Phylogenetic relationships and divergence time estimate of African anguilliform catfish (Siluriformes: Clariidae) inferred from ribosomal gene and spacer sequences

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Abstract

The catfish family Clariidae comprises species in which the body shape ranges from fusiform to anguilliform. Recent studies have shown that this body elongation is the result of convergent evolution. This paper aims to study the evolution towards anguilliformity in a phylogenetic framework. Sequences of 29 taxa were analyzed using the neighbor-joining, maximum-likelihood, maximum-parsimony, and Bayesian inference algorithms and the parsimony algorithm in POY. The study yields phylogenetic hypotheses showing well-supported clades. Anguilliformity appears to have arisen at least four times, each time having a sister group relation with a fusiform Clarias-like ancestor. Divergence time estimation indicates that the African Clariidae started radiating between 123 and 56 My ago.

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1. Introduction

Clariidae are one of the about 31 families belonging to the teleostean order Siluriformes (catfish) (Teugels, 2003; but see Sabaj et al., 2004; for a more up to date number). Its representatives can be found all over Africa, the Middle East and parts of Asia (Greenwood, 1961; Teugels, 2003). They have a suprabranchial organ, permitting them to extract oxygen directly from the atmosphere (Greenwood, 1961; Graham, 1997). This adaptation and their thick skin with mucous pores could explain their distribution in swamps, flood plains and periodically dry pools (Burgess, 1989; Matthes, 1964; Teugels, 1986). The family consists of fifteen genera, 12 endemic to Africa and two endemic to Asia, comprising a total of 93 species (Sabaj et al., 2004). Clarias is the only genus occurring on both African and Asian continents and can be divided into seven subgenera (Teugels, 2003). Anguilliform clariids belong to the genera Channallabes, Gymnalabes, Dolichallabes, Platygallabes, and Platyclarias. They have a long, eel-like body, and often the pectoral and pelvic fins are reduced. They show hypertrophied jaw-muscles and a narrow skull roof (Cabuy et al., 1999; Devaere et al., 2001). These eel-like forms can typically be found in the swamps of the Western and Central African rain forests.

This family presents a unique example among Teleostei since it is the only one where an evolutionary transformation from fusiform to anguilliform morphs has been observed at the species level (Pellegrin, 1927). Initially, anguilliformity was considered to have evolved gradually in this family, in a series starting with Heterobranchus GeoVrey St. Hilaire, 1809 and ending with the extreme anguilliform Dolichallabes Poll, 1942 (Boulenger, 1902; David, 1935; Pellegrin, 1927). This intuitional gradualism was first doubted by Poll (1942, 1977). More recent studies
on clariid phylogeny, based on the structure of the supra-
branchial organ (Graham, 1997), molecular data (Agnèse
and Teugels, 2001a,b), a review of the literature on morpho-
logical data (Agnèse and Adriaens, 2003), and mitochon-
drial DNA (Agnèse and Teugels, 2005) all confirm the
polyphyletic nature of anguilliformity, and the monophy-
letic origin of the family, although the interrelations of
different species and genera of Clariidae are not yet
resolved. Bathyclarias species appear to have evolved
recently from Clarias gariepinus ancestors in Lake Malawi
(Agnèse and Teugels, 2001b). A close relationship between
Heterobranchus and Clarias gariepinus is suggested by
Legendre et al. (1992), Teugels et al. (1992), Agnèse
and Teugels (2001a), and Teugels and Adriaens (2003).

DNA sequence data play an essential role in the recon-
struction of evolutionary relationships among organisms,
resulting in insights in genetic affinities that may confirm or
conflict with traditional taxonomy. Because of its attractive
properties, ribosomal DNA (rDNA) is popular for examin-
ing phylogenetic relationships and for studying genetic vari-
ability and divergence within and between species. Such
properties are secondary structure features, differential
rates of evolution between different regions, and tandemly
repeated genes (Arnhem, 1983; Gebri, 1985). As in other
eukaryotes, the rDNA of catfish contains tandemly
repeated transcriptional units, which are separated by inter-
generic spacers. Within each transcriptional unit, the internal
transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) separates the 18S small subunit
(18S rDNA) from the 5.8S, while the internal transcribed
spacer 2 (ITS2) separates the 5.8S from the 28S large sub-
unit (28S rDNA). The coding regions show little sequence
divergence among closely related species, whereas the
spacer regions may exhibit higher variability as mutations
occur at a relatively rapid rate in internal transcribed spacers.
Therefore, these regions may resolve the relationships
between closely related species that otherwise show little
divergent sequence (Fritz et al., 1994b; Porter and Collins,
1991; Tang et al., 1996).

This study concentrates on the nature of the phyloge-
netic relationships between the anguilliform African clar-
oids only, using molecular data. Parsimony based
morphological evolution would imply that anguilliform taxa
should form a monophyletic group. However, a homo-
plastic origin of body elongation has been suggested based
on mtDNA (e.g., Agnèse and Teugels, 2005). The latter
study, focusing on overall Clariidae phylogeny, included
only two anguilliform taxa: Channallabes apus and Gymnal-
labes typus. A recent taxonomic revision of the former spe-
cies, however, demonstrated the existence of six species, of
which three were known to science and two rehabilitated nominal
taxa (Channallabes apus, Ch. longicaudatus, Ch. ogoensis,
Ch. sanghaensis, Ch. alvarezi, and Ch. teugelsi, Devaere
et al., unpublished data). With the main objective to reveal
the phylogenetic affinities of the anguilliform taxa (and not
the Clariidae as a whole), these new taxa are included in
this study (with the exception of Ch. ogoensis). Additionally,
as morphological data is not included in this phyloge-
netic analyses, and as this is part of a separate study
(Devaere et al., unpublished data), no discussion on the
morphological evolution towards anguilliformity is given in
this paper. An estimate of divergences between the anguilli-
form taxa and their sister groups is performed, to reveal the
time frame of this vast body transformation.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and sequencing
reactions

The origins of the samples used in this study (28 new
samples, 3 GenBank sequences) are listed in Table 1. The
Gabon specimens were collected during expeditions in 1999
and 2000 to assess the complete species richness in the
Gabon area. Several samples of different regions of what
was then still known as Channallabes apus were included in
this analysis. Muscular tissue was isolated and total DNA
was prepared according to the protocol of the Puregene
DNA isolation kit type D-5000A (Gentra Systems, BIO-
zym, Landgraaf, The Netherlands). The complete region of
the ribosomal spacers (ITS1 and ITS2) and the ribosomal
18S, 5.8S and part of the 28S genes was amplified using the
polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with Qiagen DNA poly-
merase (Westburg, Leusden, The Netherlands). Eukaryote-
specific external primers complementary to the 5'-terminus of
the 18S rDNA gene (5'-TYCCCTGGTTGATYYTGCC
AG-3') and the 5'-terminus of the 28S rDNA gene (5'-T
GA TCC ATC TGC AGG TTC ACC T-3') were used to
amplify the entire 18S-ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 and part of the 28S
region. As a new reverse primer, we used (5'-AAT CCT
GGT TAG TTT CTT TTC C-3'). Internal primers were
used as described previously (Samraoui et al., 2003; Wee-
kers et al., 1994). PCR amplifications, purification of the
PCR products, and DNA sequencing was done according to
standard procedures (Samraoui et al., 2003). External and
internal primers in conserved regions of the 18S and
5.8S rDNA were used for sequencing (Samraoui et al.,
2003; Weekers et al., 1994).

2.2. Sequence alignment and the construction of datasets

The DNA sequences covering the complete 18S–ITS1–
5.8S–ITS2–28S (partial) region were aligned with CLU-
STALW 1.8 (Thompson et al., 1997) using default settings,
resulting in an initial dataset. A second dataset was created
by fine-tuning the alignment of the initial dataset based on
secondary structural information, using GeneDoc 2.6.002
(Nicholas et al., 1997). The alignment of the 18S gene
region was manually optimized with published 18S rDNA
sequences based on the conservation of both primary
sequence data and inferred secondary structural features
(Nelles et al., 1984) (the rDNA WWW Server: http://
Database Project: http://geta.life.uiuc.edu/index2.html) The
small and highly conserved 5.8S gene region and the small
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<td>2000</td>
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(continued on next page)
portion of the 28S gene were easy to align, and were used to position the highly variable ITS1 and ITS2 regions. The boundaries of the ITS1 and ITS2 were determined by comparison of the aligned dataset with ITS sequences of fish taxa available in the EMBL databank (e.g., *Cyprinus carpio*–Cyprinidae). The ITS regions were manually optimized based on conservation of both primary sequence data and inferred secondary structural features. The secondary structures of the ITS1 and ITS2 were predicted using the Mfold webserver for nucleic acid folding and hybridization prediction (Zuker, 2003) (http://www.bioinf.rpi.edu/applications/mfold), and compared with published data (Fritz et al., 1994a; May and Coleman, 1997; Morgan and Blair, 1998).

2.3. Sequence and phylogenetic analyses

The Akaike information criterion (AIC) in MODELTEST 3.6 (Posada and Crandall, 1998; Posada and Buckley, 2004) was used to select an appropriate substitution model of DNA evolution. The corresponding nucleotide frequencies, substitution rates and types, and Ti/Tv ratios were used in the neighbour-joining (NJ), maximum-parsimony (MP) and the maximum-likelihood (ML) algorithms in PAUP* 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2003) and Mrbayes 3.0b4 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001) to resolve the phylogenetic relationships.

Pairwise sequence divergence data between taxa were computed for the complete 18S–ITS1–5.8S–ITS2–28S (partial) region. Absolute distance values and distances based on a maximum-likelihood distance matrix (PAUP*) were calculated (data not shown). After selection of the appropriate substitution model of DNA evolution with corresponding parameters that best fitted the data, the ML analysis was conducted in PAUP*. Heuristic search settings were stepwise taxon addition, TBR branch swapping, MulTrees option in effect, no steepest descent, and rearrangements limited to 10,000. The non-parametric-bootstrap analysis with 100 replicates was used to assess the reliability of individual branches in the phylogenetic trees obtained by heuristic search with stepwise sequence addition (Felsenstein, 1985).

Minimum-evolution analysis was performed with PAUP* by application of the selected ML substitution model to the NJ algorithm. The nonparametric bootstrap analysis used 10,000 replicates to assess the reliability of individual branches in the phylogenetic tree.

Settings of the ML parameters in MrBayes were determined by MODELTEST for each individual data partition. The Bayesian analysis was performed with MrBayes version 3.0b4 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001). Parameters for the appropriate substitution model were specified for each data partition to enable site-specific rate variation, allowing a mixed model approach for the heterogeneous dataset. In a first analysis the length of the Bayesian run was tested in order to be certain of convergence. The
Mnlsarkov Chain Monte Carlo process was set so that four chains ran simultaneously for 5,000,000 generations, with trees being sampled every 100 generations for a total of 50,000 trees in the initial sample. For the final analysis five independent Bayesian runs where performed in order to confirm that there was adequate convergence and mixing. Each MCMC process started from random starting points and was set so that four chains ran simultaneously for 1,500,000 generations, with trees sampled every 100 generations for a total of 15,000 trees in the initial sample. Variation in the ML scores in the samples was examined by inspecting the MrBayes-logfile, and the position where the ML scores stopped improving was determined. The portion of the trees before the position (tree number) where the ML score stopped improving dramatically and only fluctuated around a plateau, was discarded. The posterior probability of the phylogeny and its branches was determined for all those trees in the plateau phase with nearly the best ML scores. The Bayesian estimates of posterior probability and bootstrap analyses were included to assess support.

Two different types of parsimony analysis were conducted. First, equally weighted MP analyses were performed with PAUP*. Heuristic search settings were: stepwise taxon addition, tree bisection–reconnection branch swapping, multiple trees retained, no steepest descent, rearrangements limited to 100,000, and accelerated transformation. Treating gaps as characters as in Swofford et al. (1996), or Lutzoni et al. (2001) would have provided more information from these sites, but we treated gaps as missing data so that the MP analysis could be directly compared to the ML analyses. The nonparametric-bootstrap analysis used 1000 replicates to assess the reliability of individual branches in the phylogenetic trees obtained by heuristic search with stepwise sequence addition (Felsenstein, 1985). Trees were displayed with TREEVIEW 1.6.6 (Page, 1996).

A second parsimony analysis was done under the optimality criterion of parsimony with equal weights (i.e., gaps, transitions, and transversions all given a weight of 1). The parsimony analysis was conducted using direct optimization and iterative pass as implemented in the program POY (Wheeler et al., 2002) and run on the American Museum of Natural History Parallel Computing Cluster. The analysis began by generating 30 random addition sequences (RAS) per random replicate for five replicates. These 150 RAS were improved with TBR branch swapping during the searches, an additional round of TBR branch swapping and tree fusing (Goloboff, 1999) at the end. These random replicates resulted in one most parsimonious tree. The resulting tree was submitted to POY for further tree searching using the commands “iterative pass” and “exact.” This second step of the analysis began by tree fusing (Goloboff, 1999) the submitted topology, and it was followed by an additional round of tree fusing and TBR branch swapping to reduce heuristics in the first-step analysis.

The lengths of the resulting implied alignments were verified in NONA (Goloboff, 1998) and WinClada (Nixon, 2002). To estimate the “robustness” of the clades recovered in the phylogenetic hypothesis, bootstrap percentages (200 replications, 10 random addition sequences per replicate) were calculated in NONA based on the resulting implied alignment. Character evolution on the recovered topology was examined using NONA and WinClada.

2.4. Divergence time estimation

Many methods have been proposed for phylogenetic dating (e.g. Britton et al., 2002; Thorne and Kishino, 2002; Yang and Yoder, 2003). Here the program r8s (Sanderson, 2002, 2003) was used to do the dating. r8s performs a semi-parametric rate smoothing, using a penalized likelihood approach applied to the distances inferred from the ML tree with branch lengths. It combines a model-based likelihood approach with a roughness penalty that prevents too much rate variation across the tree. A cross-validation procedure is done to obtain a smoothing parameter that specifies the size of the roughness parameter. Cross validation was performed for the trees with branch lengths, obtained by multiplying the per site values as reported by PAUP* with the number of sites. This procedure provides an objective method for model selection and choice of optimal smoothing value (Sanderson, 2002, 2003). Comparison of seven independent dating analyses (ML trees with smoothing factors 0.63, 1.00, 1.58, 2.51, 3.98, 6.31, and 10.00), using optimal (= lowest) and sub-optimal smoothing factors, was used as a measure of confidence; average node date and confidence intervals (SD values) were calculated (Dumont et al., 2005). We used two reference fossils, the first appearance of the African Clariidae in the Lower Eocene (34–56 MYA, 45 MYA average) and the first appearance of Heterobranchus in the Miocene (16–23 MYA, 19.5 MYA average) to estimate divergence times (data obtained from Gayet and Meunier, 2003). All fossil calibration points were used simultaneously, using the “fixage” command for the Miocene Heterobranchus group, and the “constrain” command with “minage” and “maxage” limits for the Eocene Clarida. Alternatively, we tested dating each with one fossil as calibration point using the “fixage” command, and the other one as a constraint specifying minimum ages using the “constrain” command.

3. Results

3.1. Sequence analysis and alignments

Length of ribosomal genes (18S, 5.8S) and spacers (ITS1, ITS2) are given in Table 2. The length of the 18S and 5.8 genes showed little variation (1869–1870 bp in the ingroup, 1836–1882 bp in the outgroup and 156–157 bp in the ingroup, 157–158 bp in the outgroup, respectively). Length variation in the spacer regions was much higher (ITS1: ingroup, 454–567; outgroup, 368–409; ITS2: ingroup, 384–490; outgroup, 310–386). The GC percentage shows the
same pattern of variation, being higher in spacer regions than in the genes (Table 2). Both spacer regions have almost equal GC percentages. The sequences of representatives of Clarias ngamensis originating from different geographical locations were almost identical, but with a slight difference in ITS1 GC percentage. In C. theodorae the length and GC percentage varied considerably between the two specimens, which was even larger in the two C. pachynema specimens.

### 3.2. Phylogenetic analysis

A first dataset, including the 18S sequences only, comprised two new (Kryptopterus bicirrhis—Siluridae and Pangasianodon hypophthalmus—Pangasiidae) and three Genbank sequences (Clupea harengus—Clupeidae, Cyprinus carpio—Cyprinidae, and Ictalurus punctatus—Ictaluridae) as an outgroup, and 20 taxa as an ingroup. Phylogenetic analyses using four methods, NJ, MP, ML, and Bayesian, showed a rather consistent topology (Fig. 1). The phylogenetic analyses using four methods: NJ, MP, ML, and Bayesian, showed a rather consistent topology (Fig. 1). The studied ingroup catfish (Clariidae) are a monophyletic group, well separated from the outgroup specimens. Heteropneustes is sister group to these Clariidae. The 18S gene is sister group to these Clariidae. The 18S gene is monophyletic, which is confirmed by all analyses of both the 18S-dataset and the dataset containing the complete ITS1–5.8S–ITS2 dataset. The ingroup of African Clariidae is monophyletic, which is confirmed by all analyses of both the 18S-dataset and the dataset containing the complete sequences (18S-ITS1–5.8S–ITS2–28S) (latter not shown).

The second dataset contained the ITS1, 5.8S and ITS2 sequences of all ingroup and four outgroup taxa, one being a GenBank sequence (Cyprinus carpio), others being newly sequenced (Kryptopterus bicirrhis, Pangasianodon hypophthalmus, and Heteropneustes fossilis). The phylogenetic analysis was performed using the five different methods (Figs. 2A–D and 3). A consensus is presented in Fig. 4. The neighbor-joining analysis with distance measurement set to maximum likelihood generated a tree with a log likelihood of −9874.58847. Branch lengths were corrected according to the settings mentioned above. A 50%
majority rule consensus tree from 127 trees is shown in Fig. 2B. Five independent Bayesian runs were performed, and in each run one out of every 100 trees was sampled for 15,000,000 generations. The point of stationary ML scores ("burnin") was after 350 trees; these first 350 trees were discarded and the posterior probability of the phylogeny was determined from 14,650 trees. A 50% majority-rule consensus tree with Bayesian probability values (Fig. 2C) was calculated in PAUP* using the 14,650 trees with lowest ML scores. Branch lengths were corrected for ML distances using the GTR+G model. The maximum parsimony analysis generated two most parsimonious trees (MPTs) of 1719 Steps (CI = 0.7533, RI = 0.6570, RC = 0.4949). Bootstrap method with heuristic search, stepwise taxon addition, TBR branch swapping, MULTREES option, no steepest descent, rearrangements limited to 100,000, and accelerated transformation. Gaps were treated as missing data. Bootstrap support, calculated from 1000 replicates, is expressed as percentage (Fig. 2D).

**Heteropneustes fossilis** is a close relative to the studied Clariidae (BS = 100, 100, 100, 89, and 100; NJ, MP, POY, ML, and MrB, respectively), as could be expected, but is generally not considered part of it (Diogo, 2005; Teugels and Adriaens, 2003).

The first clade (cluster 1a) is ambiguously supported (NJ, MP, ML, respectively, 44, 47, 52, and MrB, POY, respectively, 97, 100), but still suggest a sister group relationship between *Clarias buthupogon*–*Channallabes apus* and *Clarias pachynema*–*Clarias submarginatus*. Cluster 1b unites the two specimens of *Clarias ngamensis* with *Clarias gariepinus*, *Dinopterus cunningtoni*, and *Heterobranchus isopterus*. This clade is well supported by all methods (Bootstrap support for NJ, MP, POY, ML, and MrB, respectively, 73, 84, 100, 79, and 100).

In clade 2a *Clarias camerunensis* is the sister group of two specimens of *Clariallabes longicauda*, and two specimens of *Channallabes alveazi* always cluster together. The most basal taxon is *C. stappersii* in MP, ML, and MrB. In NJ, however, it is the sister group to the *C. theodorae* specimens. *Channallabes longicaudatus* appears in the clade, twice as a sister group of the *Channallabes alveazi* specimens (MP, MrB), once as an outgroup of the rest of the 2a clade (NJ, where *C. stappersii* is not included in the cluster), once as the sister group of the subclade of *C. camerunensis* and *C. longicauda* (ML) and once as the closest relative of *Clarias stappersi* forming the sister group of *Channallabes alveazi* (POY). We can find a monophyletic grouping (cluster 2b) of the two specimens of *Channallabes sanghaensis* and *Clarias platycephalus* in the POY analysis. However, one of the two *Channallabes sanghaensis* specimens is most basal in the cluster in the NJ, MP, ML, and MrB trees. The NJ, MP, ML, and MrB analyses all show, contrary to the POY tree, *Clarias jaensis* as an outgroup of *Clarias platycephalus* and one of the *Channallabes sanghaensis* specimens (BS = 98, 93, 90, and 100). The two representatives of *C. theodorae*, originating from very distant locations, always cluster together but differ in position. The positions of *C. stappersi*, *C. jaensis* and *Tanganikallabes mortiauxi* remain uncertain, and the two *C. pachynema* taxa do not cluster together. The representative from Ebeigne, Northern Gabon (*C. pachynema 2*) is always a member of cluster 1a, whereas the other one, from Mopia, Southern Gabon, does not have an unambiguous position in the phylogenies; it occurs as a sister group of all taxa of the ingroup except 1a, of 2a + 2b in MP, of 1a + 1b + *C. theodorae* in ML or of 1a + 1b + *C. theodorae* + *T. mortiauxi* in MrB.

In POY, the most primitive taxon of the studied ingroup appears to be *Gymnallabes typus*, a situation that is not
sunspported by the other four analyses, where it clusters with 1b (NJ, MP, ML, and MrB).

3.3. Dating analysis

Application of the two available fossil calibration points in the penalized likelihood procedure applied to the ML tree, provided us with a range of data. Initial results were obtained with the default settings for dating analysis in the r8s program, with cross validation function enforced. The rate smoothing parameters with optimal (= lowest) and sub-optimal cross validation scores were selected, and the dating procedure was then repeated. The result of the time divergence estimation is shown in Fig. 5, and age estimates with rather low SD values for all internal nodes are shown in Table 3. The analyses using the ML tree topology and different smoothing factors, resulting from optimal and sub-optimal cross validation scores, yielded small deviations in age estimates. The use of several reference fossils is expected to reduce variation due to error. The age...

Fig. 2. Phylogenetic trees based on sequences of the ribosomal ITS1–5.8S–ITS2 region. (A) Neighbor-joining estimate of the phylogeny. The scale bar represents 10 substitutions/site, and bootstrap support, calculated from 10,000 replicates, is expressed as a percentage. Anguilliforms are indicated in bold. (B) Maximum likelihood estimate of the phylogeny showing a 50% majority rule consensus tree from 127 trees. The scale bar represents 0.1 substitutions/site, and bootstrap support, calculated from 100 replicates, is expressed as percentage. Anguilliform taxa are indicated in bold. (C) Bayesian probability estimate of the phylogeny showing a 50% majority-rule consensus tree with Bayesians probability values. The tree is rooted with Cyprinus carpio, K. bicirrhis, P. hypophthalmus, and Heteropneustes fossilis as outgroup. Branch lengths are corrected for ML distances using the GTR+G model. The scale bar represents 0.1 substitutions/site. The numbers along the branches are support indicated by Bayesian probability analysis, which are expressed as percentage. Anguilliform taxa are indicated in bold. (D) Maximum parsimony estimate of the phylogeny; the analysis generated two most parsimonious trees (MPTs) of 1719 Steps. Bootstrap support, calculated from 1000 replicates, is expressed as percentage. The scale bar represents 10 steps. Anguilliform taxon are indicated in bold.
4. Discussion

4.1. Sequence variation

The length and GC% of the 18S and 5.8S genes of the studied Clariidae fall within the range of known sequences available in GenBank/EMBL. The same goes for the length and GC content of the spacers. A comparable GC% between ITS1 and ITS2 is considered to be a general property, as suggested by Torres et al. (1990). The GC% is quite high, and could be due to the fact that these animals occur in the tropics: higher GC content can be an adaptation to warmer climates, as has been shown in tetrapods (Bernardi et al., 1985).

4.2. Phylogenetic analysis

The 18S dataset and complete sequence analysis (data not shown) show that the African Clariidae considered here form a monophyletic group, well separated from the outgroup. Heteropneustes is the sister group of these African Clariidae. The 18S region contained insufficient information to resolve the terminal clades.

The analyses of the ITS1–5.8S–ITS2 dataset still supports Heteropneustes being the sister group to the studied Clariidae, which confirms the results of Teugels and Adriaens (2003) but could contradict a recent phylogenetic analysis based on morphology (Diogo, 2005). In the latter, Heteropneustes is considered as the sister group of all Clariidae except Uegitglanis (the latter genus is not included in our study).

According to the POY analysis, the most basal taxon within the Clariidae is Gymnallabes typus, an eel-like species occurring in the Niger delta. In all other analyses, however, it is the sister group to cluster 1b. It seems very unlikely that anguilliformy would be the plesiomorphic condition for the clarid family as the outgroup taxa are non-anguilliform and as this would imply a secondary reduction of body length, with a subsequent elongation. Further sampling, both of specimens and of gene sequences, might resolve this.

Clade 1a, containing two different clusters (C. pachynema 2, C. submarginatus, and C. buthupogon, Channallabes apus) was consistent in every analysis. Clarias pachynema, C. submarginatus, but also C. theodorae all belong to the Clarias (Anguilloclarias) subgenus sensu Teugels (1986), thus rendering the subgenus paraphyletic. In Teugels and Adriaens (2003) and Agnée and Teugels (2005), Clarias (Anguilloclarias) was considered the sister clade of Gymnallabes, but this is not found in any of the trees presented here.

The study of Agnée and Teugels (2005), using the cytochrome b gene (Cyb), did not yield a close relationship between C. theodorae (see below) and C. pachynema. Agnée and Teugels (2005) used four representatives of the subgenus Clarioides, which formed a monophyletic group. Teugels and Adriaens (2003) and Agnée and Teugels (2005) both show a close relationship between the Clario-ides species and Channallabes apus, which is confirmed here. A close relationship between Clarioides and Clariallabes s.s., as suggested by Poll (1942), could not be corroborated.

Cluster 1b is a very interesting one, uniting two specimens of C. ngamensis with C. gariipinus, Dinopteropites cunningtoni and Heterobranchus isopterus. The close relationship between Clarias (Clarias), comprising C. gariipinus and C. anguillaris, Clarias (Dinopteroides), comprising C. ngamensis, and Heterobranchus, was also suggested by Teugels and Adriaens (2003) based on morphological evidence. It has also been shown that Clarias (Clarias) is the ancestral group of Bathyclarias, as a result of a recent speciation event in Lake Malawi (Agnée and Teugels, 2001b). The close relationship between Clarias

constraints imposed by the two fossils in different parts of the tree are likely to restrict variation caused by a variety of other factors. Divergence time estimation based on the ribosomal ITS1–5.8S–ITS1 region and fossil constraints indicate that the African Clariidae started radiating between 123 and 56 My ago. Heteropneustes fossilis (a close relative to Clariidae) is older (about 123 My) and may be a survivor of old clades that went extinct at the K/T boundary. The extant Clariidae originated in the Miocene, and survivors of old clades that went extinct at the K/T boundary. The extant Clariidae originated in the Miocene, and

Fig. 3. Estimate of the ITS1–5.8S–ITS2 phylogeny tree under the optimality criterion of parsimony with equal weights, i.e., gaps, transitions, and transversions all given a weight of (1) using POY. Random replicates resulted in one most parsimonious tree. The resulting tree was submitted to POY for further tree searching using the commands “iterative pass” and “exact.” 993 of 1900 characters were phylogenetically informative, CI = 0.80; RI = 0.85; TL = 2823 steps. Anguilliform taxa are indicated in bold.

The 18S dataset and complete sequence analysis (data not shown) show that the African Clariidae considered here form a monophyletic group, well separated from the outgroup. Heteropneustes is the sister group of these African Clariidae. The 18S region contained insufficient information to resolve the terminal clades.

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According to the POY analysis, the most basal taxon within the Clariidae is Gymnallabes typus, an eel-like species occurring in the Niger delta. In all other analyses, however, it is the sister group to cluster 1b. It seems very unlikely that anguilliformy would be the plesiomorphic condition for the clarid family as the outgroup taxa are non-anguilliform and as this would imply a secondary reduction of body length, with a subsequent elongation. Further sampling, both of specimens and of gene sequences, might resolve this.

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(Clarias) and Heterobranchus was also confirmed by Legendre et al. (1992), Teugels et al. (1992), and Agnèse and Teugels (2005). Finally, Agnèse and Teugels (2005), Teugels and Adriaens (2003) and Graham (1997) also found a sister group relationship between Heterobranchus and Dinotopeterus. This clade is thus supported both by general morphology, morphology of the suprabranchial organ, cytochrome b and nuclear ribosomal DNA analyses.

The two C. theodorae specimens (one from Zambia and one from Botswana) cluster together; their relationship to the other taxa remains ambiguous (Figs. 2A–D and 3). Tanganikallabes was considered part of a trichotomy with Gymnallabes and Clariallabes by Graham (1997). This relationship can’t be confirmed here. The apparent polyphyletic nature of C. pachynema remains unexplained at this point, and deserves further study with additional specimens.

Cluster 2a shows two monophyletic groups. In the first subclade, Clariallabes longicauda is the closest relative to C. cameronensis (subgenus Clarias (Brevicephaloides)). This is in contrast to what has previously been suggested: Poll (1942) placed Clariallabes with Clarias (Clarioidei); Graham (1997) considered it within a polytomy with Channallabes and Dolichallabes. However, Agnèse and Teugels (2005) saw a close relationship between the Brevicephaloides and the Platyccephaloides species, where the sister clade of C. jaensis and Clariallabes longicauda is nested within representatives of both the Brevicephaloides and Platyccephaloides subgenera.

The second subclade of cluster 2a unites two monophyletic groups according to the POY-analysis, the first one comprising two Channallabes alvarezi specimens (supporting their designation to a new species), and the second one comprising Clarias stappersi and Channallabes longicaudatus. In the other analyses, the second subgroup consists of the two Channallabes alvarezi specimens in relation to Channallabes longicaudatus at variable positions. Again, it seems that another lineage of anguilliform species (Channallabes longicaudatus and Channallabes alvarezi) has a close relationship with a non-anguilliform Clarias species, this time a representative of the polyphyletic subgenus Platyccephaloides (see above).

The last cluster (2b) unites taxa from the Congo region, i.e., Clarias platyccephalus with two specimens of Channallabes sanghaensis. Remarkably, even though both Channallabes sanghaensis specimens come from the same region, one of the specimens seems to be more closely related to C. platyccephalus than to the other Ch. sanghaensis specimen. Even more surprising is that in the NJ, MP, ML and MrB trees, the second Ch. sanghaensis forms the sister taxon of the latter two with Clarias jaensis. Both Ch. sanghaensis specimens were collected by local fishermen, however, no information on the exact localities could be obtained. As a consequence, they could originate from different localities, hence they show genetic variability (but any assumption on whether they represent two different species is too speculative at this point). Both C. jaensis and C. platyccephalus are classified in the subgenus Platyccephaloides, together with C. stappersi (cluster 2a), which implies a polyphyletic nature of this subgenus sensu Teugels (1986). In Agnèse and Teugels (2005), C. jaensis forms a monophyletic group...
together with *Clariallabes longicauda* and *Clarias* (*Brevicephaloides*) (with a.o. *C. camerunensis*), which is not confirmed in this study.

The splitting of the original *Channallabes apus* into six species, i.e., *Channallabes apus*, *Ch. longicaudatus*, *Ch. alvarezi*, *Ch. sanghaensis*, *Ch. ogoouensis* and *Ch. teugelsi*, was originally based on morphological data (Devaere et al, submitted) and is confirmed by these molecular analyses (with exception for *C. ogoouensis*, for which tissue was not available for this study).

Even though the clades mentioned above are well defined and largely supported by all topologies, the mutual relationships of the clades is less straightforward. It is even so that the topologies of the ML and Bayesian analysis seem to present an opposite result to that of the POY, MP and NJ analysis. The bootstrap supports for the more basal nodes are very low in all analyses, except for POY. During direct optimization, the POY alignment is influenced by the relationships on the phylogeny. Therefore indices of support calculated from that combination of phylogeny and alignment can be expected to be high. The lower support of trees (except POY) may be the result of rapid speciation events that occurred in a very short interval of time. When we look at the consensus data of the NJ, MP, ML, and MrB analyses, the basal nodes all collapse (Fig. 4). In this case both topologies show a consistent pattern, with, most importantly, the same terminal clades.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster (node)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>403.41</td>
<td>20.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>403.41</td>
<td>20.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clariidae</td>
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<td>4.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 1</td>
<td>35.06</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluseter 2</td>
<td>56.00</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>53.80</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 2b</td>
<td>37.62</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>16.36</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>53.80</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 2a</td>
<td>46.17</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
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<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>23.96</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 1</td>
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<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 1b</td>
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<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
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<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>12.96</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>35.06</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age with an asterisk is the average fossil date (see Table 3), set to fixed age, and the age with two asterisks is the minimum–maximum constrained fossil date in the divergence time estimation.

4.3. Divergence time estimation

The divergence time estimation, based on ML distances, is shown in Fig. 5. Stem and crown ages are given in Table 3, including the standard deviation intervals. The table indicates that these are not too broad. According to our analyses the African Clariidae used in this study have emerged between 56 MYA (crown node age) and 123 MYA (stem node age). Two hypothetical scenarios for the timing of speciation events are envisaged here.

A late radiation would have occurred around the K/T crisis, starting about 65 millions years ago. Rapid speciation of the Clariidae during this event could explain the ambiguity and low bootstrap support of the nodes connecting the terminal clusters (1a,b and 2a,b).

However, since the currently available data from the fossil record does not allow a more accurate estimation of the origin of oldest clariids (i.e. between 34 and 56 MYA), the split between Clariidae and the monotypic Heteropneustidae, and thus the origin of the Clariidae, may have occurred somewhere between 123 and 56 MYA. A possible origin of the Clariidae as early as 123 MYA would be possible, taking into consideration that in our analysis two basal clariid taxa are not included. Phylogenetic analyses, based on morphology, suggested a most basal position of the African, monotypic Uegitglanis within the Clariidae (De Pinna, 1993; Diogo, 2005). A recent molecular analysis has shown that Asian Clarias species are the sister group of all African clariids (Agnése and Teugels, 2005). Both taxa were not used in this study because of unavailability of tissue (Uegitglanis), whereas Asian clariids were not used in this study because of the focus on the phylogeny of African, anguilliform taxa. Subsequently, the period between 123 and 56 MYA may have included the speciation of those basal groups (the Asian clariids also show a substantial number of species) (Teugels, 2003).

If the latter hypothesis would be correct, and the origin of Clariidae and Heteropneustidae is to be situated during the early Cretaceous, the extant Heteropneustes fossils may thus be the sole survivor of an old clade that could have gone extinct, e.g., at the K/T boundary. The fact that Heteropneustes fossils has a morphology resembling that of the generalized clariids quite strikingly (according to some authors, it should even be considered a clariid, e.g., De Pinna, 1993; Diogo, 2005; Shirinivashag, 1958), the origin of the first Clariidae could very well have been closer to the stem node than the crown node, and thus quite earlier than the K/T-boundary. To test the validity of these two hypotheses, a phylogenetic analysis including all the Asian representatives and Uegitglanis would have to be performed.

The position of Gymnallabes typus according to the POY analysis seems to indicate an early split towards anguilliformity. However, the other analyses place it as a sister group of cluster 1b. A possible explanation for the ambiguous position could be that the lineage towards Gymnallabes typus, as represented here, only reflects one branch of evolution towards anguilliformity and that sister taxa within the lineage are missing (only one specimen from the Niger basin was used) or have become extinct. Other studies place Gymnallabes close to Channallabes (Poll, 1942), Clariallabes and Tanganikallabes (Graham, 1997); or close to Platylallabes, Tanganikallabes and Clarias (Anguillolarias) (Teugels and Adriaens, 2003). According to Agnèse and Teugels (2005), G. typus is nested within a clade representing the Clarias (Anguillolarias) subgenus.

Within the clariid family, body elongation occurred at least four times according to this analysis (Fig. 5): (1) the branch to Gymnallabes typus, (2) the branch of Channallabes apus in cluster 1a, (3) the branch of Channallabes santhaensis, and (4) the branch to Channallabes altevarezi and Ch. longicaudatus. The DTE does not provide an exact dating for these morphological events; it could lie anywhere between the stem and crown node ages. Clades with multiple anguilliform taxa (nodes H and F) give a minimum age as they probably share a common anguilliform ancestor. Clades uniting a fusiform with an anguilliform (nodes D and L) provide maximum dates, assuming that fusiform morphology is not the result of a secondary shortening of the body. The branch of Clariallabes longicaudae (node H) is a special case, since the latter is morphologically intermediate between fusiforms and anguilliforms: infraorbitalia and suprapraepercularia are slightly reduced, the jaw muscles
are slightly hypertrophied and, as could be anticipated, their length is intermediate (Boulenger, 1902; Cabuy et al., 1999). However, it does not seem to be an evolutionary intermediate, as fully elongated anguilliforms in this analysis never emanated from this lineage (more Clariallabes species would have to be included to support this). The taxonomic position of Clariallabes longicauda has thus always been a problematic puzzle. Originally, it was described by Boulenger (1902) as Allabenchelys longicauda, distinct from Clariallabes, and intermediate between Clarias and Clariallabes s.s. David (1935) placed it in the genus Clarias, i.e., in Clarias (Allabenchelys), but since Teugels (1986) it is transferred to Clariallabes. Here it seems to have a close relationship with Clarias camerunensis, but the exact relationship with the other Clariallabes species remains unresolved.

The rather unexpected polyphyly of Channallabes sanghaensis could indicate that the inclusion of more samples could be useful to come to a complete understanding of the species complex. This could clear out at least some of the problematic relationships concerning, e.g., C. pachynema and G. typus as well.

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