The marbled crayfish as a paradigm for saltational speciation by autopolyploidy and parthenogenesis in animals

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Abstract

The parthenogenetic all-female marbled crayfish is a novel research model and potent invader

of freshwater ecosystems. It is a triploid descendant of the sexually reproducing slough

crayfish, *Procambarus fallax*, but its taxonomic status has remained unsettled. By cross-

breeding experiments and parentage analysis we show here that marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*

are reproductively separated. Both crayfish copulate readily, suggesting that the reproductive

barrier is set at the cytogenetic rather than the behavioural level. Analysis of complete

mitochondrial genomes of marbled crayfish from laboratory lineages and wild populations

demonstrates genetic identity and indicates a single origin. Flow cytometric comparison of

DNA contents of haemocytes and analysis of nuclear microsatellite loci confirm triploidy and

suggest autopolyploidization as its cause. Global DNA methylation is significantly reduced in

marbled crayfish implying the involvement of molecular epigenetic mechanisms in its

origination. Morphologically, both crayfish are very similar but growth and fecundity are

considerably larger in marbled crayfish, making it a different animal with superior fitness.

These data and the high probability of a divergent future evolution of the marbled crayfish

and *P. fallax* clusters suggest that marbled crayfish should be considered as an independent

asexual species. Our findings also establish the *P. fallax*-marbled crayfish pair as a novel

paradigm for rare chromosomal speciation by autopolyploidy and parthenogenesis in animals

and for saltational evolution in general.

Key words: marbled crayfish, autopolyploidy, parthenogenesis, epigenetics, chromosomal

speciation, saltational evolution

1. Introduction

In the last decade, the marbled crayfish (Marmorkrebs) has gained considerable attention in the scientific community and the public because of its obligatory parthenogenetic reproduction, its suitability as a research model and its high potential as an invasive species [1-9]. It was discovered in 1995 in the German aquarium trade [2] and has become a popular pet in Europe and other continents since then [10,11]. Thriving wild populations have meanwhile developed from releases in several European countries and Madagascar and are feared to threaten native crayfish species by competition and transmission of the crayfish plague [7-9,12,13].

By comparison of morphological traits and molecular markers, Martin and colleagues [14] have identified the sexually reproducing slough crayfish *Procambarus fallax* from Florida and southernmost Georgia as the mother species of marbled crayfish. However, its taxonomic position remained unsettled. Martin *et al.* [14] suggested the provisional name *Procambarus fallax* forma *virginalis*, being aware that forma is not a valid category in animal taxonomy. Meanwhile, several important characteristics of marbled crayfish have been described in detail, including morphology [12], embryonic development [15,16], life history [16-19], parthenogenetic reproduction [1,20,21] and a triploid karyotype [22].

Speciation in parthenogenetic lineages is a problematic issue because parthenogens do not fit into the classical concepts of speciation, as discussed in detail by Mayr [23], Coyne and Orr [24], Barraclough *et al.* [25], Birky and Barraclough [26] and Martin *et al.* [14]. However, Barraclough and colleagues emphasized the importance of understanding diversification and speciation in asexual organisms, not least to test theories about the evolutionary advantage of sex [25,26]. They provided a theory on speciation in asexuals, which they named Evolutionary Genetic Species Concept [26]. This theory focuses on the criterion that the individuals of the parent species and the neo-species form discrete clusters of very similar genotypes and phenotypes. The new cluster should be of a single origin and both clusters

must be separated from each other by reproductive or geographic isolation and a gap of

genetic and phenotypic traits so that natural selection can ensure a divergent evolution over

time [25-28].

Stimulated by the paper by Martin *et al.* [14] there is an ongoing discussion among

marbled crayfish experts whether this animal should be treated as a parthenogenetic lineage of

P. fallax or a species in its own right. In order to examine this issue in detail we have tested

the above listed operational definitions for asexual species with several experimental and

technical approaches. Cross-breeding experiments between marbled crayfish and slough

crayfish and parentage analysis by microsatellite markers were performed to test for

reproductive isolation. Complete mitochondrial genomes and nuclear microsatellite patterns

of marbled crayfish from several laboratory lineages and wild populations were analysed to

clarify single origin and to establish its genotypic characteristics. The DNA content of

haemocytes, mitochondrial genome sequences and microsatellite patterns was compared

between marbled crayfish, *P. fallax* and the closely related *Procambarus alleni* to obtain

information about the mode of triploidization of the marbled crayfish. Global DNA

methylation was determined to examine the involvement of epigenetic mechanisms in

speciation. Finally, taxonomically relevant morphological characters and ecologically and

evolutionarily important life history traits were compared to reveal phenotypic differences

between the marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* clusters.

2. Material and methods

2.1 Animals

The following animals were used: (1) marbled crayfish *Procambarus fallax* (Hagen, 1870) f.

virginalis from our laboratory lineages named "Heidelberg" and "Petshop" and from two wild

populations in Germany and Madagascar, (2) *Procambarus fallax* (Hagen, 1870) from our

laboratory population and the aquarium trade, (3) *Procambarus alleni* (Faxon, 1884) from the

aquarium trade, and 4) *Procambarus clarkii* (Girard, 1852) from an invasive Swiss

population. The Heidelberg lineage was founded by G.V. in February 2003 from a single

female, which originated from the oldest documented marbled crayfish aquarium population

founded in 1995 by F. Steuerwald. The Petshop lineage was established by G.V. in February

2004 from a single female purchased in a pet shop. The wild marbled crayfish were from

Lake Moosweiher, Germany (provided by M. Pfeiffer), and a market in Antananarivo,

Madagascar (provided by F. Glaw). Our *P. fallax* laboratory population was founded in

February 2014 by a single pair obtained from the aquarium trade. All crayfish were raised

under the same conditions. Animals were kept either individually or communally in plastic

containers of 30x25x20 cm equipped with gravel and shelters. Tap water was used as the

water source and replaced once a week. Water temperature was maintained at 20°C. All

animals were fed with TetraWafer Mix pellets.

2.2 Cross-breeding experiments

For the 38 crossbreeding experiments we used three *P. fallax* males with total lengths (TL=tip

of rostrum to end of telson) of 3.1-5.2 cm, five *P. fallax* females with TLs of 3.5-4.2 cm, 14

marbled crayfish females with TLs of 4.0-6.3 cm and two *P. alleni* males with TLs of 5.1-5.3

cm. All males were in the reproductively competent Form I as indicated by the presence of

hooks on the ischia of the 3rd and 4th peraeopods. Eight of the 14 marbled crayfish females

and 4 of the 5 *P. fallax* females had well-developed glair glands on the underside of the pleon

indicating ovarian maturity and receptiveness. The behavioural experiments were performed

in aquaria with an area of 26x16 cm without shelter. Pairs were observed for 2 hours and

copulation was regarded as successful when the partners remained in typical copulation

position for more than 10 min. Parentage of the offspring was determined by microsatellite

analysis.

2.3 Microsatellite analysis

For microsatellite analysis, walking legs of specimens were fixed in 80% ethanol prior to extraction of nuclear DNA with the Blood & Cell Culture DNA Kit (Genomic Tips) from Qiagen (Hilden, Germany). A total of five microsatellite primer pairs were tested. Four of them were originally designed for *P. clarkii* (PclG-02, PclG-04, PclG-08, PclG-48) [29] and one pair (PclG-26) was designed for marbled crayfish based on the *P. clarkii* sequences [21]. The same microsatellite loci were additionally investigated in *P. alleni* and *P. clarkii*. PCR was carried out using a Primus 96 Cycler (Peqlab Biotechnologie, Erlangen, Germany). Fragment analysis was performed on a Beckman Coulter CEQ 8000 eight capillary sequencer (Beckman Coulter, Krefeld, Germany) using the Beckman Coulter DNA Size Standard Kit 400 bp. Loci were scored with GeneMarker, v.2.6 (SoftGenetics, State College, Pennsylvania, USA).

2.4 Sequencing, assembly and comparison of mitochondrial genomes

For comparison of complete mitochondrial genomes we used two cultured marbled crayfish from the Heidelberg and Petshop lineages, two wild marbled crayfish from Lake Moosweiher and Madagascar, one *P. fallax* female and one *P. alleni* female. DNA was isolated from hepatopancreases and abdominal musculature as described above and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq platform. Read pairs were quality trimmed (quality value ≥30, minimum length ≥30) and the mitochondrial genome of the Heidelberg animal was assembled by Velvet2.0 [30]. The sequences of the other specimens were established by mapping against the Heidelberg sequence using Bowtie2 [31]. For the identification of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) between the marbled crayfish populations, we used mpileup and bcftools from SAMtools [32], requiring a quality value >30 for SNP calling. Mitochondrial genome sequences of *P. fallax* and *P. alleni* were generated by MITObim1.6 [33] using published mitochondrial DNA fragments from *P. fallax* (FJ619800) and *P. alleni* (HQ171462,

FJ619802, HQ171451) as seed sequences. Mismatches in comparison to marbled crayfish

sequences were identified by blastn alignments.

2.5 Measurement of DNA content by flow cytometry

Flow cytometry was used to determine the DNA content in haemocytes of *P. fallax* and

marbled crayfish. Haemolymph was withdrawn through the articulating membrane between

coxa and basis of the chelipeds, mixed 1:1 with crayfish anticoagulant buffer solution (100

mM glucose, 34 mM trisodium citrate, 26 mM citric acid, 15.8 mM EDTA, pH 4.6) and

centrifugad for 5 min at 1400 rpm. The pellet was washed and re-suspended with 100 µl PBS.

Samples were either stored in 10% DMSO at -80°C or immediately used for analysis of the

DNA content. For flow cytometry 4 µl RNase A (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) stock

solution (50 mg/ml) was added to the samples and incubated for 5 min at room temperature

followed by an incubation for 60 min with 5 µl propidium iodide (Life Technologies,

Darmstadt, Germany) stock solution (1 mg/ml). The samples were then mixed 1:1 with PBS

and the DNA-related fluorescence intensities of single cells were measured on a BD Accuri

C6 Cytometer (BD Sciences, Heidelberg, Germany) with blue laser 488 nm and detection

filter FL2 585/40 nm.

2.6 Measurement of global DNA methylation by mass spectrometry

Global DNA methylation was determined in three whole juveniles and selected tissues

(hepatopancreas, abdominal musculature and ovary) of three adults of marbled crayfish and *P.*

fallax. Sample preparation and LC-MS/MS analyses were conducted as previously described

[34] and were performed on an Agilent 1260 LC system connected to an Agilent 6460

TripleQuad masspectrometer (Agilent, Böblingen, Germany). Briefly, after enzymatic

hydrolysis to nucleosides, the samples were spiked with 250 fmol [D$_3$]-5-methylcytosine as

internal standard. The mass transitions resulting from the loss of desoxyribose (5-

methylcytidine: 242 Th $\rightarrow$ 126 Th, [D$_3$]-5-methylcytidine: 245 Th $\rightarrow$ 129 Th) by collision

induced dissociation (CID) were analysed in dynamic multiple reaction monitoring mode

(DMRM). Calibration curves using a stable isotope labelled internal standard were established

for quantification of 5-methylcytidine. The linear regressions resulting from the double

logarithmic plots were used to correlate the respective signals from LC-MS/MS analysis to

known amounts of substance. The yield of detected modification was normalized to

guanosine content (as equivalent to cytidine content) because of better signal quality. To

assess the amount of guanosine, the areas of the DAD results, gained during the LC analysis,

were correlated to their respective amounts of substance in the same way as above.

2.7 Investigation of morphological characters and life history traits

For comparison of morphological characters between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* we used

marbled crayfish with TLs of 4.0-8.4 cm and body weights of 1.4-15.2 g and *P. fallax* females

with TLs of 3.6-5.7 cm and weights of 1.1-4.5 g. We focussed on annulus ventralis (sperm

receptacle), areola of the carapace, cheliped chelae and coloration, the taxonomically most

relevant characters in female Cambaridae [35-37]. For comparison of life history traits we

analysed growth, time of sexual maturity, body size and clutch size. Growth was determined

in batches raised under the same conditions by measurement of carapace length (CL), total

length (TL) and body weight. Sexual maturity was deduced from the presence of glair glands.

Mean and maximum body and clutch sizes were taken from our laboratory animals and

published data on wild marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*.

3. Results

3.1 Crossbreeding experiments and parentage analysis

Crossbreeding experiments were performed to investigate whether marbled crayfish and *P.*

fallax can interbreed and produce viable offspring. Behavioural observations revealed that

marbled crayfish females and *P. fallax* males recognize each other as sexual partners.

Courtship and mating behaviour included frontal approach, tearing with the chelipeds, intense

sweeping with the antennae, sudden turning of the female and mounting by the male (figure

1). This courtship behaviour is also typical of other *Procambarus* species [38]. *P. fallax* males

copulated with marbled crayfish females in 15 of 21 trials (71%) and with *P. fallax* females in

6 of 8 trials (86%) (table 1). In the marbled crayfish x *P. fallax* pairs, the first contact was

often initiated by the marbled crayfish females. Some matings lasted for more than 1 hour. *P.*

fallax males can turn significantly larger marbled crayfish females on the back but are not

long enough to simultaneously fix the female's chelipeds and insert the gonopods into the

annulus ventralis. *P. alleni* males copulated neither with *P. fallax* nor with marbled crayfish

females (table 1) suggesting that they did not recognize them as sexual partners.

We obtained a total of ten clutches from the crossbreeding experiments, eight from

crosses of three *P. fallax* males with eight marbled crayfish females and two from crosses of

two *P. fallax* males with two *P. fallax* females. Four of the *P. fallax x* marbled crayfish

clutches and one *P. fallax x P. fallax* clutch developed into juveniles whereas the others

decayed during embryonic development. In the *P. fallax x P. fallax* clutch we counted 10

females and 9 males at juvenile stage 7, reflecting the typical 1:1 sex ratio of sexually

reproducing crayfish [39]. In contrast, in the four marbled crayfish x *P. fallax* batches the 6,

12, 61 and 93 analysed stage 7 offspring were all females indicating reproduction by

parthenogenesis.

The progeny of our crossbreeding experiments were also investigated by microsatellite

analysis to further clarify parentage. Microsatellite analysis is an established approach to

assess parentage and geographic structuring in crayfish populations and to identify clonal

lineages, triploids and hybrids [40-43]. Of the five primer pairs tested, three revealed PCR

products that could be used for fragment length determination in marbled crayfish and *P.*

fallax, namely PclG-02, PclG-04 and PclG-26. PclG-02 and PclG-26 were polymorphic and

thus suitable for parentage testing. The microsatellite allele combinations in the analysed

family groups of marbled crayfish females 1-4 x *P. fallax* male 1 were identical between

mothers and offspring, namely 267 bp/ 271 bp/303 bp at locus PclG-02 and 189 bp/191 bp at

locus PclG-26, but differed from the allele combination of the male that was 255 bp/267 bp

and 185 bp/207 bp, respectively (table 2). All measurements were repeated at least twice, and

in the case of the unusual PclG-02 up to five times per specimen. Our data indicate that the

male did not contribute to the genome of the offspring and that the progeny is the product of

apomictic parthenogenesis. The microsatellite patterns were not only identical between

mother and offspring but also between the four batches (table 2) demonstrating clonality of all

marbled crayfish from our laboratory.

The *P. fallax* male 1 x *P. fallax* female 1 family was used as a positive control. Analysis

of locus PclG-26 revealed the allele combinations 185 bp/207 bp in the father, 179 bp/185 bp

in the mother and 179 bp/185 bp (2x), 179 bp/207 bp (4x), 185 bp/185 bp (4x) and 185

bp/207 bp (4x) in the 14 offspring. These data indicate Mendelian distribution and

demonstrate that both parents contributed equally to the genome of the offspring, as is

expected for sexually reproducing species.

3.2 Single origin and clonality of marbled crayfish populations

For a more detailed genetic analysis of marbled crayfish, we established complete

mitochondrial genome sequences of specimens from our Heidelberg and Petshop lineages and

from wild populations of Lake Moosweiher (Germany) and Madagascar by high-coverage

shotgun sequencing and sequence mapping. Remarkably, these mitochondrial genome

sequences were completely identical (figure 2), thus confirming the clonal nature of the tested

populations and their single origin. Comparison of our sequences with the mitochondrial

genome sequence of marbled crayfish published earlier by Shen *et al.* [44] revealed 6

scattered mismatches and major differences in one fragment ranging from position 4600 to

5500. These differences are probably related to technical issues because Shen and colleagues

used PCR-based methods and primer walking single/double strands sequencing [44] whereas

we used next-generation sequencing with a sequencing coverage per nucleotide of >100x.

We also established complete mitochondrial genome sequences for *P. fallax* and *P.*

alleni. Analysis of the mitochondrial *12S rRNA*, *16S rRNA* and *cytochrome oxidase subunit I*

genes have earlier indicated a close relationship between marbled crayfish and these species

[1,7,14]. *P. alleni* occurs sympatrically with *P. fallax* in many locations in Florida [45] and

was therefore regarded as a candidate that might have contributed to the origination of

marbled crayfish by hybridization with *P. fallax* [46]. Sequence comparison revealed 144

single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* but 1165

SNPs between marbled crayfish and *P. alleni* (figure 2). Interestingly, these SNPs were not

evenly distributed over the mitochondrial genome, which explains why in the study by Martin

et al. [14] small genetic differences between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* were detected in

the *cytochrome oxidase subunit I* gene but not in the *12S rRNA* gene. Our results confirm the

close genetic relationship between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* and a greater distance

towards *P. alleni*.

The single origin and clonality of marbled crayfish from the laboratory and the wild was

further confirmed by the analysis of microsatellite loci PclG-02, PclG-04 and PclG-26 in 24

specimens from our laboratory lineages (see parentage analysis), six specimens from a stable

wild population in Lake Moosweiher [47] and one specimen from Madagascar [7]. All these

marbled crayfish showed the same microsatellite patterns, namely the allele associations 267

bp/271 bp/303 bp at locus PclG-02, 159 bp at PclG-04 and 189 bp/191 bp at PclG-26. The

fragment lengths of the alleles of locus PclG-02 overlapped in marbled crayfish (267-303 bp)

and *P. fallax* (239-267 bp) but were longer in *P. alleni* (329-384 bp) and shorter in *P. clarkii*

(211-228 bp). Marbled crayfish shared two of six alleles with *P. fallax,* namely 267 bp at

locus PclG-02 and 159 bp at locus PclG-04, but none with the other species thus confirming

the particularly close relationship between *P. fallax* and marbled crayfish.

3.3 Ploidy status of marbled crayfish

Martin *et al.* [22] recently used karyological analysis to demonstrate that marbled crayfish has

a triploid genome. Our microsatellite analysis confirms this finding. Marbled crayfish

generally have the allele association 267 bp/271 bp/303 bp at locus PclG-02 (figure 3*a*),

whereas *P. fallax*, *P. alleni* and *P. clarkii* have one or two alleles at this locus, which is

consistent with diploid and sexually reproducing species. In an earlier paper, Martin *et al.*

[20] have also analysed locus PclG-02 and reported only two alleles of 267 bp and 271 bp.

However, a recent re-examination of their material confirmed the presence of the third 303 bp

allele (G. Scholtz, personal communication).

We further corroborated triploidy in marbled crayfish by flow cytometric measurement of

the DNA content of haemocytes in marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*. Haemocytes are

particularly suitable for this purpose because they are devoid of somatic polyploidization [48].

Our results showed a significant 1.4-fold higher DNA content in the blood cells of marbled

crayfish (figure 3*b*), which is consistent with triploidy.

3.4 Comparison of DNA methylation between marbled crayfish and *Procambarus fallax*

In order to test if the marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* clusters also differ with respect to

epigenetic markers we determined global DNA methylation by mass spectrometry in

identically raised and age and size-matched representatives of both crayfish. DNA

methylation represents a widely conserved epigenetic mark that is often associated with

polyphenism and adaptive phenotypic changes [49,50]. Comparison of three juveniles and

selected organs (hepatopancreas, abdominal musculature and ovary) of three adults revealed a

consistently and highly significantly reduced level of DNA methylation in marbled crayfish

when compared to *P. fallax* (figure 4). The ten *P. fallax* samples together had a DNA

methylation level of 2.93±0.15% (mean ± standard deviation) whereas the ten marbled

crayfish samples together had a level of only 2.40±0.08%. These results suggest that marbled

crayfish have a considerably different DNA methylation pattern.

3.5 Comparison of morphological characters between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*

Comparison of the most relevant taxonomic characters of cambarid females [35-37] between

marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* corroborated the high degree of morphological similarity

between the two crayfish as previously established by Kawai *et al.* [12] and Martin *et al.* [14].

The diagnostically most meaningful trait in females of the genus *Procambarus* is the annulus

ventralis, which is bell-shaped with a tilted S-shaped sinus in both marbled crayfish and *P.*

fallax (figure 5*a,b*). This typical form is not found in other *Procambarus* species [37] as best

exemplified by the differently shaped sperm receptacle of the closely related *P. alleni* (figure

5*c*). The areola, an unpaired structure on the dorsal midline of the carapace, is also very

similar in marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* with respect to shape and length-to-width proportion

(figure 5*d,e*). The same holds for the cheliped chelae, which closely resemble each other in

both crayfish in shape, dentation and setation (figure 5*f,g*), and the coloration pattern, which

consists of distinct marmorated spots and dark dorsolateral stripes on carapace and pleon

(figure 5*h,i*). Size, form and coloration of the marmoration spots are highly variable not only

in the sexually reproducing *P. fallax* but also in the genetically uniform marbled crayfish as a

result of stochastic developmental variation [21,51].

3.6 Comparison of life history traits between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*

In contrast to the morphological characters, life history features like growth and fecundity are

markedly different between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*. Figure 6 gives an example for

differences in the speed of growth between identically raised laboratory populations of the

same age. At day 250 after hatching, when the first females in both crayfish had reached

sexual maturity, mean body weight was almost twice as large in marbled crayfish as in *P.*

fallax females.

Maximum body and clutch sizes were also markedly higher in marbled crayfish. The

largest specimen in our laboratory had a carapace length of 4.9 cm, a total length of 10.3 cm

and a body weight of 30.1 g (figure 7*a*). In the wild, the largest of the 1084 marbled crayfish

measured [7,12,47, M. Pfeiffer and C. Chucholl, personal communication] was found in Lake

Moosweiher and had a CL of 4.9 cm and a weight of 32.0 g [47]. In contrast, the largest of the

4710 wild *P. fallax* examined [36,52-54] had a CL of only 3.4 cm, corresponding to a TL of

7.4 cm and a weight of approximately 11.5 g. The largest clutches of marbled crayfish in the

laboratory and the wild consisted of 731 eggs (figure 7*b*) and 724 eggs [47], respectively,

which is 5.6 fold higher than the largest clutch of 130 eggs reported for *P. fallax* in literature

[53]. The analysis of life history features of the slough crayfish by van der Heiden [54]

corroborated that *P. fallax* reaches only rarely a size of more than 6.5 cm TL.

The differences in growth and fecundity between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* were

also confirmed by the analysis of published data for egg-carrying females from comparable

climatic regions. Ovigerous marbled crayfish from Madagascar had a mean CL of 3.5 cm, a

mean TL of 7.4 cm and a mean clutch size of 300 eggs [7], whereas ovigerous *P. fallax* from

the Everglades National Park in Florida had a mean CL of 1.8 cm, a mean TL of 3.8 cm and a

mean clutch size of 41 eggs only [53], indicating that body size and fecundity is significantly

increased in marbled crayfish (figure 7*c,d*). These findings identify important phenotypic

differences between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* that have not been recognized previously.

4. Discussion

Our results demonstrate that marbled crayfish meets all criteria for asexual speciation [25-28].

It is separated from the mother species, *P. fallax*, by reproductive isolation, significant

genomic and epigenetic differences and superior life history traits. Our data further support a

single origin. In addition, all populations known to date live outside the natural range of *P.*

fallax, suggesting geographical isolation. They are unified in one cluster by common

phenotypic, genetic and epigenetic characteristics, despite their broad geographical

distribution. These commonalities and differences towards *P. fallax* make it very likely that

the marbled crayfish and slough crayfish clusters will evolve differently, which is the main

criterion for erecting an asexual species [26]. Martin *et al.* [14] have previously suggested that

marbled crayfish should be considered as an independent species when a single origin and/or

regional populations in the wild have been established. Our findings clarify the former issue

and provide additional evidence for cytogenetic, genetic and phenotypic differences between

marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*. As such, marbled crayfish should now be named *Procambarus*

virginalis, as suggested previously [14]. The formal description of marbled crayfish as a new

species will be detailed in a separate publication.

Marbled crayfish appeared first in 1995 in the German aquarium trade. Thereafter,

aquarists have propagated it in captivity, and since about 2003, releases have resulted in the

establishment of thriving wild populations in Central Europe and Madagascar [5,7-9,12,47].

The "mega-population" [46] in innumerable aquarium tanks on various continents and the

known wild populations are apparently all descendants of the single clone or single individual

that was introduced in Germany in 1995. Our results confirm this single origin by the identity

of the mitochondrial genomes and microsatellite patterns in samples of captive and wild

populations. One of the samples analysed in our study, the Heidelberg specimen, can be

directly traced back to the year 1995 and to the oldest marbled crayfish for which written

records exist (F. Steuerwald, personal communication).

It is unknown whether marbled crayfish emerged in the natural range of *P. fallax* or in

captivity. Scholtz [4], Faulkes [5] and Martin [46] summarized possible scenarios for the first

alternative including hybridization with coexisting *Procambarus* species and geographic

parthenogenesis. These authors and Chucholl [9] also stressed that in captivity there were

many more candidates for hybridization than the naturally coexisting six *Procambarus*

species [36,52] because crayfish were popular pets already in the 1990s. Faulkes [5]

emphasized that all surveys on *P. fallax* in Florida and Southern Georgia revealed males and

females arguing against the presence of pure marbled crayfish populations in the natural range

of *P. fallax*. Moreover, none of the articles on wild *P. fallax* [36,45,52-54] mentioned

specimens above 7.4 cm TL, which would again support the absence of primary populations

of marbled crayfish. In sympatric populations, small and medium-sized marbled crayfish and

P. fallax females would be indistinguishable by morphological criteria alone. However, by the

use of genetic markers marbled crayfish could now be identified. Particularly useful is the

highly specific tri-allelic microsatellite locus PclG-02, which could be assayed in large

samples with reasonable expenditure. However, time for the detection of primary populations

may be limited because marbled crayfish are already widespread in American aquaria [11]

and their release into the natural range of *P. fallax* would render the search for primary

populations of marbled crayfish impossible.

Our crossbreeding experiments with marbled crayfish, *P. fallax* and *P. alleni* revealed that

marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* still recognize each other as sexual partners but not marbled

crayfish and *P. alleni*. Recognition of sexual partners in crayfish is mainly based on chemical

signatures of the urine but may also include visual and tactile cues [38,39]. Marbled crayfish

and *P. fallax* copulate readily with each other. However, the progeny of such pairings are pure

marbled crayfish resulting from parthenogenesis. These findings demonstrate reproductive

isolation and suggest that the reproductive barrier is set at the cytogenetic rather than the

behavioural level. Mechanical barriers can be largely excluded because the sperm receptacles

are structurally very similar in marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* females and because we have

repeatedly observed insertion of the male gonopods into the annulus ventralis of marbled

crayfish. We attempted to directly prove sperm transfer by analysing moulted sperm

receptacles of females that had successfully produced offspring. However, we did not find

any sperm remnants neither in marbled crayfish nor *P. fallax* females.

The morphological features and microsatellite patterns strongly suggest that marbled

crayfish originated by autopolyploidization and not by hybridization with a closely related

species, which is by far the most frequent cause of triploidy in animals [55-58]. Typically,

hybrids between two crayfish species are clearly recognizable because of their intermediate

morphological characters [59,60]. However, marbled crayfish do not show such hybrid

features [12,14, this study]. Conversely, autopolyploids are usually morphologically similar to

their diploid progenitors [61]], and the morphological similarity between marbled crayfish

and *P. fallax* is therefore consistent with autopolyploidization. There is also no evidence for

hybridization on the genetic level and no strong bias towards heterozygosity in the

microsatellite pattern, which would be typical for hybrids [62,63]. Of the seven microsatellite

loci that were investigated in marbled crayfish so far, three were homozygous and four were

heterozygous [20,21, this study], thus largely excluding allopolyploidization for marbled

crayfish. Furthermore, Martin and colleagues have recently shown that the nuclear elongation

factor 2 (EF-2) gene is identical in marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* but differs from other

Procambarus species like *P. alleni, P. clarkii, P. acutus* and *P. liberorum* [22]. These

findings provide additional support for the origin of marbled crayfish by autopolyploidization.

We admit that the presence of three alleles, as observed in locus PclG-02 in marbled

crayfish, can be interpreted to reflect an origin by hybridization. However, such a pattern can

also occur in autopolyploids, namely when an unreduced diploid egg is fertilized by a sperm

from the same species, or alternatively, by simultaneous fertilization of a haploid egg by two

sperms with different alleles. In shrimp, fish and bivalve aquaculture, autopolyploid triploids

with tri-allelic loci are artificially produced by the prevention of polar body I extrusion in

fertilized eggs either by temperature shock or chemicals like 6-dimethylaminopurine [64,65].

Marbled crayfish may thus have arisen by a heat or cold shock in the sensitive phase of egg

development in a captive *P. fallax* female, possibly during transportation.

The origin of parthenogenesis in marbled crayfish is probably a by-product of

polyploidization but the causal relationship of polyploidy and parthenogenesis is not yet

understood [46]. Infectious parthenogenesis by the feminizing bacterium *Wolbachia*, which is

widespread in crustaceans [66], was excluded by the use of molecular probes for the parasite

[2]. In plants, it was shown that polyploidy per se can have an immediate impact on the

reproductive biology of a species [67]. In animals, however, obligate parthenogenesis is

relatively rare. It has been described in some asexual invertebrate families and a few

vertebrate hybrids [26,68-71] and is mostly associated with allopolyploidy. Autopolyploidy is

much less common and is usually not associated with parthenogenesis, perhaps with the

exception of some high arctic ostracods and polyploid populations of the brine shrimp

Artemia parthenogenetica [72,73]. Artificially induced autopolyploid shrimp and fish are

usually sterile [74], making the combination of autopolyploidy and parthenogenesis in

marbled crayfish rather unique.

Polyploids often have life history traits that are different from those of the parent species.

Growth, number of offspring and other quantitative traits can either be decreased or increased

when compared to the diploid ancestors [75-77]. In marbled crayfish, growth, maximum body

size and fecundity were significantly increased when compared to *P. fallax*, whereas the time

of sexual maturity was similar (7,36,47,54, this study). Longevity may also be increased in

marbled crayfish. Maximum age so far recorded is 1610 days in marbled crayfish [19] and

980 days in *P. fallax* (Z. Faulkes, personal communication). These superior fitness traits,

together with parthenogenetic reproduction, are probably causative for the remarkable success

of marbled crayfish as an invasive species in Central Europe and Madagascar [7-9,47].

Chucholl [9] calculated an almost double FI-ISK (Freshwater Invertebrate Invasiveness

Scoring Kit) score for marbled crayfish when compared to *P. fallax*, making it a high risk

species for Central Europe. Moreover, Feria and Faulkes [78] predicted with climate and

habitat based Species Distribution Models that marbled crayfish could inhabit a larger

geographical area than its mother species *P. fallax* when released in the southern states of the

USA, thus illustrating the ecological superiority of marbled crayfish.

In allopolyploids, the increase of life history traits is usually explained as the result of

heterozygosity, which is well known as heterosis effect or hybrid vigor [79,80]. However, this

explanation is not applicable for autopolyploids because autopolyploidization enhances only

the copy number of already existing genes. However, novel traits do not necessarily require

new genes or new developmental pathways to come into being but can instead arise from

recruitment of already existing developmental processes into new contexts [81,82]. Thus, trait

alteration in marbled crayfish may have been caused by altered gene dosage, the

rearrangement of gene-networks and the modulation of gene expression by changes in

epigenetic regulation.

Changes in epigenetic regulation can be deduced from the significantly reduced level of

global DNA methylation in marbled crayfish when compared to *P. fallax*. DNA methylation

is an epigenetic mechanism that considerably affects plant and animal phenotypes [49,50,83].

It is responsive to environmental and genomic stresses including polyploidization [50] and

might thus contribute to speciation in polyploids. In plants, the increase or reduction of global

DNA methylation after autopolyploidization is well known [61,84]. It is also well established

that DNA methylation and other epigenetic mechanisms contribute to the establishment of

reproductive barriers [85,86] and the expression of hybrid vigor in allopolyploid plants [87].

In marbled crayfish, epigenetic mechanisms may thus have been involved in the acquisition of

novel fitness traits.

Chen *et al.* [88] reported that polyploidization is often accompanied or followed by intense

rearrangements in the genome, which stabilize the new lineage. These rearrangements, which

are associated with epigenetic changes, can include loss of DNA. For example, in synthetic

autopolyploids of annual phlox, *Phlox drummondii*, an immediate loss of 17% of total DNA

has been observed with a further reduction of up to 25% upon the third generation [89]. Such

mechanisms may also have operated during transition from *P. fallax* to marbled crayfish and

might explain why triploid marbled crayfish have only a 1.4-fold rather than a 1.5-fold

increased DNA content when compared with its diploid mother species.

Speciation by autopolyploidization is a special case of chromosomal speciation that is

well-known in plants [61] but virtually unknown in animals. Chromosomal speciation is a

complementary concept to the better known speciation by changes in allele frequency

distribution and can result in the almost instantaneous production of new species and

phenotypic novelty within one generation [90-92]. This "saltational speciation" or "saltational

evolution" [93-95] has largely been ignored by gradualism-based Modern Synthesis, which

may be due to its rarity in animals, the lack of mechanistic understanding and the dearth of

suitable models. Marbled crayfish represents a contemporary animal example of

autopolyploid speciation, which likely started about 20-30 generations ago. Comparative

genome and epigenome sequencing approaches will be required to fully understand the

genetic and epigenetic differences between both species.

5. Conclusion

Marbled crayfish can be regarded as a new species that originated from *P. fallax* by

triploidization and concomitant epigenetic alterations, as shown by our combined

morphological, behavioural, genetic and epigenetic analysis. Marbled crayfish is

morphologically very similar to its mother species but has superior fitness traits. Genetic data

suggest an instantaneous speciation by autopolyploidization and parallel change of the mode

of reproduction from gonochorism to parthenogenesis. The young evolutionary age of

marbled crayfish, which is possibly three decades or less, may offer the possibility to identify

key events for this type of speciation. The combination of autopolyploidy and obligate

parthenogenesis is common in plants but very rare in animals. Thus, the *P. fallax*-marbled

crayfish pair provides an interesting new model system to study asexual speciation and

saltational evolution in animals and to determine how much genetic and epigenetic change is

necessary to create a new species.

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Authors' contributions. G.V. conceived of the study, participated in the design of the study,

sampled the tissues, performed the cross-breeding experiments and analysed the

morphological and life history data; C.F. carried out the assembly and analysis of

mitochondrial genome sequences and the determination of DNA contents by flow cytometry;

K.H. maintained laboratory crayfish cultures and prepared DNA samples; A.S., J.P. and R.S.

performed the analysis of the microsatellite markers; K.S and M.H. carried out the mass

spectrometric measurement of DNA methylation; F.L. participated in the design of the study

and coordinated the study. G.V. and F.L. wrote the manuscript. All authors revised the

manuscript and gave final approval for publication.

Data accessibility: The mitochondrial DNA sequences have been deposited in GenBank

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Ethics statement: All crayfish experiments were performed by approval of the institutional

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Table 1. Crossbreeding experiments between marbled crayfish, *P. fallax* and *P. alleni*.

Males	Marbled crayfish females														*P. fallax* females				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5
P. fallax 1	x	x	x	x	xx		x	xo	o	x		x		o	x	x			x
P. fallax 2					o		x		o	x	o	x					o	x	
P. fallax 3								x					x			x			x
P. alleni 1					o		o	oo											o
P. alleni 2							oo	oo											o

x: mating; o: no mating; two letters: results of two trials.

Table 2. Parentage analysis in crossbreeds of marbled crayfish *x P. fallax*.

Specimens	Microsatellite loci	
	PclG-02	PclG-26
P. fallax father 1	255/267	185/207
Marbled crayfish mothers 1-4	267/271/303	189/191
Offspring of mother 1 (n=6)	267/271/303	189/191
Offspring of mother 2 (n=5)	267/271/303	189/191
Offspring of mother 3 (n=6)	267/271/303	189/191
Offspring of mother 4 (n=3)	267/271/303	189/191

Values indicate fragment lengths in base pairs.

832 **Figures and figure legends**

835 **Figure 1.** Mating of marbled crayfish female with *P. fallax* male. The male (top) holds the

836 female firmly with the chelipeds and ischial hooks and his gonopods are plugged into the

837 female's spermatheca.

Figure 2. Comparison of complete mitochondrial genomes of marbled crayfish, *P. fallax* and

P. alleni. The sequences of marbled crayfish from two laboratory populations (Heidelberg,

Petshop) and two wild populations (Moosweiher, Madagascar) are completely identical. In

contrast, the sequences of *P. fallax* and *P. alleni* differ in 144 and 1165 SNPs (vertical lines)

from marbled crayfish, respectively. Purple bars indicate positions of *12S rRNA* and *cyto-*

chrome oxidase subunit I (COI) genes that were earlier used for phylogenetic analysis [14].

Figure 3. Ploidy status of the marbled crayfish genome. *(a)* Microsatellite locus PclG-02 in

marbled crayfish showing a combination of three alleles of 267 bp, 271 bp and 303 bp

fragment length. *(b)* Flow cytometry of haemocytes of *P. fallax* (Pf) and marbled crayfish

(mc) revealing an approximately 1.4 fold increased DNA content in marbled crayfish. The

right panel shows the means and standard deviations of two biological and three technical

replicates. Differences are highly significant ($p=1.33 \times 10^{-7}$, Welsh two-sided t-test).

Figure 4. Differences in global DNA methylation between marbled crayfish (red) and *P.*

fallax (blue). Analysed were three complete juveniles and major organs of three adult females

in each crayfish. Note consistently and significantly greater methylation levels in *P. fallax*

(p=1.48x10^{-7} for the sum of all samples, Welsh two-sided t-test). Error bars: standard

deviations.

Figure 5. Comparison of morphological characters between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*.

(a) Annulus ventralis from exuvia of marbled crayfish. *(b)* Annulus ventralis of *P. fallax. (c)*

Annulus ventralis of *P. alleni*. Note striking structural difference to sperm receptacles of

marbled crayfish and *P. fallax. (d)* Areola of marbled crayfish. *(e)* Areola of *P. fallax. (f)* Left

cheliped of marbled crayfish of 8.4 cm TL. *(g)* Left cheliped of *P. fallax* female of 4.7 cm TL.

Form, dentation and setation of the chelae are very similar in both species. *(h)* Coloration of

cephalothorax in marbled crayfish. *(i)* Coloration of cephalothorax in *P. fallax* male (photo:

C. Lukhaup).

878 **Figure 6.** Comparison of growth between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*. The three groups

879 were reared for 250 days at 20°C under identical conditions and fed with the same food *ad*

880 *libitum*. The differences between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* females are highly significant

881 (asterisks; p=2.06x10^{-5}; Welsh two-sided t-test). Error bars: standard deviations.

Figure 7. Comparison of body size and fecundity between marbled crayfish and *P. fallax*. *(a)*
Largest marbled crayfish from our laboratory having a total length of 10.3 cm. *(b)* Clutch of
same specimen consisting of 731 eggs. (*c*) Differences in carapace length between
populations of ovigerous marbled crayfish (mc) and *P. fallax* females (PF) from comparable
climatic regions. Data for marbled crayfish (n=57) was obtained in Madagascar [7] and data
for *P. fallax* (n=27) was obtained in Florida [53]. Horizontal bars indicate ranges and vertical
lines indicate mean values (m) and lower and upper range limits. The difference between
marbled crayfish and *P. fallax* females is highly significant as indicated by the p-value. (*d*)
Differences in clutch size between the same populations as in (*c*). The difference is highly
significant as indicated by the p-value. For statistical calculations, the standard deviation was
taken as half the range, and a Bonferroni adjustment for multiplicity was applied.