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A preliminary molecular phylogeny of shield-bearer moths (Lepidoptera: Adeloidea: Heliozelidae) highlights rich undescribed diversity

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ABSTRACT

Heliozelidae are a widespread, evolutionarily early diverging family of small, day-flying monotrysian moths, for which a comprehensive phylogeny is lacking. We generated the first molecular phylogeny of the family using DNA sequences of two mitochondrial genes (COI and COII) and two nuclear genes (H3 and 28S) from 130 Heliozelidae specimens, including eight of the twelve known genera: Antispila, Antispilina, Coptodisca, Heliozela, Holocacista, Hoplophanes, Pseliastis, and Tyriozela. Our results provide strong support for five major Heliozelidae clades: (i) a large widespread clade containing the leaf-mining genera Antispilina, Coptodisca and Holocacista and some species of Antispila, (ii) a clade containing most of the described Antispila, (iii) a clade containing the leafmining genus Heliozela and the monotypic genus Tyriozela, (iv) an Australian clade containing Pseliastis and (v) an Australian clade containing Hoplophanes. Each clade includes several new species and potentially new genera. Collectively, our data uncover a rich and undescribed diversity that appears to be especially prevalent in Australia. Our work highlights the need for a major taxonomic revision of the family and for generating a robust molecular phylogeny using multi-gene approaches in order to resolve the relationships among clades.

1. Introduction

Heliozelidae are an evolutionarily early diverging family of small, day-flying monotrysian moths, found on all continents except Antarctica. Worldwide, there are twelve Heliozelidae genera comprising 125 described species ([van Nieukerken et al., 2011, 2012; van](#page-14-0) [Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015\)](#page-14-0). The four most speciose genera, Antispila, Coptodisca, Heliozela, and Hoplophanes, contain over 90% of the described species, with the highest described species diversity found in North America and Australia ([van Nieukerken et al., 2012\)](#page-14-1).

Most described Heliozelidae larvae are leaf miners of trees and vines, while a few species are known to mine petioles, midribs, twigs or initiate galls [\(Davis, 1998](#page-13-0)). Additionally, flower and seed mining appears to be prevalent in many Australian species (our unpublished observations). Leaf-mining heliozelids cut distinctive shield-shaped cases from the leaf surface, which they carry to the ground to pupate, leaving behind a characteristic pattern of scattered holes – hence the term "shield-bearers" used to describe the family. Some Heliozelidae species are well known pests of important commercial crops, notably vines, cranberry and walnut [\(Maier, 1988; van Nieukerken et al, 2012;](#page-14-2) [van Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015; Bernardo et al., 2015\)](#page-14-2). However, the current lack of comprehensive taxonomic, molecular and ecological data has hindered adequate species identification, as shown by the discovery of an invasive heliozelid species from North America on Italian walnut trees [\(Bernardo et al., 2012](#page-13-1)). Overall, fewer than twenty species have been described in the last 50 years, mainly from Japan and the Americas ([Opler, 1971; Lafontaine, 1974; Kuroko, 1982; Karsholt](#page-14-3) [and Kristensen, 2003; Lee et al., 2006a, 2006b; van Nieukerken et al.,](#page-14-3) [2012; Lee and Hirowatari, 2013; van Nieukerken and Geertsema,](#page-14-3) [2015\)](#page-14-3).

Heliozelidae, together with Adelidae, Incurvariidae, Cecidosidae, and Prodoxidae, comprise the primitive superfamily Adeloidea ([van](#page-14-0) [Nieukerken et al., 2011; Regier et al., 2015](#page-14-0)). Heliozelidae are estimated to have diverged from their putative sister family Adelidae ("fairy" or

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Fig. 1. (a) Adult habitus of Antispila hydrangaeella, female (Photo: E.J. van Nieukerken); (b) Head close up of undescribed heliozelid species showing flattened scales (SEM: Q. Wang); (c) Fully grown Heliozela resplendella larva with shield, mine in Alnus incana (Photo: R. Bryner); (d) Characteristic heliozelid leaf mines, produced by Holocacista capensis (Photo: E.J. van Nieukerken).

"longhorn" moths) approximately 80 million years ago ([Wahlberg](#page-14-4) [et al., 2013\)](#page-14-4). A number of taxonomic and multi-gene molecular studies of Lepidoptera have proposed the Heliozelidae family as monophyletic ([Nielsen, 1980; Friedlander et al., 2000; Wahlberg et al., 2013; Regier](#page-14-5) [et al., 2015;](#page-14-5) [Fig. 2](#page-8-0), nt123 analyses). Synapomorphies for Heliozelidae include dorsally curved anterior tentorial arms, the lack of a hindwing M-Cua crossvein and minute mandibles ([Nielsen and Davis, 1985](#page-14-6)). More generally, Heliozelidae can be distinguished from the other Adeloidea by their shiny, overlapping, lamellar head scales ([Fig. 1\)](#page-1-0), a characteristic found in all genera except Plesiozela, the putative sister group to all other Heliozelidae ([Karsholt and Kristensen, 2003\)](#page-13-2).

Molecular phylogenies of Heliozelidae have been constructed from COI sequences ([van Nieukerken et al., 2012; Bernardo et al., 2015; van](#page-14-1) [Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015](#page-14-1)). However, these analyses were mostly limited to northern hemisphere species and comparable phylogenies for southern hemisphere species are lacking. Thus, a substantial gap remains in our knowledge of the family. In order to fill this gap, over the last decade we have systematically collected Heliozelidae specimens from areas known or predicted to harbour high heliozelid diversity ([Common, 1990; Heppner, 1991\)](#page-13-3), focusing on the Palaearctic and Nearctic regions and southern Australia. Here, we use sequence data obtained for two mitochondrial (COI and COII) and two nuclear genes (H3 and 28S) from representatives of eight of the twelve described Heliozelidae genera to generate a preliminary molecular phylogeny of the Heliozelidae. We have included representatives from the most diverse groups, the widespread genera Antispila and Heliozela, the Nearctic genus Coptodisca, and the Australian endemic genus Hoplophanes. We also included representatives of another Australian endemic genus, Pseliastis, the widespread genus Holocacista, and two monotypic genera, Antispilina and Tyriozela. Based on our phylogeny, we propose five major monophyletic clades within Heliozelidae and discuss the monophyly of the genera they contain.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Ingroup selection

A total of 130 specimens belonging to eight Heliozelidae genera were selected for sequencing. These specimens represented a total of 79 species within the currently described genera: 20 described and eight putative species of Antispila, one described and one putative species of Antispilina, seven described and four putative species of Coptodisca, four described and 11 putative species of Heliozela, three described and nine putative species of Holocacista, one described and four putative species of Hoplophanes, two described and three putative species of Pseliastis, and one described species of Tyriozela. We included an additional 15 putative species, some of which may be placed in potentially new genera. Full names and authorities for all sampled taxa are given on [Table 1](#page-2-0). Identifiers for putative species were formed by a combination of the genus name and an "epithet" formed by hostplant genus (or unknown), with country or region of origin. New or unknown genera are indicated as "heliozelidgenus". We were unable to obtain suitable material from four other heliozelid genera: Plesiozela from the Patagonian region and putative sister-group to all other Heliozelidae [\(Karsholt](#page-13-2) [and Kristensen, 2003](#page-13-2)), and the small genera Ischnocanaba from Solomon Islands, Phanerozela from Brazil and Microplitica from India and Indonesia. Similarly, we lacked specimens of Lamprozela from Guyana, which was originally allocated to Heliozelidae, but removed by [Nielsen](#page-14-5) [\(1980\)](#page-14-5) as possible Heliodinidae based on taxonomic re-examination. For DNA extraction material, we used larvae from collected leaf mines and adult specimens either from existing museum collections, collected from the field using sweep nets or reared from late instars. Detailed methods for collecting and rearing heliozelids have been published elsewhere ([van Nieukerken et al., 2012, Bernardo et al., 2015; van](#page-14-1) [Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015\)](#page-14-1). All specimen data with their COI sequences are provided in the BOLD dataset DS-HELIPHYL ([https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.5883/DS-HELIPHYL)

Table 1

Species names with authority, voucher codes (specimen ID), country of origin, biogeographic region, host family, sex (where known), life stage and collecting method for adult specimens used in this study.

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

^a Introduced from North America.

^b For outgroups, we have included the biogeographical regions hosting the most diversity for each family according to [Heppner \(1991\)](#page-13-7).

[org/10.5883/DS-HELIPHYL\)](https://doi.org/10.5883/DS-HELIPHYL).

2.2. Outgroup selection

Both cladistic [\(Mutanen et al., 2010\)](#page-14-7) and molecular studies ([Regier](#page-14-8) [et al., 2015\)](#page-14-8) place the Heliozelidae within the superfamily Adeloidea. Based on these conclusions, we have sourced sequences from three of the four sister families in the Adeloidea, namely Adelidae, Prodoxidae, and Incurvariidae, as well as sequences from another family, Nepticulidae, as outgroup taxa. We sequenced two individuals from the genus Perthida (Incurvariidae), and a specimen of Nematopogon adansoniella (Adelidae), using the methods described in [Section 2.3](#page-4-1). For additional outgroup sequences, we searched the published transcriptomes of Tegeticula yuccasella (Prodoxidae, NCBI SRR3180626) and Nemophora degeerella (Adelidae, NCBI SRR921621). We also included the COI, 28S, and COII sequences of putative species Ectoedemia AcerTaiwan voucher RMNH.INS.29364 (Nepticulidae) ([Doorenweerd et al., 2016](#page-13-4)), publically available in NCBI as Ectoedemia olvina, details available in [Table 1](#page-2-0).

2.3. DNA library preparations

For the Australian specimens, total genomic DNA was extracted non-destructively from the abdomens using a Macherey-Nagel NucleoSpin® Tissue XS kit following the manufacturer's protocol, using 40 μl of nuclease-free water as the elution buffer. Molecular profiles and concentrations of DNA were quantified on an Agilent 2200 Tapestation™. For other specimens, total genomic DNA was extracted non-destructively from adult abdomens or larvae frozen in ethanol > 95%, or occasionally from larvae that had been dried inside their leaf mines, using a Macherey-Nagel NucleoMag 96® Tissue magnetic bead kit on a Thermo Fisher KingFisher flex system. Primers used in previous studies of Lepidoptera (see [Table 2](#page-4-2)) were used to PCR amplify

fragments of four genes (COI, COII, 28S and H3), which were then sequenced using the Sanger method or using next-generation sequencing (NGS) protocols. For samples that yielded high quality DNA, we used PCR primers to amplify target genes and prepared NGS libraries from amplified products as per the Illumina TruSeq Nano protocol. For samples that yielded poor quality DNA, we used an RNA bait and capture method, based on a published protocol [\(Carpenter et al., 2013](#page-13-5)). The RNA baits were created from PCR products using "founder" moths from which high quality DNA could be extracted. Specimens from different genera across four families (Heliozelidae, Micropterigidae, Aenigmatineidae and Oecophoridae) were selected to derive the bait pool and maximise the chances of finding sequence homology. Fragments captured by baits were made into NGS libraries using the Illumina TruSeq Nano protocol. A full description of the RNA bait and capture protocol can be found in Appendix A.

2.4. Next generation sequencing and assembly

NGS libraries were sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq 300 cycle kit as paired end reads according to manufacturer's instructions. Paired FASTQ files were trimmed and quality filtered (minimum of Q20 and length 35). Filtered reads were corrected using Musket 1.1 [\(Liu et al.,](#page-14-9) [2013\)](#page-14-9), a multi-stage k-mer based corrector that corrects substitution errors based on consensus of reads. The corrected reads for each sample were assembled de novo using Velvet 1.2.08 ([Zerbino and Birney, 2008\)](#page-14-10) with a range of k-mers between 79 and 33, and Spades v3.0.0 ([Bankevich et al., 2012](#page-13-6)) using built-in k-mer values of 77, 55, 33 and 21. All resulting contigs of at least 300 base pairs were searched against a BLAST database of heliozelid reference genes with a minimum e-value of 10⁻⁹. Reads were mapped against the top three matching contigs for each sample and gene. The contig coverage was checked visually using IGV v2.3.32 [\(Thorvaldsdóttir et al., 2013\)](#page-14-11) and regions with poor coverage and the primer binding sites were trimmed. The best matching

Table 3

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NCBI Genbank IDs for sequences used in analyses.

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Table 3 (continued)

^a Sequences available for download from Dryad.

contig with highest coverage for each gene was chosen as the final gene sequence. Genbank IDs are listed in [Table 3](#page-5-0).

2.5. Analysis of published transcriptome data

For additional outgroup sequences, we searched the published transcriptomes of Tegeticula yuccasella (Prodoxidae, NCBI SRR3180626) and Nemophora degeerella (Adeloidea, NCBI SRR921621). The FASTQ files were downloaded from NCBI and the transcriptomes assembled de novo using Trinity r20131110 ([Grabherr et al., 2011](#page-13-11)) using the default parameter values. The contig abundance was calculated using RSEM within Trinity. We used Geneious R11.02 (Biomatters Ltd.) to map the assembled contigs in each transcriptome to a set of reference sequences from other voucher specimens downloaded from NCBI. As reference sequences for the T. yuccasella transcriptome, we used COI: T. yuccasella KX232884.1, COII: T. synthethica AY327144.1:1583-2104, 28S: Adela reaumurella AY.230752.1, H3: Bombyx mori DQ443228.1. As reference sequences for the N. degeerella transcriptome, we used COI: N. degeerella KX061994.1, COII: Adela septentrionella EU884115.1:1563-2084, 28S: A. reaumurella AY.230752.1, H3: Bombyx mori DQ443228.1. The best matching contig with highest abundance for each gene was chosen as the final gene sequence. The selected sequences are available for download at Dryad ([https://doi.org/10.561/dryad.r51c7\)](https://doi.org/10.561/dryad.r51c7).

2.6. Phylogenetic analyses

Sequence alignments for individual genes were created using the MAFFT v7.3.09 ([Katoh and Standley, 2013](#page-14-15)) plugin within Geneious R11.02 (Biomatters Ltd.) using the default Auto option. The resulting alignments were concatenated using the Concatenate Sequences or Alignments function in Geneious R11.0.2 (Biomatters Ltd.). The resulting alignments are available for download at Dryad ([https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.561/dryad.r51c7) [org/10.561/dryad.r51c7\)](https://doi.org/10.561/dryad.r51c7). We analysed three data sets using maximum likelihood (ML): (a) all four genes, (b) mitochondrial genes (COI and COII) and (c) nuclear genes (28S and H3). We further analysed the fourgene data set using Bayesian methods. The data sets were partitioned by gene, and the protein coding genes further partitioned by codon position, with the first two positions estimated independently of the third. For all ML analyses we used the nucleotide substitution model $GTR + I + G$ for the RAxML [\(Stamatakis, 2014](#page-14-16)) MPI version, which we ran on the Melbourne Bioinformatics (University of Melbourne) cluster. We ran 100 ML searches and 1000 bootstraps for the mitochondrial and nuclear gene alignments, and 1000 ML searches and 1000 bootstraps for the combined four-gene alignments. For the Bayesian analysis of the four-gene alignment we used ExaBayes ([Kozlov et al., 2015](#page-14-17)) and ran a minimum of 1 million generations and two independent runs, with a 25% burn in proportion and the same partitioning as RAxML. The ExaBayes run stopped after 88,90,000 generations. To check for run convergence, we ran the ExaBayes sdsf tool to ensure that the average standard deviation of the split frequencies was $\lt 1\%$ (average deviation was 0.999937%).

2.7. Biogeography and host associations

Host association and biogeography information was mainly from our own observations, since we collected the majority of specimens. Most non-Australian specimens were collected as larvae, sometimes reared into the adult stage, so we have primary host information. Most Australian specimens were adults collected by sweeping the vegetation, and observed on particular plant species on which oviposition was often observed. In some cases we assumed host plants on circumstantial evidence. The method used to collect each specimen is indicated in [Table 1](#page-2-0). In addition, we used the literature for additional information on hostplant data and biogeography [\(Bernardo et al., 2015; Emmet,](#page-13-12) [1976; Kuroko, 1961; Kuroko, 1982, 1987; Lafontaine, 1973, 1974; Lee](#page-13-12) [and Hirowatari, 2013; Lee et al., 2006a, 2006b; Maier, 1988; Mutanen](#page-13-12) [et al., 2007; Nielsen, 1980; van Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015; van](#page-13-12) [Nieukerken et al., 2012, submitted for publication; Opler, 1971;](#page-13-12) [Robinson et al., 2008\)](#page-13-12).

3. Results

The alignments of 136 concatenated sequences of four genes resulted in a 2453 bp long matrix with 13.1% missing data. The mitochondrial gene sets (COI and COII) resulted in a 1269 bp matrix with 7.9% missing data. The nuclear gene sets (28S and H3) resulted in an 1184 bp matrix with 13.5% missing data, after excluding eight samples without any data. We examined all of the resulting ML phylogenies to assess the evolutionary history of each gene combination. In the nuclear gene phylogeny (Supplementary material, Fig. 1), four major clades were recovered with moderate to strong support (more details on clades below) but the placement of the outgroups could not be resolved. The groups within the cosmopolitan clade were recovered but poorly supported by the nuclear gene phylogeny, with the exception of Antispila group II. By contrast, the mitochondrial gene phylogeny (Supplementary material, Fig. 2), separated the Heliozelidae taxa from the outgroup taxa, and recovered the five major clades with moderate to strong support (80–100%), but could not recover three of the groups within the main cosmopolitan clade. By combining the sequences from all four genes we found significant improvement in the resolution of both the major clades and the groups within them, with Heliozelidae separated from the outgroups, and five major clades recovered with strong support. Thus, we chose to focus on the four-gene data set, which we analysed with both Bayesian and maximum likelihood (ML) methods, and our discussion below refers to the four-gene analyses unless specified. The ML topology labelled with significant support values for the major groups (ML bootstrap $>$ = 80%, Bayesian posterior probability $>$ = 0.8) is illustrated in [Fig. 3,](#page-9-0) and the groups recovered are described in detail below, listing the support received in brackets (ML bootstrap %/Bayesian posterior probability). The full results for the ML and Bayesian analyses are in the Supplementary material, [Figs. 3 and 4](#page-9-0) respectively.

Both the ML and Bayesian analyses retrieved five main groups with strong support. The largest cosmopolitan clade (100/1) contains all species of three of the described leaf-mining genera (Antispilina, Coptodisca, Holocacista) as well as two of the groups currently combined in Antispila (A. ampelopsifoliella group and A. group II), plus a number of unplaced taxa (heliozelidgenus, species "Tetracera1Kalimantan", "Tetracera2Kalimantan", "ConostegiaCostaRica" and "HibbertiaAusWA"). The species of Coptodisca examined in this study formed a monophyletic clade with strong support (100/1). Holocacista was split into multiple groups with weak support in the mitochondrial gene set (Supplementary material, Fig. 2). In the nuclear gene set, this group was recovered as a monophyletic clade with poor support (Supplementary material, Fig. 1). When all four genes were combined, Holocacista was recovered with weak support from the ML analysis (57) but strong support in the Bayesian analysis (1). The single named species of Antispilina (A. ludwigi) included in this study formed a clade with strong support (100/1) with an unnamed Antispilina from Vietnam. The sister group to the remaining species in the main cosmopolitan clade, Undescribed group I, comprised solely of undescribed taxa, received weak support in the ML analysis (64), but strong support in the Bayesian analysis (0.98). This group was not recovered as monophyletic in either the nuclear or mitochondrial gene analysis (Supplementary material, Figs. 1 and 2).

Our analyses consistently split Antispila into several groups: a large monophyletic group (Antispila group I) and two smaller groups (Antispila ampelopsifoliella group and Antispila group II), suggesting that the genus, as currently described, is not monophyletic. The largest group, Antispila group I, is strongly supported (100/1) and comprises the majority of described Antispila species, including the type species, Antispila stadtmuellerella (junior synonym of Antispila metallella), as well as A. ampelopsia, A. corniella, A. cornifoliella, A. cleyerella, A. distyliella, A. hikosana, A. isabella, A. nysaefolliella, A. petryi, A. purplella, A. tateshinensis, A. treitschkiella, A. uenoi (identification provisional), and seven undescribed species. This group was consistently placed as sister to Heliozela + Tyriozela group in both the Bayesian and ML analyses, although neither analysis provided strong support. The smaller Antispila groups were placed within the large cosmopolitan clade and were most closely associated with Coptodisca. Antispila group II was not strongly

Fig. 2. Previous hypotheses regarding Heliozelidae. (a) Cladogram of Heliozelidae (after [Nielsen 1980](#page-14-5)). Liozela, Chaetozela and Neospila are unpublished manuscript names for genera proposed by Nielsen. Diacopia is a synonym of Antispila that Nielsen regarded as separate genus. (b) Cladogram of Incurvarioidea (Adeloidea) including Heliozelidae (after [Nielsen and](#page-14-6) [Davis, 1985\)](#page-14-6). Crinopterigidae has been subsumed into Incurvariidae by [van Nieukerken et al. \(2011\)](#page-14-0). (c) Cladogram, 50% majority rule consensus tree from maximum parsimony analysis of COI sequences after [van Nieukerken et al. \(2012\)](#page-14-1). (d) Cladogram based on phylogeny of Lepidoptera showing the position of Heliozelidae in relation to other families in Adeloidea after [Wahlberg et al. \(2013\)](#page-14-4). (e) Cladogram based on phylogeny of non-dytrisian lineages after [Regier et al. \(2015\)](#page-14-8) showing the split of Nematopogon from the rest of Adelidae seen in some analyses. (f) Cladogram based on maximum likelihood (ML) tree for COI data after [Bernardo et al. \(2015\)](#page-13-12).

supported and included A. viticordifoliella along with one undescribed species. The single species A. argentifera was placed as sister to these two species in the ML phylogeny, but as sister to Coptodisca in the Bayesian phylogeny. The Antispila ampelopsifoliella group (100/1) was strongly supported and comprised A. ampelopsifoliella, A. hydrangaeella, A. oinophylla and A. voraginella.

A large group containing the two named Pseliastis species and several undescribed taxa was strongly supported (100/1). This group included the Australian endemic species P. spectropa and P. xanthodisca, as well as several other undescribed Australian species, some of which have been tentatively assigned to Pseliastis, while others may represent as yet unnamed genera.

The Heliozela + Tyriozela group is strongly supported $(100/1)$ and comprises all species of the genus Heliozela that were included in this study, namely H. castaneella, H. eucarpa, H. resplendella and H. sericiella, as well as 11 undescribed species. Tyriozela was nested within this clade, rendering Heliozela paraphyletic in its current form.

The Hoplophanes group, also strongly supported (99/1), represents another endemic Australian clade, of which we included one described (H. niphochalca) and four undescribed species. This clade was consistently placed as the sister group to the remaining Heliozelidae examined in this study.

4. Discussion

4.1. Support for described genera

Overall, our results strongly support the monophyly of five currently described genera (Coptodisca, Holocacista, Antispilina, Pseliastis and Hoplophanes). One of the largest genera, Antispila, is broken into three separate groups, rendering it polyphyletic. Heliozela was recovered as a

paraphyletic clade, but would become monophyletic with the inclusion of the monotypic genus Tyriozela. While the relationship between the major clades lacks resolution in our results, the general pattern is strikingly similar to the first Hennigian cladistic analysis of Heliozelidae performed by [Nielsen \(1980\)](#page-14-5), with the exception of the placement of Antispilina [\(Fig.](#page-8-0) 2a). We also recognise two of the clades that were apparent in a previous limited analysis of COI barcode data; namely Antispila sensu stricto and A. ampelopsifoliella group, as well as a Coptodisca group comprising two species ([van Nieukerken et al., 2012](#page-14-1)).

The monophyly of Coptodisca is well supported in our study, which is consistent with a previous phylogeny of COI sequences from several Coptodisca species. The study ([Bernardo et al., 2015](#page-13-12), [Fig. 2f](#page-8-0)) was aimed at establishing the source of C. lucifluella in Italian walnuts, and recovered a similar Coptodisca clade using sequences from C. arbutiella, C. juglandiella, C. lucifluella, C. negligens (here identified as Coptodisca "VacciniumUSA"), C. ostryaefoliella, C. quercicolella, C. saliciella and C. splendoriferella. Morphologically, Coptodisca differs from other Heliozelidae by its distinct forewing colour pattern, more closely resembling unrelated leafmining genera such as Leucoptera (Lyonetiidae), that includes leaf miners of crops such as coffee and apples, and Phyllocnistis (Gracillariidae), of which the now global citrus leafminer P. citrella is commonly known as pest of citrus and other Rutaceae. Thus, even though [Nielsen \(1980\)](#page-14-5) considered this characteristic forewing pattern as an apomorphy for Coptodisca, the pattern may have evolved independently in multiple unrelated families.

In all our analyses, the genus Antispila was consistently broken up into multiple groups. Antispila sensu stricto (Antispila group I) formed a strongly supported monophyletic clade. A study by [van Nieukerken](#page-14-1) [et al. \(2012\)](#page-14-1) recovered a similar clade of 'true' Antispila formed by A. metallella, A. nysaefoliella, A. petryi and A. treitschkiella [\(Fig. 2c](#page-8-0)). Morphologically, this group is defined by the extensive venation with the

Fig. 3. ML tree $(ln = -51259.825874)$ inferred from four genes. Branch lengths are proportional to ML estimated branch lengths. The numbers above the branches are MP bootstrap supports/Bayesian posterior probabilities calculated using gene-partitioned models. Only support values at or above 80% bootstrap and 0.8 posterior probabilities for the major clades are shown. Adult representatives of various Heliozelidae genera are shown next to corresponding group. Species names and photo credits: Antispila group I: A. treitschkiella, Switzerland (R. Bryner); Coptodisca group: C. splendoriferella, USA (C. Eiseman); Holocacista group: H. capensis, male, South Africa (E.J. van Nieukerken); Heliozela + Tyriozela group: Heliozela sp., Australia (D. Carman); Pseliastis group: Pseliastis sp., Australia (L. Milla); Hoplophanes group: Hoplophanes sp., Australia (D.A. Young).

species placed in Antispila. [Nielsen \(1980\)](#page-14-5) suggested the presence of an interapodemal process in the female as an apomorphy for Antispila,

although a reduced similar structure occurs in Antispilina as well. Within Antispila sensu stricto, male androconial structures on the forewings and hindwings are also frequently present [\(van Nieukerken](#page-14-1)

Fig. 4. ML cladogram inferred from four genes with biogeographical region of each Heliozelidae specimen indicated by the colour of rectangle at the branch tip. Clades recovered in highlight. Major host plant families are listed next to each clade.

[et al., 2012](#page-14-1)).

The species assigned to the Antispila ampelopsifoliella group in an earlier study ([van Nieukerken et al., 2012](#page-14-1), [Fig. 2c](#page-8-0)) fall into two strongly supported clades, one including A. viticordifoliella and A. "Vitis1USA",

and the other including the remaining named species in the A. ampelopsifoliella group. The species in the A. ampelopsifoliella clade differ from the first by the presence of an apical spot on the forewing. Additional morphological and molecular analyses of these clades are

necessary to see whether they form one or two new genera. The placement of the specimen identified as A. argentifera is inconsistent between the Bayesian and ML analyses. In the ML phylogeny it groups with A. viticordifoliella and A. "Vitis1USA", while in the Bayesian phylogeny it groups with Coptodisca, but neither placement is strongly supported. Specimens reared from Myrica and Comptonia (Myricaceae) have been identified as A. argentifera on the basis of their external features, in agreement with [Braun's \(1927\)](#page-13-13) description and photographs of the type (provided by C. Eiseman). However, the leaf-mines most closely resemble those of Coptodisca, of which one unnamed species also feeds on Myrica and Morella. A detailed morphological analysis of A. argentifera is needed to establish whether it will be placed in a new genus. We have previously suggested that Antispila has been used as a 'wastebasket' for heliozelids with similar wing markings ([van](#page-14-1) [Nieukerken et al., 2012; van Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015\)](#page-14-1), a conclusion supported by the results of our current study.

Holocacista is a widespread genus with seven described species ([van](#page-14-18) [Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015](#page-14-18)). In our present results, the main Holocacista group had good support, similar to a previous COI study that recovered a clade consisting of H. capensis, H. rivillei, H. varii and a number of putative new species [\(van Nieukerken and Geertsema,](#page-14-18) [2015\)](#page-14-18). The Holocacista clade was split into two groups, one including all of the described species and three putative species, and another containing six putative species. Detailed morphological analyses are required to determine whether these species belong to Holocacista or require the erection of another genus. Morphological characters for Holocacista include the typical, often curved, appendix of the phallic tube and the small epiphysis, which is absent in all related genera ([van](#page-14-18) [Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015](#page-14-18)).

The Antispilina group consisting of two species received strong support. Morphologically, the genus is challenging to define, as it differs from its sister group Holocacista mainly by a lack of apomorphies. A clade combining Holocacista and Antispilina has strong support in the Bayesian analysis (1), but much less so in the ML tree (58). Several undescribed species are known, which may belong to Antispilina, but could not be included in this study.

A clade comprising species of the Australian endemic genus Pseliastis, including P. spectropa, P. xanthodisca and other putative species, was strongly supported in our analyses. The species within the putative genera labelled heliozelidgenus1-7 are all superficially similar to Pseliastis, and have been placed within the Pseliastis group by every analysis. However, our observations from preliminary morphological examinations suggest that the Pseliastis group represents more than one genus. For example, the type species P. trizona (not included in this study), P. spectropa and other putative Pseliastis species share characteristics such as forewings with white fasciae; however, P. xanthodisca lacks these typical fasciae and groups most closely with undescribed species of possible new genera, labelled heliozelidgenus1, 2 and 7, although this grouping has very low support. Further detailed examination is required to in order to determine apomorphies that would support the erection of one or more new genera.

The strongly supported $Heliozela + Tyriozela$ group contains all described and putative Heliozela species, as well as the only known Tyriozela species, T. porphyrogona. Heliozela are mostly leaf miners, although the larvae of a few species mine the petiole or midrib of the leaf, or feed in a gall [\(Davis, 1998](#page-13-0)). [Nielsen \(1980\)](#page-14-5) placed Tyriozela as sister to Heliozela based on several synapomorphies, such as the spear-shaped ovipositor of the females, and suggested a strongly developed scent organ in the male abdomen as a possible autapomorphy for the group. Thus, taxonomic revision of this group will be necessary to determine whether it contains multiple genera or whether Heliozela and Tyriozela should be collapsed into one genus.

Hoplophanes is another genus endemic to Australia. Based on our analyses of five species, it is a strongly supported monophyletic group that appears to be sister to all other Heliozelidae. The Hoplophanes group contains one described (H. niphochalca) and four putative species

that share a number of characters. Morphologically, Hoplophanes are quite distinct; species of this genus have the largest wingspan of all Heliozelidae (up to 16 mm), and females are characterised by a long, pointed ovipositor. [Nielsen \(1980\)](#page-14-5) proposed the distinct ovipositor shape and large size as possible apomorphies for this group.

Holocacista, Antispilina, Coptodisca and some North American species of Antispila, form a large and strongly supported clade. This clade resembles Nielsen's Holocacista group, although he did not include any of these Antispila, which he likely never studied, nor Antispilina. Morphologically all species in this clade share reduced venation, with five to six terminal branches in the forewing, a strong apomorphy shown in our previous studies [\(Bernardo et al., 2015; van Nieukerken](#page-13-12) [and Geertsema, 2015; van Nieukerken et al., 2012](#page-13-12)). On the basis of this character, the genus Ischnocanaba also belongs here.

An additional result from our analyses was the inconsistent placement of the outgroup taxa Nematopogon adansoniella and Nemophora degeerella, both belonging to Adelidae, sister family to Heliozelidae, but to different subfamilies, respectively Nematopogoninae and Adelinae. These two taxa formed a clade in the mitochondrial gene phylogeny, but became separated in the nuclear and four-gene phylogenies. A study of non-dytrisian lineages by [Regier et al. \(2015\)](#page-14-8) found a similar conflict with Nematopogon and the rest of the Adelidae, which occurred when comparing non-synonymous (Degen1 dataset) versus all nucleotide changes (nt123 dataset). In their results, non-synonymous changes placed Nematopogon outside the Adelidae. They reported that this conflict was not due to compositional heterogeneity in the three-nucleotide dataset. Our results suggest a conflict in phylogenetic signal between mitochondrial and nuclear genes, and that a more in-depth analysis is required to fully resolve the relationship of Nematopogon to Adelidae: Adelinae and Heliozelidae.

4.2. Biogeography and host associations

Antispila is a widespread genus within the family, occurring in several biogeographical regions ([Fig. 4\)](#page-10-0). Antispila sensu stricto, here labelled Antispila group I, includes the West Palaearctic type species A. metallella along with various European, North American, Asian and one African species [\(van Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015\)](#page-14-18). By contrast, the species within Antispila group II and A. ampelopsifoliella group occur exclusively in North America and are most closely related to Coptodisca, which, apart from one recent introduction to Europe [\(Bernardo et al.,](#page-13-12) [2015\)](#page-13-12), is endemic to the Nearctic and Neotropical regions. These Nearctic "Antispila", plus Coptodisca, form a clade with modest support in our Bayesian analysis.

Several of the currently described cosmopolitan or Palaearctic genera exhibit greater diversity in the southern hemisphere and in Asia than previously known. This includes Heliozela, a widespread genus, occurring on most continents. Many of the recently discovered Heliozela species occur in the Oriental and Australian regions, for example, the putative species H. "SyzygiumVietnam" from Vietnam, H. "MelastomaKalimantan" from Borneo, and H. "KunzeaAusVIC" from Australia. Similarly, the monotypic genus Antispilina, represented by A. ludwigi, currently only known to occur in central Europe, appears to be more widespread in eastern and South-East Asia. One undescribed species included in our analysis, A. "PersicariaVietnam", is found in Vietnam, and another unnamed one in Japan, indicating that the distribution of this genus is broader than currently appreciated. While the type species of Holocacista, H. rivillei, and a few others occur in Europe and Central Asia, much of the recently discovered diversity is in South Africa, South-East Asia and Australia ([van Nieukerken and Geertsema,](#page-14-18) [2015\)](#page-14-18).

Two of the currently known heliozelid genera, Pseliastis and Hoplophanes, occur only in Australia. Pseliastis, with just three described species, was thought to be endemic to the state of Tasmania ([Common,](#page-13-3) [1990\)](#page-13-3). However, based on our field collections over the last few years, Pseliastis species are widespread and diverse in the southern half of Australia, extending from the alpine regions of Tasmania and Victoria to sub-tropical Queensland and the dry inland of Western Australia. Hoplophanes is also far more diverse than currently described, with many of the recently discovered species occurring in the floristically diverse south-western region of Western Australia.

Heliozelidae feed on a wide variety of plant families. Antispila sensu stricto feed mainly on Cornaceae and Vitaceae, but also Hydrangeaceae, Pentaphylacaceae and Hamamelidaceae. The species assigned to the Antispila ampelopsifoliella group feed on Vitaceae, with the exception of A. hydrangaeella, which produces mines on Hydrangea arborea (Hydrangeaceae). [Braun \(1927\)](#page-13-13) suggested that A. argentifera was responsible for long linear mines on Betula. We think, however, that these mines belong to the incurvariid Phylloporia bistrigella and that A. argentifera is responsible for the mines in several Myricaceae. The major host families of Heliozela species are Myrtaceae, Fagaceae and Betulaceae, but also include Melastomataceae and Vitaceae ([van Nieukerken](#page-14-1) [et al., 2012](#page-14-1), and our unpublished data). The host plant and feeding mode of Tyriozela remain unknown. However, in our study, Tyriozela consistently grouped with the Palaearctic Fagaceae feeders, which form a well-supported clade in our analysis, while other clades within Heliozela were not well resolved. Holocacista species are all leaf miners, feeding mainly on Vitaceae and Rubiaceae, but host records also include Anacardiaceae, Balsaminaceae, Geraniaceae and Plumbaginaceae. The Rubiaceae feeders form a relatively well-supported clade in Holocacista, which is sister to the species pair Holocacista "Rhoicissus. tridentataSthAfrica" and Holocacista "DyerophytumUAE". The undescribed group I, which forms a weakly supported clade within the main cosmopolitan clade, includes four unnamed species from Borneo, Costa Rica and Western Australia and was previously considered to belong to Holocacista ([van Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015\)](#page-14-18). However, our current results suggest that this placement needs to be reconsidered. This clade contains multiple species that occur in the southern part of Australia; most, if not all, of which are associated with Dilleniaceae (our unpublished data). The species from Borneo also feed on a Dilleniaceae, whereas the single Costa Rican species feed on Melastomataceae. These species appear not to belong to any known genera, further highlighting the need for additional studies.

Notably, more geographically restricted genera appear to feed on only one or two plant families. For example, all three species in Antispilina feed on herbaceous Polygonaceae. Similarly, our observations suggest that Hoplophanes species are restricted to southern Australia, and are predominantly associated with plants in the Ericaceae family. Several species were found to have larvae feeding in galls in the growing tips of Ericaceae. Likewise, all of the examined Pseliastis species (including P. xanthodisca) and most species grouped in the same clade appear to be associated with host plants in the family Rutaceae. The exceptions are a few species found on Dodonaea (Sapindaceae) and Spyridium (Rhamnaceae). However, Coptodisca, which is restricted to Nearctic and Neotropic regions, feeds on a wide range of Eudicot hostplant families, including Rosaceae, Betulaceae, Fagaceae, Salicaceae, Juglandaceae, Rhamnaceae, Combretaceae, Rhizophoraceae and Ericaceae. Interestingly, C. lucifluella has shifted hosts from Carya to Juglans (both Juglandaceae) since its introduction to Italy ([Bernardo et al., 2015\)](#page-13-12), providing a recent example of Heliozelidae expanding their host range.

Overall, it is remarkable that several host families have been colonized several times by Heliozelidae. Notably, Vitaceae serve as hostplants for at least one species of Heliozela (not sampled here, [van](#page-14-1) [Nieukerken et al, 2012](#page-14-1)), and several species in Antispila group I, Holocacista, Antispila ampelopsifoliella group and Antispila group II. At least two heliozelid genera have species feeding on Fagaceae, Rhamnaceae, Hydrangeaceae, Myricaceae, Ericaceae and Balsaminaceae. This pattern suggests that these plant families share properties that make them suitable to be colonized by Heliozelidae. Although our results do not support their conclusion, [van Nieukerken et al. \(2012\)](#page-14-1) suggested that Vitaceae could be the ancestral hostplants of Heliozelidae. However, it is important to note that several Heliozelidae are potential pests for grapevines, and that local Vitaceae feeding species may colonize commercial grapevines ([van Nieukerken and Geertsema, 2015](#page-14-18)). The patterns we have observed in Heliozelidae resemble those in the larger family of leafminers Nepticulidae [\(Doorenweerd et al., 2016](#page-13-4)), with the notable exception of Vitaceae being completely absent from the host record of Nepticulidae. Like in Nepticulidae, the phylogeny of Heliozelidae in no way mirrors that of angiosperms.

5. Conclusions

Although our study consistently recovered five major Heliozelidae clades, the relationships between these groups lacked statistical support and remain unresolved. This is partly due to the number and nature of the genes used. Two mitochondrial and two nuclear genes provide a good first estimate of the phylogenetic relationships within Heliozelidae but are insufficient to resolve relationships between clades that diverged as early as the Late Cretaceous, based on estimates by [Wahlberg et al. \(2013\)](#page-14-4). Increasing the number of nuclear genes is likely to provide more phylogenetic information to resolve these older nodes. A previous study based on 19 genes was found to be insufficient to determine the relationships outside the family level ([Regier et al.,](#page-14-8) [2015\)](#page-14-8), therefore, to resolve Heliozelidae phylogeny and to confidently place the family, a broader gene sampling method is recommended. Advanced phylogenomic methods such as transcriptome sequencing ([Bazinet et al., 2017](#page-13-14)) or anchored hybrid enrichment [\(Breinholt et al.,](#page-13-15) [2017\)](#page-13-15) could well be suitable for resolving this issue.

Based on the results of our study, the majority of the undescribed diversity both at the genus and species level appears to occur in the southern hemisphere, which may suggest a southern origin of the family. Four of the genera (Holocacista, Heliozela, Pseliastis and Hoplophanes) have been recorded in Australia, with the two described genera (Hoplophanes and Pseliastis) showing high species diversity in the southern part of the continent. Holocacista is another genus with undescribed high diversity predominantly in South Africa and South-east Asia. Three of the genera not included in this study (Plesiozela, Phanerozela and Ischnocabana) are recorded only from the southern hemisphere, while a fourth genus (Microplitica) occurs in both India and Indonesia. The placement of Plesiozela, the putative sister group to all other Heliozelidae and endemic to South America, would provide important evidence towards establishing the origin of Heliozelidae.

Our study presents the first phylogenetic framework of the Heliozelidae at the global level. It provides strong evidence for major evolutionary clades, creating a preliminary framework and a starting point to fully resolving the relationships within the family. Our study also highlights unexpected heliozelid diversity, in particular in the southern hemisphere, and the need for a broad taxonomic revision of the family.

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Appendix A. RNA bait and capture protocol

A.1. RNA bait creation

The PCR products obtained for the COI, COII, H3, and 28S from 12 "founder" specimens were sheared on a Covaris S220 instrument at 200 cycles, peak power 140, duty 10 for 900 sec, generating fragments in the 100–200 base pair range. T7 oligo adapter libraries were constructed using these fragments as a template and followed the same procedure described in Carpenter et al. (2013). Except where indexed adapters are described, these were replaced with the following T7 adapters: 5′-GAT CTTAGGCTAGAGTACTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGT-3′ and 5′-CTAGAA TCCGATCTCATGATTATGCTGAGTGATATCCC-3′.

RNA baits from these PCR libraries were generated via an in vitro transcription (IVT) reaction. The IVT was set up as follows: 500 ng of input T7 adapter library was used in 50 μ l reaction consisting of 5 \times NASBA buffer (185 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5, 93 mM $MgCl₂$, 185 mM KCl, 46% DMSO), 5 mM DTT, BSA (100ug/ml), 2.5 mM NTP mix (10 mM CTP/GTP/ATP, 6.5 mM UTP, 3.5 mM biotin-16-UTP), 0.6 units T7 RNA polymerase, 0.0006 units pyrophosphatase, and 1 unit Superase-In RNase inhibitor. The reaction was incubated at 37 °C for 16 h, then treated with 0.04 units of TURBO DNase. The IVT generated biotinylated RNA baits were purified using the Macherey-Nagel NucleoSpin RNA XS purification kits, as described by the manufacturer. All IVT libraries were assessed using the RNA screentape on the Agilent Tapestation. The COI and COII bait libraries were pooled in equimolar ratios, as were the H3 and 28S libraries to be used in the subsequent DNA capture procedure.

A.2. DNA capture

100 ng from each RNA bait pool was combined with 100 ng of a specimen library pool for a final volume of 16 μl, and the solution was incubated for a minimum of 20 h at 60 °C. During this process, DNA fragments annealed to RNA baits with homologous sequences. The resulting RNA/DNA hybrid molecules were bound with Dynabeads© Streptavidin C1 beads on a magnetic stand. Another 50 μl of Dynabeads were washed twice with bead wash buffer (1M NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 0.01% Tween20) and resuspended in a final wash volume of 100 μl. The washed beads were added to each of the library pools at a 2:1 volume ratio. The mixes were left for 30 min at room temperature to allow the Streptavidin/biotin interaction to form. The library pools were then placed on a magnetic stand to separate the RNA/DNA hybrids. The supernatant was removed and 200 μl low stringency wash solution ($1 \times$ SSC, 0.1% SDS, 0.01% Tween20) added and the pools vortexed. This solution was left for 5 min and the beads separated on a magnetic stand. Preheated low stringency wash solution

(60 °C) was used for 3 further washes of 5 min each. After the final separation on the magnetic stand the beads were incubated with 50 μl of 0.2 M NaOH for 10 min to denature the RNA/DNA hybrid molecules. The reaction was neutralised with an equal volume of 1 M Tris-HCl pH8.0. The reaction was then placed on a magnetic stand for a final time. 100 μl of single stranded DNA solution were removed for clean up using $1.8 \times$ AMPure beads as previously described. The clean single stranded DNA was then amplified using the following conditions: 95 °C for 3 min, followed by 16 cycles of 98 °C for 30 s, 60 °C for 15 s, 72 °C for 30 s with a final extension step of 72 °C for 5 min. The size distribution of the captured molecules was ascertained using the D1000 screentape on the Agilent Tapestation. The captured products were made into sequencing libraries following the Illumina TruSeq DNA Sample Preparation - Low Sample protocol.

Appendix B. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2017.12.004>.

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