

UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL DO OESTE DO PARANÁ  
CENTRO DE CIÊNCIAS BIOLÓGICAS E DA SAÚDE  
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO STRICTO SENSU EM CONSERVAÇÃO E  
MANEJO DE RECURSOS NATURAIS – NÍVEL MESTRADO

CHRYSSTIAN APARECIDO GRILLO HAERTER

**INVESTIGAÇÃO DA DISTRIBUIÇÃO DE ELEMENTOS REPETITIVOS NO GENOMA  
DE ESPÉCIES DE *TRACHELYOPTERUS* (VALENCIENNES, 1840)**

CASCADEL-PR

Agosto/2021

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Dissertação apresentado ao Programa de Pós-graduação Stricto Sensu em Conservação e Manejo de Recursos Naturais – Nível Mestrado, do Centro de Ciências Biológicas e da Saúde, da Universidade estadual do Oeste do Paraná, como requisito para a obtenção do título de Mestre em Conservação e Manejo de Recursos Naturais

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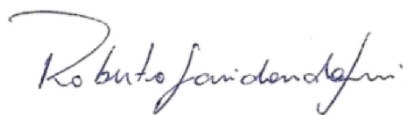
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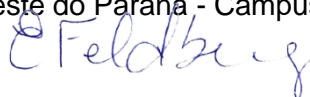
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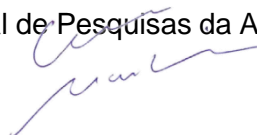
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## Sumário

<b>RESUMO</b> .....	1
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	2
<b>1. INTRODUÇÃO</b> .....	6
1.1 Região Neotropical .....	7
1.2 Ordem Siluriformes .....	8
1.3 Família Auchenipteridae .....	9
1.4 Estudos citogenéticos em Auchenipteridae .....	10
1.5 Incongruências taxonômicas em “Parauchenipterus” Trachelyopterus .....	14
1.6 DNAs repetitivos e evolução do genoma .....	19
1.7 Classificação e organização do DNA repetitivo no genoma eucarioto .....	20
<b>2. OBJETIVOS</b> .....	25
2.1 Objetivo Geral .....	25
2.2 Objetivos Específicos .....	25
<b>3. MATERIAIS E MÉTODOS</b> .....	26
3.1 Amostragem .....	26
3.2 Suspensão celular de cromossomos mitóticos .....	28
3.2.1 Indução do número de mitoses – Lee e Elder (1980) .....	28
3.2.3 Tratamento <i>in vitro</i> – Moreira-Filho e Bertollo (1990) .....	29
3.3 Obtenção e marcação das sondas .....	29
3.3.1 DNAr 18S e DNAr 5S .....	29
3.3.2 snRNA U2 .....	30
3.3.3 Histonas H3 e H4 .....	31
3.3.4 Microssatélite (GATA) <sub>n</sub> .....	31
3.4 Hibridação <i>in situ</i> Fluorescente (FISH) .....	32
3.4.1 Preparo das lâminas .....	32
3.4.2 Detecção do sinal de sondas marcadas por PCR .....	32
3.4.3 Detecção do sinal de sondas Marcadas por <i>nick-translation</i> .....	33
3.4.4 Análise das lâminas .....	33
<b>4. REFERENCIAS</b> .....	34
<b>5. RESULTADOS</b> .....	45
<b>CAPITULO I</b> .....	46
Introduction .....	49
Materials and Methods .....	51
Results .....	53
Discussion .....	56
<b>CAPITULO II</b> .....	80
Introduction .....	83
Methods .....	85
Results .....	87
Discussion .....	91
<b>6. CONCLUSÕES</b> .....	121

*“A Ciência não resolve um  
problema sem criar outros dez”  
George Bernard Shaw*

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## RESUMO

*Trachelyopterus* é um gênero de bagre Neotropical com história taxonômica controversa e mais de 200 anos de revisões devido à morfologia semelhante entre as espécies. Citogeneticamente, *Trachelyopterus* ainda é pouco explorado e não há mapeamento além dos DNAs ribossomais 18S e 5S. Apenas o microssatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> foi analisado em algumas espécies, tendo papel crucial na origem e evolução de cromossomos B, mas sem eficiência em distinguir as espécies através dos cromossomos do complemento A. Neste estudo, o mapeamento dos elementos repetitivos 18S e 5S DNAr, genes de histonas H3 e H4, snRNA U2 e o microssatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> foi realizado em seis espécies de *Trachelyopterus*: *T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus* e *T. porosus* da Bacia hidrográfica do Rio Amazonas; *T. coriaceus* e *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (possível nova espécie) da bacia do Rio Araguaia; e *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (possível nova espécie) da bacia do Rio Paraguai. O DNAr 18S foi encontrado em apenas um par de cromossomos. O 5S DNAr foi evidenciado em 1-3 pares cromossômicos. Os genes de histonas H3 e H4 foram encontrados em 1-2 pares cromossômicos e, na maioria das espécies, sintênicos com o DNAr 18S. O snRNA U2 foi encontrado em apenas um par de cromossomos, todavia, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* teve um polimorfismo de inversão cromossômica, que está em equilíbrio de Hardy-Weinberg e cromossomos homólogos com tamanho distinto. Citotaxonomicamente, o DNAr 5S revelou autapomorfias de quatro espécies, os genes de histonas H3 e H4 e o DNAr 18S de duas espécies e o snRNA U2 de apenas uma espécie. Como resultado, todas as espécies puderam ser distinguidas, incluindo *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* e *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, ambos possíveis novas espécies. Uma vez conhecido o padrão de distribuição dos genes 18S e 5S DNAr, snRNA U2 e histonas H3 e H4, este foi usado como guia para comparar o padrão de distribuição do microssatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> nos cromossomos homeólogos entre as seis espécies. Como resultado, a maioria das espécies teve um padrão de distribuição semelhante da sequência (GATA)<sub>n</sub> nos portadores do DNAr 18S. Porém, *T. galeatus* apresentou polimorfismo cromossômico, que está em equilíbrio de Hardy-Weinberg e foi possivelmente originado através de eventos de amplificação. Por outro lado, o mapeamento da sequência (GATA)<sub>n</sub> nos portadores dos genes 5S DNAr e H3 / H4 não revelou novas informações sobre a estrutura desses pares cromossômicos, todavia, permitiu indicar com maior precisão as possíveis homeologias cromossômicas entre as espécies e reafirmou a existência do polimorfismo cromossômico em *T. galeatus*. Semelhante aos portadores de DNAr 18S, a maioria das espécies apresentou um padrão de distribuição conservado do microssatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> nos cromossomos do snRNA U2. No entanto, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* apresentou um novo polimorfismo cromossômico em desequilíbrio de Hardy-Weinberg e seis possíveis citótipos. Assim, através do mapeamento combinado de marcadores, pudemos evidenciar autapomorfias citotaxonômicas que distinguem todas as seis espécies, incluindo as possíveis novas espécies, como também evidenciamos novos aspectos evolutivos e de diversidade no controverso gênero neotropical *Trachelyopterus*, o que pode levar a um melhor entendimento de sua taxonomia, evolução e biodiversidade.

**PALAVRAS-CHAVE:** Genes de Histona H3 e H4; 18S DNAr; 5S DNAr; snRNA U2; SSR(GATA)<sub>n</sub>.

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## INVESTIGATION OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF REPETITIVE ELEMENTS IN THE GENOME OF *TRACHELYOPTERUS* SPECIES (VALENCIENNES, 1840)

### ABSTRACT

*Trachelyopterus* is a Neotropical catfish genus with a controversial taxonomic history and more than 200 years of revisions due to similar morphology among species. Cytogenetically, it is still poorly explored and there is no physical mapping of repetitive elements beyond the rDNAs 18S and 5S. Only the microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern was analyzed in some species, having a crucial role in the origin and evolution of B chromosomes, but without efficiency in distinguishing species through complement A chromosomes. In this study, the mapping of the repetitive elements 18S and 5S rDNA, H3 and H4 histone genes, snRNA U2 and the microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> were performed in six *Trachelyopterus* species: *T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus* and *T. porosus* of the Amazon River Basin; *T. coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (possible new species) from the Araguaia River basin; and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (possible new species) of the Paraguay River basin. The 5S DNA was evidenced in 1-3 chromosome pairs. The H3 and H4 histone genes were found in 1-2 chromosome pairs and, in most species, syntenic with DNAr 18S. The U2 snRNA was found in only one chromosome pair, however, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* had a chromosomal inversion polymorphism, which is in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and had homologous chromosomes with distinct size. Cytotaxonomically, the 5S rDNA revealed autapomorphies of four species, while the H3 and H4 histone genes and 18S rDNA distinguished two species and U2 snRNA only one species. As a result, all species could be distinguished, including *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, both possible new species. Once the distribution pattern of the 18S and 5S rDNA, U2 snRNA and H3/H4 histone genes was known, it was used as a guide to compare the microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the homologous chromosomes of the six species. As a result, most species had a similar (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the 18S rDNA chromosome carriers. However, *T. galeatus* presented a chromosomal polymorphism, which is in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and possibly originated through amplification events. On the other hand, the mapping of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence in the carriers of the 5S rDNA and H3 / H4 histone genes did not reveal new information about the structure of these chromosomal pairs, however, it indicated a more precisely chromosomal homeologies between the species and reaffirmed the existence of the chromosomal polymorphism in *T. galeatus*. Similar to the carriers of the 18S rDNA, most species presented a conserved distribution pattern of microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> on the chromosomes of the U2 snRNA. However, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* presented a new chromosomal polymorphism in Hardy-Weinberg disequilibrium and six possible cytotypes. Thus, through combined mapping of these markers, we could evidence cytotaxonomic autapomorphies that can distinguish all species, including both possible new species, as well as new evolutive e diversity aspects in the controversial neotropical genus *Trachelyopterus*, which can lead to a better understanding of its taxonomy, evolution and biodiversity.

**KEY WORDS:** H3 and H4 Histone genes, 18S rDNA, 5S RDNA, U2 snRNA, SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>.

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## LISTA DE TABELAS

- Tabela 1.** Resumo histórico das considerações taxonômicas em *Trachelyopterus* e *Parauchenipterus* ..... 16
- Tabela 2.** Espécies consideradas válidas atualmente para o gênero *Trachelyopterus* em comparação a revisão filogenética de Akama (2004)..... 18
- Tabela 3.** Populações analisadas e disponibilizadas pelo Laboratório de Citogenética do grupo de Biologia e Conservação de Anamniotas da Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná (UNIOESTE).....27

### CAPÍTULO I

- Tabela 1.** *Trachelyopterus* species and number of individuals hybridized with 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, snRNA U2, Histones H3 and H4..... 77
- Tabela 2.** Cytogenetic data available for *Trachelyopterus* species .....78

### CAPÍTULO II

- Tabela 1.** An overview of published cytogenetic mappings with microsatellites in neotropical fish species and their distribution patterns ..... 116
- Tabela 2.** Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium test for *Trachelyopterus galeatus* (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism from Amazonas River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* U2 snRNA and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism from Araguaia River basin. .... 121

## LISTA DE FIGURAS

**Figura 1.** Primeira ilustração de *Parauchenipterus* (Seba, 1759). ..... 15

### CAPITULO I

**Figura 1.** Karyotypes of *Trachelyopterus porosus* (a), *T. coriaceus* (b) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (c) ..... 72

**Figura 2.** Karyotypes of *T. striatulus* (a), *T. galeatus* (b) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (c)..... 73

### CAPITULO II

**Figura 1.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the 18S rDNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. 18S rDNA probes in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in red signal ..... 111

**Figura 2.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the U2 snRNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. U2 snRNA probes in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in red signal..... 112

**Figura 3.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the 5S rDNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. 5S rDNA probes in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in red signal. .... 113

**Figura 4.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the H3 and H4 histone genes carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. H3/H4 histone genes in red signal, 18S rDNA in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in green signal..... 114

**Figura 5.** Ideogram of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the chromosomes carrying the 5S rDNA, 18S rDNA, H3 and H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA ..... 115

## LISTA DE ABREVIACOES

<b>2n</b>	Nmero diploide
<b>AgNO<sub>3</sub></b>	Nitrato de prata
<b>DAPI</b>	4',6-diamino-2-fenilindol
<b>DNA</b>	cido desoxirribonucleico
<b>DNA<sub>r</sub></b>	DNA ribossomal
<b>DNA<sub>sat</sub></b>	DNA satlite
<b>ET</b>	Elemento Transponvel
<b>ETs</b>	Elementos Transponveis
<b>FISH</b>	Hibridizao <i>in situ</i> Fluorescente (Fluorescence <i>in situ</i> Hybridization)
<b>(GATA)<sub>n</sub></b>	Microsatlite GATA
<b>ITS</b>	Stios Telomricos Intersticiais
<b>LINEs</b>	Long Interspersed Nuclear Elements
<b>LTR</b>	Long Terminal Repeat
<b>NCBI</b>	National Center for Biotechnology Information
<b>FN</b>	Nmero fundamental
<b>non-LTR</b>	Non-Long Terminal Repeat
<b>NTS</b>	Non-Transcribed Spacer
<b>PCR</b>	Polymerase Chain Reaction
<b>rDNA</b>	Ribosomal DNA
<b>RNA</b>	cido ribonucleico
<b>RON</b>	Regio Organizadora de Nuclolo
<b>RONs</b>	Regies Organizadoras de Nuclolos
<b>TEs</b>	Transposable Elements
<b>(TTAGGG)<sub>n</sub></b>	Sequncia telomrica
<b>UNIOESTE</b>	Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paran

## 1. INTRODUÇÃO

Peixes compreendem cerca de metade das espécies de vertebrados do mundo com mais de 32.000 espécies catalogadas. Sua origem e irradiação é datada de cerca de 500 milhões de anos atrás e tanto agora quanto no passado exibem uma incomparável diversidade (NELSON, 2006; HELFMAN et al., 2009). Evolutivamente este grupo prosperou por meio da aparição dos mais impressionantes e variados aspectos morfológicos, fisiológicos, comportamentais e ecológicos ao longo dos milhões de anos (NELSON, 2006; HELFMAN et al., 2009). Atualmente, cerca de 43% dos espécimes de peixes catalogados são pertencentes a ambientes de água doce, os quais apesar de representarem uma porção extremamente pequena quando comparados a ambientes marinhos, contém um número desproporcional das espécies de peixe do mundo (WOOTTON, 1990; NELSON, 2006; HELFMAN et al., 2009).

Nas últimas décadas o número de espécies de peixes tem sido constantemente atualizado. Mais de 1,7 milhões de novas espécies foram descritas e catalogadas, entretanto, este ainda é um número extremamente baixo considerando toda a diversidade biológica existente no planeta (BLAXTER, 2003; WILSON, 2003). Além disso, não obstante o pouco conhecimento acerca da diversidade do planeta, um número significativo já catalogado pode apresentar problemas em sua descrição e taxonomia, sejam por erros na interpretação de dados ou por variabilidade críptica e, como resultado, a diversidade pode ser ainda maior. Portanto, estudos visando melhor compreensão da diversidade ictiofaunística são essenciais, uma vez que, contribuem significativamente na sistemática dos grupos, na tomada de decisões e no manejo e na conservação de espécies, principalmente as que possuem alto valor econômico e biológico (HAY et al., 2009; HELFMAN et al., 2009; BICKFORD et al., 2006). Ademais, compreender a organização tanto morfológica quanto genética permite desenvolver hipóteses filogenéticas mais claras e contundentes, minimizando os efeitos das constantes mudanças e reorganizações de táxons, historicamente comuns na literatura e que causam grande confusão durante a interpretação.

Recentemente, um novo meio além da morfologia tem permitido a caracterização, segregação ou agrupamento de espécies, a citogenética. Utilizando de marcadores moleculares, como os elementos repetitivos, a citogenética permite adentrar o genoma e evidenciar diferenças e semelhanças não possíveis de serem

identificadas apenas com base em morfologia, gerando novos dados capazes inclusive de diferir espécies morfologicamente idênticas (BICKFORD et al., 2006). Exemplos a serem ressaltados são os complexos de espécies em *Astyanax scabripinnis* (MOREIRA-FILHO; BERTOLLO, 1991), *Hoplias malabaricus* (BERTOLLO et al., 2000), as espécies crípticas do gênero *Pimelodella* (Siluriformes: Heptapteridae) encontradas no Rio Miranda, Bacia do Rio Paraguai (SOUZA-SHIBATTA et al., 2013), as espécies crípticas descritas dentro de *Sorubim* Cuvier (Siluriformes: Pimelodidae) da porção superior e meio da bacia Amazônica (LITTMAN et al., 2001) e as espécies crípticas de *Imparfinis* (Siluriformes, Heptapteridae) (FERREIRA et al., 2014).

Dessa forma, a análise de elementos repetitivos por meio da citogenética é uma importante ferramenta durante a descrição de grupos, podendo contribuir para com problemáticas taxonômicas (NUNES et al., 2007; VENTURA, 2009; BLANCO et al., 2011; LUI, 2011; CHIRINO et al., 2013; RINCÓN, 2016), caracterização evolutiva de cromossomos sexuais (MARTINS, 2007; VICARI et al., 2008), descrição de cromossomos B (LUI et al., 2009; LUI, 2013; FELICETTI, 2018) e a caracterização da influência de sequências repetitivas na organização e arquitetura genômica e expressão gênica (SHAPIRO; STERNBERG, 2005; LYNCH, 2007; SECCO et al., 2011). Além disso, a caracterização de elementos repetitivos também é uma ferramenta de grande importância na medida em que contribui com a descrição de novas espécies (HIRMAN et al., 2018) e com novos dados e conhecimento para os grupos de análise (COLUCCIA et al., 2011), visto que, a citogenética ainda é um campo relativamente novo, principalmente de peixes, e ainda carente de informações.

## 1.1 Região Neotropical

A região Neotropical compreende as áreas desde o Deserto de Sonora, no sul dos Estados Unidos, até à Terra do Fogo, no extremo sul da América do Sul (MORRONE et al., 2014). Em decorrência do isolamento da América do Sul da América Central e África durante o período terciário, a biota neotropical pode evoluir de forma totalmente isolada e independente (JOLY, 2008). Em razão disto, é tida como uma das mais ricas áreas em termos de diversidade e riqueza de espécies para diversos grupos (JOLY, 2008).

Em grande parte do planeta, os peixes são considerados um dos grupos com maior sucesso adaptativo nos sistemas aquáticos, e o mesmo também pode ser observado na região Neotropical, com cerca de 5.160 espécies descritas e estimativas de mais de 9000 espécies (NELSON et al., 2016). Todavia, apesar do crescente número de descrições formais, o conhecimento da ictiofauna neotropical ainda se mostra incompleto, principalmente pela falta de consenso sobre a validade taxonômica de várias espécies, deficiência no número de pesquisas e revisões sistemáticas (BUCKUP et al., 2007; LANGEANI et al., 2009). Atualmente, a região Neotropical tem Ostariophysi como a classe de peixes com o maior número de representantes, em que se destacam as ordens Characiformes, Siluriformes e Gymnotiformes, sendo Siluriformes o segundo maior grupo em número de espécies (FRICKE, 2021).

## 1.2 Ordem Siluriformes

Pertencente à classe Actinopterygii, os Siluriformes, também chamados peixes de couro, bagres, ou *cattfishes*, apresentam cerca de 3.730 espécies validadas distribuídas em 40 famílias e 490 gêneros, sendo Hypsidoridae, Andinichthyidae e Bachmanniidae consideradas extintas, caracterizando-se como o segundo maior grupo de peixes da região Neotropical (NELSON et al., 2016; FRICKE, 2021). No Brasil, a ordem representa em torno de 40% das espécies, com mais de 1.000 identificadas e distribuídas em 11 famílias e cerca de 200 gêneros (BUCKUP et al., 2007).

Os Siluriformes possuem hábitos sedentários e são geralmente encontrados no fundo de rios (FROESE, 2021). São animais de hábitos primariamente noturnos caracterizados pela ausência de escamas pelo corpo, recoberto por pele espessa e placas ósseas. Normalmente, dispõe de quatro pares de barbilhões, um no maxilar e outro na mandíbula, maxilares pequenos e dentes ausentes (FROESE, 2021). São geralmente orientados por sentido químico e possuem o primeiro raio das nadadeiras dorsal e peitoral transformados em acúleo, além de nadadeira adiposa normalmente estar presente (MOYLE; CHECH, 1988; FROESE, 2021). A ordem é composta por indivíduos que podem não ultrapassar 20 milímetros de comprimento quando adultos (como alguns Scoloplacidae) e outros que podem ultrapassar 2-3 metros de

comprimento (como em Siluridae, Pimelodidae e Pangasiidae). Apresentam ampla distribuição pela América do Sul, África e poucos representantes na Ásia e Europa. Com exceção de Ariidae e Plotosidae que são exclusivamente marinhos e Auchenipteridae, Aspredinidae e Pangasiidae que apresentam espécies de estuário com movimentações periódicas ao mar, todos os outros representantes conhecidos são dulcícolas (PINNA, 1998; NIRCHIO, 2010). Tanta variedade morfológica, comportamental e ecológica reflete diretamente em sua complexidade taxonômica, historicamente confusa (NELSON et al., 2016).

### 1.3 Família Auchenipteridae

Na ordem dos Siluriformes, Auchenipteridae é uma família restrita a região Neotropical e representada por cerca de 26 gêneros e 125 espécies validadas (FRICKE et al., 2021). Junto de Doradidae e Aspidinidae, Auchenipteridae faz parte da superfamília Doradoidea (NELSON et al., 2016). Este grupo pode ser dividido na subfamília Centromochlinae, composta pelos gêneros *Centromochlus*, *Gelanoglanis*, *Glanidium* e *Tatia*, e na subfamília Auchenipterinae, que agrupa todos os outros gêneros (FERRARIS JR, 2003). Esta última abrigaria o gênero *Parauchenipterus*, um gênero historicamente confuso e que apresenta problemas taxonômicos e de validação desde o momento de sua criação (AKAMA, 2004, LUI, 2010). Do total de espécies de válidas, cerca de 70 já foram registradas no território brasileiro (AKAMA, 2004; NELSON et al., 2016).

As espécies de Auchenipteridae, conhecidas popularmente como carataí, fidalgo, mandubé, palmito, judeu, ximbé, cangati e cachorro-de-padre, são caracterizadas pela inseminação interna e dimorfismo sexual, que geralmente se apresenta na nadadeira anal nos machos sexualmente maduros, mas podendo ocorrer também na nadadeira dorsal ou barbilhões durante períodos reprodutivos (AKAMA, 2004; BIRINDELLI, 2010). Apresentam o olho coberto por tecido adiposo, sem borda nítida e a nadadeira adiposa é reduzida ou ausente (AKAMA, 2004). O barbilhão maxilar é mais longo, desenvolvendo fileiras de espinhos. Possuem acúleo na nadadeira dorsal ossificado (FERRARIS JR, 1988). Possuem hábitos alimentares diversos, estando incluído em suas dietas principalmente pequenas frutas e insetos na superfície da água. Todavia, alguns poucos representantes do grupo são



primariamente planctívoros e/ou piscívoros (FERRARIS JR, 2003). Espécies desta família podem também emitir sinais sonoros em contextos agonísticos, reprodutivos e de perturbações, além de exibirem habilidade de distinção de seus próprios sons, podendo então ser considerado um caráter taxonômico (KAATZ; STEWART, 2012).

#### 1.4 Estudos citogenéticos em Auchenipteridae

Apesar do avanço da ciência e da citogenética de peixes, Auchenipteridae ainda é uma família pouco explorada. Os dados citogenéticos disponíveis em literatura fazem menção à apenas uma pequena fração de espécies dos gêneros *Glanidium* (Lütken, 1874), *Parauchenipterus* (*Trachelyopterus*), *Tatia* (Miranda-Ribeiro, 1911), *Tympanopleura* (Eigenmann, 1912), *Auchenipterus* (Miranda Ribeiro, 1918) e *Entomocorus* (Eigenmann, 1917) (FENOCCHIO; BERTOLLO, 1992; RAVEDUTTI; JÚLIO JR, 2001; FENOCCHIO et al., 2008; LUI et al., 2009, 2010, 2013a, 2013a, 2015; MACHADO et al., 2018; FELICETTI et al. 2021; LUI et al. 2021; SANTOS et al., 2021; MACHADO et al., 2021). Para Auchenipteridae, o número diploide (2n) de 58 cromossomos são assíduos, entretanto, diploidia de 56 cromossomos já foram identificadas em algumas populações de *Ageneiosus inermis* (Linnaeus, 1766) (citado como *A. brevifilis*), *Tympanopleura atronasus* (citado como *Ageneiosus atronases*) oriundos da bacia Amazônica (FENOCCHIO; BERTOLLO, 1992) e de 46 cromossomos em *Centromochlus heckelii* (KOWALSKI et al., 2020).

Com relação às exceções ao número diploide padrão para Auchenipteridae, *Ageneiosus inermis* e *Tympanopleura atronasus*, além da variação no número de cromossomos, curiosamente as AgRONS apresentam-se localizadas em cromossomos submetacêntricos e na posição terminal do braço curto para *Ageneiosus inermis* e intersticial no braço longo para *Tympanopleura atronasus* (FENOCCHIO; BERTOLLO, 1992). Baseado nessas informações, estudos posteriores encontraram o mesmo número diploide (2n=56) para uma população de *Ageneiosus inermis* coletada no rio Araguaia, e coincidentemente obtiveram o mesmo padrão de distribuição de AgRONS (LUI et al., 2013b). A partir disso, utilizando-se de sondas teloméricas, foi comprovado a ocorrência de fusão cromossômica como fonte da variação do número diploide de *Ageneiosus inermis* e *Tympanopleura atronasus*, evidenciada pela presença destas sequências em posição centromérica dos

cromossomos do par 1 do cariótipo (LUI et al., 2013b). Da mesma maneira, o número menor número diploide já registrado para Auchenipteridae, em *Centromochlus heckelii*, também parece estar relacionado a eventos de fusão cromossômica, o qual também pode estar relacionado com o surgimento de um sistema sexual do tipo ZZ/ZW (KOWALSKI et al., 2020).

Para o gênero *Tatia*, estudos citogenéticos foram desenvolvidos tendo como base as espécies de *Tatia jaracatia* Pavanelli and Bifi, 2009 do rio Iguaçu e *Tatia neivai* Ihering, 1930 do Rio Machado, afluente do Rio Bugres, bacia do Rio Paraguai (LUI et al., 2013a). Para ambas as espécies estudadas o número diploide de  $2n=58$  foi descrito, não diferindo dos outros gêneros de *Auchenipteridae*, exceto de *Ageneiosus inermis* e *Tympanopleura atronasus* com  $2n=56$  (LUI et al., 2013a). Para estes estudos, a distribuição da heterocromatina foi encontrada predominantemente em regiões terminais dos cromossomos, entretanto, blocos menores também foram encontrados na região centromérica de *Tatia jaracatiá* e dois blocos conspícuos foram identificados em região intersticial do braço longo do par submetacêntrico 15 e na posição terminal do braço curto do par subteloicêntrico 28 de *Tatia Neiva*, constituindo um padrão não comum aos outros representantes da família *Auchenipteridae* (LUI et al., 2013a). Condizente a dados de hibridização de sondas sítio específicas, para *Tatia jaracatiá* sondas fluorescentes 18S rDNA mostraram marcação única no par cromossômico 28, correspondendo a marcação por nitrato de prata (AgRONS). Por outro lado, marcações com sondas de rDNA 5S se mostraram presentes nos pares cromossômicos 4,18,19, e curiosamente e diferente dos demais, a marcação também foi localizada no par subteloicêntrico 29, sendo até o momento uma característica particular de *Tatia jaracatiá* (FELICETTI, 2018). Para *Tatia Neiva* a sonda de rDNA 18S foi localizada apenas no par subteloicêntrico 28, enquanto marcações por sondas rDNA 5S foram detectadas nos pares 4, 21 e 22 (LUI et al., 2013a). Contudo, não houve polimorfismo intraespecífico em relação a número diploide, fórmula cariotípica, bandamento C, rDNA 5S e 18s em ambas as espécies (LUI et al., 2013a).

Análises citogenéticas para o gênero *Glanidium* são relatadas para populações de *Glanidium ribeiroi* provenientes de do Rio Iguaçu e coletadas no reservatório Salto de Caxias - PR (RAVEDUTTI; JULIO JR, 2001); reservatório Segredo – PR e reservatório Salto Osório - PR (FENOCCHIO et al., 2008); e Capanema – PR (LUI et al. 2013a). Em todos os estudos o número diploide de  $2n=58$  cromossomos é relatado. Pequenas alterações no número fundamental e na fórmula cariotípica foram

observadas para espécimes do reservatório Salto Caxias, sendo explicada por possíveis eventos evolutivos, tais como inversões pericêntricas, duplicações e deleções (RAVEDUTTI; JÚLIO JR, 2001). Os padrões de heterocromatina mostraram marcações majoritariamente teloméricas e pequenas frações distribuídas em regiões centroméricas, não se diferenciando muito em relação a outros representantes de *Auchenipteridae*, exceto por um bloco conspícuo de heterocromatina correspondente a Ag-NORs e outro bloco heterocromático adjacente a esse mesmo local na população oriunda de Capanema (LUI et al., 2015). A hibridização por sondas específicas foi realizada pela primeira vez no grupo para as populações do reservatório de Segredo e Salto Osório (FENOCCHIO et al., 2008) com sondas DNAr 18S. As sondas evidenciaram sítios no braço curto e em cromossomos submetacêntricos para ambas as populações (FENOCCHIO et al., 2008).

Para a região de Capanema, um estudo mais recente, as análises foram realizadas utilizando DNAr 18S, 5S, sondas teloméricas  $(TTAGGG)_n$  e sequências  $(GATA)_n$ . Para esta população a hibridização das sondas de DNAr 18S se mostrou presente apenas no braço curto e em posição intersticial do par submetacêntrico 14, de forma muito semelhante as populações do reservatório de Segredo e Salto Osório (LUI et al., 2015). Por outro lado, com a hibridização da sonda de DNAr 5S foi observada marcação somente na porção intersticial do braço longo do par metacêntrico 16, sem diferenças entre as populações (LUI et al., 2015). Do mesmo modo, sondas teloméricas não demonstraram variações quanto ao esperado para essa fração repetitiva, e sequências  $(GATA)_n$  se mostram dispersas por todo o genoma e com elevada afinidade por porções cromossômicas terminais (LUI et al., 2015), sendo semelhante a outras análises para a família, diferindo significativamente apenas da marcação pericentromérica identificada em *Ageneiosus inermis* (LUI et al., 2013a). Todavia, ainda há grande dificuldade em realizar comparações dentro da família em relação a satélites, microssatélites e minissatélites, uma vez que, estudos contendo tais marcadores ainda são escassos para *Auchenipteridae*, sugerindo a necessidade de estudos utilizando essas frações de DNA repetitivo.

Para o gênero *Trachelyopterus*, as principais análises tiveram como espécie alvo *Trachelyopterus galeatus* (comumente citado como *Parauchenipterus galeatus*). Os estudos citogenéticos foram conduzidos no Rio Paraná – Porto Rico/PR (RAVEDUTTI; JULIO JR, 2001); Reservatório Jupiá do Rio Paraná - MS; Lagoa dos Tropeiros da bacia do rio Piumi - MG; Lagoa Marginal ao Rio São Francisco - MG (LUI

et al., 2010); e Rio Piumhi, bacia do Atlântico NE Oriental – RN (ARAÚJO; MOLINA, 2013). Nestas análises, o número cromossômico diploide relatado para todas as populações foi  $2n=58$  cromossomos, não diferindo do padrão para a família. O mesmo pode ser observado quanto a seu número fundamental e fórmula cariotípica, divergindo apenas para a população coletada no Rio Paraná – Porto Rico/PR, sendo tal discordância provinda de possíveis rearranjos cromossômicos ocorridos durante o percurso evolutivo (RAVEDUTTI; JULIO JR, 2001). AgRONS simples foram identificadas em posição terminal do braço curto do par subtelocêntrico, diferindo apenas o cromossomo portador da marcação, sendo 23 ou 24 ou 25 (RAVEDUTTI; JULIO Jr, 2001; LUI et al., 2009, LUI et al., 2010). A heterocromatina foi localizada predominantemente em posição terminal dos cromossomos do complexo A, com algumas exceções, como a marcação bitelomérica em alguns cromossomos metacêntricos, submetacêntricos e subtelocêntricos e marcação pericentromérica em alguns cromossomos acrocêntricos (LUI et al., 2009, LUI et al., 2010).

Para populações do Reservatório Jupia do rio Paraná, Lagoa dos Tropeiros da bacia do rio Piumhi e Lagoa Marginal ao rio São Francisco, marcações das sondas de DNAr 5S identificaram sítios localizados em dois pares cromossômicos submetacêntricos nas três populações, diferindo apenas o cromossomo portador da sequência (LUI et al., 2009; LUI, et al., 2010). Tal variação também foi associada a eventos evolutivos e rearranjos cromossômicos (LUI et al., 2009; LUI et al., 2010), assim como em *Glanidium riberoi* (RAVEDUTTI; JÚLIO Jr, 2001). Por outro lado, marcações com DNAr 18S revelaram apenas um único par cromossômico marcado, correspondendo com os dados de impregnação por nitrato de prata (LUI et al., 2009; LUI et al., 2010). É válido ressaltar também que, neste grupo ocorreu a primeira descrição de cromossomos B para a família Auchenipteridae (LUI et al., 2009).

Recentemente, exemplares *Trachelyopteryus galeatus* (citado como *Parauchenipterys galeatus*) coletados na bacia do rio Piumhi no Estado do Rio Grande do Norte também foram analisados (ARAÚJO; MOLINA, 2013), resultando em um número diploide de  $2n=58$ , no entanto, com fórmula cariotípica diferente de outras populações, como do Amazonas e São Francisco (ARAÚJO; MOLINA, 2013). A heterocromatina foi localizada predominantemente em regiões centroméricas e pericentroméricas, diferindo da maioria dos estudos para a família *Auchenipteridae* que relatam predominância por frações cromossômicas terminais (LUI et al., 2009, LUI et al., 2010), porém, assemelhando-se a espécies de *Auchenipterus* e

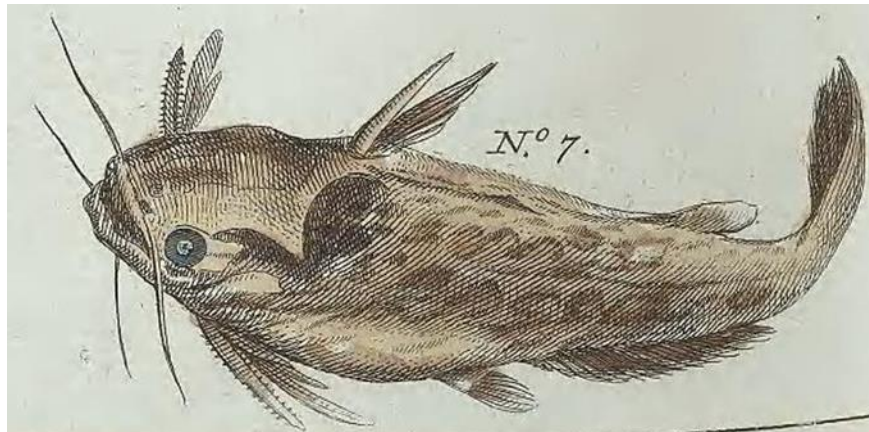
*Entomocorus* oriundas do baixo rio Paraná e rio Araguaia, em que foram localizados blocos heterocromáticos proeminentes nas regiões intersticial e pericentromérica (MACHADO et al., 2018). Além das variações na localização, são relatadas diferenças também na composição da heterocromatina, evidenciando variabilidade possivelmente ainda maior para esta população em razão das outras (ARAÚJO; MOLINA, 2013). Por final, AgRONS foram localizadas em posição terminal de um par de cromossomos submetacêntricos, padrão este confirmado pela hibridização de sondas DNAr 18S (ARAÚJO; MOLINA, 2013).

Da mesma forma, foram também analisados exemplares de *T. striatulus* da bacia do Rio Doce, Minas Gerais, e *T. coriaceus* e *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, da bacia do rio Araguaia (SANTOS et al. 2021). Todas as espécies apresentaram heterocromática em região terminal de quase todos os cromossomos e em região pericentromérica quando acrocêntricos. AgRONS simples foram encontradas em cromossomos subtlocêntricos e confirmadas por sondas de DNA ribossomal 18S. Todavia, *T. striatulus* apresentou 3 pares cromossômicos portadores do DNA ribossomal 5S, inédito para o grupo, que normalmente apresenta apenas dois pares. Da mesma forma, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *Galeatus* apresentou apenas um par cromossômico portador do DNA ribossomal 5S, também inédito para o grupo, o que o levou a ser sugerido como um possível novo táxon.

### 1.5 Incongruências taxonômicas em “*Parauchenipterus*” *Trachelyopterus*

*Parauchenipterus* Bleeker, 1862 é um gênero conhecido por sua confusa e volátil história taxonômica. A primeira ilustração conhecida (Fig. 1) de um exemplar do gênero foi realizada por Seba (1759). Contudo, em decorrência da alta similaridade entre as espécies e a não existência de dados genéticos, ainda se desconhecia a real diversificação das espécies do gênero. Portanto, a representação possui caracteres morfológicos que correspondem a qualquer uma das espécies atualmente descritas. Além disso, o exemplar utilizado por Seba como base para a ilustração foi leiloado e seu destino é incerto, impossibilitando a identificação da espécie ilustrada (AKAMA, 2004).

**Figura 1.** Primeira ilustração de *Parauchenipterus*



**Fonte:** Seba (1759).

Em 1766, tendo como base a ilustração realizada por Seba, a primeira descrição formal foi realizada por Linnaeus, que não possuía informações morfológicas ou local de coleta do animal, o que tornaria nos próximos anos a taxonomia do gênero ainda mais duvidosa. Não obstante, a taxonomia de *Parauchenipterus* também é agravada quando Bloch (1794) passa a utilizar *Silurus galeatus* Linnaeus, 1766 como espécie-tipo para caracterizar *Parauchenipterus*, a mesma espécie descrita por Linnaeus (1766). Dessa forma, as primeiras descrições do gênero *Parauchenipterus* foram baseadas em uma cascata de potenciais erros e poderiam ser equivalentes a qualquer espécie atual do gênero, culminando em uma fragilidade taxonômica que perdura até a atualidade (AKAMA, 2004).

Devido à taxonomia incontudente e carência de informações, o gênero *Parauchenipterus* foi revisado diversas vezes (Vide tabela 1 para informação resumida). A primeira tentativa de adequação foi realizada por Gunther (1864) que cunhou *Parauchenipterus* como sinônimo de *Auchenipterus* Valenciennes, 1840. Mais de 20 anos depois, Eigenmann e Eigenman (1888) propuseram o gênero como equivalente a *Trachycorystes* Bleeker, 1862, removendo a validação anterior cunhada por Gunther (1864). Todavia, a problemática ainda não havia sido resolvida e após quase um século, Mess (1974) revalidou o gênero *Parauchenipterus* e retirou a sinonímia para com *Trachycorystes* Bleeker. Entretanto, quase duas décadas depois, Ferraris (1988) propôs nova sinonímia para o gênero *Parauchenipterus*, desta vez com *Trachelyopterus* (AKAMA, 2004).

**Tabela 1.** Resumo histórico das considerações taxonômicas em *Trachelyopterus* e *Parauchenipterus*.

ANO	AUTOR	CONSIDERAÇÕES
1759	<b>Seba</b>	Pela primeira vez ilustrou <i>Parauchenipterus</i>
1766	<b>Linnaeus</b>	Descreveu a espécie
1794	<b>Bloch</b>	Utilizou como espécie-tipo <i>Silurus galeatus</i> para caracterizar <i>Parauchenipterus</i>
1864	<b>Gunther</b>	Sinonimizou <i>Parauchenipterus</i> com <i>Auchenipterus</i>
1888	<b>Eignmann e Eignmann</b>	Retirou <i>Parauchenipterus</i> de <i>Auchenipterus</i> , considerando-o sinônimo de <i>Trachycorystes</i>
1972	<b>Britski</b>	Corroborou a hipótese de Eignmann e Eignmann
1974	<b>Mees</b>	Revalidou o gênero <i>Parauchenipterus</i>
1988	<b>Ferraris Jr</b>	Propôs pela primeira vez que <i>Parauchenipterus</i> seria sinônimo de <i>Trachelyopterus</i>
1989	<b>Curran</b>	<i>Parauchenipterus</i> foi desconsiderado como sinônimo de <i>Trachelyopterus</i> , validando os dois gêneros
1999	<b>Royero</b>	Considerou <i>Parauchenipterus</i> e <i>Trachelyopterus</i> gêneros distintos e válidos
2003	<b>Ferraris Jr</b>	Considerou os gêneros <i>Parauchenipterus</i> e <i>Trachelyopterus</i> sinônimos, colocando todas as espécies dentro de <i>Trachelyopterus</i>
2004	<b>Akama</b>	Novamente separou <i>Parauchenipterus</i> e <i>Trachelyopterus</i> , como gêneros distintos e válidos
2007	<b>Ferraris Jr</b>	Reafirmou <i>Parauchenipterus</i> e <i>Trachelyopterus</i> como sinônimos e todas as espécies destes dois gêneros em <i>Trachelyopterus</i>
2007	<b>Buckup et al.</b>	Consideram os dois gêneros válidos
2007	<b>Graça e Pavanelli</b>	Consideram os dois gêneros válidos
2010	<b>Birindelli et al.</b>	Consideram os dois gêneros válidos
2019	<b>Calegari et al.</b>	Consideram os dois gêneros Sinônimos

**Fonte:** Adaptado de Felicetti (2018).

Desde então, o principal desafio envolvendo o gênero encontra-se na dificuldade em esclarecer as relações taxonômicas entre *Parauchenipterus* e *Trachelyopterus*. Após a proposição de sinonímia entre os gêneros por Ferraris Jr (1988), Curran (1989) e Royero (1999) revalidaram em seus trabalhos os dois gêneros como unidades distintas, porém, Ferraris Jr (2003) reforçou novamente sua decisão no livro “*Check List of Freshwater Fishes of South and Central America*”, mantendo a sinonímia. Contudo, Akama (2004) através de um estudo filogenético baseado em morfologia, reconsiderou os gêneros como unidades distintas, em que *Parauchenipterus* seria validado abrangendo cinco espécies (*P. galeatus*,

*Parauchenipterus* sp. n., *P. ceratophysus*, *P. porosus* e *P. striatulus*), enquanto *Trachelyopterus* abrangia duas espécies (*T. coriaceus* e *Trachelyopterus* sp. n.). Ainda assim, Ferraris Jr (2007) em novo trabalho publicado manteve sua proposição inicial, considerando novamente *Parauchenipterus* equivalente a *Trachelyopterus*. As últimas atualizações envolvendo os gêneros foram realizadas por Buckup et al. (2007), Graça e Pavanelli (2007) e Birindelli (2010), que rerepresentam ambos os gêneros como válidos, considerando a classificação proposta por Akama (2004). Todavia, principalmente ao estudo desenvolvido por Calegari et al. (2019), as bases de dados *Eschmeyer's Catalog of Fishes* (FRICKE, 2021) e *Fishbase* (FROESE, 2021) continuam por adotar em sua base de dados *Parauchenipterus* como sinônimo de *Trachelyopterus* demonstrando as incertezas e lacunas taxonômicas ainda presentes.

Como resultado atual das incertezas envolvendo a filogenia de *Trachelyopterus* e *Parauchenipterus*, além da identificação de novas espécies com o uso de ambas as nomenclaturas, gerando discordância na literatura, durante a proposição de sua revisão taxonômica Akama (2004) considerou nestes gêneros um total de 7 espécies, um número extremamente reduzido comparado a outros autores, como Ferraris Jr (2003, 2007), sugerindo um agrupamento significativo, baseado em morfologia, das espécies atualmente válidas para o gênero *Trachelyopterus*. Se comparado a dados do presente momento (Tabela 2), 18 espécies são validadas em *Trachelyopterus* pelo *Eschmeyer's Catalog of Fishes* (FRICKE, 2021), enquanto a *Fishbase* considera válido para o gênero um total de 16 espécies (FROESE, 2021), um número quase três vezes maior ao descrito por Akama (2004). Nesse contexto, a principal problemática envolvendo tal discrepância em números se revela na medida que não há plena concordância na comparação entre as espécies descritas por Akama (2004) e as espécies validadas atualmente para o gênero *Trachelyopterus*. Uma menor fração pode ser identificada e equiparada por meio da similaridade de nomenclatura, visto que, mantiveram epíteto específico, alterando somente a referência ao gênero. Todavia, uma porção substancial não possui nenhuma similaridade de nomenclatura ou indícios de onde estariam inseridas, dificultando identificar quais espécies atualmente válidas foram agrupadas para compor as novas espécies propostas por Akama (2004).

Além disso, Akama (2004) sugere a descrição de um novo gênero, ao qual cunhou de "*Amplexiglanis*", grupo irmão de *Ageneiosus* e *Tetranematichthys*. Este novo gênero, apesar de não validado, também possui importante papel na discussão



envolvendo *Trachelyopterus*, pois, parte das espécies que compunham o gênero *Parauchenipterus* (atual *Trachelyopterus*) foram remanejadas de acordo com Akama (2004) e Royero (1999) para este novo grupo, impactando ainda mais na organização e filogenia por ele proposta. Dessa forma, *Amplexiglanis* constitui um importante elo para localizar e identificar parte do rearranjo realizado por Akama (2004), pois, assim como para parte das novas espécies designadas pelo autor para os gêneros *Parauchenipterus* e *Trachelyopterus*, o epíteto específico foi mantido, permitindo localizá-las na literatura atual (Tab. 2).

**Tabela 2.** Espécies consideradas válidas atualmente para o gênero *Trachelyopterus* em comparação a revisão filogenética de Akama (2004).

Akama (2004) – Última revisão	<i>Eschmeyer's Catalog of Fishes</i> (2021)	<i>FishBase</i> (2021)
	<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i>
	<i>Trachelyopterus lacustris</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus lacustris</i>
	<i>Trachelyopterus isacanthus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus isacanthus</i>
<i>Parauchenipterus galeatus</i>	--	<i>Trachelyopterus analis</i>
	<i>Trachelyopterus albicrux</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus albicrux</i>
	<i>Trachelyopterus leopardinus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus leopardinus</i>
	<i>Trachelyopterus cratensis</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus cratensis</i>
<i>Parauchenipterus</i> sp.	--	--
<i>Parauchenipterus striatulus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i>
<i>Parauchenipterus porosus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus porosus</i>	--
	<i>Trachelyopterus lucenai</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus lucenai</i>
<i>Parauchenipterus ceratophysus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus ceratophysus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus ceratophysus</i>
	--	<i>Trachelyopterus brevibarbis</i>
<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i>
<i>Trachelyopterus</i> sp.		
" <i>Amplexiglanis</i> " <i>fisheri</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus fisheri</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus fisheri</i>
" <i>Amplexiglanis</i> " <i>amblops</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus amblops</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus amblops</i>
" <i>Amplexiglanis</i> " <i>teaguei</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus teaguei</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus teaguei</i>
	<i>Trachelyopterus insignis</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus insignis</i>
" <i>Amplexiglanis</i> " <i>insignis</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus peloichthys</i>	<i>Trachelyopterus peloichthys</i>
" <i>Amplexiglanis</i> " sp.	--	--

**Fonte:** Dados oriundos de *Eschmeyer's Catalog of Fishes* (FRICKE, 2021), *Fishbase* (FROESE, 2021) e Akama (2004). Edição do autor. Não identificada relação até o presente momento (para comparações entre Akama e atuais), não se faz presente ou não é validado pelo catálogo (para comparação entre catálogos) (--).

Entretanto, um número expressivo de espécies atualmente válidas se encontra avulsa em comparação a sua revisão taxonômica. Portanto, a diversidade por traz da

descrição realizada por Akama (2004) é possivelmente muito maior. Em vista disso, é de grande importância analisar e compreender essa diversidade, tanto para contribuir com as incongruências envolvendo os gêneros, quanto para melhorar a qualidade das informações taxonômicas e evolutivas de *Trachelyopterus*.

## 1.6 DNAs repetitivos e evolução do genoma

O genoma das espécies tem se demonstrado altamente variável e com grandes diferenças na quantidade de DNA. Em animais, esta variação pode ir de 0,02 pg em *Pratylenchus coffeae* (nemátode) à 132,83 pg em *Protopterus aethiopicus* (peixe) ([www.genomesize.com](http://www.genomesize.com)). Contudo, ao contrário do que se imaginava, tal variação não tem demonstrado qualquer relação com a complexidade do organismo e nem ao menos com a quantidade de genes (GREGORY, 2005; CABRAL-DE-MELLO, 2011). Em vez disso, atualmente a diversidade no tamanho genômico das espécies tem sido amplamente associada a uma quantidade substancial de cópias múltiplas e repetidas de DNA alinhadas em tandem ou dispersas, denominadas elementos repetitivos ou DNA repetitivo, podendo ocupar 80% do genoma (MARTINS et al., 2011; PLOHL et al., 2008).

Por muito tempo os DNAs repetitivos foram considerados erroneamente como *junk* DNAs (DNA lixo) (DOOLITTLE; SAPIENZA, 1980; MARTINS et al., 2011). Contudo, tem-se conhecimento atualmente de que estas frações genômicas repetitivas diferem de genes de cópia única por serem influenciadas de forma menos agressiva por pressões seletivas, apresentando então taxas de mutações significativamente maiores. Em razão disto, podem facilmente e rapidamente divergir domínios cromossômicos equivalentes, tanto em indivíduos da mesma espécie quanto de espécies diferentes (ARCHIDIACONO et al., 1995; GOSÁLVES et al., 2010; COLUCCIA et al., 2011). Dessa forma, cresce constantemente o número de estudos que realizam a conexão entre essas sequências e eventos evolutivos que resultam em variabilidade genética, como rearranjos cromossômicos, incluindo deleções, duplicações, inversões e translocações, dando possíveis sentidos a sua existência (KIDWELL, 2002).

Além disso, sendo uma sequência ubíqua em eucariotos, estas frações de DNA podem estar envolvidas em diversos outros aspectos genômicos ainda não

conhecidos (CABRAL-DE-MELLO, 2011). Recentemente, estudos têm evidenciado possível conexão de elementos repetitivos na organização do genoma, no processo de replicação, expressão gênica, recombinação (BIET et al., 1999, LIU et al., 2001; LI et al., 2002; CABRAL-DE-MELLO, 2011), na formação da heterocromatina, e também na regulação da expressão gênica (SHAPIRO; STERNBERG, 2005; BIÉMONT; VIEIRA, 2006; FESCHOTTE; PRITHAM, 2007; SLOTKIN; MARTIENSSEN, 2007; CABRAL-DE-MELLO, 2011; SECCO et al., 2011). Portanto, a caracterização desses elementos não se restringe somente a apresentar a variabilidade genética existente, mas também na medida que pode contribuir no entendimento das funções, organização e arquitetura genômica das espécies (LYNCH, 2007).

### **1.7 Classificação e organização do DNA repetitivo no genoma eucarioto**

Os DNAs repetitivos podem ser classificados em sequências codificantes e não codificantes, em tandem ou dispersas. Os DNAs repetitivos codificantes são representados principalmente pelas famílias multigênicas (DNA ribossômico, histonas e pequenos DNAs nucleares - snDNAs), enquanto as não codificantes são representadas principalmente por repetições em tandem, tais quais os satélites, minissatélites, microsatélites e também as chamadas repetições “egoístas”, conhecidas coletivamente como elementos transponíveis - ETs (CHARLESWORTH et al., 1994; SUMNER et al. 2003; LÓPEZ-FLORES; GARRIDO-RAMOS, 2012).

As famílias multigênicas correspondem a um grupo de genes originados a partir de um gene ancestral comum, a como consequência, possuem funções similares (MARTINS; WASKO, 2004; NEI; ROONEY, 2005). Dentro das famílias multigênicas, o DNA ribossômico eucariótico (DNAr) é representado por duas classes de unidades repetidas em tandem. A porção principal (DNAr 45S) compreende os genes DNAr 18S, 5.8S e 28S e a classe secundária é representada pelo DNAr 5S (LONG E DAWID, 1980). Os clusters de DNA ribossomal 45S são separados por espaçadores transcritos externos (ETS-External Transcribed Spacer) e por espaçadores intergênicos (IGS – Intergenic Spacer), enquanto as porções menores 18S, 5.8S e 28S são separadas por espaçadores intergênicos transcritos internos (ITS-Internal Transcribed Spacer) (EICKBUSH; EICKBUSH, 2007). Por outro lado, o arranjo do DNA ribossomal 5S é caracterizado por cópias múltiplas de uma unidade

transcricional altamente conservada de aproximadamente 120 pares de base, separados por um espaçador não transcrito (NTS-Non Transcribed Spacer) que varia em tamanho e composição da sequência de espécie para espécie (REBORDINOS et al., 2013).

Os genes de histonas (H1, H2A, H2B, H3 e H4) estão entre os primeiros genes eucarióticos a serem caracterizados (WOLFFE, 2001). Em grande parte dos organismos elas são encontradas organizadas em clusters e em repetições de 5 a 10 vezes. Seu produto é responsável por atuar diretamente na formação do nucleossoma, que contém cerca de 150 pb de DNA envolto 1,7 ao redor de um cerne de proteínas histonas. O cerne por sua vez contém oito histonas, duas subunidades de cada uma das quatro histonas, organizadas como dois dímeros de H2A e H2B e um tetrâmero de H3 e H4. Por final, encontra-se uma histona com propriedades ligantes, H1, que termina o processo de compactação da fibra de cromatina em estruturas de ordem superior responsáveis por condensar ainda mais o DNA (GRIFFITHS et al., 2016).

Também sendo constituinte das famílias multigênicas, as pequenas sequências de RNA nuclear (snRNA) são consideradas uma das menores sequências de RNA eucarioto, com tamanho médio de cerca de 150 bases (HARI; PARTHASARATHY, 2018). Os snRNAs estão localizados no núcleo celular e possuem funções essenciais durante o processo de splicing e processamento do RNA mensageiro, sendo um dos principais componentes da maquinaria do spliceossomo (MANCHADO et al., 2006), composto por um grande complexo RNA-proteína e cinco tipos de RNAs não codificantes (U1, U2, U4, U5 e U6) (VALADKHAN, 2005; ÚBEDA-MANZANARO et al., 2010). Todavia, além do papel no processamento do mRNA, essencial durante o processo de transcrição, evidências indicam atividade na maturação de transcritos primários em mRNA e também na regulação da expressão gênica, cumprindo papel essencial na maquinaria celular (revisado em HARI; PARTHASARATHY, 2018).

Por outro lado, o DNA repetitivo organizado em tandem, pode ser dividido em três classes principais de acordo com seu tamanho. Os satélites possuem cerca de 100 a 300 pb, minissatélites 15 a 150 pb e os microssatélites cerca de 6 pb (LEVINSON, GUTMAN, 1987). Em especial, os microssatélites, também chamadas de repetições curtas em tandem (STRs) ou repetições de sequência simples (SSRs) (ELLEGREN, 2004) são compostos de frações de DNA repetido em mono-, di-, tri-, tetra- ou penta-nucleotídeos distribuídos através de todo o genoma da maioria dos

organismos eucariotos (ELLEGREN 2004; KALIA et al., 2011). Eles são um dos mais abundantes e variáveis tipos de sequência de DNA no genoma e, embora a atividade de transposons também tenha sido relatada como fonte de novos microssatélites, (MESSIER et al., 1996; LI et al., 2002; KALIA et al., 2011; GRANDI, 2013), eles são resultado principalmente do emparelhamento incorreto da dupla fita de DNA e subsequentes erros durante o reparo do DNA (LEVINSON; GUTMAN, 1987; KALIA et al., 2011).

Dentro das sequências classificadas como não codificantes e dispersas, os elementos transponíveis são os únicos capazes de realizar a transposição para regiões distintas do genoma (KAZAZIAN, 2004; MARTINS et al., 2011). Exceto o elemento transponível *Pokey* encontrado no microcrustáceo *Daphnia* que possui afinidade por uma região específica dentro da sequência de DNA ribossomal 18S, todas as outras sequências conhecidas apresentam movimentação randômica pelo genoma (LYNCH, 2007). Dessa forma, são frações de DNA com enorme potencial evolutivo, pois, não há consideração com a relevância do novo sítio em que estarão se inserindo ou com as consequências geradas, sendo, portanto, uma grande fonte de mutações, matéria-prima para eventos evolutivos nas espécies (LYNCH, 2007).

Elementos transponíveis podem ser classificados de acordo com seu mecanismo de movimentação pelo genoma, sendo replicativos (*copy and paste* – classe I) ou conservadores (*cut and paste* – classe II) (FINNEGAN, 1989; LYNCH, 2007). Para os que utilizam de mecanismos conservativos, denominados transposons, a forma de movimentação se dá através de remoção e inserção, em que a sequência repetitiva é deslocada de um ponto do genoma para outro na forma de DNA (LYNCH, 2007). Por outro lado, aqueles que utilizam mecanismos replicativos, denominados retrotransposons, utilizam de transcrição reversa para movimentar-se pelo genoma. Para isso, a partir da sequência de DNA original é produzido um RNA intermediário, mantendo a cópia original, então o RNA intermediário é transcrito reversamente em uma nova cópia de DNA, que por sua vez se insere em outra parte do genoma, resultando assim em duas cópias do elemento transponível (LYNCH, 2007; MARTINS et al., 2011).

Os transposons são conhecidos classicamente como a segunda classe (classe II) dos elementos repetitivos dispersos do DNA. Este grupo pode ser dividido atualmente em duas subclasses: **a)** TIR e Crypton e **b)** Helitron e Maverick/Polinton. Dentro dessas subclasses estão inseridas 12 superfamílias (Tc1/Mariner, hAT,

Mutator, Merlin, Transib, P, PiggyBac, PIF/Harbinger, CACTA, Crypton, Helitron e Maverick) (FESHOTTE; PRITHMAN, 2007; CALIXTO, 2013; CLARO, 2013). Evolutivamente e filogeneticamente a análise desses elementos não apresenta grande relevância no que condiz a tamanhos genômicos, pois, devido à movimentação não replicativa esta classe de elementos transponíveis não favorece a diferenciação no tamanho e quantidade de material genético (MARTINS et al., 2011). Todavia, durante seu movimento pode causar mutações e afetar diretamente a expressão e atividade gênica, haja vista que, há a possibilidade de alterar a estrutura de genes e inclusive levá-los a inativação (JURKA, 2007; CALIXTO, 2013; CLARO, 2013).

Por outro lado, os retrotransposons são conhecidos classicamente como a classe II de elementos genéticos móveis e podem ser classificados atualmente em cinco ordens (LTR, DIRS, PLE, LINE e SINE) englobando um total de 16 superfamílias (gypsy, bel-pao, retrovirus, ERV, DIRS, Ngaro, VIPER, Penelope, R2, RTE, Jockey, L1, I, tRNA, 7SL e 5S). Evolutivamente, as consequências da movimentação dos retrotransposons são muito semelhantes à movimentação de transposons, porém, adicionalmente, durante sua movimentação são produzidas novas cópias da sequência original, aumentando assim a quantidade de DNA no genoma da espécie e impactando diretamente na sua organização. Portanto, os retrotransposons são grandes influenciadores no tamanho, estruturação e organização do genoma dos táxons ao longo do percurso evolutivo (LYNCH, 2007).

De maneira geral, elementos transponíveis são sequências com enorme potencial evolutivo. Podem agir adicionando rotas regulatórias alternativas, éxons e sítios de *splicing* a genes (HANCKS; KAZAZIAN, 2010), ou proporcionando rearranjos cromossômicos, recombinações não homologas, deleções, duplicações, inversões, translocações, quebras cromossômicas, variação no tamanho do genoma e inativação de genes (BIET et al., 1999, LIU et al., 2001; LI et al., 2002; ZHANG; PETERSON, 2004; JURKA, 2007; LYNCH, 2007; CABRAL-DE-MELLO, 2011; CLARO, 2013). Em casos mais complexos, por apresentarem regiões promotoras e elementos regulatórios próprios, a inserção desses elementos a genes pode resultar nas mais variadas modificações no processo de transcrição e expressão gênica, até mesmo se inseridos adjacientemente (JORDAN et al., 2003; HAN et al., 2004; LESAGE; TODESCHINI, 2005; MARINO-RAMIREZ et al., 2005; LYNCH, 2007). Além disso, devido às interações únicas em cada grupo, elementos transponíveis também estão

associados com o surgimento de complexas redes de regulação gênica transcricional e pós transcricional (FESCHOTTE; PRITHAM, 2007; VENÂNCIO NETO, 2019) e com a estruturação e estabilidade de cromossomos em um número considerável de eucariotos (LYNCH, 2007).

## 2. OBJETIVOS

### 2.1 Objetivo Geral

- a) Investigar a distribuição de elementos repetitivos no genoma de espécies de *Trachelyopterus*

### 2.2 Objetivos Específicos

- a) Analisar de forma integrada os padrões de distribuição dos elementos repetitivos DNAr 18S, DNAr 5S, snRNA U2, genes de histona H3 e H4 em espécies de *Trachelyopterus* e seus possíveis aspectos citotaxonômicos e evolutivos;
- b) Comparar os padrões de distribuição do microssatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> nos cromossomos portadores dos elementos repetitivos DNAr 18S, DNAr 5S, snRNA U2, genes de histona H3 e H4 em espécies de *Trachelyopterus* assim como seus possíveis aspectos evolutivos.



### 3. MATERIAIS E MÉTODOS

#### 3.1 Amostragem

Foram analisados indivíduos que contemplam 5 dos 7 táxons (71,43%) pertencentes aos gêneros *Trachelyopterus* e *Parauchenipterus* descritos em revisão taxonômica realizada por Akama (2004). Os espécimes são pertencentes à 7 populações provenientes de pontos de coleta distribuídos em 7 bacias hidrográficas da América do Sul, incluindo a bacia do Rio da Prata, bacia do Rio Piumhi, bacia dos Rios Tocantins-Araguaia, bacia do Rio Cuiabá, bacia do Rio Doce, bacia do Rio Paraguai e bacia do Rio Amazonas (Tab. 4).

**Tabela 4.** Populações analisadas e disponibilizadas pelo Laboratório de Citogenética do grupo de Biologia e Conservação de Anamniotas da Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná (UNIOESTE).

Espécie	Local	Município	Estado	GPS	BH	Sexo		Voucher
						♂	♀	
<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i> Linnaeus, 1766	Lago Catalão, Bacia do Rio Amazonas	Manaus	AM	03° 09' 47" S 59° 54' 29" W	AM	6	8	INPA 57939
<i>Trachelyopterus porosus</i> Eigenmann e Eigenmann, 1888	Lago Catalão, Bacia do Rio Amazonas	Manaus	AM	03° 09' 47" S 59° 54' 29" W	AM	4	4	INPA 57940
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. galeatus</i> Linnaeus, 1766	Córrego do Medo (Fazenda Ana Maria), Rio Araguaia	São Miguel do Araguaia	GO	13° 08' 52,7" S 50° 25' 02,8" O	A	9	10	MZUSP 110803
<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i> Steindachner, 1877	Lagoa Verde (PERD*), Bacia do Rio Doce	Marliéria	MG	19° 49' 44,5" S 42° 37' 52,5" O	C	3	3	MZUSP 109798
<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i> Valenciennes, 1840	Córrego do Medo (Fazenda Ana Maria), Rio Araguaia	São Miguel do Araguaia	GO	13° 08' 52,7" S 50° 25' 02,8" O	A	4	3	MZUSP 106766
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. coriaceus</i>	Lagoa Arrombado, Bacia do Rio Bento Gomes	Poconé	MT	16° 25' 40,9" S 56° 25' 07,4" O	PG	2	1	MZUSP 110806

\* PERD – Parque Estadual do rio Doce; AM: Amazonas GO – Goiás; MT – Mato Grosso; MG – Minas Gerais; GPS: Global Positioning System; BH – Bacia Hidrográfica; A – Araguaia; PA – Paraná; PG – Paraguai; SF – São Francisco; C – Costeira; INPA: Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia; MZUSP – Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo; NUP - Núcleo de Pesquisas em Limnologia, Ictiologia e Aquicultura da Universidade Estadual de Maringá.

### 3.2 Suspensão celular de cromossomos mitóticos

#### 3.2.1 Indução do número de mitoses – Lee e Elder (1980)

Para obtenção de uma preparação cromossômica com maior quantidade e qualidade de células metafásicas, induziu-se a função hematopoiética (mitótica) do rim anterior através da aplicação intraperitoneal na proporção de 1 mL/100 gramas de suspensão de levedura (0,5 g de fermento de padaria + 1,5 g de dextrose + 6 ml de H<sub>2</sub>O). Os animais injetados com a solução foram mantidos em aquário arejado ininterruptamente durante 24-72 horas e então submetidos ao tratamento com solução aquosa de colchicina.

#### 3.2.2 Tratamento *in vivo* – Bertollo et al. (1978)

Os exemplares foram tratados com solução aquosa intra-abdominal de colchicina 0.02% (1mL/100g de peso corporal) e mantidos em aquário arejado ininterruptamente por 30-40 minutos. Após o período de absorção sistêmica da colchicina os espécimes foram sacrificados por overdose de óleo de cravo (GRIFFITHS, 2000). Para obtenção dos cromossomos mitóticos foram retiradas porções do rim (tecido hematopoiético), o qual foi lavado em solução hipotônica (KCl 0.075M) e transferido para cubas de vidro contendo aproximadamente 10mL da mesma solução. O material foi então fragmentado com auxílio de pinças e seringa hipodérmica desprovida de agulha até a obtenção de uma solução homogênea. As soluções obtidas foram transferidas para *Falcons* de vidro e incubadas em estufa BOD à 37° C por 30 minutos. Passado o período de incubação, 10 gotas de fixador recém preparado (3 metanol: 1 ácido acético) foi adicionado e o material ressuspendido e centrifugado por 10 minutos à 500-800 rpm. Com cuidado, o sobrenadante foi então removido e vagarosamente e 5-7 mL de fixador foram adicionadas pelas paredes do tubo. O material foi então novamente homogeneizado com pipeta *Pasteur* e centrifugado por 10 minutos a 500-800 rpm. O procedimento foi repetido 1-2 vezes. Finalizadas as centrifugações, o sobrenadante foi descartado e aproximadamente 1 mL de fixador foi adicionado.

As suspensões celulares foram transferidas para tubos do tipo *Ependorff* e armazenadas em freezer.

### 3.2.3 Tratamento *in vitro* – Moreira-Filho e Bertollo (1990)

Para obtenção dos cromossomos mitóticos *in vitro*, foram retiradas porções do rim (tecido hematopoiético) e mantidas em placas de petri contendo solução salina de Hanks. O material foi então fragmentado com auxílio de pinças e seringas hipodérmicas desprovidas de agulha e transferido para tubos de centrifuga juntamente com 1-2 gotas de colchicina 0.0125%. A solução foi incubada em estufa BOD a 37°C por 30 minutos. Após a incubação o material foi centrifugado durante 10 minutos a 900 rpm. O sobrenadante foi descartado e adicionou-se 10 ml de solução hipotônica (KCl 0,075M) seguido de homogeneização com pipeta Pasteur até obter uma solução homogênea. A solução foi incubada em estufa BOD a 37°C por 30 minutos. Após o período de incubação foram adicionadas 9-10 gotas de fixador (3 metanol: 1 ácido acético) recém-preparado e o material foi novamente centrifugado durante 10 minutos a 900 rpm. O sobrenadante foi descartado, foram adicionados 10 ml de fixador, seguido de homogeneização e nova centrifugação por 10 minutos a 900 rpm. O procedimento foi repetido 1-2 vezes. Finalizadas as centrifugações, o sobrenadante foi descartado e cerca de 1 ml de fixador foi adicionado. As suspensões celulares foram transferidas para tubos do tipo *Ependorff* e armazenadas em freezer.

## 3.3 Obtenção e marcação das sondas

### 3.3.1 DNAr 18S e DNAr 5S

Sondas de DNAr 18S de *Prochilodus argenteus*, obtidas por Hatanaka e Galetti Jr (2004) e preservadas em plasmídeo foram utilizadas para marcação por *nick-translation* com Biotina-16-dUTP e/ou Digoxigenina-11-dUTP (*Bio-Nick-Translation* e/ou *Dig-Nick-Translation mix* – Roche), de acordo com as instruções

do fabricante (1 hora e 30 minutos para DNAr 18S e 1 hora e 15 minutos para sondas de DNAr 5S). Sondas de DNAr 18s ou 5s marcadas com Biotina-16-dUTP foram detectadas com antibiotina-avidina-FITC/ antiavidina-Biotina (Roche). Sondas de DNAr 5S foram produzidas a partir de fragmentos de DNAr 5S amplificados por PCR. Para isso foram utilizados os primers 5SA (5'- TAC GCC CGA TCT CGT CCG ATC - 3') e 5SB (5' - CAG GCT GGT ATG GCC GTA AGC - 3') (MARTINS; GALETTI, 1999) para amplificar os fragmentos a partir da solução contendo plasmídeos com a sequência de interesse. Essa região foi amplificada por uma reação de PCR (25 µL) contendo 5 µL de tampão de reação 5X, 1,5 µL MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25mM), 0,4 µL dNTP Mix (10 mM – 2,5 mM de cada nucleotídeo), 0,4 µL de cada primer (10 µM), 2 µL DNA plasmidial (300 ng/µL), 0,2 µL Taq Polimerase (5 U/µL), 0,025 mM de Tetrametilrodamina-5-dUTP e 14,3 µL de H<sub>2</sub>O Mili-Q. As condições de PCR foram: 95 °C (5 minutos), 30 ciclos de 95 °C (30 segundos), 56 °C (45 segundos), 72 °C (2 minutos), seguido de extensão final por 72 °C (7 minutos).

### 3.3.2 snRNA U2

Os fragmentos de snDNA U2 foram amplificados a partir do genoma total de *Trachelyopterus Galeatus* com auxílio dos primers U2F (5'- ATC GCT TCT CGG CCT TAT G -3') e U2R (3'- TCC CGG CGG TAC TGC AAT A -5') (BUENO et al., 2013). Essa região foi amplificada por uma reação de PCR contendo 5 µL de tampão de reação 5X, 1,5 µL MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25mM), 0,4 µL dNTP Mix (10 mM – 2,5 mM de cada nucleotídeo), 0,5 µL de cada primer (10 µM), 0,5 µL DNA genômico total (800 ng/µL), 0,2 µL Taq Polimerase (5 U/µL) e 15,8 µL de H<sub>2</sub>O Mili-Q. As condições de PCR foram: 95 °C (5 minutos), 30 ciclos de 95 °C (45 segundos), 51,7 °C (45 segundos), 72 °C (1 minuto e 20 segundos), seguido de extensão final por 72 °C (7 minutos). As sondas foram marcadas a partir de nova reação de PCR seguindo os mesmos parâmetros (25 µL de reação total para hibridação em até 12 lâminas) tendo como *template* os fragmentos isolados a partir do genoma total. A marcação foi realizada com o uso de Fluoresceína-12-dUTP (Roche) na quantidade de 0,6 µL (1mM) a ser descontada do volume de água da reação de amplificação.

### 3.3.3 Histonas H3 e H4

Os fragmentos de Histonas H3 e H4 foram amplificados a partir do genoma total de *Trachelyopterus Galeatus* com auxílio dos primers H3F (5'-ATG GCT CGT ACC AAG CAG ACV GC-3') e H3R (5' - ATG GCT CGT ACC AAG CAG ACV GC - 3') (COLGAN et al., 1998); H4F2s (5' - TSC GIG AYA ACA TYC AGG GIA TCA C - 3') e H4F2er (5'-CKY TTI AGI GCR TAI ACC ACR TCC AT-3') (PINEAU et al., 2004). Essa região foi amplificada por uma reação de PCR contendo 5 µL de tampão de reação 5X, 2,0 µL MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25mM), 0,4 µL dNTP Mix (10 mM – 2,5 mM de cada nucleotídeo), 0,5 µL de cada primer (10 µM), 0,5 µL DNA genômico total (800 ng/µL), 0,2 µL Taq Polimerase (5 U/µL) e 15,8 µL de H<sub>2</sub>O Mili-Q. As condições de PCR foram: 95 °C (5 minutos), 30 ciclos de 95 °C (30 segundos), 52 °C (45 segundos), 72 °C (1 minuto e 20 segundos), seguido de extensão final por 72 °C (7 minutos). As sondas foram marcadas a partir de nova reação de PCR seguindo os mesmos parâmetros (25 µL de reação total para hibridação em até 12 lâminas) tendo como *template* os fragmentos isolados a partir do genoma total (200ng). A marcação de ambas as sondas foi realizada com o uso de Tetrametil-Rodanina-5-dUTP (Roche) na quantidade de 0,6 µL (1mM) a ser descontada do volume de água da reação de amplificação.

### 3.3.4 Microsatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub>

Os fragmentos do microsatélite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> foram amplificados e marcados através de reação de PCR utilizando os primers como *template* de acordo com Ijdo et al. (1991). As sondas foram marcadas com Tetrametil-Rodanina-5-dUTP ou Fluroesceína-11-dUTP utilizando os primers (GATA)<sub>7</sub> e (TATC)<sub>7</sub> (Ijdo et al., 1991). A reação de marcação (12,5 µL de reação total para até 12 lâminas) foi composta por: 2,5 µL de tampão de reação 5X, 0,75 µL MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25mM), 0,25 µL dNTP Mix (10 mM – 2,5 mM de cada nucleotídeo), 1,25 µL de cada primer como *template* (10 µM), 0,1 µL Taq Polimerase (5 U/µL), 6,1 µL de H<sub>2</sub>O Mili-Q e 0,3 µL (10µM) de Tetrametil-Rodanina-5-dUTP ou Fluroesceína-11-dUTP. As condições de PCR foram: 95 °C (5 minutos), 10 ciclos de 95 °C (1 minuto), 55 °C (30 segundos), 72 °C

(1 minuto); 30 ciclos de 95 °C (1 minuto), 60 °C (30 segundos), 72 °C (1 minuto e 30 segundos) seguido de extensão final por 72 °C (7 minutos).

### **3.4 Hibridação *in situ* Fluorescente (FISH)**

#### **3.4.1 Preparo das lâminas**

A FISH foi conduzida de acordo com Pinkel et al. (1986) e Margarido e Moreira-Filho (2008) sob altas condições de estringência. Para isso, as lâminas contendo DNA cromossômico foram incubadas a 37°C em solução contendo 0.4% RNase/2xSSC em câmara úmida e escura por 60 minutos. Em seguida, foram lavadas em 2xSSC e incubadas por 45 minutos a 60°C em 2xSSC. Terminado o período, foram submetidas a série alcoólica de 70% e 100% por 5 minutos. O DNA cromossômico foi então desnaturado em 0.05M NaOH/2xSSC por 3 minutos exatos e novamente desidratado em série alcoólica 70% e 100% por 5 minutos cada. A solução de hibridação (Anexo I para concentrações) contendo as sondas foi desnaturada à 100°C por 10 minutos e submetida a choque térmico em gelo. Posteriormente, as lâminas contendo o DNA cromossômico foram incubadas por 12-14 horas em câmara úmida e escura a 37°C juntamente com 58 µL da solução de hibridação sob altas condições de estringência (200ng de cada sonda, formamida deionizada 50%, sulfato dextrano 10%, 2x SSC, pH 7.0–7.2, 37° overnight).

#### **3.4.2 Detecção do sinal de sondas marcadas por PCR**

Terminado o período de incubação (12-14 horas) com a solução de hibridação, as lâminas foram submetidas a lavagem em solução de 1xSSC a 37°C por 5 minutos. Em seguida, as lâminas foram (i) lavadas novamente em solução de 1xSSC em temperatura ambiente; (ii) lavadas duas vezes em solução de Tween 0.05%/4xSSC por 5 minutos cada; (iii) lavadas uma vez em solução 4xSSC em temperatura ambiente e (iv) mantidas em solução 1xSSC por 5 minutos. Após

secarem, as lâminas foram coradas em 25 uL de 4' 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride – DAPI (200 µl de *Antifading* + 1 µl de DAPI 0.2 mg/mL).

### 3.4.3 Detecção do sinal de sondas Marcadas por *nick-translation*

Terminado o período de incubação (12-14 horas) com a solução de hibridação, as lâminas foram submetidas a lavagem em solução de 1xSSC a 37°C por 5 minutos. Em seguida, as lâminas foram (i) lavadas novamente em solução de 1xSSC em temperatura ambiente; (ii) lavadas duas vezes em solução de Tween 0.05%/4xSSC por 5 minutos cada; (iii) incubadas em tampão NFDm por 15 minutos; (iv) lavadas duas vezes em solução de Tween 0.05%/4xSSC por 5 minutos cada. Para a detecção das sondas foram utilizadas Antidigoxi Rodamina (Roche) para sondas marcadas com *Dig-Nick-Translation Mix* (Roche) e Antibiotina Avidina – FITC (Roche) para sondas marcadas com *Biotin-Nick-Translation Mix* (Roche). Quando necessário realizou-se à amplificação do sinal de sondas marcadas por *Biotin-Nick-Translation Mix* (Roche) com auxílio de *Anti-avidin-Biotin Mix* (Roche). As lâminas foram incubadas durante 60/30 minutos em câmara úmida e escura a temperatura ambiente com o respectivo mix de detecção. Terminado o período foram (v) lavadas duas vezes em solução de Tween 0.05%/4xSSC por 5 minutos cada; (vi) lavadas uma vez em solução 4xSSC em temperatura ambiente com agitação por 5 minutos e (vii) incubadas por 5 minutos em solução 1xSSC em temperatura ambiente. Após secarem, as lâminas foram coradas com uma mistura de 25 uL contendo 4' 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride – DAPI (200 µl de *Antifading* + 1 µl de DAPI 0.2 mg/mL).

### 3.4.4 Análise das lâminas

As imagens digitais foram capturadas pelo *software* DP Controller 3.2.1.276 usando câmera digital Olympus DP71 conectada ao microscópio de epifluorescência BX61 (Olympus America Inc., Center Valley, PA, Estados Unidos da América).



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## 5. RESULTADOS

Os resultados do desenvolvimento dessa pesquisa e dissertação resultaram em dois trabalhos independentes, que são apresentados a seguir em dois capítulos: **(Capítulo I)** “*Contributions to Trachelyopterus species diagnosis by cytotaxonomic autapomorphies: from snRNA U2 chromosome polymorphism to rDNA and Histone genes synteny*” e **(Capítulo II)** “*Gene cluster as guide to physical mapping of a widely spread microsatellite: new insights about Trachelyopterus (Siluriformes, Auchenipteridae) diversity*”. Cada capítulo foi desenvolvido em língua inglesa e conta com estrutura e normatização independentes, estruturados de acordo com a revista que serão submetidos. Ao longo dos dois capítulos são discutidos aspectos relacionados a evolução cariotípica, distribuição de elementos repetitivos, evolução cromossômica, citotaxonomia e diferenciação de espécies de *Trachelyopterus*.

## CAPITULO I

Chrystian AG Haerter  
Roberto Laridondo Lui

Contributions to *Trachelyopterus* species diagnosis by cytotaxonomic autapomorphies: from snRNA U2 chromosome polymorphism to rDNA and Histone genes synteny

\*Artigo em normas de submissão à revista Chromosome Research  
Fonte e espaçamento do corpo do texto ajustados para a dissertação.  
Imagens e tabelas incluídas ao final do corpo do texto.

**Cascavel**  
**2021**

Title: Contributions to *Trachelyopterus* species diagnosis by cytotaxonomic autapomorphies: from snRNA U2 chromosome polymorphism to rDNA and Histone genes synteny

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Short Title: *Trachelyopterus* diversity through integrative mapping with repetitive elements

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**Abstract:** *Trachelyopterus* is a Neotropical catfish genus with a controversial taxonomic history due to the highly similar morphology among the species. Cytogenetically, it is still poorly explored and there is no physical mapping of repetitive elements beyond the rDNAs. Therefore, through an integrative approach with the 18S and 5S rDNA, here we describe for the first time the distribution pattern of U2 snRNA, H3 and H4 histone genes and discuss cytotaxonomic aspects of six *Trachelyopterus* species: *T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus* and *T. porosus* from the Amazonas River basin; *T. coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin; and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* from the Paraguay River basin. The 18S rDNA was found in only one chromosome pair in all species. The 5S rDNA was evidenced in 1-3 chromosome pairs. The H3 and H4 histone genes were found in 1-2 chromosome pairs, syntenic with the 18S rDNA in most species. The U2 snRNA was found in only one chromosome pair in all species, however, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* had an inversion polymorphism, which is in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and also exhibited two different homologous sizes. Cytotaxonomically, the 5S rDNA was the most efficient marker and revealed autapomorphies of four species. The synteny of H3 and H4 histone genes with the 18S rDNA was used as a single marker and revealed autapomorphies of two species, whereas the U2 snRNA distinguished only one species. As a result, all species could be distinguished, including *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, both suggested as new species.

**Keywords:** Auchenipteridae, Chromosomal inversion polymorphism, Cytotaxonomy, Neotropical region, *Parauchenipterus*

## Introduction

There is an extraordinary degree of variation in genome size among eukaryotes (Charlesworth et al. 1994; Gregory 2001). However, repetitive DNA is the major fraction for most organisms (Bostock 1980; Charlesworth et al. 1994; Flynn et al. 2018), which can be repeated hundreds or thousands of times and may represent more than half of the nucleus's total DNA content (Biscotti et al. 2015). It includes tandem repeats (satellites, minisatellites, and microsatellites), multigene families (ribosomal DNA, histone genes and small nuclear RNAs) and interspersed “selfish” repeats, collectively known as transposable elements (TEs) (Charlesworth et al. 1994; Kidwell 2002; Sumner 2003; López-Flores and Garrido-Ramos 2012).

The repetitive nature and high variability rates of repeated sequences compared to single-copy elements generally increase the differences between species and make them a valuable tool to understand evolutionary aspects (Garrido-Ramos 2017; Pereira et al. 2020). In fish, repetitive cytogenetic markers have allowed better characterization of the biodiversity and karyoevolution of the ichthyofauna (Vicari et al. 2010). They can be used to identify karyotype rearrangements and diversity (e.g. Blanco et al. 2017; Santos et al. 2019), the origin and evolution of B chromosomes (e.g. Malimpensa et al. 2018; Coan et al. 2018; Felicetti et al. 2021), heteromorphic sex chromosome systems (e.g. Bertollo et al. 2004; Blanco et al. 2014; Schemberger et al. 2019), non-sexual chromosome polymorphisms (Traldi et al. 2016) and to contribute to taxonomic and phylogenetic conflicts (Blanco et al. 2011; Da Silva et al. 2020). However, most mapping studies in fish have focused on ribosomal genes (Gornung, 2013) and there is still a lack of information about other types of sequence (Utsunomia et al. 2014).

Histone genes are ubiquitous sequences in eukaryote genomes. Their products (H1, H2A, H2B, H3, H4 and the linker histone H1) are highly conserved and organize the DNA into its fundamental unit, the nucleosome (Hentschel and Birnstiel 1981; Eirín-López et al. 2009). Cytogenetically, histone genes sites are usually found clustered and/or colocalized in one or two chromosome pairs (Piscor and Parise-Maltempì 2016), although scattered arrays have also been reported (e.g. Utsunomia et al. 2014; Costa et al. 2014; Traldi et al. 2019). Furthermore, they may also be co-located with ribosomal DNA, as can be seen with the 5S rDNA (e.g. Silva et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2014; Piscor and Parise-Maltempì 2016) or the 18S rDNA (e.g. Hashimoto et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2014; Nascimento et al. 2020). In fish, studies with histone genes are still scarce (e.g.



Pendás et al. 1994; Malimpensa et al. 2018; Traldi et al. 2019; Malimpensa et al. 2020) and there is a great lack of knowledge about their organization and distribution patterns (Hashimoto et al. 2013).

Small nuclear RNA sequences (snRNAs) are the main components of the spliceosome machinery. It consists of five types of non-coding RNAs (U1, U2, U4, U5 and U6), directly related to the splicing process of mRNA precursors (Nilsen 2003; Valadkhan 2005; Wahl et al. 2009; Will and Lührmann 2011). In fish, the snRNAs have been poorly explored and are restricted mainly to U1 and U2 (e.g. Merlo et al. 2012; Utsunomia et al. 2014; Usso et al. 2018). Some species have shown a highly conserved distribution pattern of these snRNAs (e.g. Ponzio et al. 2018); however, this multigene family can be remarkably variable in both location and number of pairs (e.g. Utsunomia et al. 2014; Pucci et al. 2018) and can be found clustered (e.g. Cabral-de-Mello et al. 2012; Yano et al. 2017; Pucci et al. 2018) or scattered throughout the genome (e.g. Úbeda-Manzanaro et al. 2010; Palacios-Gimenez et al. 2013; Anjos et al. 2015). The colocalization between snRNAs and rDNAs has been reported in different organisms (e.g. Pelliccia et al. 2001; Cross and Rebordinos 2005; Manchado et al. 2006; Vierna et al. 2011), but only a few fish species have exhibited the synteny between U2 snRNA and rDNA (e.g. Manchado et al. 2006; Úbeda-Manzanaro et al. 2010; Merlo et al. 2012). Furthermore, they can also be found in sex chromosomes (e.g. Palacios-Gimenez et al. 2013) and B chromosomes (e.g. Bueno et al. 2013).

Auchenipteridae, known as the driftwood catfish family, is one of the most representative groups of Siluriformes in the neotropics. It is restricted but widely distributed in South America and consists of 125 species divided into 26 genera (Fricke et al. 2021). Among them, with 17 valid species (Fricke et al. 2021), *Trachelyopterus* is known to have highly similar morphology, a great obstacle in identifying characters that can be used to distinguish them. As a result, the genus has a long and controversial taxonomic history and several revisions have been carried out (e.g. Akama, 2004; Calegari et al. 2019). Cytogenetically, *Trachelyopterus* is one of the most studied genera of Auchenipteridae. However, only a few species have been studied and the cytogenetic aspects reflect the morphological similarity, since not many differences among the species have been found so far. Currently, the genus has only been studied using classic cytogenetic techniques (Giemsa, C-Band and Ag-NORs), 18S and 5S rDNA, telomeric probes and the Simple Sequence Repeats SSR - (GATA)<sub>n</sub> (e.g. Fenocchio and Bertollo 1992; Ravedutti and Júlio Jr 2001; Fenocchio et al. 2008;

Lui et al. 2010; Araújo and Molina 2013; Lui et al. 2013; Lui et al. 2015, Lui et al. 2021, Santos et al. 2021; Felicetti et al. 2021). Furthermore, as most fish species, there is no information about snRNA or histone genes distribution pattern. Consequently, there are taxonomic problems still unresolved and *Trachelyopterus* species remain weakly differentiated even through cytogenetic analysis.

Considering that the chromosomal markers investigated until then revealed greater similarity than differences, as well as the gap of information for most species, we decided to apply to *Trachelyopterus* species markers not yet described (histone genes H3 and H4 and snRNA U2) integrated with previously performed markers (18S rDNA, 5S rDNA). We intended to test whether the integrative mapping of multiple markers could expose unknown chromosomal arrangements and improve the understanding of the *Trachelyopterus* species diversity through a cytotaxonomic approach.

## Materials and Methods

Six species of *Trachelyopterus* from different Brazilian basins were cytogenetically analyzed (Tab 01). Four species are formally described and two are suggested as possible new species: *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (cited as *Trachelyopterus galeatus* - suggested in Santos et al. 2021) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (cited as *Trachelyopterus* sp. n. - suggested in Akama 2004) (SISBio license nº 49379-1). The genomic DNA was extracted from the liver of *Trachelyopterus galeatus* according to the method of Sambrook et al. (2001) and used to generate the U2 snRNA, H3 and H4 histone genes probes.

The 18S rDNA fragments were amplified with the primers NS1 and NS8 (White et al. 1990) directly from a plasmid solution (Hatanaka and Galetti Jr. 2004), labeled with Biotin-16-dUTP (Bio-Nick-Translation, Roche) according to manufacturer's instructions and detected with Antibiotin-Avidin-FITC / Antiavidin-Biotin (Roche). The 5S rDNA fragments were amplified with the primers 5SA and 5SB directly from a plasmid solution (Martins and Galetti Jr. 1999), labeled through PCR in a final volume of 25 µL, containing 200 ng of genomic DNA, 0.2 µM of each primer, 0.16 mM of dNTPs mix (Roche), 1U of Taq DNA polymerase (GoTaq® DNA Polymerase - Promega), 1.5 mM of magnesium chloride, 5x Buffer (Colorless GoTaq® Reaction Buffer - Promega), 0.025 mM of Tetramethyl-Rhodamine-5-dUTP and distilled water. The PCR cycle

conditions for the 5S rDNA were: (i) 95°C (5 minutes); (ii) 30 cycles at 95°C (30 sec), 56°C (45 min) 72°C (2 min); and (iv) final extension cycle at 72°C (7 min).

The histone genes H3 and H4 fragments were amplified from *T. galeatus* genome with the primers H3F and H3R (Colgan et al. 1998); and H4F2s and H4F2er (Pineau et al. 2004). The H3 and H4 histone probes were amplified and labeled through PCR in a final volume of 25 µL, containing 200 ng of DNA, 0.2 µM of each primer, 0.16 mM of dNTPs mix (Roche), 1 U of Taq DNA polymerase (GoTaq® DNA Polymerase - Promega), 2.0 mM of magnesium chloride, 5x Buffer (Colorless GoTaq® Reaction Buffer - Promega), 0.025 µM of Tetramethyl-Rhodamine-5-dUTP (Roche) and distilled water. PCR cycle conditions were: (i) 95°C (5 minutes); (ii) 30 cycles at 95°C (30 sec), 52°C (45 sec), 72°C (1 min 20 sec); and (iii) final extension cycle at 72°C (7 min).

The U2 snRNA fragments were amplified from *T. galeatus* genome with the primers U2F and U2R (Bueno et al. 2013). The U2 snRNA probes were amplified and labeled through PCR in a final volume of 25 µL, containing 200 ng of DNA, 0.2 µM of each primer, 0.16 mM of dNTPs mix (Roche), 1 U of Taq DNA polymerase (GoTaq® DNA Polymerase - Promega), 1.5 mM of magnesium chloride, 5x Buffer (Colorless GoTaq® Reaction Buffer - Promega), 0.025 µM of Fluorescein-12-dUTP (Roche) and distilled water. PCR cycle conditions were: (i) 95°C (5 minutes); (ii) 30 cycles at 95°C (45 sec), 51,7°C (45 sec), 72°C (1 min 20 sec); and (iii) final extension cycle at 72°C (7 min).

The PCR products of H3 and H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA were sequenced in both ways, forward and reverse, using the ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer with the BigDye Terminator v3.1 and Cycle Sequencing Kit (code 4337456). The sequences were analyzed by the Sequencing Analysis software 5.3.1 using the Base Caller KB. The nucleotide composition and identities were confirmed using BLASTn 2.11.0 (National Center for Biotechnology Information) (Altschul et al. 1997) using the consensus sequence generated by the Bioedit Sequence Alignment Editor (Hall 1999).

For the cytogenetic analyses, the specimens were treated with a 0.02% colchicine solution (1 mL/100g of body weight) 30-40 min before the euthanizing process by clove oil overdose (Griffiths 2000a) (according to the ethics committee on animal experimentation and practical classes at Unioeste: 09/13 - CEEAAP / Unioeste). The mitotic chromosomes were obtained from anterior kidney cells (Bertollo et al. 1978). The chromosome morphology was classified according to Levan et al. (1964). Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) was carried out according to Pinkel et

al. (1986) with modifications suggested by Margarido and Moreira-Filho (2008). Stringency of 77% was used for all hybridization processes (200 ng of each probe, 50% formamide, 10% dextran sulfate, 2xSSC, pH 7.0 - 7.2, at 37°C overnight). The images were captured by the DP Controller 3.2.1.276 software using an Olympus DP71 digital camera connected to the BX61 epifluorescence microscope (Olympus America Inc., Center Valley, PA, United States of America). The Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) and Chi-squared test were performed using the Hardy-Weinberg (HW) testing program (Santos et al. 2020).

## Results

### DNA sequence analysis

The DNA sequencing of the H3 histone gene resulted in a 415-bp consensus sequence, which had approximately 91.35% similarity with the *Pimelodus microstoma* (Siluriformes: Pimelodidae) H3 histone gene (Sequence ID: MT094432.1). The H4 histone gene resulted in a 254-bp consensus sequence, which had 90.09% similarity with the *Pimelodus microstoma* H4 histone gene (MT094433.1). The U2 snRNA resulted in a 197-bp consensus sequence and 97.84 % similarity with the *Parabotia fasciatus* (Cypriniformes: Botiidae) U2 snRNA gene (Sequence ID: MG874999.1).

### Cytogenetic Analysis

*Trachelyopterus porosus* from the Amazonas River basin had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (Fig. 1a). The 18S rDNA sites were found clustered in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23. FISH with 5S rDNA probes revealed sites in the interstitial position of the short arm of the metacentric chromosome pair 3 and terminal position of the short arm of the metacentric chromosome pair 4. The U2 snRNA sites were found in the terminal position of the short arm of the acrocentric chromosome pair 26. FISH with H3 and H4 histone genes probes revealed sites in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23, colocalized with the 18S rDNA, and in the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 24. There were no differences between

males and females. The B chromosomes of this population, recently described (Felicetti et al. 2021), did not present any of the mapped sequences.

*Trachelyopterus coriaceus* from the Araguaia River basin had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (Fig. 1b). The 18S rDNA sites were found clustered in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23. FISH with 5S rDNA probes revealed sites in the terminal position of the short arm of the metacentric chromosome pair 3 and long arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 16. FISH with U2 snRNA probes revealed sites in the terminal position of the short arm of the acrocentric chromosome pair 28. Both H3 and H4 histone genes were only found in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23, co-localized with 18S rDNA. No differences between males and females were revealed.

*Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (*Trachelyopterus* sp. n. according to Akama 2004) from the Bento Gomes River basin had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (Fig. 1c). The 18S rDNA sites were found clustered in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 22. FISH with 5S rDNA probes revealed sites in the interstitial position of the long arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 16 and terminal position of the short arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 18. FISH with U2 snRNA probes revealed sites in the terminal position on the short arm of the acrocentric chromosome pair 27. Both H3 and H4 histone genes were found only in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23. No differences between males and females were revealed. The B chromosomes of this population, recently described (Felicetti et al. 2021), did not present any of the mapped sequences.

*Trachelyopterus striatulus* from the Doce River basin had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (Fig. 2a). The 18S rDNA sites were found clustered in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23. FISH with 5S rDNA probes revealed sites in the interstitial position of the long arm of the submetacentric chromosome pairs 10 and 15, and in the interstitial position of the short arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 13. The U2 snRNA sites were found in the terminal position of the short arm of the acrocentric chromosome pair 28. FISH with H3 and H4 histone genes probes revealed sites in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 23, co-localized with 18S rDNA, and in the short arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 18. No differences between males and females were revealed.

*Trachelyopterus galeatus* from the Amazonas River basin had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (Fig. 2b). The 18S rDNA sites were found clustered in terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 20. FISH with 5S rDNA probes revealed sites in terminal position of the short arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 14 and long arm of the submetacentric chromosome pair 16. FISH with U2 snRNA probes revealed sites in terminal position of the short arm of the acrocentric chromosome pair 28. Both H3 and H4 histone genes were found in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 20, co-localized with 18S rDNA, and in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 21. No differences between males and females were revealed. The B chromosomes of this population, recently described (Lui et al. 2021), did not present any of the mapped sequences.

*Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (Fig. 2c). FISH with 18S rDNA probes revealed clustered sites in the terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pair 24. The 5S rDNA probes revealed sites in the interstitial position of the long arm of the metacentric chromosome pair 3. Both H3 and H4 histone genes were found in terminal position of the short arm of the subtelocentric chromosome pairs 24 and 25. For this species, the U2 snRNA sites were found in chromosome pair 26. However, it has shown a polymorphism with two different organizations of U2 snRNA in the chromosome: clustered U2 snRNA sites in interstitial position of the short arm of the chromosome (A form) and clustered U2 snRNA sites in interstitial position (proximal) of the long arm of the chromosome (B form). Three combinations of these polymorphic chromosomes were found (Fig. 2b): (AA) both chromosomes with clustered U2 snRNA sites in interstitial position of the short arm; (AB) one chromosome with clustered U2 snRNA sites in interstitial position of the short arm and one chromosome with clustered U2 snRNA sites in interstitial position (proximal) of the long arm; and (BB) both chromosomes with clustered U2 snRNA sites in interstitial position (proximal) of the long arm. The frequency of AA form was 10 individuals (03 males and 07 females), AB form had 05 individuals (02 males and 03 females) and BB form had 01 individual (female). The Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) and Chi-squared test value was 0.116 (Df = 2;  $p < 0.05$ ). Furthermore, the chromosome with U2 snRNA in the short arm presented an acrocentric morphology and a smaller size compared to the chromosome with the U2 snRNA in the long arm, which had a subtelocentric

morphology and a larger size. No differences between males and females were revealed.

## Discussion

The diploid number of 58 chromosomes and small karyotype formula differences were found for all analyzed species and confirmed previously results (Fig. 1, 2). Although divergent results can be seen in *Ageneiosus inermis* with 56 chromosomes (Fenocchio and Bertollo 1992; Lui et al. 2013) and in *Centromochlus heckelii* with 46 chromosomes (Kowalski et al. 2020), the diploid number of 58 chromosomes might be a plesiomorphic trait of Auchenipteridae catfishes (e.g., Lui et al. 2013; Lui et al. 2015; Felicetti 2018; Santos et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021), as even most species of Doradidae, sister-group of Auchenipteridae (Sullivan et al. 2006; Nelson et al. 2016), have this same diploid number (e.g., Eler et al. 2007; Milhomem et al. 2008; Baumgärtner et al. 2016; Takagui et al. 2017, 2019). Although the presence of previously described B chromosomes (Felicetti et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021) was notable, none of the markers were found on them.

As well as the diploid number, the 18S rDNA and 5S rDNA distribution pattern confirmed previously described results (Fig. 1, 2; Tab. 2). The 18S rDNA sites were found in terminal position of the short arm of only one chromosome pair, whereas the 5S rDNA sites were found in 1-3 chromosome pairs (Lui et al. 2013; Lui et al. 2015; Felicetti 2018; Santos et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021). In contrast to some species of the sister-group Doradidae (Baumgärtner et al. 2018; Takagui et al. 2019), there was no synteny between the rDNAs in these species of Auchenipteridae. Although multiple Ag-NORs have already been reported in Auchenipteridae (Kowalski et al. 2021), these *Trachelyopterus* species have a very conservative 18S rDNA distribution pattern, usually with only one chromosomal pair, and small differences in the chromosome morphology and karyotype position, typically associated to non-Robertsonian rearrangements (Lui et al. 2010; Santos et al. 2021) or amplification events. Unlike the 18S rDNA, the 5S rDNA has been shown to be more diverse. Commonly, the 5S rDNA sites are found in two chromosome pairs, as can be seen in *T. galeatus*, *T. coriaceus* (Santos et al. 2021), *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (cited as *Trachelyopterus* sp.) (Lui et al. 2021) and *T. porosus* (Felicetti 2018). Nevertheless, two species with different numbers of 5S rDNA chromosome carriers have been recently reported: *T. striatulus*

with three chromosome pairs and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia basin (suggested as possible new species) with only one chromosome pair (Santos et al. 2021).

The 5S rDNA and 18S rDNA patterns have contributed to several studies about diversity, taxonomy and evolution of Auchenipteridae (e.g. Lui et al. 2010; Araújo and Molina 2013; Lui et al. 2013; Lui et al. 2015; Kowalski et al. 2020; Lui et al. 2021; Santos et al. 2021). However, new markers besides the rDNA are essential to improve the capacity to distinguish species, since they were very alike even in the genome composition and classic cytogenetic and ribosomal markers were unable to distinguish all of them. So, the results we discuss henceforth reflect the efficiency of integrative mapping to expose unknown chromosomal arrangements, which are impossible to visualize when classic cytogenetic and usual markers are seen in an isolated perspective.

### **Interaction patterns between Histone genes H3, H4 and the 18S rDNA**

Cytogenetically, the histone genes distribution pattern can be widely variable. Most species have been found with simple (e.g. Cabral-de-Mello et al. 2011; Neto et al. 2013) or multiple sites (e.g. Carrilho et al. 2011; Rincão et al. 2020), but dispersal arrays throughout the chromosomes have also been reported (Utsunomia et al. 2014; Traldi et al. 2019). In *Trachelyopterus*, both histones H3 and H4 were found colocalized and clustered in one (*Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *T. coriaceus*) or two chromosome pairs (*T. galeatus* from Amazon basin, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia basin, *T. striatulus* and *T. porosus*) with preference for terminal position in the short arm of the chromosomes (Fig. 1, 2). In addition, the combined mapping revealed the existence of synteny between the H3 and H4 histone genes and the 18S rDNA (Fig. 1, 2), except in *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus*. All species had subtelocentric carriers of the histone genes, except *T. striatulus* (Fig. 2a) that exhibited one submetacentric pair (13) and one subtelocentric pair (23), possibly related to non-Robertsonian rearrangements or amplification events. In Neotropical fish, little is known about the histone genes distribution pattern, but simple/multiple sites are the most recurrent so far (e.g. Pendás et al. 1994; Hashimoto et al. 2011; 2013; Piscor and Parise-Maltempi 2016), which now also includes these *Trachelyopterus* species.



In Neotropical fish, the colocalization of H3 and H4 as well as the occurrence of single locus or a few loci are a recurrent pattern, as can be seen in Pimelodidae (Malimpensa et al. 2018), Parodontidae (Pucci et al. 2018), *Characidium* (Pansonato-Alves et al. 2013a), Loricariidae (Pansonato-Alves et al. 2013b) and *Astyanax* (Silva et al. 2013). On the other hand, the synteny between histone genes and the 18S rDNA are not usual in Neotropical fish. It is commonly found with the 5S rDNA (e.g. Pansonato-Alves et al. 2013b; Silva et al. 2013; Piscor and Parise-Maltempi 2016; Malimpensa et al. 2018) whereas with the 18S rDNA the synteny appear less frequently (e.g. Hashimoto et al. 2013; Nascimento et al. 2020). Furthermore, the colocalization of histone genes and the 18S rDNA in the same chromosome arm found in these *Trachelyopterus* species agree with the hypothesis of clustering of housekeeping genes. When a gene is expressed in most tissues and with high expression rates, it might show strong clustering, which apparently is responsible for increases in the expression rate (Lercher et al. 2002). It was proposed based on humans but was also used to explain colocalization in a closer fish species, *Bergiaria westermanni* (Pimelodidae, Siluriformes) (Malimpensa et al. 2018).

### **The role of pericentric inversion into snRNA U2 chromosome polymorphism and size difference**

The *Trachelyopterus* species analyzed presented the U2 snRNA clustered in only one chromosome pair with preference for terminal position of the short arm, which seems to be homeologous chromosomes among all species (Fig. 1, 2). The highly conserved distribution pattern of the U2 snRNA found in *Trachelyopterus* seems not to be an exclusive characteristic of the genus but a commonly feature of fish genomes so far, since most species tend to have a strong conservation in the number of sites and to accumulate exclusively within only one chromosomal pair (e.g. Piscor et al. 2016; Yano et al. 2017; Pucci et al. 2018; Ussó et al. 2018). Despite the conserved U2 snRNA pattern of all species, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin presented a non-related to sex chromosome polymorphism (Fig. 2c).

The most parsimonious hypothesis to explain the *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* U2 snRNA polymorphism origin is related to a pericentric chromosome inversion; followed by chromosome size differentiation owing to accumulation of sequences/amplification and/or duplications (See Hoffman et al. 2004; Hoffmann and

Rieseberg 2008). This type of chromosome polymorphism does not affect the diploid number but can have an impact on the chromosome morphology and gene position (Andolfatto et al. 2001; Hoffman et al. 2004). These two characteristics can be seen in *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin: (1) the same diploid number ( $2n=58$ ) of all other genus species and (2) different chromosome morphology, size and position of the gene.

Chromosomal inversions were first described in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Sturtevant 1917). Since then, they are the topic of many analysis (Corbett-Detig and Hartl 2012) and have long been implicated as drivers of evolutionary change (Hoffmann et al. 2004; Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008; Kirkpatrick 2010; Kirkpatrick 2017; Wellenreuther and Bernatchez 2018; Kapun and Flatt 2019). Although the natural selection mechanisms that affect the inversion process remain unknown (Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008; Corbett-Detig and Hartl 2012), many studies reported that it may play different roles in the evolution process (Corbett-Detig and Hartl 2012; Wellenreuther and Bernatchez 2018); including the reallocation of genes along a chromosome (Andolfatto et al. 2001). Small inversions are the most recurrent events, but recent genomic-based studies have shown that large inversions are also frequent and can correspond to a substantial proportion of the entire genome (Wellenreuther and Bernatchez 2018). As example, all inversions found in *D. melanogaster* can represent 43% of the genome (Wellenreuther and Bernatchez 2018). Usually the inversion polymorphisms are related to paracentric inversions, but they can also be a product of pericentric inversions (Krimbas et al. 1992; Hoffmann et al. 2004). They occur when a large inverted region of a chromosome segregates within populations with its non-inverted counterpart (Hoffmann et al. 2004). Therefore, the polymorphism found for *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* might be a new case of such chromosome rearrangement: a pericentric chromosome inversion polymorphism.

Since the A form can be found in all other *Trachelyopterus* species, the size difference between the homologous appears to be related to the increase of the chromosome form B, implying that it is a derived trait. The sequence accumulation/duplication that possibly determined the size difference between the homologous chromosomes may be explained by two consequences of the chromosome rearrangement: (1) reduced frequency of recombination and crossing-over between homologous and (2) inverted chromosomal loops during the cell reproduction cycle (see Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1973; Griffiths et al. 2000b;

Hoffmann et al. 2004; Kirkpatrick 2010; Torgasheva and Borodin 2010; Kapun and Flatt 2019). These consequences are related mainly to the heterozygote. It can inhibit or cause a (1) dramatic reduction in the frequency of recombination and crossing-over between 'standard' and inverted arrangements (Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1973; Griffiths et al. 2000b; Hoffmann et al. 2004; Kirkpatrick 2010; Kapun and Flatt 2019). As a result, the difference between the chromosomes also tends to increase, including the accumulation of repetitive sequences/duplications that can lead to size differences, as can be seen in *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*. Furthermore, to minimize the effects of differences between homologous chromosomes, heterozygotes tend to form (2) inverted chromosomal loops during mitosis and meiosis, which may allow the polymorphism to exist in the genome but can also increase the differences between the homologous chromosomes (Griffiths et al. 2000b; Torgasheva and Borodin 2010). Pairing events in pericentric inversions can produce four products: two chromosomes with the standard and inverted gene order and two duplication and/or deletion products, leading to the generation of inviable gametes. The outcome could be the selective recovery of non-cross-over chromosomes leading to viable progeny and consequently maintenance of the polymorphism (reviewed by Wellenreuther and Bernatchez 2018).

When a chromosome inversion polymorphism emerges in a population, it can follow several ways. One of them is the maintenance of the new trait within the population. The maintenance might be a consequence of six main hypothesis: (1) reduced recombination and local selection, (2) reduced recombination and epistatic selection, (3) inversion itself is under selection, (4) inversion is neutral (5) overdominance and (6) underdominance (see Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008). The U2 snRNA inversion polymorphism of *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* was found in Hardy-Weinberg (HWE) equilibrium ( $\chi^2 = 0.116$ ; Df = 2;  $p < 0.05$ ) and may be better explained by the (4) neutrality of the rearrangement, as it suggests that there is no change in adaptability between the genotypes in this population and it does not seem to affect the host fitness positively or negatively. The same traits could also be seen in water beetles (Aradottir and Angus 2004) and in blackflies (Kuvangkadilok et al. 2003), in which intraspecific variation in chromosomal rearrangements largely follows Hardy-Weinberg (HW) equilibrium, suggesting that there is no strong selection on the rearrangements. In this state, the inversion polymorphism behaves like a neutral

marker and depends essentially on genetic drift and migration between populations (Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008).

### **Integrative mapping contributions to *Trachelyopterus* taxonomy and diversity**

*Trachelyopterus* is an enigmatic genus due to high morphology similarity and controversial taxonomic history (Akama 2004; Calegari et al. 2019). Most differences identified in previous research (classic cytogenetic, 18S rDNA and 5S rDNA) are mainly related to the chromosome pair number in the karyotype; therefore, in this approach we will not focus on it, since we understand that the karyotypes are assembled by different authors and the high similarity between the species can lead to inconsistencies that make it difficult to use as strong cytotaxonomic features. The aspects we discuss henceforth will consider mainly autapomorphies and synapomorphies with potential to be used as cytotaxonomic traits not only in *Trachelyopterus* but also in other species/genera of Auchenipteridae. The discussion will be focused only on the species of this study because there is no data about these new markers for any other population/species in Auchenipteridae and even for the superfamily Doradoidea.

Cytotaxonomically, the 18S rDNA was the less efficient repetitive element in *Trachelyopterus* due to the presence of only one chromosomal pair carrier with mostly differences in the karyotype position; and the histone genes were able only to distinguish *T. striatulus*, with one submetacentric pair. However, the syntenic interaction with the histone genes (H3 and H4) revealed new autapomorphies that turned both markers into a valuable tool to distinguish these *Trachelyopterus* species. The combination of 18S rDNA and H3/H4 histone genes divided the species into four classes: (1) only one subtelocentric chromosome pair with the 18S rDNA in synteny with the H3 and H4 histone genes (*T. coriaceus*); (2) a subtelocentric chromosome pair with the 18S rDNA and another chromosome pair with the H3 and H4 histones genes (*Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus*); (3) one subtelocentric chromosome pair carrying 18S rDNA in synteny with the H3 and H4 histones genes and a second subtelocentric chromosome pair carrying the H3 and H4 genes histones (*T. porosus*, *Trachelyopterus galeatus* from Amazon River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia River basin) and (4) one subtelocentric chromosome pair with the 18S rDNA in synteny with the H3 and H4 histone genes and a second pair of chromosomes with the H3 and

H4 histone genes, but submetacentric (*T. striatulus*) (Tab. 2). *Trachelyopterus coriaceus*, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus striatulus* could be distinguished with this combination of markers. Curiously, *T. coriaceus* from Araguaia River diverged from *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* from Bento River (suggested as a new species), which did not have the same syntenic pattern with the 18S rDNA. Nevertheless, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin, *T. galeatus* from the Amazon River basin and *T. porosus* were still gathered in the same group, demonstrating that only these three markers were still not enough to differentiate all species.

On the other hand, the U2 snRNA has been less efficient and divided the species into only two classes: (1) presence of the chromosome inversion polymorphism (*Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia River basin) or (2) absence of the chromosome inversion polymorphism (*T. coriaceus*, *T. porosus*, *T. striatulus*, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *T. galeatus* from Amazon River basin) (Tab. 2). However, unlike the 18S rDNA and histone genes, the U2 snRNA was able to separate the *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (Araguaia River basin) from *T. galeatus* (Amazonas River basin) and *T. porosus*. Particularly, the presence of U2 snRNA chromosome polymorphism were found only in the *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia River (suggested as new species) whereas *T. galeatus* from Amazonas River basin had the same pattern as the other species. In this scenario, using the chromosomal physical mapping with 18S rDNA, H3 and H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA, five species would be distinguished. However, they would not be sufficient to distinguish the six species in the sample, since *T. galeatus* (Amazonas River basin) and *Trachelyopterus porosus* would still be gathered in the same group even after the combination of five chromosomal markers through repetitive elements.

In this way, the 5S rDNA was one of the most efficient cytogenetic markers in *Trachelyopterus* species. It was able to distinguish *T. porosus* from *T. galeatus* (Amazon River basin) and divided the species into five classes: (1) one chromosome pair with the sites in the short arm and a second chromosome pair with the sites in the long arm, both submetacentric (*T. galeatus* from Amazonas River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus*); (2) one metacentric chromosome pair with the sites in the short arm and a second submetacentric chromosome pair with the sites in the long arm (*T. coriaceus*); (3) two metacentric chromosome pairs with sites in the long arm (*T. porosus*); (4) only one submetacentric chromosome pair with sites in the short arm

(*Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia River basin); and (5) three submetacentric chromosome pairs, two with sites in the short arm and one with sites in the long arm (*T. striatulus*) (Tab. 2). Nevertheless, the 5S rDNA was not able to differentiate *T. galeatus* from Amazonas River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus*, but the U2 snRNA and 18S rDNA integrated with histone genes H3 and H4 could do it, reinforcing the importance of all markers in cytotaxonomic diagnosis of these *Trachelyopterus* species. As a final result, all species including *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* were differentiated by the combination of 18S rDNA, histone genes, U2 snRNA and 5S rDNA.

Thus, since all species were distinguished, the aspects evidenced by the integrative mapping allowed us to infer new insights about *Trachelyopterus* diversity. Among them: (1) reiterate the existence of a possible new species, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia River basin, suggested by Santos et al. (2021) based previously on ribosomal marker; (2) corroborate with the hypothesis of synonymy between *Parauchenipterus* and *Trachelyopterus*, since the species of the genus *Trachelyopterus* (see Akama 2004) proved to be more similar to *Parauchenipterus* species than between itself; and that (3) the sample of our study identified by morphology as *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* may in fact constitute a new species, which were proposed to be found in the Paraná and Paraguay rivers basins (the population of this study is from Paraguay River basin) (see Akama 2004).

## Conclusions

The mapping of U2 snRNA and H3/H4 histone genes is unprecedented for the superfamily Doradoidea. The integrative mapping data allowed us to distinguish all species in this study, including the suggested new ones, which was not possible until then with ribosomal markers and classic cytogenetic. Furthermore, our data revealed the existence of a unique inversion chromosome polymorphism in Auchenipteridae and reiterated the synonymy of *Parauchenipterus* with *Trachelyopterus*. The same approach also reiterated the existence of a possible new species proposed by Santos et al. (2021), as well as another unpublished species initially proposed by Akama (2004). So, integrative mapping seems to be promising in *Trachelyopterus* and has potential for other Auchenipteridae species. It can contribute significantly to future

taxonomic reviews, studies about evolutionary aspects and genome architecture/organization.

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## Figures

**Fig. 1** Karyotypes of *Trachelyopterus porosus* (a), *T. galeatus coriaceus* (b) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (c). m: metacentric; sm: submetacentric; st: subtelocentric; a: acrocentric. Probes: 5S rDNA and snDNA U2 (green signal); 18S rDNA and Histone genes H3/H4 (red signal). Bar=5  $\mu$ m

**Fig. 2** Karyotypes of *T. striatulus* (a), *T. galeatus* (b) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (c). m: metacentric; sm: submetacentric; st: subtelocentric; a: acrocentric. Probes: 5S rDNA and snRNA U2 (green signal); and 18S rDNA and Histone genes H3/H4 (red signal)  $\mu$ m. Bar=5  $\mu$ m

## Tables

**Tab. 1** *Trachelyopterus* species and number of individuals hybridized with 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, snRNA U2, Histones H3 and H4. PERD – Parque Estadual do rio Doce; AM: Amazonas GO – Goiás; MT – Mato Grosso; MG – Minas Gerais; GPS: Global Positioning System; HB – Hydrographic Basin; A – Araguaia; PA – Paraná; PG – Paraguai; SF – São Francisco; C – Costeira; INPA: Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia; MZUSP – Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo; NUP - Núcleo de Pesquisas em Limnologia, Ictiologia e Aquicultura da Universidade Estadual de Maringá

**Tab. 2** Cytogenetic data available for *Trachelyopterus* species. FN: fundamental number; 2n: diploid number; Ref.: References; m: metacentric; sm: submetacentric; st: subtelocentric; a: acrocentric; p: short arm; q: long arm; GO: Góias state; AM: Amazonas state; PR: Paraná state; MS: Mato Grosso do Sul state; RN: Rio Grande do Norte state; PY: Paraguay. References: 1. Santos et al. (2021); 2. Felicetti et al. (2018); 3. Ravedutti and Júlio Jr (2001); 4. Lui et al. (2010); 5. Araújo and Molina (2013); 6. Lui et al. (2021); 7. Present study

## Declarations

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## Conflicts of interest/Competing interests

The authors have no conflicts of interest/competing interest to declare

## Availability of data and material

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, RLL, upon reasonable request. It can also be found partially within the article and specific public repository

### **Code availability**

Not applicable

### **Authors' contributions**

All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by CAGH and RLL. The first draft of the manuscript was written by CAGH and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript

### **Ethics approval**

Fish collections were authorized by Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio, Permit number 49379-1), and the experimental procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Experimentation and Practical Classes at Unioeste (09/13-CEEAAP/Unioeste)

### **Consent to participate**

Not applicable

### **Consent for publication**

Not applicable

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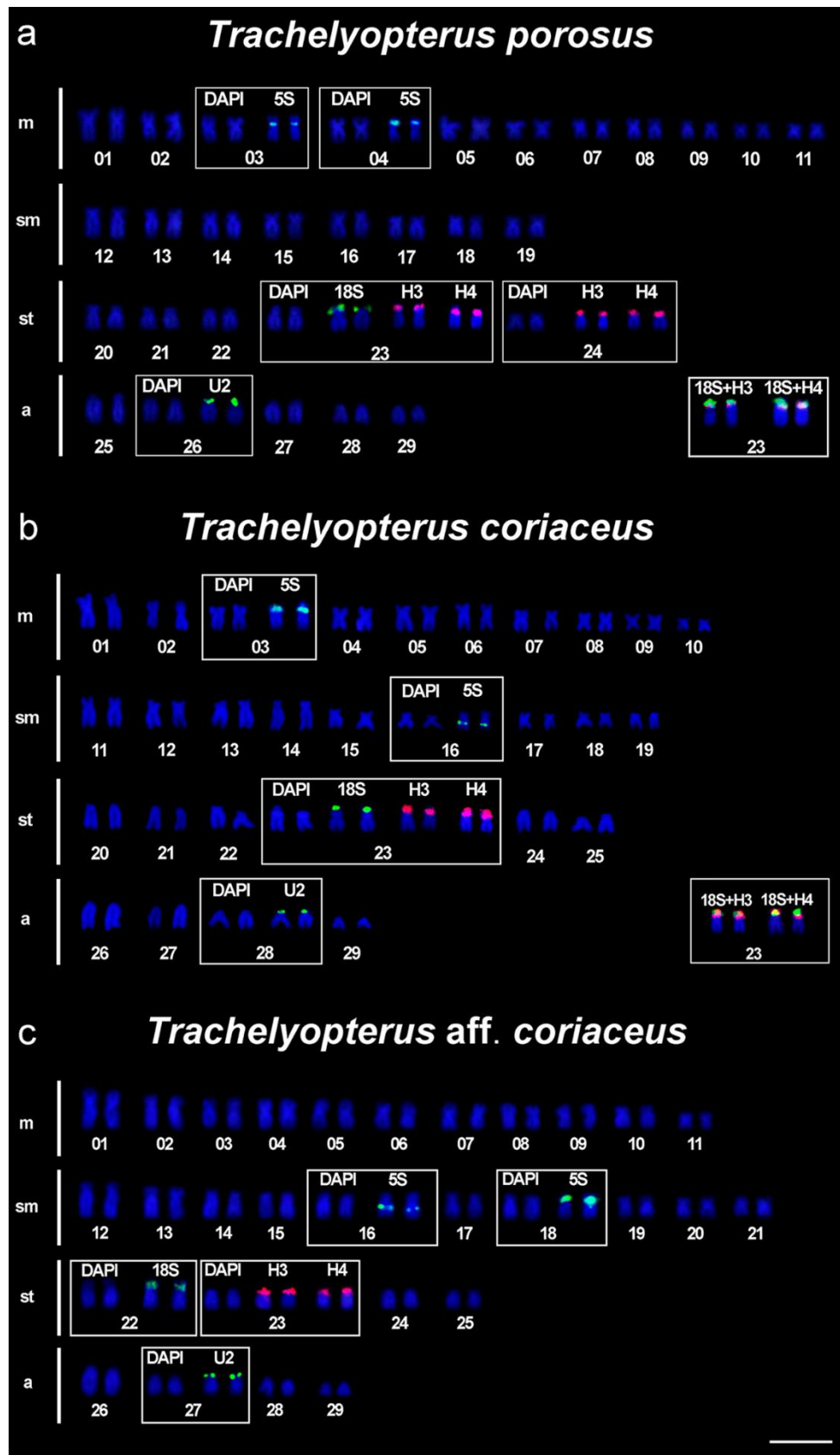
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**Tab 1.** *Trachelyopterus* species and number of individuals hybridized with 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, snRNA U2, Histones H3 and H4. \*PERD – Parque Estadual do rio Doce; AM: Amazonas GO – Goiás; MT – Mato Grosso; MG – Minas Gerais; GPS: Global Positioning System; INPA: Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia; MZUSP – Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo; NUP - Núcleo de Pesquisas em Limnologia, Ictiologia e Aquicultura da Universidade Estadual de Maringá.

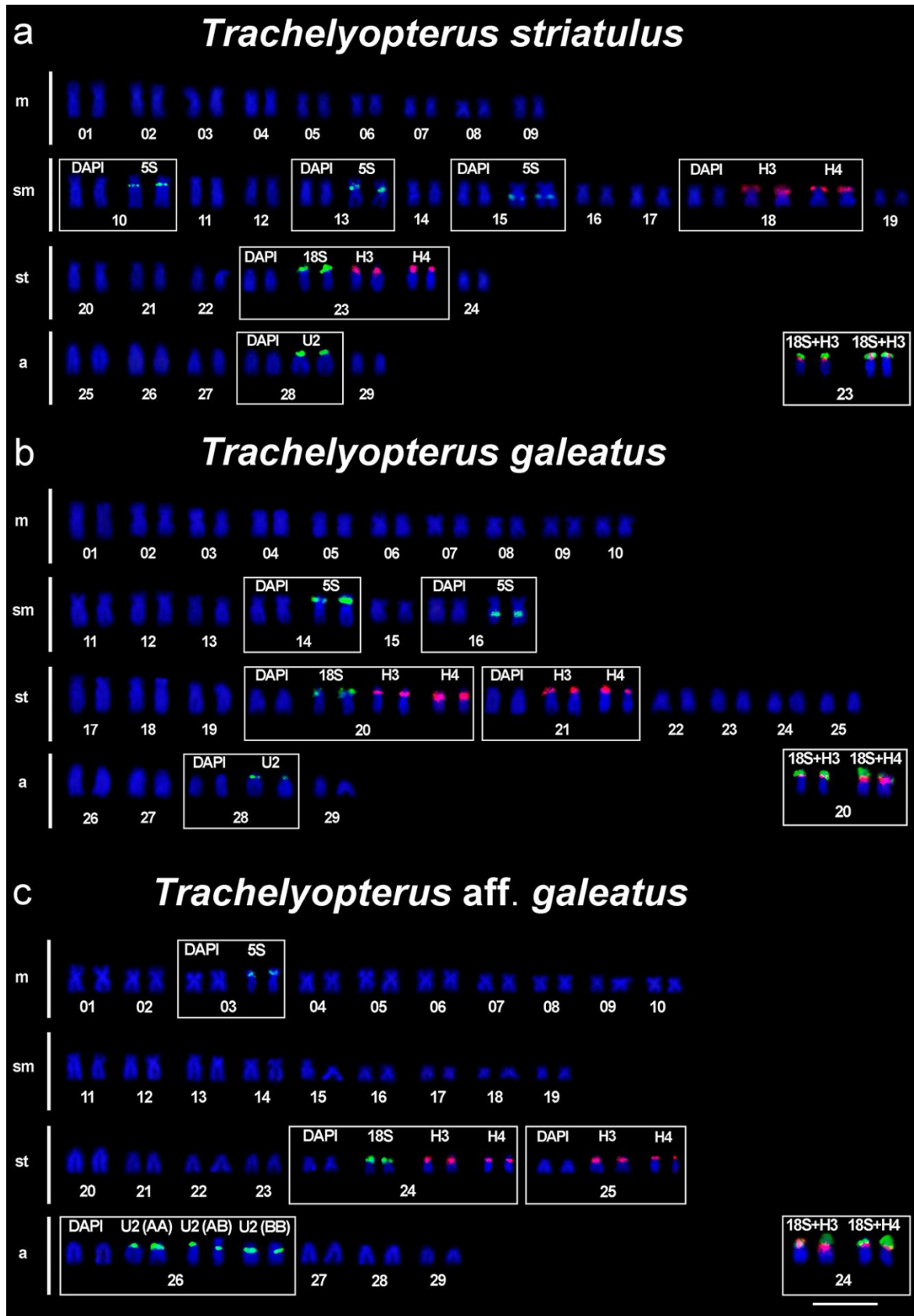
Species	Locality	Municipality/ State	GPS	Sex		Voucher
				♂	♀	
<i>Trachelyopterus porosus</i> (Eigenmann and Eigenmann, 1888)	Catalão lake (Amazonas River basin, Brazil)	Manaus - AM	03° 09' 47" S 59° 54' 29" W	4	4	INPA 57940
<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i> (Valenciennes, 1840)	Lagoon near Córrego do Medo, Araguaia River tributary (Araguaia River basin, Brazil)	São Miguel do Araguaia - GO	13° 08' 52,7" S 50° 25' 02,8" W	4	3	MZUSP 106766
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. coriaceus</i> (Eigenmann and Eigenmann, 1888)	Arrombado lagoon, Bento Gomes River basin, Cuiabá River tributary (Paraguay River basin, Brazil)	Poconé - MT	16° 25' 40,9" S 56° 25' 07,4" W	2	1	MZUSP 110806
<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i> (Steindachner, 1877)	Verde lagoon (PERD*) (Doce River basin, Brazil)	Marliéria - MG	19° 49' 44,5" S 42° 37' 52.5" W	3	3	MZUSP 109798
<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	Catalão lake (Amazonas River basin, Brazil)	Manaus - AM	03° 09' 47" S 59° 54' 29" W	6	8	INPA 57939
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. galeatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	Lagoon near Córrego do Medo, Araguaia River tributary (Araguaia River basin, Brazil)	São Miguel do Araguaia - GO	13° 08' 52,7" S 50° 25' 02,8" W	9	10	MZUSP 110803

**Tab2.** Cytogenetic data available for *Trachelyopterus* species. FN: fundamental number; 2n: diploid number; Ref.: References; m: metacentric; sm: submetacentric; st: subtelocentric; a: acrocentric; p: short arm; q: long arm; GO: Góias state from Brazil; AM: Amazonas state from Brazil; PR: Paraná state from Brazil; MS: Mato Grosso do Sul state from Brazil; RN: Rio Grande do Norte state from Brazil; PY: Paraguay. References: 1. Santos et al. (2021); 2. Felicetti et al. (2018); 3. Ravedutti and Júlio Jr (2001); 4. Lui et al. (2010); 5. Araújo and Molina (2013); 6. Lui et al. (2021); 7. Present study.

Species/populations	Locality	FN	2n	Karyotype Formula	AgNORs/18S rDNA	5S rDNA	Histone H3	Histone H4	snRNA U2	Ref
<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i>	Araguaia River, Araguaia-Tocantins river basin - GO	108	58	20m+18sm+12st+8a	pair 23, p, st	pair 3, p, m / pair 16, q, sm	pair 23, p, st	pair 23, p, st	pair 28, p, a	1, 7
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. galeatus</i>	Araguaia River, Araguaia-Tocantins river basin - GO	108	58	20m+18sm+12st+8a	pair 24, p, st	pair 3, p, m	pair 24, p, st / pair 25, p, st	pair 24, p, st / pair 25, p, st	pair 26, q/p, a	2, 7
	Catalão Lake, Amazonas River basin - AM	106	58	20m+12sm+18st+8a	pair 20, p, st	pair 14, p, sm / pair 17, q, sm	pair 20, p, st / pair 21, p, st	pair 20, p, st / pair 21, p, st	pair 28, p, a	2, 7
	Miranda River, Paraguay River basin - PY	108	58	24m+12sm+14st+8a	pair 24, p, st	pair 14, p, sm / pair 17, q, sm	-	-	-	2
	Paraná River, Paraná River basin - PR	98	58	22m+12sm+6st+18a	pair 23, p, a	-	-	-	-	3
<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i>	Paraná River, Paraná River basin - MS	108	58	24m+18sm+8st+8a	pair 25, p, st	pair 16, p, sm / pair 17, q, sm	-	-	-	4
	Piumhi River, Paraná River basin - MG	108	58	20m+16sm+14st+8a	pair 24, p, st	pair 15, p, sm / pair 16, q, sm	-	-	-	4
	Lagoa da Prata – São Francisco River basin - MG	108	58	22m+16sm+12st+8a	pair 23, p, st	pair 16, p, sm / pair 17, q, sm	-	-	-	4
	Pium River, Parnamirim - RN	108	58	24m+16sm+10st+8a	p, sm	-	-	-	-	5
<i>Trachelyopterus porosus</i>	Catalão Lake, Amazonas River basin - AM	106	58	22m+16sm+10st+10a	pair 23, p, st	pair 3, p, m / pair 4, p, m	pair 23, p, st / pair 24, p, st	pair 23, p, st / pair 24, p, st	pair 26, p, a	2,7
	Miranda River, Paraguay River basin - PY	106	58	22m+16sm+10st+10a	pair 23, p, st	pair 3, p, m / pair 4, p, m	-	-	-	2
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. coriaceus</i>	Arrombado lagoon, Bento Gomes River basin- MT	108	58	22m+20sm+8st+8a	pair 22, p, st	pair 16, p, sm / pair 18, q, sm	pair 23, p, st	pair 23, p, st	pair 27, p, a	6, 7
<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i>	Verde lagoon, Doce River basin - MG	106	58	18m+20sm+10st+10a	par 23, p, st	pair 10, p, sm / pair 13, p, sm / pair 15, q, sm	pair 18, p, sm / pair 23, p, st	pair 18, p, sm / pair 23, p, st	pair 28, p, a	6, 7



**Fig 1.** Karyotypes of *T. porosus* (a), *T. coriaceus* (b) and *Trachelyopterus aff. coriaceus* (c). m: metacentric; sm: submetacentric; st: subtelocentric; a: acrocentric. Probes: 5S rDNA, U2 snRNA and 18S rDNA with green signal and histone genes H3/H4 with red signal. Bar = 5  $\mu$ m.



**Fig 2.** Karyotypes of *T. striatulus* (a), *T. galeatus* (b) and *Trachelyopterus aff. galeatus* (c). m: metacentric; sm: submetacentric; st: subtelocentric; a: acrocentric. Probes: 5S rDNA, U2 snDNA and 18S rDNA with green signal and histone genes H3/H4 with red signal. Bar = 5  $\mu$ m.

## CAPITULO II

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Roberto Laridondo Lui

Gene cluster as guide to physical mapping of a widely spread microsatellite: new insights about *Trachelyopterus* (Siluriformes, Auchenipteridae) diversity

\*Artigo em normas de submissão à revista Comparative Cytogenetic  
Fonte e espaçamento do corpo do texto ajustados para a dissertação.  
Imagens e tabelas incluídas ao final do corpo do texto.

**Cascavel**  
**2021**

Title: Gene cluster as guide to physical mapping of a widely spread microsatellite: new insights about *Trachelyopterus* (Siluriformes, Auchenipteridae) diversity

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## Abstract

The scattered distribution pattern of microsatellites is a challenging problem in fish cytogenetics. It can hardly be used as a complement A chromosomal marker due to the apparently random distribution. However, several studies in the past few decades have shown that the distribution pattern of microsatellites is non-random. Thus, here we tested whether a scattered microsatellite could have distinct distribution patterns on homeologous chromosomes of different species. The clustered sites of 18S and 5S rDNA, U2 snRNA and H3/H4 histone genes were used as a guide to compare the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> microsatellite distribution pattern on the homeologous chromosomes of six *Trachelyopterus* species: *T. coriaceus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin; *T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus* and *T. porosus* from the Amazonas River basin; and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* from the Paraguay River basin. Most species had a similar distribution pattern of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence in the 18S rDNA carriers, with two conspicuous blocks only in the long arm and none in the short arm. However, *Trachelyopterus galeatus* presented a chromosomal polymorphism, which is in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and possibly originated through amplification events. The (GATA)<sub>n</sub> chromosomal mapping on the 5S rDNA and H3/H4 histone gene carriers did not reveal new information about the structure of these chromosomal pairs, but using the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern, the possible chromosome homeologies between the species could be inferred, and through the combined mapping with the histone genes the chromosomal polymorphism of *T. galeatus* from the Amazon River basin could be confirmed. Similar to in the 18S rDNA carriers, most species had a conserved (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the U2 snRNA chromosomes, with only two conspicuous blocks in the long arm. However, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* presented a chromosome polymorphism, which combined with an inversion polymorphism of the U2 snRNA in the same chromosome pair resulted in six possible cytotypes, which are in Hardy-Weinberg disequilibrium. Thus, the guided mapping revealed new chromosomal arrangements even in populations that were already mapped with the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence, showing potential to be used with other widely spread microsatellites, clustered gene sites and species.

**Keywords:** Histone genes, 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, U2, SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>.

## Introduction

Microsatellites, also known as short tandem repeats (STRs, Edwards et al. 1991) or simple sequence repeats (SSRs, Jacob et al. 1991), are stretches of DNA that consist of tandemly repeating mono-, di-, tri-, tetra- or penta-nucleotide motifs arranged through eukaryotic genomes (Powell et al. 1996; Ellegren 2004; Kalia et al. 2011) in both coding and noncoding regions (Toth et al., 2000; Kalia et al. 2011). The majority of the microsatellites are located in the nucleus (nuSSR), although they can also be found in mitochondria (mtSSR) and chloroplasts (cpSSR) (Kalia et al. 2011). They are one of the most abundant and variable types of DNA sequences in the genome (Weber 1990; Tóth et al. 2000; Ellegren 2004) and occur primarily due to slipped-strand mispairing and subsequent error(s) during DNA replication, repair or recombination (Levinson and Gutman 1987; Kalia et al. 2011). However, the activity of transposable elements, mainly non-LTR retrotransposons, has also been reported as a major source of new microsatellites and their movement throughout the genome (Messier et al. 1996; Nadir et al. 1996; Li et al. 2002; Kalia et al. 2011; Grandi and An 2013).

SSRs are recognized as powerful informative markers of genetic diversity and variability in both animal and plants (Peakall et al. 1998; Cuadrado and Jouve 2007, 2011; Ernetti et al. 2019). In chromosomal mapping, although studies are still scarce for most species, they have provided a useful tool for understand the genome and chromosomal evolution of different taxa (e.g., Piscor et al. 2016; Travenzoli et al. 2019; Bueno et al. 2021). They can be found clustered in a few chromosomal pairs (e.g., Viana et al. 2019; Bueno et al. 2021), but are usually reported throughout the chromosomes (e.g., Felicetti et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021; Bueno et al. 2021). Usually, microsatellites are described with crucial roles in the origin and evolution of specific chromosomes, mainly B chromosomes (e.g., Milani and Cabral-de-Mello et al. 2014; Felicetti et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021) and sex chromosomes (e.g., Barbosa et al. 2017; Barcellos et al. 2019; Viana et al. 2019). However, in complement A chromosomes and populations without sex or B chromosomes, the studies are still concentrated only in the type of array and presence or absence of the marker, considering the whole karyotype (e.g., Lui et al. 2013; Traldi et al. 2013; Sassi et al. 2021).

One of the most challenging problems in expanding the use of microsatellites is the scattered distribution pattern. It is reported for several species worldwide (e.g.,

Silva et al. 2020; Yeesin et al. 2021; Saenjundaeng et al. 2020) and is predominant in most analyzed Neotropical fish species (Tab. 1). This type of array hampers the comparison between karyotypes and can hardly be used as complement A chromosomal markers, since it has an apparently random distribution in these chromosomes. However, different lines of evidence indicated that the distribution of microsatellites is nonrandom (Li et al. 2002; Li et al. 2004). They can influence in several aspects of the genome, including the nucleosome packing (Iyer and Struhl 1995), methylation (Fukuda et al. 2013), high order chromatin structure (Pathak et al. 2013; McNeil et al. 2006; Subramanian et al. 2003a) and splicing (Cuppens et al. 1998, Hefferon et al. 2004, Hui et al. 2005). Microsatellites can also have enhancer functions (Kumar et al. 2013; Gebhardt et al. 1999; Gymrek et al. 2016), modulate gene expression (Chen et al. 2007; Kumar and Bhatia 2016; Joshi-Saha and Reddy 2015) and participate of gene activity, recombination, DNA replication, cell cycle and mismatch repair (MMR) system (reviewed in Li et al. 2002; Li et al. 2004; Bagshaw 2017). Thus, it seems that microsatellites, once thought of as generally neutral, retain considerable diversity and functional significance among the genome of eukaryotic organisms (Bagshaw et al. 2017), hence, it is unlikely to believe that their scattered distribution pattern in cytogenetic mappings is random. In this scenario, considering that the scattered pattern consists in signals throughout the chromosomes, the association or colocalization with clustered sites in cytogenetic mapping, as already reported with several other types of DNA sequences (e.g., Cuadrado and Jouve 2007; Grandi and An 2013; Ruiz-Ruano et al. 2015), may provide an additional method to compare species and karyotypes. The clusters of already mapped repetitive elements can be used as guide to homeologous chromosomes among species or populations and comparative analyses besides sex and B chromosomes could be carried out.

Auchenipteridae, known as the driftwood catfishes, is one of the 43 Siluriformes families. They are restricted but widely distributed in South America and have 26 genera and 125 valid species (Fricke et al. 2021). Among them, *Trachelyopterus* (with 17 valid species) is one of the most studied genera owing to high morphological similarity and, hence, a controversial taxonomic history (Akama 2004). The physical localization of 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, H3/H4 histone genes and snRNA U2 is well documented in six species: *T. coriaceus*, *T. striatulus*, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (cited as *Parauchenipterus galeatus*) (Lui et al. 2010; Santos et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021; Haerter et al. 2021), *T. porosus* (Felicetti et al. 2018; Haerter et al. 2021), *T.*

*galeatus* (cited as *P. galeatus*), *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (cited as *Trachelyopterus* sp.) (Lui et al. 2021; Haerter et al. 2021); whereas the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sites were described in only three species: *T. galeatus* (Felicetti et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021), *T. porosus* (Felicetti et al. 2021) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (cited as *Trachelyopterus* sp.) (Lui et al. 2021). In B chromosomes, the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence has a particularly pattern, with clustered blocks, and provided valuable data about the origin and evolution of these extra chromosomes in Auchenipteridae. On the other hand, in complement A chromosomes it presented a scattered distribution pattern and was not able to reveal diversity or specific traits (Felicetti et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021). Therefore, these *Trachelyopterus* species constitutes an excellent model to be investigated through the integrated mapping, since it has (1) scattered signal of a microsatellite in all complement A chromosomes; (2) well known clusters of 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, H3/H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA and; (3) highly similar karyotypes, which could test the integrated mapping efficiency.

In this paper the microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern was compared among the carriers of the 5S and 18S rDNA, H3/H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA sites, in six *Trachelyopterus* species. The clustered repetitive elements sites were used as a guide to specific chromosomal pairs. We intended to test whether a widely distributed microsatellite could have distinct distribution patterns on homeologous chromosomes of different species, revealing unknown chromosome arrangements as well as architecture interaction between them.

## Methods

### *Specimens and DNA extraction*

Four *Trachelyopterus* species, including two possible new ones, were analyzed: *Trachelyopterus galeatus* Linnaeus, 1766 (04 males and 07 females) from Catalão lake, Manaus, Amazon River basin, 03°09'47"S; 59°54'2"W (Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas na Amazônia - INPA 57939); *Trachelyopterus coriaceus* Valenciennes, 1840 (04 males and 03 females) from Araguaia River, São Miguel do Araguaia, 13°08'52,7"S; 50°25'02,8"W (Museu da Universidade de São Paulo - MZUSP 106766); *Trachelyopterus porosus* Eigenmann and Eigenmann, 1888 (04 males and 04 females) from Catalão lake, Manaus, Amazon River basin, 03°09'47"S; 59°54'29"W

(Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA 57940); *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* (06 males and 10 females) from Araguaia River (suggested as new species), São Miguel do Araguaia, 13°08'52,7"S; 50°25'02,8"W (MZUSP 110803); *Trachelyopterus striatulus* Steindachner, 1877 (03 males and 03 females) from Verde lagoon, Doce River basin, Marliéria, 19°49'44,5"S; 42°37'52.5"W (MZUSP 109798); and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (02 males and 01 female) from Arrombado lagoon (suggested as new species), Bento Gomes River basin, Poconé, 16°25'40,9"S; 56°25'07,4"W (MZUSP 110806). Genomic DNA was extracted from the liver of all species according to Sambrook et al. (2001).

#### *Probes labeling and sequencing*

The 18S rDNA and 5S rDNA probes were obtained through polymerase chain reaction - PCR according to Haerter et al. (2021) using the primers NS1 and NS8 (White 1990), 5SA and 5SB (Martins and Galetti 1999). The 18S rDNA probes were labeled with Biotin-16-dUTP (Bio-Nick-Translation, Roche) according to manufacturer's instructions and detected with Antibiotin-Avidin-FITC / Antiavidin-Biotin (Roche). The 5S rDNA were labeled through PCR with Tetramethyl-Rhodamine-5-dUTP (Roche). The H3 and H4 histone genes fragments The U2 snRNA fragments were amplified from *Trachelyopterus galeatus* genome using the primers H3F and H3R (Colgan et al. 1998); and H4F2s and H4F2er (Pineau et al. 2004). Both probes were labeled through PCR with Tetramethyl-Rhodamine-5-dUTP (Roche) according to Haerter et al. (2021). The U2 snRNA fragments were amplified from *Trachelyopterus galeatus* genome with the primers U2F and U2R (Bueno et al. 2013). The U2 snRNA probes were labeled through PCR with Fluorescein-12-dUTP (Roche) according to Haerter et al. (2021). The (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes were generated through PCR in the absence of a template, using only the primers according to Ijdo et al. (1991) and labeled with Tetramethyl-Rhodamine-5-dUTP (Roche).

All PCR products were sequenced in both ways, forward and reverse, using the ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer with the BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (code 4337456) and the Sequencing Analysis software 5.3.1. The consensus sequence was generated by the Bioedit Sequence Alignment Editor (Hall 1999). The fragments identity was confirmed through BLASTn 2.11.0 (National Center for Biotechnology Information) (Altschul et al. 1997).

### *Cytogenetic analyses and Fluorescent in situ Hybridization*

The samples were treated with a 0.02% colchicine solution (1 ml/100g of body weight) for 30-40 min and sequentially euthanized by clove oil overdose (Griffiths 2000a) (according to the ethics committee on animal experimentation and practical classes at Unioeste: 09/13 - CEEAAP / Unioeste). The mitotic chromosomes were obtained from anterior kidney cells (Bertollo et al. 1978). The chromosome morphology was classified according to Levan et al. (1964).

Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) was carried out with 77% of stringency according to Pinkel et al. (1986) with modifications suggested by Margarido and Moreira-Filho (2008). Clusters of 18S rDNA, 5S rDNA, snRNA U2, H3 and H4 histone genes were used as guide to integrative (guided) mapping with the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>. The digital images were captured by the DP Controller 3.2.1.276 software using an Olympus DP71 digital camera connected to the BX61 epifluorescence microscope (Olympus America Inc., Center Valley, PA, United States of America). The Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) and Chi-squared test were performed using the Hardy–Weinberg (HW) testing program (Santos, Lemes and Otto 2020).

## **Results**

### *DNA sequencing analysis*

The U2 snRNA and both H3 and H4 histone genes were sequenced with forward and reverse primers. The U2 snRNA had a 199-bp consensus sequence with 96,4% similarity with *Parabotia fasciatus* U2 snRNA gene (Sequence ID: MG874999.1). The histone gene H3 had a 448-bp consensus sequence with 91.57% similarity with the *Pimelodus microstoma* H3 histone gene (Sequence ID: MT094432.1). The histone gene H4 had a 269-bp consensus sequence with 90.09% similarity with the *Pimelodus microstoma* H4 histone gene (MT094433.1).

### *Cytogenetic analysis*

*Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* – Araguaia River basin

This species had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (7 males and 9 females). The microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> were found spread throughout the chromosomes. The chromosomal pair 24 (18S rDNA and H3/H4 histone genes) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the terminal long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 1, 4). The chromosomal pair 25 (H3 and H4 histone genes) also had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 4). The chromosomal pair 26 (U2 snRNA) had a chromosome polymorphism associated to the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern (Fig 2), which combined with the U2 snRNA distribution pattern evidenced three chromosomal forms, including a new one, here referred as C chromosomal form: (A) U2 snRNA sites in the short arm with SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> blocks only in the long arm of the chromosome; (B) U2 snRNA sites in the long arm with SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> blocks only in the long arm of the chromosome; and (C) U2 snRNA sites in the short arm with SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> blocks in both the short and long arm of the chromosome. From all chromosomal forms, six combinations could be hypothesized and four of them were found in the sample: AA (1 female), AB (2 males and 3 females), AC, BB (1 male and 5 females), BC, CC (2 males and 2 females) (Fig. 2; Tab. 2; Fig. 5). The  $\chi^2$  value for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) was 15.99 (Df=03;  $p<0.05$ ). The chromosomal pair 3 (5S rDNA) had three blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, two in the short arm (one in the terminal position and one in interstitial position) and one in the terminal position of the long arm (Fig. 3).

#### *Trachelyopterus galeatus* – Amazon River basin

This species had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (7 males and 9 females). The chromosomal pair 20 (18S rDNA and H3/H4 histone genes) has shown a chromosome polymorphism (Fig. 1). It consists in two different organizations of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the chromosome: two clustered SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sites in the terminal and interstitial position of long arm of the chromosome (A form); or two clustered SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the terminal position and interstitial position of the long arm and one in the interstitial position of the short arm of the chromosome (B form). Three combinations of these polymorphic forms were found in this population: (AA) both chromosomes with two clustered SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sites in the terminal and proximal position of long arm of the chromosome (2 males and 1 female); (AB) one chromosome with two clustered

SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sites in the terminal and proximal position of long arm of the chromosome and another chromosome with two clustered SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the terminal and proximal position of the long arm of the chromosome and one in the proximal position of the short arm of the chromosome (2 males and 5 females); (BB) both chromosomes with two clustered SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the terminal and proximal position of the long arm of the chromosome and one in the proximal position of the short arm of the chromosome (1 male). The chromosomal pair 28 (U2 snRNA) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and one in terminal position of the short arm. The chromosome polymorphism was found in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) ( $\chi^2=1.099$ ; Df=01;  $p<0.05$ ). The chromosomal pair 24 (H3 and H4 histone genes) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 2). The chromosomal pair 14 (5S rDNA) had three blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, two in the short arm (one in the terminal position and one in interstitial position) and one in the terminal position of the long arm (Fig. 4). The chromosomal pair 16 (5S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, one in the terminal position of the short and another in the long arm (Fig. 3).

#### *Trachelyopterus porosus* – Amazon River basin

This species had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (4 males and 4 females). The microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> were found spread throughout the chromosomes. The chromosomal pair 23 (18S rDNA and H3/H4 histone genes) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 1, 4). The chromosomal pair 24 (H3 and H4 histone genes) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 4). The chromosomal pair 26 (U2 snRNA) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 2). The chromosomal pair 3 (5S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, one in the terminal position of the short and another in the long arm. The chromosomal pair 4 (5S rDNA) had three blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, two in the short arm (one in the terminal position and one in interstitial position) and one in the terminal position of the long arm (Fig. 3).

#### *Trachelyopterus coriaceus* – Araguaia River basin



This species had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (4 males and 3 females). The microsatellite  $(GATA)_n$  were found spread throughout the chromosomes. The chromosomal pair 23 (H3 and H4 histone genes and 18S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$  in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 1, 4). The chromosomal pair 28 (U2 snRNA) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$  in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 2). The chromosomal pair 3 (5S rDNA) had three blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$ , two in the short arm (one in the terminal position and one in interstitial position) and one in the terminal position of the long arm. The chromosomal pair 16 (5S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$ , one in the terminal position of the short and another in the long arm (Fig. 3).

*Trachelyopterus aff. coriaceus* – Paraguay river basin

This species had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (2 males and 1 female). The microsatellite  $(GATA)_n$  were found spread throughout the chromosomes. The chromosomal pair 22 (18S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$  in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 1). The chromosomal pair 23 (H3 and H4 histone genes) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$  in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 4). The chromosomal pair 27 (U2 snRNA) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$  in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 2). The chromosomal pair 16 (5S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$ , one in the terminal position of the short and another in the long arm. The chromosomal pair 18 (5S rDNA) had three blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$ , two in the short arm (one in the terminal position and one in interstitial position) and one in the terminal position of the long arm (Fig. 3).

*Trachelyopterus striatulus* – Doce River basin

This species had  $2n=58$  chromosomes for both sexes (3 males and 3 females). The microsatellite  $(GATA)_n$  were found spread throughout the chromosomes. The chromosomal pair 23 (18S rDNA and H3/H4 histone genes) had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$  in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 1, 4). The chromosomal pair 18 (H3 and H4 histone genes) also had had two blocks of the SSR  $(GATA)_n$ ; however, one in terminal position of the long arm and another in the interstitial position of the short arm (Fig. 4). The chromosomal pair 28 (U2 snRNA) had two blocks of the SSR

(GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long arm and none in the short arm (Fig. 2). The chromosomal pair 10 (5S rDNA) had three blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, two in the long arm (one in the terminal position and one in interstitial position) and one in the terminal position of the short arm. The chromosomal pair 13 and 15 (5S rDNA) had two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, one in the terminal position of the short and another in the long arm (Fig. 3).

## Discussion

The (GATA)<sub>n</sub> repeats, molecular components of the Bkm satellite DNA (Banded krait minor-satellite DNA), are widely distributed in the genome of higher organisms (Morescalchi et al. 2011). As expected, in all *Trachelyopterus* species of this study it was found scattered throughout the chromosomes. This type of array and has been described to different SSRs and taxa, such as plants (Chang et al. 2008; Kubat et al. 2008), amphibians (Bueno et al. 2021), fungus (Micolino et al. 2019) and fish (Traldi et al. 2013; Felicetti et al. 2021; Lui et al. 2021; Bueno et al. 2021). In Auchenipteridae, it was already reported in *T. porosus* (Felicetti et al. 2021), *T. galeatus* (Felicetti et al. 2021) and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* (cited as *Trachelyopterus* sp.) (Lui et al. 2021), and now it can also be seen in *T. coriaceus*, *T. striatulus* and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*. This type of scattered array could be explained by the activity of transposable elements, mainly non-LTR retrotransposons, which are a major source of new microsatellites and can also drive it throughout the genome (see Messier et al. 1996; Nadir et al. 1996; Li et al. 2002; Grandi and An 2013), and/or to chromosomal rearrangements, such as: fusion, fission, duplication, deletion, amplification, translocation, paracentric and pericentric inversions, as already proposed for a close genus, *Hypostomus* (Traldi et al. 2013). Furthermore, the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> repeats have been associated to sex chromosome in different organisms (e.g. Singh et al. 1976; Viana et al. 2019; Mazzoleni et al. 2020); however, no differences between males and females have been found in these populations.

In the integrated mapping with the 18S rDNA, the chromosomal pair of all species had one clustered block in the interstitial position, another in the terminal position of the long arm, and none in the short arm (Fig. 1). The absence of the microsatellite in the short arm was also reported in a close species, *Glanidium ribeiroi* (Lui et al. 2015), but it was unexplored yet. Usually, SSRs can constitute a larger fraction of noncoding DNA, but are rare in protein-coding regions (Li et al. 2002) mainly

due to negative selection against frameshift mutations in coding regions, as evidenced in plants, primates, and microorganisms (see Metzgar et al. 2000). Comparative studies showed that only repeats in multiples of three may develop evenly in both regions (Tóth et al., 2000; Metzgar et al., 2000), since RNA bases are read as triplets and other types could result in frameshift mutations (Metzgar et al. 2000; Oliveira et al. 2005). In this way, the absence of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence in the short arm of the 18S rDNA chromosomes, might suggest a negative impact of the microsatellite near the coding areas.

However, this hypothesis is contradicted by some evidences: (a) *T. galeatus* from the Amazon River basin presented a chromosome polymorphism in the chromosomal pair 20 (18S rDNA), in which the B chromosomal form is represented by an additional clustered (GATA)<sub>n</sub> block in the short arm; (b) there is overlaid signal between the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence and the 5S rDNA and U2 snRNA sites; and (c) the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence is distributed throughout the chromosomes, indicating that the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence could also be near other unmapped gene sequences. Therefore, in these *Trachelyopterus* species, the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> may not have a negative impact near coding areas. The non-existence of (GATA)<sub>n</sub> signal in the short arm might only be related to a spatial issue, since besides the 18S rDNA, the short arm of most species also carries the H3 and H4 histone genes and, consequently, there could not be enough space for large amounts of (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence detectable through Fluorescent *in situ* Hybridization, which needs targets of at least 1kb to express significant results (see Schwarzacher and Heslop-Harrison 2000).

The integrated mapping with 18S rDNA revealed a chromosome polymorphism associated with the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the chromosomal pair 20 (18S rDNA) of *T. galeatus* from the Amazon River basin, which is apparently neutral, since the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium suggests that the heterozygous has no different adaptive value compared to other forms ( $\chi^2 = 1.099$ ; Df = 01;  $p < 0.05$ ). It is represented by two chromosomal forms, A and B, in which the A chromosomal form is also present in all other species of this study, whereas the B chromosomal form is exclusive of *T. galeatus* and may be considered an apomorphic trait. Two main aspects could be evidenced in the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism. First, it depends on the presence of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence at a point that has not been reported in any species so far. Second, the size of the additional block suggests that it may have also expanded after its origin.

While minor chromosomal structural changes, primarily amplification/duplications, may account for the increase in size, the origin of the extra block is still uncertain. Since it involves the creation of a whole new block of sequences, rather than the relocation of an existing one, as in the case of paracentric or pericentric inversion polymorphisms (see Hoffman et al. 2004), it might be a result of many different events. Evolutive processes that results in movements of sequences, such as paracentric/pericentric inversions (see Hoffman et al. 2004; Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008) or activity of transposable elements (see Messier et al. 1996; Li et al. 2002; Grandi and An 2013) seems to be the most parsimonious hypotheses. However, the amplification of little amounts of (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequences already present in the short arm, and non-detectable through Fluorescent *in situ* Hybridization, should not be discarded.

The (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the U2 snRNA chromosomes was conserved among most species, with clustered blocks only in the long arm of the chromosomes. However, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from Araguaia River basin presented a chromosomal polymorphism, which considering only the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence distribution, consists in the presence of an additional clustered block in the short arm. The same chromosomal pair (26) were also reported to have a U2 snRNA chromosomal polymorphism (Haerter et al. 2021) and the combined polymorphic markers resulted in three chromosomal forms. The B chromosomal form is exclusive of this population; whereas the C chromosomal form was also found in *T. galeatus* from Amazon River basin and the and A form is present in *T. striatulus*, *T. coriaceus*, *T. porosus*, and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus*. Although both polymorphic states interact to compose the chromosome arrangement, they seem to be originated in different evolutive events. In the U2 snRNA polymorphism, the new arrangement is characterized by the presence of U2 snRNA sites in the long arm of the chromosomes, while all other species had sites in the short arm. Until now, it is an exclusive trait of *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* and seems to be a product of a pericentric inversion (Haerter et al. 2021). On the other hand, the variation of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence, with sites in the short arm and in polymorphic state in *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, can also be seen in *T. galeatus* from Amazon River, therefore, it is not an exclusive character. It could be a product of independent events in both species, *T. galeatus* and in *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, however, the most parsimonious hypothesis is through hybridization in secondary contact zones (see Abbot et al. 2013; Sedghifar et al. 2015), since it could be facilitated by the historical and geomorphological aspects

of the Araguaia River floodplains, known by constant ichthyofaunistic exchange across surrounding hydrographic systems during the neotectonics reactivations in the Transbrasiliiano Lineament during the formation of the Araguaia depression (see Saadi 1993; Saadi et al. 2005; Lima and Ribeiro 2011).

Interestingly, the U2 snRNA inversion polymorphism in *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* was reported in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (Haerter et al. 2021), in which, the spread of the polymorphism could be associated to the neutrality of the rearrangement, since it suggests that there is no change in adaptative value among the genotypes or in the host fitness (see Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008), as reported for water beetles (Aradottir and Angus 2004) and blackflies (Kuvangkadilok et al. 2003). In this state, the polymorphism is essentially influenced by genetic drift and migration (Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008). However, the polymorphic state of U2 snRNA with the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence, resulted in Hardy-Weinberg disequilibrium ( $\chi^2=15.99$ ; Df=03;  $p<0.05$ ), suggesting that the combined arrangement may be under the effect of different forces beyond just genetic drift and gene flow.

Furthermore, all genotypes were found in a similar proportion compared to the expected by the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test (Tab. 2), except the ones with the C chromosomal form, in which, none of the heterozygous were found in the sample (AC and BC) and the homozygous (CC) presented a three times higher frequency than expected. In some cases, heterozygous originated from chromosome rearrangements can suffer severe reductions in fitness (White 1978), zygotic lethality (Searle 1993) or hybrid sterility (Stebbins 1950; Levin 2002), especially when it involves change in gene order within a chromosome (inversions) (White 1978) or when the hybrids carry multiple rearrangements (White 1978; Searle 1993). In this scenario, the presence of multiple chromosomal polymorphism in the same chromosomal pair, which origin of both could be related to major chromosome rearrangements (inversions), associated to the absence of the C heterozygous and higher frequency of the C homozygous, may suggest the existence of distinct evolutive pressures over it compared to other genotypes. However, more specific analyses are still required to establish whether there is in fact a host fitness effect in the presence of the C form in heterozygosity or homozygosity.

In contrast to the previously discussed markers, the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> chromosomal mapping on the 5S rDNA and H3/H4 histone gene carriers did not reveal new information about the structure of these chromosomal pairs. However, using the

(GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern on the 5S rDNA carriers, the possible chromosome homeologies between the species could be inferred (Fig. 3). Since this is a marker normally found on multiple chromosomal pairs in *Trachelyopterus*, the chromosomal correspondence is difficult to suggest without additional information about the organization of each chromosome, a gap that could be partially filled with the distribution of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence on these chromosomes. Through the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> mapping on the 5S rDNA chromosome pairs, three main chromosomal arrangements could be evidenced: (1) 5S rDNA site in the interstitial position of the long arm of the chromosome; with two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, one in the terminal position of the short arm another in the terminal position of the long arm; (2) 5S rDNA site in the proximal position of the short arm; with three blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, one in terminal position of the short arm and two in the long arm (one in the terminal position and another in the proximal position); (3) 5S rDNA site in the proximal position of the short arm; with two blocks of the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, one in the terminal position of the short arm and another in terminal position of the long arm (Fig. 3). The chromosomal arrangement (1) is present in all species, whereas the chromosomal arrangement (2) is present in *T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus*, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* and *T. coriaceus*, and the chromosomal arrangement (3) is present only in *T. striatulus* and *T. porosus*.

The microsatellite mapping combined with the histone genes confirmed the distribution of SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> already pointed out through the integration with 18S rDNA for the species that have this synteny (*T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus*, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus*, *T. porosus* and *T. coriaceus*) as well as the polymorphism in the chromosomal pair 20 of *T. galeatus* from the Amazon River basin. No new arrangement could be observed, and even for species that have multiple sites of H3 and H4 histone genes (*T. striatulus*, *T. galeatus*, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* and *T. porosus*), both chromosomal pairs showed the same microsatellite distribution pattern, proximal and distal in the long arm.

#### *Integrated mapping perspectives to scattered microsatellites in Neotropical fishes*

To date, there is no similar approach in cytogenetic mapping of microsatellites comparing Neotropical fish species. Most studies have focused in the origin and evolution of specific chromosomes, mainly B chromosomes (12 out of 88 studied species - 13,64%) and sex chromosomes (41 out of 88 studied species – 46,59%);

whereas others focused only on the type of array and presence or absence of the marker (35 out of 88 studied species – 39,77%) (Tab. 1). Nonetheless, of all cytogenetically analyzed species through physical mapping of microsatellites, 76.14% had at least one scattered microsatellite (67 out of 88 analyzed species), and in most studies, they could not be used to differ the species or populations.

Although the integrated mapping did not reveal large chromosomal rearrangements and most species had a similar distribution pattern of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence in the analyzed chromosomes, it proved that the scattered microsatellite (GATA)<sub>n</sub> has a non-random distribution, reiterating the existence of organization even in scattered microsatellites, which can be better described through a smaller scale analysis, comparing specific chromosomes between species. Through the integrated mapping a more accurate (GATA)<sub>n</sub> pattern were described to the chromosome carriers of the 18S and 5S rDNA, H3 and H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA, and even though three species/populations used in this study were already mapped with (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, none of them were able to detect the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism in *T. galeatus* from Amazonas River basin and the presence of three chromosomal arrangements of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> sequence in the 5S rDNA carrier. Likewise, the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism in the U2 snRNA chromosomes of *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River basin would possibly go unnoticed without using the U2 snRNA site as a guide. Therefore, the integrated mapping (guided) proved to be an efficient methodology to reveal cryptic chromosomal arrangements of scattered microsatellites.

Cytotaxonomically, the integrated mapping showed the divergence in one more marker between *T. galeatus* from the Amazon River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* from the Araguaia River, which reiterate the existence of a possible new species, as already proposed through ribosomal markers (Santos et al. 2021) and integrated mapping with H3/H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA (Haerter et al. 2021). Methodologically, the integrated mapping turned the widely distributed SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub>, with contributions in *Trachelyopterus* only to B chromosomes origin and evolution, into promising marker to distinguish other Auchenipteridae species. Thus, with the advancement of repetitive elements cytogenetic, we expect that the integrated mapping can further add to *Trachelyopterus* and also to other species with scattered distributed microsatellites.

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## Figures:

**Figure 1.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the 18S rDNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. 18s rDNA probes in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in red signal.

**Figure 2.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the U2 snRNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. U2 snRNA probes in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in red signal. AA: Both chromosomes with U2 snRNA sites in the short arm and SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> only in the long arm; AB: One chromosome with U2 snRNA site in the long arm and another chromosome with the U2 snRNA site in the short arm, both with the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> only in the long arm of the chromosome; BB: both chromosomes with U2 snRNA sites in the long arm and the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> only in the long arm; CC: both chromosomes with U2 snRNA sites in the short arm of the chromosome and the SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> in the long and short arm of the chromosome. Bar = 5 μM.

**Figure 3.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the 5S rDNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. 5S rDNA probes in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in red signal.

**Figure 4.** SSR (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the H3 and H4 histone genes carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. H3/H4 histone genes in red signal, 18S rDNA in green signal and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> probes in green signal.

**Figure 5.** Ideogram of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the chromosomes carrying the 5S rDNA, 18S rDNA, H3 and H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA

### Tables:

**Table 1.** An overview of published cytogenetic mappings with microsatellites in neotropical fish species and their distribution patterns. 2n: Diploid number; Ref: references.

**Table 2.** Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium test for *Trachelyopterus galeatus* (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism from Amazonas River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* U2 snRNA and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism from Araguaia River basin.

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### Competing interests:

The authors have no conflicts of interest/competing interest to declare.

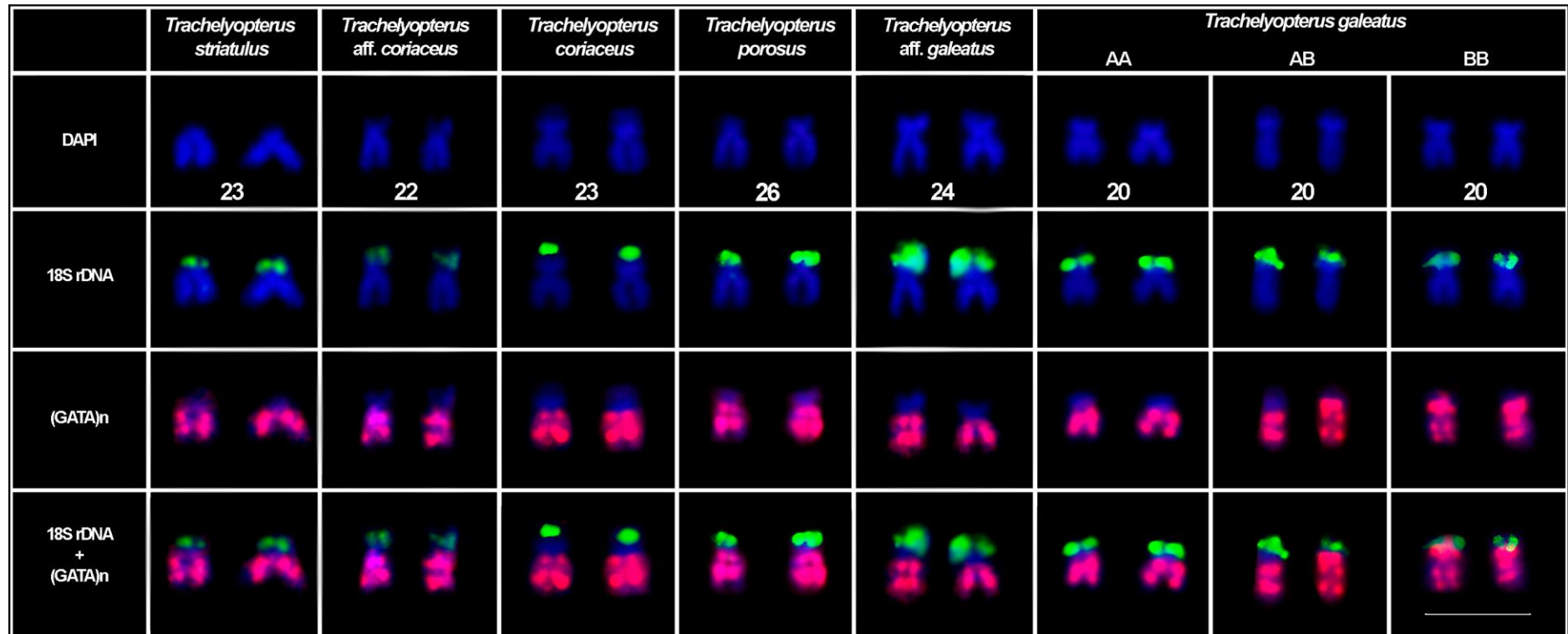
### Ethics approval:

Fish collections were authorized by Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio, Permit number 49379-1), and the experimental procedures

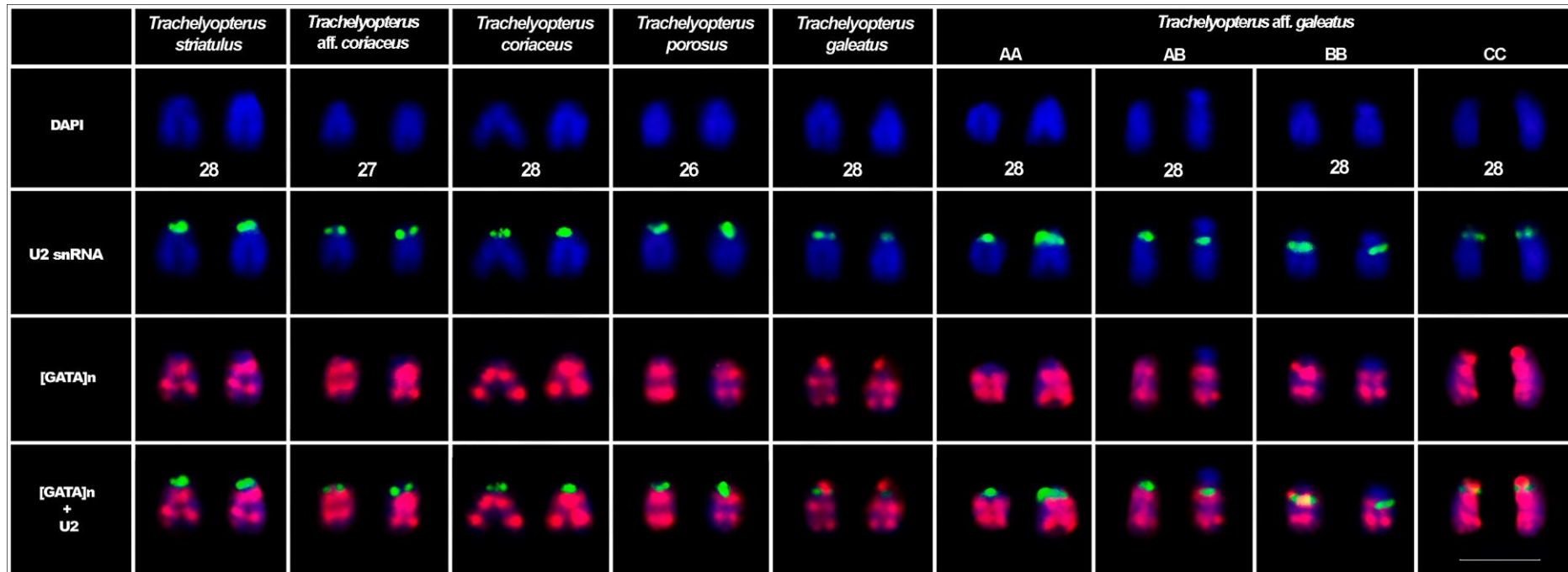
were approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Experimentation and Practical Classes at Unioeste (09/13-CEEAAP/Unioeste)

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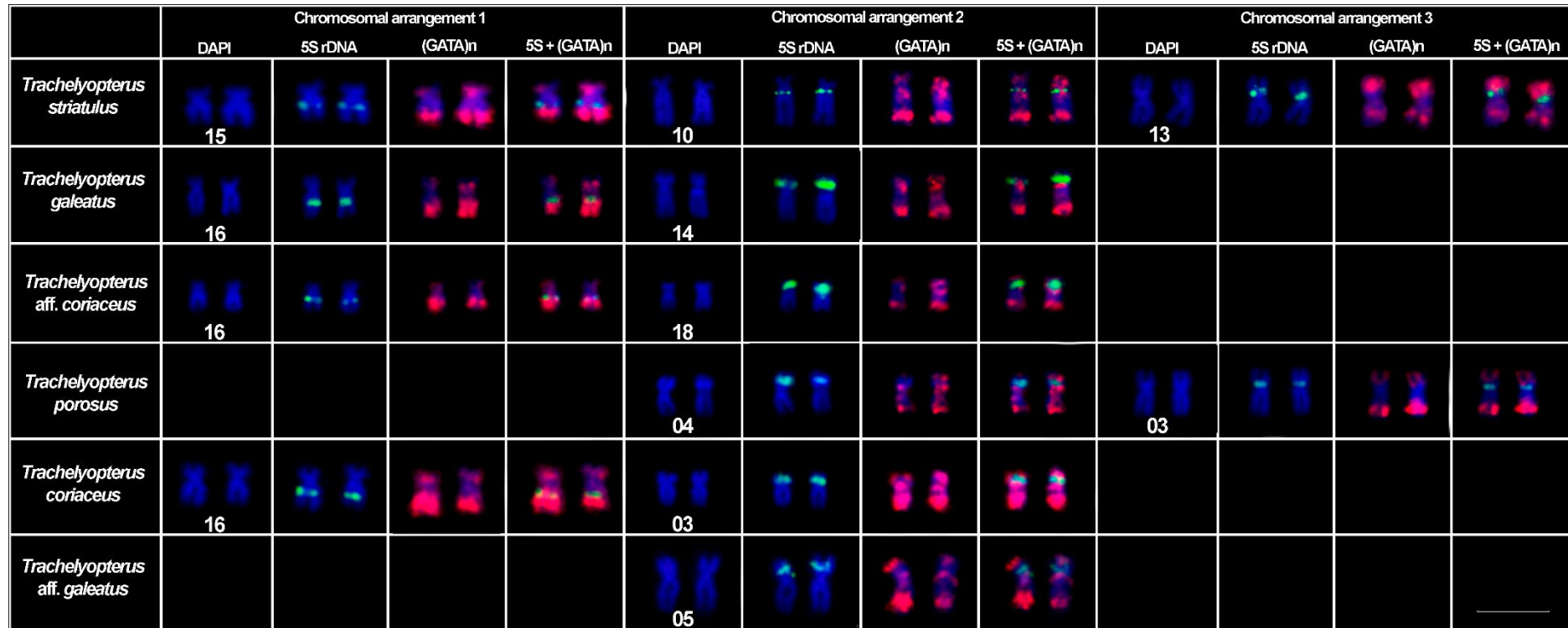
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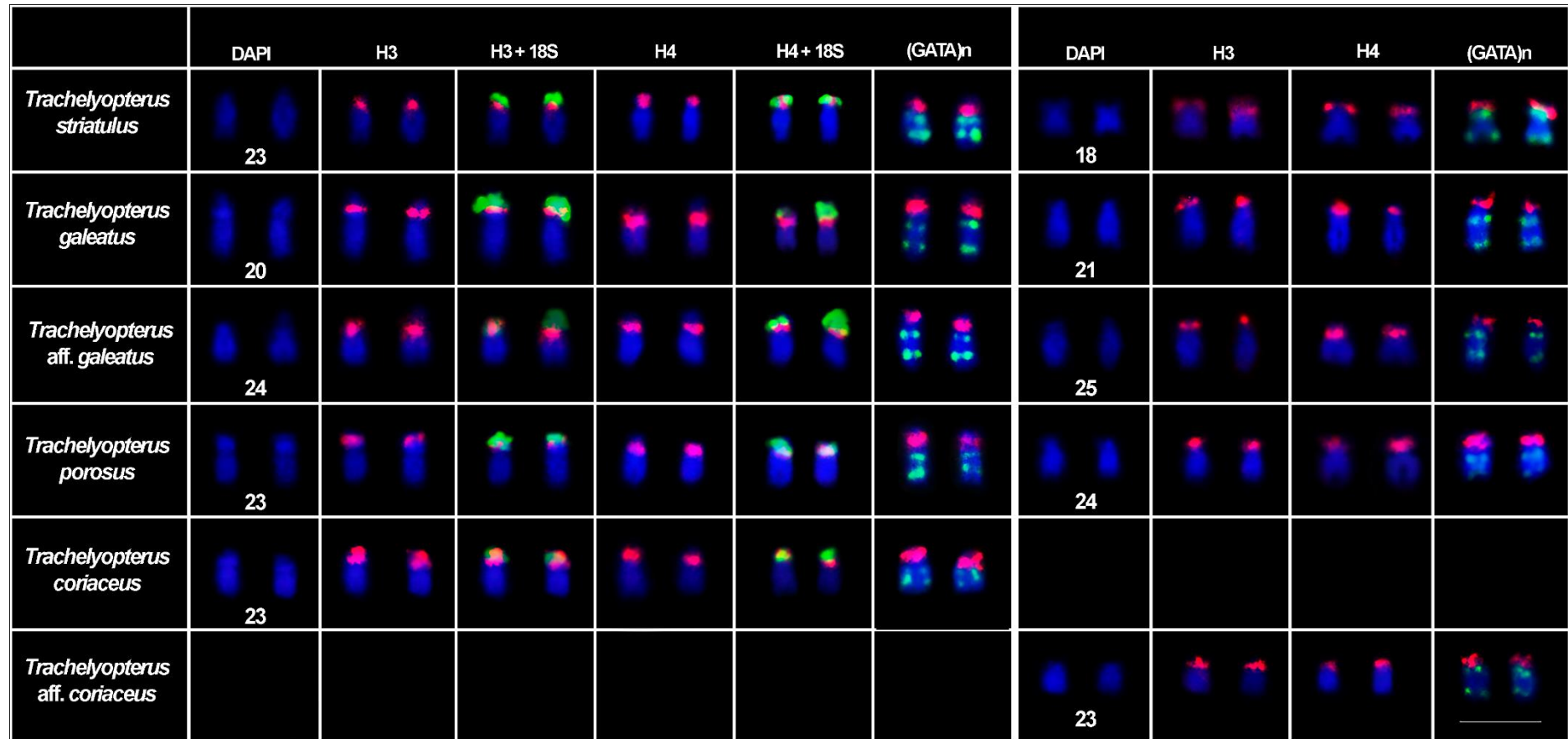
**Figure 1.** SSR (GATA)n distribution pattern in the 18S rDNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. 18S rDNA probes in green signal and (GATA)n probes in red signal. Bar = 5  $\mu$ m.



**Figure 2.** SSR (GATA)n distribution pattern in the U2 snRNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. U2 snRNA probes in green signal and (GATA)n probes in red signal. AA: Both chromosomes with U2 snRNA sites in the short arm and SSR (GATA)n only in the long arm; AB: One chromosome with U2 snRNA site in the long arm and another chromosome with the U2 snRNA site in the short arm, both with the SSR (GATA)n only in the long arm of the chromosome; BB: both chromosomes with U2 snRNA sites in the long arm and the SSR (GATA)n only in the long arm; CC: both chromosomes with U2 snRNA sites in the short arm of the chromosome and the SSR (GATA)n in the long and short arm of the chromosome. Bar = 5  $\mu$ M.

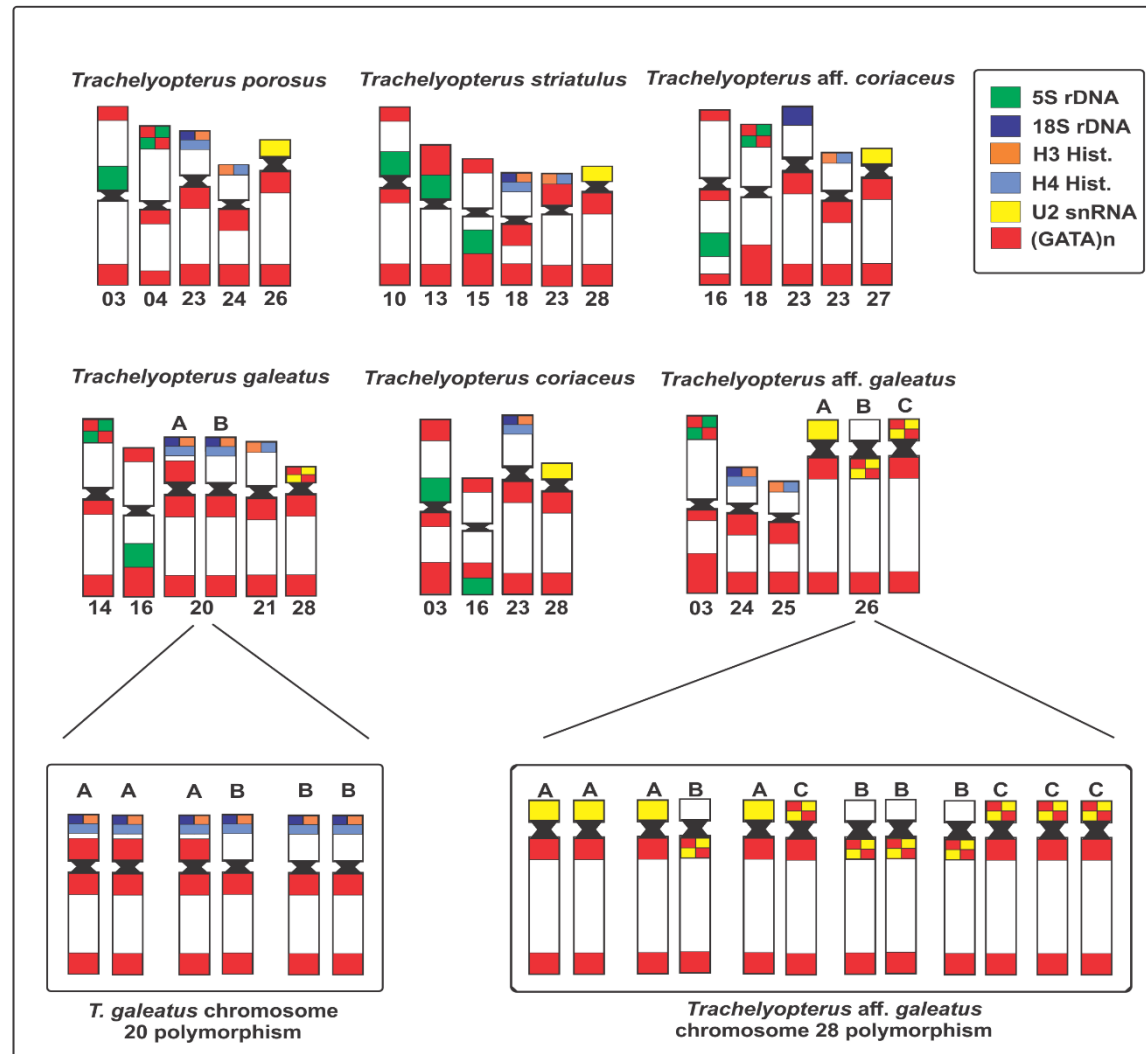


**Figure 3.** SSR (GATA)n distribution pattern in the 5S rDNA carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. 5S rDNA probes in green signal and (GATA)n probes in red signal. Bar = 5  $\mu$ m.



**Figure 4.** SSR (GATA)n distribution pattern in the H3 and H4 histone genes carrier of *Trachelyopterus* species. H3/H4 histone genes in red signal, 18S rDNA in green signal and (GATA)n probes in green signal. Bar = 5  $\mu$ M.





**Figure 5.** Ideogram of the (GATA)<sub>n</sub> distribution pattern in the chromosomes carrying the 5S rDNA, 18S rDNA, H3 and H4 histone genes and U2 snRNA.

**Table 1.** An overview of published cytogenetic mappings with microsatellites in neotropical fish species and their distribution patterns. 2n: Diploid number; Ref: references. Karyoevolution: evolution of the karyotype as a whole, without highlighting a particular chromosome or event.

Specie	2n	Microsatellite/taxon	Distribution pattern	Main Contributions	Ref
<b>SILURIFORMES</b>					
<b>Auchenipteridae</b>					
<i>Ageneiosus inermis</i>	56	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	Karyoevolution	6
<i>Glanidium riberoi</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	Karyoevolution	3
<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	B chromosomes	1,2
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. galeatus</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	-	1
<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	-	1
<i>Trachelyopterus aff. coriaceus</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	B chromosomes	1,4
<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	B chromosomes	1,4
<i>Trachelyopterus porosus</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	B chromosomes	1,2
<b>Loricariidae</b>					
<i>Ancistrus</i>	-	(GA) <sub>15</sub> and (CA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered	Sex chromosomes	16
<i>Astroblepus grixalvii</i>	52	(GA) <sub>15</sub> and (CA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric	Karyoevolution	11
<i>Astroblepus homodon</i>	54	(GA) <sub>15</sub> and (CA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric	Karyoevolution	11
<i>Harttia punctata</i>	58	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	No signal	-	7
<i>Harttia duriventris</i>	55/56	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> and (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered/clustered	Sex chromosomes	12
<i>Harttia villasboas</i>	55/56	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> and (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered/clustered	Sex chromosomes	12
<i>Harttia rondoni</i>	54	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> and (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered/clustered	Sex chromosomes	12
<i>Hypostomus ancistroides</i>	68	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered/dispersal	Karyoevolution	5
<i>Hypostomus iheringii</i>	80	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered/dispersal	Karyoevolution	5
<i>Hypostomus nigromaculatus</i>	76	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered/dispersal	Karyoevolution	5
<i>Hypostomus tapijara</i>	66	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered/dispersal	Karyoevolution	5
<i>Panaqolus tankei</i>	52	(AC) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> and (GT) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered/subtelomeric	Karyoevolution	14
<i>Rinelocaria latirostris</i>	44	(GA) <sub>15</sub>	Dispersal/clustered	Karyoevolution	9
<b>Heptapteridae</b>					
<i>Imparfins schubarti</i>	58	(GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> , (GAA) <sub>7</sub> , (CAC) <sub>5</sub> , and (CA) <sub>8</sub>	Dispersal/clustered	Karyoevolution	9,10
<i>Imparfinis borodini</i>	50	(GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> , (GAA) <sub>7</sub> , (CAC) <sub>5</sub> , and (CA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered/clustered	Karyoevolution	10
<i>Pimelodella cf. chagresi</i>		(CA) <sub>15</sub> and (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric	Sex chromosomes	13
<b>Pimelodidae</b>					
<i>Bergiaria westermanni</i>	56	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered	Sex chromosomes	15
<i>Steindachneridion scripta</i>	56	(GA) <sub>15</sub>	Dispersal/clustered	Karyoevolution	9

Specie	2n	Microsatellite/taxon	Distribution pattern	Main Contributions	Ref
<b>GYMNOTIFORMES</b>					
Gymnotidae					
<i>Gymnotus sylvius</i>	40	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (TTA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	17
<i>Gymnotus cuia</i>	54	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (TTA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	17
<i>Gymnotus pantanal</i>	39/40	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (TTA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	17
<i>Gymnotus capanema</i>	34	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (TTA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	17
<i>Gymnotus carapo</i>	42	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (TTA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	17
<b>GOBIIFORMES</b>					
Gobiidae					
<i>Gobionellus oceanicus</i>	56	(CA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric/dispersal	Sex chromosomes	18
<i>Gobionellus stomatus</i>	56	(CA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric/dispersal	Sex chromosomes	18
<b>CHARACIFORMES</b>					
Anostomidae					
<i>Leporinus elongatus</i>	54	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , and (CAT) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	19
<i>Leporinus conirostris</i>	54	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , and (CAT) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	19
<i>Leporinus obtusidens</i>	54	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , and (CAT) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	19
<i>Leporinus reinhardti</i>	54	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , and (CAT) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	19
<i>Astyanax altiparanae</i>	50	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> and (GATA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	B chromosome	20
<i>Astyanax fasciatus</i>	46	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> and (GATA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	B chromosome	20
<i>Astyanax marionae</i>	48	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> and (GATA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	B chromosome	20
<i>Astyanax. schubarti</i>	36	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> and (GATA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	B chromosome	20

Specie	2n	Microsatellite/taxon	Distribution pattern	Main Contributions	Ref
<i>Astyanax mexicanus</i>	50	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> and (GATA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	B chromosome	20
<b>Lebiasinidae</b>					
<i>Pyrrhulina australis</i>	40	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	21, 26
<i>Pyrrhulina aff. australis</i>	40	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	21, 26
<i>Pyrrhulina brevis</i>	42	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	21
<i>Pyrrhulina semifasciata</i>	41	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	21
<i>Lebiasina bimaculata</i>	36	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , and (CGG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	27
<i>Lebiasina melanoguttata</i>	36	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , and (CGG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	27
<b>Erythrinidae</b>					
<i>Erythrinus erythrinus</i>	51	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (CGG) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GAG) <sub>10</sub> and (TA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	22, 38
<i>Hoplias intermedius</i>	50	(CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> and (CA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	23
<i>Hoplias brasiliensis</i>	50	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , and (CAC) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	23, 41
<i>Hoplias aimara</i>	50	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , and (CAC) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	23, 41
<i>Hoplias lacerdae</i>	50	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , and (CAC) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	23, 41
<i>Hoplias malabaricus</i>	50	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (TA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (GAC) <sub>10</sub> , (GAG) <sub>10</sub> , and (CGG) <sub>10</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (TAA) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	29, 40, 42
<i>Hoplias australis</i>	50	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , and (CAC) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	41
<i>Hoplias curupira</i>	50	A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , and (CAC) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	41
<i>Hoplias intermedius</i>	50	A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , and (CAC) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	41
<b>Crenuchidae</b>					

Specie	2n	Microsatellite/taxon	Distribution pattern	Main Contributions	Ref
<i>Characidium zebra</i>	50	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (CGG) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GAC) <sub>10</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> , (GAG) <sub>10</sub> , (TA) <sub>15</sub> , (TAA) <sub>10</sub> and (GATA) <sub>7</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	24
<i>Characidium gomesi</i>	50	A) <sub>30</sub> , (C) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , (CGG) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GAC) <sub>10</sub> , (GACA) <sub>4</sub> , (GAG) <sub>10</sub> , (TA) <sub>15</sub> , (TAA) <sub>10</sub> and (GATA) <sub>7</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	24, 32
<i>Hepsetus odoe</i>	58	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CGG) <sub>10</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	28
<i>Characidium cf. zebra</i>	50	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , and (TTA) <sub>10</sub>	Subtelomeric/clustered	Sex chromosomes	32
<i>Characidium vidali</i>	50	CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , and (TTA) <sub>10</sub>	Subtelomeric/clustered	Sex chromosomes	32
<i>Characidium pterostictum</i>	50	CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , and (TTA) <sub>10</sub>	Subtelomeric/clustered	Sex chromosomes	32
<i>Characidium timbuiense</i>	50	CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , and (TTA) <sub>10</sub>	Subtelomeric/clustered	Sex chromosomes	32
<i>Characidium lanei</i>	50	CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (CG) <sub>15</sub> , and (TTA) <sub>10</sub>	Subtelomeric/clustered	Sex chromosomes	32
<i>Characidium alipioi</i>	50	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> and (GAG) <sub>10</sub>	Scattered/clustered	B chromosomes	37
<b>Anostomidae</b>					
<i>Hypomasticus copelandii</i>	54	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric	Karyoevolution	25
<i>Hypomasticus steindachneri</i>	54	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub>	Subtelomeric	Karyoevolution	25
<b>Characidae</b>					
<i>Astyanax scabripinnis</i>	50	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> , (GAG) <sub>10</sub> , (GC) <sub>15</sub> and (GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	34
<i>Astyanax bockmanni</i>	-	(AG) <sub>15</sub>	Abundant in B chromosomes	B chromosomes	36
<i>Astyanax fasciatus</i>	45-47	(AG) <sub>15</sub>	Abundant in B chromosomes	B chromosomes	36
<i>Astyanax paranae</i>	-	(AG) <sub>15</sub>	Abundant in B chromosomes	B chromosomes	36
<i>Triportheus trifurcatus</i>	52	(CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAA) <sub>10</sub> , (CAC) <sub>10</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> , (CAT) <sub>10</sub> , (CGG) <sub>10</sub> , (GA) <sub>15</sub> , (GAA) <sub>10</sub> and (TA) <sub>15</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	30
<i>Hyphessobrycon eques</i>	52	(A) <sub>30</sub> , (CA) <sub>15</sub> , (CAG) <sub>10</sub> and (GATA) <sub>8</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Karyoevolution	31
<b>Parodontidae</b>					
<i>Apareiodon sp.</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	35, 43
<i>Apareiodon piracicabae</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Apareiodon hasemani</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Apareiodon ibitiensis</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44

Specie	2n	Microsatellite/taxon	Distribution pattern	Main Contributions	Ref
<i>Apareiodon affinis</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Parodon cf. pongoensis</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Parodon nasus</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Parodon hilarii</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Apareiodon machrisi</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Apareiodon cavalcante</i>	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Apareiodon</i> sp. 1	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
<i>Apareiodon</i> sp. 2	54	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>	Scattered, clustered, and mixed	Sex chromosomes	44
Prochilodontidae					
<i>Semaprochilodus insignis</i>	54	(CA) <sub>22</sub> , (GA) <sub>20</sub> , (GT) <sub>17</sub> , (CT) <sub>26</sub> , (CT) <sub>14</sub> GT(CT) <sub>5</sub> (CG) <sub>2</sub> (CT) <sub>9</sub> , (GT) <sub>9</sub> CA(GT) <sub>7</sub> CG(GT) <sub>19</sub>	Dispersal/clustered	Sex chromosomes	39
<i>Semaprochilodus taeniurus</i>	54	CA) <sub>22</sub> , (GA) <sub>20</sub> , (GT) <sub>17</sub> , (CT) <sub>26</sub> , (CT) <sub>14</sub> GT(CT) <sub>5</sub> (CG) <sub>2</sub> (CT) <sub>9</sub> , (GT) <sub>9</sub> CA(GT) <sub>7</sub> CG(GT) <sub>19</sub>	Dispersal/clustered	Sex chromosomes	39

**Table 2.** Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium test for *Trachelyopterus galeatus* (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism from Amazonas River basin and *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* U2 snRNA and (GATA)<sub>n</sub> polymorphism from Araguaia River basin.

Genotype	Genotype Absolut frequencies		Genotype relative frequencies		χ <sup>2</sup>	p value*
<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i> (GATA) <sub>n</sub> polymorphism - Amazonas						
	observed	expected	observed	expected		
<b>AA</b>	3 (2♂ 1♀)	3.841	0.273	0.349	0.184	
<b>AB</b>	7(2♂ 5♀)	5.318	0.636	0.483	0.531	
<b>BB</b>	1(1♂)	1.841	0.091	0.167	0.384	
				<b>Total</b>	<b>1.099</b>	<b>0.2942</b>
<i>Trachelyopterus</i> aff. <i>galeatus</i> U2 snRNA and (GATA) <sub>n</sub> polymorphism - Araguaia						
	observed	expected	observed	expected		
<b>AA</b>	1 (1♀)	0.766	0.063	0.048	0.071	
<b>AB</b>	5 (2♂ 3♀)	3.719	0.313	0.232	0.441	
<b>AC</b>	0	1.75	0	0.109	1.75	
<b>BB</b>	6 (1♂ 5♀)	4.516	0.375	0.282	0.487	
<b>BC</b>	0	4.25	0	0.266	4.25	
<b>CC</b>	4 (2♂ 2♀)	1	0.25	0.063	9	
				<b>Total</b>	<b>15.999</b>	<b>0.0011</b>

## 6. CONCLUSÕES

Os aspectos evidenciados por este estudo permitiram inferir novas informações sobre a diversidade de *Trachelyopterus*, entre elas: (1) reiterar a existência de uma possível nova espécie, *Trachelyopterus* aff. *galeatus* da bacia do rio Araguaia, sugerido por Santos et al. (2021) com base em marcadores ribossomais; (2) corroborar com a hipótese de sinonímia entre “*Parauchenipterus*” e *Trachelyopterus*, uma vez que as espécies do gênero *Trachelyopterus* (ver Akama, 2004) se mostraram mais semelhantes às espécies de “*Parauchenipterus*” do que entre si; que (3) a amostra de nosso estudo identificada pela morfologia como *Trachelyopterus* aff. *coriaceus* pode de fato constituir uma nova espécie, que foi proposta para ser encontrada nas bacias dos rios Paraná e Paraguai (a população deste estudo é da bacia do rio Paraguai) (ver Akama, 2004); e que (4) o mapeamento integrado (guiado) mostrou-se uma metodologia eficiente para estudar microssatélites dispersos, uma vez que, por meio dele, novos arranjos cromossômicos, incluindo dois polimorfismos, foram evidenciados nessas espécies de *Trachelyopterus*.