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RESEARCH ARTICLE



Contrasting feeding habits of post-larval and adult Astyanax cavefish

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Abstract

The subterranean environment is often described as "extreme" and food poor. Laboratory experiments have shown that blind Mexican tetra *Astyanax mexicanus* (De Filippi, 1853) cavefish are better at finding food in the dark than surface fish. Several morphological and behavioural attributes that could foster this obvious adaptive response to cave environments have been described. Nonetheless, it is currently unknown what young cavefish actually eat in their natural cave environment. Our results from the Pachón cave in México during the dry and rainy season show that fry are efficient predators in their natural cave environment. Their primary food item is aquatic crustaceans. The guts of post-larval, pre-juvenile stage individuals (n=9) contained an average of 17.9 water fleas (Cladocera), copepods, ostracods, and isopods. Thus, the fry in this cave are well-fed. The Pachón cave environment does not appear to be "food poor" for juvenile cavefish. Food regimes change between post-larval and adult stages to become more dependent on partially decomposed material, guano, or detritus from the mud. We discuss the data with regards to our current developmental and genetic understanding of cavefish morphological and behavioural evolution, particularly regarding its enhanced Vibration Attraction Behaviour (VAB).

Keywords

Predation, gut contents, troglomorphy, VAB, neuromast

Introduction

The blind Mexican tetra *Astyanax mexicanus* (De Filippi, 1853) has become a wellestablished model system in evolutionary developmental biology (EvoDevo). This species has been the main contributor in the understanding of the genetic and developmental controls of troglomorphic features. There are over 30 known caves harbouring *Astyanax* cavefish populations in México (Mitchell et al. 1977; Espinasa et al. 2001). Their conspecific surface-dwelling morph lives in nearby surface streams throughout most of México. The eyed and pigmented surface morph and the eyeless, depigmented cave morph are inter-fertile, making the species well-suited for experimental manipulations (Jeffery 2012; Elipot et al. 2014).

Literature often states that the cave morph is more efficient at finding food in darkness. Multiple morphological and behavioural attributes have been described to support this statement, such as a higher number of taste buds (Yamamoto et al. 2009; Varatharasan et al. 2009), higher chemosensory capabilities (Protas et al. 2008; Bibliowicz et al. 2013; Hinaux et al. 2016), an enhanced number of cranial neuromasts (Yoshizawa et al. 2012), modulation in early developmental signalling pathways influencing brain development and organization (Yamamoto et al. 2004; Pottin et al. 2011), and a behaviourally more efficient posture with respect to the substrate when bottom feeding (Schemmel 1980).

Increased efficiency in food finding has been supported by five controlled observations or experiments in which cavefish directly outcompeted surface fish for a limited amount of food. Three of these observations were in adult fish (Hüppop 1987; Yoshizawa et al. 2010; Wilkens and Hüppop 1986), and two supported that the enhanced skills were already in place as early as 25 days after birth (Espinasa et al. 2014; Hinaux et al. 2016). For example, Hüppop (1987) showed that under competitive conditions, cavefish found about 80% of all pieces of beef-heart muscle provided in the dark whereas the epigean fish were successful at finding only 20%. This suggests enhanced smell and chemical detection in cavefish. Direct measurements of the size of the olfactory pits have shown that eyeless cavefish have a wider olfactory pit than eyed surface fish. The width of the olfactory pit is on average 12.9% larger due to the eyedependent developmental processes (Yamamoto et al. 2003; Hinaux et al. 2016). An enlarged olfactory pit could result in an enhanced sense of smell, which could directly correlate with the feeding skills of eyeless fish (Bibliowicz et al. 2013). Indeed, 30 dayold juvenile cavefish were recently shown to have outstanding olfactory capabilities at a magnitude 105 higher than surface fish for food-related amino-acid odorant cues (Hinaux et al. 2016).

In two studies (Yoshizawa 2010; Espinasa et al. 2014), food finding efficiency was tested using competition assays where fish had to capture live *Artemia* larvae (nauplii). The results suggest that both adult and young *Astyanax* have enhanced abilities for prey capture. For example, in the Espinasa et al. (2014) study, 25 day-old cavefish and surface fish raised under light/dark conditions were paired to compete for *Artemia* nauplii in the dark. On average, cavefish captured more *Artemia* than surface fish in each

paired match. Both studies suggest that other complex skills, apart from smell, may be enhanced in cavefish to allow for efficient predation.

Small crustaceans such as copepods disturb the water at 30–40 Hz when swimming (Montgomery and Macdonald 1987). Vibration attraction behaviour (VAB) is the ability of fish to swim toward the source of such vibrations and has been shown to be advantageous for *Artemia* feeding competition assays in the dark by adult cavefish (Yoshizawa et al. 2010). In cavefish, the detection range of the superficial neuromasts in the lateral line system is tuned to 35 Hz (Yoshizawa et al. 2010). The cupulae of cavefish superficial neuromasts are about 300 μ m in length compared to about 42 μ m in surface fish (Teyke 1990). Neuromasts within the eye orbit and in the suborbital region are about twice as sensitive in young adult cavefish as in surface fish (Yoshizawa et al. 2014). VAB is typically seen in cavefish, but rarely in surface fish. While in the laboratory VAB is not statistically evident before cavefish reach three months of age (Yoshizawa et al. 2010), results by Espinasa et al. (2014) suggest it is possible that some of the physiological bases behind the behaviour are active in young fish.

While it is evident that *Astyanax* have undergone significant modifications in feeding skills, the actual food sources of *Astyanax* remain unclear in their natural cave environment. Some authors have mentioned that their food consists almost completely of bat guano rather than live and mobile organisms (Kasumyan and Marusov 2015; Wilkens 1972; Mitchell et al. 1977; Hüppop 1987). If this was the case, it would be difficult to explain the selective value of VAB found in multiple cave populations. The purpose of this study is to assess the actual food source of *Astyanax* cavefish. Stomach and intestine contents were analysed from nine fry and five adults captured during both dry and rainy seasons from the Pachón cave, which is where the most commonly studied population of *Astyanax* lives.

Methods

Specimens

Six *Astyanax mexicanus* cavefish fry and two adults were collected in Pachón cave, Tamaulipas, Mexico during the dry season (3/21/2016) and three fry and three adults during the rainy season (8/5/2016). Collecting permit # SGPA/DGVS/02438/16 from Secretaría del Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales, México, was issued to Patricia Ornelas García. Sample size was kept to the minimum to achieve the goals of the study. Currently the cave morph of *A. mexicanus* is in the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. A larger sample size was not required as ranges of prey consumed between fry and adults did not overlap, variability was comparatively low, and statistical significance (Mann-Whitney U test) could be achieved with a small sample size that pose no threat to its for conservation.

Specimens were sacrificed in the field immediately after collection and deposited in 100% ethanol to prevent further digestion of gut contents. Photographs were taken on the field with a Canon EOS100 camera.

Gut contents

Specimens fixed in the field were brought to the laboratory and dissected with the aid of a Motic-K series stereomicroscope, scalpel, scissors, and dissection needles. Stomach and intestines were dissected and analysed separately to differentiate recently ingested food from the older, more degraded and digested food. All gut contents were examined in detail with 4× to 50× magnification on a Motic-K series stereomicroscope and separated into: 1) complete or partial organisms whose identity could be established at least to the taxonomic level of class, 2) fragments of organisms whose taxonomic identity were unclear, and 3) glop substance or "gunk" without identifiable structures. Percentage of the composition of each class of gut content was then estimated by distributing all contents on a petri dish to create a compact, uniform, flat layer of food content in which each class of content was separated. Then the area and volume covered by each group would be compared to obtain a percentage estimate of total volume of food content within each item. To obtain images of the gut contents, multiple pictures focused in different depth planes were photographed under an optic microscope. The Zerene Stacker focus stacking software was then used to obtain single images where the entire subject is in focus.

Results

Discovery of juvenile fish in the Pachón cave

The main pool containing *Astyanax* cavefish is at the south-eastern end of the Pachón cave. About ten meters before it, there is a small and narrow passage on the right hand side which, during the rainy season, may have a small stream that flows into the main pool. During the dry season, the side gallery only has a couple of isolated ~2 m long pools (Fig. 1). These small pools are where the fry specimens were collected, sacrificed immediately after collection and deposited in 100% ethanol so as to prevent further digestion of gut contents. At both dates of collection (March and August 2016), the estimated density of adult and fry fish in these pools was one fish for every four to five litres. Fish in these smaller pools were at much higher densities (at least 20×, but the exact number was not quantified in the field) than in the main pool. This was probably due to being stranded and concentrated as the dry season reduced the area of these pools. In the main pool, adult fish were present, but no fry were evident.

Fry were very abundant in March, but scarce in August, when only five fry were counted. The total lengths of the fry collected in March were 1.5, 1.7, 1.7, 1.8, 1.9 and 2 cm (Fig. 2A and C) and the samples collected in August were 1.0, 1.7 and 1.7 cm. The captured Pachón fry had no scales, transparent jaws and bodies, larval-like jaws and body shapes, and incompletely regressed eyes (Figs 2A and 3A). They had 6 to 9 rays on their dorsal fins (definitive number: 11), 18 to 21 rays on their anal fins (definitive number: 20–21), and their adipose fin showed non mature aspect and size



Figure 1. Pachón cave map (from NNS News, September 2003, p255.). Adult fish were found in the main pool (Right arrow). Adult fish and post-larval fish were found in small pools in a side gallery (Left arrow).

(see Hinaux et al. 2011). These morphological criteria correspond to post-larval stages. Fry of this size that were raised in the laboratory and fed under optimum conditions would be about 2.5 months old (Fig. 2B). However, in natural conditions, fish growth is probably much slower and we estimate that the captured specimens must be older than 2.5 months.

The pools were also inhabited by the Mysid shrimp, *Speleomysis quinterensis* Villalobos, 1951 (Crustacea, Mysidacea) and by the Isopod, *Speocirolana pelaezi* Bolivar, 1950 (Crustacea, Isopoda), respectively 3 cm and 1 cm long (Fig. 2D and E). Observations on-site in March also detected the presence of what were, presumably, copepods or water fleas. When the bottom of the substrate was gently disturbed with a finger, an average of one of these microscopic crustaceans every 4 cm2 was seen fleeing.

Stomach contents of post-larval fish in the Pachón cave

All fry appeared to be well-fed and had an abundance of food items in their stomachs and intestines (Fig. 3C). On average, fry had 17.9 readily identified food items in their guts, with a minimum of 5 and a maximum of 51 (Tables 1 and 2). Most identified



Figure 2. Size and estimated age of the fry captured in the Pachón cave. **A** Live Pachón fry photographed in a small fish aquarium, in the cave **B** Size/age relationship for lab-raised Pachón individuals with a linear regression curve. Data were collected in Rétaux's lab from larvae, post-larvae and juvenile grown as described in Elipot et al. (2014), and which were fed twice a day with live *Artemia, ad libitum* **C** Photograph of a specimen swimming in the natural pool. Note the muddy/sandy substrate and the low water level **D**, **E** Photographs of live arthropod specimens cohabiting with *Astyanax* fry.

Food item	Fry # 1	Fry # 2	Fry # 3	Fry # 4	Fry # 5	Fry # 6	Average
Cladocera Water fleas (A–C)	7	3	14	8	17	34	13.83
Harpacticoida copepod (D)	3	7	11	1	4	11	6.16
Ostracod (G)	0	4	0	0	2	4	5.5
Unidentified arthropods (I)	0	0	1	1	1	0	0.5
Copepod (E)	0	1	0	0	1	0	.33
Copepod (F)	0	0	1	0	0	0	0.16
Isopod (H)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.16
Nematode	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.16

Table 1. Items of food found in the guts of Astyanax fry (1.5-2 cm) collected in the dry season.



Figure 3. Digestive system of an *Astyanax* fry. **A** A live specimen photographed in the Pachón cave. Note the healthy-looking appearance of this juvenile, the two parts of the inflated swim bladder, the almost completely degenerated eye, and the digestive system filled with food. Scale bar as in B. **B** Body, with the digestive system exposed **C** Stomach and intestine. Notice that the food content can be seen through the translucent walls. All fish studied were well fed and their guts were full of food.



Figure 4. Gut contents of Pachón cave fry. **A–C** Cladocera Water fleas. This species constituted by number the most encountered prey. On average, fry had in their guts 9.3 individuals of this species **D** Harpacticoida copepod. Arrow highlights the short antennae diagnostic of class Harpacticoida. This species constituted by number the second most encountered prey. On average, fry had in their guts 4.7 individuals of this species **E–F** Copepods. Arrow highlights the long antennae diagnostic of non-harpacticoida copepods **G** Ostracod. This and possibly two more species of ostracods were in their guts **H** Isopod. While only one specimen was eaten, due to its large size it constitutes a large stomach content by volume **I** Sclerites of arthropods, possibly of insects. Contrary to all of the above, they have pigment, suggesting that some may be surface insects. Some may be a by-product of eating guano from insectivorous bats.

Food item	Fry # 7	Fry # 8	Fry # 9	Average
Cladocera Water fleas (A-C)	0	1	0	0.33
Harpacticoida copepod (D)	0	5	0	1.66
Ostracod (G)	0	0	1	0.33
Unidentified arthropods (I)	1	1	2	1.33
Copepod (E)	9	1	0	3.33
Copepod (F)	0	0	2	0.66
Isopod (H)	0	0	0	0
Nematode	0	0	0	0

Table 2. Items of food found in the guts of Astyanax fry (1-1.7 cm) collected in the rainy season.

items belonged to arthropods, and in particular, to microscopic crustaceans. Gut items belonged to water fleas Cladocera (Fig. 4A–C), at least three species of copepods (Fig. 4D–F) with at least one species belonging to the Harpacticoida order (Fig. 4D), at least two species of ostracods (Fig. 4G), one isopod (Fig. 4H), one nematode, and several fragments of chitin most likely originating from the exoskeleton of insects (Fig. 4I).

By far the most common food item was the water flea (Fig. 4A–C). On average, each fry had 9.3 individuals of this species in their stomach and intestine, with one fry containing at least 34. They constitute 52.1% of the identifiable items ingested. This was followed by the Harpacticoida copepods (Fig. 4D), of which each fry had an average of 4.7 specimens in their gut, constituting 26.1% of the identified food items. When crustaceans were found in the stomach instead of the intestine, they were complete with well-preserved internal organs. This suggests that they had been ingested alive rather than as partially decomposed cadavers, thus supporting that the fry had hunted and swallowed live prey. When excluding the possibly parasitic nematode and the seven stools with unidentified arthropods sclerites that may have been ingested by scavenging cadavers or as part of the contents of bat guano, 95% of the gut content items that were identified were most likely hunted as live prey.

By volume of stomach contents (excluding intestine contents where prey may have already been digested into gunk), the identifiable crustaceans constituted 60.6% of the total (Non-harpacticoida copepods 26.6%, Isopods 15%%, water fleas and ostracods 9.5%, and the Harpacticoida copepods 9.5%). Another 29.2% consisted of unidentifiable fragments of arthropods, and the remaining 10.2% was gunk (Table 3). When the volume of items was analyzed from the intestine, where digestion and degradation had further progressed, the proportional total volume of gunk increased to 26.1% at the expense of the other items.

Stomach contents of adult fish in the Pachón cave

Six adult fish were captured in the main pool of the Pachón cave. Two adults (standard length: 3.6 and 4.1cm) were collected in March in addition to three adults (3.7, 4.1 and 4.6 cm) in August. Gut contents of adult fish were drastically different from post-larval fish. At least in these five specimens, we did not find body parts that suggest predation of either the microscopic crustaceans, or the macroscopic Mysid shrimp, *Speleomysis quinterensis* or the isopod, *Speocirolana pelaezi* that cohabitate with *Astyanax* in Pachón cave. There were only two items in the guts of two specimens that suggest predation of a live prey; a single fly and a single beetle (Fig. 5E–F). The bodies of these arthropods were entire and thus were likely eaten while still alive. By volume of stomach and intestine contents, these prey constituted only 15% and 6% respectively. The rest of the gut contents in these five adult individuals were consistent with a diet primarily comprised of partially decomposed material, guano, or detritus from the mud (Fig. 5 and Table 4). The most abundant stomach content was gunk primarily composed of arthropod sclerites (20%), which could be derived from the guano of

	Unidentified arthropods (I)	Isopod (H)	Cladocera Ostracods (A–C, G)	Harpacticoid copepod (D)	Copepod (E-F)	Gunk	Nematode
Stomach March	43.75%	22.50%	12.50%	8.75%	6.25%	6.25%	0%
Intestine March	19.25%	0%	31.25%	17.5%	0%	30.75%	1.25%
Stomach August	0%	0%	3.6%	10.9%	67.3%	18.2%	0%
Intestine August	52.2%	0%	11.0%	6.7%	13.4%	16.7%	0%

Table 3. Stomach and intestine contents by volume in *Astyanax* fry (1–2 cm).

Table 4. Stomach (bold) and intestine (non-bold) contents by volume in adult Astyanax (3.6–4.6 cm).

Food item	Adult # 1	Adult # 2	Adult # 3	Adult # 4	Adult # 5	Average
Else an handla	-	-	-	75%	-	15%
Fly of beetle	-	-	-	-	30%	6%
$C_{\rm resplication} = (A, C)$	-	-	-	-	100%	20%
Gunk with sciences (A-C)	-	50%	-	25%	70%	29%
Black gunk (D)	40%	-	-	-	-	8%
	-	-	5%	-	-	2%
White gunk (G)	60%	-	-	-	-	12%
	60%	50%	90%	-	-	40%
V-II I. (I)	-	-		-	-	0%
reliow gunk (I)	35%	-	-	-	-	9%
Mal	-	-	-	25%	-	5%
Mud	5%	-	5%	75%	-	16%

insectivorous bats. Also, in the stomach there was an estimated 13% of soil detritus (8% of black gunk and 5% of mud).

All fry and adult fish had items in their intestines. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that while all nine fry had at least some food items in their stomach, two out of five adult fish had an empty stomach.

Discussion

Our results show that post-larval fry from Pachón cave appear to be well-fed and are efficient predators. This is evident in the guts of the nine individuals that contained an average of 17 specimens of microscopic crustaceans. Our results show that arthropods are the main source of nourishment for 1-2 cm long *Astyanax* fry in Pachón cave, with 89.8% of their stomach contents being readily identifiable arthropods. Data suggests that they are active hunters of aquatic water fleas, ostracod, copepod and isopod crustaceans, which constitute 60.6% of the total food volume found in their stomachs. Only 10.2% of the stomach content by volume belonged to the type of unidentifiable gunk in fry. It is likely



Figure 5. Gut content of adult Pachón cave fish. **A** White, orange, and black "gunk" of undetermined origin **B** Hair-like filaments in stomach contents **C** Unidentified pigmented arthropod sclerites, possibly of surface insects or by-product of eating guano. **D** Mud **E** Fly **F** Beetle.

that during this stage, for the Pachón cave population and perhaps other cave populations, arthropods constitute most of their nourishment through active predation.

While all fry specimens were well-fed with their guts containing considerable amount of contents, it appears that those specimens collected during the dry season (March) were proportionally better-fed than those collected in the rainy season (August). The first had an average of 23 readily identified food items in their guts, while the second had an average of 7.7 readily identified items. It is also noteworthy that the gunk content found in the stomach increased from 6.2% to 18.2% in the rainy season. While intestine gunk may represent digested prey, stomach gunk is likely to be indicative of the fish eating guano, decomposed detritus, or mud. It may be that during the rainy season, fry had less live prey available for sustenance and relied on other nourishing items to supplement their consumption. An example supporting this idea is that in one fry, a pellet of stool gunk was largely comprised of insect scales, most likely from guano droppings originating from a bat that ate moths.

It may seem counterintuitive that there are more stomach contents in the fry during the dry season than the rainy season. One would expect that more food items become available during the wet season. Our experimental protocol was not designed to provide an explanation and we can only report observed results. Future studies will document ecological parameters as well as environmental conditions throughout a full year. Nonetheless, while the idea of seasonal flooding bringing items into the caves is an appealing one, one should remember that each cave is a unique case. Pachón cave does not have a stream flowing into it during the rainy season, nor does it experience flash flooding in ways similar to Rio Subterraneo, Tinaja, Sabinos or other caves. Pachón cave has a sump pool where more or less filtrated water trickles in. Water level of the pool increases or decreases, without the influx of large debris being flushed in flash floods. One of the many possibilities is that microscopic crustaceans that come from the epikarst are actually diluted during the rainy season. Only future longitudinal studies will be able to resolve this conundrum.

There is a plethora of literature on *Astyanax* cavefish discussing the adaptations that allow them to be very skilful at locating nourishment in an environment where food is often scarce (Espinasa et al. 2014; Rétaux and Elipot 2013; Soares and Niemiller 2013; Yoshizawa 2015). Our results confirm that they are indeed excellent hunters, but suggest that, at least in this cave and for this particular stage in their ontogeny, food is not that limiting.

There are very few published materials regarding what *Astyanax* cavefish actually eat in their natural environment. To our knowledge, this has been restricted to adult fish. Wilkens and Burns (1972) studied the gut content of 17 specimens from Río Subterraneo cave in the Micos area, whose total length varied from 3-10 cm. Their stomachs and intestines were filled with a brown substance, which was interpreted as guano from insectivorous bats that cover the floor in parts of this cave. Examination of this brown substance showed that it was mostly fragments of chitin originating from the exoskeleton of insects and considerable amounts of scales from wings of nocturnal Lepidoptera. Some large specimens of the Micos fish also contained partly digested fish bodies, suggesting cannibalism or carrion feeding on their conspecifics. In the five Pachón adults we examined, their gut contents were also primarily gunk. Identifiable structures were also pigmented chitin fragments originating from the exoskeleton of arthropods that inhabit the cave or as part of the guano of bats. Contrary to the post-larval fish where they averaged 17 ingested preys, the five adult specimens did not exhibit evidence for active hunting of crustaceans, and only showed the consumption of a single fly and a single beetle, leading to an average of 0.4 prey ingested per individual.

Some authors have suggested that *Astyanax* food consists almost completely of bat guano rather than live and mobile organisms (Kasumyan and Marusov 2015). It is unlikely that bat guano is the primary food item throughout their development and across the entire range of cave *Astyanax*. Firstly, the large interconnecting underground system that makes the habitat of cave *Astyanax* (Espinasa and Espinasa 2015) is composed of thousands of kilometres of underground passages that are beyond the reach of bats. While cave biologists studying the over 30 described localities of cave *Astyanax* often encounter bats, both human and bat advancement into the cave is stopped by sumps that fish can swim through. The largest proportion of the *Astyanax* populations undoubtedly inhabits the unreachable, larger sections of the underground system beyond these sumps. Fish in these sections must find nourishment from sources other than bat droppings.

A second reason to doubt that bat guano is their single source for nourishment is based on the presence of other non-smell detecting adaptations that are fine-tuned for locating live prey, including VAB. As mentioned before, many crustaceans in the water column produce 30-40 Hz water fluctuations while swimming (Lang 1980). Most Pachón fish have VAB, while most surface fish lack it. Even in the surface fish that have VAB, the ability to "tune-in" to certain vibration frequencies is absent and they have a broad response range from 5-50 Hz. By contrast, cavefish have a significant peak at 35 Hz brought by changes in the morphology and number of superficial neuromasts within the orbit of the degenerated eye (Yoshizawa 2015). QTL analyses have shown multiple genomic loci for VAB, superficial neuromast number at the eye orbit, and eye size. Importantly, the QTL for all three traits overlap each other in two regions of the *Astyanax* genome (Yoshizawa 2015).

We do not argue that guano is not a source of food. The five adult specimens examined from Pachón cave, anecdotal comments by colleagues, and our own personal unpublished observations of gut contents from other caves suggest that many El Abra populations have gut contents composed of gunk suggestive of eating guano or detritus from the mud. *Astyanax*, like many other cave adapted organisms, is probably a generalist and an opportunist. It is likely that its source of nourishment varies greatly not only between caves, but also throughout its ontogeny. Such is the case for surface *Astyanax*. A surface population studied by Wolff et al. (2009) showed that in fish of less than 5 cm standard length, 75.8% of their diet by volume was made of animal items. In 5.1 to 7.5 cm long fish, animal content decreased to 28.6%, and when longer than 7.6 cm, its animal derived diet was reduced to 20.7% to the increase of plant items.

Here, we also found that the food regime in Pachón cave *Astyanax* varies greatly between post-larval 1-2cm long individuals and ~4cm long adults. This may occur in other *Astyanax* cave populations as well. Young fish are highly dependent on their hunting skills and their food is significantly made of nourishing sources such as micro-

scopic crustaceans. As they get older and larger, these microscopic animals become a less effective source of food. They then change their diet to more abundant but perhaps less nourishing sources like guano or mud detritus, as well as the opportunistic insect or carcass that may fall in or brought in during the rainy season. The idea that there is a change in the cavefish's diet that reduces their dependence for hunting live prey is supported by the observation that in large, mature adult cavefish (> 6 cm long), superficial neuromasts showed reduced sensitivities compared to those in smaller, younger adults (< 4 cm long), corresponding to a significantly attenuated VAB in large Pachón cavefish (Yoshizawa 2015).

Conclusions

Fry had an average of 17 (+/- 14.5 StDev; Range=3-50) prey in their guts while adults had an average of 0.4 (+/- 0.5 StDev; Range=0-1) prey, which is significantly different (P=.001). In conclusion, our results suggest that at a young stage when the yolk has been depleted and young larvae must find food for themselves, Astyanax cavefish's enhanced skills for prey capture become the primary means for obtaining nourishment. Close to 90% of their food items may derive from arthropods and at least 60.6% by volume are the likely product of active hunting of microscopic crustaceans. These enhanced hunting skills in fry are probably essential for the survival within the cave environment. These skills may be modulated by the enhancement of superficial neuromast activity. Other options may be possible, such as the enhancement of mechanosensors, chemical sensors, or performance of the brain, to name a few. Astyanax diet changes with age, probably as microscopic crustaceans are no longer adequate for larger specimens. Adult cavefish probably feed on a variety of stationary and moving items in cave pools that may progressively rely less on VAB. Stationary objects located at the bottom of cave pools, such as particles of detritus, washed-in cadavers, or bat guano, could be more efficiently detected using olfactory cues and an enlarged olfactory pit.

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CHECKLIST



A checklist of subterranean arthropods of Iran

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Abstract

Understanding subterranean biodiversity is important, yet vast regions of the world remain poorly explored. Here, we provide the first step towards cataloguing the subterranean arthropods of Iran. After review and analysis of the available literature and the examination of samples collected by us from Iranian caves, we listed 89 cavernicolous species (from 42 caves and 5 karstic springs) belonging to four arthropod subphyla: Chelicerata (1 class, 4 orders, 36 species), Crustacea (2 classes, 3 orders, 15 species), Hexapoda (2 classes, 5 orders, 34 species) and Myriapoda (2 classes, 3 orders, 4 species).

Keywords

Cave, fauna, Middle East, Zagros, troglofauna

Introduction

Although relatively poorly studied in comparison with the epigean ecosystems, subterranean ecosystems show a rather high biodiversity at the global scale. Globally, over 7000 aquatic subterranean dwellers have been catalogued (Botosaneanu 1986), but unfortunately, such data are not available for the terrestrial subterranean fauna. It is likely that subterranean habitats harbor even larger numbers of terrestrial species, e.g. Coleoptera alone includes more than 1927 underground-limited species (Gibert and Deharveng 2002, Juberthie and Decu 1998). Culver and Holsinger (1992) proposed a potential biodiversity of about 50,000 to 100,000 obligate terrestrial subterranean species on the basis of nested regional estimates.

In spite of more than a century of taxonomic and biogeographic studies, large-scale patterns of diversity of the obligate cave-dwelling fauna have remained obscure. The two major apparent determinants of biodiversity for the subterranean terrestrial fauna, i.e. productivity and habitat availability, are the same as for many other faunas (Hawkins et al. 2003, Turner and Hawkins 2004). Culver et al. (2003) hypothesized a connection between surface productivity and the amount of food available in caves: in nearly all caves, there is no significant chemoautotrophy so that all available food results from the surface productivity. Hotspots are most commonly referred to as areas of high biodiversity, followed by areas of high productivity(Briscoe et al. 2016). There are potential subterranean hotspots in the karst regions of western Caucasus in Georgia and possibly the Tien Shan Mountains in Kyrgyzstan. Although biologically poorly-studied, based on their positive relationship to the productivity maps and the presence of major cave regions they seem to be promising research subjects (Gvozdetski et al. 1994, Klimchouk 2004a, b). These regions are the closest to Iran which somehow have been studied in term of caves fauna. There are a lot of similarities between them and the north and western parts of Iran. Based on the studies conducted on these regions as well as some sporadic studies on Iranian caves in the mentioned areas, we could consider that there are some hotspots there. From east of Kyrgyzstan to the eastern coast of the Asian continent, the climate is probably too dry to support any subterranean hotspots (Culver et al. 2006).

Covering 164.8 million hectares in western Asia at the interface between three zoogeographic realms, Palaearctic, Oriental (Indo-Malayan) and Afrotropical (Ethiopian), Iran is situated at the conjunction of three climatic zones: the Mediterranean, the arid West Asian, and the temperate humid/semi-humid Caspian zone. Nevertheless, it lies predominantly in an arid environmental zone. The Zagros and Alborz Mountains are the two main mountain chains in western and northern Iran, which comprise nearly a third of the Iranian land area. Geologically, Iran is a part of the Alpine-Himalayan orogenic belt, divided into five major structural zones: a) Zagros Range, b) Sanandaj-Sirjan Range, c) Central Iran, d) East and South-East Iran and e) Alborz and Kopet-Dagh Ranges. However, more detailed divisions exist. The number of described caves is more than 2000 (Raeisi et al. 2012), with many more to be added.

During the last decade, several faunistic studies have been carried out in Iran, resulting in new records of already known species, as well as the descriptions of many new ones. However, despite the vast amount of collected faunistic data, the Iranian subterranean fauna remains inadequately known, and most reported species from the caves are in fact trogloxenes (Esmaeili-Rineh and Sari 2013). Nevertheless, 16 obligate cave-dwellers are reported from Iran, of which as many as 13 have been described since 2013. Fifteen species of these troglobionts are restricted to Iran. The only known troglobiotic vertebrates are three fish species: *Garra typhlops* (Bruun & Kaiser, 1944), *G. lorestanensis* Mousavi-Sabet & Eagderi, 2016 and *Paracobitis smithi* Smith, 1976 (Cypriniformes) (Farashi et al. 2014, Mousavi-Sabet and Eagderi 2016). Troglobiotic invertebrates include a spider, a diplopod and 11 crustaceans. In this paper, we aim to provide the first checklist of Iranian subterranean arthropods, based on the available literature and our unpublished material.

Material and methods

Unique adaptations of troglofauna have evolved in relations to the significant characteristics of subterranean environments such as caves, e.g. darkness, constant climatic conditions and restricted food supply. Based on their life style and adaptations to the conditions of the unique habitat, cave organisms (troglofauna) are divided into three categories: 1) troglobionts (organisms that display characteristics of troglomorphism, such as depigmentation and loss of eyes, and are considered "obligatory" residents of the underground environment), 2) troglophiles (organisms that can live and complete their life cycle either in the cave or in the surface; some biospeleologists subdivide this group into the eutroglophiles and subtroglophiles) (Gavish-Regev et al. 2016, see Sket 2008); 3) trogloxenes (organisms only occurring sporadically in hypogean habitat and unable to establish a subterranean population that habitually enter caves but must return periodically to the outside for certain of their living requirements, usually food) (Sket 2008, Romero 2009, Culver and Pipan 2009). We classified cave organisms into the mentioned three groups, based on the classification used in the available literature or on our own observations. Troglomorphic and non-troglomorphic species that were found in all cave zones throughout the year are classified as troglophiles. Trogloxenes were found either around cave entrances or within the entrance zone of smaller caves. Ectoparasites of bats were not categorized, however, they could be considered as troglophiles or trogloxenes. Major structural zones of Iran and the distribution of all troglobionts have been shown in Figure 1. Specimens from caves were collected by means of diverse sampling items (e.g. the plankton net, small hand net and aspirator), and placed directly into 96% ethanol. The collected specimens were brought to the laboratory and identified using identification keys and also with the assistance of specialists. Records of undetermined species are not referenced in this catalog. Material is deposited in the Zoological Museum of University of Tehran (ZUTC) and in the Collection of Biology Department, Zoological Museum of Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran (ZM CBSU).

List of species

Phylum Arthropoda von Siebold, 1848 Subphylum Chelicerata Heymons, 1901 Class Arachnida Lamarck, 1801 Order Araneae Clerck, 1757

Based on the World Spider Catalog (2016), 45,987 species of spiders, grouped in 3,985 genera and 114 families have been described so far. To date, more than 600 spider species of 243 genera and 48 families have been recorded from Iran (Zamani et al. 2016). Only a few recent publications deal exclusively with the cave spider fauna of Iran (Marusik et al. 2014, Malek Hosseini et al. 2015a, b), while in previous reports only scattered

records are provided (e.g. Brignoli 1970, Senglet 2008, Moradmand and Jäger 2011). Here, we have listed 29 species from 15 families and 21 genera, most of which have been classified as edaphic troglophiles and trogloxenes, and one troglobiont.

Family Agelenidae C. L. Koch, 1837

Tegenaria lenkoranica (Guseinov, Marusik & Koponen, 2005)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Roodafshan Cave (Tehran Province) (Zamani et al. 2014), Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (present study).

Tegenaria zamanii Marusik & Omelko, 2014

Status: troglophile.

Records: Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (Marusik et al. 2014, Marusik and Zamani 2015).

Family Eutichuridae Lehtinen, 1967

Cheiracanthium mildei L. Koch, 1864

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Nevel Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Gnaphosidae Pocock, 1898

Anagraphis pallens Simon, 1893

Status: troglophile.

Records: Gakal Cave, Neyneh Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Liocranidae Simon, 1897

Mesiotelus scopensis Drensky, 1935

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Nevel Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Linyphiidae Blackwall, 1859

Lepthyphantes iranicus Saaristo & Tanasevitch, 1996

Status: **troglophile**. Records: Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (Marusik et al. 2014).

Megalepthyphantes camelus (Tanasevitch, 1990)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Unnamed cave (Alborz Province) (present study).

Palliduphantes sbordonii (Brignoli, 1970)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Ab Ask Cave (Mazandaran Province) (Brignoli 1970).

Sengletus latus Tanasevitch, 2009

Status: troglophile.

Records: Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave, Nevel Cave, Chek Cave, Tikow (Tang-e Tikab) Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Oonopidae Simon, 1890

Trilacuna qarzi Malek Hosseini & Grismado, 2015

Status: **troglobiont**.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015a, b); Fig. 1, locality 2.

Family Oxyopidae Thorell, 1870

Oxyopes lineatus Latreille, 1806

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Nevel Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Pholcidae C. L. Koch, 1850

Artema doriai (Thorell, 1881)

Status: trogloxene /troglophile.

Records: Behesht Makan Cave, Palangan cave (Fars Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Pholcus armeniacus Senglet, 1974

Status: troglophile.

Records: Unidentified caves (Western Azarbayjan Province) (Senglet 2008).

Pholcus arsacius Senglet, 2008

Status: troglophile.

Records: Unidentified caves (Southern Khorasan Province) (Senglet 2008).

Pholcus elymaeus Senglet, 2008

Status: **troglophile**. Records: Unidentified cave (Kordestan Province) (Senglet 2008).

Pholcus medicus Senglet, 1974

Status: troglophile.

Records: Unidentified caves (Eastern Azarbayjan and Mazandaran Provinces) (Senglet 2008).

Pholcus parthicus Senglet, 2008

Status: **troglophile**.

Records: Unidentified caves (Northern Khorasan Province) (Senglet 2008).

Spermophora persica Senglet, 2008

Status: troglophile.

Records: Unidentified cave (Kordestan Province) (Senglet 2008).

Spermophora senoculatoides Senglet, 2008

Status: troglophile.

Records: Unidentified caves (Kordestan Province) (Senglet 2008).

Family Salticidae Blackwall, 1841

Plexippoides flavescens (O. P.-Cambridge, 1872)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Unnamed cave (Alborz Province) (present study).

Family Scytodidae Blackwall, 1864

Scytodes thoracica (Latreille, 1802)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Tikow (Tang-e Tikab) Cave (Fars Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Segestriidae Simon, 1893

Segestria mirshamsii Marusik & Omelko, 2014

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (Marusik et al. 2014).

Family Sicariidae Keyserling, 1880

Loxosceles rufescens (Dufour, 1820)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Charkhab Cave (Fars Province) (Sadeghi et al. in press).

Family Sparassidae Bertkau, 1872

Spariolenus iranomaximus Moradmand & Jäger, 2011

Status: troglophile.

Records: Khofash Cave (Ilam Province) (Moradmand and Jäger 2011).

Spariolenus zagros Moradmand & Jäger, 2011

Status: troglophile.

Records: Kenesht Cave (Kermanshah Province) (Moradmand and Jäger 2011), Dalkhoon Cave (Fars Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Tetragnathidae Menge, 1866

Metellina merianae (Scopoli, 1763)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (Marusik et al. 2014).

Metellina orientalis (Spassky, 1932)

Status: **troglophile** (this species was observed the whole year in deep parts of Gakal Cave) Status: **trogloxene** (in other caves it just observed near entrances)

Records: Nevel Cave, Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Chek Cave, Tikow (Tang-e Tikab) Cave (Fars Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Theridiosomatidae Simon, 1881

Theridiosoma gemmosum (C. L. Koch, 1877)

Status: **troglophile**.

Records: Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (Marusik et al. 2014), Nevel Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2015b).

Family Uloboridae Thorell, 1869

Octonoba yesoensis (Saito, 1934)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Shirabad Cave (Golestan Province) (Marusik et al. 2014).

Order Pseudoscorpiones Haeckel, 1866

According to our own unpublished data, 56 species and subspecies of pseudoscorpions, from 12 families are known from Iran, of which, only one troglophile species is listed here.

Family Chernetidae Menge, 1855

Megachernes pavlovskyi Redikorzev, 1949

Status: **troglophile**.

Records: Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Christophoryová et al. 2013), Karafto Cave (Kordestan Province), Kila Sefid Cave (Kermanshah Province) (Mirmoayedi et al. 2000).

Subclass Acari Leach, 1817

This subclass is with probably over 45,000 described species and has very complex systematics. There are more than 1,000 described species reported from caves with some being troglomorphic or troglophiles to some degree, generally showing reduction or loss of eyes and depigmentation, as well as elongation of appendages and well-developed sensory setae (Romero 2009). No detailed study of Acari in caves (e.g., as ectoparasites or guanobionts) has been done in Iran so far, and only five species of bat's ectoparasites are listed in here. We have collected several undetermined species that some of them are guanophilic and some other are associated with beetles.

Order Ixodida Leach, 1815 Family Ixodidae Koch, 1844

Ixodes simplex Neumann, 1906

Status: bat ectoparasite.

Records: Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Ixodes vespertilionis Koch, 1844

Status: **bat ectoparasite**. This species shows certain degree of troglomorphism, such as extremely elongated appendages and well-developed sensory setae.

Records: Mahi-Dasth Limy Cave (Kermanshah Province) (Vatandoost et al. 2010), Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Order Mesostigmata Canestrini, 1891 Family Spinturnicidae Oudemans, 1902

Meristaspis lateralis (Kolenati, 1856)

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Bishapur, cave at the Sasan spring (Fars Province) (Benda et al. 2012).

Spinturnix myoti (Kolenati, 1856)

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Spinturnix psi (Kolenati, 1856)

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Tadovan Cave (Fars Province), Bishapur Cave (Fars Province), Dashkahul Cave (Ardabil Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Gakal cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Subphylum Myriapoda Latreille, 1802

Class Chilopoda Latreille, 1817

Approximately 3,000 species of centipedes are found in the class Chilopoda (Vazirianzadeh et al. 2007). About 60 species have been found in caves (Romero 2009). No checklist is available regarding the number of species in Iran; here we list two troglophile species. Specimens were identified by Dr. Marzio Zapparoli (Tuscia University, Viterbo, Italy.)

Order Geophilomorpha Pocock, 1896 Family Mecistocephalidae Bollman, 1893

Mecistocephalus evansi Brolemann, 1922

Status: **troglophile**.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study).

Order Lithobiomorpha Pocock, 1895 Family Lithobiidae Newport, 1844

Lithobius erythrocephalus cronebergii Sseliwanoff, 1881

Status: troglophile.

Records: Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave, Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study).

Class Diplopoda De Blainville in Gervais, 1844

About 10,000 species of millipedes have been described, of which, about 200 species in five orders have been reported from caves (Romero 2009). Enghoff and Moravvej (2005) listed 50 species of Iranian millipedes, of which only one species was reported from a cave. Here, we list two species, including one troglobiont.

Order Spirostreptida Brandt, 1833 Family Cambalidae Hoffman, 1979

Chiraziulus kaiseri Mauries, 1983

Status: troglophile.

Records: Sarab Cave (Hamadan Province) (Enghoff and Moravvej 2005).

Chiraziulus troglopersicus Reboleira, Malek Hosseini, Sadeghi & Enghoff, 2015

Status: **troglobiont**.

Records: Neyneh Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Reboleira et al. 2015); Fig. 1, locality 3.

Subphylum Crustacea Brünnich, 1772 Class Malacostraca Latreille, 1802

Order Amphipoda Latreille, 1816

This subphylum is constituted of about 52,000 known living marine, freshwater and terrestrial species with worldwide distribution (Martin and Davis 2006). It is by far the richest and the most diverse group in subterranean waters. A literature search yielded more than 4,800 species of cave, phreatic, and anchialine crustaceans from all over the world, including marine, freshwater, and terrestrial ones (Romero 2009). By far the most species-rich crustacean groups are Amphipoda and Copepoda, although Decapoda (due to their size) are probably the most obvious (Holsinger 1993, White and Culver 2012). With 319 species, niphargoids are the most diverse Palaearctic hypogean amphipods, which include also a few epigean taxa. They are distributed through central and particularly southeastern Europe, where they exhibit high levels of endemism in karst systems. More than 305 species of Niphargus have been described so far, and this is currently the largest freshwater amphipod genus (Fišer et al. 2005, Väinölä et al. 2008). Esmaeili-Rineh and Sari (2010) listed several localities for Niphargus in Iran: Dimeh spring in Chaharmahal and Bakhtiari, Brolan spring in West Azarbayjan, Sasan River in Fars, Ghori-Ghale cave in Kermanshah, Razbashi spring in Lorestan, Ghaemshahr and Danial Cave in Mazandaran and Cheshmeh-Siah in Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Provinces. However, the identification data haven't been published for all of them so far.

Freshwater amphipods from Iran include the family Gammaridae with 18 species (Zamanpoore et al. 2011, Semsar-Kazerooni et al. 2016) and Niphargidae with 10 species of the single genus *Niphargus*. All Iranian *Niphargus* have been recorded from caves and karstic springs.

Family Niphargidae Bousfield, 1977

Niphargus alisadri Esmaeili-Rineh & Sari, 2013

Status: troglobiont.

Records: Alisadr Cave (Hamedan Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh and Sari 2013). Fig. 1, locality 5.

Niphargus bisitunicus Esmaeili-Rineh, Sari & Fišer, 2015

Status: **troglobiont**.

Records: Sarab-e-Bisitun (Kermanshah Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh et al. 2015). Fig. 1, locality 10.

Niphargus borisi Esmaeili-Rineh, Sari & Fišer, 2015

Status: troglobiont.

Records: Belqis Spring (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh et al. 2015). Fig. 1, locality 4.

Niphargus daniali Esmaeili-Rineh & Sari, 2013

Status: **troglobiont**.

Records: Danial Cave (Mazandaran Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh and Sari 2013). Fig. 1, locality 6.

Niphargus darvishi Esmaeili-Rineh, Sari & Fišer, 2015

Status: **troglobiont**.

Records: Dimeh Spring (Chaharmahal and Bakhtiari Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh et al. 2015). Fig. 1, locality 12.

Niphargus kermanshahi Esmaeili-Rineh, Heidari, Fišer & Akmali, 2016

Status: troglobiont.

Records: Kangarshah Spring close to Sahneh City (Kermanshah Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh et al. 2016). Fig. 1, locality 13.

Niphargus khayyami Hekmatara, Zakšek, Heidari Baladehi & Fišer, 2013

Status: troglobiont.

Records: Ghoori-Ghaleh Cave (Kermanshah Province) (Hekmatara et al. 2013). Fig. 1, locality 8.

Niphargus khwarizmi Hekmatara, Zakšek, Heidari Baladehi & Fišer, 2013

Status: troglobiont.

Records: Cheshmeh Kahriz (Qanat) (East Azarbayjan Province) (Hekmatara et al. 2013). Fig. 1, locality 7.

Niphargus sharifi Esmaeili-Rineh, Sari & Fišer, 2015

Status: troglobiont.

Records: Sarab-e-Robat (Lorestan Province) (Esmaeili-Rineh et al. 2015). Fig. 1, locality 11.

Niphargus valachicus Dobreanu & Manolache, 1933

Status: troglobiont.

Records: unidentified cave near Ghaem Shahr (Mazandaran Province) (Karaman 1998). Fig. 1, locality 9.

Order Isopoda Latreille, 1817

Suborder Oniscidea Latreille, 1802

The order Isopoda contains over 10,000 species worldwide. Around 4,500 marine species are found mostly on the seabed; 500 species live in fresh water, while another 5,000 species from suborder Oniscidea are terrestrial (Schotte et al. 2016). The checklist of Oniscidea of Iran has not been published yet, but there are more than 40 recorded species from the country. Four species of this order have been listed here, including one troglobiont.

Family Agnaridae Schmidt, 2002

Protracheoniscus faramarzi Kashani, Dashan & Sadeghi, 2016 (in press)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Shafagh Cave (Fars Province) (Kashani et al. 2016. In press).

Protracheoniscus gakalicus Kashani, Malek Hosseini & Sadeghi, 2013

Status: **troglobiont**.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Kashani et al. 2013). Fig. 1, locality 2.

Family Porcellionidae Brandt, 1831

Agabiformius lentus (Budde-Lund, 1855)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Kashani et al. 2013).

Porcellionides pruinosus (Brandt, 1833)

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Kashani et al. 2013).

Class Maxillopoda Dahl, 1956 Order Cyclopoida Burmeister, 1834 Family Cyclopidae Rafinesque, 1815

Diacyclops cf. crassicaudis (Sars, 1863)

Status: **troglophile**.

Records: Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study). Species was identified by Dr. Frank Fiers from the Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences.

Subphylum Hexapoda Latreille, 1825 Class Entognatha Stummer-Traunfels, 1891

Order Entomobryomorpha Börner 1913

There are more than 8,600 described species of collembola worldwide (Bellinger et al. 2016), of which, more than 400 are hypogean (Romero 2009). The collembolan fauna of Iran is poorly known, it consists of 112 species, belonging to 18 families and 57 genera (Shayanmehr et al. 2013). There has been no detailed study of cavernicolous collembola in Iran. Three species which have been listed below had been previously reported from soil and leaf litter (Shayanmehr et al. 2013). Specimens were identified according to Fjellberg (2007), by Dr. Masoumeh Shayan Mehr (Sari University of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources, Sari, Mazandaran, Iran).

Family Cyphoderidae Börner, 1913

Cyphoderus albinus (Nicolet, 1842)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study).

Family Entomobryidae Schäffer, 1896

Heteromurus nitidus (Templeton, 1835)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave, Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study).

Pseudosinella octopunctata (Boerner, 1901)

Status: **troglophile**. Records: Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study).

Class Insecta Linnaeus, 1758

Order Blattodea Brunner von Wattenwyl, 1882

To date, over 4,500 cockroach (order Blattodea or Blattaria) species have been reported from different parts of the world. The cockroach fauna of Iran includes three families, 14 genera, and 26 species (Hashemi-Aghdam and Oshaghi 2015). Many geographical regions of the country have not been studied yet, hence a systematic research is required to reveal the real cockroach biodiversity of the country. They were observed as guanophilic animals in most of Iranian caves and in some cases with a high density of populations. However, these cavernicolous cockroaches haven't been studied so far. Adaptations to life in darkness such as very long antennae and long legs with numerous sensory hairs and setae, have been observed in some populations.

Family Blattidae Latreille, 1810

Shelfordella cf. monochroma (Walker, 1871)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Tahami and Sad-eghi 2015).

Family Polyphagidae Saussure, 1864

Polyphaga aegyptica (Linnaeus, 1758)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Rood Fargh Cave (Kerman Province) (Tahami and Sadeghi 2015).

Order Coleoptera Linnaeus, 1758

There are over 330,000 species of beetles in the world; 1,927 terrestrial and 32 aquatic troglobionts have been described so far (Gibert and Deharveng 2002). The checklists of most families in Iran are not available.

Family Carabidae Latreille, 1802

Azadbakhsh & Nozari (2015) listed 955 species and subspecies in 155 genera, belonging to 26 subfamilies of Carabidae from Iran. Here we have listed 8 species from caves.

Abacetus zarudnyi Tschitschérine, 1901

Status: **troglophile**.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2016a).

Bembidion (Ocyturanes) parsorum Netolitzky, 1934

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Nevel Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2016a).

Duvalius kileri Muilwijk & Malek Hosseini, 2016

Status: troglophile.

Records: Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2016a).

Laemostenus (Antisphodrus) aequalis Muilwijk & Malek Hosseini, 2016

Status: troglophile.

Records: Kiler Cave, Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave, Nevel Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2016a).

Laemostenus (Antisphodrus) bulirschi Dvořák, 1995

Status: troglophile.

Records: unidentified cave in Elburz, Demavend (Lohajr and Mlejnek 2007).

Laemostenus (Antisphodrus) deconincki Casale & Quéinnec, 2001

Status: troglophile.

Records: Gamasiab Cave (Hamadan Province) (Casale and Quéinnec 2001), unidentified cave (Lorestan Province) (Lohajr and Mlejnek 2007).

Laemostenus (Antisphodrus) glasunowi Semenov, 1895

Status: troglophile.

Records: unidentified cave in Elburz, Demavend (Mazandaran Province) (Lohajr and Mlejnek 2007).

Paratachys fulvicollis (Dejean, 1831)

Status: troglophile.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek Hosseini et al. 2016a).

Family Leiodidae Fleming, 1821

This family has not been studied in Iran so far. Less than 5 species are known from the country. Here we have listed one species from a cave.

Eocatops beroni Szymczakovski, 1976

Status: troglophile.

Records: Shapur Cave (Fars Province) (Szymczakovski, 1976).

Family Ptinidae Latreille, 1802

Currently, about 220 genera and 2,200 species of spider beetles are known in the world. Several ptinids have been previously reported from caves, mostly in Europe (Arango and Young 2012). However, little is known about the spider beetle fauna of Iran.

Niptus hololeucus (Faldermann, 1835)

Status: troglophile. Records: Kangohar Cave (Fars Province) (Dashan et al. 2014a).

Gibbium aequinoctiale Boieldieu, 1854

Status: troglophile.

Records: Kangohar Cave, Shafagh Cave, Tadovan Cave, Sahlak Cave (Fars Province) (Dashan et al. 2014b).

Family Salpingidae Leach, 1815

About 45 genera and 300 species are recognized worldwide, of which, a single troglophile species has been listed here (Sadeghi et al. 2014).

Aglenus brunneus (Gyllenhall, 1813)

Status: **troglophile**. Records: Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Sadeghi et al. 2014).

Family Staphylinidae Lameere, 1900

The family Staphylinidae, or rove beetles, with 56,768 described species in 3,624 genera and 33 subfamilies, is one of the most diverse families of animals. Staphylinidae of Iran contains 594 species and subspecies in 150 genera belonging to 13 subfamilies. Amongst those, 104 species and subspecies (17,5 %) are known only from Iran (Anlas and Newton 2010).

Quedius iranicus Coiffait, 1976

Status: troglophile.

Records: Bishapur, Shapur Cave (Fars Province) (Coiffait 1976, 1978, Bordoni and Oromi 1998, Herman 2001, Smetana 2004).
Stenus guttula Muller, 1821

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Behesht Makan Cave (Fars Province) (Dashan et al. 2014b).

Stenus limicola Korge, 1967

Status: **trogloxene**. Records: Behesht Makan Cave (Fars Province) (Dashan et al. 2014b).

Family Tenebrionidae Latreille, 1802

Darkling beetles, with more than 15,000 known species are one of the most common families of the order Coleoptera. The fauna of Iranian Tenebrionidae is considered poorly studied (Ghahari and Bunalski 2011). The most common genus in Iranian caves is *Blaps* Fabricius, 1775. In some caves this beetle was observed in high numbers and in all zones.

Blaps variolaris Allard, 1880

Status: troglophile.

Records: Behesht Makan Cave, Dalkhoon Cave, Sahlak Cave, Tadovan Cave, Kangohar Cave (Fars Province) (Dashan et al. 2014b), Kiler Cave, Gakal Cave, Deh Sheikh (Pataveh) Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study).

Trachyderma christophi Faust, 1875

Status: trogloxene.

Records: Neyneh Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (present study). The species was identified by Dr. Wolfgang Schawaller from the State Museum of Natural History, Stuttgart, Germany.

Order Diptera Linnaeus, 1758

Here, we have only mentioned ectoparasite Diptera that were collected from bats. The most conspicuous bat ectoparasites are the bloodsucking nycteribiid and streblid flies that are obligatory ectoparasites of bats (Marshall 1982, Theodor 1967). Till now only very limited studies have been done on the ectoparasites of bats in Iran (Benda et al. 2012). Here, 10 species from 6 genera and 2 families of Diptera have been listed.

Family Nycteribiidae Samouelle, 1819

Eucampsipoda hyrtlii Kolenati, 1856

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Shafagh Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Nycteribia pedicularia Latreille, 1805

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Neyneh Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Shafagh Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Nycteribia schmidlii Schiner, 1853

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Mozduran Cave (Razavi Khorasan Province) (Kock 1983), Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Gakal Cave, Neyneh Cave and Kiler cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Shafagh Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Nycteribia vexata Westwood, 1835

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Penicillidia conspicua Speiser, 1901

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Tadovan Cave (Fars Province), Dashkahul Cave (Ardabil Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Kiler Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Penicillidia dufourii (Westwood, 1835)

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Tadovan Cave (Fars Province), Dashkahul Cave (Ardabil Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Kiler Cave, Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province), Shafagh Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Phthiridium biarticulatum Hermann, 1804

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Mozduran Cave (Razavi Khorasan Province) (Kock 1983), Dashkahul Cave (Ardabil Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Tadovan Cave, Charkhab Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Stylidia biarticulata Hermann, 1804

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Mozduran Cave (Razavi Khorasan Province) (Kock 1983).

Family Streblidae Kolenati, 1863

Brachytarsina alluaudi minor Falcoz, 1923

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Charkhab Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Brachytarsina flavipennis Macquart, 1851

Status: **bat ectoparasite**.

Records: Mozduran Cave (Razavi Khorasan Province) (Kock 1983), Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Benda et al. 2012), Tadovan Cave (Fars Province) (Malek-Hosseini et al. 2016b).

Order Hemiptera Linnaeus, 1758 Family Cimicidae Latreille, 1802

Stricticimex namru Usinger, 1960

Status: **bat ectoparasite**. Records: Dehloran Cave (Ilam Province) (Benda et al. 2012).

Order Siphonaptera Latreille, 1825 Family Ischnopsyllidae Wahlgren, 1907

Ischnopsyllus dolosus Dampf, 1912

Status: **bat ectoparasite**. Records: Dashkasan Cave, Dashkahul Cave (Ardabil Province) (Benda et al. 2012).



Figure 1. Map of terrestrial ecoregions in Iran, showing the distribution of troglobiotic organisms (16 species). Map derived from WWF (Olson et al. 2001) and Safaei-Mahroo et al. (2015). I Loven Cave (Lorestan Province) (33°04'N, 48°35'E) *Garra typhlops; G. lorestanensis; Paracobitis smithi* 2 Gakal Cave (Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (30°18'N, 51°09'E) *Protracheoniscus gakalicus; Trilacuna qarzi* 3 Neyneh Cave (Kohgiloyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (30°45'N, 50°2'E) *Chiraziulus troglopersicus* 4 Belqais Spring (Kohgiloyeh and Boyer-Ahmad Province) (30°45'N, 50°44'E) *Niphargus borisi* 5 Alisadr Cave (Hamedan Province) (35°16'N, 48°17'E) *Niphargus alisadri* 6 Danial Cave (Mazandaran Province) (36°41'N, 50°53'E) *Niphargus daniali* 7 Cheshmeh Kahriz (Qanat) (East Azarbayjan Province) (38°41'N, 46°10'E) *Niphargus khwarizmi* 8 Ghoori-Ghaleh Cave (Kermanshah Province) (34°53'N, 46°30'E) *Niphargus khayyami* 9 unidentified cave near Ghaem Shahr (Mazandaran Province) *Niphargus valachicus* 10 Sarab-e-Bisitun (Kermanshah Province) (34°25'N, 47°28'E) *Niphargus bisitunicus* 11 Sarab-e-Robat (Lorestan Province) (32°30'N, 50°13'E) *Niphargus darvishi* 13 Kangarshah Spring close to Sahneh City (Kermanshah Province) (34°36'N, 47°39'E) *Niphargus kermanshah*

Discussion

In our checklist, we compiled faunal lists of subterranean arthropods for Iranian caves based on scattered published literature together with unpublished data from our own collections. There are some ongoing projects addressing issues of biodiversity that will improve our knowledge of the cave fauna in this vast country, e.g. studies of cavernicolous pseudoscorpions, myrmecophilid crickets, oniscid isopods and niphargid amphipods by students of the University of Shiraz and Razi University of Kermanshah are being carried out. Moreover, there are other groups of cavernicolous arthropods in our collections that we did not list here because of incomplete identification, e.g. some species of Collembola, Coleoptera, Orthoptera (Grylloidea), Crustacea, Myriapoda, Araneae, Pseudoscorpiones and Acari. According to our investigations, caves of Alborz and Zagros chains are rich in fauna. All Iranian troglobionts were described from the central and northern parts of Zagros and northern slopes of Alborz, which are mostly forested. About 10 species of troglobiotic crustaceans from Zagros caves and karstic springs are waiting to be described. The Zagros region exemplifies the continental variant of the Mediterranean climate pattern, while the northern slopes of Alborz are distinctly humid. So, these areas have a high level of productivity. The low species richness of Iranian caves is not realistic and it is due to a lack of comprehensive studies of all taxa (as a comparison, Sket et al. (2004) reported more than 975 terrestrial and 650 aquatic obligate subterranean species for the Balkan Peninsula).

An important problem is related to the identification keys for cavernicolous animals. To date, all studies have been sporadic. There is an ongoing comprehensive study on *Niphargus* of Iranian caves by Dr. Cene Fišer from University of Ljubljana, Slovenia with Iranian collaborators. The complete keys are needed to help future researchers.

From all 16 identified troglobiont species of Iran (3 terrestrial, 13 aquatic), 13 are arthropods, and out of these, 11 are crustaceans and 10 belong to the genus *Niphargus* (Niphargidae). From all 89 species of this checklist (from 42 caves and 5 karstic springs), Araneae with 29 species and Coleoptera with 17 species are dominant groups. A problem with some literature records are ambiguous names and localities of some caves that need to be clarified in further studies. Our studies about cave fauna should lead to decisions about conservation approaches. Unfortunately, based on our exploration and some other reports from caving groups, several caves have already been destroyed by human activities, which could cause drastic changes in food chains in these habitats, or even species extinction.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE



Two new species of the Pterostichus macrogenys species group (Coleoptera, Carabidae) discovered in shallow subterranean habitats in northern Honshu, Japan

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Abstract

Shallow subterranean environments have recently received attention as a habitat for Carabidae beetles, and many new species have been discovered using collection techniques devised for this habitat. We report the discovery of two new species of the *macrogenys* species group of the *Pterostichus* subgenus *Nialoe* Tanaka, 1958, collected by subterranean baited traps in northern Honshu, Japan. *Pterostichus shinbodakensis* Sasakawa & Itô, **sp. n.** is described from Mt. Shinbodake, Niigata Prefecture, and *P. tateishiyamanus* Sasakawa & Itô, **sp. n.** is described from the southeastern foot of Mt. Tateishiyama, Fukushima Prefecture. Comparative male genital morphology shows that among the known species, the two new species are most closely related to *P. falcispinus* Sasakawa, 2005 and *P. chokaisanus* Sasakawa, 2009, respectively. In addition, sympatric occurrence of *P. shinbodakensis* with a smaller, unidentified species of the species group was also confirmed. The implications of these results for future studies of the *macrogenys* species group, as well as those of *Nialoe*, are discussed.

Keywords

Endophallus, ground beetle, male genitalia, *Nialoe, Pterostichus shinbodakensis* sp. n., *Pterostichus tateishiya-manus* sp. n., subterranean baited trap, sympatric occurrence, taxonomy

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Introduction

The taxonomy of the beetle family Carabidae has been investigated extensively in Japan, with many new species currently being described. Most of these new species are categorized into one of two types. In the first type, the focal species was originally recognized as a single species, but examinations of new characters have revealed that the taxon is actually composed of multiple species, including new species (e.g., Sasakawa 2006, 2009a; Morita 2007). In the second type, completely unknown species have been discovered and described as new taxa (e.g., Kasahara 1991; Imura 2004; Morita et al. 2008).

In the carabid genus *Pterostichus* Bonelli, 1810 of Japan, most studies during the last decade have described species of the first type (e.g., Sasakawa 2009b, 2009c; Sasakawa and Kubota 2006; Morita 2007, 2010). However, several studies have described species of the second type, and some of these studies provide insight for future studies of *Pterostichus* in Japan. Specifically, Ito (2010) and Ito and Ogai (2015) described 17 new and one new subterranean species, respectively. They collected specimens of these new species using a new type of baited trap modified for subterranean environments, which to date have received little attention as a habitat for *Pterostichus* in Japan (Ito 2010; Ito and Ogai 2015; see also Yoshida 2012; Ito 2015). Their discovery of undescribed species indicates a need for future surveys of the habitat in other areas (Yoshida 2012).

We describe two new species of the *macrogenys* species group of *Pterostichus* subgenus *Nialoe* Tanaka, 1958, which we collected from Niigata and Fukushima prefectures, northern Honshu, using subterranean baited traps. The *macrogenys* species group exhibits marked differentiation in central and northern Honshu, and many species with limited distributions occur there (Sasakawa 2009b). However, there are many localities in which no specimens have been examined, and this limitation has hampered our knowledge of the group's diversity. Thus, examinations of specimens from additional localities have been expected.

Materials and methods

Beetles were collected using subterranean baited traps modified from the design used by Yoshida (2012). The traps were composed of two different-sized, covered plastic containers ($20.0 \times 11.0 \times 5.0$ cm and $11.5 \times 8 \times 4$ cm). The larger container was filled to a depth of 2 cm with a mixture of nine parts silkworm pupa powder (attractant) and one part salt (preservative for the attractant). The smaller container was then filled to 75 ml with 10–15% acetic acid (preservative) (Fig. 1). Acetic acid can preserve specimens in the traps for up to 1 month without serious damage to membranous parts of the genitalia, which are important taxonomic characters of *Pterostichus*. A 3.0×1.5 cm rectangle (Fig. 2) or a shape with a 2.0 cm diameter was cut from the cover of the larger container to allow entry of attracted beetles. The cover of the smaller container was fixed with stainless steel bolts and nuts, 1–1.5 cm above the cover of the larger con-



Figures 1–7. Design of subterranean baited traps and the aboveground and subterranean environments at the collection sites. **1** Trap without cover, showing sections containing attractant (larger container) and preservative (smaller container) **2** Trap with cover, showing the entrance section (square with broken lines) **3** Trap installed in hole, showing nylon cord, part of which will be left aboveground as a marker **4** Aboveground environment of the *Pterostichus shinbodakensis* type locality **5** Hole for the trap at the *P. shinbodakensis* type locality, showing the subterranean environment **6** Aboveground environment of the *Pterostichus* at the *P. tateishiyamanus* type locality, showing the subterranean environment **6** Aboveground environment. The magnifications of the photos vary (see text for trap size).

tainer; this "roof" prevented soil from entering the trap. A nylon cord was attached to a corner of the cover of the larger container; when the traps were installed belowground, part of the cord was left aboveground as a marker (Fig. 3).

At the Niigata collection site, traps were installed 20 cm belowground on both sides of slope along a dry watercourse (Figs 4, 5). At the Fukushima collection site, traps were installed 20–40 cm belowground in two colluvial slopes along a road (Figs 6, 7).

Type materials of the new species have been deposited in the collections of the Laboratory of Forest Zoology, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan (holotypes) and in those of the authors (paratypes). For comparison, holotypes of *P. takadateyamanus* Sasakawa, 2009, *P. eboshiyamanus* Sasakawa, 2009, and *P. chokaisanus* Sasakawa, 2009 (at the National Museum of Nature and Science, Tokyo, Japan) and a male *P. falcispinus* Sasakawa, 2005 individual from the type locality (21.v.2013, Hirotarô Itô leg.) were examined. The terminology for the male genitalia follows that of Sasakawa (2009b). Some morphological characters are abbreviated (BLm: body length from mandible apices to elytral end; BLI: body length from anterior margin of labrum to elytral end; BLc: body length from clypeal apex to elytral end; HL: head length from clypeal apex to neck base; HW: head width at widest part; PL: pronotum length along median line; PW: pronotum width at widest part; PAW: pronotal anterior margin width; PPW: pronotal posterior margin width; EL: elytral length from shoulder tip to apices; EW: elytral width at widest part).

Taxonomy

Pterostichus (Nialoe) shinbodakensis Sasakawa & Itô, sp. n. http://zoobank.org/02ED4CC6-0F43-4AAC-A86C-771BC0F8DF78 Figs 8, 12–18

Type material. Holotype, ♂, Mt. Shinbodake, alt. 540 m, Murakami-shi, Niigata Prefecture, Japan (38.355444 N, 139.516222 E), 6–27.ix.2015, Hirotarô Itô leg.

Etymology. Derived from the name of the type locality.

Diagnosis. Similar to *P. takadateyamanus* and *P. falcispinus* but distinguished by the shape of right paramere (Figs 16–20; Sasakawa 2009b, Fig. 20) and distinctly sclerotized left pigmented band (in *P. takadateyamanus* and *P. falcispinus*, only slightly sclerotized). Readily distinguished from sympatrically occurring unidentified species (Fig. 9) by a larger body size and smaller eyes (see Remarks).

Measurements. BLm: 16.7 mm; BLl: 14.9 mm; BLc: 14.3 mm; HL/HW: 0.89; PL/PW: 0.64; PAW/PW: 0.89; PPW/PW: 0.77; EL/EW: 1.55.

Description. Head and pronotum dark brown to blackish; elytra reddish-brown; appendages reddish to dark brown. Dorsal surface almost smooth except for laterobasal impressions of the pronotum, which are slightly punctate.

Head large, widest at tempora, which are markedly swollen; width at the widest point larger than pronotal posterior margin width; length from clypeal apex to neck base longer than pronotum length along the median line. Left mandible large and strongly hooked at the apical 1/3; length between mandible apex and posterolateral end on dorsal side over 2.5-fold longer than the anterior width of the clypeus. Eyes small and barely convex, with anterior-posterior length shorter than 1/2 length of the antennal segment 1. Antennal segment 2 with two setae.



Figures 8–11. Dorsal view of species of the *macrogenys* species group. **8** *Pterostichus shinbodakensis* sp. n., holotype male **9** A female of the unidentified species sympatric with *P. shinbodakensis* **10** *P. tateishiy-amanus* sp. n., holotype male **11** *P. tateishiyamanus* sp. n., paratype female. All figures are of the same magnification. Scale bar = 5.0 mm.

Pronotum cordate, notably flat, widest at apical 1/5. Lateral margins arcuate on apical 2/3, slightly sinuate on basal 1/3; two marginal setae on each lateral side, anterior setae near widest pronotal point, and posterior setae near hind angles. Anterior margin emarginated, with contour arched more strongly than the curvature of apical 2/3 of lateral margins; anterior angles notably produced. Posterior margin emarginated at median area, almost straight at lateral areas; hind angles right-angled. Median line impressed in the middle, not reaching both the anterior and posterior margins; laterobasal impressions single, shallow.

Elytra almost parallel-sided, less convex; shoulder distinct, but not denticulate; apices rounded; scutellar stria present, not connected to stria 1; 1 setigerous puncture on stria 1 at the level of the posterior end of scutellum; two setigerous punctures on interval 3, anterior one slightly behind the middle and posterior one on apical 1/6, both adjoining stria 2. Hind wings completely atrophied. Male sternum 7 fairly concave.

Aedeagus stout, without tubercle. Endophallus short, stout, strongly bent ventrally, with gonopore directed backward; left pigmented band distinctly sclerotized; right preapical lobe stout, as long as left preapical lobe, with apical part bent toward gonopore; left preapical lobe short, stout, directed toward leftward, with apex narrowly rounded; left apical lobe small but stout, strongly bent backward, with surface distinctly sclerotized. Left paramere square. Right paramere bent at approximately 120° at apical 2/5; apical part from dorsal view almost flat, with large, widely rounded right corner; ventral side strongly concave.

Remarks. This species is considered most closely related to *P. falcispinus*, because the angle bending (Fig. 17) and the wide apical part (Fig. 16) of the right paramere and the strongly-bent, distinctly sclerotized left preapical lobe (Figs 12–14) are found in only these species among the known *Nialoe* species (i.e., putative synapomorphies). In other consubgeneric species, the right paramere is short, straight with a rounded apical

part or slender, arcuate with a narrow apical part (i.e., not bent at an angle and not with a flat apical part), and the left preapical lobe is not distinctly sclerotized.

Although a female of the *macrogenys* species was also obtained at the type locality (8–30.viii.2015, Hirotarô Itô leg.; Fig. 9), it differs from *P. shinbodakensis* in several ways: a smaller body size (BLm: 14.0 mm; BLl: 12.7 mm; BLc: 12.2 mm), a left mandible that is not elongated (length between mandible apex and posterolateral end on dorsal side is ~2.2-fold as long as the anterior width of the clypeus), smaller eyes (anterior-posterior length is longer than one-half the length of the antennal segment 1), and blackish elytra. Considering the characters of the other species in the group (Figs 10, 11; Sasakawa 2005, 2009b) and direct (Ito and Ogai 2015) and indirect (Sasakawa 2009b) evidence for sympatric occurrence of large and small species in some localities, the focal morphological differences would be between large (*P. shinbodakensis*) and small species (the focal female), rather than between sexes within the same species. To determine its taxonomic status, male specimens need to be investigated.

Pterostichus (Nialoe) tateishiyamanus Sasakawa & Itô, sp. n.

http://zoobank.org/30B86A6D-14E6-461C-B5D9-F970446A3052 Figs 10, 11, 21, 22

Type materials. Holotype: \Im , Kuratani-sawa, alt. 480 m, Ôaza-Iine, Okugawa, Nishiaizu-machi, Yama-gun, Fukushima Prefecture, Japan (37.752944 N, 139.683889 E), 18.v–9.vi.2014, Hirotarô Itô leg. Paratypes: $1\Im$, same data as holotype; $1\Im$, same locality, but alt. 500 m, 1–14.xi.2015, Hirotarô Itô leg.

Etymology. Derived from Mt. Tateishiyama, on the southeastern foot where the type locality is situated.

Diagnosis. Externally similar to other small-sized species of the *macrogenys* species group but readily distinguished by the bifurcated distal end of the left preapical lobe.

Measurements. [holotype ♂/paratype ♂/paratype ♀] BLm: 14.7/13.6/14.6 mm; BLI: 13.5/12.6/13.4 mm; BLc: 12.9/12.2/12.8 mm; HL/HW: 0.95/0.83/0.86; PL/ PW: 0.71/0.70/0.71; PAW/PW: 0.87/0.86/0.86; PPW/PW: 0.77/0.71/0.72; EL/EW: 1.71/1.78/1.68.

Description. Head, pronotum, and elytra dark brown to blackish; appendages dark brown. Dorsal surface almost smooth except for laterobasal impressions of the pronotum, which are slightly punctate.

Head large, widest at tempora, which are distinctly swollen; width at the widest point larger than pronotal posterior margin width; length from clypeal apex to neck base larger than pronotum length along the median line. Left mandible large and curved at the apical 1/4; length between mandible apex and posterolateral end on dorsal side ~2.2-fold as long as the anterior width of the clypeus. Eyes weakly convex, with the anterior-posterior length longer than 1/2 length of antennal segment 1. Antennal segment 2 with two setae.



Figures 12–22. Male genitalia of species of the *macrogenys* species group. Left lateral view (**12**), right lateral view (**13**), left dorsolateral view (**14**), and right dorsolateral view (**15**) of endophallus of *P. shinbodakensis* sp. n., holotype. Dorsal view of apical part (**16**), left lateral view (**17**), and ventral view of apical part (**18**) of right paramete of *P. shinbodakensis* sp. n., holotype. Dorsal view of apical part (**16**), left lateral view (**17**), and ventral view of apical part (**18**) of right paramete of *P. falcispinus* from the type locality. Left lateral view (**21**) and right lateral view (**22**) of endophallus of *P. tateishiyamanus* sp. n., holotype. go: gonopore; lal: left apical lobe; lpb: left pigmented band; lpl: left preapical lobe; rpl: right preapical lobe. Scale bar = 0.5 mm.

Pronotum cordate, notably flat, widest at apical 1/5. Lateral margins arcuate on apical 2/3, slightly sinuate on basal 1/3; two marginal setae on each lateral side, anterior setae near widest pronotal point and posterior setae near hind angles. Anterior margin emarginated, with curvature approximately the same as that of apical 2/3 of lateral margins; anterior angles notably pronounced in the female, less pronounced in the male. Posterior margin emarginated at median area, almost straight at lateral areas; hind angles right-angled. Median line impressed in the middle, reaching the posterior margin in the holotype male but not reaching both anterior and posterior margins in the paratype male and female; laterobasal impressions single, shallow.

Elytra almost parallel-sided, less convex; shoulder distinct, but not denticulate; apices rounded; scutellar stria present, connected to stria 1 in the male specimens; in the paratype female, stria 1 disconnected at the level of the posterior end of the scutellar stria, where only the scutellar stria is connected to the other part of stria 1; one setigerous puncture on stria 1 at the level of the posterior end of the scutellum; two setigerous punctures on interval 3, anterior one slightly behind the middle and posterior one on apical 1/5–1/4, both adjoining stria 2. Hind wings completely atrophied. Male sternum 7 slightly concave. Female first fore tarsomere without adhesive hairs on ventral side.

Aedeagus stout without tubercle. Endophallus short, stout, strongly bent ventrally, with gonopore directed backward; left pigmented band weakly sclerotized; right preapical lobe small; left preapical lobe large, with bifurcated distal end; left apical lobe bifurcated, with slender and narrowly rounded apices. Left paramere square. Right paramere short, straight, rounded apically.

Remarks. Among the known members of the *macrogenys* species group, this species is considered the most closely related to *P. chokaisanus*, because the two species have slender and narrowly rounded bifurcated apices of the left apical lobe; this character is found only in these species among the species group and thus is an apomorphic character state.

Discussion

As noted in the Taxonomy section, this study provides some insights into the current understanding of the *macrogenys* species group. In particular, that two differentsized species occur sympatrically at the *P. shinbodakensis* type locality is notable; this is because although sympatric occurrence provides definitive evidence for reproductive isolation between species and thereby their distinct species status, in the *macrogenys* species group, such sympatry has been confirmed for only one pair of species (Ito and Ogai 2015). Importantly, in both that study and ours, sympatry was confirmed by subterranean baited traps, which can remain installed for a long period, typically over several weeks. On the other hand, no report has confirmed sympatric occurrence of members of the *macrogenys* species group using conventional baited pitfall traps, which are placed aboveground for one or a few nights, despite their widespread use. Collection of these species using short-term traps is probably difficult due to their rarity. Thus, our results, together with previous reports, show that subterranean baited traps are effective not only for the discovery of new species but also for studying the relationships among known species.

Our results are also notable with respect to the collection sites. In other carabid groups that include subterranean species, the relative importance of subterranean and aboveground habitats differs among regions. For example, in the Platynini genus *Jujiroa*, species of the Tôkai and Kinki districts of Honshu and Shikoku occur exclusively in subterranean environments, while those in other areas occur in aboveground habitats (e.g., Habu 1978; Sasakawa 2006; Sasakawa and Toki 2008). In the subgenus *Nialoe*, which includes the *macrogenys* species group, species occurring in shallow subterranean habitats have been reported in Shikoku and central Honshu (e.g., Kasahara and Itô 1987; Ito 2010; Ito and Ogai 2015) but not in other regions. The discovery of our species in northern Honshu, together with the fact that field surveys using subterranean traps have not been performed in most areas of Japan, shows that shallow subterranean environments may serve as a habitat for this subgenus over a larger area than was recognized previously.

Acknowledgements

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RESEARCH ARTICLE



A new genus for *Cirolana* troglexuma Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997, an anchialine cave dwelling cirolanid isopod (Crustacea, Isopoda, Cirolanidae) from the Bahamas

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Abstract

Cirolana troglexuma Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997 is redescribed and a *Lucayalana* Bruce & Brix, gen. n. established for the species. In total 38 specimens were collected from Hatchet Bay Cave, Eleuthera. Specimens on which previous records of *L. troglexuma* (from Exuma Cays, Cat Island, and Eleuthera) were based have been re-examined when possible. The diagnostic identifying characters and purported apomorphies for *Lucayalana* gen. n. are: frontal lamina short, narrow, less than 7% width of labrum, not extending to anterior margin of head; pleonite 3 extending posteriorly to posterior of pleonite 5, laterally overlapping pleonites 4 and 5; ventrally broad, forming a strong ventrally directed blade; pereopods 1–3 merus inferior margin RS not molariform. Mitochondrial COI and 16S loci and the nuclear 18S locus data show that all specimens are the one species. Comparison to additional cirolanid COI sequence data

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(BOLD, GenBank) show that *Lucayalana troglexuma* is genetically distinct to all other cirolanid genera with available COI sequences. The single male and females have shared COI (with three females), 16S (eight females) and 18S sequences (two females).

Keywords

species, cave, DNA barcoding, distribution, Cirolanidae, taxonomy, island

Introduction

During the last decades, it has become increasingly obvious that species diversity in caves has only been marginally captured and that many aquatic cave species still remain to be discovered and described (Juan et al. 2010). A large number of new species has been revealed for cave crustaceans, e.g. amphipods (Trontelj et al. 2007, Esmaeili-Rineh et al. 2015), decapods (Trontelj et al. 2007), bathynellaceans (Guzik et al. 2008) and isopods (Finston et al. 2009). Many of those new species are regional endemics rather than geographically widely distributed lineages (e.g. Botosaneanu et al. 1986, Holsinger 1984).

The isopod family Cirolanidae Dana, 1852 is one of the most species rich of the free-living families within the Cymothoida Wägele, 1989 comprising more than 500 known species in 62 genera. Cirolanidae are predominantly marine, with relatively few species living in freshwater. The cirolanid species from subterranean waters, such as aquifers, groundwater and cave streams, have been predominantly found in anchialine systems as well as in freshwater habitats. These anchialine species, like the freshwater fauna, were derived from marine ancestors becoming isolated during regressions of marine embayments in the Late Cretaceous or Tertiary times (Holsinger et al. 1993). Subterranean or groundwater cirolanids are usually completely eyeless, unpigmented stygobionts (Botosaneanu et al. 1986, Botosaneanu 2001). Subterranean cirolanids were last comprehensively reviewed by Botosaneanu et al. (1986). Since then, 39 new species and seven new genera have been described resulting in 26 genera with 91 species of stygial anchialine (Bishop et al. 2015; here updated) and freshwater Cirolanidae. Notably, the greater Caribbean region can be seen as a hotspot for cirolanid species diversity (Iliffe and Botosaneanu 2006). On a more local scale, the Bahamas is the most diverse location with eight species in three genera (see species list).

The shallow water habitats of the Bahamas have existed over a long geological time scale, at least the constitutive limestone persisted over the last 120 MA (Jaume et al. 2013). Combined with tectonic fracturing, extensive karstification produced a vast network of voids within the 4448 m thick limestone (Mylroie and Carew 1995). As shown on the map in Holsinger et al. (2007, figure 3 p. 1050), the Bahamas have accumulated many subterranean cirolanid isopods. The collection of a series of cirolanids from Hatchet Bay Cave, Eleuthera, identified as *Cirolana troglexuma* Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997 allowed us to reappraise this species, concluding that it neither can be adequately retained in *Cirolana* Leach, 1818, nor placed into any other cirolanid genus.

Methods

Sampling

All specimens were sampled from the main hall and the western chamber of Hatchet Bay Cave using six miniature minnow traps (Figures 1, 2B). Water levels in the cave varied tidally but traps remained submerged at the lowest tides. Traps were baited with pieces of baitfish and set at depths of 1–3 m for two hours before being collected. Individuals were randomly selected from each trap and transported in portable aquaria back to lab facilities at the Cape Eleuthera Institute on Eleuthera island. The collected specimens were preserved in centrifuge tubes with 95% ethanol and then shipped overnight to the German Centre for Marine Biodiversity Research (DZMB) for further study and imaging.

Classification follows Brandt and Poore (2003), while terminology follows Keable (2006) and pereopod orientation Bruce (2009). Pencil drawings were made using a Leica DM 2500 compound microscope with a *camera lucida*. Figures were inked manually, digitized and assembled as plates using Adobe Photoshop CS6. The photographs of the female (CC-1) and the male (CC-2) were taken by an Olympus camera system at ZMH and staples were fused using Helicon Focus software and arranged as plate with Photoshop CS6 (Figure 3).

Species descriptions were prepared in DELTA (Descriptive Language for Taxonomy, see: Coleman et al. 2010; Dallwitz et al. 1997; Dallwitz 1980; Dallwitz et al. 2006) using a general Cirolanidae character set comparing the characters of *Cirolana* Leach, 1818 (Table 1). Some *integer numeric* character states in the description may include a zero (0) rather than the more usual 'without' or 'none'; minor details qualifying a coded character state are given within parentheses.

Confocal laser scanning microscopy settings

Two adult specimens of *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. (females ZMH-K45776, ZMH-K45777 and male ZMH-K45769) were used for CLSM as indicated in the descriptions below. Before dissection, the specimens were stained with 1:1 solution of Congo Red and Acid Fuchsin overnight using procedures adapted from Michels and Büntzow (2010). The whole specimens were temporarily mounted onto slides with glycerine, and double sided tapes were used to support the coverslip. When required, specimens were dissected under a Leica MZ12 stereomicroscope. Dissected parts were mounted on slides with glycerine, and self-adhesive plastic reinforcement rings were used to support the coverslip (Kihara and Rocha 2009; Michels and Büntzow 2010). Parts of the body of special interest and difficult positioning due to their tridimensional shape (e.g. female head) were prepared on slides using Karo[®] light corn syrup as mounting medium and double sided tapes were combined in appropriate thickness, between the slide and coverslip, so that the parts were not compressed. The material was examined using a Leica TCS SP5 equipped with a



Figure 1. Hatchet Bay Cave Main Gallery, Eleuthera, The Bahamas (Photograph).

Character	Cirolana	Lucayalana gen. n.
Frontal lamina – size	Extends to antenna bases	Does not extend beyond antennula bases
Frontal lamina – size	Wide, c. 40% width of clypeus	Less than 10% width of clypeus
Frontal lamina – shape	Pentagonal or sub-quadrate – 4 or 5 margins	Linear, three margins
Pleonite 1 dorsal	Scarcely or not visible	Visible
Pleonite 1 ventral	Not visibly present	Visibly present with ventral structure
Pleonite 3	Without ventral blade	With large ventral blade
Antennula	Peduncle articles 1 and 2 combined lengths greater than article 3 length	Peduncle articles 1 and 2 combined lengths less than article 3 length
Pereopod 1 merus	With tubercular robust setae	With acute robust setae

Table I. Comparison of generic characters between Lucayalana gen. n. and Cirolana Leach, 1818.

Leica DM5000 B upright microscope and three visible-light lasers (DPSS 10 mW 561 nm; HeNe 10 mW 633 nm; Ar 100 mW 458, 476, 488 and 514 nm), combined with LAS AF 2.2.1 (Leica Application Suite Advanced Fluorescence) software.

Various lenses were used, depending on the size of the material scanned (Table 2). Images were obtained using 561 nm excitation wavelength with 80% acousto-optic tunable filter (AOTF). Series of stacks were obtained, collecting overlapping optical sections throughout the whole preparation with optimal number of sections according to the software. The acquisition resolution was 2048×2048 pixels and the settings



Figure 2. A Map showing distribution of *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. (= type locality) within the Bahamas (Tomolo Maps & Design 2016) **B** Map of Hatchet Bay Cave, Eleuthera modified after Mylroie and Mylroie (2009) **C** showing sampling locality.

applied for the preparations are given in Table 2. Final images were obtained by maximum projection, and CLSM illustrations were composed and adjusted for contrast and brightness using Adobe Photoshop CS4 software.

	Objective/	Detected emission	Detector gain (V)/	Electronic	Pinhole
rigure	Numerical aperture	wavelength (nm)	Amplitude offset (%)	zoom	aperture (µm)
Eine 5 A D	2.5V/0.07	Ch1: 570-629	Ch 1: 667.0/ -1.7	1.0V	75 7
Figs JA, D	2.5X/0.0/	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 639.0/ -0.8	1.0A	/3./
Ein 5C	2.5V/0.07	Ch1: 570-629	Ch 1: 667.0/ -1.7	1 0V	75.0
Fig 5C	2.5X/0.0/	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 654.0/ -0.8	1.8A	/ 5.8
E:= 5D	10V/0 /	Ch1: 570-622	Ch 1: 593.0/ -1.7	1.0V	52.0
rig JD	10A/0.4	Ch2: 622–717	Ch 2: 551.0/ -0.8	1.0A	55.0
E: A D	10V/0 /	Ch1: 570-629	Ch 1: 554.0/ -1.7	1.0V	52.0
FIg OA, D	10A/0.4	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 533.0/ -0.8	1.0A	55.0
$E = (\Lambda^2 \mathbf{D}^2)$	40V/0 75	Ch1: 570-629	Ch 1: 630.0/ -1.7	1.0V	112.2
FIG OA, D	40A/0./)	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 609.0/ -0.8	1.0A	115.2
Ein (C	10V/0 /	Ch1: 570-629	Ch 1: 542.0/ -1.7	1.0V	52.0
rig oC	10A/0.4	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 525.0/ -0.8	1.0A	55.0
E: (D	10V/0 /	Ch1: 570–629	Ch 1: 536.0/ -1.7	1.0V	52.0
Fig 6D	10A/0.4	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 515.0/ -0.8	1.0A	55.0
Eig 6E	10V/0 /	Ch1: 570–629	Ch 1: 550.0/ -1.7	1.6V	53.0
Fig OL	10A/0.4	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 529.0/ -0.8	1.0A	
Eig 6E'	40V/0 75	Ch1: 570–629	Ch 1: 585.0/ -1.7	1.0V	112.2
Fig OL	40A/0.75	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 564.0/ -0.8	1.0A	113.2
Eine 7A C	10V/0 /	Ch1: 570–622	Ch 1: 560.0/ -1.7	1.0V	52.0
rigs /A-C	10A/0.4	Ch2: 622–717	Ch 2: 539.0/ -0.8	1.0A	55.0
Eia 7D	40V/0 75	Ch1: 570–629	Ch 1: 488.0/ -1.7	1.0V	53.0
rig / D	40A/0./)	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 472.0/ -0.8	1.0A	55.0
E:a 7D'	40V/0 75	Ch1: 570-629	Ch 1: 572.0/ -1.7	1.0V	112.2
rig / D	40A/0./)	Ch2: 629–717	Ch 2: 567.0/ -0.8	1.0A	113.2

Table 2. List of figures with information on microscope lenses and confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) settings used for the observation of the specimens; Ch1 and Ch2 = detection channels 1 and 2.

Molecular methods

DNA extraction was performed as outlined by Brix et al. (2011). PCR, purification and sequencing methods were applied as described in Brix et al. (2014). Purified PCR products were sent for sequencing to GATC Biotech, Germany. The nuclear ribosomal small subunit (18S) was sequenced for three specimens, while the mitochondrial large ribosomal subunit (16S) and the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) gene were sequenced for 15 and 14 specimens, respectively. Specimens used for molecular analyses are listed in Table 3. Primers used for PCR were 1471/1472 (Crandall and Fitzpatrick 1996), HCO2198/LCO1492 for COI (Folmer et al. 1994), 16S SF/16S SR for 16S rDNA (Tsang et al. 2009, Riehl et al. 2014) and 18A1neu/1800neu for 18S rDNA (Raupach et al. 2004). PCR was done using Illustra Puretaq PCR Beads 0.2 mL (VWR International) for a total volume of 25 μ L using 19 μ l H20, 1 μ L primer each and 4 μ L DNA: 1) initial setup (94°C, 5 min), 2) denaturation (94°C, 30 s), annealing (48, 50 or 52°C, 45 s), elongation (72°C, 60 s), final elongation (72°C, 5 min), cooling (4 min), in total 38 cycles (step 2–4). Sequence editing and assembly was performed in Geneious 7.0 (Kearse et al. 2012).

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Cirolanidae Bahamas 2015				GENBANK NU	IMBER PER SEQUENCE			
field ID	Museum number	sex	extract ID	16S	COI	185	CLSM	SEM
1. CC-1	ZMH-K45768	female	KJ330	KY426828 (Haplotype 3)	KY426820 (Haplotype 3)	I		
2. CC-2	ZMH-K45769	male	KJ331	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426818 (Haplotype 1)	KY426830	×	
3. CC-3	ZMH-K45770	female	KJ332	Ι	Ι	I		
4. CC-4	ZMH-K45771	female	KJ333	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426819 (Haplotype 2)	KY426830		
5. CC-A-14	ZMH-K45772	female	I	I	I	I		×
6. CC-B-14	ZMH-K45773	female	I	I	I	I		×
7. CC-A-16	ZMH-K45774	female	I	Ι	Ι	I		×
8. CC-B-16	ZMH-K45775	female	I	Ι	Ι	I		×
9. CC-5-16	ZMH-K45776	female	I	I	Ι	I	×	
10. CC-6-14	ZMH-K45777	female	I	Ι	-	I	×	
11. CC-7-16	QM W34360	female	KJ334	KY426827 (Haplotype 2)	KY426824 (Haplotype 7)	I		
12. CC-8-16	QM W34360	female	KJ335	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426818 (Haplotype 1)	KY426830		
13. CC-9-16	QM W34360	female	KJ336	KY426827 (Haplotype 2)	Ι	I		
14. CC-10-16	QM W34360	female	KJ337	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426823 (Haplotype 6)	I		
15. CC-11-14	QM W34360	female	KJ338	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426823 (Haplotype 6)	I		
16. CC-12-14	QM W34360	female	KJ339	KY426829 (Haplotype 4)	KY426821 (Haplotype 4)	I		
17. CC-13-14	QM W34360	female	KJ340	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426818 (Haplotype 1)	I		
18. CC-14-14	QM W34360	female	KJ341	KY426827 (Haplotype 2)	KY426825 (Haplotype 8)	I		
19. CC-15-14	QM W34360	female	KJ342	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426823 (Haplotype 6)	I		
20. CC-16-14	QM W34360	female	KJ343	KY426827 (Haplotype 2)	KY426824 (Haplotype 7)	I		
21. CC-17-16	QM W34360	female	KJ344	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426822 (Haplotype 5)	I		
22. CC-18-16	QM W34360	female	KJ345	KY426826 (Haplotype 1)	KY426818 (Haplotype 1)	I		
23. out of 16: 6 specimens	ZMH-K45778	females	Ι	Ι	Ι	I		
24. out of 14: 5 specimens	ZMH-K45779	females	I	I	Ι	I		
25. CC-1-4	ZMH-K45780	female	I	Ι	Ι	I		
26. CC-2-4	ZMH-K45781	female	Ι	Ι	Η	I		
27. CC-3-4	ZMH-K45782	female	I	I	Ι	I		
28. CC-4-4	ZMH K-46193	female	I	I	I	I		

A new genus for Cirolana troglexuma Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997...

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Figure 3. Photographs of female (CC-1: ZMH-K45768; **A** dorsal view **C** ventral view **E** lateral view) and male (CC-2: ZMH-K45769 **B** dorsal view **D** ventral view **F** lateral view); both before staining for CLSM. Scale bar 1mm.

Alignments for COI and 16S, respectively, were created with the Muscle-plugin in Geneious using three iterations. A Neighbor-Joining (NJ) tree based on COI was calculated in MEGA6 (Tamura et al. 2013) under the Kimura-2-parameter (K2P) substitution model, 1000 bootstrap replicates and with pairwise deletion option. The COI-alignment had a final length of 658 bp and comprised our own COI sequences (n=15), all COI sequences of Cirolanidae (n=305) and Aegidae (n=7; as outgroup) available in the Barcode of Life Datasystem (BOLD) as on the 10/12/2015 and additional sequences of six *Cirolana* spp. (n=10) from NCBI, but see also Rodcharoen et al. (2016). Statistical parsimony networks were reconstructed for our COI and 16S alignments using the TSC network option (Clement et al. 2000) as provided in PopART 1.7 (Leigh and Bryant 2015).

Abbreviations

RS – robust seta/e; **PMS** – plumose marginal seta/e; **ITScNB** – Institute Royal des Sciences naturelles de Belgique, Bruxelles; **QM** – Queensland Museum, Australia; **ZMA** – Zoological Museum Amsterdam, now Naturalis Biodiversity Center, Leiden.

Abbreviations used on figures: **MdL** – mandible; **Mxp** – maxilliped; **P** – pereopod; **Plp** – pleopod; **Plt** – pleotelson; **UrP** – uropod.

Taxonomy

Order Isopoda Latreille Suborder Cymothoida Wägele, 1989 Superfamily Cymothooidea Leach, 1814 Family Cirolanidae Dana, 1852

Lucayalana Bruce & Brix, gen. n. http://zoobank.org/81A33124-9267-415A-9789-A928BC9CC466

Diagnosis (female). Head without rostral point. Frontal lamina short, narrow, less than 7% width of labrum, not extending to anterior margin of head; clypeus ventrally flat, not blade-like, not projecting. Pleonite 3 extending posteriorly to posterior of pleonite 5, laterally overlapping pleonites 4 and 5; ventrally broad, forming a strong ventrally directed blade; pleonite 5 as wide as pleotelson anterior margin; pleonites all visible in dorsal view. Pereopods 1–7 ambulatory, slender; dactylus short, less than half length of propodus. Pereopods 1–3 with ischium superior distal margins weakly produced, sparsely setose; merus superior distal margin weakly produced, not overriding propodus; pereopods 1–3 merus inferior margin RS not molariform; pereopods 5–7 basis without long PMS, ischium and merus distally without long setae. Vasa deferentia opening flush on sternite. Pleopod 1 rami sub-similar in width, exopod about

²/₃ width exopod, peduncle wider than long. Uropodal rami lamellar, subequal in size, with marginal robust and plumose setae.

Description. Head approximately 65% as wide as pereonite 1, anterior margin sub-truncate, rostrum absent. Body surfaces unornamented; pereonite 1 about 1.7 times as long as pereonite 2 in dorsal view. Pleon unornamented, about 16% BL, with 5 visible unfused segments, pleonite 1 partly visible in dorsal view; pleonite 2 postero-lateral margin weakly produced; those of pleonite 3 extending to posterior of pleonite 5. Pleotelson without longitudinal carinae, ridges or without tubercles; posterior margin with PMS and RS.

Antennula peduncle articles 1 and 2 not fused; peduncular article 2 at right angles to article 1; articles 1 and 2 short, combined length about length of article 3; articles 2 and 3 collinear flagellum 1.4x longer than peduncle; without callynophore. Antenna peduncle comprised of 5 articles, peduncular articles 1–3 shortest, articles 4 and 5 longest, 5 longer than 4; flagellum about twice as long as peduncle.

Frontal lamina short, ventrally flat, lanceolate, not extending to anterior margin of antennal peduncle, posteriorly abutting clypeus. Clypeus ventral surface not projecting relative to frontal lamina. Mandible incisors wide, right incisor tricuspidate; spine row with 4–5 RS. Maxillule mesial lobe with 3 CP RS. Maxilliped palp article 4 mesial margin weakly lobed; lateral margins of articles 2–5 with long setae; articles 3 and 4 distal margin width greater than proximal margin of article 4 and 5 respectively; endite with 2 coupling hooks.

Pereopods 1–7 dactylus with elongate secondary unguis present. Pereopod 1 dactylus shorter than palm; simple RS opposing dactylus. Pereopod 7 basis not noticeably broader in distal half compared to proximal half; margins with few discontinuous setae; ischium and merus not flattened, distal margin weakly expanded, inferior margins with few setae; inferodistal angles of ischium.

Pleopod 1 rami lamellar; endopod about 0.6 as wide as exopod, 2.4 times as long as wide. Pleopod 2 appendix masculina longer than endopod. Pleopods 1–5 with PMS present on all exopods and endopods of pleopods 1–4; endopod of pleopod 5 with small proximomesial lobe. Uropod peduncle mesial margin strongly produced; exopod lateral margin not excised.

Male. To date only one male specimen (described herein) has been collected. Appendix masculina inserted basally, slender; penial processes flat, quadrate, widely separate lobes.

Type species. *Cirolana troglexuma* Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997; by monotypy and original designation.

Remarks. *Lucayalana* gen. n. presents a suite of characters little derived from freeliving cirolanid genera such as *Cirolana*, reflected by the original placing of *Cirolana troglexuma* in that genus (Botosaneanu and Iliffe 1997). The pleon, mouthparts, pereopods and pleopods are relatively unmodified and these characters differ to that seen in many of the subterranean or stygial genera. Typical of stygian cirolanids, the genus lacks eyes, the antennular and antennal flagellum are relatively elongate and the pereopods are somewhat slender. Characters that exclude the species from *Cirolana* are the short and narrow frontal lamina (vs ventrally flat, pentagonal or quadrate and relatively wide, and extending between antennular bases to the anterior margin of head in *Cirolana*), antennula peduncle articles 1 and 2 being at approximately right angles (co-linear in *Cirolana*), with article 3 being slightly longer (1.1) than the combined lengths of articles 1 and 2 (shorter in *Cirolana*); and the lack of tubercular robust setae on the inferior margin of the merus of pereopods 1–3 (present in *Cirolana*). The shape of the anterior margin of the head is unusual in being subtruncate, although this does vary within genera. Species of *Cirolana* with a rounded anterior margin to the head that lacks a rostral point all belong to the 'tuberculate' group of species (see Bruce 1986; Bruce 1995), characterized by the presence of dorsal tubercles on the pereonites, pleon and pleotelson and also with a characteristic discontinuous pattern or robust setae on the uropodal exopod lateral margin.

The difference in frontal lamina shape and size between *Lucayalana* and *Cirolana* is substantial. In *Cirolana* the frontal lamina is pentagonal, with five straight margins, as is seen in the type species *Cirolana cranchii* Leach, 1818 (see Bruce and Ellis 1983) and species *Cirolana 'parva*-group' (see Bruce and Bowman 1982, Bruce 2004), or quadrate with two more-or-less straight and parallel lateral margins and a rounded or truncate anterior margin that may or may not project (e.g. Bruce 1995, Bruce and Brandt 2006). In most species of *Cirolana* the frontal lamina extends anteriorly past the antennula bases (see previous citations), and ranges in proportion from 1.5 to 3.0 as long as posterior width. In *Lucayalana* the frontal lamina is short, lacks the broad flat ventral surface and does not extend anteriorly beyond the antennula and has two weakly convex lateral margins that form an acute or narrowly rounded point. The frontal lamina *Cirolana* can be considered broad–that is the posterior width is approximately 0.4 (40%) the width of the clypeus; in *Lucayalana* the posterior width is less than 10% (c. 0.07) the width of the clypeus.

Pleon morphology is generally consistent within cirolanid genera with regard to a characters such as fusion, extent of the pleonite posterolateral margins, expansion of posterolateral margins and also relative size of the pleon (as a percentage of total body length) and the number of visible somites. Bowman (1975, fig. 9) summarised and illustrated nine types of pleonal arrangement from full fusion of all pleonites and pleotelson to all pleonites unfused. The pleon type of Lucayalana does not conform to any of these and is similar to the pleon morphology shown by species of the Cirolana "*parva*-group" (see Bruce 2004), and also *Antrolana* Bowman, 1964, where pleonites 3 and 4 both extend posteriorly to or beyond or the anterior margin of the pleotelson, with pleonite 3 laterally overlapping pleonites 4 and 5; pleonites 4 and 5 are not narrower than the anterior margin of the pleon. A similar pleon morphology is also shown by genera such as Aatolana Bruce, 1993 and Plakolana Bruce, 1993 and also the unrelated genus Dolicholana Bruce, 1986, but in that case the posterolateral margins of pleonite 3 are expanded. Lucayalana differs from the genera mentioned in that the ventral part of pleonite 3 is expanded and forms a strongly developed and ventrally directed blade, a character lacking in *Cirolana*; furthermore species of *Cirolana* typically have a short pleon (c. 10-12% of total body length) with pleonite1 largely or wholly concealed

by pereonite 7 in dorsal view; in *Lucayalana* pleonite 1 is dorsally largely visible and consequently the pleon is proportionally longer (16% body length).

The most similar genus is the monotypic *Antrolana*, known only from freshwater caves in Virginia and West Virginia, USA. *Antrolana* differs in having antennula peduncular articles co-linear, and article 2 notable longer than in the new genus; pleonite 3 posterolateral margins that do not extend posteriorly beyond pleonite 4 (vs extending to anterior margin of pleotelson), the endopods of pleopods 3–5 are significantly smaller than exopod (vs rami subsimilar). There are other differences between the two genera though we would be reluctant to attach generic significance to them at this point–these include shorter pereopodal dactylus, lack of penial processes, and in *Lucayalana* a sub-truncate anterior margin of the head. The molecular delineation based on COI likewise demonstrates that our species of *Lucayalana* and *Antrolana lira* are genetically distinct.

There are three other genera that are superficially similar to *Lucayalana*, but all can be separated by one or more distinct and easily observed characters. The genus *Haptolana* Bowman, 1966 (worldwide, and see Bruce 2008) has haptorial pereopods and an anteriorly wide frontal lamina; *Speocirolana* Bolívar y Pieltain, 1950 (Texas-Mexico region) has pleonites 4 and 5 distinctly narrower than the pleotelson anterior margin and also has haptorial pereopods. Molecular data available for two species of *Speocirolana*, show that *Lucayalana* is distinct. *Sphaeromides* Dollfus, 1897 (France, Bulgaria and former Yugoslavia) has an elongate frontal lamina that is widest distally and anterior pereopods with haptorial dactylus; and pleopod 1 endopod is elongate, 3.5 times as long as wide (Racovitza 1912).

The monotypic *Exumalana* Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 2003 (also Bahamas) superficially appears distinct from *Lucayalana* gen. n., with a far wider body shape, and wide, broadly rounded pleotelson. The appendages, notably antennae, antennulae, mouthparts and pereopods do not markedly differ from free-living genera similar to *Cirolana* or *Lucayalana* gen. n. In contrast *Exumalana* has a long, wide and anteriorly rounded frontal lamina (vs short anteriorly acute in *Lucayalana*), the anterior margin of the head is smoothly rounded with a rostral point (vs truncate, no rostral point), and the uropodal peduncle is broad and flat, with rounded rami the exopod of which is less than half the length of peduncle and about 0.6 length of endopod (vs rami longer than peduncle, distally acute).

Etymology. The name is derived from the Lucayan peoples, the original inhabitants of the Bahamas.

Lucayalana troglexuma (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n.

Cirolana (*C.*) *troglexuma* Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997: 79, figs 1–24.– 1999: 96. *Cirolana* (*Cirolana*) *troglexuma*. –Iliffe and Botosaneanu 2006: 15, plate 1b, fig. 19.

Type locality. Oven Rock Cave, [Great Guana Cay] Exuma Cays, The Bahamas; habitat is anchialine.

Material examined. *Holotype* \bigcirc (non-ovig. c. 10 mm – dissected, body in three pieces) Oven Rock Cave, Great Guana Cay, Exuma Cays, The Bahamas, 22 May 1995, depth 1–22 m, plankton net, coll. T.M Iliffe. (USNM 285818).

Non-type material: \bigcirc (non-ovig. 8.5 mm), Great Guana Cay, Exuma Cays, Bahamas; Oven Rock Cave, 31 March 1988, coll. TM Iliffe. (ZMA CRUS.I.204411). \bigcirc (non-ovig. 7.8 mm), Great Guana Cay, Exuma Cays, Bahamas; Oven Rock Cave, 14 August 2002, coll. TM Iliffe. (IRScNB-KBIN I.G. 29862; INV.112511). \bigcirc (non-ovig. 7.4 mm), manca (4.1 mm), Cat Island, Central Bahamas, Big Fountain Cave, 18 August 2004, coll. TM Iliffe. (ZMA CRUS.I.204653). 1 \bigcirc (6.9 mm), 28 \bigcirc (7.4–10.7 mm), Eleuthera, Bahamas; Hatchet Bay Cave, seaward cave entrance 25°21'59.9"N, 76°31'12.8"W, landward entrance at 25°21'56.5"N, 76° 31' 20.8"W, November 2014, coll. N Balfour (ZMH K45768–45777 (\bigcirc K45769); QM W34360).

Also examined. *Cirolana willeyi* Stebbing, 1904: 3 (7.8 mm), Sungei Mandai, Singapore, 01°26.094'N, 03°45.656'E, 26 October 2012, mangroves, coll. YL D Fautin and R Tan (QM unreg). *Cirolana erodiae* Bruce, 1986: 3 (7.8 mm), Lizard Island, April 2008, coral rubble, coll. C. Glasby (QM W30557).

Description. *Body* 2.2 times as long as greatest width, dorsal surfaces smooth, widest at pereonite 5, lateral margins weakly ovate. *Rostral point* absent. *Pereonite 1 and coxae* 2–3 each with posteroventral angle right-angled; coxae 5–7 with incomplete oblique carina; posterior margins of pereonites 5–7 smooth. *Pleon* with pleonite 1 largely concealed by pereonite 7; pleonites 3–5 posterior margin smooth; posterolateral angles of pleonite 2 forming acute point, not posteriorly produced; pleonite 3 with posterolateral margins extending clearly beyond posterior margin of pleonite 5, acute; clearly extending beyond posterior margin of pleonite 5, posterolateral margin of pleonite 4 acute. *Pleotelson* 0.75 times as long as anterior width, dorsal surface without longitudinal carina; lateral margins weakly convex, margins smooth, posterior margin sub-truncate, without median point, with 10 robust setae.

Antennula peduncle articles 1 and 2 distinct, articulated; article 2 0.9 times as long as article 1, articles 3 and 4 1.1 times as long as combined lengths of articles 1 and 2, article 3 3.5 times as long as wide; flagellum with 12 articles, extending to posterior of pereonite 1. *Antenna* peduncle article 4 2.3 times as long as wide, 2.3 times as long as article 3, inferior margin with 0 plumose setae, and 2 short simple setae; article 5 1.4 times as long as article 4, 4.5 times as long as wide, inferior margin with 2 pappose setae, anterodistal angle with cluster of 2 short simple setae (and 3 pappose setae); flagellum with 21 articles, extending to pereonite 5.

Frontal lamina lanceolate, 2.9 times as wide as long posterior width, lateral margins converging to anterior, anterior margin acute.

Mandible molar process with proximal cluster of long simple setae; right mandible spine row composed of 7 spines; mandible palp article 2 with 9 distolateral setae, mandible palp article 3 with 7 robust biserrate setae (in two groups). *Maxillula* mesial lobe with 3 large and circumplumose RS; lateral lobe with 13 RS. *Maxilla* lateral lobe with 5 long simple setae; middle lobe with 14 long simple setae (2 plumose); mesial lobe with 5 distal simple setae, with 6 proximal simple and plumose setae. *Maxilliped*



Figure 4. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. **A** female: habitus dorsal (ZMH-K45768) **B** female, habitus lateral view (ZMH-K45768) **C** female head dorsal view (QM W34360, #13/14) **D** paratype female head, ventral perpendicular view (QM W34360, #13/14). Scale bars 1 mm.



Figure 5. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. CLSM female (ZMH-K45776): habitus dorsal & habitus ventral, head perpendicular view, head ventral view.



Figure 6. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. CLSM female (ZMH-K45776): pereopods and uropods, Pleotelson margin, RS.


Figure 7. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. CLSM male (ZMH-K45769): habitus dorsal & habitus ventral, head ventral view, Plp2.



Figure 8. Lucayalana troglexuma (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n., female (ZMH-K45768):
A MdL A' Detail (23 setae + 8 slender setae + numerous fine setae) A" turned view on IP B maxillula
C Maxilla D Mxp D' ventral view Mxp. Scale bars 0.1 mm.



Figure 9. Lucayalana troglexuma (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. female (ZMH-K45768):
A Plp1 C P7 D Antennula D' detail on setae on peduncle D'' detail on flagellum E Antenna. Holotype male: B Plp2. Scale bars 0.1 mm.



Figure 10. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. female (ZMH-K45768): A P1 B P2 B' detail of setae on carpus C P3 C' detail of dactylus claw. Scale bars 0.1 mm.



Figure 11. Lucayalana troglexuma (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. female (ZMH-K45768): A P4 B P5 C P6. Scale bars 0.1 mm.



Figure 12. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. female (ZMH-K45768): Urp 14/14 (details of uropod from QM W34360, #14/14); ZMH-K45768: pleopods and Plt margin. Scale bars 0.1 mm.



Figure 13. Lucayalana troglexuma (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. Comparison of pleonite shapes with two other cirolanid species. A1-3 Lucayalana troglexuma (MTQ-W34360) B1-3 Cirolana erodiae Bruce, 1986 (QM W30557) C1-3 Cirolana willeyi Stebbing, 1904 (QM unreg).

palp article 2 mesial margin with 5 slender setae, lateral margin distally with 2 slender setae; article 3 mesial margin with 10 slender setae, lateral margin with 6 slender setae; article 4 mesial margin with 12 slender setae, lateral margin with 4 slender setae; article 5 distal margin 18 setae, lateral margin with 3 setae; endite with 4 long CPS, and 2 coupling setae.

Pereopod 1 basis 2.4 times as long as greatest width, superior distal angle with cluster of 1 acute setae; ischium 0.5 times as long as basis, inferior margin with 2 setae, superior distal margin with 1 RS; merus inferior margin with 5 acute RS, set as two rows, superior distal angle with 1 setae; carpus inferior margin with 2 RS; propodus 2.6 times as long as wide, inferior margin with 4 RS; dactylus 0.6 as long as propodus, with bifid secondary unguis; inferior margin with setal fringe lacking. Pereopod 2 ischium inferior margin with 4 stout, acute RS, superior distal margin with 1 RS (large); merus inferior margin with 12 stout acute RS, set as two rows, superior distal margin with 4 acute RS; carpus inferodistal angle with 5 RS (2 serrate, 2 simple); propodus 4.1 as long as wide, with 3 RS; dactylus 0.4 as long as propodus. Pereopod 3 similar to percopod 2. Percopod 6 similar to percopod 7. Percopod 7 basis 2.9 times as long as greatest width, superior margin weakly convex, inferior margin with 2 palmate setae; ischium 0.4 as long as basis, inferior margin with 2 RS, superior distal angle with 2 RS, inferior distal angle with 4 RS; merus 1 as long as ischium, 2.1 times as long as wide, inferior margin with 10 RS, superior distal angle with 8 RS, inferior distal angle with 7 RS; carpus 0.8 as long as ischium, 2.1 times as long as wide, inferior margin with 0 RS, superior distal angle with 0 RS, inferior distal angle with 5 RS and 3 submarginal short RS; propodus 1.1 as long as ischium, 4.3 times as long as wide, inferior margin with 3 single RS, superior distal angle with 2 and 1 palmate slender setae, inferior distal angle with 2 RS; dactylus 0.4 as long as propodus.

Pleopod 1 exopod 1.4 times as long as wide, lateral margin straight, distally broadly rounded, mesial margin strongly convex, with PMS from distal two-thirds, with ~19 PMS; endopod 2.1 times as long as wide, distally broadly rounded, lateral margin concave, with PMS on distal margin only, mesial margin with PMS on distal margin only, endopod with ~10 PMS; peduncle 1.7 times as wide as long; mesial margin with 5 coupling setae. *Pleopod 2* exopod with ~29 PMS, endopod with ~13 PMS. *Pleopod 3* exopod with ~38 PMS, endopod with ~38 PMS, endopod with ~36 PMS. *Pleopod 4* exopod with ~38 PMS, endopod with ~36 PMS. *Pleopod 5* exopod with ~36 PMS. Pleopods 2–5 peduncle distolateral margin with prominent acute RS, 3–5 endopods without distomesial serrate scales.

Uropod peduncle ventrolateral margin with 3 RS, lateral margin with medial short acute RS, posterior lobe about one-half as long as endopod; rami extending beyond pleotelson, marginal setae in single tier, apices acute. *Endopod* apically not bifid; lateral margin weakly convex, proximal lateral margin with 1 RS; distal lateral margin with 2 RS, mesial margin weakly convex, with 8 RS. *Exopod* not extending to end of endopod, 3.1 times as long as greatest width, apically not bifid; lateral margin weakly convex, with 5 RS.

Male. Similar to female but for sexual characters. Appendix masculina 1.7 times as long as endopod, 17.0 times as along as proximal width, apex with short acuminate

tip. Penial processes separated by 20% width of sternite, flat quadrate lobes, width 1.04 length.

Variation. Many specimens had the robust setae missing, so precise counts could not be obtained from all specimens. The number of marginal robust setae on the *pleotelson* (*n*=12) ranges from 6 to 10, with 8 (42%) or 9 (25%) being most frequent. *Uropodal exopod* later margin robust setae (*n*=20): 5–7, with 5 (55%) and 6 (most frequent 40%), 7 once; mesial margin robust setae (*n*=21) with 4–7, with 6 (52%) and 5 (43%) most frequent. ++ later margin robust setae (*n*=18): 1+1 (33%) or 2+1 (77%); mesial margin with 6–16 robust setae (*n*=24), with only 6 (17%) and 9 (21%) occurring more than twice. These data are from the Eleuthera series, specimens from the Exuma Cays all fall within this range.

The range of variation in the robust setae of the uropodal endopod mesial margin is unusual within the family. Also unusual is the difference in the shape of the pleotelson posterior margin, for the most being subtruncate with the uropodal rami extending beyond the posterior margin of the pleotelson (e.g. Figures 4A, 5A) except for the single male that has angled posterior margins with a clear median point of inflection with the uropodal rami extending to but not beyond the posterior pleotelson margin (Figure 7A). Sexual dimorphism is present in several genera of Cirolanidae, usually in the pleotelson and uropodal rami. Mature males of species of *Cirolana* in the so-called "tuberculate group" (see Bruce 1986) may have a differently shaped pleotelson and uropodal rami with more setae, than do the females. Such species include *Cirolana comata* Keable, 2001, *Cirolana pleonastica* Stebbing, 1900 (see Bruce 1994) and *Cirolana wongat* Bruce, 1994. Mature males of species of the *Cirolana "parva*-group" have a dense setose fringe on the inferior margin of pereopod 1 that is absent in females.

Remarks. The species can be identified by the generic characters, the small and anteriorly acute frontal lamina together with the pleonite morphology, notably the ventral expansion of the lateral margin of pleonite 2, distinguishing the species from all other cave cirolanids in the region. Molecular identification is possible using the species DNA barcodes.

Distribution. Previous records are from anchialine caves on Great Exuma Island (Oven Rock Cave), Cat Island, Grand Guana Cay (one of the Exuma Cays) and Eleuthera; all are on the Great Bahama Bank, a shallow water platform surrounded on all sides by deep ocean waters.

Molecular results

The mitochondrial COI and 16S loci for 14 and 15 specimens (incl. the single male) (Tab. 3) were investigated, respectively. Furthermore, the nuclear 18S rDNA locus was obtained for three specimens (the single male and two females). Final alignments had a length of 658 bp (COI), 382 bp (16S) and 2645 bp (18S), respectively.

The COI overview based on additional sequence data of cirolanid specimens stored in the public databases BOLD and NCBI indicates that all individuals from Hatchet



Figure 14. *Lucayalana troglexuma* (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997), comb. n. **A** NJ-topology of *Lucayalana* and all other cirolanid genera with available COI data in NCBI and BOLD, including Aegidae as outgroup taxa. Bootstrap support values are indicated at the branches. *L. troglexuma* and species of the genus *Cirolana* are highlighted in bold red and bold black, respectively **B** COI haplotype network of *L. troglexuma*. H1–H8: individual haplotypes. The asterisks (*) indicates the haplotype containing the single male specimen. Haplotype size is proportional to its frequency in the total dataset **C** 16S haplotype network of *L. troglexuma*. H1–H4: individual haplotypes. The asterisks (*) indicates the haplotype containing the single male specimen. Haplotype size is proportional to its frequency in the total dataset.

Bay Cave constitute a single species and that this species is genetically distinct to all species we were able to compare to, i.e. had a deposited COI sequences (Fig. 14A). Those species include the cirolanid genera *Antrolana*, *Bathynomus* A. Milne-Edwards, 1879 (and 1879b), *Cirolana, Cirolanides* Benedict, 1896, *Eurydice* Leach, 1815, *Excirolana* Richardson, 1912, *Natatolana* Bruce 1981, *Speocirolana* and *Sphaerolana* Cole and Minckley, 1970. The COI statistical parsimony network demonstrate eight haplo-types (Fig. 14B). The sequence of the single male specimen is shared by three other females (COI haplotype 1). The individual haplotypes are separated by a maximum of eight mutations, i.e. between COI haplotype 1 and haplotype 8. The 16S network depicts four haplotypes (Fig. 14C), which demonstrate a maximum of four mutations between 16S haplotype 3 and haplotype 4. The 16S sequence of the male is identical with the sequences of eight females (16S haplotype 1). Finally, all three nuclear 18S sequences were identical.

Geological history and habitat description

The Bahamas archipelago is subdivided into a series of large shallow water platforms, referred to as banks, which had their origins during the initial stages of the formation of the Atlantic Ocean in the Early Cretaceous (Mullins and Lynts 1977). The largest of these banks, the Great Bahama Bank, includes the islands of Eleuthera, Exumas and Cat, among others. Drill cores have confirmed that these banks consist of continuous series of shallow water derived carbonates at least 4,500 m in thickness (Meyerhoff and Hatten 1974). Entire platforms have subsided under their own weight at an average rate of 3.6 cm per 1,000 years but are maintained in their position relative to sea level by carbonate deposition (Lynts 1970). The banks, where water depths are typically shallower than 25 m, are separated from one another by wide, steep walled channels reaching depths to 5,000 m (Andrews et al. 1970).

Since the beginning of the Pleistocene, the Bahama banks have been greatly impacted by changing ice age sea levels. The Banks were dry land during past ice ages (Richards et al. 1994), when sea level was as much as 120 meters lower than at present (Siddall et al. 2003); thus the land area of the Bahamas today represents only a small fraction of their prehistoric extent. When they were exposed to the atmosphere, the karstic limestone was subjected to chemical weathering that created the numerous caves and water filled sinkholes locally referred to as blue holes (Mylroie et al. 1995).

The modern day Bahamian Islands were not formed by coral reefs but instead by the precipitation of ooid sands in the shallows of these large carbonate platforms during high sea stands in the mid to late Quaternary. Ensuing periods of low sea levels exposed these sands to the atmosphere and, blown by wind (eolian deposition), the dune ridges and dry surfaces of the islands took shape (Sealey 2006).

Hatchet Bay Cave on Eleuthera is one of the largest known flank margin caves in the Bahamas (Mylroie and Mylroie 2013). It is believed to have formed by mixing dissolution in a fresh-water lens during the last interglacial sea-level highstand at 125,000 years BP (i.e. Before Present) when sea level was about +6 m elevation. The cave developed on three levels. The uppermost entrance chamber, floored by blocks of collapse limestone, contains inactive stalactites and stalagmites and is inhabited by a colony of bats. An extensive middle level, reached by ladder, contains dry passages and larger chambers of phreatic origin. The lowest level, also accessible by ladder, contains a tidally fluctuating anchialine pool with water depths to 3 m. Surface water on 15 June 1986 had a salinity of 32‰. In addition to *L. troglexuma*, other stygobiont species collected from this pool included the halocyprid ostracods *Humphreysella bahamensis* (Kornicker & Iliffe, 1989) and *Deeveya jillae* Kornicker & Iliffe, 1989, the cyclopid copepods *Speleoithona eleutherensis* Rocha & Iliffe, 1991 and *Troglocyclops janstocki* Rocha & Iliffe, 1994, and the polynoid polychaete *Pelagomacellicephala iliffei* Pettibone, 1985.

Ecology and biogeography of Lucayalana

Although studies of the anchialine fauna of the Bahamas have been ongoing for more than 30 years, hundreds of caves remain to be investigated and few have been thoroughly surveyed or explored such that numerous species likely remain undiscovered or undescribed. Today, the Bahamas has the richest fauna of stygobiont anchialine crustaceans from any area in the world. In total, 123 crustacean species have been recorded from Bahama's caves, many to the same genera (e.g. Balinella Fosshagen, Boxshall & Iliffe, 2001, Exumella Fosshagen, 1970, Humphreysella Kornicker & Danielopol in Kornicker, Danielopol & Humphreys, 2006, Procaris Chase & Manning, 1972, Spelaeoecia Angel & Iliffe, 1987, Tulumella Bowman & Iliffe, 1988, Typhlatya Creaser, 1936) or even species (e.g. Barbouria cubensis von Martens, 1872, Janicea antiguensis Chase, 1972, Parhippolyte sterreri (Hart & Manning, 1981)) that inhabit anchialine caves in Cuba and Yucatan (Source: www.tamug.edu/cavebiology/Bahamas/ BahamaIntro.html). In the case of peracarid crustaceans, the Bahamian fauna includes 11 cumacean, seven amphipod, three mysid and 12 isopod species (Jaume et al. 2013, Pesce and Iliffe 2010). Most of these species represent exclusively anchialine taxa (Daenekas et al. 2009) and nearly all are endemic (see www.cavebiology.com).

Morphological variation and genetic diversity of Lucayalana

Specimens of *L. troglexuma* females show minimal morphological variation at the three locations (Exuma Cays, Cat Island and Eleuthera), and all evidence indicate that there is a single species; although additional sequence data from other known cave populations would help to understand if genetic radiation occurred. So far, the molecular data (i.e. CO1) from the Hatchet Bay Cave specimens show a high amount of genetic diversity, when related to the number of sequenced specimens indicating i) an old species; ii) a high mutation rate; or iii) a large effective population size.

Implication of multi-island distribution of Lucayalana in relation to Bahamian

Hypothesis 1: One single, widespread species with gene flow

biogeography

Hypothetically the different caves may be interconnected by an underground network of cracks and crevices, i.e. the crevicular system as proposed by Iliffe (1990), large enough for L. troglexuma individuals to pass through. Furthermore, prior to about 10,000 years BP and for most of the preceding 500,000 years, sea level would have been low enough that the entire top of the Great Bahama Bank would have been emergent and all islands interconnected into a single, much larger land mass. Due to the highly porous, karstic nature of the limestone, groundwater would have receded along with ice age sea levels as confirmed by dating of submerged speleothems from now underwater caves (Richards et al. 1994). Thus, the only anchialine habitat that would have been available at that time must have been in much deeper subterranean systems (>120 m below present sea level) that are currently inaccessible and consequently unknown due to human physiological limitations for deep diving. Phylogenetic analyses of stygobiont annelid *Pelagomacellicephala iliffei* Pettibone, 1985 populations inhabiting anchialine caves on four islands from the Great Bahama Bank provides support for crevicular dispersal within, but not between islands (Gonzalez et al. 2017). In addition, some anchialine taxa including remipedes, halocyprid ostracods, etc. have been discovered in wholly marine, sub sea floor caves raising questions as to the true extent of the anchialine habitat.

Hypothesis 2: Several isolated, cryptic species

Although the majority of Bahama's anchialine species are endemic and so far known only from a single cave or adjacent caves that are likely connected, several anchialine crustaceans are more widespread such as the cirolanid isopod *Bahalana yagerae* (Carpenter, 1994) and the remipede *Cryptocorynetes longulus* Wollerman, Koenmann and Iliffe, 2007 occurring on both the Great Bahama and Little Bahama Banks. This may imply a more recent marine colonisation of the cave aquifers from marine ancestors. Since molecular comparisons among these and most other anomalously distributed cave populations have not been carried out, it is unknown if any of them include cryptic species. Two anchialine remipede populations from the Yucatan Peninsula have been identified as cryptic species (Neiber et al. 2012, Olesen pers. comm.).

The limestone caves of the Bahamas have likely persisted as habitat over the last 120 MA and the buffered environment may partly explain their unusual accumulation of subterranean taxa (Jaume et al. 2013). During this time period, the populations of *L. troglexuma* in the caves may have been isolated through changes in sea level or cave collapse leading to the erection of physical, environmental (e.g. salinity,

dissolved oxygen levels), hydrological, ecological, or other barriers such that individual populations could development as cryptic species.

It is of interest that two species of cirolanid, *Bahalana yagerae* and *L. troglexuma*, occur on more than one island. Distant multi-site distributions are uncommon in aquatic stygial isopods, but known for several other species of cirolanids such *Antrolana lira* (see Holsinger et al. 1994; see also Iliffe and Botosaneanu 2006). Assessment of these separate populations using molecular data could answer several questions such as the degree of population differentiation, the potential presence of cryptic species and the level of genetic diversity.

Stygobiont cirolanid isopods from the Bahamas Archipelago

Bahalana abacoana Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 2006. Abaco Island.

Bahalana caicosana Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 2003b. North and Middle Caicos Islands (while politically separate, the Turks and Caicos Islands are a southern extension of the island chain that form the Bahamas archipelago).

Bahalana cardiopus Notenboom, 1981. Acklins and Mayaguana Islands.

Bahalana exumina Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 2002. Great Guana Cay, Exuma Cays.

Bahalana geracei Carpenter, 1981. San Salvador Island.

Bahalana yagerae (Carpenter, 1994). Andros Island and Sweeting's Cay, Grand Bahama Island (Botosaneanu and Iliffe 2002); Great Exuma Island (Botosaneanu and Iliffe 2003a).

Lucayalana troglexuma (Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 1997). Present study. Great Guana Cay, Exuma Cays; Cat Island; Eleuthera.

Exumalana reptans Botosaneanu & Iliffe, 2003a. Norman's Pond Cay, Exuma Cays.

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