: H. oligolepis and H. longidorsalis are distributed in the upper Nanpanjiang River; H. nanpanjiangensis is distributed in the middle Nanpanjiang River. They possess an elongate body of medium to large size, scaleless (H. oligolepis and $H$. nanpanjiangensis) or at least scaleless on the predorsal body (H. longidorsalis), $91 / 2$ branched dorsal-fin rays (H. oligolepis and $H$. longidorsalis) or $81 / 2($ (a few $91 / 2$ in $H$. nanpanjiangensis), regular vertical bars on each side of body, and bars in front of dorsal-fin base conspicuously thinner than those behind ( $H$. longidorsalis and $H$. nanpanjiangensis) or vermiform markings on body and dorsal head (H. oligolepis). Here, H. robusta sp. nov. is reported from the middle Nanpanjiang River with a stout body. For better identification, a key to species distributed in the Nanpanjiang River is provided.

## Key to species of Homatula in the Nanpanjiang River

1 Body scaleless or with rudimentary scales present at caudal peduncle ................. 2

- Scales clearly present, covering posterior of body at least, anterior nostril in short tube, $91 / 2$ branched dorsal-fin rays $\qquad$ H. longidorsalis

2 Medium-sized body with regular bars on body, interspaces thinner than bars on predorsal body, SL up to 88.7 mm 3

- Large-sized body with vermiform markings on body and head, SL up to 170.7 mm H. oligolepis

3 Well-developed crests with CPD 70.5-78.5\% of CPL, maxillary barbel reaching anterior margin of eye, no more than 13 bars, four hypural elements, epural present, last four neural spines and last three haemal spines on caudal vertebrae significantly enlarged. H. robusta sp. nov.

- Medium crests with CPD 49.5\%-65.7\% of CPL, maxillary barbel reaching between middle and posterior margin of eye, $\sim 16$ bars on average, five hypural elements, epurale absent, neural and haemal spines on caudal vertebrae slightly enlarged
H. nanpanjiangensis


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# Habralictus and Lasioglossum of Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Lesser Antilles (Hymenoptera, Apoidea, Halictidae) 

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#### Abstract

The new species and the first halictid bees documented from Saint Lucia Habralictus reinae, Lasioglossum (Dialictus) luciae, and L. (Habralictellus) delphiae are described. A fourth species, L. (D.) dominicense, is tentatively recorded from the island. The species are illustrated and compared to similar ones from the Lesser Antilles. Lasioglossum and Habralictus from neighbouring Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are reviewed and a key to Lasioglossum provided, including the description of another new species, $L$. (Dialictus) gemmeum. Trigona nigrocyanea Ashmead and Dufourea subcyanea Ashmead are synonymised under Lasioglossum cyaneum (Ashmead). Notes on the obscure Lasioglossum (Dialictus) minutum (Fabricius) are provided. A new name, Lasioglossum (Homalictus) minuens, is provided for a secondary homonym Homalictus minutus Pauly. The potential for additional species richness in Saint Lucia and the Lesser Antilles is briefly discussed.


## Keywords

Anthophila, Caribbean, Halictinae, new species, sweat bees, taxonomy

## Introduction

The bees of the Caribbean Islands have received sporadic attention from melittologists. Despite the idyllic landscape of these islands, the lack of species richness may have dissuaded many researchers from visiting. However, specimens accumulated in museum

[^9]collections have allowed for some recent studies on the regional bee fauna. Bees on the major islands in the Greater Antilles, Cuba, Hispaniola, and Puerto Rico, have been documented relatively well (Baker 1906; Alayo 1973, 1976; Eickwort 1988; Genaro 2001a, b, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2016; Engel 2006a; Genaro and Franz 2008; Engel and Prado 2014; Gibbs 2018). However, recent discoveries of new species (Genaro 2016, 2021; Gibbs 2018) suggest that more diversity may be present throughout the Caribbean Islands.

The numerous small islands that make up the Lesser Antilles are generally less well-known for bees. Recent studies in the French West Indies, Guadeloupe and Martinique, have documented bees in the Apidae and Megachilidae (Meurgey 2014, 2016; Meurgey and Dumbardon-Martial 2015). The species list for the Halictidae remains at zero, although halictid bees do occur on these islands (Gibbs 2016; Meurgey 2016). Dominica, which lies immediately between Guadeloupe and Martinique, has recently had its halictid fauna revised with 11 species in five genera documented (Gibbs 2016). Saint-Vincent and the Grenadines has 16 halictid species known (Ashmead 1900; Cockerell 1910; Moure 2007; Ascher and Pickering 2021). It seems reasonable to conclude that islands to the south of Dominica, i.e., Martinique and St. Lucia, should have a comparable fauna of halictid bees.

Saint Lucia is an island of similar size ( $617 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ ) to Dominica ( $750 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ ), which lies between Martinique and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (SVG). Saint Lucia currently has a rather depauperate faunal list of six bee species (Moure et al. 2007a; Raw 2007; Ascher and Pickering 2021), including the apids Apis mellifera L. 1758, Centris decolorata Lepeletier 1841, Centris versicolor (Fabricius 1775), and Mesoplia azurea (Lepeletier and Audinet-Serville 1825) and the megachilids Megachile derelictula Cockerell 1937 and M. lanata (Fabricius 1775). Apis mellifera and both Megachile are non-native. The first known halictid bees from the island are documented herein. In comparing these new species to bees from neighbouring islands (Ashmead 1900; Smith-Pardo 2009; Gibbs 2012, 2016), we also clarify the taxonomy of some Lasioglossum from SVG. Ashmead (1900) first documented and described the bee fauna from SVG. There has since been little additional taxonomic work on Lasioglossum on the island (but see Moure 2007). We describe a new species from SVG, propose two synonymies, and remove one additional name from the fauna.

## Materials and methods

Many specimens from various collections have been examined for taxonomic studies of Caribbean Halictidae, particularly Lasioglossum but also Habralictus (Gibbs 2012, 2016, 2018). Saint Lucia material was found at the American Museum of Natural History (AMNH), Florida State collection of Arthropods (FSCA), Montana Entomology Collection, Montana State University (MTEC), and the National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution (USNM). These species are described to
formally document the family Halictidae from the island. Material from Saint Vincent and the Grenadines was examined from FSCA, USNM, Natural History Museum (NHMUK), University of Kansas Biodiversity Institute and Natural History Museum (SEMC), Packer Collection York University, and J.B. Wallis / R.E. Roughley Museum of Entomology (WRME). The Packer Collection specimens were returned without full data recorded, but a subset was deposited at WRME.

Species descriptions follow the format of recent papers on Caribbean Lasioglossum (Gibbs 2016, 2018), with some modifications based on Gardner and Gibbs (2020). Terminology for structures follows Michener (2007) with modifications based on Engel (2001a) for wing venation and Gibbs (2010a) for the propodeum. Surface sculpturing follows that of Harris (1979). The term 'granular' is used for the surface sculpturing of Habralictus following (Michener 1979; Smith-Pardo 2009; Gibbs 2012), although at high magnifications $(150 x)$ it seems this granular effect is due to the surface being microreticulate dorsally, i.e., composed of a close network of raised lines, whereas on the pleura the granular sculpturing is more imbricate.

Measurements for head length, head width, clypeal length, lower interocular distance (LOD), and upper interocular distance (UOD) follow Michener (2007). All measurements were taken using an ocular micrometer in an Olympus SZX16 microscope at $50-63 \times$ magnification or $115 \times$ for antennae. Body length was measured by adding the length from the base of antenna to the apex of the propodeum with the length of the metasoma. Face length was measured from the clypeal apex to the lower margin of the median ocellus. Antennal measurements were taken on the shortest side of flagellomere two. Intertegular distance (ITD) was the smallest distance between the tegulae in dorsal view. Mesoscutal length was the medial length taken in the same orientation as the ITD. Mesoscutellar, metanotal, and propodeal lengths were measured such that the propodeal posterior surface was parallel to the line of sight. Wing length was measured from the proximal end of the basal vein $(\mathbf{M})$ to the apex of the marginal cell. Puncture density is measured in terms of relative spacing given as the length of interspaces (IS) between punctures relative to the puncture diameter (PD). Setal length is given in terms of mid ocellus diameters (MOD). Metasomal terga and sterna are abbreviated with $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{S}$, respectively, followed by the appropriate number counting from the proximal segment. Similarly, flagellomeres are abbreviated with $\mathbf{F}$ followed by the appropriate number.

## Systematics

Genus Habralictus Moure, 1941
Habralictus Moure 1941: 59. Type species: Habralictus flavopictus Moure 1941, by original designation
Zikaniella Moure 1941: 57. Type species: Zikaniella crassiceps Moure 1941, by original designation

## Habralictus reinae sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/F1285ABB-2BB0-49FC-A551-7CDD6ECA0D33
Figs 1, 2, 3A
Holotype. Saint Lucia - Micoud District - Quilesse Forest Reserve, Laporte, 13.8404, -60.9741, $272 \mathrm{~m}, 5-7$. V.2009, leg. I.A. Foley and R.C. Winton, UV light trap ( $\widehat{\sigma}^{\top}$ MTEC, to be deposited in the USNM).

Paratypes. Saint Lucia • Castries District • Barre de l'Isle, 13.93682, -60.95936, 340 m, 25-28.VI.2009, leg. E.A. Ivie, UV light trap (1 $q$ MTEC) • Barre de l’Isle, 13.93682, $-60.95936,340 \mathrm{~m}, 8-14 . V I I .2009$, leg. C.A. Maier and M. Gimmel, UV light trap ( 1 § MTEC) • Barre de l'Isle, 13.9342, -60.9586, 340 m, 22-29.V.2009, leg. R.C. Winton, Malaise trap (1 \& WRME) • Barre de l'Isle, 13.9342, -60.9586, 340 m, 27.VI-3.VII.2009, leg. C.A. Maier and M. Gimmel, UV light trap ( $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$ MTEC) - Micoud District • Quilesse Forest Reserve, Laporte, 13.8404, -60.9741, 272 m , 5-7.V.2009, leg. I.A. Foley and R.C. Winton, UV light trap (3 đ MTEC, 2 § WRME).

Diagnosis. Males of $H$. reinae can be distinguished from other Habralictus in the Lesser Antilles by the combination of head narrow (length/width ratio $=1.0-1.07$ ) (length/width ratio $=0.84-0.85$ in $H$. antillarus), clypeus with distal maculation $1 / 3-1 / 2$ longitudinal length (< $1 / 5$ length in $H$. antillarus), supraclypeal and lower paraocular areas polished due to lack of microsculpture (distinctly imbricate in H. gonzalezi), mesoscutal punctation indistinct (fine but distinct in H. claviventris and H. insularis); mesepisternum polished with only weak microsculpture, sparse punctures distinct (dull, indistinctly punctate in $H$. gonzalezi).

Females of $H$. reinae can be recognised by the combination of head wide (length/ width ratio $=9.0)($ length $/$ width ratio $=0.92-0.97$ in $H$. gonzalezi $)$, clypeal punctures not distinct (distinctly punctate in $H$. insularis), clypeal maculation $1 / 2$ length of clypeus ( $1 / 3$ in $H$. antillarus) and T3 sparsely punctate (Fig. 3A) as in T4 (more densely punctate in H. gonzalezi; Fig. 3B). The female of $H$. claviventris is unknown.

Description. Female $(n=2)$. Length $4.3-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$; head length 1.1 mm ; head width 1.2 mm ; intertegular distance $0.86-0.89 \mathrm{~mm}$; wing length $1.6-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$.

Colouration. Head and mesosoma bright metallic blue-green with golden and bronze reflections. Clypeal apex pale brownish yellow, base bronze. Labrum reddish brown. Mandible yellow with black base and red apex. Scape yellow ventrally, brown dorsally. Flagellum dark brown, F2-F11 orange-brown ventrally. Pronotal lobe brown. Tegula yellowish brown. Wing membrane faintly dusky, veins brown to dark brown. Legs with varying brown and yellow, brown primarily on coxa, femur and meso- and metatibiae, yellow on trochanters, profemur apex, protibia and protarsi, dorsal or anterior surface of mesotibia, and posterior surface of metatibia and variably on posterior surface of metafemur, Metasoma brown and yellow-orange, yellow-orange on base of terga and on sterna, apical terga brown.

Pubescence. Body with sparse pilosity, dull white to faintly yellowish, dark setae on meso- and metatibia, and scattered on T4-T6. Tomentum on pronotal dorsolateral angles and lobe. Mesoscutal pilosity sparse erect. Wing setae dark. T1 without appressed fan. Terga with sparse setae, absent on apical impressed areas.


Figure I. Habralictus reinae sp. nov., paratype female $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.

Surface sculpture. Clypeal punctures indistinct, sparse (IS = 2-4 PD), denser along apical margin (IS = 1-2 PD), interspaces granular. Face granular with indistinct punctation. Gena imbricate. Tegula punctures obscure. Mesoscutum and mesoscutellum granular with indistinct punctation. Metapostnotum granular, microreticulate basally becoming imbricate toward margin. Mesopleuron granular (imbricate). Propodeal lateral face imbricate, sparsely punctate; posterior face imbricate, sparsely punctate. Metasomal terga finely coriarious. sparse setose punctures (IS = 3-6 PD) along premarginal line of T2-T4 and disc of T3-T5, apical impressed areas impunctate.

Structure. Face length/width ratio 0.78 ( $\pm 0.01$ SD). UOD/LOD ratio 1.06 ( $\pm 0.11$ SD). Clypeus projecting $-75 \%$ below suborbital tangent; apicolateral denticles rounded knobs. Supraclypeal area length/width ratio 0.97 ( $\pm 0.11 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Hypostomal carinae parallel. Pronotal angle obtuse. Mesoscutum length/width


Figure 2. Habralictus reinae sp. nov., paratype male $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.
ratio 0.91 ( $\pm 0.06 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutum/mesoscutellum length ratio $2.93( \pm 0.33 \mathrm{SD})$; mesoscutellum/metanotum length ratio 1.73 ( $\pm 0.13 \mathrm{SD}$ ); metanotum/ metapostnotum length ratio 0.5 ( $\pm 0.03 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Lateral propodeal carinae reaching dorsolateral slope; oblique carina absent. Tegula shape ovoid. Forewing with 3 submarginal cells. Distal hamuli arranged 2-1-2. Inner metatibial spur pectinate, with 3 branches not including apex of rachis, proximal branch much longer than width of rachis. Metasoma ovoid, dorsoventrally flattened, apical impressed area medially $\sim 1 / 2$ longitudinal length of basal area.

Male $(n=3)$. Length $4.0-4.3 \mathrm{~mm}$; head length $0.98-1.06 \mathrm{~mm}$; head width $0.94-1.05 \mathrm{~mm}$; intertegular distance $0.65-0.71 \mathrm{~mm}$. Similar to female with usual sex associated modifications.


Figure 3. Metasomal tergum 3 of $\mathbf{A}$ Habralictus reinae sp. nov. B Habralictus gonzalezi Gibbs, 2012 to illustrate differences in setose puncture density.

Colouration. Head and mesosoma iridescent blue-green. Clypeus pale yellow on apical third. Labrum pale yellow. Mandible pale yellow, orange apically. Flagellum brown, F3-F11 yellowish brown ventrally. Pronotal lobe brown. Tegula translucent amber. Wing membrane faintly dusky, veins dark brown. Pro- and mesoleg yellow, except coxa dark with weak metallic reflections, femora ventrally and mesotibia infused with brown. Meta leg brown, except coxa metallic, and trochanter, apices and bases of femur and tibia, and tarsi yellowish brown. Metasoma brown, apical impressed areas reddish brown.

Pubescence. Body pilosity sparse, dull white to faintly yellowish. Gena with long setae (2-2.5 OD). Pronotal lobe with tomentum on posterior margin. Mesoscutal setae sparse, short (0.5 OD). Metasomal terga largely bare; sternal setae sparse (1-1.5 OD), moderately plumose, sparse, erect. Wing setae dark, short, sparse.

Surface sculpture. Clypeal punctures sparse (IS = 1-2 PD), interspaces shiny, weakly imbricate. Supraclypeal punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-3 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny, weakly imbricate. Lower paraocular punctures sparse (IS =1-3 PD), interspaces shiny, weakly imbricate. Frons and upper paraocular area granular. Gena punctulatepolished; postgena shiny, weakly imbricate. Tegula mostly impunctate. Mesoscutal punctation indistinct, interspaces granular. Mesoscutellar punctation moderately sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-1.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces strongly imbricate. Metanotum punctate, interspaces imbricate. Metapostnotum finely reticulate-granular. Pre-episternum imbricate. Hypoepimeral area punctate ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-1.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny imbricate. mesepisternum finely punctate ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-4 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny imbricate. Metepisternum imbricate. Propodeum imbricate. Metasoma sparsely punctate (IS = 5-10 PD), apical impressed areas impunctate, interspaces coriarious.

Structure. Face length/width ratio 0.86 ( $\pm 0.05 \mathrm{SD}$ ). F1: pedicel length ratio 1.1. F2:F1 length ratio 2.5. Gena narrower than eye. Hypostomal carinae parallel. Pronotal angle obtuse. Mesoscutum length/width ratio 0.97 ( $\pm 0.03 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutum/ mesoscutellum length ratio 2.96 ( $\pm 0.05 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutellum/metanotum length ratio 1.92 ( $\pm 0.14 \mathrm{SD}$ ); metanotum/metapostnotum length ratio 0.5 ( $\pm 0.03 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Lateral propodeal carina nearly reaching dorsal margin; oblique carina absent. Tegula ovoid. Forewing with 3 submarginal cells. Metatibial spurs ciliate. Metasoma slender, clavate, widest at T4.

Etymology. This brilliant, shining bee is appropriately named for Reina Rybuck, a curious and inquisitive girl who loved insects. Her light shone bright but too briefly. She is remembered with love and affection by those who knew her.

Notes. Of the five Habralictus species known from the Lesser Antilles, all seem to be limited to higher elevations (272-762 m) on the islands (Ashmead 1900; SmithPardo 2009; Gibbs 2012, 2016). Habralictus reinae was taken from protected canopy forests that are particularly wet. It is notable for future collection efforts that this species was predominantly collected from UV light traps, despite more frequent use of Malaise traps by collectors and daytime net collecting (M. Ivie, in litt.).

## Habralictus claviventris (Ashmead 1900)

Fig. 4

Augochlora claviventris (1900: 217). Saint Vincent - windward side. 1500 feet. Holotype male by monotypy (NHMUK: BMNH 17.a.1037).
Augochlora claviventris: Ashmead (1900: 304) checklist; Friese (1909: 38) catalogue; Cockerell (1910: 489, 494) checklist, taxonomic notes).
Habralictus claviventris: Michener (1979: 181) new combination, checklist; Moure and Hurd (1987: 174) catalogue; Moure (2007: 837) catalogue; Smith-Pardo (2009: 53 ) taxonomic notes; Gibbs $(2012: 3,9)$ taxonomic notes, key.

Notes. Currently only known from the holotype male.


Figure 4. Habralictus claviventris Ashmead, 1900, holotype male A dorsal habitus B face, oblique frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ dorsal view of metasoma and tergum $1 \mathbf{D}$ dorsolateral view of metasoma. Images courtesy of the Trustees of the Natural History Museum, London (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

## Genus Lasioglossum Curtis, 1833

## Subgenus Dialictus Robertson, 1902

Paralictus Robertson 1901: 229. Type species: Halictus cephalicus Robertson, 1892, by original designation
Dialictus Robertson, 1902a: 48. Type species: Halictus anomalus Robertson, 1892, by original designation and monotypy
Chloralictus Robertson, 1902c: 248. Type species: Halictus cressonii Robertson, 1890, by original designation

Halictus (Gastrolictus) Ducke, 1902: 102. Type species: Halictus osmioides Ducke, 1902, by monotypy
Halictomorpha Schrottky, 1911: 81. Type species: Halictomorpha phaedra Schrottky, 1911, by original designation
Rhynchalictus Moure, 1947: 5. Type species: Rhynchalictus rostratus Moure, 1947, by original designation
Halictus (Smeathhalictus) Warncke 1975: 88. Type species: Melitta smeathmanella Kirby, 1802, by original designation
Lasioglossum (Afrodialictus) Pauly 1984: 142. Type species: Halictus bellulus Vachal, 1909, by original designation
Gnathalictus Moure 2001: 493. Type species: Gnathalictus capitatus Moure, 2001, by original designation
Evylaeus (Viridihalictus) Pesenko 2007: 25. Type species: Halictus viridis Brullé, 1840, by original designation
Evylaeus (Glauchalictus) Pesenko, 2007: 26. Type species: Halictus problematicus Blüthgen, 1823, by original designation
Evylaeus (Virenshalictus) Pesenko, 2007: 26. Type species: Hylaeus virens Erichson, 1835, by original designation
Evylaeus (Loethalictus) Pesenko, 2007: 26. Type species: Halictus loetus Brullé, 1840, by original designation
Evylaeus (Aerathalictus) Pesenko, 2007: 27. Type species: Melitta aerata Kirby, 1802, by original designation

## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) luciae sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/BF175658-2800-4F30-94FE-6B5743544478
Figs 5, 6

Holotype. Saint Lucia • Castries District • Piton Flore, Station no. 26, 10.I.1975, leg. J. Hance \& G. Whitmyre (ठ FSCA).

Paratypes. Saint Lucia - Castries District - Castries, 0-210 m, VIII.1976, N.L.H. Krauss (2 $q$ AMNH); Castries, 10-22.IX.1919, leg. J.C. Bradley (2 ठ USNM)

- Micoud District • Escap Community, Fond Bay at beach, 13.8316, -60.893, 1 m, 8.V.2009, leg. C.M. Delphia and J.B. Runyon (1 q MTEC).

Diagnosis. Lasioglossum luciae is one of only two L. (Dialictus) known from St. Lucia. It can be distinguished from $L$. (D.) dominicense by the larger size and longer head. It resembles L. kilpatrickae Gibbs, 2016 from Dominica and both L. plumbeum (Ashmead, 1900) and L. sanctivincenti (Ashmead, 1900) from Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

Females of L. luciae and L. kilpatrickae are very similar and definitive characters for distinguishing them are not currently known. The gena of $L$. luciae may be more distinctly lineolate (Fig. 5D) and T1 more distinctly coriarious (Fig. 5E), but too few specimens are available of each species to be sure these characters are consistent. Both L. luciae and L. kilpatrickae are easily distinguished from L. plumbeum and L. sanctivincenti by absence of punctation on the apical impressed areas of T2, occurring only obscurely on


Figure 5. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) luciae sp. nov., paratype female $\mathbf{A}$ lateral habitus $\mathbf{B}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{C}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{D}$ head, lateral view $\mathbf{E}$ tergum 1, dorsal view.
the lateral portions. In contrast, both $L$. plumbeum and $L$. sanctivincenti have distinct, albeit fine punctures across the apical impressed areas of T 2 .

The male of $L$. luciae differs from $L$. kilpatrickae by the less abundant tomentum of the face (Fig. 6C), which only weakly obscures the lower paraocular area, more evident microsculpture on the medial portion of the mesoscutum and anterior face of T1, and the relatively dense punctures on T1-T3, which end near the border of


Figure 6. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) luciae sp. nov., holotype male A lateral habitus B dorsal habitus $\mathbf{C}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{D}$ metasoma, dorsal view.
the apical impressed area, such that at least two thirds of the segments are densely punctate. Lasioglossum kilpatrickae has tomentum obscuring the lower paraocular area and proximal portion of the clypeus (Fig. 7B). The mesoscutum has microsculpture between punctures limited to the anterior portion and is largely polished on the anterior face of T1. Furthermore, the punctation of T1-T3 is weak distally such that nearly half the longitudinal length of the segment is sparsely punctate to impunctate. T1 has a nearly impunctate medial line.


Figure 7. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) kilpatrickae Gibbs, 2016, male A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus.

Description. Female ( $n=2$ ). Length 5 mm ; head length 1.4 mm ; head width 1.4 mm ; intertegular distance 1.0 mm ; wing length 1.7 mm .

Colouration. Head and mesosoma dull metallic blue-green. Clypeal apex dark brown, base yellow. Labrum reddish brown to orange. Mandible orange with black base and red apex. Flagellum dark brown, F2-F11 orange-brown ventrally. Pronotal lobe reddish brown. Tegula reddish brown. Wing membrane hyaline, veins with subcosta brown to dark brown, otherwise amber. Legs brown, except medio- and distitarsi and portions of metabasitarsus reddish brown. Metasoma blackish brown, apical impressed area reddish brown.

Pubescence. Body with sparse pilosity, dull white to faintly yellowish. Tomentum on gena near eye, pronotum dorsolateral angles and lobe, narrow basolateral patches of T2T3 and sparsely on T4. Mesoscutal pilosity sparse, erect. Wing setae dark. Acarinarial fan complete, dense. T2 fringes absent, sparse laterally, T3 fringes absent, sparse laterally.

Surface sculpture. Clypeal punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{I} S=1-4 \mathrm{PD}$ ), becoming moderately dense in basal third (IS = 1-2 PD), interspaces polished. Supraclypeal area punctures sparse (IS = 1-3 PD), interspaces weakly imbricate. Paraocular area punctures dense (IS < 1 PD ), except near antenna, interspaces imbricate. Frons punctures contiguous. Vertex punctures sparse, interspaces polished. Gena lineolate, postgena lineolate. Tegula punctures obscure. Mesoscutal punctures moderately dense (IS = 1 PD ), becoming sparser submedially (IS $=1-1.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ) and denser laterad of parapsidal lines (IS $\leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces imbricate, polished laterally; mesoscutellar punctures as in mesoscutum with submedial impunctate area, interspaces imbricate. Metapostnotal rugae strong, anastomosing or subparallel, reaching margin, sculpture imbricate. Pre-episternum rugulose-punctate. Hypoepimeral area densely punctate, interspaces polished. Mesepisternum distinctly punctate. Metepisternum lineolate dorsally, reticulate ventrally. Propodeal lateral face imbricate, sparsely punctate; posterior face imbricate, sparsely punctate. T1 anterior face coriarious; T 1 dorsal surface punctures moderately dense ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-3 \mathrm{PD}$ ), absent or very sparse in large apicolateral oval patches, interspaces polished. T2 disc punctures moderately dense (IS =1-3 PD), interspaces polished, rim impunctate, surface weakly coriarious.

Structure. Face length/width ratio 0.86 ( $\pm 0.01 \mathrm{SD})$. UOD/LOD ratio 1.21 ( $\pm 0 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Clypeus projecting $\sim 75 \%$ below suborbital tangent; apicolateral denticles rounded knobs. Supraclypeal area length/width ratio 2.06 ( $\pm 0 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Hypostomal carinae parallel. Pronotal angle obtuse. Mesoscutum length/width ratio 0.83 ( $\pm 0.01 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutum/mesoscutellum length ratio $2.63( \pm 0.1 \mathrm{SD})$; mesoscutellum/metanotum length ratio 1.66 ( $\pm 0.01 \mathrm{SD}$ ); metanotum/metapostnotum length ratio 0.75 ( $\pm 0.04 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Lateral propodeal carinae nearly reaching dorsal margin; oblique carina distinct. Tegula shape ovoid. Forewing with three submarginal cells. Distal hamuli arranged 2-1-2. Inner metatibial spur pectinate, with four branches not including apex of rachis, proximal branch much longer than width of rachis. Metasoma ovoid, apical impressed area medially $\sim 1 / 2$ longitudinal length of basal area.

Male $(n=3)$. Length $4.4-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$; head length $1.30-1.35 \mathrm{~mm}$; head width $1.29-1.30 \mathrm{~mm}$; intertegular distance $0.87-0.94 \mathrm{~mm}$. Similar to female with usual sexassociated modifications.

Colouration. Head and mesosoma blue-green. Clypeal apex reddish brown. Labrum reddish brown. Mandible brown, orange apically. Flagellum brown, light brown ventrally. Pronotal lobe reddish brown. Tegula orange. Wing membrane hyaline, veins dark brown. Legs brown with reddish brown tarsi. Metasoma blackish brown, apical impressed areas reddish brown.

Pubescence. Body sparse pilosity, dull white to faintly yellowish. Tomentum moderately dense on lower paraocular area, sparse on clypeus, dense on pronotal lobe. Mesoscutal pilosity thin. Sternal pilosity short (1 OD), moderately plumose, sparse, erect. Wing setae dark, short, sparse.

Surface sculpture. Clypeal punctures dense (IS $\leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces polished. Supraclypeal area punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces polished. Paraocular area punctures dense ( $\mathrm{IS} \leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces weakly imbricate around antenna socket, otherwise shiny. Frons punctate-reticulate. Gena punctulate-lineolate, postgena
sculpture lineolate. Tegula mostly impunctate. Mesoscutal punctation moderately sparse medially ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2 \mathrm{PD}$ ), denser laterad of parapsidal lines, interspaces weakly imbricate, polished laterally. Mesoscutellar punctation moderately sparse (IS = $1-2 \mathrm{PD})$, becoming denser on margins. Metanotum punctate. Metapostnotum incompletely rugulose, margin weakly tessellate. Pre-episternum sculpture punctate. Hypoepimeral area closely punctate (IS $\leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces polished. Mesepisternum distinctly punctate ( $\mathrm{I} S \leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny. Metepisternum lineolate dorsally, punctate-reticulate ventrally. Propodeal lateral face tessellate-punctate, dorsolateral slope punctate. Propodeal posterior face sculpture tessellate-punctate. T1 anterior face weakly coriarious. T1 dorsal surface evenly punctate ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny. T2 disc punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny, apical impressed area impunctate, interspaces coriarious.

Structure. Face length/width ratio $0.87-0.88$. F1: pedicel length ratio 1.27. F2:F1 length ratio 1.5 . Gena narrower than eye. Hypostomal carinae parallel. Pronotal angle obtuse. Mesoscutum length/width ratio 0.82-0.85; mesoscutum/mesoscutellum length ratio 2.44 ; mesoscutellum/metanotum length ratio 1.78 ; metanotum/metapostnotum length ratio 0.77 . Propodeum lateral carina nearly reaching dorsal margin; oblique carina absent. Tegula ovoid. Forewing with 3 submarginal cells. Metatibial spurs ciliate. Metasoma slender, parallel sided.

Etymology. The specific epithet is derived from the name of the island. Saint Lucia is the only sovereign nation named after a historical woman.

Notes. Males are associated with females in part by the shared head length consistent with patterns seen between $L$. dominicense and L. kilpatrickae in Dominica.

## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cf. dominicense Gibbs 2016

Fig. 8

Lasioglossum (Dialictus) dominicense Gibbs 2016: 6-11, 42-43.
Material examined. Saint Lucia • Dauphin District • Louvette trap site, 13.9689, -60.8859, 25-29.VI.2009, leg. M.L. Gimmel and C.A. Maier, UV light trap (1 $q$ MTEC) • Grand Anse trap site, 14.0052, -60.8973, 38 m. 8-17.V.2009, leg. R.C. Winton and E.A. Ivie ( 1 q MTEC) • Micoud District • Escap Community Trail to Fond Bay beach, 13.8324, -60.8986 to $13.8316,-60.893,46 \mathrm{~m}$ to $1 \mathrm{~m}, 8 . \mathrm{V} .2009$, leg. C.M. Delphia and J.B. Runyon, pan traps ( 1 \& MTEC) - Escap Community, 13.83242, -60.8859, 46 m, 22.V-6.VI.2009, leg. R.C. Winton, Malaise trap (1 $q$ WRME).

Notes. We ascribe the Saint Lucia material to L. dominicense without supporting evidence to the contrary. Although there seems to be some pattern of distinct species across islands in the Lesser Antilles, we are unable to confidently differentiate females of L. dominicense from Saint Lucia and Dominica at this time. As a lowland species occurring near the beach, it is most consistent with a multi-island distribution. Additional comparative study including males, specimens from Martinique, and molecular data would be useful.


Figure 8. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cf. dominicense Gibbs, 2016, female A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.

## Subgenus Habralictellus Moure \& Hurd, 1982

Habralictellus Moure \& Hurd, 1982. Type species: Halictus auratus Ashmead 1900, by original designation

## Lasioglossum (Habralictellus) delphiae sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/D804A754-5BD9-4860-B4C5-793174EFE490 Fig. 9

Holotype. Saint Lucia. • Savannes [Bay] Mangrove Res., 13.766, -60.915 [13 $45.976054 .88], 0-5 \mathrm{~m}, 3 . \mathrm{V} .2009$, leg. C.M. Delphia ( $q$ MTEC, to be deposited in the USNM).

Paratypes. Saint Lucia • Micoud District • Escap Community Fond Bay at beach, [13 83.1660 89.30], $1 \mathrm{~m}, 8 . V .2009$, leg. C.M. Delphia, J.B. Runyon (q MTEC).

Diagnosis. Lasioglossum delphiae is easily distinguishable as a member of the subgenus Habralictellus. It has two submarginal cells (1rs-m absent). It closely resembles L. (H.) roseauense from Dominica. Lasioglossum delphiae has the mesoscutellum very weakly sculptured, almost polished with distinct, sparse punctures (mesoscutellum dull, sculpturing stronger, similar to that of mesoscutum in L. roseauense) and the metasomal terga have orange bands basally (all dark in $L$. roseauense). There is more yellow on the foreleg of $L$. delphiae than $L$. roseauense, although such colour characters may not be reliable given the limited material available.

Description. Female $(n=2)$. Length 4.5 mm ; head length $1.1-1.2 \mathrm{~mm}$; head width $1.2-1.3 \mathrm{~mm}$; intertegular distance $0.9-1.04 \mathrm{~mm}$; wing length $1.7-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$.

Colouration. Head and mesosoma dull metallic golden-green, metapostnotum blue-green. Clypeal apex reddish brown. Labrum reddish brown to orange. Mandible orange with black base and red apex. Scape brown apically, orange basally. Flagellum brown, F3-F11 orange-brown ventrally. Pronotal lobe reddish brown. Tegula amber. Wing membrane hyaline, veins brown. Legs brown, except orange on pro- and mesotrochanters, protibia, protarsi, ventral surface of mesotibia, mesotarsi $2-5$, and apices of metafemur and metatibia. Metasomal terga reddish brown with orange patches basally on terga.

Pubescence. Body with sparse pilosity, dull white to faintly yellowish. Tomentum on pronotal dorsolateral angles and lobe. Mesoscutal pilosity sparse erect. Wing setae dark. Acarinarial fan absent, only sparse erect setae on anterior face of T1. Terga with only sparse setae, without apical fringes or basal tomentum.

Surface sculpture. Clypeal punctures sparse (IS = 1-2.5 PD), interspaces weakly imbricate almost polished on apical half, basally tessellate-granular. Supraclypeal punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{I} S=1-3 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces finely reticulate-granular. Paraocular area punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces granular. Frons punctures indistinct, sparse (IS = 1-3 PD). Vertex granular. Gena lineolate, postgena lineolate. Tegula finely punctate on anterior half ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces imbricate, posterior half glabrous. Mesoscutal punctures sparse (IS = 2-3.5 PD), interspaces tessellate; mesoscutellar punctures coarser, sparse ( $I S=2-4 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny imbricate. Metanotum granular. Metapostnotum transversely lineolate at base, imbricate along apical margins. Preëpisternum tessellate-granular. Hypoepimeral area indistinctly punctate, interspaces tessellate-granular. Mesepisternum indistinct, sparsely punctate (IS = 1-3 PD), interspaces tessellate-granular. Metepisternum lineolate dorsally, imbricate ventrally. Propodeal lateral face tessellate-imbricate, sparsely punctate; posterior face imbricate, sparsely punctate. T1 anterior face polished, dorsally coriarious. T2-T5 sparsely punctate, interspaces coriarious.

Structure. Face length/width ratio 0.77 ( 0.01 SD ). UOD/LOD ratio 1.18 ( $\pm 0$ SD). Clypeus projecting $\sim 70 \%$ below suborbital tangent; apicolateral denticles low rounded knobs. Supraclypeal area length/width ratio 0.7 ( $\pm 0.01$ SD). Hypostomal carinae parallel. Pronotal angle obtuse. Mesoscutum length/width ratio 0.83 ( $\pm$ 0.04 SD ); mesoscutum/mesoscutellum length ratio 2.7 ( $\pm 0.09 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutellum/


Figure 9. Lasioglossum (Habralictellus) delphiae sp. nov., paratype female $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.
metanotum length ratio 1.98 ( $\pm 0.1 \mathrm{SD}$ ); metanotum/metapostnotum length ratio 0.57 ( $\pm 0.06$ SD). Propodeum lateral carinae reaching halfway to dorsal margin; oblique carina absent. Tegula shape ovoid. Forewing with two submarginal cells. Distal hamuli arranged 2-1-2. Inner metatibial spur pectinate, with four branches not including apex of rachis, proximal branch much longer than width of rachis. Metasoma ovoid, apical impressed area medially $-1 / 2$ longitudinal length of basal area.

Etymology. The species is named for Casey Delphia for her kind support of JG's studies of Caribbean bees generally and in appreciation for collecting the specimens above and bringing them to his attention.

Notes. Lasioglossum delphiae was collected from dry forest/beach habitats near the coast (C. Delphia, in litt.).

## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cyaneum (Ashmead 1900)

Figs 10-13
Halictus cyaneus Ashmead (1900: 218-220). Saint Vincent. Syntype males (2) and females (3) (NHMUK, USNM; Figs 10, 11).
Dufourea subcyanea Ashmead (1900: 215). Saint Vincent. Holotype male (NHMUK). Syn. nov.
Trigona nigrocyanea Ashmead (1900: 208). Saint Vincent - Leeward side. Holotype male (NHMUK; Fig. 12). Syn. nov.
Dufourea subcyanea: Ashmead (1900:303) checklist; Friese (1909:38) catalogue.
Halictus cyaneus: Ashmead (1900:304) checklist; Friese (1909: 37) catalogue.
Dialictus cyaneus: Cockerell (1904: 235) taxonomic placement; Moure and Hurd (1987: 98) catalogue; Moure (2007: 848, 849) catalogue.
Dialictus nigrocyaneus: Moure (2007: 852) catalogue.
Dialictus subcyaneus; Cockerell (1922: 268) taxonomic notes; Sandhouse (1923: 194) checklist; Moure (2007: 855) catalogue; Moure and Hurd (1987: 132) catalogue. Lasioglossum cyaneum: Gibbs (2016: 6) taxonomic characters.
Trigona nigrocyanea: Ashmead (1900: 299) checklist; Friese (1909:39) catalogue; Lutz and Cockerell (1920: 499) checklist, type locality.

Material examined. SVG•Saint Vincent • Saint Vincent (Halictus cyaneus syntypes 1 \& 1 ô USNM); Saint Vincent (Dufourea subcyanea holotype đ NHMUK); Saint Vincent, leeward side (Trigona nigrocyanea holotype ${ }^{\top}$ NHMUK; from photos) • St. George Parish • Majorca Mts., Riley Rd., 13.180694-61.193556, 366 m, 13.V.2016, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari ( $\delta^{\imath}$ WRME) • St. Patrick Parish • Cumberland Valley, 17.VI.1977, leg., E.E. Grissell ( $6 \delta^{\top}$ FSCA).

Taxonomic notes. Lasioglossum cyaneum is structurally similar to L. plumbeum and $L$. sanctivincenti but is easily recognisable by the entirely blue body and dark wing venation. The male T1-T6 are blue on the disc and dark reddish brown on the lateral and apical margins. The head is distinctly shorter (female and male face length/head width $=0.82-0.85$ ) than $L$. plumbeum (male face length/head width $=0.87-0.90$ ). Both Dufourea subcyanea and Trigona nigrocyanea were described from single males in the same publication with Halictus cyaneus. The former differs from L. cyaneum only in the absence of vein $1 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}$, leading to two submarginal cells rather than three. Loss of this vein is relatively common in $L$. (Dialictus) (Gibbs 2010b; Scarpulla 2018; see also L. gemmeum below), which led to the synonymy of the genus-group names Dialictus and Chloralictus (Mitchell 1960). The holotype of Trigona nigrocyanea is glued to the side of a card and has most of the metasoma missing. It is very evidently a Lasioglossum (Dialictus). The first tergum is intact and shows distinct metallic reflections consistent with L. cyaneum. Ashmead (1900) describes the abdomen as 'rufous, black at base only', but cannot be verified with most of the metasoma missing. In other respects, the holotype matches well with $L$. cyaneum, including the relatively smooth metapostnotum between carinulae.


Figure 10. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cyaneum (Ashmead), syntype female of Halictus cyaneus Ashmead A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus. Images courtesy of the National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution. https://collections.nmnh.si.edu/search/ento/

## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) plumbeum (Ashmead 1900)

Figs 14-16
Halictus plumbeus Ashmead (1900: 218, 220). Saint Vincent. Syntype males and females (NHMUK, USNM; Fig. 14). Examined.
Halictus plumbeus: Ashmead (1900: 304) checklist; Friese (1909: 37) catalogue; Cockerell (1915: 9) taxonomic note; Cockerell (1938: 280, 281) taxonomic notes.
Halictus (Chloralictus) plumbeus: Sandhouse (1924: 4) identification key; Cockerell (1937: 113) taxonomic notes.
Dialictus plumbeus: Moure and Hurd (1987: 124) catalogue; Moure (2007: 853) catalogue.
Lasioglossum plumbeum: Gibbs (2016: 6, 15) taxonomic notes.


Figure II. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cyaneum (Ashmead), syntype male of Halictus cyaneus Ashmead A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus. Images courtesy of the National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution. https://collections.nmnh.si.edu/search/ento/

Material examined. SVG • Saint Vincent • St. Vincent, leg. H.H. Smith (Halictus plumbeus syntypes 1 q NHMUK, 1 q USNM) • St. Vincent (Windward side), leg. H.H. Smith ( 2 \& USNM) • Charlotte Parish • Belair Mespo Peruvian Vale Rd., $13.173417-61.151111,71 \mathrm{~m}, 13 . V .2016$, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari ( $\mathbf{~}^{\text {§ }}$ WRME) • Fancy, 1 km S of Windward hwy. 13.380122-61.170588, 55 m, 18.V.2016, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari ( 1 ô WRME) • Greiggs, Charlotte Mtn.,13.222417


Figure 12. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cyaneum (Ashmead), syntype male of Trigona nigrocyanea Ashmead A dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus. Images courtesy of the Trustees of the Natural History Museum, London (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). Photographs by David Notton.
-61.173361, 478 m, 14.V.2016, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari ( 1 § WRME) • St. Andrew Parish • Vermont Trail Rd., 13.201639-61.241333, 114 m, 15.V.2016, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari ( 1 \& WRME) - St. David Parish • Cumberland Way, 19.IX.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, near beach ( 1 + 1 ơ FSCA) • Wallilabou, 14.X.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, day catch (10 $q 2{ }^{\top}$ ) •St. George Parish • Cane Hall, 22.IX.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, sweeping ( 4 q 9 § FSCA) • Cane Hall, Rick's Apts., 17.IX.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, vacant lot (1 q FSCA) • Rivulet Agr. Sta. 10-15.X.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, Malaise trap (3 \& FSCA); 27-30.IX.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, Malaise trap ( 1 \& 1 ठ FSCA) • Majorca Mts., Riley Rd., 13.180694 -61.193556, 366 m, 13.V.2016, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari ( 1 Q WRME) •St.


Figure 13. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) cyaneum (Ashmead), male A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus.

Patrick Parish • Cumberland Valley, 17,VI.1977, leg. E.E. Grissell (11 q $21 \jmath^{\imath}$ FSCA)

- Hermitage Forestry Cottage, 11-13.X.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, day catch (2 $q 1$ ô FSCA) • Rutland Vale, 1 km N on Leeward Hwy., 13.218727-61.270954, 60 m, 19.V.2016, leg. Miklasevskaja and Ferrari (1 \& WRME) - Grenadines • Bequia, Industry, 24.IX. 1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff (1 § FSCA).

Notes. Lasioglossum sanctivincenti is quite similar to L. plumbeum. The most striking difference is the darker blue colour of the head and mesosoma of L. plumbeum. Lasioglossum sanctivincenti has a shorter head (face length/head width ratio = 0.82 SD 0.02 ) than L. plumbeum ( 0.86 SD 0.01 ). Mesoscutal puncture density is subtly different between the two species. In L. sanctivincenti punctures laterad of the parapsidal


Figure 14. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) plumbeum (Ashmead), syntype female of Halictus plumbeus Ashmead A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus. Images courtesy of the National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution. https://collections.nmnh.si.edu/search/ento/
line are dense, but distinctly separated. These are nearly reticulate in L. plumbeum, without clear interspaces. Immediately mesad of the parapsidal line, L. sanctivincenti has distinctly separated punctures ( $\mathrm{IS} \leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), but these are denser in $L$. plumbeum (IS $\leq 0.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ). Ashmead's (1900) original measurements suggest that $L$. santivincenti is larger ( $4-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) than L. plumbeum (3.5-4.5 mm). In Sandhouse's (1924) key, they separate at couplet 43 based on size and Cockerell (1938) also refers to the smaller size of $L$. plumbeum. However, this may be an artefact of H.H. Smith's original sample as more recently collected specimens of $L$. plumbeum include a large size range ( $>5 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) overlapping with that of $L$. sanctivincenti. The size variation in $L$. plumbeum may be an indication of weakly defined social castes in $L$. plumbeum, which is a common feature of eusocial halictines (Michener 1990).


Figure 15. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) plumbeum (Ashmead), female A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus.

## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) sanctivincenti (Ashmead 1900) <br> Figs 17-19

Halictus sancti-vincenti Ashmead (1900: 218-220). Grenada - St. George's; Mount Gay Estate (Leeward side), Saint Vincent. Syntype males and females (NHMUK, USNM; Fig. 17).
Halictus santivincent. Friese (1909: 37) catalogue [sic].
Halictus sancti-vincenti: Ashmead (1900: 304) checklist; Cockerell (1938: 280, 281) taxonomic notes.
Halictus (Chloralictus) sanctivincenti: Sandhouse (1924: 5) emendation, identification key; Cockerell (1937: 113) taxonomic notes.

Dialictus sanctivincenti: Moure and Hurd (1987: 128, 129) catalogue, possible synonymy; Moure (2007: 854) catalogue.
Lasioglossum sanctivincenti: Gibbs $(2016: 6,11)$ taxonomic notes.
Material examined. SVG• Grenadines • Canoun Island, 7.X. 1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff (3 $q$ FSCA). Bequia Island, 1966-VI.1967, leg. Badger ( 1 Q UNSM). Grenada • Carricou Island, Hillsborough, the Sands Guest House, 1.III.1990, leg. R.E. Woodruff (1 $q$ FSCA) • St. Andrew Parish • Grand Etang, XI.1950, leg. N.L.H. Krauss (1 q USNM) - St. George Parish • Mount Gay Est., leg. H.H. Smith (Halictus sanctivincenti syntype $1 \sigma^{\text {}}$ USNM) • St. Georges (Leeward side), leg. H.H. Smith (2 $q$ USNM, Halictus sanctivincenti syntype 1 Q NHMUK) • St. Georges, XI.1950, leg. N.L.H. Krauss (11 q USNM) • St. John Parish • Woodford, 5.VIII.1963, leg. O.S. Flint (1 q USNM).


Figure 16. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) plumbeum (Ashmead), male A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view C lateral habitus.


Figure 17. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) sanctivincenti (Ashmead), syntype female of Halictus sanctivincenti Ashmead $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus. Images courtesy of the National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution. https://collections.nmnh.si.edu/search/ento/

Notes. The syntype series of $L$. sanctivincenti is divided between Grenada and St. Vincent (Ashmead 1900), which are islands separate by approximately 100 km . However, there are 22 intermediary islands in the Grenadine Island chain, so the maximum distance between landmasses is an order of magnitude less. Despite the name, $L$. sanctivincenti does not seem common on $S$ t. Vincent. In fact, all the specimens examined above belong are from islands to the south. To date, L. sanctivincenti and Habralictus insularis Smith-Pardo 2009 are the only halictid bees known from Grenada. Cockerell (1937) records L. sanctivincenti from Barbados, 160 km east of St. Vincent, however, his description of the darker colour and 'mesothorax highly polished' do not seem consistent with the syntype series of $L$. sanctivincenti.


Figure 18. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) sanctivincenti (Ashmead), female A dorsal habitus B head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.

## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) gemmeum sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/61DF8422-3F04-4E4D-A201-4107060FE9B4
Figs 20, 21
Holotype. Y. Saint Vincent, St. George Parish, 5-10.X.1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, Malaise trap (FSCA).

Paratypes. SVG•Saint Vincent• St. George Parish • Rivulet Agr. Sta., 27-30-IX-1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, Malaise trap (1 J); 5-10-X-1991, leg. R.E. Woodruff, Malaise trap ( 2 \& FSCA) •"24 // W. Indies / 99-331 // Dialictus not gemmatus det G.C. Eickwort" (1 $q$ NHMUK). One leg, both forewings and one hind wing missing.


Figure I9. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) sanctivincenti (Ashmead), male A dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view C lateral habitus.
"69 // W. Indies 99-331 // Halictus gemmatus Smith Ashm // Dialictus not gemmatus det G.C. Eickwort" (NHMUK). In good condition, two submarginal cells in both wings (1 $~$ Q NHMUK) • St Vincent, Majorea, VIII. 1972 (2 § SEMC).

Halictus gemmatus: Ashmead (1900: 218, 219, 303) key, distribution record (in part); Friese (1909: 37) catalogue. Non gemmatus Smith, 1853.

Dialictus gemmatus: Moure and Hurd (1987: 101) catalogue (in part); Moure (2007: 849) catalogue (in part). Non gemmatus Smith, 1853.

Diagnosis. Females of L. gemmeum are easily recognised by their orange-red metasoma and small size ( $\sim 3.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long). No other $L$. (Dialictus) in the Caribbean is known to have such a brightly coloured metasoma, although some $L$. (Habralictellus)
do. Males can be distinguished from other SVG L. (Dialictus) by the elongate (1.5-2 MOD), pectinate setae on S5-S6. Other SVG L. (Dialictus) have short (1 MOD), simple setae on S5-S6, which contrast with plumose setae on preceding sternites.

Description. Female ( $n=5$ ). Length $3.3-3.6 \mathrm{~mm}$; head length $1.03-1.11 \mathrm{~mm}$; head width $1.08-1.19 \mathrm{~mm}$; intertegular distance $0.71-0.84 \mathrm{~mm}$; wing length $1.38-$ 1.60 mm .

Colouration. Head and mesosoma dull metallic blue-green to golden-green, except as follows. Labrum reddish brown. Mandible yellow-orange with brown base and red apex. Clypeal apex dark brown. Antenna dark brown, flagellum with ventral surface reddish brown. Pronotal lobe yellow-orange. Tegula amber. Wing membrane hyaline with dark setae, venation pale brown. Legs amber-brown. Metasomal terga orange.

Pubescence. Dull white. Relatively sparse erect setae throughout, without tomentum, except on gena near eye, pronotal dorsolateral angle and lobe. Metasomal T1 with fan virtually absent, no erect setae medially. T2 without apical fimbriae, T3-T4 with only sparse fine setae on apical impressed areas. Scopa well developed on hind leg and metasomal sterna.

Surface sculpture. Face imbricate, punctation moderately fine. Clypeal punctation moderately sparse (IS = 1-s PD), denser proximally (IS = 1 PD ), surface smooth distally. Supraclypeal area with punctures moderately sparse (IS =1-2 PD), weakly imbricate in centre. Lower paraocular area punctation dense (IS $\leq \mathrm{PD}$ ). Upper paraocular area and frons reticulate-punctate ( $\mathrm{I} S<\mathrm{PD}$ ). Ocellocular area punctate ( $\mathrm{IS} \leq \mathrm{PD}$ ). Gena and postgena punctate-imbricate, sculpturing weak on postgena. Mesoscutum weakly imbricate, polished submedially; punctation moderately coarse, dense laterad of parapsidal lines, posterior portion (IS $<\mathrm{PD}$ ), sparsest submedially ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2 \mathrm{PD}$ ), mesoscutellum similar with submedial impunctate area ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-3 \mathrm{PD}$ ). Metanotum finely punctate. Preëpisternum finely reticulate rugulose. Hypoepimeral area finely punctate. Mesepisternum below scrobe punctate ( $\mathrm{IS} \leq \mathrm{d}$ ), polished. Metepisternum dorsal $1 / 3$ lineolate, ventral portion reticulate-imbricate. Metapostnotum medially with irregular carinulae reaching $2 / 3$ distance to imbricate posterior margin, dorsolateral slope imbricate. Propodeum posterior and lateral surfaces weakly imbricate. Metasomal terga polished, finely coriarious basally, weakly coriarious on apical impressed margin of T3; punctation sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=2-3 \mathrm{PD}$ ) on basal half, indistinct, sparser on apical impressed areas, T1-T2 apical impressed areas nearly impunctate. Metasomal sterna coriarious and finely, sparsely punctate ( $\mathrm{IS}=2-4 \mathrm{PD}$ ).

Structure. Face relatively short (length/width ratio $=0.82 \pm 0.01 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Eyes weakly convergent below (UOD/LOD ratio $=1.29 \pm 0.19 \mathrm{SD})$. Clypeus $2 / 3$ below suborbital tangent, apicolateral denticles low rounded knobs. Gena narrower than eye. Hypostomal carinae subparallel. Pronotal dorsolateral angle obtuse. Pronotal ridge rounded, interrupted by sulcus. Mesoscutum length/width ratio 0.82 ( $\pm 0.02 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutum/mesoscutellum length ratio 2.72 ( $\pm 0.2 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutellum/metanotum length ratio 1.75 ( $\pm 0.06 \mathrm{SD}$ ); metanotum/metapostnotum length ratio 0.64 ( $\pm 0.03 \mathrm{SD}$ ). Tegula ovoid. Submarginal cells two or three, veins $1 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{sm}, 2 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}$ and $2 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ distinctly weak. Distal hamuli arranged 2-1-2. Inner metatibial spur pectinate,


Figure 20. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) gemmeum sp. nov., holotype female $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.
with two or three branches not including apex of rachis, proximal branch much longer than width of rachis. Metapostnotum narrowly rounded onto posterior propodeal surface. Propodeum with lateral carina reaching $1 / 2$ distance dorsal margin; oblique carina indistinct. Metasoma ovoid, T2-T4 impressed areas medially $\sim 1 / 2$ longitudinal length of basal area.

Male ( $n=3$ ). Length 3.3-3.5 mm; head length $1.00-1.08 \mathrm{~mm}$; head width $1.00-$ 1.11 mm ; intertegular distance $0.67-0.79 \mathrm{~mm}$. Similar to female with usual sex-associated modifications.

Colouration. Head and mesosoma green to golden green. Clypeal apex reddish brown. Labrum reddish brown. Mandible brown, orange apically. Flagellum reddish brown, sometimes orange ventrally. Pronotal lobe reddish brown to orange. Tegula


Figure 21. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) gemmeum sp. nov., paratype male $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $C$ lateral habitus.
orange. Wing membrane hyaline, veins brown to dark brown. Legs reddish brown with femur-tibia joints, base and apex of tibiae, and tarsi orange. Metasoma reddish brown.

Pubescence. Body sparse pilosity, dull white to faintly yellowish. Tomentum moderately dense on lower paraocular area, sparse on clypeus, dense on pronotal lobe. Mesoscutal pilosity thin. Sternal pilosity short (1.0-1.5 OD), densely plumose, dense, erect. Wing setae dark, short, sparse.

Surface sculpture. Clypeal punctures dense (IS $\leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces polished. Supraclypeal punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{I}=1-2 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces polished. Paraocular area punctures dense (IS $\leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny. Frons punctate-reticulate. Gena punc-tate-imbricate, postgena sculpture punctate-imbricate. Tegula mostly impunctate. Mesoscutal punctation sparse ( $\mathrm{I} S=1-3 \mathrm{PD}$ ), becoming dense marginally ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-1.5$ PD), interspaces shiny. Mesoscutellar punctation sparse (IS = 1-2 PD). Metanotum
punctate. Metapostnotum with incomplete carinulae, margin shiny to weakly imbricate. Pre-episternum sculpture punctate. Hypoepimeral area distinctly punctate IS $\leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces polished. Mesepisternum distinctly punctate ( $\mathrm{IS} \leq 1 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny. Metepisternum lineate dorsally, weakly rugulose ventrally. Propodeal lateral face weakly imbricate-punctate, dorsolateral slope punctate. Propodeal posterior face sculpture polished-punctate. T1 anterior face polished. T1 dorsal surface sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=2-6 \mathrm{PD}$ ), interspaces shiny. T2 disc punctures sparse ( $\mathrm{IS}=1-2.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ), failing well before premarginal line, interspaces shiny, apical impressed area impunctate, interspaces shiny.

Structure. Face length/width ratio $0.84( \pm 0.03 \mathrm{SD})$. F1: pedicel length ratio $0.77-1.00$. F2:F1 length ratio $1.76-1.89$. Gena narrower than eye. Hypostomal carinae parallel. Pronotal angle obtuse. Mesoscutum length/width ratio 0.0.8 ( $\pm 0.02$ SD); mesoscutum/mesoscutellum length ratio 2.51 ( $\pm 0.03 \mathrm{SD}$ ); mesoscutellum/metanotum length ratio 2.04 ( $\pm 0.25 \mathrm{SD}$ ); metanotum/metapostnotum length ratio 0.59 ( $\pm 0.07$ SD). Propodeum lateral carina nearly halfway to dorsal margin; oblique carina absent. Tegula ovoid. Forewing with two or three submarginal cells. Metatibial spurs ciliate. Metasoma slender, parallel sided.

Etymology. The specific epithet is a Latin adjective in the nominal singular meaning glittering.

Taxonomic notes. Ashmead (1900) recorded three specimens of this species as Halictus gemmatus from the Leeward and Windward sides of St. Vincent. Comparison of two of his specimens to the type of H. gemmatus from Jamaica, indicated that they were quite distinct. Both specimens have labels attached from George Eickwort indicating it is not gemmatus. One of these is missing both forewings and the other has vein $1 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}$ missing in both wings. The three other females have $1 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}$ present, but the single male paratype has $1 \mathrm{rs}-\mathrm{m}$ absent in the left wing and present in the right wing. Lasioglossum gemmatum is a member of the gemmatum species complex (also known as the parvum or tegulare species complex; Ellis 1914; Gibbs 2009, 2018), but L. gemmeum does not appear to be a member of this group.

## Lasioglossum (Habralictellus) auratum (Ashmead 1900)

Fig. 22

Halictus auratus Ashmead 1900: 220. Saint Vincent - windward side (1500 ft.), seven female and one male syntypes (NHMUK, USNM; Fig. 22).
Halictus auratus: Friese (1909: 37) catalogue; Cockerell (1913: 104) taxonomic notes; Crawford (1914: 133) comparative notes; Moure and Hurd (1987: 205) catalogue (unplaced taxon).
Habralictellus auratus: Moure and Hurd (1982: 46) taxonomy, genus description; Moure (2007: 858) catalogue.
Lasioglossum (Dialictus) auratum: Michener (2000: 361) genus-group synonymy.
Lasioglossum (Habralictellus) auratum: Gibbs (2016: 17, 2018: 43) taxonomic notes; Genaro (2021: 14) taxonomic notes, checklist.


Figure 22. Lasioglossum (Habralictellus) auratum (Ashmead), syntype female of Halictus auratus Ashmead $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus $\mathbf{B}$ head, frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus.

Material examined. SVG • Saint Vincent • Saint Vincent (windward side), 1500 ft . (Halictus auratus syntypes $1+$ NHMUK, 3 $q$ USNM).

Taxonomic notes. Lasioglossum auratum is the type species of Habralictellus, a genus group that has fluctuated between treatments as a genus (Moure and Hurd 1982; Engel 2001b), subgenus of Lasioglossum (Gibbs 2016, 2018; Genaro 2021), or a synonym of L. (Dialictus) (Michener 2000; Genaro 2001b, 2016). Preliminary molecular phylogenetic data suggests L. (Habralictellus) is distinct from L. (Dialictus) (Gibbs 2018). The differences in size, sculpturing, and male genitalia evident in described L. (Habralictellus) suggests that it may not be monophyletic (Gibbs 2018).

## Key to Lasioglossum of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

1 Head and mesosoma brilliant metallic golden-green (Fig. 22); mesoscutum granular with extremely fine and indistinct punctation; subgenus Habralictellus L. auratum

- Head and mesosoma dull metallic golden-green to blue; mesoscutum imbricate to weakly polished with relatively coarse and distinct punctation; subgenus Dialictus 2

2 Metasoma dark metallic blue (Figs 10-13); wings relatively dark
L. cyaneum

- Metasoma brown to orange; wings relatively pale........................................ 3

3 Female ........................................................................................................ 4
_ Male ........................................................................................................... 6
4 Metasoma orange-red (Fig. 20); tegula pale orange .................. L. gemmeum

- Metasoma brown; head longer; tegula reddish brown to dark brown .......... 5
$5 \quad$ Head and mesosoma blue (Figs 14, 15); face relatively long (length/width ratio $=0.86$ SD 0.01); punctation near parapsidal line very dense (IS $<0.5 \mathrm{PD}$ ); mesepisternum with interspaces shiny due to weak microsculpture ......L. plumbeum
- Head and mesosoma golden green (Figs 17, 18); face relatively short (length/ width ratio $=0.82$ SD 0.02); punctation near parapsidal line sparser (IS $\leq 1$ PD ); mesepisternum with interspaces dull due to distinct microsculpture.....
L. sanctivincenti

6 Mesoscutum disc shiny, punctation sparse (Fig. 21); tegula pale orange; S5S6 with long (1.5-2 MOD), pectinate setae.
L. gemmeum

- Mesoscutum disc duller, punctation denser (Figs 16, 19); tegula reddish brown to dark brown; S5-S6 with short (1 MOD), simple setae .................. 7
7 Head and mesosoma blue; face relatively long (length/width ratio $=0.86$ ). L. plumbeum
- Head and mesosoma golden green; face relatively short (length/width ratio $=0.82$ )
L. sanctivincenti


## Lasioglossum (Dialictus) minutum (Fabricius 1798)

Fig. 23
Hylaeus minutus Fabricius 1798: 272. Americae insulus. Syntype ő (Natural History Museum of Denmark).
Prosopis minuta: Dalla Torre (1896: 27) catalogue; Fabricius (1804: 295) redescription. Dialictus (Chloralictus) minutus: Moure (1960a: 101) redescription, taxonomic status, distribution; Moure (1960b: 76) redescription, taxonomic status.
Lasioglossum (Evylaeus) minutum: Ebmer (1974: 117, 122) taxonomic status, nomenclature, distribution.

Dialictus minutus: Moure and Hurd (1987: 114, 128, 129) taxonomic status, nomenclature, distribution; Moure (2007: 851) catalogue.

Taxonomic notes. The distribution and identity of $L$. minutum remains in doubt. Fabricius (1798) did not specify the number of specimens examined, but a single male type is known. Moure (1960a) examined this type of Hylaeus minutus Fabricius and transferred it to Dialictus (Chloralictus). The type locality is "Americae insulus", clarified subsequently to be "Americae meridionalis insulus" (Fabricius 1804). Moure (1960b) thought it was from St. Vincent. Moure and Hurd (1987) considered it a possible senior synonym of L. sanctivincenti. However, Ebmer (1974) suggests that the specimen may be from St. Thomas in the Virgin Islands, as the underside of


Figure 23. Lasioglossum (Dialictus) minutum (Fabricius), syntype male of Hylaeus minutus Fabricius $\mathbf{A}$ dorsal habitus B head, oblique frontal-ventral view $\mathbf{C}$ lateral habitus. Images courtesy of the Natural History Museum of Denmark. Photographs by Mikkel Høegh Post. http://www.daim.snm.ku.dk/search-in-types
the label read " S . Thomae". The latter locality information may not be a reliable indication of the specimen's original collection, but rather the shipping origin to Denmark (L. Vilhelmsen, pers. comm.). Photographs of the specimen were examined (Fig. 23), and it seems consistent with L. sanctivincenti. Without certainty of its island of origin or physical examination of the holotype of $L$. minutum a formal synonymy seems premature.

The nomenclature of $L$. minutum is somewhat confusing as discussed by earlier authors (Ebmer 1974). Moure and Hurd (1987) considered it preoccupied by Schrank (i.e., Apis minuta Schrank 1781). However, Ebmer (1974) considered Schrank's bee to be a Hylaeus, although Warncke (1976) disagreed. Unless Schrank's bee can be assigned to Lasioglossum, it cannot be considered a senior secondary homonym. Two definite cases of secondary homonymy exist, one of which has not been previously resolved. Kirby (1802: 61-62) described Melitta minuta, which he attributes to Schrank. However, Kirby is typically credited with authorship (Blüthgen 1921; Ebmer 1974) since he acknowledged key differences between his bee and Schrank's and doubted that they were the same. Kirby's bee is a secondary junior homonym of Fabricius's name. Lasioglossum parvulum (Schenck) is now the valid name for Kirby's bee. More recently, Pauly (1986) described Homalictus minutus, which is now transferred to Lasioglossum (Danforth and Ji 2001; Gibbs et al. 2012; Ascher and Pickering 2021), making it a secondary junior homonym of $L$. minutum (Fabricius). A new name is required for Pauly's species, so we propose the replacement name Lasioglossum (Homalictus) minuens. Some authors still maintain usage of Homalictus at the generic level (Campbell et al. 2007; Michener 2007; Groom et al. 2013; Niu et al. 2013; Dorey et al. 2019), which would make L. minuens a junior synonym of Pauly's name in that classification based on article 59.4 of the Code.

## Discussion

Based on the species richness of the relatively well-studied islands of Dominica (26 spp.) to the north and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (33 spp.) to the south (Ashmead 1900; Moure et al. 2007b; Gibbs 2016, 2020; Ascher and Pickering 2021), it can be expected that the number of bee species on Saint Lucia will eventually rise from ten to at least 25 given sufficient attention. The apid genera Exomalopsis, Melissodes, and Xylocopa and the megachilid genus Coelioxys are each known from Dominica, Martinique, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (Ashmead 1900; Crawford 1914; Meurgey and Dumbardon-Martial 2015; Meurgey 2016; Ascher and Pickering 2021), making their presence on St. Lucia probable. Furthermore, Anthophora, Melipona, and Mesoplia are known from nearby Dominica and Martinique (Meurgey and Dumbardon-Martial 2015; Meurgey 2016; Ascher and Pickering 2021). Four additional halictid genera, Augochlora, Pseudaugochlora, Microsphecodes, and Sphecodes (Ashmead 1900; Crawford 1914; Eickwort and Stage 1972; Gibbs 2016), are also
known from the region, so the potential for additional halictid species on St. Lucia is high. Recent studies in the Greater and Lesser Antilles seem to suggest that halictid bee communities are largely distinct between islands (Engel 2001b, 2011; Genaro 2001b, 2021; Gibbs 2018). As such, representatives of these genera could constitute undocumented diversity. Many additional islands in the Lesser Antilles have few or no species of halictid bee known from them. Ongoing work in this area suggests that there are several additional species to describe from smaller islands in the Caribbean. Fourteen morphospecies of Halictidae were recorded from Montserrat, but none with species names (Ivie et al. 2008). In St. Kitts, the only known halictid bee is a brood parasite, but no potential hosts have been documented (Engel 2006b). Additional study of Monserrat, St. Kitts, and other islands in the Lesser and Greater Antilles is needed. This will allow future biogeographical and speciation studies of halictid bees through the Caribbean. Furthermore, baseline data are needed to assess any conservation concerns in the region. As noted previously, several species in the islands show limited distribution within islands and some have not been collected in more than a century (Gibbs 2016, 2018). Targeted surveys for these species would be prudent to determine their status.

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# A new species of Suwallia Ricker, 1943 (Plecoptera, Chloroperlidae) from southwestern China, with an updated key to male Suwallia species 

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#### Abstract

A new species of the genus Suwallia Ricker, 1943 (Plecoptera, Chloroperlidae), Suwallia dengba sp. nov., is described from Tibet and Yunnan, southwestern China. A diagnosis and description of the adult habitus and aedeagal structure are illustrated with color images. Similarities in the terminalia with closely related species are discussed. In addition, an updated key to adult males of the Suwallia species of China is provided.


## Keywords

Distribution, Suwallia dengba sp. nov., Tibet, Yunnan Province

## Introduction

The family Chloroperlidae belongs to the superfamily Perloidea and is frequently referred to as "green stoneflies". It consists of two subfamilies: Chloroperlinae Okamoto, 1912 and Paraperlinae Ricker, 1943. Presently, more than 29 species of the family Chloroperlidae are reported from China, belonging to six genera, namely: Alloperla Banks, 1906, Alaskaperla Stewart \& DeWalt, 1991, Haploperla Navás, 1934, Suwallia Ricker, 1943, Sweltsa Ricker, 1943 and Utaperla Ricker, 1952 (Wu 1938; Nelson and Hanson 1968; Du 1999;

[^10]Li and Wang 2011; Li et al. 2013, 2014, 2015a, b; Chen and Du 2015, 2016a, b, 2017; Dong et al. 2018; Yang and Li 2018; Chen 2019; Mo et al. 2020; Shi et al. 2022).

The genus Suwallia Ricker, 1943 belongs to tribe Suwalliini Surdick, 1985 of the subfamily Chloroperlinae. It is distributed in the East Palearctic and Nearctic regions (DeWalt et al. 2021). Most species of the genus Suwallia were revised and recorded by Alexander and Stewart (1999). Suwallia is mainly distributed in Russia, Mongolia, Japan, and North America (Alexander and Stewart 1999; Teslenko and Zhiltzova 2009; Judson and Nelson 2012). In China, the first species of Suwallia was reported by Li et al. (2015a), and until now seven species of this genus had been reported for the country: Suwallia errata Li \& Li, 2021, Suwallia decolorata Zhiltzova \& Levanidova, 1978, and Suwallia talalajensis Zhiltzova, 1976 were reported by Li et al. (2015a, b) and Li et al. (2021) from the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, northern China (Fig. 7), whereas Suwallia wolongshana Du \& Chen, 2015 and Suwallia jihuae Chen, 2019 were reported by Chen and Du (2015) and Chen (2019) from the Sichuan Province of southwestern China. Recently, Suwallia kuandian Shi, Wang \& Li, 2022 and Suwallia asiatica Zhiltzova \& Levanidova, 1978 were reported by Shi et al. (2022) from Liaoning Province, northeastern China. In the current paper, a new species of Suwallia is described from Tibet and the Yunnan Province of southwestern China. This is the first record of the Suwallia genus from both regions. Tibet is also known as Xizang in Chinese and is positioned on the Tibetan plateau, known as the world's highest and largest plateau. The Yunnan Province lies adjacent to the Tibet, Sichuan, Guizhou, and Guangxi provinces of China and borders with Myanmar, Laos, and Vietnam. The taxonomy of the new species is discussed, a distributional map, and a key to the known species of Suwallia from China are provided.

## Materials and methods

All specimens were collected by aerial net or hands and preserved in $75 \%$ ethanol. Terminalia were examined and illustrated by KEYENCE VHX-5000 and the final images were prepared using Adobe Photoshop CS6. The type specimens of the new species were placed in the insect collection of Yangzhou University (ICYZU), Jiangsu Province, China. Data for the key and distribution map were extracted from the published literature (Chen and Du 2015; Li et al. 2015a, b; Chen 2019; Shi et al. 2022).

## Results

## Suwallia dengba sp. nov.

http://zoobank.org/51F6012D-7AB2-4F16-9095-2B1B9E7CE5BE
Figs 1-8
Type material. Holotype, $1 \delta^{\lambda}$, China, Tibet Autonomous Region, Dengba village, Mangkam County, Qamdo city, $3437 \mathrm{~m}, 29^{\circ} 32.406^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 98^{\circ} 13.425^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 18 . \mathrm{IX} .2019$, Leg. Huo Qing-Bo (ICYZU). Paratypes, $6 \widehat{o}^{\top} \widehat{N}^{\top}, 6 q$, data same as holotype (Figs 7, 8);
$50^{\top}{ }^{\text {® }}, 17 q$, Yunnan Province, Diqing Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture, Shangri-la city, on the way from Diqing to Gezan Township, $3445 \mathrm{~m}, 27^{\circ} 45.656^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 99^{\circ} 56.374^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, 7.IX.2019. Leg. Huo Qing-Bo (ICYZU); $2 \widehat{§}^{\lambda}, 4 \not \subset q$, China, Yunnan Province, Diqing Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture, on national highway (G214) near Tongduishui and Deiyong Benglao, $3432 \mathrm{~m}, 28^{\circ} 18.282^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 99^{\circ} 8.472^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 9 . \mathrm{IX} .2019$, Leg. Huo QingBo (ICYZU); 1 $\bar{\lambda}, 2$, China, Yunnan Province, Diqing Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture, on national highway (G214) near Zhubagong, Deqin County (Fig. 7), 4027 m, $28^{\circ} 23.885^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 98^{\circ} 59.143^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 10 . I X .2019$, Leg. Huo Qing-Bo (ICYZU).

Diagnosis. The new species is characterized by the sclerotized median sclerite of tergum X and its aedeagus armature. The shape of the median sclerite of tergum X resembles a turtle or a hexagonal star. The aedeagus, with a large distinct sclerite divided into an eagle-shaped trifurcate structure, the large median sclerite, and one pair of wing-shaped lateral sclerites on both sides, is diagnostic (Figs 2-4).

Description. Adult habitus (Fig. 1A). Adult body length $8.5-9.5 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathrm{~N}=10)$, forewing length $6.5-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, hindwing length $5.5-6.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. General color of body pale yellow in alcohol. Triocellate, head yellowish-white to yellowish-brown. Ocellar


Figure I. Suwallia dengba sp. nov. A male habitus B female habitus.
triangle and frontoclypeal area pale yellowish-brown, antenna pale brown, covered with small brown to dark brown setae. Pronotum disc margins covered with dark brown bands and with a thin dark medial stripe (Fig. 2A). Legs pale brown, mesonotum and metanotum with a distinct dark brown U-shaped marking, wings hyaline with yellow venation. Abdominal terga I-VIII with a wide medial trapezoidal dark brown stripe, slightly constricted medially on terga VII and VIII (Figs 1A, 2C-D).


Figure 2. Suwallia dengba sp. nov. Holotype male $\mathbf{A}$ head and prothorax, dorsal view $\mathbf{B}$ head and prothorax, ventral view $\mathbf{C}$ terminalia, dorsal view $\mathbf{D}$ terminalia, ventral view.


Figure 3. Suwallia dengba sp. nov. Male paratype. A terminalia with aedeagus, dorsal view $\mathbf{B}$ aedeagus everted, dorsal view $\mathbf{C}$ aedeagus, caudal ventral view $\mathbf{D}$ aedeagus, ventral view.

Male (Figs 2-4). Tergum IX concave medially with semicircular stripe anteriorly, posteriorly covered with dark brown, thick hairs. Tergum X divided, median portion with a distinct dark brown sclerite resembling a turtle or hexagonal star in dorsal view (Figs 2C, 6A). Hemitergal processes sclerotized, with tiny hairs, finger-shaped and curved forward. Epiproct membranous, circular, knob-like, covered with minute hairs. Sternum IX ventrally extended anteriorly (Fig. 2D). Aedeagus membranous with a distinct sclerotized sclerite after eversion. Aedeagal sclerite resembling an eagle, divided into a trifurcate structure, a large median sclerite, and one pair of lateral sclerites


Figure 4. Suwallia dengba sp. nov. A aedeagus $\mathbf{B}$ terminalia, lateral view $\mathbf{C}$ aedeagal sclerite, dorsal view D aedeagal sclerite, ventral view.
(Figs 3A, 4A-D, 6B). Lateral sclerites armed with minute scales. Membranous part of aedeagus with fine cuticular asperities (Fig. 3A-D).

Female. Adult habitus (Fig. 1B). Body length $9.0-10 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathrm{~N}=10)$, forewing length $7.5-8.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, hindwing length $6.5-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. General body color, shape and appearance similar to those of male. Head and pronotum similar. Dorsal segment of abdomen with trapezoidal dark brown stripe extended to sternum VIII, subgenital plate large, extending to posterior portion of sternum IX, constricted from base, expanded medially, then slightly tapering toward posterior margins. Subgenital plate covered with minute, fine hairs. Tergum X not produced posteriorly. Paraproct in the shape of a small triangle, bearing small hairs (Fig. 5A-C).

Egg and nymph. Unknown.
Distribution. Southwestern China (Tibet and Yunnan Province).
Etymology. The species is named after the type locality, Dengba village.
Remarks. The new species is closely related to Suwallia talalajensis, but can be distinguished by the sclerotized portion between the hemitergal processes, the


Figure 5. Suwallia dengba sp. nov. Female paratype. A terminalia, ventral view B terminalia, ventral view C terminalia, dorsal view.


Figure 6. Suwallia dengba sp. nov. A male terminalia, dorsal view B aedeagal sclerite.


Figure 7. Revised map showing distribution of Suwallia species in China (modified from www.tianditu. gov.cn).
pigmentation of tergum IX, the armature of the aedeagus and the well-developed, membranous, knob-like epiproct. Suwallia talalajensis does not have a distinct aedeagal sclerite (Li et al. 2015b: fig. 5), whereas the new species has a distinct sclerite (Figs 4A-D, 6B). Tergum IX of the new species is covered with abundant, thick hairs, and its body pigmentation is different from that of Suwallia talalajensis. The new species also shows similar characteristics to Suwallia errata (Li et al. 2021), but it can be easily differentiated by the sclerotized portion between the hemitergal process and the shape of the aedeagus. Suwallia errata has a V-shaped aedeagal sclerite (Li et al. 2015a: figs $1-6)$, but the new species has the aedeagal sclerite of a different shape. The new species lives in fast-flowing rivers (width $=5 \mathrm{~m}$ ), where a large gravel substrate is present. The adults occur on leaves of trees or shrubs near the river (Fig. 8).


Figure 8. Habitat at the type locality of Suwallia dengba sp. nov. Specimens were collected from the small trees and grasses near the stream (photograph Huo Qing-Bo).

## Key to adult males of Suwallia species from China (modified from Chen 2019)

1 Epiproct reduced, tergum X with two median sclerites ..... 2

- Epiproct well developed, tergum X with undivided median sclerite ..... 32 Tergum X with two longitudinal median sclerites (see Chen and Du 2015:figs 1-8)Suwallia wolongshana
Tergum X with H-shaped median sclerite (see Chen 2019: fig. 3)
Suwallia jibuae3 Tergum X with V-shaped median sclerite, aedeagus membranous, withoutspines or structures (see Shi et al. 2022: fig. 2)- Tergum X median sclerite triangular or subrectangular in shape, aedeaguswith spines or structures4
4 Tergum X median sclerite triangular in shape, epiproct small, aedeagus withtriangular spines forming T-shaped structure (see Li et al. 2015b: fig. 2)- Tergum X median sclerite not as above, epiproct well developed and knob-like.5
5 Tergum X medial sclerite subrectangular, anterior margins with two separatesclerites6
- Tergum X median sclerite of turtle or hexagonal shape ..... 7

6 Tergum X anterior margins divided into two sclerites, epiproct with long hairs and without posterolateral bifurcation, aedeagus with V-shaped sclerite (see Li et al. 2015a: figs 1-6)

Suwallia errata

- Tergum X anterior margins with two separate paramedial sclerites, archshaped in lateral view, epiproct with stout posterolateral bifurcation, aedeagus with triangular sclerite, lateral margins darker (see Shi et al. 2022: fig. 1)

Suwallia kuandian
7 Tergum X median sclerite turtle-like, aedeagus membranous, without distinct armature or sclerite (see Li et al. 2015b: fig. 2) ... Suwallia talalajensis

- Tergum X median sclerite hexagonal star-shaped, pointed posteriorly, aedeagus with distinct trifurcate sclerite (Figs 2-4)........Suwallia dengba sp. nov.


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# Addenda and corrigenda: Gutiérrez N, ToledoHernández VH, Noguera FA (2020) Four new species of Phrynidius Lacordaire (Coleoptera, Cerambycidae, Lamiinae) from Mexico with an identification key for the genus. ZooKeys 1000: 45-57. https://doi. org/IO.3897/zookeys.I000.56757 

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#### Abstract

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#### Abstract

After describing Phrynidius jonesi Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020 (Coleoptera, Cerambycidae, Lamiinae), the authors had the opportunity to study a conspecific individual of this species and recognize that the holotype had been erroneously determined as a male when in fact it was a female. Here, we rectify this error and provide morphological information for the identification of both sexes. Additionally, we record Phrynidius armatus Linsley, 1933 from Chiapas, Mexico. Finally, we document P. cristinae Gutiérrez et al. 2020 feeding on a fungus, which represents the first record for any species of the genus Phrynidius with this adult feeding habit.


## Keywords

Biodiversity, Central America, longhorn beetles, taxonomy

## Introduction

Knowledge of the genus Phrynidius Lacordaire, 1869 (Coleoptera, Cerambycidae, Lamiinae) is restricted to taxonomy and distribution, while host plant information is known for only one of its species. Fortunately, the collection of new specimens represents an opportunity to increase our knowledge about other aspects of the natural history of this group. This is the case for $P$. jonesi Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020 and P. cristinae Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020, both from Chiapas, Mexico, as well as for P. armatus Linsley, 1933 from Guatemala, of which we had the opportunity to study recently collected specimens. Following its description, an additional specimen of P. jonesi was collected at the type locality. This new specimen allowed for the reevaluation of our original description. In this note, we rectify the sexual identity of the holotype of $P$. jonesi, describe the sexually dimorphic characters of the species, and provide new information about its known hosts. In addition, we record for the first time P. armatus from Chiapas and adult feeding habits for P. cristinae.

## Materials and methods

Photographs of P. jonesi were taken with a Canon EOS 5D Mark III DSLR equipped with a Canon MP-E $65 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{f} / 2.81-5 \times$ macro lens objective and automatically controlled with a Cognisys Stackshot. Photographs were focus stacked with the Zerene Stacker AutoMontage software and processed on Capture One 21. Photographs of the habitat were taken with an iPhone 8. The specimen is deposited in the Sergio Devesa Personal Collection (SDPC), Pontevedra, Spain. Photographs of P. cristinae were taken with a Canon 70D camera equipped with a Canon $60 \mathrm{~mm}, \mathrm{f} / 2.8$ macro lens. Specimens of P. cristinae and P. armatus are deposited in Colección de Insectos de la Universidad de Morelos (CIUM), Morelos, Mexico and Colección de Insectos Asociados a Plantas Cultivadas en la Frontera Sur (ECO-TAP-E), Chiapas, Mexico.

## Errata

Phrynidius jonesi Gutierrez et al., 2020
p. 51, ninth line: "Male holotype" should read "Female holotype".

Phrynidius armatus Linsley, 1933
p. 46, seventeenth line: "distributed in Guatemala and Nicaragua" should read "distributed in Guatemala, Mexico and Nicaragua".
p. 55, thirty-seventh line: "Guatemala and Nicaragua" should read "Guatemala, Mexico and Nicaragua".

## Additions

## Phrynidius jonesi Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020

Fig. 1A-D

Sex: Male. Locality: Mexico, Chiapas, Municipio de La Trinitaria, Lagunas de Montebello, 08-I-2019, $16^{\circ} 06^{\prime} 27.55 \mathrm{~N}, 91^{\circ} 42^{\prime} 39.17 \mathrm{~W}$. S. Devesa leg.

The male differs from the female type in the following characters: smaller body size ( 10.2 vs. 11.7 mm ); antennae longer relatively to body length ( 1.21 times longer than body, 1.15 times longer than body in female); antennal formula (ratio, based on length of the third antennomere) $\mathrm{I}=0.88, \mathrm{II}=0.12, \mathrm{IV}=0.84, \mathrm{~V}=0.36, \mathrm{VI}=0.32, \mathrm{VII}=$ 0.32 , VIII $=0.28, \mathrm{IX}=0.28, \mathrm{X}=0.28, \mathrm{XI}=0.28$; abdomen more slender and elongated; last abdominal segment shorter, uniformly convex to the apical margin; apex almost glabrous and margin with a fringe of setae (in female, last abdominal segment more convex, with curvature not extending to apical margin, which is more flattened than in male).

The larva of P. jonesi was collected under bark of Pinus oocarpa Schiede ex Schltdl. (Pinaceae). This constitutes a new host record for the genus since the only host plant of Phrynidius species known to date was Cupressus sp. (Cupressaceae) (Becker 1955). The larva was collected on January $8^{\text {th }}$ and the adult emerged on June $28^{\text {th }}$ of the same year. This indicates that the development from larva to adult in this specimen lasted at least 6 months and 20 days. It is important to mention that the larva was kept in artificial conditions, therefore this developmental time could differ from development in the conditions of its habitat.

## Phrynidius armatus Linsley, 1933

Sex: Male. Locality: Méxıco: Chiapas, Municipio Villacorzo, Ejido Sierra Morena, REBISE. 15-VI-2016, $1746 \mathrm{msnm}, 16^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 16.88^{\prime N} \mathrm{~N}, 93^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 19.87^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$ (4 specimens). E.R. Chamé-V. col. New state record.

Male ( 9.7 mm ) slightly longer than holotype ( 9.0 mm ). Specimens of $P$. armatus were collected in a cloud forest with a high abundance of Tillandsia usneoides (L.) L. (Bromeliaceae). The specimens were collected using a beating sheet, which was placed under the vegetation ( 2 to 3 m high) and beaten with a pole. The type series was collected in Santa Ilena (probably Santa Elena), Guatemala, and the species was later recorded from Veracruz, México, and Selva Negra Mountain Resort, Nicaragua (Linsley 1933; Noguera and Chemsak 1996; Audureau and Roguet 2018). The specimens reported here were collected in Sierra Morena, Chiapas, which is part of the Sierra Madre of Chiapas, a mountain range connected with Chimaltenango, Guatemala. Both localities are in cloud forests.

Phrynidius cristinae Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020
Fig. 2A-D
Sex: Male. Locality: México: Chiapas, Municipio Villacorzo, Ejido Sierra Morena, REBISE. 03-VIII-2016, $1746 \mathrm{msnm}, 16^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 16.88^{\prime \prime N}, 93^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 19.87^{\prime \prime W}$. E.R. ChaméV. col. (2 specimens).


Figure I. Phrynidius jonesi Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020: A-C male: Dorsal, ventral, and lateral views $\mathbf{D}$ habitat where the specimen was collected.


Figure 2. Phrynidius cristinae Gutiérrez, Toledo \& Noguera, 2020: A habitat where the specimen was collected $\mathbf{B}$ dorsal view of male $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ specimen feeding on Echinoporia aculeifera.

On August 3, 2016 at 12:12 pm a specimen of P. cristinae with integument darker than that of the holotype was observed eating the pileus ornamentation of a specimen of Echinoporia aculeifera (Berk. \& M.A. Curtis) Ryvarden, 1984 (Schizoporaceae). This fungus was found in a rotten log, which had a conglomerate of several individuals of this species.

Phrynidius species had only been associated with conifers (Cupressaceae and Pinaceae, recorded here), and no information was known about their feeding habits until now.

This is an interesting result, since only a few species of cerambycids have been recorded as fungal feeders as adults (Craighead 1923; Duffy 1953; Haack 2017; Michalcewicz 2002). Our findings emphasize the importance of observations in the field for a better understanding of the natural history of Phrynidius.

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[^5]:    Genus Austroplebeia Moure
    Subgenus $\dagger$ Anteplebeina Engel
    $\dagger$ A. fujianica Engel China (Fujian) (Miocene)
    Subgenus Austroplebeia Moure
    A. australis (Friese) Australia
    A. cassiae (Cockerell) Australia
    A. cincta (Mocsáry) Indonesia (Papua, West Papua), Papua New Guinea
    A. essingtoni (Cockerell) Australia
    A. magna Dollin et al. Australia

    Genus Ebaiotrigona, gen. nov.
    E. carpenteri (Engel), comb. nov. Cambodia, China*, Laos, Thailand, Vietnam

    Genus Lisotrigona Moure
    L. cacciae (Nurse) India, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vietnam**
    L. furva Engel Cambodia, [Laos], Thailand, [Vietnam]***

    Genus Pariotrigona Moure
    P. pendleburyi (Schwarz) Brunei, Cambodia, [Indonesia: Kalimantan], Malaysia, Thailand

    * Chinese population may be a separate species of Ebaiotrigona, something that is in need of future study, particularly given the habitat differences ( Li et al. in press).
    ** Records of L. cacciae from Vietnam by Sakagami (1975: as Hypotrigona scintillans (Cockerell)) and Le et al. (2021b) remain to be confirmed. Sakagami (1975) refers to "total melanism", which could apply to L. furva.
    *** Records of L. furva from Vietnam by Le et al. (2021a) remain to be confirmed.

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