

Detection of invasive and cryptic species in marine mussels (*Bivalvia*, *Mytilidae*): A chromosomal perspective



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ABSTRACT

Marine mussels illustrate a stunning variability in shape and color. Such variability, added to the scarcity of reliable morphological characters for their identification, can mislead recognition prompting the assignment of specimens of a single species to different ones or incorporate specimens belonging to different taxa into a single one. DNA barcoding is widely used for species identification; however, as this method relies on the previous morphological identification of the specimens, some of the DNA sequences stored in DNA databases are incorrectly assigned to a given species. In view of this uncertainty, further criteria beyond morphological characters and DNA sequences in databases are required to more reliably and accurately identify marine mussels. In this work we mapped ribosomal RNA and histone gene clusters to chromosomes of four species of marine mussels and compared them with those from another eight marine mussel taxa. Specimens of these twelve taxa were also DNA barcoded. Our results clearly demonstrated that the chromosomal analysis of marine mussels could shed light on their identification and, therefore, solve contradictions posed by morphological and molecular data.

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1. Introduction

An ever growing amount of marine biological invasions have been recorded throughout the last few decades (Rilov & Crooks, 2009). These invasions not only have posed a tremendous threat to marine ecosystems but have also denoted that our knowledge of marine life is rather scarce and that the identification of marine species is often very difficult even for expert taxonomists (Geller, Darling, & Carlton, 2010). In order to overcome these problems, more and more researchers have applied genetic methods to the study of marine organisms. Among these methods, the use of the 5' end of the mitochondrial DNA cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) gene to identify known taxa and to aid in the discovery of new animal species (DNA barcoding, Hebert, Cywinska, Ball, & deWaard, 2003) is paramount. Although the use of DNA barcoding has revealed an extraordinary amount of hidden marine diversity in the form of unrecognized cryptic species, the broad application

of this method is not without controversy; mostly due to suspicions about the correct identification of the species in some of these studies (Huber, 2015).

The marine mussels belonging to the family Mytilidae (50 genera, 400 species) are characterized by presenting stunning variability in shape and color (Huber, 2010). Such variability, added to the scarcity of reliable morphological characters for their identification, can mislead recognition. The erroneous identification can, on the one hand, prompt the assignment of specimens of a single species to different ones and, on the other, incorporate specimens belonging to different taxa in a single one. Furthermore, as DNA data obtained relying on incorrect morphological identification is then directly stored in DNA databases, mistakes can be unintentionally perpetuated. In view of these uncertainties, further criteria beyond morphological characters are needed to reliably identify marine mussels.

The broad increase in the number of Mytilidae taxa either described as invasive or cryptic species further enhances this requirement. The World Register of Introduced Marine Species (WRIMS) database (<http://www.marinespecies.org/introduced/>) describes 22 species of mussels as introduced. Many of these species are well known invaders, i.e. the Asian date mussel

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Arcuatula senhousia (Crooks & Khim, 1999; Katsanevakis et al., 2012), the Atlantic ribbed mussel *Geukensia demissa* (Sousa, Gutiérrez, & Aldridge, 2009), the golden mussel *Limnoperna fortunei* (Boltovskoy, Correa, Cataldo, & Sylvester, 2006), the Mediterranean mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Branch & Steffani, 2004), the brown mussel *Perna perna* (Holland, 2001; Rajagopal, Venugopalan, van der Velde, & Jenner, 2006), the Asian green mussel *Perna viridis* (Baker et al., 2007) and the pigmy mussel *Xenostrobus securis* (Pascual et al., 2010). Regarding marine mussel cryptic speciation, besides the classical case of the *Mytilus edulis* complex (e.g. Knowlton, 1993; Lourenço, Nicastró, Serrão, Castilho, & Zardi, 2015), cryptic species have been described mainly for the genera *Brachidontes* (*B. exustus*, Lee & Ó Foighil, 2004; *B. variabilis*, Terranova, Lo Brutto, Arculeo, & Mitton, 2007) and *Bathymodiolus* (Smith, McVeagh, Won, & Vrijenhoek, 2004) and postulated for *Xenostrobus* (Colgan & da Costa, 2013).

As displayed in Table 1, marine mussels present a wide variety of diploid chromosome numbers ($2n=22$ to 32 ; reviewed by Nakamura, 1985 and Dixon, Jolly, Vevers, & Dixon, 2010; Pérez-García, Cambeiro, Morán, & Pasantes, 2010; Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, Morán, Pasantes, 2010; Pérez-García, Morán, & Pasantes, 2011; Thiriot-Quévieux, 1994, 2002) even among congeneric species (i.e. *Brachidontes* $2n=28-32$, *Mytilaster* $2n=26-28$, *Perna* $2n=28-30$). In contrast, the species belonging to the genus *Mytilus* are usually portrayed as presenting conserved chromosome numbers ($2n=28$) and quite similar karyotypes. The application of molecular cytogenetic techniques demonstrated that this was not exactly the case and that species with apparently similar karyotypes showed remarkable differences in number and chromosomal location of repetitive DNA clusters (Pérez-García, Morán, Pasantes, 2014), therefore allowing identification of mussel taxa.

The objective of this work is to provide solid criteria to aid in the identification of marine mussel species. To this aim, we applied fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) techniques to map ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and histone gene clusters to chromosomes of four species of marine mussels of different genera (*Brachidontes*, *Gibbomodiolia*, *Mytilus* and *Perna*) and compared them with those from another eight marine mussel taxa previously FISH karyotyped in our lab (Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al., 2010; Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al., 2010; Pérez-García et al., 2011, 2014). In addition to this, we amplified the 5' end of the mitochondrial DNA cytochrome oxidase I gene from karyotyped specimens of these twelve taxa in order to compare the accuracy of the chromosome identification with DNA barcoding data.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Biological material

Specimens of the scorched mussel *Brachidontes exustus* (Linnaeus, 1758), the tulip mussel *Gibbomodiolia adriatica* (Lamarck, 1819), the Chilean blue mussel *Mytilus platensis* d'Orbigny, 1842, and the brown mussel *Perna perna* (Linnaeus, 1758) were transported alive to the lab, maintained in tanks of 5 L filtered seawater at $18 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and fed on microalgae (*Isochrysis galbana*) to promote somatic growth (Martínez-Expósito et al., 1994a, 1994b).

In order to broaden the scope of the present research, we also included eight mussel species, previously analyzed by FISH mapping (Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al., 2010; Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al., 2010; Pérez-García et al., 2011, 2014), for COI analysis.

All specimens were carefully identified according to external and internal shell characteristics (Fig. 1). The taxa analyzed and the sampling localities appear in Table 2. The nomenclature utilized

follows the World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS) database (<http://www.marinespecies.org/>).

2.2. Chromosome spreading

Chromosome spreads were obtained from mussels treated overnight with colchicine (Pasantes, Martínez-Expósito, Martínez-Lage, & Méndez, 1990; Méndez, Pasantes, & Martínez-Expósito, 1990). Gills and gonads were hypotonized in diluted seawater and fixed in ethanol/acetic acid before disaggregating in 60% acetic acid. After spreading cell suspensions onto warm microscope slides, chromosome preparations were checked by phase-contrast microscopy (García-Souto, Pérez-García, Morán, & Pasantes, 2015; García-Souto, Kendall, Pérez-García, & Pasantes, 2016).

2.3. DNA extraction and PCR amplification

DNA was extracted from adductor muscles with the EZNA Mollusc DNA Kit (OMEGA). For DNA barcoding purposes, a fragment of the COI gene was amplified by PCR using either the universal primers *LCO1490* and *HCO2198* (Folmer, Black, Hoeh, Lutz, & Vrijenhoek, 1994) or the *Brachidontes* specific *COI F* and *COI R* (Cunha, Lopes, Reis, & Castilho, 2011) and *CO1aF* and *CO1aR* (Trovant, Ruzzante, Basso, & Orensanz, 2013). In order to generate species specific FISH probes, a portion of the 28S rDNA was amplified with primers *LR10R* (Hopple & Vilgalys, 1994) and *LR12* (Vilgalys & Hester, 1990). The amplifications of the entire 5S rDNA repeat, the H3 and the H1 histone genes used primers described by Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al. (2010), Giribet and Distel (2003) and Pérez-García et al. (2011), respectively. Amplifications were performed in a GeneAmp PCR system 9700 (Applied Biosystems) as previously described (Pérez-García et al., 2011, 2014; García-Souto et al., 2015, 2016). PCR products were examined by electrophoresis on a 2% agarose gels.

2.4. DNA sequencing and phylogenetic analysis

Purified mitochondrial COI gene sequences (ExoSAP-IT[®] PCR Product Cleanup, Affymetrix) were sequenced (CACTI, University of Vigo) in an ABI PRISM 3730 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) using a BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems). The edited sequences (BioEdit v. 7.1.11, Hall, 1999) were aligned using MEGA7 (Kumar, Stecher, & Tamura, 2016). Sequence similarity searches in the GenBank were performed with BLAST (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>). To check the quality of the marine mussel sequences stored in GenBank, we also searched for marine mussel COI sequences using both the currently accepted scientific names and the former synonymies listed in WoRMS. Relationships among sequences were inferred from a maximum likelihood (ML) tree using a JC+G substitution model. Branch support was assessed with 500 bootstrap replicates. Analyses were performed on MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016).

2.5. Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH)

Single, double and sequential FISH experiments were performed as described by Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al. (2010), Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al. (2010), Pérez-García et al. (2011, 2014). Chromosome preparations were digested with RNase and pepsine, denatured in 70% formamide and hybridized overnight. Labeled probes were detected with avidin/anti-avidin and anti-digoxigenin antibodies. Slides were counterstained with 4'-6-diamidin-2-fenilindol (DAPI: $0.14 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ in $2\times\text{SSC}$) and mounted with antifade (Vectashield, Vector). Chromosome preparations were analyzed with a Nikon Eclipse-800 microscope. A DS-Qi1Mc CCD camera (Nikon) controlled by the NIS-Elements software (Nikon)

Table 1
Diploid chromosome numbers (2n) in Mytilidae

Genus	Species	2n	Reference
<i>Arcuatula</i> Jousseaume in Lamy (1919)	<i>Arcuatula arcuatula</i> (Hanley, 1843)	24	Ghobashy, Mona, Yasseen, and Desouky (1995) Ieyama (1977)
	<i>Arcuatula senhousia</i> (Benson, 1842)	30	
<i>Aulacomya</i> Mörch (1853)	<i>Aulacomya atra</i> (Molina, 1782)	26	Thiriote-Quévrevreux (1984a)
<i>Bathymodiolus</i> Kenk and Wilson (1985)	<i>Bathymodiolus azoricus</i> Cosel and Comtet (1999)	32	Dixon et al. (2010)
	<i>Bathymodiolus thermophilus</i> Kenk and Wilson (1985)	32	Dixon et al. (2010)
<i>Brachidontes</i> Swainson (1840)	<i>Brachidontes darwinianus</i> (d'Orbigny, 1842)	30	Introini, De Magalhaes, and Recco-Pimentel (2010) Ieyama et al. (1994) Vitturi et al. (2000) Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al. (2010) Torreiro, Martínez-Expósito, Trucco, and Pasantes (1999)
	<i>Brachidontes mutabilis</i> (Gould, 1861)	30	
	<i>Brachidontes pharaonis</i> (P. Fischer, 1870)	28	
	<i>Brachidontes puniceus</i> (Gmelin, 1791)	32	
	<i>Brachidontes rodriguezii</i> (d'Orbigny, 1842)	32	
<i>Choromytilus</i> Soot-Ryen (1952)	<i>Choromytilus chorus</i> (Molina, 1782)	30	Palma-Rojas, Guerra, Brown, and Von Brand (1997)
<i>Crenomytilus</i> Soot-Ryen (1955)	<i>Crenomytilus grayanus</i> (Dunker, 1853)	28	Ieyama (1984)
<i>Gregariella</i> Monterosato (1884)	<i>Gregariella difficilis</i> (Deshayes, 1863)	32	Ieyama (1984)
<i>Ischadium</i> Jukes-Browne (1905)	<i>Ischadium recurvum</i> (Rafinesque, 1820)	30	Diuportex-Chong, Rodríguez-Romero, Uribe-Alcocer, and Laguarda-Figueras (1978)
<i>Leiosolenus</i> Carpenter (1857)	<i>Leiosolenus lischkei</i> M. Huber (2010)	32	Ieyama (1984)
<i>Limnoperna</i> Rochebrune (1882)	<i>Limnoperna fortunei</i> (Dunker, 1857)	30	Ieyama et al. (1994)
<i>Modiolus</i> Lamarck (1799)	<i>Modiolus barbatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	32	Libertini, Boato, Panozzo, and Fogato (1996) Ieyama (1984)
	<i>Modiolus auriculatus</i> (Krauss, 1848)	32	
<i>Musculus</i> Röding (1798)	<i>Musculus cupreus</i> (A. A. Gould, 1861)	30	Ieyama (1984)
	<i>Musculus discors</i> (Linnaeus, 1767)	28	Ieyama (1984)
<i>Mytilaster</i> Monterosato (1884)	<i>Mytilaster lineatus</i> (Gmelin, 1791)	26	Libertini et al. (1996) Thiriote-Quévrevreux (2002) Libertini et al. (1996)
	<i>Mytilaster minimus</i> (Poli, 1795)	28	
	<i>Mytilaster solidus</i> Monterosato (1883)	28	
<i>Mytilisepta</i> Habe (1951)	<i>Mytilisepta keenae</i> (Nomura, 1936)	28	Ieyama (1983)
	<i>Mytilisepta virgata</i> (Wiegmann, 1837)	28	Ieyama (1983)
<i>Mytilus</i> Linnaeus (1758)	<i>Mytilus californianus</i> Conrad (1837)	28	Ahmed and Sparks (1970) Ahmed and Sparks (1970) Thiriote-Quévrevreux and Ayraud (1982) Thiriote-Quévrevreux (1984b) Insua, Labat, and Thiriote-Quévrevreux (1994) Ieyama (1984)
	<i>Mytilus edulis</i> Linnaeus (1758)	28	
	<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> Lamarck (1819)	28	
	<i>Mytilus platensis</i> d'Orbigny (1842)	28	
	<i>Mytilus trossulus</i> Gould (1850)	28	
	<i>Mytilus unguiculatus</i> Valenciennes (1858)	28	
<i>Perna</i> Philipsson (1788)	<i>Perna canaliculus</i> (Gmelin, 1791)	30	Libertini et al. (1996) Ahmed (1974) Ahmed (1974)
	<i>Perna perna</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	28	
	<i>Perna viridis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	30	
<i>Perumytilus</i> Olsson, 1961	<i>Perumytilus purpuratus</i> (Lamarck, 1819)	32	Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al. (2010)
<i>Septifer</i> Récluz, 1848	<i>Septifer bilocularis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	26	Ieyama (1983)
	<i>Septifer excisus</i> (Wiegmann, 1837)	26	Ieyama (1983)
<i>Xenostrobus</i> Wilson, 1967	<i>Xenostrobus atratus</i> (Lischke, 1871)	22	Ieyama (1977)
	<i>Xenostrobus securis</i> (Lamarck, 1819)	30	Pérez-García et al. (2011)

Nomenclature: World Register of Marine Species database.

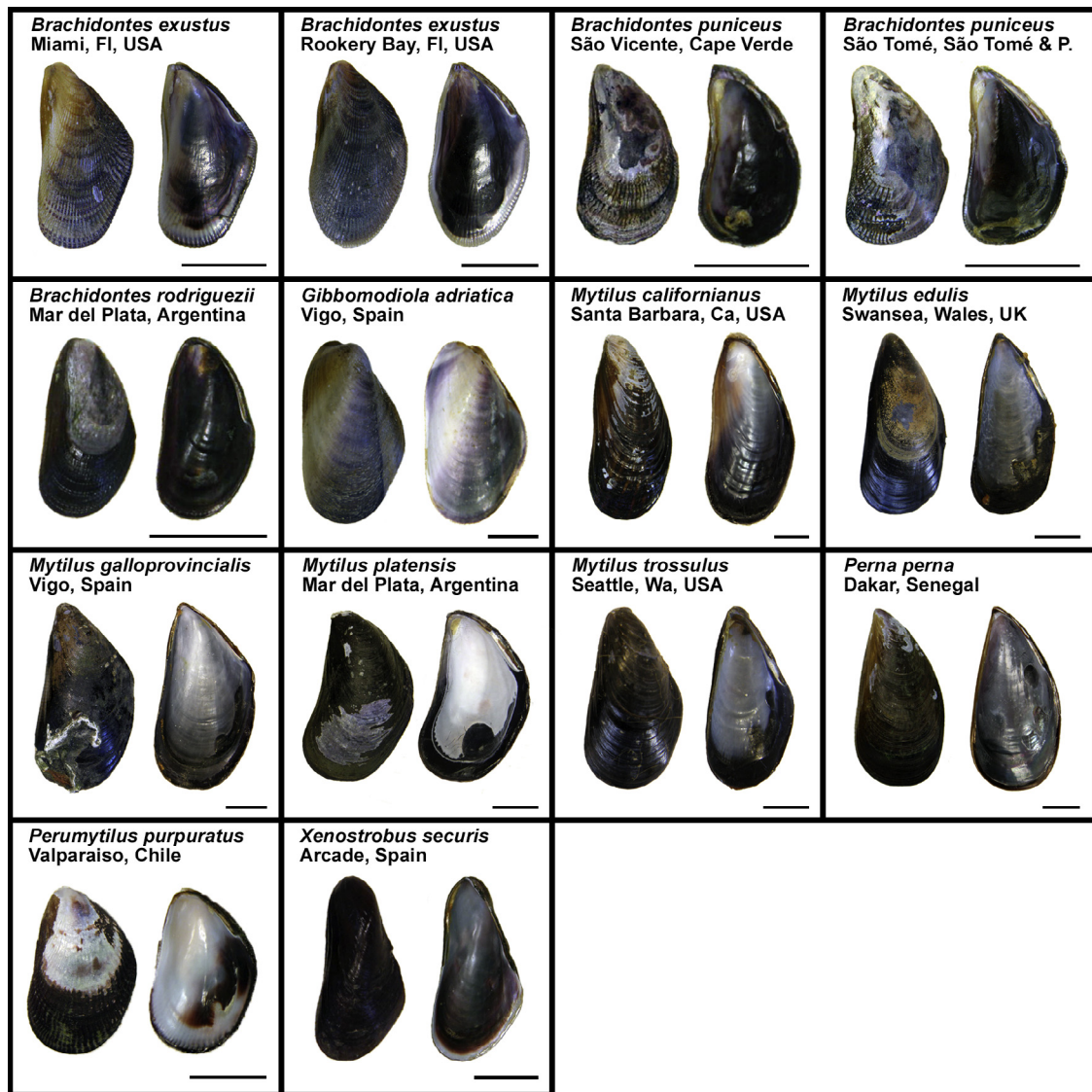


Fig. 1. External and internal shell morphologies of representative specimens of the 12 marine mussel taxa analyzed. Scale bars, 1 cm.

enabled the acquisition of separated images for each fluorochrome that were then merged using Adobe Photoshop. Chromosomes were measured (Micromesure 3.3, Reeves & Tear, 2000) and classified according to centromeric indices and relative lengths (Levan, Fredga, & Sandberg, 1964).

3. Results

3.1. Chromosome analysis

Representative marine mussel metaphase plates and karyotypes are presented in Fig. 2. In agreement with previous reports (Ahmed, 1974; Thiriou-Quévieux, 1984b), both *M. platensis* and *P. perna* showed diploid chromosome numbers of $2n = 28$. The chromosome complements of $2n = 30$ for *B. exustus* and $2n = 32$ for *G. adriatica* are described here for the first time. Karyotypes also showed clear differences in chromosome composition (Fig. 2). Whereas metacentric and submetacentric chromosome pairs were relatively abundant in *G. adriatica* (7 m, 2 sm, 5 st, 2 t/st), *M. platensis* (6 m, 8 sm/st) and *P. perna* (4 m, 7 sm, 3 st), in *B. exustus* (2 m, 13 st) they were much scarcer.

45S rDNA clusters, subterminal in the four taxa (Fig. 2, Table 2), mapped to a single locus in *G. adriatica* and *P. perna* and to two loci in *B. exustus* and *M. platensis*. In *B. exustus* one of the major rDNA clusters occupies the entirety of the short arms of a subtelocentric chromosome pair (11p). Regarding minor rDNA, *B. exustus* and *P. perna* showed 5S rDNA clusters intercalary to the long arms of two chromosome pairs (Fig. 2, Table 2). In contrast, *G. adriatica* presented five clusters on five chromosome pairs and *M. platensis* four clusters on three chromosome pairs. In both cases, in addition to intercalary signals, subterminal and subcentromeric ones were also present.

Even though H3 histone genes mapped to two loci in all four marine mussels, their chromosomal locations diverged (Fig. 2, Table 2), intercalary in *B. exustus*, intercalary and subterminal in *G. adriatica*, intercalary and subcentromeric in *P. perna* and subcentromeric and subterminal in *M. platensis*. The FISH mapping of the H1 histone genes only gave good results in two of the four species analyzed; the signals appeared at a single locus in *G. adriatica* and at two loci in *M. platensis*.

Double color FISH and rehybridization experiments, besides confirming the location of the signals, allowed detection of the presence of overlapping 45S rDNA and H3 histone gene signals in *G.*

Table 2
Collection localities, diploid chromosome numbers and chromosomal location of rDNA and histone gene clusters in the marine mussels studied

Species	Locality	2n	45S rDNA	5S rDNA	H3 histone genes	H1 histone genes	Reference
<i>Brachidontes exustus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Miami, FL, USA	30	11p (st)	4q ic (st)	1p ic (m)		This work
	Rookery Bay, FL, USA		14q ter (st)	5q ic (st)	5q ic (st)		
<i>Brachidontes puniceus</i> (Gmelin, 1791)	São Vicente, Cape Verde	32	15q ter (st)	4q ic (st)	6q ic (sm/st)		Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al. (2010)
	São Tomé, São Tomé & Príncipe			6q ic (sm/st)	10q ic (sm)		
<i>Brachidontes rodriguezii</i> (d'Orbigny, 1842)	Mar del Plata, Argentina	32	4p (t/st)	3q ic (st)	3q ic (st)		Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al. (2010)
			6p (t/st)	4q ic (t/st)	9q ic (st)		
<i>Gibbomodiola adriatica</i> (Lamarck, 1819)	Vigo, Galicia, Spain	32	2q ter (m)	4q ic (m)	2q ter (m)	10q cen (st)	This work
				12q ic (t) 13q ic (st) 15q ic (m) 16p cen (st)	14p ic (st)		
<i>Mytilus edulis</i> Linnaeus (1758)	Swansea, Wales, UK	28	4q ter (sm/st)	1p ter, 1p ic (m)	6p cen (m)	1p ter (m)	Pérez-García et al. (2014)
			10q ter (st/sm)	5q ic (m) 8p cen (m)	7q ter (st/sm)	12p ter (m)	
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> Lamarck (1819)	Baiona, Galicia, Spain	28	4q ter (sm/st)	1p ter, 1p ic (m)	6p cen (m)	1p ter (m)	Pérez-García et al. (2014)
			10q ter (sm)	5q ic (m) 8p cen (m)	7q ter (st)	12p ter (m)	
<i>Mytilus platensis</i> d'Orbigny (1842)	Mar del Plata, Argentina	28	4q ter (sm/st)	1p ter, 1p ic (m)	6p cen (m)	1p ter (m)	This work
			10q ter (sm)	5q ic (m) 8p cen (m)	7q ter (st/sm)	12p ter (m)	
<i>Mytilus trossulus</i> Gould (1850)	Seattle, WA, USA	28	4p ter (m)	1p ter, 1p ic (m)	5p cen (m)	1p ter (m)	Pérez-García et al. (2014)
			8p ter (sm) 11p ter (sm)	4q ic (m) 6p cen (m)	7q ic (sm)	12p ter (m)	
<i>Mytilus californianus</i> Conrad (1837)	Santa Barbara, CA, USA	28	2p ter (sm)	1p ter, 1q cen (sm)	4p cen (m)	1p ter (sm)	Pérez-García et al. (2014)
			13p ter (sm)		6q ter (st/sm)	12p ter (m)	
<i>Perna perna</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Dakar, Senegal	28	4p ter (sm)	5q ic (sm) 10q ic (st)	11p ic (m) 12q cen (st)		This work
<i>Perumytilus purpuratus</i> (Lamarck, 1819)	Valparaiso, Chile	32	4q ter (st)	4p ter, 4q cen (st)	8q cen (st/sm)		Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al. (2010)
			10q ter (st)	9q cen (st)			
<i>Xenostrobus securis</i> (Lamarck, 1819)	Vigo, Galicia, Spain	30	1p ic (m)	2p ic, 2q ic (sm)	7p cen (sm)	12q cen (sm)	Pérez-García et al. (2011)
			3p cen (m)	5q cen (sm) 6q cen (sm) 8p cen (m)	8q ter (m) 10p cen (m) 13q cen (sm)	14q cen (m/sm)	

p: short arm; q: long arm; cen: subcentromeric; ic: intercalary; ter: subterminal; (m): metacentric; (sm): submetacentric; (st): subtelocentric; (t): telocentric.

adriatica (2q) and 5S rDNA and H1 histone gene signals in *M. platensis* (1p); separated intercalary signals for 5S rDNA and H3 histone genes were present in the long arms of *B. exustus* chromosome pair 5. Fig. 3 summarizes chromosomal data for the species analyzed in this work together with those for the other eight marine mussel taxa previously studied in our lab (Pérez-García, Cambeiro et al., 2010; Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al., 2010; Pérez-García et al., 2011, 2014).

3.2. COI gene sequences

All partial COI gene sequences obtained (Table 3) were independently compared using BLAST with those stored in GenBank. The nucleotide sequences for 11 of the marine mussel taxa studied displayed a high degree of similarity (97–100%) with sequences retrieved from GenBank, mostly from mussels identified with the same specific names, therefore confirming their correct morpho-

logical and chromosomal identification. The only exception to this behavior were the sequences obtained from *Gibbomodiola adriatica*, for which the closest sequences only showed similarities of around 74% (Table 3).

We also retrieved COI gene sequences for each of the taxa from GenBank and compared them. Although most sequences grouped under the same species names were highly similar, some of them were clearly not, therefore indicating marine mussel specimen misidentifications.

COI sequences from *Brachidontes puniceus*, *B. rodriguezii* and *Perumytilus purpuratus* (Table 3) were intra-specifically similar both among them and with the corresponding sequences obtained in this work, therefore indicating that the taxonomic assignments of the specimens were correct. This was not the case for *B. exustus*, under which name were grouped rather different sequences; whilst some of them were coincident (99%) with those obtained in

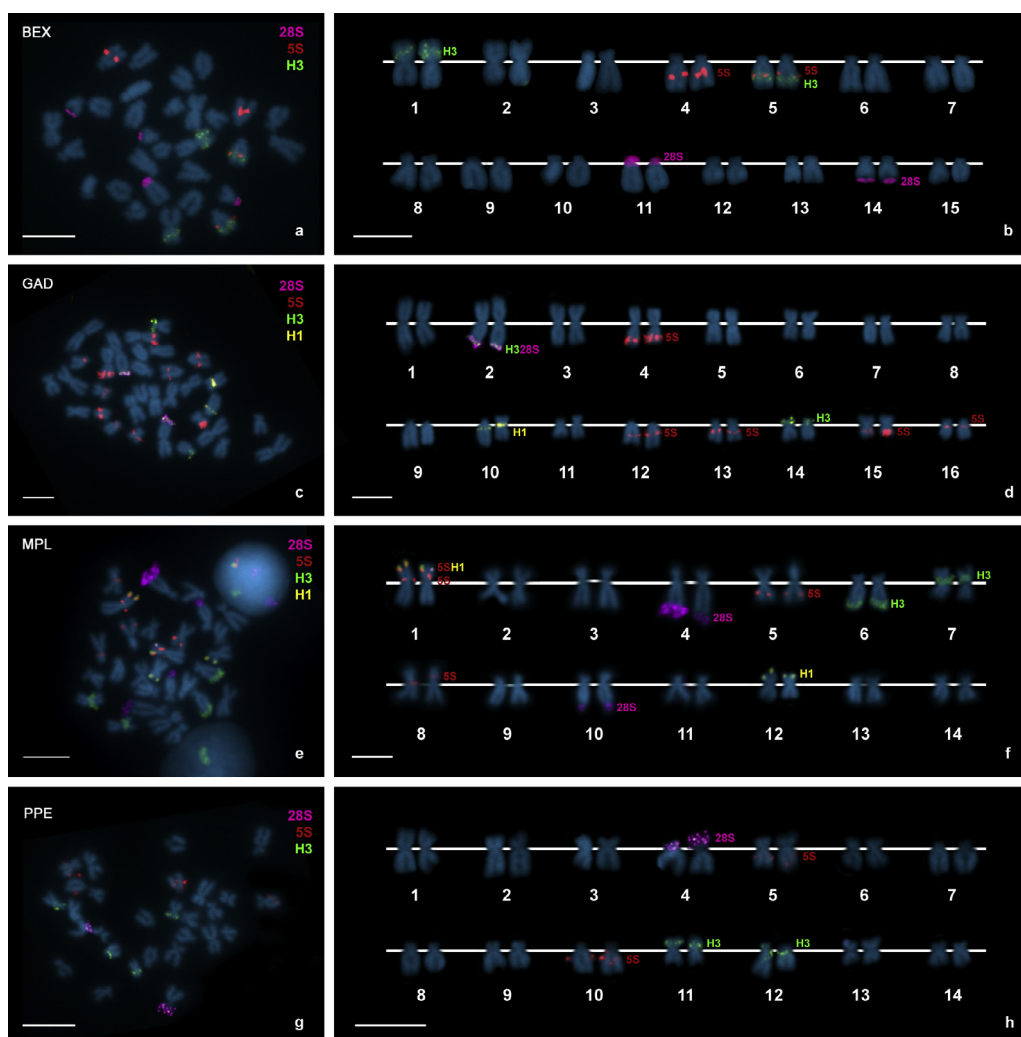


Fig. 2. FISH mapping of rDNA and histone gene probes to mitotic chromosomes of marine mussels counterstained with DAPI. Major rDNA (28S, purple) signals appear in a single chromosome pair in both *Gibbomodiola adriatica* (GAD) and *Perna perna* (PPE), and in two pairs in *Brachidontes exustus* (BEX) and *Mytilus platensis* (MPL). The number of minor rDNA (5S, red) clusters was two in BEX and PPE, four in three chromosome pairs in MPL and five in GAD. In contrast, the four marine mussel taxa show H3 histone gene signals (H3, green) on two chromosome pairs. H1 histone genes (H1, yellow) were only detected in two chromosome pairs in MPL and one chromosome pair in GAD. Overlapping signals were detected in GAD pair 2 (28S and H3) and in MPL pair 1 (5S and H1); besides, BEX pair 5 bears separated 5S rDNA and H3 histone gene signals. Scale bars, 5 μ m.

this work, the remaining ones seem to correspond to *B. puniceus* (Table 3) and *Geukensia demissa* (Combosh et al., 2017).

All retrieved *Mytilus* sequences and those obtained in this work were intra-specifically similar (Table 3).

Perna perna COI gene sequences (Table 3) were also congruent among them and with our sequences, which perfectly matched those belonging to specimens of an Atlantic lineage (Cunha et al., 2014). In contrast, the mitogenome stored in GenBank as *P. perna* contains a COI gene sequence showing, on the one hand, low identity (67%) with the other *P. perna* sequences and, on the other, an almost perfect coincidence (99%) with those coming from another marine mussel, *Mytilaster solisianus* (Trovant et al., 2016).

Xenostrobus securis COI gene sequences (Table 3) were also similar among them and with our sequences.

3.3. Phylogenetic analysis

The phylogeny of the species of marine mussels constructed from the mitochondrial COI gene dataset obtained in this work is shown in Fig. 4. ML analysis reveals two mitochondrial clades sister to *Crassostrea virginica*, one formed by two taxa, *Gibbomodi-*

ola adriatica and *Xenostrobus securis*, and the other by all the other species analyzed. In the latter clade the species of the genera *Mytilus* and *Perna* were clearly separated from the species of the genera *Perumytilus* and *Brachidontes*.

4. Discussion

4.1. Potential of chromosome analysis in marine mussel identification

The similar shell morphologies of many bivalves make their taxonomic identification complex (Huber, 2010, 2015). The introduction of non indigenous species in areas well outside their ranges of distribution further complicates the task and, as a consequence, specimen misidentifications increase. Though DNA barcoding was postulated as an alternative method in taxa identification (Hebert et al., 2003), in some cases DNA sequences are obtained from misidentified specimens, therefore boosting confusion and illustrating that further parameters have to be employed in species identification.

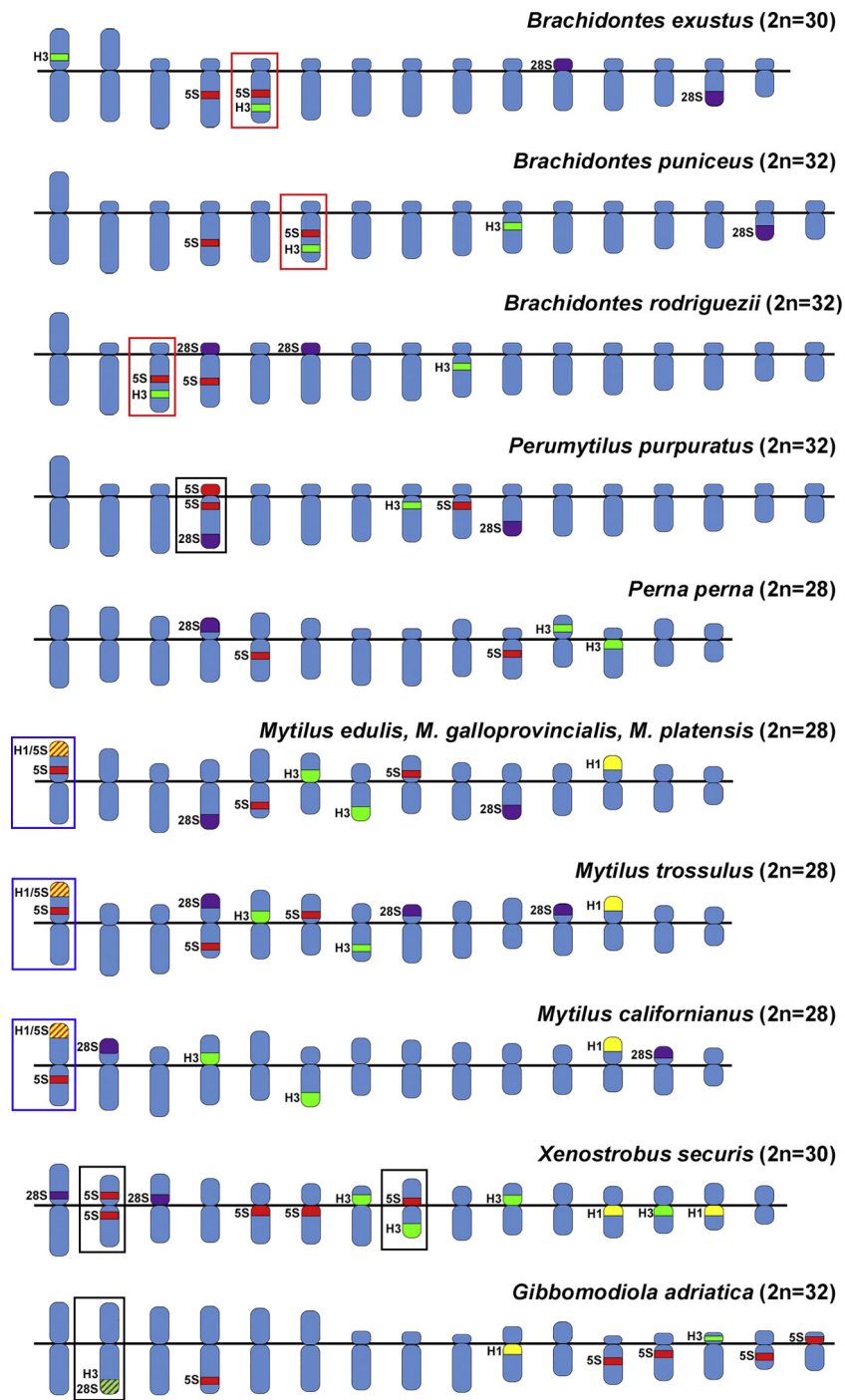


Fig. 3. Ideograms showing the chromosomal location of major rDNA (28S, magenta), 5S rDNA (5S, red), H3 histone gene (H3, green) and H1 histone gene (H1, yellow) clusters in twelve marine mussel taxa. Overlapping signals are represented as intercalated bars of the corresponding colors. Some of the chromosomes bearing different combinations of FISH signals are framed in different colors to highlight their conservation in the species of *Brachidontes* (red frames) and *Mytilus* (blue frames) and their differences with those present in *P. purpuratus*, *G. adriatica* and *X. securis* (black frames).

Although chromosome complements are characteristics of species and chromosome analysis can contribute to identify them, this kind of approach has been barely employed in marine mussels; to our knowledge, chromosome numbers have only been used as a taxonomic character in species of *Perna* (Ahmed, 1974; Holland, Gallagher, Hicks, & Davis, 1999). In spite of that, the demonstration that marine mussel species with identical diploid numbers and apparently similar karyotypes can show striking differences in the chromosomal distribution of rRNA and histone gene clusters (Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al., 2010; Pérez-García et al., 2014)

indicates that FISH karyotypes can be of great help in marine mussel identification. In that sense, the FISH mapping results presented here add significantly to what was previously known and further confirm the interest of FISH karyotypes as a taxonomic character in marine mussels.

In coincidence with *Brachidontes darwinianus* (Introini et al., 2004) and *B. mutabilis* (Ieyama, Kameoka, Tan, & Yamasaki, 1994) but differing from *B. pharaonis* (Vitturi, Gianguzza, Colomba, & Riggio, 2000), *B. puniceus* and *B. rodriguezii* (Pérez-García, Guerra-Varela, et al., 2010), *B. exustus* has a diploid chromosome number

Table 3
GenBank accession numbers of the COI gene sequences and highest sequence similarity (%) with sequences retrieved from GenBank.

Species	Accession numbers	Similarity	Accession numbers	Species	Reference
<i>Brachidontes exustus</i>	KY454042–KY454045	>99%	AY621861, AY621879	<i>Brachidontes exustus</i>	Lee and Ó Foighil (2005)
		99%	AY621901–AY621908	<i>Brachidontes exustus</i>	Lee and Ó Foighil (2005)
		99%	AY825204–AY825206	<i>Brachidontes exustus</i>	Lee and Ó Foighil (2005)
		99%	AY825139, AY825140	<i>Brachidontes exustus</i>	Lee and Ó Foighil (2005)
<i>Brachidontes puniceus</i>	KY454048–KY454051	>99%	HM999677, HM999676	<i>Brachidontes puniceus</i>	Cunha et al. (2011)
		>99%	AY825105–AY825108	<i>Brachidontes exustus</i>	Lee and Ó Foighil (2005)
<i>Brachidontes rodriguezii</i>	KY454052, KY454053	>99%	KT318192, KT318193	<i>Brachidontes rodriguezii</i>	Trovant et al. (2013)
<i>Gibbomodiola adriatica</i>	KY454028, KY454029	74%	KC509640	<i>Xenostrobus pulex</i>	Colgan and da Costa (2013)
		74%	KC509637	<i>Xenostrobus inconstans</i>	Colgan and da Costa (2013)
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	KY454032, KY454033	98%	AY484747	<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Boore, Medina, and Rosenberg (2004)
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	KY454038, KY454039	99%	NC.006886	<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Mizi, Zouros, Moschonas, and Rodakis (2005)
		99%	KP100301	<i>Mytilus edulis platensis</i>	Gaitán-Espitia, Quintero-Galvis, Mesas, and D'Elia (2016)
			KP100300	<i>Mytilus chilensis</i>	Gaitán-Espitia et al. (2016)
<i>Mytilus trossulus</i>	KY454040, KY454041	>99%	KF931877, KF932000	<i>Mytilus trossulus</i>	Crego-Prieto et al. (2015)
<i>Mytilus californianus</i>	KY454036, KY454037	99%	NC.015993	<i>Mytilus californianus</i>	Cao et al. (2009)
<i>Perna perna</i>	KY454030, KY454031	>99%	KC691986, KC691989	<i>Perna perna</i>	Cunha et al. (2014)
		67%	NC.026288.1 *	<i>Perna perna *</i>	Uliano-Silva et al. (2015)
<i>Perumytilus purpuratus</i>	KY454046, KY454047	98%	KJ453867, KJ453884	<i>Perumytilus purpuratus</i>	Trovant, Orensanz, Ruzzante, Stotz, and Basso (2015)
<i>Xenostrobus securis</i>	KY454026, KY454027	>96%	FJ949111, FJ949111	<i>Xenostrobus securis</i>	Pascual et al. (2010)
		>97%	KC509723–KC509726	<i>Xenostrobus securis</i>	Colgan and da Costa (2013)

Discrepant results appear in bold. * Identity 99% with KT318216–KT318257 ascribed to *Mytilaster (Brachidontes) solisianus* (Trovant et al., 2016).

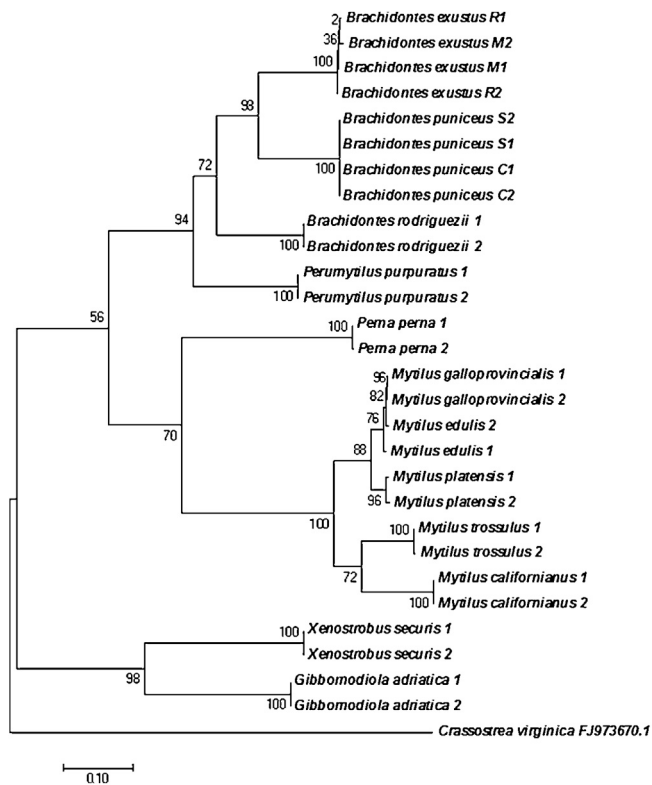


Fig. 4. Maximum likelihood tree based on mitochondrial COI gene sequences of the karyotyped marine mussels using the Eastern oyster *Crassostrea virginica* as out-group. Numbers in internal nodes indicate maximum-likelihood bootstrap support values (500 replicates).

of $2n = 30$. Although the karyotypes of *B. exustus*, *B. puniceus*, *B. rodriguezii* and *Perumytilus (Brachidontes) purpuratus* are roughly similar in morphology, they can be easily identified, and differentiated, on the basis of the distribution of rRNA and histone gene clusters on their chromosomes (Fig. 3). Taking this into account, chromosome analysis could shed light on the confused status of the *B. exustus* cryptic species complex (see below) in the western Atlantic (Lee & Ó Foighil, 2004, 2005).

The diploid chromosome number of $2n = 28$ confirmed here for *M. platensis* and *P. perna* has also been reported in 12 more species of marine mussels (Table 1). Confirming that closely related species do not always show detectable karyotypic differences, the chromosomal distribution of rDNA and histone genes in *M. platensis* is identical to that previously reported for both *M. edulis* and *M. galloprovincialis* (Pérez-García et al., 2014) but clearly differs from that of *M. trossulus*, *M. californianus* (Pérez-García et al., 2014) and *P. perna*. These results suggest that although the chromosomal distribution of these sequences cannot discriminate mussel species when they are closely related (see below), they will do for most of them.

Although the chromosome number of *Gibbomodiola adriatica* ($2n = 32$) is also common to another nine marine mussel species, the FISH mapping data obtained further suggests that FISH karyotypes could become an essential tool to unequivocally identify most marine mussel species.

4.2. Misidentified marine mussel COI gene sequences

One major criticism to the employ of DNA barcodes as a method of species taxonomic assignment is the possibility of specimen misidentifications and the consequent accumulation of erroneous sequences in DNA databases (i.e. Huber, 2015). Our results on marine mussel COI gene sequences indicate that whilst most sequences stored in GenBank are correctly assigned, some of them

are mistaken. The main errors were detected in *Perna perna* and *Brachidontes exustus*.

The COI gene sequences included in the whole mitogenome of *Perna perna* show low identity with all other *P. perna* sequences (Table 3), including ours, and are highly similar to those stored as *Mytilaster solisianus* (Trovant et al., 2016). The uncritical use of this erroneously assigned sequence led Uliano-Silva et al. (2015) to assume that the genus *Perna* is polyphyletic even if other published work on *Perna* phylogeny already demonstrated that this was not the case. Our results on karyotyped specimens confirm the correct assignment of the *P. perna* sequences used by Cunha et al. (2014).

The other mussel COI gene sequences seemingly erroneous were stored under the specific name *Brachidontes exustus*, a supposed species complex comprising of five (Lee & Ó Foighil, 2004) or four (Lee & Ó Foighil, 2005) cryptic species distributed in the western Atlantic (Caribbean Sea, Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic coast of Florida). Our results indicate that the situation is more complex and needs further analysis. The COI gene sequences and the karyotypes of *B. exustus* obtained in this work came from specimens collected both at the Atlantic (Miami) and the Gulf of Mexico (Rookery Bay) coasts of Florida. In spite of that, the karyotypes are identical and sequences highly similar and coincident with most of the western Atlantic sequences (*B. exustus* II, Atlantic clade in Lee & Ó Foighil, 2004, 2005) stored in GenBank. At the same time, other sequences (*B. exustus* III, Bahamas clade in Lee & Ó Foighil, 2004, 2005) coincide with those obtained from our karyotyped specimens of *B. puniceus*. Although much work is needed to wholly explain the real distribution of *B. exustus* in the western Atlantic, data showed in this work indicate that *B. puniceus* is also present in this area and that some specimens were mistakenly included into the presumed *B. exustus* species complex. Other sequences also assigned to *B. exustus* (Lee & Ó Foighil, 2004, 2005) show, on the one hand, low identity with both those in Cunha et al. (2011) and ours and, on the other, high similarity with those stored under the specific name *Geukensia demissa* (Combosch et al., 2017), therefore pointing to misidentification.

The validity of the marine mussel identification approach used in this work is reinforced by the phylogenetic tree obtained after using the COI gene sequences of twelve karyotyped marine mussel species, highly coherent with most proposed phylogenies for the family Mytilidae.

In conclusion, the results obtained in this work clearly indicate that the combined use of morphological, chromosomal and molecular characteristics in the identification of marine mussels can be a good approach for reducing misidentification when working with presumably invasive and/or cryptic species of Mytilidae.

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