Genetic evidence for wild-living *Aspideretes nigricans* and a molecular phylogeny of South Asian softshell turtles (Reptilia: Trionychidae: *Aspideretes, Nilssonia*)


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*Aspideretes nigricans* was long thought to be one of the rarest turtle species of the world, being restricted to a single site in Bangladesh; its specific distinctness was repeatedly doubted. Using mtDNA sequence data of all four *Aspideretes* species, we provide evidence that *A. nigricans* is a distinct species that is sister to *A. hurum*. Furthermore, *A. nigricans* is not endemic to Bangladesh, but also occurs in Assam, India. While all applied phylogenetic analyses (Bayesian Analysis, Maximum Likelihood, Maximum Parsimony, Neighbor Joining) strongly suggest a well-supported clade containing the four *Aspideretes* species and *Nilssonia formosa*, the monophyly of *Aspideretes* is at best weakly supported. We propose to synonymise the genera *Aspideretes* Hay, 1904 and *Nilssonia* Gray, 1872, resulting in an expanded genus *Nilssonia* with the species *N. formosa* (Gray, 1869), *N. gangetica* (Cuvier, 1825), *N. hurum* (Gray, 1831), *N. leithii* (Gray, 1872) and *N. nigricans* (Anderson, 1875). Genetic structure within *N. nigricans* is weak, while we detected two distinct genetic lineages within *N. gangetica*, one occurring in the Brahmaputra River system and the other in the Ganges and Indus River basins.

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**Introduction**

Softshell turtles (Trionychidae) are an ancient family of cheloniains with a highly derived morphology, dating back at least to the Lower Cretaceous of Asia (Meylan & Gaffney 1992; Nessov 1995). The family comprises 30 extant species in 14 genera and is distributed in Africa, Asia, North America and New Guinea (Fritz & Hava 2007). The shell of trionychid turtles is flattened and covered by a leathery skin instead of horny scutes; the bony shell is much reduced. Their neck is long and retractile, and limbs are paddle-like, with three strong claws on each. The snout is usually a long proboscis. All softshell turtles are highly aquatic and many species are vigorous predators of fish. External morphology is often difficult to use for taxonomic and phylogenetic purposes and much emphasis has been given to osteological characters (Meylan 1987; Ernst et al. 2000; Praschag & Gemel 2002).

The South Asian genus *Aspideretes* comprises four large-sized species (*Aspideretes gangeticus*, *A. hurum*, *A. leithii*, *A. nigricans*) with maximum shell lengths of 60–94 cm (Ernst et al. 2000). Until recently, one of these species, the Black Softshell Turtle (*A. nigricans*) was thought to be confined to the artificial pond at the Hazrat Sultan Bayazid Bostami Shrine in Nasirabad near Chittagong, Bangladesh. From this site, *A. nigricans* was described by Anderson (1875), and subsequent authors believed that the species either became extinct in the wild (Pritchard 1979; Groombridge 1982) or that it ‘descended from introduced individuals of the more widespread *Trionyx* [now *Aspideretes* gangeticus]’ (Groombridge 1982; Khan 1987) or of *A. hurum* (Rashid 1990). For a long time, *A. nigricans* was thought to be one of the world’s most endangered chelonian species, comprising not more than 150–300 individuals in the semicaptive colony near Chittagong (Groombridge 1982;
Ahsan et al. 1991; Hilton-Taylor 2000). Due to its apparent rareness and the tale that the Muslim Saint Bayazid Bostami, when founding the turtle shrine in the year 830, turned the evil spirits of the site into turtles, *A. nigricans* became nationally and internationally renowned as the 'holy' turtle of Bangladesh (e.g., Pritchard 1979; Khan 1980; Groombridge 1982; Obst 1986; Ernst & Barbour 1989; Ernst et al. 2000). However, using mainly skull osteology as well as colouration and pattern characters, Praschag & Gemel (2002) suggested that *A. nigricans* occurs not only in the shrine pond near Chittagong, but also in the neighbouring Indian state of Assam.

In the present study we use for the first time mtDNA sequences of all four nominal *Aspideretes* species to address the following questions: (i) is *A. nigricans* a species genetically distinct from its three congener or merely a morphological variant of *A. gangeticus* or *A. hurum*, and (ii) are samples of Assamese turtles morphologically assigned to *A. nigricans* distinct from Black Softshell Turtles from Chittagong, Bangladesh? Furthermore, we present a complete molecular phylogeny for *Aspideretes* and re-investigate its possible para-phyly with respect to *Nilssonia formosa*, as recently suggested by Engstrom et al. (2004).

**Materials and methods**

**Sampling**

Ten specimens of *Aspideretes gangeticus*, seven of *A. hurum*, two of *A. leithii* and 11 of *A. nigricans* were sampled by clipping off a small piece of the shell or extracting muscle tissue from carcasses. Six of our *A. nigricans* samples originated from the shrine pond near Chittagong, Bangladesh (type locality), four from the Kachapukhuri pond on Nilachal Hill, next to the Kamakhya Tantra Temple (near Gauhati), Assam, and one from a wild-caught turtle from Jia Bhoroli River, Assam (Fig. 1). The Jia Bhoroli is a northern tributary of the Brahmaputra River. In addition, one sequence each of *A. gangeticus* and *A. hurum* was downloaded from GenBank (Table 1). Samples were preserved in ethanol, and stored at –20 °C until processing. Remaining tissue and DNA samples are permanently kept at –80 °C in the tissue sample collection of the Museum of Zoology Dresden.

**Laboratory procedures**

Total genomic DNA was extracted from samples by overnight incubation at 37 °C in lysis buffer (6% DTAB, 5 mM NaCl, 1 mM Tris–HCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) including 0.5 mg of proteinase K (Merck), and subsequent purification following the DTAB method (Gustincich et al. 1991). DNA was precipitated from the supernatant with 0.2 volumes of 4M LiCl and 0.8 volumes of isopropanol, centrifuged, washed, dried and resuspended in TE buffer. Two fragments (overlapping by ∼300 bp), together comprising almost the complete cytochrome *b* gene (cyt *b*) and the adjacent portion of the

![Fig. 1](image-url)
**Table 1** Studied *Aspideretes* samples and sequences downloaded from GenBank.

<table>
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<th>Species</th>
<th>Origin</th>
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<th>Museum specimen</th>
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GenBank sequences:
- *Amyda cartilaginea* (Boddaert, 1770) — Thailand — — AM495950
- *Aspideretes gangeticus* (Cuvier, 1825) — Bangladesh: Dhaka Market — — AM495949
- *Aspideretes hurum* (Gray, 1831) — Bangladesh: Dhaka Market — — AM495948
- *Dogania subplana* (Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, 1809) — Malaysia: Penang — — AM495951
- *Nilssonia formosa* (Gray, 1869) — Myanmar — — AM495947
- *Palco steindachneri* (Siebenrock, 1906) — Chinese-Vietnamese border — — AM495952
- *Pelodiscus sinensis* (Wiegrmann, 1834) — China: Shanghai — — AM495953

Abbreviations: MTD T = Museum of Zoology Dresden, Tissue Collection; NHMW = Natural History Museum Vienna.

tRNA-Thr gene, were amplified using either the primer pair mt-c-For2 5'-TGA GGC(GAG) CA(AG) ATA TCA TT(CT) TGA G-3' plus mt-f-na3 5'-AGG GTG GAG TCT TCA GTT TTT TTGTTTAA GAC CAA TG-3' or mt-a-neu3 5'-CTC GCC CCA TCC AAC ATC TC(T) AC(GC) TG(A)TGA AAC TAC TCC TCG TCT CTG-3'. PCR was performed in a 50 µL volume (50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂ and 10 mM Tris–HCl, 0.5% Triton X-100, pH 8.5) containing 1 unit of Taq DNA polymerase (Bioron), 10 pmol dNTPs (Eppendorf) and 10 pmol of each primer. After initial denaturing for 5 min at 95 °C, 35–40 cycles were performed with denaturing 1 min at 95 °C, annealing 1 min at 58 °C and primer extension for 2 min at 72 °C, followed by a final elongation of 10 min at 72 °C. PCR products were purified by precipitation under the following conditions: 1 volume PCR product (30 µL), 1 volume 4 M Na₂Ac (30 µL) and 12 volumes EtOH (100%; 360 µL). DNA was pelleted by centrifugation (15 min at 13 000 r.p.m.) and the pellet washed with 70% ethanol. The pellet was dissolved in 20 µL H₂O. PCR products were sequenced with the primers mt-c-For2 and mt-E-Rev2 on ABI 3130 or on ABI 3730XL sequencers (Amersham Biosciences). Because no internal stop codons were found and nucleotide frequencies corresponded to those known for coding mtDNA, we conclude that we amplified and sequenced mtDNA and not nuclear copies of mitochondrial genes.
Sequence divergence, phylogenetic and population genealogy analyses

A sequence of the species *Nilssonia formosa*, representing a monotypic genus closely related with *Aspideretes* (Meylan 1987; Engstrom et al. 2004), was downloaded from GenBank and added to the ingroup species. We chose previously published sequences of *Amyda cartilaginea*, *Dogania subplana*, *Palea steindacheri* and *Pelodiscus sinensis* as outgroups (Table 1) because these species represent the closest successive sister taxa of *Aspideretes* and *N. formosa* (Engstrom et al. 2004). Sequences were aligned with CLUSTAL W using default parameters implemented in *MEGA* 3.0 (Kumar et al. 2004); the alignment comprised 1038 bp of cyt b. *MEGA* 3.0 was also used to calculate genetic distances. For the ingroup species, 854 of 1038 aligned sites were constant, 38 characters were variable but parsimony-uninformative, and 146 variable characters were parsimony-informative.

Data were analysed using Maximum Likelihood (ML), Maximum Parsimony (MP; equal weighting) and Neighbor Joining (NJ; with model corrected ML distances) implemented in *PAUP*^3^ 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002), as well as Bayesian inference of phylogeny using MrBayes 3.1 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003). Bayesian analysis (BA) was performed using four chains of 1 000 000 generations sampling every 100 generations and with the first 1000 generations discarded as burn-in (with which only the plateau of the most likely trees was sampled) to derive the final tree and estimates of the posterior probabilities. The best evolutionary model for the data (ML calculation and ML-distances) was established by hierarchical likelihood testing using MODELLTEST 3.06 (best-fit model: GTR + I + G; Posada & Crandall 1998). Under ML, trees were calculated using a NJ starting tree as well as without using a starting tree; resulting ML trees were identical. For ML trees the following parameters were used: Base = (0.3329 0.3272 0.1118), Nst = 6, Rna = (3.6187 7.9759 3.1144 0.3944 36.0005), Rates = Gamma Shape = 4.1286, Pinvar = 0.5925. Support for resulting ML, MP and NJ topologies was obtained using the bootstrap (Felsenstein 1981) with 100 replicates under ML, 1000 replicates under MP and 1 000 000 under NJ and search parameters matching those for the optimality search.

Intraspecific gene evolution cannot always be represented by dichotomous trees however. Population genealogies are often multifurcated; descendant genes may coexist with persistent ancestors, resulting in reticulate relationships (Posada & Crandall 2001). To find out whether the semicaptive Chittagong population is differentiated from Assamese *A. nigricans* in a manner that is not necessarily depicted by a bifurcating tree, we calculated a parsimony haplotype network as implemented in *TCS* 1.21 (Clement et al. 2000). To compare the extent of variation in *A. nigricans*, we also calculated a haplotype network for *A. gangeticus*. For both species the same number of sequences was available and our samples of *A. gangeticus* cover the entire range of the species in east–west direction, so that geographically correlated sequence variation is expected. If a similar amount of variation should occur between the Chittagong and Assamese populations of *A. nigricans*, despite their geographical proximity, this would argue for a long-lasting, effective isolation of the turtles in the shrine pond.

Results

Phylogenetic analyses and sequence divergence

*Aspideretes nigricans* is genetically distinct from the three other *Aspideretes* species. Under all tree-building methods, the sequences of each *Aspideretes* species correspond to a well-supported clade; sequences of Assamese *A. nigricans* group with sequences from the Chittagong shrine (Fig. 2). *Aspideretes burum* and *A. nigricans* appear with high support values as sister taxa. Within *A. gangeticus* two moderately supported subclades occur. One of these subclades comprises the sequences from the Brahmaputra River system (Mymensingh, Bangladesh; Biswanath, Assam), while the other one contains sequences from more eastern regions of northern India and Pakistan (Ganges and Indus River basins) and one GenBank sequence (AY259549) from a turtle obtained at a market in Dhaka (Dacca), Bangladesh. The clade comprising the sequences of *A. nigricans* is a fork containing two subclades, one corresponding to all four sequences from the Kamakhya Temple Pond, and the other one including five of the six sequences from the Chittagong Shrine Pond. The sixth sequence, as well as the only *A. nigricans* sequence from Jia Bhoroli River, Assam, appears in the polytomy outside of both subclades. Sequence divergence within *A. nigricans* is low and approximately half of the divergence within *A. gangeticus* (Table 2; average sequence divergence within *A. gangeticus*: 0.35%, within *A. nigricans*: 0.16%, uncorrected p distances and ML distances in both identical); the two subclades within *A. gangeticus* are differing from one another by an average uncorrected p distance of 0.62% (0.58%–0.77%) and the same mean ML distance of 0.62% (0.58%–0.79%).

All phylogenetic analyses provide strong evidence for the monophyly of a clade containing the four *Aspideretes* species as well as *Nilssonia formosa*. Differences between the phylogenetic analyses occur with respect to the branching pattern within the *Aspideretes-Nilssonia* clade. While ML and NJ suggest a weakly supported, monophyletic *Aspideretes* (bootstrap support below 50%) and *N. formosa* being sister of *Aspideretes*, this scenario is not supported under BA and MP that reveal a paraphyly of *Aspideretes* with respect to *Nilssonia*. *Aspideretes* gangeticus and *A. leithii* are sister taxa under BA (posterior probability support 100%), ML (96% bootstrap support) and NJ (69% bootstrap support) and occur under BA in a polytomy together with (*A. burum + A. nigricans*) and *N. formosa*. Under MP, *N. formosa* is placed with *A. gangeticus* and
Fig. 2 A–C. Phylogenetic relationships of Aspideretes species and Nilssonia formosa as revealed by analysis of a 1038 bp long mtDNA fragment (partial cytochrome b gene). —A. Bayesian tree. —B. Maximum Likelihood tree. —C. Strict consensus of eight parsimony trees (CI = 0.6416, RI = 0.8595; tree length = 611); this tree is identical to the 50% majority-rule consensus. For all trees, support values are presented above nodes; ML tree includes below nodes also NJ values (BA, posterior probabilities; ML, MP and NJ, bootstrap values greater than 50). Numbers preceding species names are MTD T or accession numbers and refer to Table 1. Branch lengths for the BA and ML trees are proportional to the mean number of substitutions per site; branch lengths for the MP tree, arbitrary. Outgroup taxa (Amyda cartilaginea, Dogania subplana, Palea steindachneri, Pelodiscus sinensis) removed for clarity.

Table 2 Uncorrected p distances and ML distances (percentages; means and ranges) within and between Aspideretes species and Nilssonia formosa, based on a 1038 bp long mtDNA fragment (partial cytochrome b gene). Uncorrected p distances are given below, ML distances above the diagonal. The within-species divergence is given in bold on the diagonal (uncorrected p distances/ML distances). The two studied sequences of A. leithii were identical.
A. leithii in a polytomy (bootstrap support below 50%); this (Nilssonia, A. gangeticus, A. leithii) clade is sister to (A. hurum + A. nigricans).

**Network analyses of haplotypes of Aspideretes gangeticus and A. nigricans**

The 11 sequences of *A. gangeticus* correspond to four haplotypes (G1–G4), differing in one to nine mutation steps (Fig. 3A). The most common haplotype G1 (*n* = 5), found in samples from Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Pakistan is under coalescent theory ancestral to the three other haplotypes (outgroup probability of G1: 0.6667). The closely related haplotype G2 from another Pakistani sample differs in one mutation from G1. Haplotype G3 is the GenBank sequence AY259549 from Bangladesh, and is connected over two mutation steps with G1. The most distinct haplotype G4, differing in seven to nine mutation steps from other haplotypes, is represented by the four sequences from the Brahmaputra River system (Mymensingh, Bangladesh; Biswanath, Assam).

Also in our 11 samples of *A. nigricans* four haplotypes were found (N1–N4). Compared with *A. gangeticus*, the level of differentiation is distinctly lower however. Haplotypes N1–N4 differ in one to three mutation steps only. The sequences from the Chittagong Shrine Pond represent two haplotypes (N1, *n* = 1; N3, *n* = 5). Under coalescent theory, N1 is ancestral to all other haplotypes (outgroup probability: 0.5833). The most distinct haplotype N2, differing in two to three mutations from the other haplotypes, corresponds with the four sequences from Kamakhya Temple Pond in Assam. The only sequence from a wild-living *A. nigricans* from Jia Bhoroli River, Assam, represents the fourth haplotype (N4), like N3 differing in one mutation step from the ancestral haplotype N1 (Fig. 3B).
Fig. 3 A, B. Parsimony networks (TCS 1.21) for mtDNA haplotypes of —A. Aspideretes gangeticus and —B. Aspideretes nigricans. Haplotypes with biggest outgroup probability shown as rectangles on the top. Symbol size corresponds approximately to haplotype frequency; missing haplotypes, small circles. Each line between symbols and haplotypes indicates one mutation step. Haplotype G1 frequency; missing haplotypes, small circles. Each line between symbols and haplotypes indicates one mutation step. Haplotype frequencies, G1:

\[ n = 5 \text{(3087, 3096–7, 3402–3), G2: } n = 1 \text{(3401), G3: } n = 1 \text{(AY259549), G4: } n = 4 \text{(3411–3, 3136); N1: } n = 1 \text{(3420), N2: } n = 4 \text{(3427, 3540–1, 3551), N3: } n = 5 \text{(3415–9), N4: } n = 1 \text{(3430). numbers in brackets are MTD T or accession numbers and refer to Table 1.}

Discussion

Our data provide evidence that Aspideretes nigricans is a distinct species that occurs, besides in the well-known shrine pond near Chittagong, also in Assam, India. Furthermore, our data strongly suggest the existence of a well-supported clade containing the four Aspideretes species and Nilssonia formosa. This clade corresponds with the tribe Aspideretini proposed by Meylan (1987). According to our phylogenetic analyses, relationships within Aspideretini are not well-resolved, but there is at best weak evidence for the monophyly of Aspideretes, suggesting that the genera Aspideretes and Nilssonia should be lumped. Likewise, average sequence divergences between N. formosa and the Aspideretes species (mean uncorrected p distances: 8.86%–10.14%, mean ML distances: 14.21%–16.17%) resemble the largest average sequence divergence when the four Aspideretes species are compared with one another (mean uncorrected p distances: 8.89%–8.82%, mean ML distances: 5.93%–13.28%; Table 2), underlining the close relationship of N. formosa and Aspideretes. Also morphological evidence for the distinctness of Nilssonia is weak. Nilssonia differs from Aspideretes species merely in the number of neural plates between the first pleural pair of the bony carapace (two neurals in Aspideretes; only one in Nilssonia, resulting from the fusion of the first and second neural; Meylan 1987). This character constitutes an autapomorphy of N. formosa and, thus, does not contradict including N. formosa in the same genus as the Aspideretes species. In addition, external morphology of N. formosa and Aspideretes species is similar. In contrast to other trionychids, juveniles of all five species possess a carapacial pattern consisting of four conspicuous ocelli; A. burum, A. nigricans and N. formosa are hardly distinguishable (Fig. 4). Adults of all five species are similar sized (maximum shell length of Aspideretes species: 60–94 cm; of N. formosa: 65 cm; Ernst et al. 2000).

Using a patchy taxon sampling and a combined dataset of morphological and genetic characters, already Engstrom et al. (2004) suggested that Aspideretes is paraphyletic with respect to N. formosa. As advocates of the PhyloCode, these authors proposed abandoning the current generic names, and placing all five species in a higher taxon, Aspideretini, defined as the crown clade arising from the last common ancestor of these five species. We prefer to adhere to the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature (ICZN 1999) and synonymise Aspideretes Hay, 1904 with Nilssonia Gray, 1872, resulting in an expanded genus Nilssonia and rendering the recognition of the taxon Aspideretini superfluous. Only in the case of A. gangeticus the ending of the species name needs to be changed to feminine gender when transferred to Nilssonia (ICZN 1999: Article 31.2), so that Nilssonia sensu lato comprises the species N. formosa (Gray, 1869), N. gangetica (Cuvier, 1825), N. burum (Gray, 1831), N. leithii (Gray, 1872) and N. nigricans (Anderson, 1875).

While we found little genetic variation between N. nigricans from Chittagong and Assam, we detected previously unrecognised differentiation within N. gangetica. Our samples from the Brahmaputra River system are distinct from sequences from the Ganges and Indus River basins in all phylogenetic and network analyses. One sequence downloaded from GenBank (AY259549) clusters with our sequences from the Ganges and Indus. The turtle yielding the GenBank sequence was obtained at a market in Dhaka (Dacca), Bangladesh (Engstrom et al. 2004). Dhaka lies near the confluence of the Brahmaputra and Ganges Rivers, suggesting that both genetic lineages meet there.

Conclusions

For more than one century Nilssonia nigricans was considered to be restricted to a single man-made pond and being highly endangered. The results of the present study provide compelling evidence that Praschag & Gemel (2002) were right and that the range of N. nigricans is distinctly larger than previously thought. The total population size of N. nigricans must exceed by far the estimate of 150–300 individuals living in the shrine pond (Groombridge 1982; Ahsan et al. 1991). Further field-work is needed to assess its status in Assam and its exact distributional borders.

Also our finding of geographically correlated genetic differentiation within N. gangetica calls for further research.
In view of reintroduction programmes being conducted in this species (Basu 1987; Choudhury et al. 2000), a rangewide understanding of its genetic variation is in urgent need to avoid the loss of biodiversity by mixing different stocks.

While the mitochondrial cyt b gene was shown to contain too much homoplastic information for revealing deep nodes in softshell turtle phylogeny (Engstrom et al. 2004), our results demonstrate that this gene is an ideally suited marker for species-level taxonomy of trionychids and yields a good phylogenetic resolution on the generic level. This is in line with other investigations using cyt b for phylogeographical purposes, as well as species- and genus-level taxonomy of softshell turtles (Apalone, Weisrock & Janzen 2000) and other chelonian families (Emydidae: Lamb et al. 1994; Lenk et al. 1999; Fritz et al. 2005a; Geoemydidae: Barth et al. 2004; Fritz et al. 2006a; Testudinidae: Palkovacs et al. 2002; Austin et al. 2003; Fritz et al. 2005b, 2006b, 2007) and suggests its application in further studies.

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