

Georgia Southern University [Georgia Southern Commons](https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/)

[Electronic Theses and Dissertations](https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd) Jack N. Averitt College of Graduate Studies

Summer 2015

Helping to Resolve Taxonomic Conflicts within the Genus Amblyomma (Acari:Ixodidae) from a Molecular Perspective

Paula Lado

Follow this and additional works at: [https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd](https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd?utm_source=digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu%2Fetd%2F1298&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) Part of the [Molecular Genetics Commons,](https://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/31?utm_source=digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu%2Fetd%2F1298&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) and the [Other Ecology and Evolutionary](https://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/21?utm_source=digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu%2Fetd%2F1298&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) [Biology Commons](https://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/21?utm_source=digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu%2Fetd%2F1298&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Recommended Citation

Lado, Paula., "Helping to resolve taxonomic conflicts within the genus Amblyomma (Acari: Ixodidae) from a molecular perspective" (2015). Electronic Theses & Dissertations.

This thesis (open access) is brought to you for free and open access by the Jack N. Averitt College of Graduate Studies at Georgia Southern Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Georgia Southern Commons. For more information, please contact [digitalcommons@georgiasouthern.edu.](mailto:digitalcommons@georgiasouthern.edu)

HELPING TO RESOLVE TAXONOMIC CONFLICTS WITHIN THE GENUS AMBLYOMMA (ACARI: IXODIDAE) FROM A MOLECULAR PERSPECTIVE

by

PAULA LADO (Under the Direction of Lorenza Beati)

ABSTRACT

This work sought to reassess the taxonomic status of Amblyomma parvum Aragao, 1908 and of the A. maculatum group of ticks Camicas, 1998. By using different molecular markers, 12SrDNA, 16SrDNA, DL, COI, COII (mitochondrial) and ITS2 (nuclear), I analyzed the systematic relationships between these taxa and their closest relatives. Phylogenetic analyses by maximum parsimony, maximum likelihood, and Bayesian analysis were performed in order to determine relationships among species and populations, and to determine the evolutionary history of these ixodids. The data obtained supported the hypothesis of cryptic speciation occurring within A. parvum, with the northern populations of Central America being a different species from the one occurring in the southern latitudes, mainly in Brazil and Argentina. As for the A. maculatum group of species, the results strongly suggest that A. triste should be synonymized with A. maculatum, while A. tigrinum is maintained as a separated taxon until further biological evidence is gathered. In conclusion, the analyses presented herein successfully resolved some of the taxonomic issues within this large genus of hard ticks, while raising additional questions for future investigations.

INDEX WORDS: Georgia Southern University, Thesis, Ticks, Amblyomma, Taxonomy, Molecular Systematics.

HELPING TO RESOLVE TAXONOMIC CONFLICTS WITHIN THE GENUS AMBLYOMMA (ACARI: IXODIDAE) FROM A MOLECULAR PERSPECTIVE

by

PAULA LADO

B.S., University of the Republic, Uruguay, 2011 M.S., University of the Republic, Uruguay, 2013

A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

> MASTER OF SCIENCE STATESBORO, GEORGIA

©2015 PAULA LADO All Rights Reserved

HELPING TO RESOLVE TAXONOMIC CONFLICTS WITHIN THE GENUS AMBLYOMMA (ACARI: IXODIDAE) FROM A MOLECULAR PERSPECTIVE

by

PAULA LADO

Major Professor: Lorenza Beati Committee: Lorenza Beati Lance Durden Laura Regassa

Electronic version approved: June, 2015

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to every person who believe in itself and who works hard to reach personal and academic goals. To everyone who is willing to fall, learn, and continue regardless the obstacles.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Foremost, I would like to acknowledge my adviser, Dr. Lorenza Beati, who gave me the opportunity of being here, work in her lab, and who taught me what I know about Systematics. She inspired me to explore new topics and techniques, as well as to keep going. Also, I would like to thank her for the trust and support throughout this past year.

In addition, I thank to Dr. Durden and Dr. Regassa, committee members, for the valuable feedback and support during my thesis work.

I am grateful to researchers who provided us with specimens used in this research, and previous grad and undergrad students who participated and helped with the project, especially Danielle Hibbs.

I also would like to thank John Ludwig, not only for the training in lab techniques, but for the time shared and the support along this challenge.

I thank NSF for the financial support (Grant number 1026146 to L. Beati) and the Graduate Student Organization.

Last but not least, I acknowledge my parents and friends, who helped me and supported me in this experience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1.

CHAPTER 2.

CHAPTER 3.

Chapter 1

Is Amblyomma parvum a complex of species?

Introduction

The hard tick Amblyomma parvum (Acari: Ixodidae) Aragao 1908 has a broad geographic distribution, ranging from Mexico to Argentina (Hoffman, 1962, Guglielmone and Hadani, 1980; 1982; Guglielmone et al. 1990; 2003; Nava et al., 2008a). Throughout its geographical distribution, this species has a predilection for drier areas of Central America, the Nothern coast of South America, and the dry diagonal of South America spanning from the Chaco and Pampa in Argentina, to the Cerrado and Caatinga in Brazil (Fairchild, 1966; Guglielmone and Hadani, 1980; Morrone, 2006; Nava et al., 2008a). Basically, with the exception of an isolated population in Roraima (Amazonia), A. parvum has a disjunt distribution with two main clusters (northern and southern) separated by the Amazon basin.

As for host range, adults commonly parasitize a variety of medium to large-sized domestic and wild animals, including humans (Jones et al., 1972; Guglielmone et al., 1991; Nava et al., 2006; 2008b), while the immature stages are commonly collected from rodents, in particular members of the Caviidae and Echimyidae (Labruna et al., 2005; Nava, 2006; 2008b; Saraiva et al., 2012).

As A. parvum can also bite humans, it is a potential vector of pathogens of public health importance. Specimens of this tick have been found to be naturally infected with Coxiella burnetii, Ehrlichia cf. chaffensis and Candidatus 'Rickettsia andeanae' (Pachecho et al., 2007; Tomassone et al., 2008; Labruna et al 2011; Pacheco et al., 2013).

Aragão described A. parvum in 1908 (Aragão, 1908) and further illustrated it in 1911 (Aragão, 1911). Ivancovich (1973) designated a subspecies, A. parvum carenatus, which differed from the original description of A. parvum by the presence of ventral plates on the festoons, not realizing that in his 1911

publication, Aragão mentioned the occurrence of carenae in A. parvum (Guglielmone et al., 1990).

Later, Guglielmone and Hadani (1980) observed that males with carenae were more commonly found on cattle whereas males without them were almost exclusively found on a wild rodent, *Dolychotis salinicola*. The taxonomic status of this group of species was resolved by Guglielmone et al. (1990) through an in depth analysis of the different morphological types. The authors redescribed the adults and described de immatures of A. parvum. Amblyomma parvum carenatus was synonymized with A. parvum because it corresponded to the tick described by Aragão in 1911. In addition, they erected a new species, Amblyomma pseudoparvum Guglielmone, Mangold, and Keirans 1990, consistently found to lack carenae and to parasitize D. salinicola.

Although the systematic status of A. parvum appeared to have been clarified, recent molecular studies suggested that A. parvum could correspond to a complex of species (Nava et al., 2008a). Increasing evidence shows that tick species with a wide geographic distribution can in fact be clusters of more or less cryptic species (Szabo et al., 2005; Labruna et al., 2009; Mastropaolo et al., 2011; Beati et al., 2013; Nava et al., 2014).

The analysis of 16SrDNA sequences of A. parvum from Argentina and Brazil revealed significantly higher divergence values between (3.7%) than within populations (0 to 1.1%) suggesting to the authors the possible occurrence of two species (Nava et al., 2008a).

Nevertheless, divergence values are relative numbers, that cannot be used as such to define species, particularly when based on the analysis of a single gene. Multiple sources of evidence, morphological, molecular, and biological, should be combined in order to reliably delimit species. Morphological data and cross breeding experiments between populations of A. parvum from Argentina and Brazil contradicted the 16SrDNA results: they did not detect significant morphological differences between populations nor did they reveal reproductive incompatibility (Nava et al., unpublished data). Although these ticks

9

might be geographically separated and prevented from interbreeding, their isolation has not yet resulted in speciation (Nava et al., unpublished data).

Nonetheless, these studies were based on specimens collected from southern South America only. If samples from Brazil and Argentina are genetically different enough to suggest incipient speciation, samples from Central America are more likely to have diverged earlier and to constitute a different species. This would be particularly meaningful, if we consider that another tick, Amblyomma cajennense, with a similar geographical distribution and also associated with relatively drier areas, was found to be constituted by six different species, one of them with a Mexican and Central American distribution (Amblyomma mixtum) and five confined to continental South America (Beati et al., 2013; Nava et al., 2014)

Material and Methods

Sampling

Our samples included 90 adult specimens identified as A. parvum from the following countries: Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Panama and Mexico (Fig. 1.1). In the case of Argentina and Brazil, specimens from several localities were included in order to consider variation between and within different eco-regions. Our tick sample included specimens from 16 localities, corresponding to 7 countries across the geographic distribution of A. parvum, thus covering a wide range of latitudes (Table 1.1). The collection sites are shown in Fig. 1.1 and designated as follows: Argentina, Arg; (Cordoba, CB, Santiago del Estero, SDE; Catamarca, CA; La Rioja, LR), Brazil, Bra; (Piaui, PI; Mato Grosso do Sul, MGS; Minas Gerais, MG; Pantanal, PA, Goias, GO), Costa Rica, CR; (Palo Verde, PV; Santa Rosa, SR), El Salvador, ES; Mexico (Yucatan, YU), Panama, PM; (Panama, PM; Los Santos, LS), Paraguay, Par; (Boqueron, BO). In addition, specimens of A. *pseudoparvum* included in the analyses were from Salta (SA), Argentina.

DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing

Tick DNA was extracted and the exoskeletons were preserved for further morphological analysis following previously published protocols (Beati and Keirans, 2001; Beati et al., 2012). For that purpose a small portion of the posterolateral idiosoma of each tick was removed by using a disposable scalpel and the tick was incubated overnight in 180 µl Qiagen ATL lysis buffer (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and 40 µl of a 14.3 mg/ml solution of proteinase K (Roche Applied Sciences, Indianapolis, IN). After complete lysis of the tick tissues and repeated vortexing, the exoskeletons were stored in 70% ethanol and kept as voucher specimens. The lysed tissues were further processed as previously described (Beati and Keirans, 2001; Beati et al., 2012). Five mitochondrial gene sequences, 12SrDNA (ribosomal small-subunit RNA gene sequence), 16SrDNA (ribosomal smallsubunit RNA gene sequence), COI (Cythochrome oxydase subunit I), COII (Cythochrome oxydase subunit II), and d-loop (DL, control region) were amplified employing previously reported sets of primers (Beati and Keirans, 2001; Beati et al., 2012; Barret and Hebert, 2005; Mangold et al., 1998). In addition, a portion of the nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer 2 (ITS2) was amplified by modifying previously published methods, with 35 instead of 27 cycles of annealing (Beati et al., 2012; McLain et al., 1995). PCRs were performed using a MasterTaq kit (5-Prime, Gaithersburg, MD). Each reaction contained 2.5 µl of tick DNA, 2.5 µl of 10 \times Taq buffer, 5 µl of 5 \times TaqMaster PCR Enhancer, 1.5 µl of MgAc (25 mM), 0.5 µ dNTP mix (10 mM each), 0.1 µ of Tag polymerase (5U/ µl), 1.25 µl of each primer from a 10 pmoles/µl stock solution (Invitrogen, Life Technologies Corporation, Grand Island, NY), and 14.6 µl molecular biology grade H_2O . The two DNA strands of each amplicon were purified and sequenced at the High-Throughput Genomics Unit (HTGU, University of Washington, Seattle, WA) and were assembled with Sequencer 4.5 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI).

Phylogenetic analyses

Sequences were manually aligned with McClade 4.07 OSX (Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA) (Maddison and Maddison 2000). Secondary structure was considered in aligning 12SrDNA (Beati and Keirans 2001) and DL (Zhang and Hewitt 1997). Codon organization was taken into account when aligning the COII data set. Each data set was analyzed by maximum parsimony (MP) and maximum likelihood (ML) using PAUP (Swofford, 2000), and through Bayesian analysis (BA) with MrBayes 3.1.2 and 3.2.4 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist 2001; Ronquist et al., 2011). Branch support was assessed by bootstrap analysis (1000 replicates) with PAUP for MP, with PHYML (100 replica) (Guindon and Gascuel 2003) in Phylogeny.fr (Dereeper et al., 2008) for ML, and by posterior probability with MrBayes. MP heuristic searches were performed by branch-swapping using the tree bisection-reconnection (TBR) algorithm, ACCTRAN character optimization, with all substitutions given equal weight. Gaps were treated either as a 5th (in DL, COII and ITS2 analyses) or as a missing character (12srDNA, 16SrDNA, COI and both concatenated datasets). ML heuristic searches were run after the nucleotide substitution model best fitting the data was selected by Modeltest v3.7 (Posada and Crandall 1998). Pairwise sequence distances were calculated based on the ML model by using PAUP. For ML searches, the MP tree with the best ML score was used as the starting tree. Two runs, with four chains each, were run simultaneously for BA analyses (1,000,000 generations). Trees were sampled every 100 iteration. Trees saved before the average standard deviation of split fragments converged to a value < 0.01 were discarded from the final sample, and the number of generations was increased, if needed, to avoid discarding more than 25% of the trees. The 50% majority-rule consensus tree of the remaining trees was inferred and posterior probabilities were recorded for each branch. Data sets were combined for total evidence analyses. One concatenated data set including both mitochondrial and nuclear sequences (n+mtDNA), were analyzed following the same procedure outlined for the separate analyses. The sequences were concatenated using MacClade. The outgroup used for all the phylogenetic analyses included the following species: A.

cajennense, A. sculptum, A. mixtum and A. interandinum. A. pseudoparvum was included in the analyses because it corresponds to the closest morphological relative of A. parvum.

Results

Sequence diversity

Due to variations in the amplification success, it was not possible to obtain sequences for all the genes for each sample. However, we obtained sequences for all the geographic regions and localities (Table 1.1). In terms of sequence diversity, the 39 12SrDNA (343 bp) sequences were represented by 12 unique haplotypes; the 65 16SrDNA (406 bp) sequences by 21 haplotypes; the 36 COI (604 bp) sequences by 20 haplotypes; the 15 COII (602 bp) sequences by 9 haplotypes; the 33 DL (455 bp) sequences by 29 haplotypes and the 8 sequences from the ITS2 (1161 bp) by 7 genotypes (Table 1.2). The 455 bp DL dataset was reduced to 389 bp after eliminating the hypervariable region, which could not be aligned with sufficient confidence. There were no shared haplotypes between the countries or regions, according to the designation in Table 1.2.

Individual gene markers 12SrDNA

The MP analysis for the 12SrDNA sequences detected a total of 73 parsimony-informative characters, and the heuristic search found 3 equally parsimonious trees with relatively little homoplasy: length = 163; consistency index $(CI) = 0.812$; retention index $(RI) = 0.859$; homoplasy index $(HI) = 0.188$. The ML model that best fitted the data according to the Akaike Information Criterion was TVM+G with base frequencies of $A = 0.42$; $C = 0.09$; $G = 0.13$ and $T = 0.36$ and proportion of invariable sites $(PI) = 0$ and gamma distribution shape parameter $(G) = 0.2406$.

The MP, ML and Bayesian analyses (Figs. 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4 respectively) all revealed that the ingroup is not monophyletic due to the presence of A . pseudoparvum embedded within it. MP, ML and BA analyses resulted in topologically identical trees. The ingroup and A. pseudoparvum were clustered in a well-supported (100%) polytomic clade.

Within this group, the well-supported Brazilian (B) and the Argentinian (A) lineages were clustered in a monophyletic group, and the Central American (CA) clade was resolved and separated from the other ones. The A. pseudoparvum branch stemmed from the polytomy and did not appear to be more or less related to any of the other groups.

ML distance values within the three main clades (A, B, and CA) were always below 0.7%. Distances between either A or B and CA ranged from 6.5 to 8.0%, while between A or B and A. pseudoparvum they varied from 8.3 to 9.1%. A. pseudoparvum differed from CA by 8.6-8.9%. The distance separating the ingroup from the outgroup ranged from 14.2 to 19.6%, and the distance within species of the outgroup varied from 7.9 to 14.3% (Table 1.3).

16rDNA

The MP analysis of the 16SrDNA gene sequences detected a total of 90 parsimony-informative sites, and the search found 3 equally parsimonious trees. The length of the trees was 194 (CI = 0.778; RI = 0.885; HI = 0.222). The ML model that best fitted the data according to the Akaike Information Criterion was TVM+G with base frequencies of A=0.43; C=0.08; G=0.13 and T=0.36; PI = 0; G $= 0.1556$.

The MP, ML and BA trees were totally congruent (Figs. 1.5-1.7). A. pseudoparvum constituted a basal lineage within a monophyletic group, and all A. parvum clustered in a well-resolved separated lineage. The first node within the ingroup divided the sequences in two resolved clades, the basal CA and a cluster including all samples from Brazil, Argentina, and Paraguay. The second lineage was further subdivided into two supported groups. The first included the Brazilian samples and the second included the Argentinian and the Paraguayan samples $(A + P)$. Amblyomma pseudoparvum was more closely related to the CA clade than to the rest of the A. parvum subgroups.

Divergence values within the clades (A, B, and CA) were always below 1.3%. Distance between either A, B or Paraguayan, and CA samples ranged from 6.5 to 7.9%. A. pseudoparvum differed from the A, B or Paraguayan sequences by 10.3 to 11.9%. The divergence values between CA and A. pseudoparvum were 8.5 - 10.1%. The distance separating the ingroup from the outgroup ranged from 11.6 to 17.7%, and from 7.2 to 12.2% within species of the outgroup (Table 1.3).

COI

The MP analysis of COI gene sequences detected 137 parsimony informative sites and the heuristic search led to 6 equally parsimonious trees. The length of the trees was 386 (CI = 0.681 ; RI = 0.811 ; and HI= 0.319). The ML model that best fitted the data according to the Akaike Information Criterion was GTR+I+G with base frequencies of A=0.31; C=0.17; G=0.13 and T=0.39; PI = 0.5399 and $G = 0.7578$.

The MP, ML and BA results (Figs 1.8-1.10) revealed that the ingroup was paraphyletic because of the position of A. *pseudoparvum*. The MP analysis showed three lineages arising from a polytomy: A. pseudoparvum, CA (100%), and the A – B lineage (91%). The latter was further split into A and B (99 and 98% respectively). The topology of the ML reconstruction was identical. By using BA the CA lineage was basal to everything else, followed by the A.*pseudoparvum* branch, located between CA and the A – B cluster. A and B were monophyletic sister lineages. ML divergence values within B ranged from 0.2 to 0.5%, within A from 0.2 to 3.5%, and within CA from 0.3 to 1.3%. Clades A and B were separated from each other by 4.3 - 6.2%; and either one of them differed from CA by $9.8 - 11.2$ %. Distance between CA and A. pseudoparvum was 11.6 – 12.3%. The ingroup was separated from the outgroup by 14.7% to 18.5%. The variation within the outgroup ranged from 11.6 to 15.6% (Table 1.4).

COII

 The MP analysis of the COII dataset identified a total of 120 parsimonyinformative characters, with 8 best trees (length = 310 ; CI= 0.803; RI= 0.840; HI= 0.197). The ML model best fitting the data, according to the Akaike Information Criterion, was TrN+G with the following base frequencies: A=0.37; C=0.08; $G=0.17$ and T $=0.38$; PI = 0 and G = 0.1954.

 The MP, ML and BA results (Figs. 1.11-1.13) were fully congruent. The ingroup was monophyletic and resolved into two clades: B - A and CA. Of those, the first one was further subdivided into two supported lineages, B and A.

 Divergence values within the clades were below 0.8%. The distance separating B from A ranged from 3.3 to 4.2%. The divergence values between either A or B and CA clade varied from 11.2 to 12.1%, while between the ingroup and the outgroup differed by 16.6 - 21.9%. Variation within outgroup species oscillated between 10.7 and 19.3% (Table 1.4).

DL

 The MP analysis of DL sequence detected 72 parsimony-informative sites and the heuristic search led to 2000 equally parsimonious trees. The length of the trees was 174; CI = 0.753 ; RI = 0.860 and HI = 0.247 . The ML model best fitting the data, according to the Akaike Information Criterion, was TVM+I+G with base frequencies of A=0.42; C=0.13; G=0.13 and T=0.32; PI = 0.444; G = 0.531.

The MP and ML were congruent. Amblyomma pseudoparvum was always embedded within the monophyletic A. parvum (Figs. 14 and 15). Two clades were well resolved, the CA - A. pseudoparvum and the A - B. In the former, the CA samples were monophyletic. In the second, only B was supported. For BA, the ingroup was also not monophyletic (Fig. 1.16). The monophyletic CA clustered with A. pseudoparvum. The Brazilian clade was monophyletic, while the Argentinian sequences did not form a well-supported clade.

ML pairwise distances within the clades were always below 1.1%. CA differed from A or B by 7.1 to 7.9%, and A. *pseudoparvum* differed from A or B by 8.6 to 9.5%. The divergence value between CA and A. pseudoparvum ranged

from 6.6 to 6.8%. The distances separating the ingroup from the outgroup ranged from 11.8 to 16.2%, and within the ougroup from 6.8 to 12.1% (Table 1.5).

ITS2

Unfortunately, we were unable to obtain an ITS2 sequence for A. pseudoparvum. The MP analysis of the remaining ITS2 gene sequences detected 244 parsimony-informative sites and the length of the 2 best trees was 383 (CI=0.924; RI=0.958; and HI=0.076). The ML model best fitting the data by the Akaike Information Criterion was GTR+G with base frequencies of A=0.17; C=0.36; G=0.28 and T=0.19; PI = 0; G=0.4616.

In both the MP and ML (Figs. 1.17 and 1.18) analyses the ingroup was monophyletic. The MP reconstruction identified two clades within the ingroup: CA and B - A. With this molecular marker, neither the Brazilian nor the Argentinian sequences clustered into monophyletic groups. The ML analysis was characterized by overall lower resolution, with only CA constituting a relatively weakly (70%) supported clade, sister group to the Brazilian samples from Goiás. The remaining Brazilian and Argentinian sequences were polytomic and basal to the other clades. The BA reconstruction resolved the monophyletic ingroup into two resolved clades: one (88%) included samples from Argentina (A) and Brazil (PA and MG), while the other (98%) clustered the sister lineages from Brazil (GO) and Central America (100%) (Fig. 1.19).

 The ML divergence value within Brazilian samples from PA and MG was 0.2%, and differed from Brazilian samples from GO, by 3.8 to 4.1%. Thus, the overall variation within Brazilian samples was from 0.2 to 4.1%. The distance between CA samples and either Brazil from MG and PA or GO was similar and ranged from 3.3 to 5.9%. Divergence values between Argentinian and Brazilian samples from MG and PA varied from 0.1 to 0.4%, whereas the distance between Argentinian samples and Brazilian samples from GO was 3.9%. Divergence values between A and CA sequences ranged from 3.6 and 5.5%. Between the ingroup and the outgroup the distances oscillated from 13.5 to 17.4%, and within the outgroup from 2.1 to 7.1% (Table 1.6).

Concatenated datasets (mitochondrial gene sequences)

 The concatenated matrix included sequences representative of the countries included in the study. In addition, a sequence of A. *pseudoparvum* was also included. Sequences of all the mitochondrial molecular markers were concatenated with the exception of COII, a gene for which we did not have a sufficient number of amplicons. The concatenated matrix included 84 sequences (1755 bp) corresponding to 16 unique haplotypes, 1 sequence of A. pseudoparvum and 4 outgroups.

 The MP analysis of the concatenated mitochondrial dataset detected 350 parsimony-informative characters and the heuristic search found 2 equally parsimonious trees. The length of the trees was 885; CI = 0.738 ; RI = 0.820 ; and $H = 0.262$. The ML model best fitting the data, according to the Akaike Information Criterion, was GTR+I+G with base frequencies of A=0.38; C=0.12; $G=0.14$ and $T=0.36$; PI = 0.5606; G = 1.0068.

 The MP and ML analyses (Figs. 1.20 and 1.21) revealed a polytomy with A. pseudoparvum embedded within the ingroup. Two clades were wellsupported, CA (100%) and B - A (100%). The latter was further resolved into two lineages, B and A, both with 100% bootstrap support. The BA resulted in a reconstruction in which the ingroup was monophyletic, although the support was low (70%). The ingroup was resolved in two clades: B - A (100%) and CA (100%). The Panama samples constituted a supported lineage within CA. The B - A clade was split in two monophyletic lineages, A and B (both with 100% support). Within B, the MG branch was basal to the sister lineages, GO and PA (Fig. 1.22).

ML pairwise distances within the clades were always below 1.6%. CA differed from A or B by 8.1 to 8.5%, and A. pseudoparvum differed from A or B by 10.5 to 11%. The divergence value between CA and A. pseudoparvum was between 9.5 and 9.8%. The distances separating the ingroup from the outgroup ranged from 13.9 to 16.3%, whereas the distance between A. pseudoparvum and the outgroup varied from 15.3 to 17.5%. The distances between species belonging to the ougroup differed by 9.5 to 13.1% (Table 1.7).

Concatenated datasets (mitochondrial and nuclear gene sequences)

 The concatenated matrix included 95 sequences (2630 bp) corresponding to 15 unique haplotypes and 4 outgroups. The MP analysis for the concatenated dataset detected a total of 607 parsimony-informative sites, and the parsimonious heuristic search found 2 trees equally parsimonious. The length of those trees was 1119 and the coefficients as follows: $CI = 0.833$; $RI = 0.895$; $HI =$ 0.167. The ML model that best fitted the data according to the Akaike Information Criterion was GTR+I+G with base frequencies of A=0.30; C=0.21; G=0.19 and $T=0.30$; PI = 0.3601; G = 0.7092.

 The MP, ML and BA analyses were fully congruent leading to topologically identical trees, in which the ingroup was monophyletic and two clades were resolved: CA and A - B. This clade was further resolved into two; B and A. In the three phylogenetic reconstructions a lineage inluding Brazilian samples from Goias was supported within the B clade (Figs. 1.23-1.25).

 Divergence values within the CA and A clades were always below 1.1%. Overall variation within B clade ranged between 0 and 1.5%, being 0 within the GO lineage. The distance between A and Brazilian samples from MG and PA ranged from 2.5 to 2.9%, whereas Brazilian samples from GO differed from Argentinian samples by 3.8 to 4.1%. Divergence values between either A or B and CA ranged from 6.5-6.7% and the distance splitting the ingroup from the outgroup was 18.6-21.1%. Variation within the outgroup varied between 7.6 and 11% (Table 1.8).

Discussion

 The overall structure of the trees obtained with the 6 genes was often different, particularly when dealing with weakly supported nodes. However, when A. pseudoparvum was included in the analyses, it became clear that A. parvum is paraphyletic, with two consistently distinct clades diverging at the basal level, the CA and the $A - B$ clade. When the position of A. pseudoparvum was resolved, it appeared to be more closely related to CA than to $A - B$. ML pairwise distance values between A and B were compatible with these geographically distant lineages being conspecific, particularly when compared to distance values within the outgroup a cluster of recognized different species. Between CA and A – B, CA and A. pseudoparvum, and A - B and A. pseudoparvum, the distance values are similar to values recorded between outgroup species and between the outgourp and the ingroup. This strongly suggests that we are dealing with three taxonomic entities, A. parvum (from Brazil and Argentina), a distinct species from Central America which needs to be described and characterized, and A. pseudoparvum. In order to fully ascertain the taxonomic status of the Central American lineage, it would be useful to cross-breed colony ticks from CA, B and A and verify whether or not they are reproductively compatible. In addition, it would be important to include two other Amblyomma taxa in future analysis, A. auricularium and A. pseudoparvum, two species closely related to our ingroup (Nava et al., 2008a).

Within the A- B clade, some of the analyses reveal that the samples from Brazil – GO have further differentiated from other Brazilian lineages, which appear to be more closely related to the Argentinian ones. Nevertheless, the differentiation between BR-GO and the other A-B samples is relatively weak, and cross-breeding experiments between A and Br-GO ticks showed reproductive compatibility (Gerardi et al., 2013; Nava et al., unpublished data).

If the deepest split between lineages in this group of taxa separates A. pseudoparvum, a tick strictly associated with the Chaco area (northern Argentina and Paraguay), a Brazilian-Argentinian clade mostly found in the

Chaco/Cerrado/Caatinga regions, and a clade found in the seasonally dry tropical forest of Central America, it is possible that the A. parvum group of taxa has an early-middle Miocene origin, as was the case for another Amblyomma species with a similar geographical distribution (Beati et al., 2013). During that period, caviomorph rodents had already started diversifying in South America (Poux et al., 2006), thus providing a specific group of hosts host for A. pseudoparvum, a lineage in a basal position and distinct from clades that specialized on larger mammals, cattle for A. parvum and wild ungulates (among others) for the CA clade (Nava et al., 2008).

References

Aragao HB. 1908. Algunas novas especies de carrapatos brazilieros. Braz. Med. 22: 111-115.

Aragao HB. 1911. Notas sobre Ixodidas brazilieros. Mem. Inst. Osw. Cruz. 3:145-195.

Barrett RDH and Hebert PDN. 2005. Identifying spiders through DNA barcodes. Can. J. Zool. 83: 481-491.

Beati L and Keirans JE. 2001. Analysis of the systematic relationships among ticks of the genera *Rhipicephalus* and Boophilus (Acari: Ixodidae) based on mitochondrial 12S ribosomal DNA gene sequences and morphological characters. J Parasitol. 87:32-48.

Beati L, Patel J, Lucas-Williams H, Adakal H, Kanduma EG, Tembo-Mwase E, Krecek R, Mertins JW, Alfred JT, Kelly S, Kelly P. 2012. Phylogeography and demographic history of Amblyomma variegatum (Fabricius) (Acari: Ixodidae), the tropical bont tick. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis, 12(6):514–525.

Beati L, Nava S, Burkman EJ**,** Barros-Battesti DM, Labruna MB, Guglielmone AA, Cáceres AG, Guzmán-Cornejo CM, León R, Durden LA**,** Faccini JLH**.** 2013. Amblyomma cajennense (Fabricius, 1787) (Acari: Ixodidae), the Cayenne tick: phylogeography and evidence for allopatric speciation. BMC Evolutionary Biol. 13:267.

Dereeper A, Guignon V, Blanc G, Audic S, Buffet S, Chevenet F, Dufayard JF, Guindon S, Lefort V, Lescot M, Claverie JM, Gascuel O. 2008. Phylogeny.fr: robust phylogenetic analysis for the non-specialist. Nucleic Acids Res. 36(Web Server issue)**:**W465-W469.

Fairchild GB, Kohls, GM, Tipton VJ. 1966. The ticks of Panama (Acarina: Ixodoidea). In Ectoparasites of Panama, eds Wenzel, W. R and Tipton, V. J. pp. 167–219. Chicago, IL: Field Museum of Natural History.

Gerardi M, Martins MM, Nava S, Szabo MPJ. 2013. Comparing feeding and reproductive parameters of Amblyomma parvum tick populations (Acari: Ixodidae) from Brazil and Argentina on various host species. Vet. Parasitol. 197:312-317.

Guglielmone AA and Hadani A. 1980. Hallazgos de Amblyomma parvum Aragao, 1908 en Catamarca y Salta. Rev. Med. Vet. (Bs.As.). 61: 121-129.

Guglielmone AA and Hadani A. 1982. Amblyomma ticks found on cattle in northwestern Argentina. Ann. Parasitol. Hum. Comp. 57:91-97.

Guglielmone AA, Mangold AJ, Keirans JE. 1990. Redescription of the male and female of Amblyomma parvum Aragao, 1908, and description of the nymph and larva, and description of all stages of Amblyomma pseudoparvum sp. n. (Acari: Ixodida: Ixodidae). Acarologia, 31: 143-159.

Guglielmone AA, Mangold AJ, Garcia MD. 1991. The life cycle of Amblyomma parvum Aragao, 1908 (Acari: Ixodidae) under laboratory conditions. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 13:129-136.

Guglielmone AA, Estrada-Pena A, Keirans JE, Robbins RG. 2003. Ticks (Acari: Ixodida) of the Neotropical Zoogographic Region. In: International Consortium on Ticks and Tick-Borne Diseases (ICTTD-2), Atlanta, Houten, The Netherlands, p. 173.

Guindon S, Gascuel O. 2003. A simple, fast, and accurate algorithm to estimate large phylogenies by maximum likelihood. Syst Biol. 52(5)**:**696-704.

Hoffman A. 1962. Monografia de los Ixodoidea de Mexico. Parte I. Rev. Soc. Mex. Hist. Nat. 23:191-307.

Huelsenbeck JP, Ronquist F. 2001. MRBAYES: Bayesian inference of phylogenetic trees. Bioinformatics. 17**:**754-755.

Ivancovich JC. 1973. Nuevas subspecies de garrapatas del genero Amblyomma (Ixodidae). Rev. Inv. Agrop. Ser. 4 Pat. Anim. 10: 55-64.

Jones EK, Clifford CM, Keirans JE, Kohls GM. 1972. The ticks of Venezuela (Acarina: Ixodoidea) with a key to the species of Amblyomma in the Western Hemisphere. Brigham Young University Science Bulletin, Biological Series. 17:1– 40.

Labruna MB, Jorge RSP, Sana DA, Jácomo ATA, Kashivakura CK, Furtado MM, Ferro C, Perez SA, Silveira L, Santos TS, Marques SR, Morato RG, Nava A, Adania CH, Teixeira RHF, Gomes AAB, Conforti VA, Azevedo FCC, Prada CS, Silva JCR, Batista AF, Marvulo MFV, Morato RLG, Alho CJR, Pinter A, Ferreira PM, Ferreira F, Barros-Battesti DM. 2005. Ticks (Acari : Ixodida) on wild carnivores in Brazil. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 36: 149-163.

Labruna MB, Naranjo V, Mangold AJ, Thompson C, Estrada-Pena A, Guglielmone AA, Jongejan F, De La Fuente J. 2009. Allopatric speciation in ticks: genetic and reproductive divergence between geographic strains of Rhipicephalus (Boophilus) microplus. BMC Evol. Biol. 9: 1-12.

Labruna MB, Mattar S, Nava S, Bermudez S, Venzal JM, Dolz G, Abarca K, Romero L, de Sousa R, Oteo J, Zavala-Castro J. 2011. Rickettsioses in Latin America, Caribbean, Spain and Portugal. Revista MVZ Córdoba. 16:2435-2457.

Maddison DR and Maddison WP: MacClade 4. 2000. Analysis of phylogeny and character evolution. Sunderland, MA (CD-ROM): Sinauer Associates.

Mangold AJ, Bargues MD and Mas-Coma S. 1998. Mitochondrial 16S rDNA sequences and phylogenetic relationships of species of Rhipicephalus and other tick genera among Metastriata (Acari: Ixodidae). Parasitol. Res. 84: 478-484.

Mastropaolo M, Nava S, Guglielmone AA, Mangold AJ. 2011. Biological differences between two allopatric populations of Amblyomma cajennense (Acari: Ixodidae) in Argentina. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 53, 371-375.

McLain DK, Wesson DM, Oliver JH, Collins FH. 1995. Variation in ribosomal DNA internal transcribed spacers 1 among eastern populations of *Ixodes* scapularis (Acari: Ixodidae). J. Med. Entomol, 32: 353–360.

Morrone JJ. 2006. Biogeographic areas and transition zones of Latin America and the Caribbean Islands based on the panbiogeographic and cladistic analyses of the entomofuna. Annl Rev Entomol. 51:467-494.

Nava S, Mangold AJ, Guglielmone AA. 2006. The natural hosts for larvae and nymphs of Amblyomma neumanni and Amblyomma parvum (Acari: Ixodidae). Exp. Appl. Acarol. 40:123-131.

Nava S, Szabo M, Mangold A, Guglielmone A. 2008a. Distribution, hosts, 16S rDNA sequences and phylogenetic position of the Neotropical tick Amblyomma parvum (Acari: Ixodidae). Annals Trop. Med. Parasitol. 102:409-425.

Nava S, Mangold A, Guglielmone A. 2008b. Aspects of the life cycle of Amblyomma parvum (Acari: Ixodidae) under natural conditions. Vet. Parasitol. 156:270-276.

Nava S, Beati L, Labruna MB, Caceres AG, Mangold AJ, Guglielmone AA. 2014. Reassessment of the taxonomic status of Amblyomma cajennense (Fabricius, 1787) with the description of three new species, Amblyomma tonelliae n. sp., Amblyomma interandinum n. sp. and Amblyomma patinoi n. sp., and reinstatement of Amblyomma mixtum Koch, 1844, and Amblyomma sculptum Berlese, 1888 (Ixodida: Ixodidae). Ticks and Tick-borne Dis. 5: 252-276.

Pacheco RC, Moraes-Filho J, Nava S, Brandao PE, Richtzenhain LJ, Labruna MB. 2007. Detection of a novel spotted fever group rickettsia in Amblyomma parvum ticks (Acari: Ixodidae) from Argentina. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 43:63-71.

Pacheco RC, Echaide IE, Alves RN, Beletti ME, Nava S, Labruna MB. 2013. Coxiella burnetii in ticks, Argentina. Emerging Infectious Dis. 19:344-346.

Posada D and Crandall KA. 1998. MODELTEST: testing the model of DNA substitution. Bioinformatics. 14:817-818.

Poux C, Chevret P, Huchon D, de Jong WW, Douzery EJ. 2006. Arrival and diversification of caviomorph rodents and platyrrhine primates in South America. Syst. Biol. 55:228-244.

Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck J, Teslenkoet M. 2011. MrBayes version 3.2 Manual: Tutorials and Model Summaries. 183pp.

Saraiva DG, Fournier GFSR, Martins TF, Leal KPG, Vieira FN, Camara EMVC, Costa CG, Onofrio VC, Barros-Battesti V, Guglielmone AA, Labruna MB. 2012. Ticks (Acari: Ixodidae) associated with terrestrial mammals in the state of Minas Gerais, southeastern Brazil. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 58, 159-166.

Swofford DL. 2000. PAUP*: Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (and Other Methods) 4.0 Beta. Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates.

Szabo MPJ, Mangold AJ, Joao CF, Bechara GH, Guglielmone AA. 2005. Biological and DNA evidence of two dissimilar populations of the Rhipicephalus sanguineus tick group (Acari: Ixodidae) in South America. Vet. Parasitol. 130: 131-140.

Tomassone L, Nuñez P, Gurtler R, Ceballos LA, Orozco MA, Kitron UD, Farber M. 2008. Molecular detection of Ehrlichia chaffeensis in Amblyomma parvum ticks, Argentina. Emerging Infectious Dis. 14:1953-1955

Zhang DX, Hewitt G**.** 1997. Insect mitochondrial control region: a review of its structure, evolution and usefulness in evolutionary studies. Biochem. Syst. Ecol. 25**:**99-120.

APPENDIX 1

Figure 1.1. Political map of Central and South America showing the collection areas and the eco-regions to what they correspond. YU: Yucatan, Mexico; ES: El Salvador; CR: Costa Rica; PM: Panama; PR: Para, Brazil; MG: Minas Gerais, Brazil; GO: Goias, Brazil; PI: Piaui, Brazil; PA: Pantanal, Brazil; BO: Boqueron, Paraguay; CA: Catamarca, Argentina; CB: Cordoba, Argentina; LR: La Rioja, Argentina; SA: Salta, Argentina; SDE: Santiago del Estero, Argentina.

Fig. 1.3 Maximum likelihood tree for 12S.

(MP) reconstruction for 12S. Color codes: Black: outgroup species; Orange: A. pseudoparvum; Green: Central American clade of A. parvum; Blue: Brazilian clade of A. parvum; Red: Argentinian clade of A. parvum. Thicker lines represent branches with bootstrap support > 75%. Color codes and thickness of the branches ismaintained throughout the document.

Fig. 1.4 Bayesian analysis for 12S.

Fig. 1.5 Maximum parsimony reconstruction for 16S.

Fig. 1.6 Maximum likelihood tree for 16S.

Fig. 1.7 Bayesian analysis reconstruction of 16S.

Fig. 1.8 Maximum parsimony reconstruction for COI.

Fig. 1.10 BA for COI.

Fig. 1.14 Maximum parsimony reconstruction for DL.

Fig. 1.17 Maximum parsimony reconstruction for ITS2.

 reconstruction for the mitochondrial dataset (12S-16S-COI-DL).

Fig. 1.21 Maximum likelihood tree for mitochondrialconcatenated dataset.

Fig. 1.22 BA for the mitochondrial concatenated dataset.

Fig. 1.23 Maximum parsimony reconstruction for the mitochondrial and nuclear concatenated dataset (12S-16S-COI-DL-ITS2).

Fig. 1.24 Maximum likelihood tree for the nuclear mitochondrial concatenated dataset.

Fig. 1.25 BA for the nuclear and mitochondrial concatenated dataset.

Lab ID	Species	Locality	Code	Country	12S	16S	DL	ITS2	COI	COII
1W	A. parvum	Piaui	PI	Brazil	X					
2W	A. parvum	Mato Grosso do Sul	MGS	Brazil		X				
3W	A. parvum	Mato Grosso do Sul	MGS	Brazil		X				
4W	A. parvum	Minas Gerais	MG	Brazil	X	X	X		X	
5W	A. parvum	Minas Gerais	MG	Brazil	X	X	X		X	
6W	A. parvum	Chiriqui	PM	Panamá		X				
$\mathbf{1}$	A. parvum	Córdoba	CB	Argentina		X	X		X	
5	A. parvum	Córdoba	CB	Argentina	X	X	X		X	X
$\overline{7}$	A. parvum	Córdoba	CB	Argentina		X	X	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}$	x	x
9	A. parvum	Córdoba	CB	Argentina	X	X	X		X	X
12	A. parvum	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina		Χ	X		X	
17	A. parvum	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina	X	X	X		X	X
24	A. parvum	Catamarca	CA	Argentina	X	$\pmb{\mathsf{X}}$	x		X	
25	A. parvum	Catamarca	CA	Argentina	X	X	X		X	x
26	A. parvum	Catamarca	CA	Argentina	X	$\pmb{\mathsf{X}}$	X		X	
29	A. parvum	La Rioja	LR	Argentina	X	X	X		X	X
30	A. parvum	La Rioja	LR	Argentina	Χ	X	X		X	
32	A. parvum	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina	X	$\pmb{\mathsf{X}}$	X		X	
33	A. parvum	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina	X	Χ	X		X	
38	A. parvum	La Rioja	LR	Argentina		Χ	X		X	
44	A. parvum	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina		X	X		X	X
AP ₂	A. parvum	Puerto Limon	PM	Panamá	$\pmb{\mathsf{X}}$	Χ	x			X

Table 1.1. Localities and PCR amplification success for each of the samples, and each of the individual gene markers.

Table 1.2. Individual gene haplotypes by country/region. The haplotypes are named with letters and combined with a
number for each of the genes: 1, 12S; 2, 16S; 3, DL; 4, COI; 5, COII; 6, ITS2. The numbers in each cell c number of sequences that have that specific haplotype.

12S

16S

COI

COII

ITS2

12S/16S	Arg	Bra	Par	CА	Psp	Out
Arg	$0.0 - 0.6 / 0.0 - 1.0$	2.5/3.5	$0.2 - 0.5$	$6.5 - 7.5$	$10.9 - 11.9$	14.8-17.7
Bra	$2.9 - 3.6$	$Q/0.2 - 1.2$	$2.5 - 3.0$	$6.7 - 7.9$	$10.3 - 11.8$	14.1-17.6
Par	n/a	n/a	n/a	$6.7 - 7.2$	$10.9 - 11.4$	14.8-17.1
CА	$6.8 - 8.0$	$6.5 - 7.2$	n/a	$0.3 - 0.6 / 0.2 - 0.5$	$8.5 - 10.1$	11.6-15.3
Psp	$8.3 - 8.9$	$8.9 - 9.1$	n/a	$8.6 - 8.9$	n/a/1.0	12.9-15.8
Out	14.9-18.1	15.4-19.1	n/a	14.2-19.6	16.4-21.0	$7.9 - 14.3 / 7.2 - 12.2$

Table 1.3. Maximum likelihood pairwise distances for 12S (bold) and 16S (italicts). Values expressed as percentage.

Table 1.4. Maximum likelihood pairwise distances for COI (bold) and COII (italicts). Values expressed as percentage.

COI/COII	Arg	Bra	CА	Psp	Out
Arg	$0.2 - 3.5 / 0.2$	$3.3 - 4.2$	$11.2 - 11.8$	n/a	17.5-21.7
Bra	$4.3 - 6.2$	$0.2 - 0.5 / 0.2 - 0.7$	$11.4 - 12.1$	n/a	17.0-21.9
СA	$9.8 - 11.2$	$10.3 - 11$	$0.3 - 1.3 / 0.2 - 0.5$	n/a	16.6-20.2
Psp	11.9-13.0	12.0-12.3	$11.6 - 12.3$	n/a	n/a
Out	15.2-18.5	14.8-17.0	14.7-17.0	16.8-19.1	11.6-15.6/10.7-19.3

DL	Arg	Bra	CА	Psp	Out
Arg	$0.0 - 1.0$	$2.4 - 3.7$	$7.3 - 7.9$	$8.9 - 9.5$	11.8-16.0
Bra		$0.0 - 0.5$	$7.1 - 7.9$	$8.6 - 9.1$	$12.4 - 16.2$
СA			0.3	$6.6 - 6.8$	$13.4 - 15.3$
Psp				n/a	13.1-16.8
Out					$6.8 - 12.1$

Table 1.5. Maximum likelihood pairwise distances for DL. Values expressed as percentage.

Table 1.6. Maximum likelihood pairwise distances for ITS2. Values expressed as percentage.

ITS ₂	Arg	Bra	Bra-GO	СA	Out	
Arg	n/a					
Bra	$0.1 - 0.4$	0.2				
Bra-GO	3.9	$3.8 - 4.1$	n/a			
СA	$3.6 - 5.5$	$3.3 - 5.6$	$4.3 - 5.9$	$0 - 3.2$		
Out	13.8-15.0	13.5-16.8	15.5-16.8	14.3-17.4	$2.1 - 7.1$	

mit	Arg	Bra	СA	Apsp	Out
Arg	$0.0 - 1.5$				
Bra	$3.7 - 4.2$	$0.0 - 0.2$			
CA	$8.1 - 8.5$	$8.1 - 8.4$	$0.3 - 0.5$		
Apsp	10.5-11.0	10.5-10.6	$9.5 - 9.8$	n/a	
Out	14.3-16.3	14.1-16.1	13.6-16.0	15.3-17.5	$9.5 - 13.1$

Table 1.7. Maximum likelihood pairwise distances for the mitochondrial concatenated dataset. Values expressed as percentage.

Table 1.8. Maximum likelihood pairwise distances for the nuclear and mitochondrial dataset. Values expressed as percentage.

mit+nuclear	Arg	Bra	Bra-GO	CA	Out	
Arg	$0.0 - 1.0$					
Bra	$2.5 - 2.9$	0.2				
Bra-GO	$3.8 - 4.1$	$1.3 - 1.5$	0			
CA	$6.6 - 6.7$	$6.5 - 6.6$	$6.8 - 6.9$	0.2		
Out	19.4-21.1	19.4-20.9	19.4-21.1	18.6-20.6	$7.6 - 11.0$	

Chapter 2

Molecular systematics of the Amblyomma maculatum group of species.

Introduction

The Amblyomma maculatum group includes the following species: A. maculatum Koch, 1844; Amblyomma neumanni Ribaga, 1902; Amblyomma parvitarsum Neumann, 1901; Aamblyomma tigrinum Koch, 1844 and Amblyomma triste Koch, 1844 (Camicas et al., 1998). Together with the Amblyomma ovale group, that encompasses A. ovale and Amblyomma aureolatum, they have been clustered by Camicas et al. (1998) in the revised version of subgenus Anastosiella, originally erected by Santos Dias (1963).

Within the A. maculatum group, A. neumanni and A. parvitarsum are morphologically easily distinguishable from the rest of the group species. Unlike the other taxa, they are both characterized by incomplete marginal grooves in males, and A. parvitarsum has beady and orbited eyes (Estrada-Peña et al., 2005). In females, all species are glabrous with the exception of A. neumanni. A. parvitarsum also has beady and orbited eyes. Other diagnostic differences are listed in Estrada- Peña et al. (2005), who suggested that A. *neummanni* and A. parvitarsum should be grouped with the A. ovale group in a yet to be determined subgenus, while A. maculatum, A. triste, and A. tigrinum would be the only remaining members of the subgenus Anastosiella.

In contrast with A. parvitarsum and A. neumanni, A. maculatum, A. tigrinum and A. triste are morphologically very similar. Koch (1844) briefly described the three taxa based on males of A. maculatum and A. tigrinum, and a female of A. triste. He completed his description in 1850 (Koch, 1850) and essentially reported differences in punctation and ornamentation. Neumann (1899) synonymyzed A. tigrinum and A. triste with A. maculatum after failing to

observe differences in the number of spines (modified setae) on tibiae II to IV (called tarsi by Neumann (1899), protarsi by Robinson (1926), and metatarsi by Kohls [1956]). Kohls (1956) reestablished A. tigrinum and A. triste as valid species and completely redescribed the three taxa. Since then, although considered to be separate species, the identification of these ticks has been challenging, in particular the distinction between A. maculatum and A. triste (Mendoza Uribe and Chavez Chorocco, 2004; Estrada-Pena et al., 2005; Mertins et al., 2010; Guglielmone et al., 2013) which has led to frequent misidentifications (Tagle y Alvarez, 1957, 1959; Aragao and Fonseca, 1961). Taxonomic conflicts are not limited to adult stages, as immatures, for which taxonomic keys are nevertheless available, are even more difficult to differentiate (Estrada-Pena et. al., 2002, 2005; Mertins et al., 2010).

The distribution of A. maculatum is confined to the southern United States, Central America and some areas of Colombia, Venezuela, Perú and Ecuador, whereas A. tigrinum is reported to occur only in South American countries (Kohls, 1956; Jones et al., 1972; Guglielmone et al., 1982, 2003). Amblyomma triste was considered to be exclusively South American until recently, when it was reported from Mexico and the U.S. (Guzman-Cornejo et al., 2006; Mertins et al., 2010), thus joining the group of ticks with a Neotropical and Neartic distribution (Guglielmone et al., 2013).

Notwithstanding the increasing number of publications dealing with the systematics of this group of taxa, the taxonomic status of the A. maculatum group of species remains controversial. Its reassessment is essential not only for systematic reasons, but also because A. maculatum, A. triste and A. tigrinum are involved in the transmission of different pathogens of public health and animal health importance, such as *Rickettsia parkeri* (Nava et al., 2008; Paddock et al., 2004; 2010; Romer et al., 2011; 2014; Ferrari et al., 2012; Lado et al., 2014; 2015; Venzal et al., 2004), and Hepatozoon americanum (Ewing and Panciera, 2003).

Molecular techniques used to infer phylogenetic relationships and evaluate the taxonomic status of the different species of the A. maculatum group have so far not been applied in a comprehensive manner. However, preliminary reports based on the analysis of 16S rDNA sequences confirmed that A. maculatum, A. triste and A. tigrinum were closely related to each other, while A. neumanni and A. parvitarsum were distinct from each other, from the rest of the A. maculatum group of taxa, and also did not cluster with the A. ovale group of species (Estrada-Pena et al., 2005).

The main goal of this study is to reassess the taxonomic status of the A. maculatum group of species through the phylogenetic analysis of six (five mitochondrial and one nuclear) molecular markers.

Materials and Methods

Sampling

Our sample included a total of 95 adult specimens morphologically identified as A. maculatum, A. triste, A. tigrinum, and 2 specimens identified as A. parvitarsum and A. neumanni. Amblyomma maculatum ticks were from the U.S., Perú, and Colombia; A. triste from Argentina, Brazil, and Perú; A. tigrinum from Argentina and Brazil; and A. parvitarsum and A. neumanni from Argentina. When available, specimens from several localities were included in order to consider variation between and within different eco-regions (Table 2.1). Ticks were obtained from 12 localities and 5 countries, and coded as follows: Argentina, Arg; (Buenos Aires, BA; Corrientes, CR; Formosa, FO; Santiago del Estero, SDE), Brazil, Bra; (Goias, GO; Mato Grosso do Sul, MGS; Sao Paulo, SP), Colombia, CO; (Santander, SR), Perú, PU; (Ica; Tumbes, TU), and the United States, U.S.; (Florida, FL; Georgia, GA) (Fig. 2.1).

DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing

Tick DNA was extracted and the exoskeletons were preserved for further morphological analysis following previously published protocols (Beati and Keirans, 2001; Beati et al., 2012). A small portion of the postero-lateral idiosoma of each tick was removed by using a disposable scalpel and the tick was incubated overnight in 180 µl Qiagen ATL lysis buffer (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and 40 µl of a 14.3 mg/ml solution of proteinase K (Roche Applied Sciences, Indianapolis, IN). After complete lysis of the tick tissues and repeated vortexing, the exoskeleton was stored in 70% ethanol and kept as a voucher specimen. The lysed tissues were further processed as previously described (Beati and Keirans, 2001; Beati et al., 2012). Five mitochondrial gene sequences, 12SrDNA (small subunit ribosomal RNA), 16SrDNA (small subunit ribosomal RNA), COI (Cythochrome oxydase subunit I), COII (Cythochrome oxydase subunit II), and the control region or d-loop (DL) were amplified with previously reported sets of primers (Beati and Keirans, 2001; Beati et al., 2012; Barret and Hebert, 2005; Mangold et al., 1998). In addition, a portion of the nuclear ribosomal Internal Transcribed Spacer 2 (ITS2) was also amplified by slightly modifying a previously published protocol to include 35 instead of 27 annealing cycles (Beati et al., 2012; McLain et al., 1995). PCRs were performed using a MasterTaq kit (5- Prime, Gaithersburg, MD). Each reaction contained 2.5 µl of tick DNA, 2.5 µl of 10 \times Tag buffer, 5 µl of 5 \times TagMaster PCR Enhancer, 1.5 µl of MgAc (25 mM), 0.5 µl dNTP mix (10 mM each), 0.1 µl of Taq polymerase (5U/ µl), 1.25 µl of each primer from a 10 pmoles/ µl stock solution (Invitrogen, Life Technologies Corporation, Grand Island, NY), and 14.6 µl molecular biology grade H_2O . The two DNA strands of each amplicon were purified and sequenced at the High-Throughput Genomics Unit (HTGU, University of Washington, Seattle, WA) and were assembled with Sequencer 4.5 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI).

Phylogenetic analyses

Sequences were manually aligned with McClade 4.07 OSX (Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA) (Maddison and Maddison 2000). Secondary structure was considered in aligning 12SrDNA (Beati and Keirans 2001) and DL (Zhang and Hewitt 1997). Codon organization was taken into account when aligning the COII data set. Each data set was analyzed by maximum parsimony (MP) with PAUP (Swofford, 2000). Bayesian analysis (BA) was performed using MrBayes 3.2.4

(Huelsenbeck and Ronquist 2001, Ronquist, 2011). Branch support was assessed by bootstrap analysis (1000 replica) with PAUP for MP, and by posterior probability with MrBayes for BA. MP heuristic searches were performed by branch-swapping using the tree bisection-reconnection (TBR) algorithm. Gaps were treated either as a 5th (16SrDNA, concatenated datasets and ITS2 analyses) or as a missing character (12srDNA, DL, COI and COII). Maximum likelihood distances were calculated after the nucleotide substitution model best fitting the data was selected by Modeltest v3.7 (Posada and Crandall 1998). Two runs, with four chains each, were run simultaneously for BA analyses (1,000,000 generations). Trees were sampled every 100 iteration. Trees saved before the average standard deviation of split fragments converged to a value < 0.01 were discarded from the final sample. When necessary, the number of generations was increased so that the number of discarded samples would not exceed 25% of the total sampled trees. The 50% majority-rule consensus tree of the remaining trees was inferred and posterior probabilities recorded for each branch. Congruent data sets were combined for total evidence analyses. One concatenated data set including both mitochondrial a nuclear sequences (n+mtDNA) were analyzed following the same procedure outlined for the separate analyses.

Amblyomma parvitarsum and A. neumanni were used as outgroups in our analyses. Additional species were also considered as possible outgroups and preliminary analyses were performed with the following: A. aureolatum, A. coelebs, A. dubitatum, A. oblongoguttatum, and A. ovale.

Results

Sequences and haplotype diversity

The alignment of the 75 12SrDNA gene sequences (16 unique haplotypes) resulted in a 338 bp data matrix. The 16S rDNA dataset was 411 bp long and included 79 sequences (31 unique haplotypes), that of the COI gene was 603 bp long and included 67 sequences (38 unique haplotypes). A total of 73 sequences (374 bp) were obtained for the DL marker (40 unique haplotypes). Only 11 sequences were generated for the COII gene (608 bp), 8 of which were unique haplotypes. The nuclear ITS2 (1002 bp) gene sequence was sequenced from 50 ticks, with 13 unique genotypes (Table 2.2).

Phylogenetic Analyses

Phylogenetic analyses were first performed with several different sets of outgroups. They all proved to be too distantly related to our ingroup for their inclusion to result in good ingroup resolution, with the exception of A. neumanni and A. parvitarsum that were, therefore, used as outgroups in all analyses. For clarity, we are referring to A. triste, A. maculatum, and A. tigrinum collectively as the ingroup.

12SrDNA

 The MP analysis detected 62 informative characters, and found 2 equally parsimonious trees (length=92; CI=0.913; RI=0.946 and HI=0.087). The ML model that better fitted the data using Modeltest was K81uf+I, with base frequencies of A=0.37, C=0.12, G=0.09 and T=0.42. The proportion of invariable sites $(PI) = 0.6872$.

 The MP analysis identified a single monophyletic cluster (100% bootstrap) consisting of the whole ingroup, an unresolved polytomic lineage (Fig 2.2). In the BA tree, the polytomic Peruvian lineages were basal, to a supported clade (90%). In this cluster, A. maculatum from the U.S. was basal and paraphyletic. The remaining samples from Brazil and Argentina, including, A. tigrinum, grouped in a monophyletic clade (Fig. 2.3).

 Intraspecific divergence values in the ingroup taxa ranged from 0 to 2.1%. Distance between A. triste and A. maculatum was 0.6-2.1%. The distance separating A. tigrinum from either A. maculatum or A. triste ranged from 1.8 to

2.7%. Divergence between the ingroup and the outgroup ranged from 11.9 to 16.2%, while distance within the outgroup species was 11-11.7% (Table 2.3).

16SrDNA

 The MP analysis identified a total of 43 parsimony-informative sites and found 129 equally parsimonious trees (length=137; CI=0.766; RI=0.831 and HI=0.234). The selected ML model was GTR+I+G with base frequencies of: A=0.42, C=0.07, G=0.13 and T=0.38; PI = 0.5844; G = 0.6450.

 The MP analysis revealed a monophyletic ingroup which was split in two monophyletic sister clades: A. tigrinum and A. maculatum - A. triste. In the MP reconstruction, three lineages were supported within the otherwise polytomic A. triste - A. maculatum clade: two sequences of A. triste (MGS, Brazil); two sequences of A. maculatum (GA and FL, U.S.); and two sequences of A. maculatum (GA, U.S. and SR, Colombia) (Fig. 2.4).

In the BA the ingroup was polytomic. Nevertheless, it included five resolved clusters: the A. tigrinum (99%) branch, two Brazilian A. triste lineages (84 and 98% respectively), one including A. maculatum sequences from the U.S. and Colombia, and finally one U.S. cluster (Fig. 2.5).

 Intraspecific divergence values in the ingroup ranged from 0 to 2.7%. Distance between A. triste and A. maculatum varied from 0.5 to 2.7%. The distance separating A. tigrinum from either A. maculatum or A. triste ranged from 3.2 to 4.6%, and that between the ingroup and the outgroup varied from 10.8 to 12.6%. Divergence within the outgroup species was of 10.1% (Table 2.3).

DL

 The MP analysis detected 51 parsimony-informative characters and 18 equally parsimonious trees were found (length=189; CI=0.862; RI=0.874 and HI=0.138). The model that best fitted the data was TVM+I+G with base frequencies of: A=0.42, C=0.13, G=0.13 and T=0.32; PI = 0.4423; G = 1.0222.

Both the MP and the BA separated the ingroup into two main clades: A. tigrinum (100%, 100%) and A. triste - A. maculatum (98%, 90%). The ingroup, however, was not monophyletic (Fig. 2.6). In the BA the A. triste – A.maculatum clade included several unsupported branches corresponding to sequences of A. triste from Brazil and Argentina, in addition to a supported Peruvian A. triste - A. maculatum lineage (99%) and a monophyletic cluster of A. triste from Brazil and Argentina (96%) (Fig. 2.7).

Intraspecific distances within A. triste and A. tigrinum varied from 0.3 to 2.4%, while within A. maculatum they reached 3.5%. Distances between A. maculatum and A. triste ranged from 0.3 to 4.6%, and those separating A. tigrinum from A. triste or A. maculatum varied between 9.4 and 11.3%. Between the ingroup and the outgroup, divergences ranged from 27.6 to 30.1% (Table 2.4).

ITS2

 The MP analysis detected 188 informative sites and 5 equally parsimonious trees (length=369; CI=0.989; RI=0.981; and HI=0.011). The model that better fitted the data was GTR with base frequencies of: A=0.20, C=0.28, $G=0.36$ and T=0.16, PI = 0.

 The MP analysis resulted in a poorly resolved ingroup, with only A. tigrinum separating itself from other supported lineages, that did not appear to correspond to any taxonomic or geographical pattern (Fig. 2.8). The BA resolved three lineages arising from a polytomy: A. tigrinum (100%) and two lineages of heterogeneous geographical origins. The remaining Argentinian and Brazilian samples of A. triste stemmed directly from the polytomy (Fig. 2.9).

 Intraspecific divergences within the three ingroup taxa were never above 1.1%. Distance between A. maculatum and A. triste ranged from 0.3 to 1.3%. The distance separating A. tigrinum from either A. triste or A. maculatum varied between 1 and 1.7%. The divergence value separating the ingroup and the outgroup ranged from 17.2 to 21.8%, and variation within the outgroup was of 7.9% (Table 2.4).

COI

A total of 90 parsimony-informative characters were detected in the MP analysis and 2000 (Max trees sat to 2000) equally parsimonious trees were found $(length=247; Cl=0.810; RI=0.894$ and $HI=0.190)$. The model that better fitted the data was GTR+G with base frequencies of: A=0.31, C=0.16, G=0.13 and T=0.40; $PI = 0.5791$; $G = 0.8554$.

 The MP analysis evidenced the monophyly of the ingroup and fully resolved two clades: A. tigrinum (99%) and A. triste - A. maculatum (100%). This was further subdivided in one supported clade that included the sample 21D of A. maculatum from Georgia, U.S., and the sample of A. maculatum from Colombia. The remaining sequences had no support except for a resolved lineage that corresponded to the Peruvian samples (71%), and one that clustered two Brazilian A. triste (91%) (Fig. 2.10).

By BA, A. tigrinum (100%) was the sister group of everything else. The monophyletic A. triste - A. maculatum clade was further subdivided into Peruvian and non-Peruvian (75%) lineages. The non-Peruvian group included two wellsupported groups, a North-American-Colombian (99%) and a Brazilian-Argentinian (84%) (Fig. 2.11).

 Intraspecific divergence values within the three ingroup taxa were variable, ranging from 0 to 3.5%. The distance between A. maculatum and A. triste ranged from 0.0 to 4%, and that separating A. tigrinum from either A. triste or A. maculatum varied from 5.6 to 7.8%. The divergence between the ingroup and the outgroup ranged from 15.4 to 18.7%, and within the outgroup varied from 15.7 to 17.9% (Table 2.5).

COII

A total of 70 parsimony-informative characters were detected in the MP analysis and two trees were found (length=172; CI=0.924; RI=0.903 and HI=0.076). The model that better fitted the data was HKY+I with base frequencies of: A=0.38, $C=0.09$, $G=0.15$ and $T=0.38$; PI = 0.6889.

60

The MP analysis resolved two clades within the ingroup: A. tigrinum (100%) and A. triste - A. maculatum (99%). The latter was split in two lineages, one including A. triste from Argentina and Brazil in addition to A. maculatum from the U.S (75%) and the other represented by A. maculatum from Peru (Fig. 12). The BA revealed two well-supported clades within the ingroup: A. tigrinum (98%) and A. triste - A. maculatum (98%). No further resolution was achieved through this analysis (Fig. 2.13).

 Intraspecific distances within the three ingroup species were never over 1.7%. Distance between A. maculatum and A. triste ranged from 0.8 to 1.7%. The distance separating A. tigrinum from either A. triste or A. maculatum varied between 5.8 and 6.6%. The ingroup and the outgroup differed by 11.7 - 16.8%, and the variation within the outgroup was 11.4% (Table 2.5).

Mitochondrial Concatenated dataset (12SrDNA+16SrDNA+COI)

 The concatenated dataset represented a matrix of 1352 bp, 102 sequences including 32 unique haplotypes and two outgrups. The MP analysis identified a total of 200 parsimony-informative sites and found 11 equally parsimonious trees (length=531; CI=0.827; RI=0.869 and HI=0.173). The ML model chosen as more accurate for the data was GTR+I+G with base frequencies of: A=0.35, C=0.13, G=0.13 and T=0.39; PI = 0.5560; G = 0.7777.

 The MP and the BA agreed on the monophyly of the ingroup and resolved two clades: A. tigrinum and A. triste - A. maculatum. The MP analysis further resolved the A. triste - A. maculatum clade in two lineages: A. triste from Peru (77%) and the remaining sequences (100%) which did further split in lineages with no obvious geographical meaning with the exception of the Peruvian sequences which were basal (Figs. 2.14 and 2.15).

In the BA phylogenetic reconstruction, the ingroup was resolved in two clades: A. tigrinum and A. triste-A. maculatum. Within the second, the Peruvian samples were basal and separated from a supported clade that included all the A. maculatum from the U.S., and all the A. triste from Brazil and Argentina. (Fig. 2.15).

 Divergence values within each of the species of the ingroup were at or below 1.6%. The distance between A. triste and A. maculatum ranged from 0.5 to 1.6%. The distance separating A. tigrinum from either A. triste or A. maculatum varied between 4.3 and 5.1%. Divergence values between the ingroup and the outgroup were 13.5 – 15.7%, and within the outgroup was 12.7% (Table 2.6).

Mitochondrial - Nuclear concatenated dataset (12SrDNA+16SrDNA+COI+ITS2)

 The concatenated dataset represented a matrix of 2328 bp, 81 sequences, corresponding to 25 unique haplotypes and two outgrups. The MP analysis identified a total of 324 parsimony-informative sites and found 41 equally parsimonious trees (length=892; CI=0.898; RI=0.834 and HI=0.102). The ML model chosen as more accurate for the data was GTR+I+G with base frequencies of: A=0.30, C=0.21, G=0.19 and T=0.30; PI = 0.3601; G = 0.7092.

The MP analysis evidenced a monophyletic ingroup (100%), with a basal A. tigrinum branch, followed by the Peruvian sample. All the A. maculatum samples from the U.S., together with the A triste from Brazil and Argentina were clustered in a monophyletic and polytomic lineage. (Fig. 2.16).

The BA had better resolution and also resulted in two separated lineages: A. tigrinum, basal, and the A. triste - A. maculatum (100%). Within this clade, a basal Peruvian A. triste lineage was separated from two sister clusters: a resolved North American A. maculatum clade and the A. triste from Brazil and Argentina (99%). Both the North American A. maculatum and the Brazilian-Argentinian sequences of A. triste constituted monophyletic lineages (100%) within that clade (Fig. 2.17).

Divergence values within each of the species of the ingroup were below 1%. The distance between A. triste and A. maculatum ranged from 0.8 to 1.1%. The distance separating A. tigrinum from either A. triste or A. maculatum varied between 3.1 and 3.4%. Divergence values between the ingroup and the outgroup taxa were of 15.7-18.0%, and within the outgroup was 11.4% (Table 2.7).

Discussion

Overall, the reconstructions obtained with different genes were not always congruent. Nevertheless, they agreed in several points. First, in most cases both, A. maculatum and A. triste, were paraphyletic. If there was clustering, it was determined by geography, rather than by taxonomic assignment. The Peruvian A. maculatum and A. triste often grouped together, as did the North-American-Colombian samples, or the southern samples from Brazil and Argentina. BA consistently showed that, within the mostly monophyletic A. triste- A. maculatum lineage, the branches were short. This would suggest a very recent and rapid divergence history with incomplete lineages sorting. Intra- and interspecific distance values obtained within and between A. maculatum and A. triste overlapped. Although divergence values in themselves cannot be used for species delimitation, with the support of the phylogenetic reconstructions, we can reliably propose that A. maculatum and A. triste should be considered conspecific. Therefore, A. triste should be returned to junior synonymy of A. maculatum (Koch, 1844). This would also result in questioning the taxonomic value of tibial spurs. As the so-called "spurs" are in fact simply modified robust setae, differences in length and thickness might merely be the result of local adaptation, without particular systematic meaning.

The question of whether or not A. tigrinum is distinct from A. maculatum is more difficult to answer. In most cases, the A tigrinum samples clustered in a distinct monophyletic clade. The geographical distribution of A. tigrinum in South America mostly overlaps that of the other two species (Estrada-Peña, 2005), although it reaches more southern latitudes than A . maculatum $-A$. triste. Although divergence values between A. tigrinum and A. maculatum - A. triste are moderately higher than intraspecific values, they remain much lower then the interspecific distances recorded between outgroup species, and between outgroup and ingroup taxa. Those values are also comparable to, or slightly higher than, intraspecific variation, but always lower than the interspecific

divergence values observed for other Amblyomma species analyzed by using some of the same gene markers (Beati et al., 2013). More importantly, the variable nuclear gene used in this study (ITS2) includes A. tigrinum in a polytomic ingroup and does not support a clear split between the taxa. The ITS2 is a gene marker that has successfully been used for taxonomic reassessments among South American Amblyomma species of similar geographical distribution (Marrelli et al., 2007; Beati et al. 2013). Therefore, according to the above information, either we can also consider A. tigrinum to be a synonym of A. maculatum which would conform to Neumann's opinion (Neumann, 1899), or we can temporarily maintain A. tigrinum as a separate taxonomic entity with a very short evolutionary history separating it from the sympatric A. maculatum. Only cross-breeding experiments are likely to determine whether the time elapsed since the divergence of the two lineages was sufficient for them to become different species, as morphological differences are minimal and mostly based on tibial spur arrangement which may not have taxonomic importance. Also shape and length of carena on festoons and ornamentation are known to sometimes be intraspecifically polymorphic (Nava et al., 2014). Our results can explain why the identification of these species throughout their distribution range has been so problematic. Furthermore, we can agree with Estrada-Peña et al. (2005) in considering A. parvitarsum and A. neumanni to be distant from the ingroup and not part of the same complex of species.

In conclusion, our data strongly support the synonymization of A. triste with A. maculatum, and suggest that this might be true also for A. tigrinum. Nevertheless, additional ecological and biological (cross-breeding) information should be gathered in order to establish whether or not A. tigrinum and A. maculatum are conspecific.

References

Aragao H and da Fonseca F. 1961. Notas de ixodología. VIII. Lista e chave para os representantes da fauna ixodológica brasileira. Mem. Inst. Osw. Cruz. 59: 115–129.

Barrett RDH and Hebert PDN. 2005. Identifying spiders through DNA barcodes. Can. J. Zool. 83: 481-491.

Beati L and Keirans JE. 2001. Analysis of the systematic relationships among ticks of the genera Rhipicephalus and Boophilus (Acari: Ixodidae) based on mitochondrial 12S ribosomal DNA gene sequences and morphological characters. J Parasitol. 87:32–48.

Beati L, Patel J, Lucas-Williams H, Adakal H, Kanduma EG, Tembo-Mwase E, Krecek R, Mertins JW, Alfred JT, Kelly S, Kelly P. 2012. Phylogeography and demographic history of Amblyomma variegatum (Fabricius) (Acari: Ixodidae), the tropical bont tick. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis. 12:514–525.

Camicas JL, Hervy JP, Adam F, Morel PC. 1998. Les tiques du monde. Nomenclature, stades décrits, hôtes, répartition (Acarida, Ixodida). Paris: Orstom, 233 pp.

Estrada-Peña A, Venzal JM, Guglielmone AA. 2002. Amblyomma dubitatum Neumann: description of nymph and redescription of adults, together with the description of the immature stages of A. triste Koch. Acarologia. 42:323–333.

Estrada-Peña A, Venzal JM, Mangold AJ, Cafrune MM, Guglielmone AA. 2005. The Amblyomma maculatum Koch, 1844 (Acari: Ixodidae: Amblyomminae) tick group: diagnostic characters, description of the larva of A. parvitarsum Neumann, 1901, 16S rDNA sequences, distribution and hosts. Syst Parasitol. 60: 99-112.

Ewing SA, and Panciera RJ. 2003. American canine hepatozoonosis. Clin Microbiol Rev. 16:688–697.

Ferrari FAG, Goddard J, Paddock CD, Varela-Stokes AS. 2012. Rickettsia parkeri and Candidatus Rickettsia andeanae in Gulf Coast Ticks, Mississippi, USA. Emerging Infectious Dis.18:1705-1707.

Guglielmone AA, Mangold AJ, Hadani A. 1982. Amblyomma tigrinum Koch, 1844 en la Argentina. Gac. Vet. B. Aires T 46, 367:57-63.

Guglielmone AA, Estrada-Peña A, Keirans JE, Robbins RG. 2003. Ticks (Acari: Ixodida) of the Neotropical Zoogeographic Region. Special Publication of the International Consortium on Ticks and Tick-Borne Diseases – 2. Houten, The Netherlands: Atalanta, 174 pp.

Guglielmone AA, Nava S, Mastropaolo M, Mangold AJ. 2013. Distribution and genetic variation of Amblyomma triste (Acari: Ixodidae) in Argentina. Ticks and Tick-borne Dis. 4: 386-390.

Guzman-Cornejo C, Perez TM, Nava S, Guglielmone AA. 2006. Confirmation of the presence of Amblyomma triste Koch, 1844 (Acari: Ixodidae) in Mexico. Syst. Appl. Acarol. 11:47-50.

Huelsenbeck JP, and Ronquist F. 2001. MRBAYES: Bayesian inference of phylogenetic trees. Bioinformatics. 17(8)**:**754-755.

Jones EK, Clifford CM, Keirans JE, Kohls GM. 1972. The ticks of Venezuela (Acarina: Ixodoidea) with a key to the species of Amblyomma in the Western Hemisphere. Brigham Young University Science Bulletin, Biological Series. 17:1– 40.

Koch CL. 1844. Systematische Uebersicht uber die Ordnung der Zecken. Arch. f. Naturg. 10:217-239.

Koch CL. 1850. Übersicht des arachnidensystems. Vol. 5. JL Lotzbeck, Nürnberg.

Kohls GM. 1956. Concerning the identity of Amblyomma maculatum, A. tigrinum, A. triste, and A. ovatum of Koch, 1844. Proc. Entomol. Soc. Wash. 58:143–147.

Lado P, Costa FB, Verdes JM, Labruna MB, Venzal JM. 2014. First molecular detection of Rickettsia parkeri in Amblyomma tigrinum and Amblyomma dubitatum ticks from Uruguay. Ticks and Tick-borne Dis. 5:660-662.

Lado P, Costa FB, Verdes JM, Labruna MB, Venzal JM. 2015. Seroepidemiological survey of Rickettsia spp. in dogs from the endemic area of Rickettsia parkeri rickettsiosis in Uruguay. Acta tropica 146:7-10.

Maddison DR and Maddison WP. 2000. MacClade 4. Analysis of phylogeny and character evolution. Sunderland, MA (CD-ROM): Sinauer Associates.

Mangold AJ, Bargues MD and Mas-Coma S. 1998. Mitochondrial 16S rDNA sequences and phylogenetic relationships of species of *Rhipicephalus* and other tick genera among Metastriata (Acari: Ixodidae). Parasitol Res. 84: 478-484.

Marrelli MT, Souza LF, Marques RC, Labruna MB, Matioli SR, Tonon AP, Ribolla PEM, Marinotti O, Schumaker TTS. 2007. Taxonomic and phylogenetic relationships between neotropical species of ticks from genus Amblyomma (Acari: Ixodidae) inferred from Second Internal Transcribed Spacer sequences of rDNA. J. Med. Entomol. 44: 222-228.

McLain DK, Wesson DM, Oliver JH, Collins FH. 1995. Variation in ribosomal DNA internal transcribed spacers 1 among eastern populations of *Ixodes* scapularis (Acari: Ixodidae). J Med Entomol, 32(3): 353–360.

Mendoza Uribe L and Chavez Chorocco J. 2004. Ampliacion geografica de siete especies de Amblyomma (Acari: Ixodidae) y primer reporte de A. oblongoguttatum Koch, 1844 para Peru. Rev. Per. Entomol. 44:69-72.

Mertins JW, Moorhouse AS, Alfred JT, Hutcheson HJ. 2010. Amblyomma triste (Acari: Ixodidae): new North American collection records, including the first from the United States. J. Med. Entomol. 47:536-542.

Nava S, Elshenawy Y, Eremeeva ME, Sumner JW, Mastropaolo M, Paddock CD. 2008. Rickettsia parkeri in Argentina. Emerg Infect Dis. 14: 1894-1897.

Nava S, Beati L, Labruna MB, Caceres AG, Mangold AJ, Guglielmone AA. 2014. Reassessment of the taxonomic status of Amblyomma cajennense (Fabricius, 1787) with the description of three new species, Amblyomma tonelliae n. sp., Amblyomma interandinum n. sp. and Amblyomma patinoi n. sp., and reinstatement of Amblyomma mixtum Koch, 1844, and Amblyomma sculptum Berlese, 1888 (Ixodida: Ixodidae). Ticks and Tick-borne Dis. 5:252-276.

Neumann LG. 1899. Revision de la famille des Ixodides. Mem. Soc. Zool. de France. 12:107-294.

Paddock CD, Sumner JW, Comer JA, Zaki SR, Goldsmith CS, Goddard J, McLellan SL, Tamminga CL, Ohl CA. 2004. Rickettsia parkeri: a newly recognized cause of spotted fever rickettsiosis in the United States. Clin. Infect. Dis. 38: 805-811.

Paddock CD, Fournier P-E, Sumner JW, Goddard J, Elshenawy Y, Metcalfe MG, Loftis AD, Varela-Stokes, A. 2010. Isolation of Rickettsia parkeri and Identification of a Novel Spotted Fever Group Rickettsia sp. from Gulf Coast Ticks (Amblyomma maculatum) in the United States . Appl. Env. Microbiol. 76:2689-2696.

Posada D and Crandall KA. 1998. MODELTEST: testing the model of DNA substitution. Bioinformatics. 14:817-818.

Robinson LE. 1926. Ticks: A monograph of the Ixodoidea. Part IV. The genus Amblyomma. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 302 pp.

Romer Y, Seijo AC, Crudo F, Nicholson WL, Varela-Stokes A, Lash RR, Paddock CD. 2011. Rickettsia parkeri rickettsiosis, Argentina. Emerg Infect Dis 17: 1169- 1173.

Romer Y, Nava S, Govedic F, Cicuttin G, Denison AM, Singleton J, Kelly AJ, Kato CY, Paddock CD. 2014. Rickettsia parkeri Rickettsiosis in different ecological regions of Argentina and its association with Amblyomma tigrinum as a potential vector. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hygiene. 91:1156-1160.

Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck J, Teslenkoet M. 2011. MrBayes version 3.2 Manual: Tutorials and Model Summaries. 183pp.

Santos Dias, J.A.T. 1963. Contribuiçao para o estudo da sistemática dos ácaros da suborden Ixodoidea Banks, 1894. Mémorias e Estudos do Museu Zoológico da Universidade da Coimbra. 285, 34 pp.

Swofford DL. 2000. PAUP*: Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (and Other Methods) 4.0 Beta. Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates.

Tagle I and Alvarez V. 1957. Existencia de Amblyomma maculatum Koch, 1844 en zorros de Chile. Bol. Chileno Parasit. 12:66.

Tagle I and Alvarez V. 1959. Rectificacion de diagnostico: Amblyomma tigrinum, Koch, 1844 en lugar de Amblyomma maculatum Koch. Bol. Chileno Parasit. 3:56-57.

Venzal JM, Portillo A, Estrada-Peña A, Castro O, Cabrera PA, Oteo JA. 2004. Rickettsia parkeri in Amblyomma triste from Uruguay. Emerg. Inf. Dis. 10: 1493-1495.

Zhang DX and Hewitt G. 1997. Insect mitochondrial control region: a review of its structure, evolution and usefulness in evolutionary studies. Biochem. Syst. Ecol. 25**:**99-120.

APPENDIX 2

This is a royalty free image that can be used for your personal, corporate or education projects. It can not be resold or freely distributed, if you need an editable PowerPoint or Adobe Illustrator
tersion of this map please visit www.bidesign.com or www.mapsfordesign.com.
This text can be cropped off. © Copyright Bruc

Figure 2.1. Political map of southern North America, Central and South America showing the collection areas and the ecoregions to what they correspond: GA, Georgia (U.S.); FL, Florida (U.S); SR, Santander (Colombia); TU, Tumbes (Peru); ICA (Peru); Brazil; GO, Goias (Brazil); PA, Pantanal (Brazil); SP, Sao Paulo (Brazil); CR, Corrientes (Argentina); FO, Formosa (Argentina); SDE, Santiago del Estero (Argentina); BA, Buenos Aires (Argentina).

Fig. 2.2. Maximum parsimony (MP) for 12S.

Fig. 2.3 Bayesian Analysis (BA) for 12S.

Fig. 2.4 MP analysis for 16S.

Fig. 2.5 BA for 16S.

Fig. 2.7 BA for DL.

Fig. 2.8 MP tree for ITS2.

Fig. 2.9 BA for ITS2.

Fig. 2.12 MP for COII. $Fig. 2.13$

Fig. 2.13 BA for COII.

concatenated dataset (12S-16S-COI).

Fig. 2.15 BA for the mitochondrial concatenated dataset (12S-16S-COI).

Fig. 2.16 MP for the mitochondrial + nuclear concatenated dataset (12S-16S-COI-ITS2).

Fig. 2.17 BA for nuclear + mitochondrial concatenated data set (12S-16S-COI-ITS2).

Lab ID	Species	Locality	State/Provence/Department	Code	Country	12S	16S	DL	ITS2	COI	COII
AT1A	A. triste	Zarate	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina				X	X	
AT1B	A. triste	Zarate	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X				X	
AT1C	A. triste	Zarate	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X				X	
AT3A	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X				X	
AT3B	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina					X	
AT3C	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X				X	
AT3D	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina					X	X
AT3E	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina			X		X	
1A	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X	X	x	X	X	
1A2	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X	Χ	X		Χ	
1B	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X	Χ	X	X	X	
1 ^C	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X	Χ	Χ	Χ	X	
1D	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina		X		Χ		
1E	A. triste	Inta Delta	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina		Χ		X	X	
12A	A. triste	Reserva El Bagual	Formosa	FO	Argentina	X	X	X	X	X	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}$
12B	A. triste	Reserva El Bagual	Formosa	FO	Argentina		Χ	X		X	
12C	A. triste	Reserva El Bagual	Formosa	FO	Argentina		X	Χ	X		
12D	A. triste	Reserva El Bagual	Formosa	FO	Argentina	x	Χ	X	X		
12E	A. triste	Reserva El Bagual	Formosa	FO	Argentina	X	Χ	Χ	X		
15A	A. triste	Colonia Pellegrini	Corrientes	CR	Argentina	X	Χ	Χ	X	X	
16A	A. tigrinum	Pozo Hondo	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina	X	X		X	X	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}$
16B	A. tigrinum	Pozo Hondo	Santiago del Estero	SDE	Argentina	X	Χ	X	X	X	
17A	A. triste	Zarate	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X	Χ		X	X	
17B	A. triste	Zarate	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	X	Χ	X	X	X	
17C	A. triste	Zarate	Buenos Aires	BA	Argentina	Χ	X	Χ	Χ	X	

Table 2.1. Localities and PCR amplification success for each of the samples, and each of the individual genes markers.

Table 2.2. Haplotypes by species and by region/country for each of the molecular markers analyzed. Distinct haplotypes are named with letters,
and combined with a number for each gene marker as follows: 1, 12S; 2, 16S; 3

16S

DL

COI

COII

ITS2

12S/16S	A. triste	A. maculatum	A. tigrinum	Out
A. triste	$0 - 2.1/0.2 - 2.7$	$0.5 - 2.7$	$3.4 - 4.6$	10.8-12.6
A. maculatum	$0.6 - 2.1$	$0.3 - 1.8 / 0.2 - 2.5$	$3.2 - 4.4$	10.8-11.6
A. tigrinum	$1.8 - 2.7$	$2.4 - 2.7$	$n/a/0-1.7$	$11.0 - 12.6$
Out	11.9-16.2	11.9-16.2	12.2-16.2	11.0-11.7/10.1

Table 2.3. ML pairwise distances for 12S (bold) and 16S (italics). The values are expressed as percentage.

Table 2.4. ML pairwise distances for ITS2 (bold) and DL (italics). The values are expressed

ITS2/DL	A. triste	A. maculatum	A. tigrinum	Out
A. triste	$0-1.1/0.3-2.4$	$0.3 - 4.6$	$9.4 - 11.1$	27.6-28.9
A. maculatum	$0.3 - 1.3$	$0.1/0.3 - 3.5$	$9.5 - 11.3$	27.9-29.5
A. tigrinum	$1.0 - 1.7$	$1.2 - 1.4$	$0.3/0.5 - 1.6$	29-30.1
Out	17.2-21.8	17.5-21.4	17.9-21.7	7.9/n/a

A. triste	A. maculatum	A. tigrinum	Out
$0-1.8/0.7-1.0$	$0.8 - 1.7$	$5.9 - 6.6$	12.7-16.3
$0.0 - 4.0$	$0.2 - 3.5 / 1.7$	$5.8 - 6.4$	12.9-16.3
$6.0 - 7.5$	$5.6 - 7.8$	$0.2 - 1.2 / 0.3 - 1.0$	11.7-16.8
15.4-18.4	15.9-18.7	15.4-17.9	15.7-17.9/11.4

Table 2.5. ML pairwise distances for COI (bold) and COII (italics). The values are expressed as percentage.

Table 2.6. ML pairwise distances for the concatenated mitochondrial dataset. Abbreviations: PU, Peru; BA, Brazil and Argentina; US, the United States of America. The values are expressed as percentage.

Concat_mit	A. triste-PU	A. triste-BA	A. maculatum-PU	A. maculatum-US	A. tiarinum	Out
A. triste-PU	0.1					
A. triste-BA	$1.2 - 1.6$	$0.0 - 1.0$				
A. maculatum-PU	0.5	$1.1 - 1.6$	0.3			
A. maculatum-US	$1.2 - 1.5$	$1.0 - 1.6$	$1.1 - 1.5$	$0.1 - 0.5$		
A. tigrinum	$4.3 - 4.5$	$4.6 - 5.1$	$4.3 - 4.6$	$4.7 - 5.1$	$0.1 - 0.5$	
Out	13.6-15.1	13.5-15.4	13.8-15.2	13.9-15.7	13.5-15.4	12.7

Concat_mit+nuclear	A. triste	A. maculatum	A. tigrinum	Out
A. triste	$0.0 - 1.6$			
A. maculatum	$0.8 - 1.1$	$0.0 - 0.3$		
A. tigrinum	$3.1 - 3.4$	$3.2 - 3.4$	n/a	
Out	15.7-17.9	15.7-18.0	15.8-17.9	11.4

Table 2.7. ML pairwise distances for the nuclear + mitochondrial concatenated dataset. The values are expressed as percentage.

Chapter 3

Conclusions

The overall objective of this work was to resolve taxonomic controversial issues among some lineages within the genus Amblyomma (Acari: Ixodidae). We chose to study two groups of taxa with similar large geographical distribution ranges: Amblyomma parvum and its morphologically related taxa (Chapter 1), and the A. maculatum group of species (Chapter 2). Their systematics was reassessed by analyzing mitochondrial and nuclear gene markers. Although these groups of taxa were set apart by dissimilar and independent taxonomic problems, the successful unravelling of their evolutionary history and their systematic relationships was achieved through the use of the same methodology and the same molecular gene markers (12SrDNA, 16SrDNA, DL, COI, COII and ITS2). The data obtained in the present study confirmed that these markers are phylogenetically informative at the specific and/or intraspecific level, as previously reported by Beati et al. (2013). The resolution obtained in most of the phylogenetic analyses was good, allowing us to determine the taxonomic relationships between and within the taxa, and therefore, accomplishing our main objectives. The analyses strongly supported the hypothesis of cryptic speciation occurring in A. parvum, with populations from northern latitudes (Central America) corresponding to a different and yet to be described species, whereas populations from southern latitudes (Argentina and Brazil) were conspecific, and corresponded to A. parvum. As for the A. maculatum group of species, the phylogenetic reconstructions together with ML pairwise distances values strongly suggested that A. triste should be synonymized with A. maculatum. In conclusion, although the two groups of taxa had, both, large distribution ranges, the molecular analysis of their genetic diversity revealed two opposite scenarios, one involving cryptic speciation (morphological similarities masking genetic differentiation), and the other involving intraspecific morphological polymorphism without corresponding

genetic divergence. In addition, this study has revealed additional taxonomic issues that should further be investigated.

Reference

Beati L, Nava S, Burkman EJ**,** Barros-Battesti DM, Labruna MB, Guglielmone AA, Cáceres AG, Guzmán-Cornejo CM, León R, Durden LA**,** Faccini JLH**.** 2013. Amblyomma cajennense (Fabricius, 1787) (Acari: Ixodidae), the Cayenne tick: phylogeography and evidence for allopatric speciation. BMC Evolutionary Biol. 13:267.