<u>RESEARCH ARTICLE</u>

NEW INSIGHT INTO THE PHYLOGENY AND BIOGEOGRAPHY OF THE CYPRINID FISHES *LABEO* (CYPRINIDAE; CYPRINIFORMES) IN AFRICA WITH EVIDENCE FOR CRYPTIC DIVERSITY IN ETHIOPIA

Kebede A. Beshera^{1,*} and Phillip M. Harris²

ABSTRACT: To investigate the molecular phylogeny and biogeography of African Labeo and infer and date cladogenetic events that led to its diversification, a time-calibrated phylogeny was constructed based on analysis of mitochondrial cytochrome b (cyt b) gene sequences obtained from 18 African and 14 Asian Labeo species. Phylogenies were constructed under the GTR nucleotide substitution model employing Bayesian inference (BI) and Maximum Likelihood (ML) methods. A time calibrated phylogeny was generated using the GTR model with the Birth and Death speciation tree prior. Both Bayesian and ML phylogenies rendered African Labeo nonmonophyletic with South African species grouped along with some Asian species suggesting multiple independent in-to-Africa dispersals of Labeo. Two exclusively African clades were recovered within Labeo; the first includes samples from lower and middle Congo and the eastern segment of Nilo-Sudanic river drainages, while the second comprised samples from the Congo and Nilo-Sudanic drainages. The separation of the Eastern Nilo-Sudanic + lower and middle Congo (clade 1) and Eastern and western Nilo-Sudanic + Congo clades (clade 2) may have occurred around 13.8 MYA with subsequent diversification in these clades leading to extant species diversity of Labeo in Africa. Overall, this study provides new insights into the taxonomy and biogeography of African Labeo with evidence for cryptic diversity within Ethiopia and incongruence between traditional taxonomy and molecular phylogeny. In addition, the study found a close correlation between the biogeographic history of the region and genetic diversity of Labeo in Africa.

Key words/phrases: Africa, Biogeography, Cryptic diversity, Labeo, Phylogeny.

¹Louisiana State University Eunice, 2048 Johnson Highway, Eunice, LA 70535. E-mail: kbeshera@lsue.edu

² Biodiversity and Systematics, Department of Biological Sciences, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0345, U.S.A. E-mail: pharris@ua.edu

^{*} Author to whom all correspondence should be addressed.

INTRODUCTION

The subtribe Labeoina (Cyprinidae) defined by Yang *et al.* (2012) and recently raised to a tribe level as Labeonini by Tan and Armbruster (2018), includes the Afro-Asian genus *Labeo* Cuvier 1816 and its Asian allies. With about 105 valid species, *Labeo* represents one of the largest and most diverse genera among the Cyprinidae (Yang *et al.*, 2010). The type species of *Labeo* is an African species, *L. niloticus* Forskål 1775.

African Labeo along with fishes of the tribe Garrini (as defined by Tan and Armbruster, 2018) originated in Asia (Greenwood, 1972; Reid, 1985) and colonized Africa through multiple dispersal events (Tang et al., 2009; Yang and Mayden, 2010; Yang et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2012). Fossil evidence indicates that Labeo existed in Africa as far back as the Middle Miocene (Stewart, 2001; 2009), suggesting that the diversification of these fishes in Africa probably occurred 11.6–16.0 million years ago. According to Stewart and Murray (2017), the late Miocene Bab el-Mandeb Strait land bridge has likely allowed the cyprinids Labeo, Labeobarbus and Barbus access to the African continent from Asia and Arabia. These immigrants are now generally widespread throughout most of Africa including the Nile, Congo, and Zambezi basins as well as eastern and western African lakes and rivers and have had a large impact on taxonomic diversity in African freshwater fish faunas (Stewart and Murray, 2017). With about 80 species, Labeo is the third most diverse cyprinid genus in the continent, after Enteromius Cope 1867 and Labeobarbus Ruppel 1835 (Reid, 1985; Skelton et al., 1991).

Historically, the morphology of the lips and associated structures of *Labeo* have been used as a basis for intrageneric taxonomy. African *Labeo* were reviewed based on morphology by Reid (1985), Tshibwabwa and Teugels (1995), and Tshibwabwa (1997), while a recent taxonomic examination (Van Steenberge *et al.*, 2016) led to corrections of records and type designations for seven Congolese species. In his revision of African *Labeo*, Reid (1985) subdivided the genus into six species-groups, namely *L. coubie*, *L. forskalii*, *L. gregorii*, *L. niloticus*, *L. macrostoma*, and *L. umbratus* species-groups. However, he doubted that these subdivisions may not represent monophyletic groups underscoring the need to assess the monophyly of these groups using molecular data. The species he included in each of these groups are listed below:

1. L. coubie group (LCG): L. coubie Ruppel 1832, L. barbatus Boulenger 1898, L. degeni Boulenger 1920, L. longipinnis Boulenger 1898

- L. forskalii group (LFG): L. forskalli Ruppel 1835, L. ansorgii Boulenger 1907, L. cylindricus Peters 1852, L. darlingii Boulenger 1911, L. trigliceps Pellegrin 1926, L. victorianus Boulenger 1901, L. fuelleborni Hilgendorf & Pappenheim 1903, L. worthringtoni Fowler 1958, L. molybdinus duplessi 1963, L. lunatus Jubb 1963, L. parvus Boulenger 1902, L. ogunensis Boulenger 1910, L. obscurus Lin 1981, L. djourae Blache & Miton 1960, L. alluaudi Pellegrin 1933, L. lukulae Boulenger 1902, L. nunensis Pellegrin 1929, L. nasus Boulenger 1899, and L. sorex Nichols & Griscom 1917
- 3. *L. gregorii* group (LGG): *L. bottega* Vinciguerra 1897 and *L. gregorii* Günther 1894
- 4. *L. macrostoma* group (LMG): *L. cyclorhynchus* Boulenger 1899, *L. macrostoma* Boulenger 1898, *L. greenii* Boulenger 1902, and *L. batesii* Boulenger 1911
- L. niloticus group (LNG): L. niloticus Linnaeus 1758 (junior synonym of L. vulgaris), L. horie Heckel 1847, L. senegalensis Valenciennes 1842, L. weeksii Boulenger 1909, L. mesops Günther 1868, L. lineatus Boulenger 1898, L. rosae Steindachner 1894, L. altivelis Peters 1852, and L. ruddi Boulenger 1907.
- 6. L. umbratus group (LUG): L. umbratus Smith 1841, L. capensis Smith 1841, L. seeberi Gilchrist & Thompson 1911, and L. rubromaculatus Gilchrist & Thompson 1913

In addition, morphological characters that have been widely used for species identification and phylogenetic reconstruction are highly variable confounding our ability to make accurate taxonomic and phylogenetic inference. In the past few decades, molecular markers such as mitochondrial DNA sequences (e.g., cyt *b* and cytochrome *c* oxidase gene sequences) have become increasingly popular as tools for phylogenetic and taxonomic studies. Researchers working on African *Labeo* only recently began to explore the potential use of molecular analysis to gain insight into the taxonomy of, and interrelationships within, *Labeo*. These include Lowenstein *et al.* (2011, for *Labeo* species from the Congo basin), Ramoejane (2016, for southern African *Labeo* species), and Yang *et al.* (2012, for African species were either underrepresented or not analyzed. Yang *et al.* (2012), on the other hand, analyzed more comprehensive data on *Labeo* but was focused mainly on establishing major relationships among

member genera and species within the framework of the tribe Labeonini. Consequently, other aspects of the phylogeny remain poorly resolved, notably monophyly of individual species and intraspecific genetic variation and phylogeography. These represent significant gaps in understanding the taxonomy, phylogeny, and biogeography of *Labeo* in Africa.

In Ethiopia, fishes of the genus Labeo are widely distributed in, and inhabit, all the major river basins including the Abay (Blue Nile), Awash, Baro-Akobo, Omo, Tekeze, and Genale-Wabishebele as well as the Rift Valley lakes Abaya and Chamo (Golubtsov and Mina, 2003; Tadele Awoke, 2015; Stewart and Murray, 2017). About 11 species of Labeo have been reported from the freshwaters of Ethiopia in early literature (Golubtsov et al., 2002; Golubtsov and Mina, 2003; Lemma Abera et al., 2014; Tadele Awoke, 2015). Reported species include Labeo bottegi Vinciguerra 1897, L. boulengeri Vinciguerra 1912, L. brunellii Parenzan 1939, L. coubie Rüppel 1832, L. cylindricus Peters 1852, L. forskalii Rüppel 1835, L. horie Heckel 1847, L. niloticus Linnaeus 1758, L. pellegrini Zollezi 1939, L. parvus Boulenger 1902, and L. vulgaris Heckel 1847. However, this is not an accurate estimate due to insufficient explorations of the taxon in the freshwaters of Ethiopia and the use of ambiguous or synonymous taxon names. Labeo brunellii for example, has long been recognized as a junior synonym of L. horie (Golubtsov et al., 2002). Besides being the second most abundant fish group (next to Labeobarbus) in Ethiopian rivers (Zeleke Berie, 2007; Simagegnew Melaku et al., 2017) Labeo contributes substantially to the inland fish catch in Ethiopia along with tilapia, catfish, Nile perch and Labebarbus (Gashaw Tesfaye and Wolff, 2014). Despite its ecological and economic significance, limited information is available on Labeo in Ethiopia. In this study we analyzed complete and partial cytochrome b (cyt b) gene sequences to 1) assess phylogeny and biogeography of Labeo in Africa; 2) investigate the timescale of lineage divergence within Labeo in Africa; 3) examine intraspecific genetic variation within, some Ethiopian species; and 4) test the monophyly of nominal species and Reid's (1985) species-groups within Labeo.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling

Because of logistic and financial limitations, we were not able to acquire samples representative of all African species. Taxon sampling was conducted to cover major Ichthyological provinces of Africa (Nilo-Sudanic, Congo, Zambezi, Lower-Guinea etc.) and include species representative of

most of the species groups proposed by Reid (1985). In this study 60 cytochrome b (cyt b) sequences (14 partial and 46 complete sequences) representing 18 Labeo species from Africa (L. altivelis, L. batesii, L. cf. barbatus, L. capensis, L. coubi, L. cyclorhynchus, L. cylindricus, L. forskalii, L. horie, L. lineatus, L. longipinnis, L. nasus, L. parvus, L. senegalensis, L. sorex, L. umbratus, L. vulgaris, and L. weeksii) and one specimen of uncertain taxonomic identity (Labeo sp.) were analyzed. Of these a set of 33 sequences represent five species (Labeo cylindricus, Labeo forskalii, Labeo horie, Labeo parvus, and Labeo vulgaris) derived from seven river drainages across Ethiopia. Twenty-two original sequences were generated for this study while the remaining sequences were retrieved from GenBank. Voucher specimens of samples collected for this study are stored at the University of Alabama Ichthyological Collections (UAIC). In addition, 21 species of the subtribe Labeonini (including 15 species of Labeo) from Asia were included in our analyses. Based on previous phylogenetic information (Yang et al., 2012), four cyprinid species were used as outgroup taxa. The list of samples and taxa examined in this study along with GenBank accession numbers are provided in Table 1.

Taxon	Source	River Drainage	Accession #
Ingroup taxa			
L. cylindricus			
Haplotype 1	Genale River	Genale-Dawa	MN073793†
Haplotype 2	Genale River	Genale-Dawa	MN073794†
Haplotype 3	Genale River	Genale-Dawa	MN073795†
Haplotype 4	Genale River	Genale-Dawa	MN073796†
Haplotype 5	Genale River	Genale-Dawa	MN073797†
Haplotype 6 (2)	Not available	Not available	AP011206, NC031536
	Not available	Not available	
L. horie	Alwero River	Baro-AKobo	JX074288
L. forskali			
Haplotype 1	Alwero River, Ethiopia	Baro-Akobo	JX074287
Haplotype 2	Ghibe River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073791†
Haplotype 3	Gojeb River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073786†
Haplotype 4 (2)	Dedessa River, Ethiopia	Nile	MN073787†
	Sanja River, Ethiopa	Tekeze	FJ196833
Haplotype 5	Dedessa River, Ethiopia	Nile	MN073788†
Haplotype 6	Dedessa River, Ethiopia	Nile	MN073789†
Haplotype 7	Abay River, Ethiopia	Nile	MN073790†
Haplotype 8 (2)	Sanja River, Ethiopa	Tekeze	FJ196831, FJ196832
Haplotype 9	Ghibe River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073786†
Haplotype 10	Ghibe River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073792†
L. parvus			
Haplotype 1	Baro River	Baro-Akobo	JX074286
Haplotype 2 (2)	Baro River	Baro-Akobo	JX074285, MN073801†
Haplotype 3	Benin, Niger bei Malauville	Not available	JX074292

Table 1. Taxa and samples examined in this study with locality information and GenBank accession numbers (cyt b gene).

Taxon	Source	River Drainage	Accession #
Haplotype 4	Not available	Not available	AP013339
Haplotype 5	Baro River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073798†
Haplotype 6	Baro River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073799†
Haplotype 7	Baro River, Ethiopia	Omo-Turkana	MN073800†
L. vulgaris			
Haplotype 1 (4)	Gojeb River	Omo-Turkana	JX074297, MN073805† MN073803†
	Ghibe River	Omo-Turkana	JX074298
Haplotype 2	Baro River	Baro-Akobo	JX074296
Haplotype 3	Baro River, Ethiopia	Baro-Akobo	MN073802†
Haplotype 4	Baro River, Ethiopia	Baro-Akobo	MN073804†
L. altivelis1	Congo: Odzala		JX074294
L. altivelis2	Not available		AP013322
L. lineatus1	Congo: Odzala		AP012154
L. lineatus2	Not available		NC022956
L. longipinnis	Not available		JX074290
L. coubie1	Benin: Pendjari National Park		JX074261
L. coubie2	not available		AP012149
L. cyclorhynchus1	Not available		AP011359
L. cyclorhynchus2	Not available		NC022949
L. senegalensis1	Benin: Oueme R. and Iguidi R.		AB238968
L. senegalensis1 L. senegalensis2	Not available		NC008657
L. sorex	Not available		AY791415
L. sorex L. weeksii	Not available		JX097079
L. weeksu L. cf. barbatus1	Not available		AP013337
0	Not available		JX074278
L. cf. barbatus2	Not available		AP013323
Labeo sp. L. nasus1	Not available		
			AP013333
L. nasus2	Not available	V 1 O	NC029449
L. umbratus1	Val Dam, South Africa	Val-Orange	MF469476
L. umbratus2	Gariep Dam, South Africa	Upper Orange R.	MF469596
L. capensis1	Gariep Dam, South Africa	Upper Orange R.	MF469582
L. capensis2	Vaal River, South Africa	Orange-Val	MF469456
L. capensis3	Hardap Dam, South Africa	Orange River	MF469569
L. batesii1	Loa Loa, Gabon		NC008656
L. batesii1	Loa Loa, Gabon		AB238967
Labeo dyocheilus	Not available		JX074262
Labeo pierrei	Cambodia, Kampong		AP011200
Labeo yunnanensis	Not available		JX074282
Labeo calbasu	Aquarium		AP012143
Labeo chrysophekadion	Cambodia: Market, Ta Khmau, Kandal		AP011199
Gibelion catla1	Market		JX083157
Gibelion catla2	Aquarium		JX074273
Labeo fimbriatus	India		GQ853089
L. gonius	GenBank		HQ645093
Labeo stolizkae	China: Ruili, Yunnan		GU086574
Labeo rohita	Cambodia: Landing port, Kampong		AP011201
Labe dussumieri	India		JX074250
Incisilabeo behri	Aquarium		JX074248
Labeo bata	N/A		JX074260
Labeo bogutt	GenBank		HQ645089

Taxon	Source	River Drainage	Accession #
Labeo sp. salween	Myanmar: Moei R. (Mae Nam		JX074230
	Moei), near Sap Moei		
L. rajasthanicus	India		DQ520921
Cirrhinus cirrhosus1	Vietnam: Lang Son Market		JX074223
Cirrhinus cirrhosus2	N/A		JX074249
Cirrhinus microlepis	Cambodia: Market, Ta Khmau,		HM536825
	Kandal		
Bangana ariza1	Nepal: Upsteram of Koshi		JX074227
	Barrage		
Bangana ariza2	India		JX074236
Bangana dero	India		JX074235
Outgroup taxa			
Osteocheilus nashii	Aquarium		AP011330
Catlocarpio siamensis	Cambodia: Landing port,		HM536812
	Kampong Chhnang		
Gobio gobio	GenBank		AB239596
Tor sinensis	China: Mengna, Yunnan		HM536802

† Sequences generated for the present study.

DNA isolation, PCR amplification, and sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from 20-30 mg ethanol preserved muscle tissue using QIAGEN DNeasy kit (QIAGEN Inc.) according manufacturer's instructions. 1141 bp protein coding region of the mitochondrial genome representing cyt b gene was amplified using the primer pairs L15267 (5'-AATGACTTGAAGAAC CACCGT-3'), H16461 (5'-CTTCGGATTACAAGACC-3'). PCR amplification protocol and primer sequences were taken from Briolay et al. (1998). Prior to cycle sequencing PCR products were purified using the OIAquick PCR Purification Kit (QIAGEN Inc.). Cycle sequencing reactions were performed using the primers H15891 (5'-GTTTGATCCCGTTTCGTGTA-3') and H16461 (Briolay *et al.*, 1998). The reverse complements of sequences generated using the primer H15891 (internal primer) were used as forward sequences. Sequences were generated via dye terminator reactions and read on an ABI 3100 prism sequencer (www.lifetechnologies.com) and manually aligned using BIOEDIT software version 5.0.9 (Hall, 1999). DNA sequences were subsequently deposited in GenBank and assigned accession numbers (Table 1).

Phylogenetic analysis and divergence date estimation

The best performing Maximum Likelihood nucleotide substitution models for 81 nucleotide sequences of our cyt b was determined in MEGA X (Kumar *et al.*, 2018). The model with the lowest BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion) score is considered to describe the substitution pattern in the dataset the best. Phylogenetic analyses were performed using Beast version 1.10.4 (Suchard et al., 2018) and Maximum Likelihood (ML) method as implemented in MEGA version X (Kumar et al., 2018). For all Bayesian analyses using Beast an XML input file was generated using Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Utility (BEAUTI) version 1.10.4 software (Drummond et al., 2002–2018). Phylogenetic analysis employing Beast was run under the GTR nucleotide substitution, uncorrelated lognormal relaxed molecular clock, and Gamma + Invariant site rate heterogeneity models employing the Birth and Death speciation tree prior. For this analysis, three independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations were run for 100 million generations, sampling trees every 5000 generations. The Effective Sample Size (ESS) values for each parameter and the stationarity of the likelihood values were evaluated in Tracer v.1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2018). Outputs of the three independent simulations were then combined using LogCombiner v.2.4.2 with a 10% burn-in. These outputs were used to reconstruct a maximum credibility tree in TreeAnnotator v.2.4.2. ML analysis was run applying the GTR nucleotide-substitution model with Gamma + Invariant sites along with rapid bootstrapping (1000 bootstrapping replicates) and ML heuristic Nearest Neighbor Interchange (NNI) tree inference option. We used Bayesian Clade Credibility (Posterior Probability values) for Bayesian analysis and maximum likelihood bootstrap values for ML analysis to evaluate support for resolved clades. The tree topologies constructed by ML and BI were compared visually.

Divergence times for principal clades in the phylogeny were inferred in Beast version 1.10.4 (Suchard et al., 2018) employing the GTR substitution, uncorrelated lognormal relaxed molecular clock, and the Inv-Gamma rate heterogeneity models and Birth and Death speciation tree priors. To calibrate our phylogeny, a generalized teleost cyt b substitution rate of 0.76– 2.2% per million years (Berendzen et al., 2008) was used as a uniform prior. The earliest fossil record of Labeo in Africa is from the Mid-Miocene (11.6-16 MYA; Stewart, 2001; 2009). Therefore, the node comprising clades 1 and 2 was time scaled to 13.8 MYA in Figtree v.1.4.4 (Rambaut, 2006–2018) to provide additional calibration point for divergence time estimation. Three independent Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations each with 100 million generations were run, sampling trees every 5000 generations. Results from the three simulations were combined using Logcombiner version 1.10.4 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2002-2018) discarding the first 10% of the samples as burn-in. In all analyses involving Beast, convergence of chains was checked using Tracer version 1.7 (Rambaut *et al.*, 2018). Tree Annotator version 1.10.4 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2002–2018) and Figtree version 1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2006–2016) were used to summarize the posterior tree distribution and visualize annotated maximum clade credibility (MCMC) tree, respectively.

Genetic variation and population differentiation

The number of unique haplotypes (H), haplotype diversity (h), and nucleotide diversity (Pi) were calculated for our mtDNA sequence data using DnaSP version 6.12.03 (Rozas *et al.*, 2017). *L. forskalii* and *L. parvus* were also further examined using TCS analysis implemented in PopART, Population Analysis with reticulate Trees version 1.7 (Leigh and Bryant, 2015) to assess genealogical relationships among unique mtDNA haplotypes by grouping haplotype sequences into a minimum connecting parsimony network. The maximum numbers of mutational steps that make parsimonious connections between haplotype sequences were calculated with 95% confidence. Mean genetic distances between species and subgroup pairs were estimated by maximum composite likelihood model using the bootstrap variance estimation method as implemented in MEGA X program (Kumar *et al.*, 2018).

RESULTS

Phylogenetic relationships

Sequences for the partial and complete cyt *b* gene ranging in length from 730 to 1141 bp were aligned for a total 60 individuals representing 18 *Labeo* species from Africa. The data set contained 278 invariable (monomorphic) and 253 variable (polymorphic) sites of which 219 were parsimony informative. Transition/Transversion bias (R) estimated under the Tamura and Nei (1993) model was 4.44. The nucleotide frequencies were A = 30.4%, T = 27.6%, C = 28.3%, and G = 13.7%. Of the 24 different substitution models evaluated in MEGA X, the nucleotide substitution model that best fit our dataset was GTR+G+I with Maximum Likelihood value (lnL) and BIC score of -10841.7 and 23608.4, respectively.

The resulting Bayesian (Fig. 1) and ML phylogenies are largely congruent except for variation in support values: some nodes received poor ML bootstrap support (all nodes whose support values are not shown in Fig. 1 have BS<70% and PP<75%). Both phylogenies do not support the monophyly of African *Labeo* because two South African species (*L. capensis* and *L. umbratus*) were allied to some Asian *Labeo* species (clade III, Afro-Asian clade). They, however, recover a clade inclusive of the

remaining African species (clade I + clade II) with moderate support, Posterior Probability (PP) = 85%. Overall, African representatives of *Labeo* were resolved in three clades: clade I corresponds to the *L. forskalii* species group (Bootstrap = 82%, PP = 100%) and Ethiopian (Nilo-Sudanic) and Middle and lower Congo species, clade II, which is the sister group to clade 1, comprises *L. coubie*, *L. macrostoma*, and *L. niloticus* species-groups (PP = 80%), and clade III included *L. umbratus* species group, which is allied to some Asian species (Afro-Asian clade).

Both our model-based Bayesian (Fig. 1) and ML analyses (results not shown) recognized the L. forskalii and L. umbratus Reid's (1985) speciesgroups as distinct lineages. However, taxa Reid (1985) included in L. coubie, L. macrostoma, and L. niloticus species-groups did not form monophyletic These species-groups were rendered groups. nonmonophyletic as member species were always resolved in disparate clades (Fig. 1). On the other hand, 14 of the 18 African representative species of Labeo examined in this study were always resolved as monophyletic with strong nodal support (BS = >92%; PP = >96.4%). These include L. altivelis, L. barbatus, L. batesii, L. capensis, L. coubie, L. cyclorhinchus, L. forskalii, L. lineatus, L. nasus, L. parvus, L. senegalensis, L. umbratus, and L. vulgaris. On the other hand, L. cylindricus was rendered non-monophyletic because of the placement of two samples (GenBank accession #: NC031536 and AP011206) in subclade D within clade 1. However, L. cylindricus specimens from Ethiopia formed a strongly supported monophyletic group (subclade B; BS = 92, PP = 96.4%), which is the sister group to L. forskalii. The monophyly of L. horie, L. longipinnis, L. sorex, and L. weeksii could not be tested because only one representative sample was analyzed in the present study.

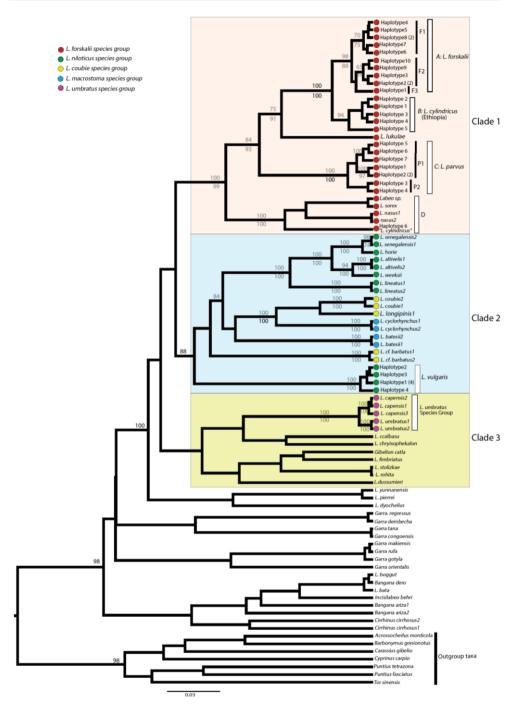


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic relationships of *Labeo* estimated from Bayesian analysis of partial and complete cyt b gene sequences. On the left side of the forward slash at the nodes are Maximum Likelihood bootstrap

values and on the right of the slash are Posterior Probability values derived from Bayesian analysis. Numbers at tip labels correspond to sample codes in Table 1 and numbers in parenthesis show number of samples for a given haplotype. Colour coded circles correspond to Reid's (1985) species-groups. The scale bar indicates base substitutions per site.

Intraspecific diversity and interspecific genetic distances

Strongly supported genetic structuring exists within L. forskalii (clade A), which is further subdivided into at least three subclades (Fig. 1). One clade (clade F1), herein referred to as Abay-Tekeze clade, includes haplotypes 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 originating from Abay (Blue Nile), Sanja (a tributary of Tekeze River in the northernmost part of the northwestern Ethiopian highlands) and Dedessa (tributary of Abay) Rivers. The second clade (clade F2), herein referred to as the Omo-Ghibe clade, includes haplotypes 2, 3, 9, and 10 from Ghibe and Gojeb rivers. Both clades received strong support (BS > 81 and PP > 99%). One haplotype (haplotype 1) from Alwero River (which drains into the Baro River in western Ethiopia) formed its own clade (Baro-Akobo clade). Consistent with results from our phylogenetic analyses (Fig. 2), further examination of these clades in TCS recovered strong geographic partitioning within L. forskalii. These L. forskalii geographic clades were separated from each other by five to seven mutational steps. The overall Pairwise within group sequence divergence for L. forskalii ranged from 0.1 ± 0.003 to $1.2 \pm 0.003\%$.

Within L. parvus, two geographically distinct sub-clades (or haplogroups) were resolved (Figs. 1 and 2): sub-clade P1, comprising haplotypes (haplotypes 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7) from Baro River in western Ethiopia; sub-clade P2 includes one haplotype (haplotype 3) from Benin, western Africa (GenBank #: JX074292) and another (haplotype 4) from unknown locality (GenBank #: AP013339). Consistent with our phylogenetic analysis, TCS analysis recovered similar haplotype clusters (Fig. 2B). The two sub-clades were separated from each other by five mutational steps. Monophyly of these sub-clades is strongly supported; BS = 83% and PP = 99.7% for subclade P1 and BS = 99% and PP = 99.9% for sub-clade P2. Our analysis also detected further structuring within subclade P2 (Fig. 1). L. parvus has a haplotype diversity (Hd) of 0.96 (± 0.007 SD) and a nucleotide diversity (Pi) of 0.5%. The overall net genetic divergence between the two L. parvus subclades was 0.81%±0.003. According to our molecular dating, the mean age estimate for the split between L. parvus sub-clades was during the mid-Pleistocene (1.2 MYA).

Genetic diversity within the four Ethiopian species (*L. cylindricus*, *L. forskalii*, *L. parvus*, and *L. vulgaris*) examined in this study varied considerably. Among these species, we found a relatively high level of genetic diversity in *L. cylindricus*: Haplotype (gene) diversity (Hd) = 1.0 ± 0.13 and nucleotide diversity (pi) = 0.72%. Consistent with this, our phylogenetic analysis identified at least three putative clades (CL1, CL2, and CL3) within *L. cylindricus* from Ethiopia (Fig. 1). These clades received from moderate to high support values. Pairwise within group genetic distance in *L. cylindricus* ranged from 0.2 to 1.7% with a within group mean genetic distance of 1.0%.

Genetic divergence (results not shown) among African species ranged between 0.015 (*L. altivelis* vs *L. weeksii*) and 0.166 SE (*L. batesii* vs *L. nasus* and *L. batesii* vs *L. longipinnis*). The most divergent species among Ethiopian species is *L. vulgaris* separated from other Ethiopian species by large genetic divergences (*L. vulgaris* vs *L. cylindricus* = 0.10, *L. vulgaris* vs *L. forskalii* = 0.13, *L. vulgaris* vs *L. parvus*, = 0.11, *L. vulgaris* vs *L. horie* = 0.10).

Divergence time estimations

In our phylogeny South African species were grouped with some Asian species than with their African counterparts. A fossil record that can be an ancestor to both African and Asian lineages is not available. The earliest published fossil record of Labeo in Africa was from Lake Albert within the Nilo-Sudanic Ichthyological province (Stewart, 2003; 2009). Therefore, for divergence date estimation, we constrained the node comprising clades 1 and 2 in Fig. 3 at 13.8 MYA. Accordingly, the founding of clades 1 and 2 at about 13.8 MYA represents the most basal split within African Labeo (South African species excluded). Clade 1 comprises taxa from Eastern Nilo-Sudanic (subclades A + B + C) and lower and middle Congo (subclade D) River systems. Clade 2 is made by an assembly of species from the Congo and Eastern and western Nilo-Sudanic River drainages. The next divergence event at 9.9 MYA led to a phylogeographic split within clade 1 leading to the founding of two geographic clades, a clade containing subclades A + B + C (East Africa) and subclade D from the middle and lower Congo River systems. Subsequent cladogenetic events that started about 7.3 MYA produced significant phylogeographic structure within the east African clade (A + B + C). Events that diversified clade 2 of *Labeo* into nodes that subsequently gave rise to many species started around 12.6 MYA and continued until the late Pleistocene (0.5 MYA).

DISCUSSION

Phylogenetic and biogeographic inferences

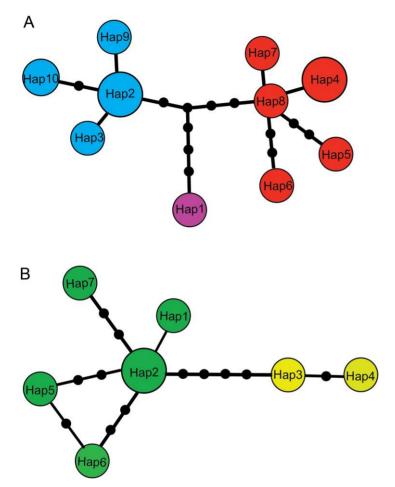
Although some relationships, especially those at relatively deeper levels are unresolved, this study provides interesting insights into the taxonomy of African *Labeo* as it challenges the monophyly of *L. cylindricus* and recovers previously unknown cryptic diversity in Ethiopia. The study also provides evidence corroborating strong correlations between past historical events and extant distribution of genetic diversity within *Labeo* in Africa.

In contrast to previous morphological (Tshibwabwa, 1997) and molecular (Lowenstein et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2012; Ramoejane, 2016) studies, our phylogeny does not support the monophyly of African species, because South African species (L. capensis and L. umbratus) are embedded within Clade 3 along with some Asian species, (PP = 97.4; Fig. 1). The observed non-monophyly of Labeo in Africa may be attributed to multiple of phylogenetic independent in-to-Africa dispersals Labeo. Our reconstructions, however, reveal a moderately supported African clade (clade 1 + clade 2; PP = 85%) excluding South African species. This clade (mean age 13.8 My) splits into two mtDNA clusters: Lower and Middle Congo + Nilo-Sudan cluster (Clade 1 or L. forskalii species group) and Congo + Nilo-Sudanic cluster (clade 2). According to our molecular dating a mid-Miocene divergent event at about 9.9 MYA separates Clade 1 into two geographically concordant clades: clades A + B + C (Nilo-Sudanic clade comprised of Ethiopian taxa) and D in the Congo River system. The divergence event that isolated these two clades overlaps with the late Miocene separation of Congolese and Nilo-Sudanic lineages of Hydrocynus at about 6.8 MYA (CI: 3.2-10.8; Goodier et al., 2011) and African Crocodylus, dated at 8.13 My (CI: 5.24-12.64; Hekkala et al., 2011). The separation of the Nilo-Sudanic (clade A + B + C) and Congolese (clade D) clades concurs with the timing of tectonic uplifts associated with the Eastern and western flanks of the East African Rift System (ERS), which occurred since the Miocene (4.0-12.0 MYA, Stankiewicz and Wit, 2006; Roller et al., 2010; Speigel et al., 2010; Pinton et al., 2013).

Embedded within the Nilo-Sudanic clade (i.e., clade A + B + C), two dated nodes both representing relatively recent divergence events and comprising exclusively Ethiopian taxa are recovered with strong nodal support. The first Pliocene divergence event dated 7.3 MYA separated clade C (*L. parvus*) from clade A + B (*L. cylindricus* + *L. forskalii*). A more recent mid-Pleistocene (2.1 MYA) speciation event founded two sister species, *L.*

cylindricus (clade B, mean age 1.2 My) and L. forskalii (clade A, mean age 0.98 My). The Ethiopian plateau is dissected by Afar Depression and Main Ethiopian Rift (MER) into the northwestern plateau that harbours the Tekeze, Abay (Blue Nile), Baro-Akobo, and Omo-Ghibe River systems and southeastern plateau occupied by Wabi Shebelle and Genale River systems. All Ethiopian L. cylindricus specimens analyzed in this study were collected from the Genale River that originates in the South Eastern Ethiopian plateau east of the MER and flows south east into Somalia. On the other hand, all our L. forskalii specimens originated from River drainages in the north western plateau. According to Boccaletti et al. (1998) and Bonnini et al. (2005) the east-west directed rift extension in the Main Ethiopian Rift that resulted in the isolation of the Nubian and Somalian tectonic plates occurred at the Pliocene-Quaternary boundary. If the separation of the Nubian and Somalian tectonic plates contributed to the separation of clade A (L. forskalii) and clade B (L. cylindricus), then we expect the divergence time for these two lineages to date 1.8-3.6 MYA. The timing of geographical isolation between L. cylindricus and L. forskalii, which is constrained at 2.1 MYA in our phylogeny (Fig. 3), strongly concurs with the Pliocenequaternary separation of the Nubian and Somalian plates, suggesting that Genale River's link to the Nile and Omo River systems was severed during this time. The timing of the cladogenetic event that isolated L. cylindricus and L. forskalii coincides with the founding of the Genale clade of Labeobarbus, dated at 2.3 MYA (CI: 1.6-3.0 MYA; Kebede Alemu et al., 2016).

Clade 2 (Mean age 12.6 My) is geographically a highly disjunct clade and comprises species from Congolese, Nilo-Sudanic, and Lower Guinea Ichthyological provinces. African species assigned by Reid (1985) to *L. coubie, L. macrostoma,* and *L. niloticus* species-groups are also embedded within this clade. In clade 2 species from geographically disjunct regions are closely related to each other than to species originating from the same geographic region. For instance, *L. altivelis* from the Congo River drainage is more closely related to *L. senegalensis* from the Nilo-Sudanic province than to *L. lineatus*. Similarly, *L. horie* from Ethiopia (Eastern Africa) exhibits a closer relationship with *L. senegalensis* (Western Africa) than with *L. vulgaris* from Ethiopia. The observed pattern of genealogy within clade 2 might be the outcome of repeated disruptions of geographic barriers between water systems within and across the Congo and Nilo-Sudanic provinces. This is consistent with the complex geological history of Africa, which is characterized by repeated uplift and rifting events since the



Miocene (Stankiewicz and Wit, 2006).

Fig. 2. Statistical Parsimony network for cyt *b* gene sequences of 10 and 7 unique haplotypes of *L*. *forskalii* (A) and *L. parvus* (B), respectively. Haplotypes are connected to each other with 95% confidence Interval. Circles correspond to unique haplotypes with numbers in circles indicating haplotype number while circle sizes reflect the frequency of each haplotype. Lines connecting circles (including the small dark circles) correspond to mutation steps. Geographic origins of haplotypes are color coded; A) *L. forskalii*: Abay-Tekeze River drainage, Omo-Ghibe River drainage, Baro-Akobo River drainage B) *L. parvus*: Baro River drainage, West African drainage (P2).

Testing historical classification hypothesis

Reid (1985) subdivided African Labeo into six species-groups within African Labeo: L. coubie, L. forskalii, L. gregorii, L. niloticus, L. macrostoma, and L. umbratus. However, he conceded that his divisions may not be monophyletic. Our mtDNA study attempted to test the monophyly of

five of these subdivisions. Reid's (1985) L. forskalii (BS = 82%, PP = 100%) and L. umbratus (BS = 99%, PP = 100%)) species-groups are monophyletic, whereas L. coubie, L. macrostoma, and L. niloticus species are rendered non-monophyletic since member species were always resolved in disparate clades (Fig. 1, indicated by coloured circles), challenging the validity of Reid's (1985) divisions. However, because we were unable to examine all the species within Reid's (1985) species-groups, further investigation incorporating more species is necessary to verify our results. On the other hand, fourteen of the 18 nominal African Labeo species examined in this study are always resolved as monophyletic each with strong nodal support (BS = $\geq 92\%$; PP = $\geq 96.4\%$). These include L. altivelis, L. barbatus, L. batesii, L. capensis, L. coubie, L. cyclorhinchus, L. forskalii, L. lineatus, L. nasus, L. parvus, L. senegalensis, L. umbratus, and L. vulgaris. The monophyly of the following African species could not be tested since only one representative sample was analyzed in the present study (L. horie, L. longipinnis, L. sorex, and L. weeksii).

From a taxonomic point of view, the most important finding of this study is the non-monophyly of L. cylindricus with one putative L. cylindricus haplotype (haplotype 6; GenBank accessions: NC031536.1 and AP011206.1) being grouped with L. nasus, L. sorex and an unidentified specimen, Labeo sp. (GenBank # AP013323), under clade D (BS = 99%, PP = 100%). This haplotype was highly divergent (mean genetic distance 9.6%) from L. cylindricus haplotypes originating from Eastern Ethiopia. The genealogical affiliation and high genetic divergence of haplotype 6 suggest a complete phylogeographic gap between this haplotype and the L. cylindricus clade of Ethiopia (clade B). Our time calibrated mtDNA tree (Fig. 3) shows that clade D diverged from the rest of the species within Reid's (1985) L. forskalii species group at approximately 9.9 MYA (Fig. 3). The timing of this divergence corresponds to the late Miocene divergence of Congolese and Nilo-Sudanic lineages of African Hydrocynus at 6.8 MYA, CI: 3.2-10.8 (Pinton et al., 2013) and Crocodylus at 8.13 MYA, CI: 5.24-12.64 (Hekkala et al., 2011). These cladogenetic events are consistent with tectonic events of the Miocene period that led to watershed isolation between Congo + Zambezi and Nilo-Sudan Ichthyological provinces (Pinton et al., 2013).

The geographic origins of all the samples clustered in clade D including the two *L. cylindricus* specimens (haplotype 6) are not provided in GenBank. However, available literature suggests that *L. nasus* (type locality Cataracts at Yelala, Lower Congo River; Reid, 1985) and *L. sorex* (type locality Lualaba, tributary of Congo River; Reid, 1985) are distributed in the lower

and middle Congo River basin, whereas the geographic range of L. cylindricus (type locality Tete, Zambezi River; Reid, 1985) spans Central, East, South Eastern and South Western Africa (Reid, 1985; Tshibwabwa, 2001: https://www.iucnredlist.org/). 1997: Skelton. These African subregions harbour major river drainages (e.g., Congo, Nile, Niger, Senegal, Genale, Limpopo, Zambezi etc.) that are known to have been isolated from each other for long periods of time. Judging from the genealogical distinctness of the two L. cylindricus specimens (NC031536.1 and AP011206.1) from L. cylindricus from Genale River (Eastern Ethiopia), their phylogenetic affinity with L. nasus and L. sorex, and regional biogeography of other fish taxa (Goodier et al., 2011; Pinton et al., 2013), the two L. cylindricus specimens are more likely to have originated from the Congo or Zambezi Ichthyological province than East African drainages of the Nilo-Sudanic province. The observed paraphyly in L. cylindricus is, therefore, most likely attributed to designating a single species for what could be phylogenetically distant and taxonomically distinct groups, suggesting that L. cylindricus as currently recognized may represent more than one species. Given the type locality of L. cylindricus (Tete, Zambezi River; Reid, 1985), the Ethiopian specimens identified as L. cylindricus could belong to a new species or other previously described species not included in our study. Therefore, the present phylogenetic study indicates that the taxonomic status of L. cylindricus as currently circumscribed is questionable and needs further investigation.

Cryptic diversity within L. forskalii

Another important outcome of this study is the recovery of previously undescribed cryptic diversity within some species, namely *L. cylindricus*, *L. forskalii*, and *L. parvus* (Fig. 1) in Ethiopia. Because all our *L. cylindricus* embedded within subclade B originated from the same locality, there is no obvious geographic structuring among them. Therefore, herein we discuss only *L. forskalii* and *L. parvus* in more detail.

Two Pleistocene divergence events founded three subclades within *L. forskalii* in Ethiopia that geographically correspond to Abay (Blue Nile) and Tekeze River drainages (F1), Omo-Ghibe River drainage (F2), and Baro-Akobo River drainage, which is part of the White Nile River system (F3). The first main divergence event, dated 0.98 MYA, separated sub-clade F1 from sub-clade F2 + F3. According to Feibel *et al.* (1989) and Johnson and Malala (2009), Lake Turkana, into which the Omo-Ghibe River system drains, occasionally overflowed into the Nile drainage system 1.3 MYA.

Therefore, the timing of the phylogeographic split of *L. forskalii* into subclades F1 and F2 + F3 appears to concur with the timing of tectonic events in the basin that shifted the direction of Turkana overflow during humid times from a corridor to the Indian Ocean to the Nile drainage system. The second divergence event led to the geographical isolation of clade F2 from clade F3 (comprising haplotype 1) at about 0.79 MYA. Lake Turkana is believed to have been connected to the White Nile via the Lotagipi Swamps (Kenya, west of Lake Turkana), and the Sobat and Pibor Rivers (Baro-Akobo River system) in the early and middle Holocene (Grove, 1983; Feibel *et al.*, 1989; Johnson and Malala, 2009). Our molecular clock results, however, provide a much older estimate of faunal connection (0.79 MYA, late Pleistocene) between Lake Turkana (and hence Omo-Ghibe River system) and the Nile system.

According to Kebede Alemu and Harris (2014), Labeobarbus intermedius, another cyprinid species occurring roughly in a similar range as L. forskalii, phylogeographic structure. exhibits similar In their extensive phylogeographic analysis, Kebede Alemu and Harris (2014) identified two sister lineages within Labeobarbus intermedius that have their distribution limits defined by Addis Ababa-Nekemt and Goba-Bonga Tectonic Lineaments; both L. forskalii and Lb. intermedius include genetically distinct northern (F1 in L. forskalii) and southern (F2 + F3 for L. forskalii) lineages distributed north and south of these lineaments. Further confirmation of this phylogeographic pattern is provided by Levin et al. (2020). The geographic isolation of L. forskalii haplogroups is constrained at about 0.98 MYA (Fig. 3), which points to the late Pleistocene founding of the three geographically delimited haplogroups of L. forskalii. A corresponding phylogeographic split in Lb. intermedius occurred 0.5 MYA (late Pleistocene; Kebede Alemu and Harris, 2014).

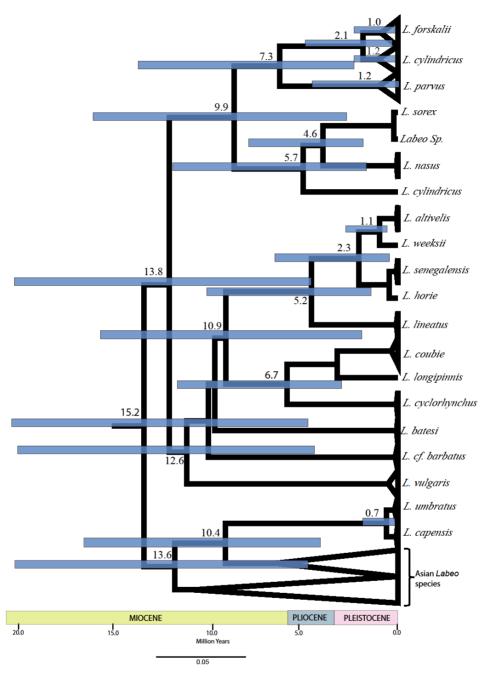


Fig. 3. Time calibrated tree of cyt *b* sequences of *Labeo* generated in Beast employing the GTR nucleotide substitution and uncorrelated lognormal relaxed molecular clock models with Birth Death Speciation tree prior. Numbers at nodes correspond to divergence date estimates of clades in million years. Error bars indicate the 95% HPD associated with node dates.

The observed phylogeographic concordance between L. forskalii and Lb. intermedius suggests that the two species may share geographic barriers or common history. Despite this however, the subclades of the two species showed different levels of genetic divergence; the L. forskalii haplogroups exhibit relatively lower levels of genetic divergence (0.5–0.6%) than Lb. intermedius lineages (1.5%, Kebede Alemu and Harris, 2014). This discrepancy may be attributed to differences in life history traits between the two species. Species-specific life history traits have been implicated as one of the major factors that shape extant phylogeographic patterns in fish populations (Bowen and Avise, 1990). In addition, the current study examined small sample size and limited geographic sampling (12 samples/10 haplotypes) of L. forskalii in contrast with Kebede Alemu and Harris (2014), who identified 45 unique haplotypes among 159 L. intermedius samples. Owing to the lower level of genetic divergence among recovered sub-clades and limited sampling, we refrain from drawing any taxonomic conclusions. It is likely that the analysis of larger and broader samples of *L. forskalii* could dramatically geographic influence phylogeographic inferences. Future phylogeographic studies of L. forskalii are certainly warranted.

Cryptic diversity within L. parvus

Analysis of our mitochondrial DNA dataset showed that at least two genetically distinct subgroups are found within L. parvus (Fig. 1 and 2). The first group (P1) is composed of haplotypes from Baro River (western Ethiopia) and the second subgroup included two haplotypes, one from Benin in Western Africa (Nilo-Sudanic province) and another (GenBank #: AP013339) from an unknown locality. The lack of source information for the GenBank sequence (Accession #: AP013339), however, did not allow for a definitive assessment of whether these genetically distinct subgroups are geographically differentiated or not. Based on the results of this study, information on the geographic distribution of the species, and comparative phylogeography of other African freshwater fishes in the Nilo-Sudanic region, we speculate that the L. parvus sample (GenBank accession #, AP013339) probably originated from West African drainages. The geographic range of L. parvus includes western and central African drainages (Lévêque and Daget, 1984; Lévêque et al., 1990; Tshibwabwa, 1997) as well as the Nile River system in East Africa. Our study revealed that there was little genetic differentiation between the two individuals of L. parvus embedded within P2; they have a very high percent sequence identity (99.82%, based on Blast analysis in NCBI) and very low sequence

divergence (0.17%) for cyt *b* gene. Molecular dating of divergence between Nilo-Sudanic + Lower Guinea and Congolese lineages of African Tigerfish (Genus *Hydrocynus*) suggests that the geographic isolation of western African drainages and Congo River drainage occurred at around 6.8 MYA, when the youngest geologically-dated tectonic events modified the Cameroon Volcano-tectonic rift (Goodier *et al.*, 2011). Given the long isolation of the Congo River basin from the Nilo-Sudanic drainages and the extremely low level of genetic differentiation between the two sequences embedded within haplogroup P2 of *L. parvus*, the sequence with unknown sampling locality (Accession #: AP013339) was probably withdrawn from West African drainages (if not from the same drainage) and less likely to have originated from the Congo River basin.

If the assumption that the mtDNA sequence (Accession #: AP013339) originated from west African drainages holds true, our results clearly support strong geographic differentiation between the western and Eastern Nilo-Sudanic populations of *L. parvus*. Our molecular dating indicated that the isolation of these populations occurred during the mid-Pleistocene (1.12 MYA), suggesting that a relatively recent connection existed between the eastern and western drainages of the Nilo-Sudanic Ichthyological province. This is consistent with the timing of the isolation of *Hydrocynus forskahlii* into Nilotic and west African clades at approximately 2.1 MYA, CI: 0.6–3.9 (Goodier *et al.*, 2011), the existence of close phylogenetic affinities between Nilotic and West African Mormyrids (Levin and Golubtsov, 2017) as well as *L. horie* and *L. senegalensis* (current study; Yang *et al.*, 2012), and panmixis in *Hydrocinus brevis* from Gambia and Niger Rivers and Nile River (Goodier *et al.*, 2011).

Overall, although preliminary, our study provides new insights into the phylogeny, biogeography and taxonomy of *Labeo* in Africa with evidence for cryptic diversity within Ethiopia and incongruence between morphology based taxonomy of *L. cylindricus* and molecular phylogeny. One limitation related to our study was that a moderate set of African species was analyzed. Therefore, we urge our readers to exercise caution in interpreting our results. Further study based on increased taxon sampling may improve phylogenetic resolution and thereby provide more compelling biogeographic and taxonomic inferences and divergence date estimates.

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