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# Comparative morphology and mitogenomics of freshwater mussels *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* (Bivalvia: Unionidae: Gonideinae)

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## Abstract

**Background** Amidst the escalating loss of global biodiversity, freshwater mussels (family Unionidae) have become one of the most imperiled animal groups. Acquiring more biological and phylogenetic information on understudied taxa constitutes a pivotal aspect of conservation biology. Consequently, a comprehensive examination was conducted on *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* from China encompassing morphology, anatomy, distribution, and molecular systematics to provide theoretical support for future species endangerment assessments and biodiversity conservation.

**Results** The shell characteristics of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* were clearly distinct, and the soft-body morphology could also be easily distinguished from each other. The papillae of the incurrent aperture of *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia recognita*, and *Sinosolenia oleivora*, which were previously described as difficult, exhibited significant variations that could be utilized for species diagnosis. Furthermore, both incurrent and excurrent apertures of the *Sinosolenia* species had small cysts on their dorsal surfaces which may be unique to this particular group. Comparative analysis of six mitochondrial genomes (*Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia recognita*, *Sinosolenia carinata*, and *Sinosolenia oleivora*) revealed a completely consistent gene arrangement pattern. Additionally, there was a high consistency in nucleotide base content and skewness, amino acid usage, and relative synonymous codon usage among the six complete mitochondrial genomes. Mitochondrial phylogenomics of these genomes with additional taxa within Gonideinae robustly supported the generic relationships as follows: (*Inversidens* + ((*Microcondylaea* + *Sinosolenia*) + (*Parvasolenia* + (*Koreosolenia* + (*Ptychorhynchus* + (*Postolata* + *Cosmopseudodon*)))))).

**Conclusions** The present study provided significant data on the shell morphology and soft-body anatomy of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia*, thereby clarifying the diagnostic characteristics for these challenging taxa. Additionally, we established a robust phylogenetic framework at both the generic and species levels based on mitochondrial genomics.

**Keywords** Shell morphology, Soft-body anatomy, Freshwater mussels, Unionidae, Gonideinae, Mitochondrial phylogenetics

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Introduction

Freshwater mussels (order Unionida) are of practical and aesthetic interest due to their role as indicators of threatened inland waterways worldwide [1–4], as well as being ornamental, long-lived invertebrates with unique parasitic life cycles adapted for existence in flowing waters [5–8]. Unionidae is the most diverse family within Unionida, with more than 800 known species worldwide [8, 9]. The habitats of these organisms display a wide diversity, with some groups thriving in environments characterized by slow water flow, clear waters, and muddy substrates containing gravel particles, while others prefer habitats with fast currents, crystal-clear waters, and firm sedimentary substrate [10–13]. Adult unionids generally have limited mobility and mainly feed on plankton and other organic matter in the water [14]. Within the family Unionidae, there are groups that exhibit minimal movement throughout their lives by consistently embedding themselves in firm substrates, which is the case for *Solenaia sensu lato* [15–17]. This peculiar lifestyle makes this group more vulnerable to threats from habitat changes and climate extremes, such as drought [8, 18–20]. Accurate taxonomic and phylogenetic information can

provide insights into species diversity levels and evolutionary history, which is of great significance for formulating strategies to conserve biodiversity [3, 21–23]. Over the past few years, molecular systematics, morphological anatomy, and reproductive biology have been studied for certain species in this group [17, 24, 25]; however, phylogenetic data is still lacking for other species, limiting our ability to understand the fundamental biology of these species that require conservation attention. Therefore, it is crucial to collect more biological information on understudied taxa to ensure that endangered biodiversity is not overlooked.

The genus *Solenaia sensu lato* was established by Conrad with the assignment of *Mycetopus emarginatus* Lea, 1860, as the type species [26]. Currently, the genus is recognized to include nine species (Table 1), which are endemic to East Asia and are distributed in China, India, Myanmar, and South Korea [27]. Initially, malacologists primarily focused on species descriptions and synonymy analyses based on shell morphological features [28–33]. However, the inherent variability of shell morphology has resulted in ongoing disputes regarding the species validity due to subjective interpretations by different scholars

**Table 1** Classification history for *Solenaia sensu lato* species. Boldfaces indicate the taxa of this study

Simpson, 1900, 1914 [28, 29]	Haas, 1969 [30]	Graf & Cummings (2007) [32]	He & Zhuang, 2013 [33]	Huang et al. (2019) [35]	Lopes-Lima et al. (2020) [36]	Graf & Cummings (2021) [9]	Bolotov et al. (2021) [37]
<i>Solenaia emarginatus</i> (Lea, 1860) [26]	<i>Solenaia emarginata</i>	<i>Solenaia emarginata</i>				<i>Solenaia emarginata</i>	<i>Solenaia emarginata</i>
		<i>Solenaia khwaenoensis</i> Panha & Deekin, 2004				<i>Solenaia khwaenoensis</i>	
<i>Solenaia carinata</i> (Heude, 1877) [45]	<i>Solenaia iridinea</i>		<i>Solenaia carinata</i>	<i>Solenaia carinata</i>	<i>Solenaia carinata</i>	<i>Solenaia carinata</i>	<i>Sinosolenaia carinata</i>
<i>Solenaia iridinea</i> (Heude, 1874) [46]		<i>Solenaia iridinea</i>	<i>Solenaia iridinea</i>			<i>Solenaia iridinea</i>	<i>Sinosolenaia iridinea</i>
<i>Solenaia oleivora</i> (Heude, 1877) [45] = <i>Micetopus recognitus</i> Heude, 1877				<i>Solenaia oleivora</i>	<i>Solenaia</i> cf. <i>oleivora</i> <i>Solenaia</i> sp.		<i>Sinosolenaia oleivora</i> <i>Sinosolenaia recognita</i>
<i>Solenaia rivularis</i> (Heude, 1877) [45]			<i>Solenaia rivularis</i>	<i>Parvasolenaia rivularis</i>		<i>Parvasolenaia rivularis</i>	
<i>Solenaia triangularis</i> (Heude, 1885) [35]	<i>Solenaia triangularis</i>	<i>Solenaia triangularis</i>	<i>Solenaia triangularis</i>		<i>Parvasolenaia triangularis</i> 'China'	<i>Parvasolenaia triangularis</i>	
			<i>Solenaia neotriangularis</i>	<i>Parvasolenaia neotriangularis</i> <i>Parvasolenaia triangularis</i> 'South Korea'	<i>Koreosolenaia sitgyensis</i>	<i>Parvasolenaia neotriangularis</i>	

when analyzing synonymy and proposing new species based on subtle differences in shell morphology [30, 32–34]. Starting from the 2020s, with increasing attention and the development of molecular techniques, significant advancements were achieved in the systematic investigation of this group [35–37]. Huang et al. [35] conducted a comprehensive phylogeny for Chinese freshwater mussels, and revealed that the genus *Solenaiia* was actually polyphyletic. In light of shell morphology and phylogenetic position, a new genus named *Parvasolenaiia* Huang & Wu, 2019 was established, with *Parvasolenaiia rivularis* (Heude, 1877) designated as the type species. Additionally, *Parvasolenaiia neotriangularis* (He & Zhuang, 2013) and *Parvasolenaiia triangularis* (Heude, 1885) were reassigned to this newly proposed genus [35]. Subsequently, based on discernible disparities in shell morphology and geographical distribution patterns, Lopes-Lima et al. [36] proposed that *P. triangularis* found in China's Yangtze River Basin and South Korea should not be considered as the same species; instead, the population inhabiting South Korea represented an undescribed new species. Consequently, Lopes-Lima et al. [36] introduced a new genus and a new name for previously presumed *P. triangularis* in South Korea, i.e. *Koreosolenaiia sitgyensis* Lee et al. 2020. The recent phylogenetic analyses revealed that both *Parvasolenaiia* and *Koreosolenaiia* belonged to the tribe Gonideini within the subfamily Gonideinae of the family Unionidae [36, 38–40]. However, with the addition of molecular data available for the type species *Solenaiia emarginata*, molecular systematics revealed that this species was a member of the tribe Contradentini [34, 41], while the other *Solenaiia* species, such as *Solenaiia carinata* and *Solenaiia oleivora*, belonged to the tribe Gonideini [35, 36, 42–44]. Therefore, based on the differences in tribe rank, Bolotov et al. [37] established a new genus called *Sinosolenaiia* Bolotov et al. 2021 for the Chinese *Solenaiia* lineage, with *Sinosolenaiia recognita* (Heude, 1877) designated as the type species. Additionally, *Sinosolenaiia carinata* (Heude, 1877), *Sinosolenaiia iridinea* (Heude, 1874), and *Sinosolenaiia oleivora* (Heude, 1877) were also assigned to this newly established genus [37]. Finally, by establishing multiple new genera (Table 1), the issue of polyphyly within *Solenaiia sensu lato* has been successfully resolved.

However, the phylogenetic relationships of this group remain controversial. The phylogenetic tree (COI + 28S) constructed by Lopes-Lima et al. [36] revealed a sister relationship between *Koreosolenaiia* and *Parvasolenaiia*, which was consistent with the findings of Dai et al. [38] and Liu et al. [47], who utilized three genes (COI + 16S + 28S). However, Wu et al. [39, 40] established a phylogenetic relationship using five molecular markers (COI + ND1 + 16S + 18S + 28S), indicating

that the two genera did not exhibit a sister relationship. These inconsistent phylogenetic relationships significantly impede our comprehension of the evolutionary interconnections among species. Furthermore, Bolotov et al. [37] reaffirmed the validity of *Sinosolenaiia* species based on barcode data from Genbank; however, the interspecific phylogenetic relationships remain unresolved. Therefore, it is crucial to utilize substantial molecular data (e.g., mitochondrial genome) in order to clarify the systematic relationships at both the generic and species levels.

It is widely acknowledged that the morphological characteristics of mussels exhibit significant plasticity, leading to substantial disagreements regarding the classification of different taxa at various hierarchical levels and the validity of species [48–53]. *Sinosolenaiia recognita*, *Sinosolenaiia iridinea*, and *Sinosolenaiia oleivora* were considered to be synonyms for a long time due to their similar shell morphology [15, 28–30, 33, 36]. Recently, Bolotov et al. [37] confirmed the validity of these three species based on COI barcode. However, more information about the three species, such as comparative conchology, anatomy and systematics, is still lacking.

Furthermore, there is a lack of precise species distribution information for these groups. The genera *Koreosolenaiia*, *Sinosolenaiia*, and *Parvasolenaiia* exhibit distinct endemic patterns [35–37]. As far as is known, *Koreosolenaiia* is endemic to Korea, while *Parvasolenaiia* and *Sinosolenaiia* are primarily distributed in China, specifically within the Yangtze River basin [27, 35–37]. Due to its vast geographical area, diverse water types, and complex hydrological environment, China serves as the primary hub for the distribution of freshwater mussels [8, 54]. This has resulted in a remarkable array of mussel species, including numerous endemic ones [38, 39, 55–57]. However, previous research on Chinese freshwater mussels predominantly focused on the Yangtze River basin, neglecting investigations into the diversity and distribution of these organisms across different regions of China [20, 35, 58]. This knowledge gap hampers our comprehensive understanding of precise species distribution patterns and paleobiogeography pertaining to specific endemic taxa.

Hence, this study conducted a comprehensive investigation on the species distribution of these groups in China, and achieved the following research objectives by integrating mitochondrial genomics, shell morphology, and soft-body anatomy: (1) to clarify the species distribution information of *Koreosolenaiia*, *Sinosolenaiia*, and *Parvasolenaiia* in China; (2) to compare the morphology, anatomy, and mitogenomics distinguishing among genera and species; (3) to reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships based on mitochondrial genomics.

## Materials and methods

### Taxon sampling and morphological examination

In 2021–2024, specimens with tissues of *Sinosolenia iridinea* [鸢尾华蛭蚌 (Chinese common name), Iris Solen Mussel (English common name)], *Sinosolenia oleivora* [橄榄华蛭蚌 (Chinese common name), Olive Solen Mussel (English common name)], *Sinosolenia recognita* [真华蛭蚌 (Chinese common name), Solen Mussel (English common name)], *Parvasolenia rivularis* [河小蛭蚌 (Chinese common name), River Solen Mussel (English common name)], and *Koreosolenia sitgyensis* [溪格韩蛭蚌 (Chinese common name), Sitgy Solen Mussel (English common name)] were collected from Liaoning, Henan, Hunan, Anhui, and Jiangxi provinces in China (Fig. 1; specific locations are shown in Supplementary Table S1). Only shells of *Sinosolenia carinata* [龙骨华蛭蚌 (Chinese common name), Carinate Solen Mussel (English common name)] were collected from Gan River (Nanchang City) in Jiangxi Province. Species identification was based on the published literatures [28–30, 33, 45, 46, 59] and COI barcode data [36, 37]. Conchological and anatomical features were visually examined with the naked eye and under a stereoscopic microscope (SZX10, Olympus), including shell shape, surface sculpture, hinge structure, muscle attachment, and papillae in the incurrent and excurrent aperture. A Digital Vernier Calliper was used to measure shell length (L), shell width (W), and shell height (H1 and H2) with an accuracy of 0.01 mm (Fig. S1). Log-transformed variables were converted into three ratios: (H1–H2)/W, (H1–H2)/L, and W/L for the subsequent morphometric analyses. The definition of morphometric characteristics and soft-body anatomy was illustrated in Fig. S1. All voucher specimens were stored at the Museum of Zoology, Shanxi Normal University, Taiyuan City, China.

### DNA extraction, PCR, sequencing, and mitogenome assembly

Doubly mitochondrial inheritance in freshwater mussels involves two types of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA): maternal (F-type) and paternal (M-type) mtDNA [60–62]. The M-type is found predominantly in male gonads, while the F-type is more abundant in somatic tissues. Here, we selected only F-type mitochondrial genome by extracting DNA from foot tissue and conducted a BLAST search (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) to confirm the target sequences. The total genomic DNA was extracted using the TIANamp Marine Animals DNA Kit (Tiangen Biotech, Beijing, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA quality and concentration were assessed using 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Scientific).

We performed amplification and sequencing of the COI gene using the previously known universal primer (LCO22me2+HCO700dy2) [63]. The PCR was performed using a 25 µL mixture of 2×Taq Plus Master Mix (Vazyme, China) (12.5 µL), ddH<sub>2</sub>O (9.5 µL), 2 µM primers (1 µL each), and genomic DNA (1 µL, approximately 100 ng/µL). Thermal cycling started at 95 °C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 15 s, annealing at 50 °C for 30 s, extension at 72 °C for 1 min, and then a final extension step at 72 °C for 5 min. The purification and sequencing of the PCR products were outsourced to Sangon Biotech (Shanghai, China). The newly obtained sequences were uploaded to GenBank (Accession Numbers: *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*: PQ062536–PQ062543; *Parvasolenia rivularis*: PQ062544; *Sinosolenia iridinea*: PQ062545–PQ062562; *Sinosolenia oleivora*: PQ062563–PQ062567; *Sinosolenia recognita*: PQ062568–PQ062572).

The high-quality genomic DNAs of four species (*Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia recognita*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, and *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*) were sent to Novogene Co., Ltd. (China) for library construction and sequencing. The sequencing procedure was performed on an Illumina Novaseq 6000 platform following the manufacturer's instructions. The libraries had average insert sizes of approximately 300 bp and were sequenced as 150 bp paired-end. Each library generated approximately 5 Gb of raw data. Raw reads were filtered using fastp ver. 0.20.0 [64] by removing reads containing adaptor sequences and low-quality reads (i.e. reads containing unknown nucleotides 'N' higher than 10%, more than 50% bases with quality scores less than 5) to obtain clean reads. Clean reads were then de novo assembled using the CLC Genomic Workbench (<https://digitalinsights.qiagen.com/>). Contigs identified as mitogenome sequences were manually checked for overlap at the beginning and end, resulting in a circular mitogenome. Geneious [65] was used to examine the entire mitogenome and perform an analysis of nucleotide composition. The assembled mitogenome sequence was annotated using the MITOS WebServer (see <http://mitos.bioinf.uni-leipzig.de/index.py>) [66] with the invertebrate genetic code. Protein-coding genes (PCGs) were manually corrected using BLAST searches analysis (see <http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>). The positions and secondary structures of tRNAs were confirmed using ARWEN (see <http://130.235.244.92/ARWEN/index.html>) [67]. The mitogenome maps were generated using the online program Chloroplot (see <https://irscope.shinyapps.io/Chloroplot/>) [68]. The obtained mitogenome sequences have been submitted to GenBank under accession number (*Koreosolenia sitgyensis*: OR933732; *Parvasolenia rivularis*: OR933733;





**Fig. 1** Shells of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* species. **A:** *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*; **B:** *Parvasolenia rivularis*; **C:** *Sinosolenia iridinea*; **D:** *Sinosolenia oleivora*; **E:** *Sinosolenia recognita*; **F:** *Sinosolenia carinata*. For each species, the left valve is located above with the shell surface facing upwards, and the right valve is located below with the nacre side facing upwards (left side); the shell umbo view is composed of both left and right valves (right side)

*Sinosolenia iridinea*: OR933734; *Sinosolenia recognita*: PQ063995).

#### Mitogenomic analysis

The mitochondrial genomes and annotation files of *Sinosolenia oleivora* (KF296320) and *Sinosolenia carinata*

(NC\_023250) were retrieved from GenBank for comparison with the mitochondrial genomes sequenced in this study. Sequence length, nucleotide composition, and AT content of the whole mitogenomes, PCGs, tRNAs, rRNAs and control regions (CRs) were calculated using the built-in EditSeq program in DNASTar (<https://www.>

[dnastar.com/](http://dnastar.com/)) [69]. Strand asymmetry was calculated using the following formulas:  $AT\ skew = (A - T) / (A + T)$  and  $GC\ skew = (G - C) / (G + C)$  [70]. The amino acid usage and relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) values of PCGs were calculated using MEGA (ver. 7.0, see <http://www.megasoftware.net>) [71]. The potential secondary structure of the CR was predicted using the RNAfold web server with default parameters (see <http://rna.tbi.univie.ac.at/cgi-bin/RNAWebSuite/RNAfold.cgi>) [72]. Structural elements such as the stem-ring structure and tandem repeat sequences were determined based on visualization.

### Phylogenetic analysis

Two datasets were constructed in this study: (i) COI dataset (Table S2); (ii) mitogenome dataset (containing 12 PCGs (*atp8* was excluded due to high sequence variation) and two rRNA genes; 28 taxa) (Table S3). The nucleotide sequence of all PCGs was aligned separately by the built-in MUSCLE algorithm [73] with default settings implemented in PhyloSuite (ver. 1.2.3, <http://phylosuite.jushengwu.com/>) [74]. The rRNAs were individually aligned by MAFFT (ver. 7.2, see <https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/>) [75] with the L-INS-i algorithm. Ambiguous alignment areas were trimmed by Gblocks (ver. 0.91b, see <http://molevol.cmima.csic.es/castresana/Gblocks.html>) [76]. The parameter ribosomal gene block with a minimum length was set to 2 base pairs (bp), allowed gap position was selected with half; the minimum length of PCG block was set to 3 bp, allowed gap position was selected none. For the barcoding dataset, the COI sequence fragment was aligned and trimmed to a length of 567 base pairs (bp). The mitogenomic dataset was concatenated using PhyloSuite ver. 1.2.3, resulting in a total of 12,424 bp.

Based on the COI dataset, the neighbour-joining tree was constructed using the Kimura 2-parameter (K2P) model in MEGA (ver. 7.0, see <http://www.megasoftware.net>) with 1000 bootstrap replicates [71, 77].

Before constructing phylogenetic trees based on mitochondrial data, substitution saturation tests were performed using DAMBE [78, 79]. The results showed that  $ISS < ISS.c$  with significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating that the sequence substitutions were not saturated and could be used to construct trees. The mitogenomic dataset was analyzed with partition schemes based on genes and codons. The partition scheme and the best model for Bayesian inference (BI) and maximum likelihood (ML) were selected using PartitionFinder (ver. 2.1.1, see <http://www.robertlanfear.com/partitionfinder/>) [80], and ModelFinder (ver. 1.4.2, see <http://www.iqtree.org/ModelFinder/>) [81], respectively. The substitution models

assigned to each partition by PartitionFinder and ModelFinder were listed in Table S4.

BI analyses were carried out in MrBayes (ver. 2.01, see <http://nbisweden.github.io/MrBayes/>) [82] with models generated in PartitionFinder. Four independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains were run simultaneously for ten million generations, and sampling was conducted every 1000 generations. When the average standard deviation of splitting frequency falls below 0.01, the process can be terminated. The total number of generations was 357,000, and the likelihood value converged after 28,000 generations. Therefore, the burn-in was set to 30 ( $> 28$ ). ML analyses were implemented in the IQTREE web server (see <http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/>) [83] based on models generated in ModelFinder, using 1000 ultrafast bootstraps [77]. The generated phylogenetic trees were viewed and edited using iTOL online software (<http://itol.embl.de/itol.cgi>) [84].

### Morphometric analyses

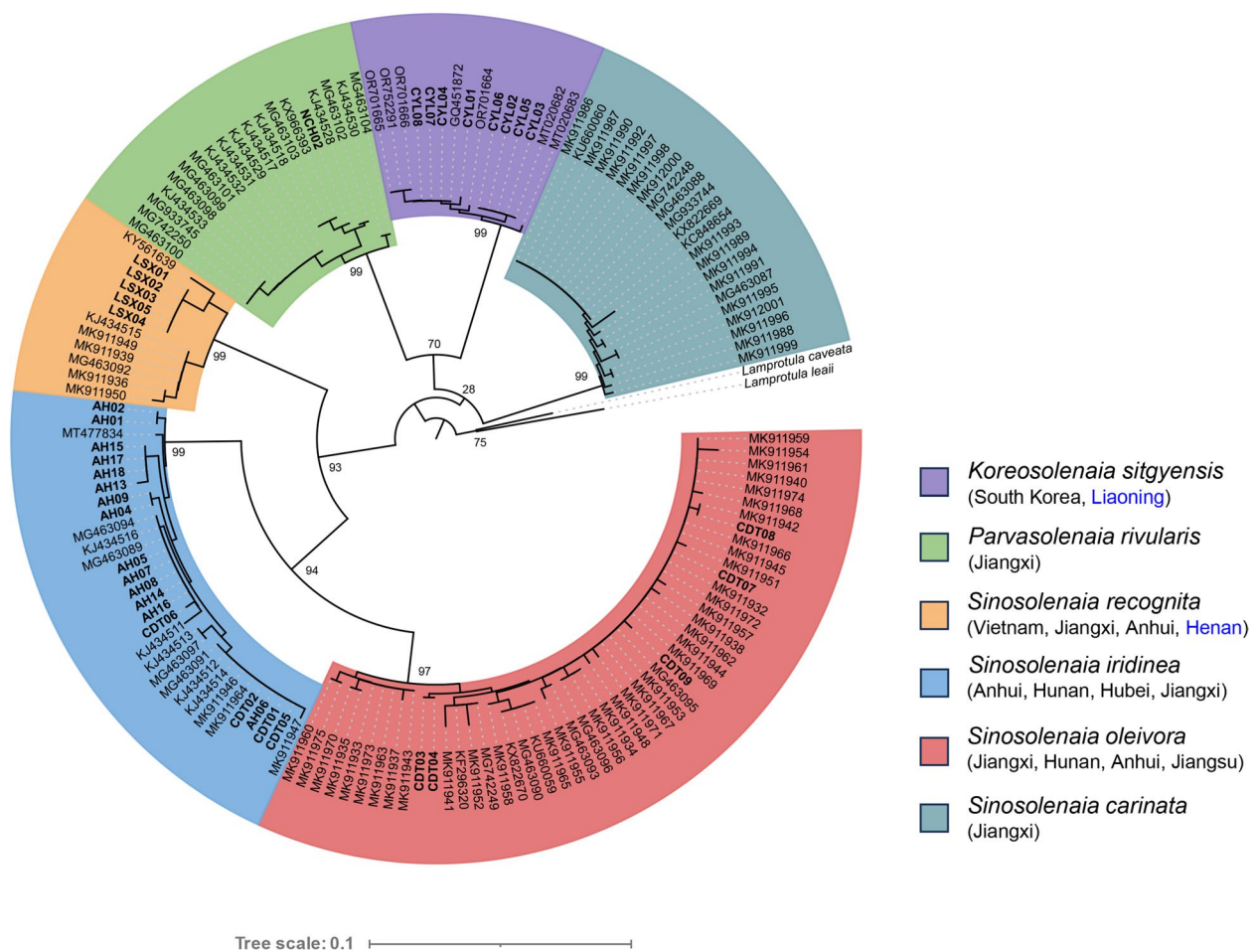
A total of 46 specimens were used for shell morphometric analyses. The species' morphological measurements information was shown in Table S5. Principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted using an online data analysis and visualization platform (<https://www.bioinformatics.com.cn>) [85] to describe the morphological variation among species. Univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed in SPSS 24.0 [86] to examine differences among different groups. To further compare the specific differences between the groups, pairwise comparisons were conducted between PC1 and PC2 using the LSD (least significant difference) method [87], with statistical significance set at  $p < 0.05$ .

## Results

### Comparative morphological analysis

We retrieved all available COI sequences of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* from Genbank and combined them with the sequences obtained from this study to compile a total of 152 sequences for the COI dataset. The six branches of the NJ tree, based on the COI dataset, provided good support for the validity of the currently recognized species: *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia oleivora*, *Sinosolenia recognita*, and *Sinosolenia carinata* (Fig. 2).

We conducted a detailed morphological examination of all collected specimens (Fig. 1). The shells of *Koreosolenia* and *Parvasolenia* were subtriangular, while the shells of *Sinosolenia* were narrow and elongated. Compared to *Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Koreosolenia sitgyensis* had a wider anterior margin and posterior margin. The shells of *Sinosolenia* species resembled razor



**Fig. 2** Neighbour-joining tree inferred from 152 COI sequences of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* species based on the Kimura 2-parameter model. Each branch is labelled with the GenBank accession numbers and specimen codes (bold type) from this study. Colored taxon blocks represent the different species in this study. The number on the branches represents the support values of the primary node. The distribution of species is shown in parentheses, with the new distribution found in this study highlighted in blue font

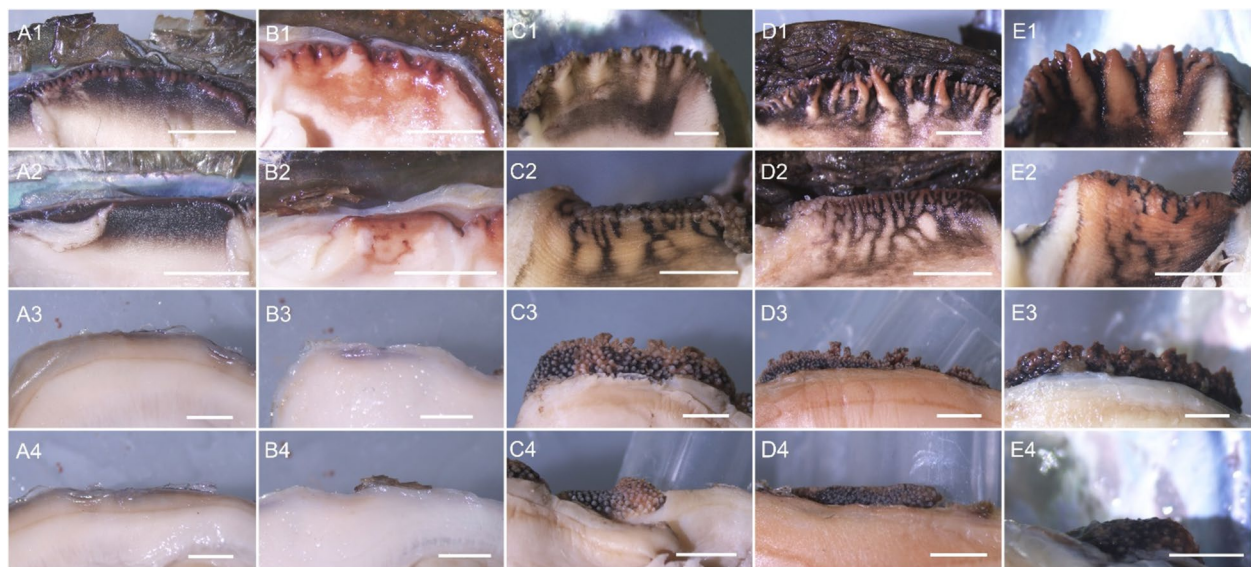
clams. *Sinosolenia carinata* could be distinguished from other congeneric species (*Sinosolenia oleivora*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia recognita*) by a distinct keel-like protrusion on the dorsal ridge, which prevented shells from closing completely and resulted in an atrac-toid opening at the posterior edge. In contrast, in other congeneric species, the shells could be tightly closed. Shell characteristics, such as shape, sculpture, and size of *S. oleivora*, *S. iridinea*, and *S. recognita* were very similar, often making it difficult to distinguish them based on shell morphology. Although there were apparent variations in shell color (Fig. 1C, D, E), it should be noted that shell color is intricately linked to both age and habitat [33, 88], rendering it impractical to accurately identify these three species solely based on shell color.

The soft-body anatomical characteristics of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* species were depicted in Fig. 3 and Fig. S2. In *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*,

the papillae of the incurrent aperture were short and arrange densely in a row, while the excurrent aperture was smooth and lacked papillae, but both apertures displayed evident pigmentation (Fig. 3A). In *Parvasolenia rivularis*, the papillae of the incurrent aperture were short and conical, unevenly arranged in two rows with no papillae observed in the excurrent aperture, and both apertures exhibited shallow pigmentation (Fig. 3B).

Although the shell characteristics of *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia oleivora*, and *Sinosolenia recognita* exhibited remarkable similarities, distinct differences could be observed in the incurrent aperture of these three species. In *S. iridinea*, the papillae of the incurrent aperture were short and thick, arranged in two to three rows, and branched near the base (Fig. 3C1). In *S. oleivora*, the papillae were elongated and spindle-shaped, arranged in two to three rows with branching at the pointed end (Fig. 3D1). In *S. recognita*, the papillae were thick and





**Fig. 3** Anatomical features of excurrent aperture and incurrent aperture. **A:** *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*; **B:** *Parvasolenia rivularis*; **C:** *Sinosolenia iridinea*; **D:** *Sinosolenia oleivora*; **E:** *Sinosolenia recognita*; 1: incurrent aperture; 2: excurrent aperture; 3: the dorsal surface of incurrent aperture; 4: the dorsal surface of excurrent aperture. Scale = 3 mm

short, conical in shape, arranged in two rows without any branching (Fig. 3E1). These three species had no papillae in their excurrent aperture, but they had tightly packed small cysts along their margins (Fig. 3C2, D2, E2). It was worth noting that *Sinosolenia* species possessed small cysts on the dorsal surface of both incurrent and excurrent apertures, which were closely connected to each other—a unique feature not observed in other genera (Fig. 3C3, C4, D3, D4, E3, E4).

We also observed the labial palps of the five species (*Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia oleivora*, and *Sinosolenia recognita*), which had similar morphologies characterized by a nearly triangular shape (Fig. S2). The anal opening was located on the dorsal margin of the posterior adductor muscle and was connected to the apertures, displaying a type I morphology as described by Shu & Wu [89] (Fig. S2).

### Morphometric analyses

The principal component analysis (PCA) yielded two distinct eigenvalues that accounted for over 99% of the total observed variation among individuals (Fig. 4). The first principal component (PC1) explained 67% of the overall variation, while the second principal component (PC2) accounted for 32.6% of the total variation. Although there was only one specimen of *Parvasolenia rivularis*, the PCA map clustering showed that each species significantly formed non-overlapping groups ( $p < 0.05$ ).

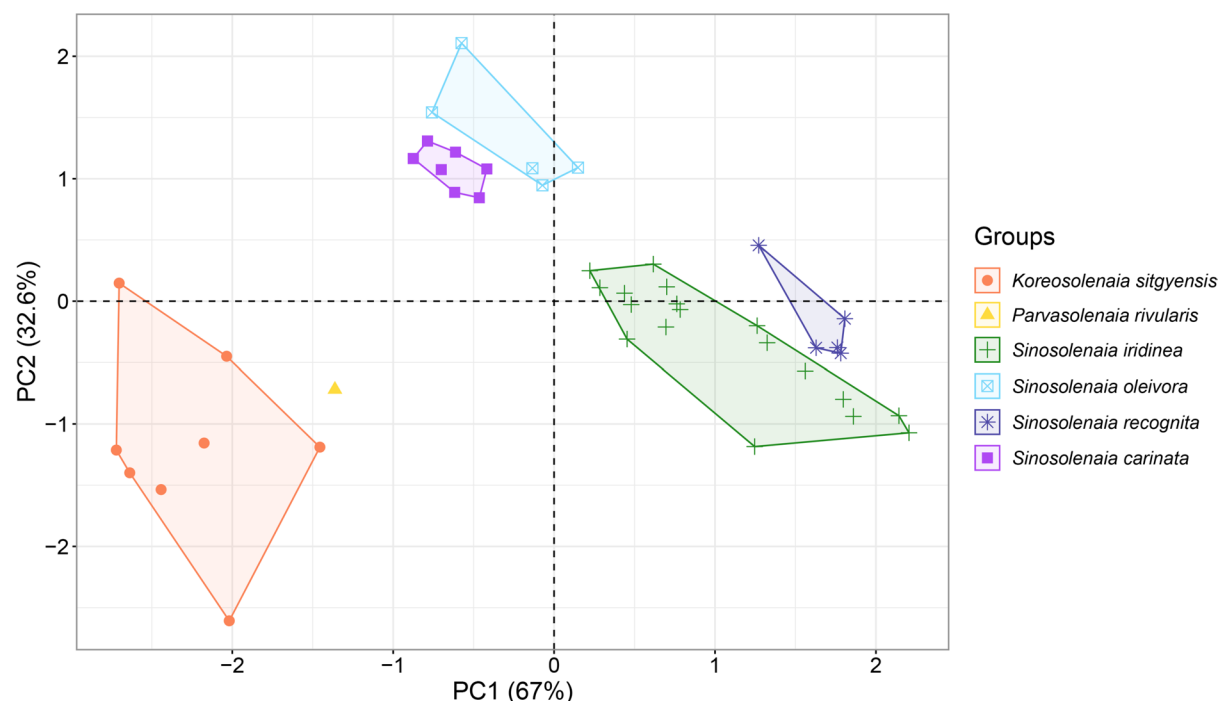
The PC1 axis revealed a significant difference among species ( $p < 0.05$ ), except for the absence of a significant difference for *Sinosolenia carinata* vs. *Sinosolenia oleivora* and *Sinosolenia carinata* vs. *Parvasolenia rivularis* ( $p > 0.05$ ). On the PC2 axis, *Koreosolenia sitgyensis* could be well separated from all other species except *Parvasolenia rivularis* ( $p < 0.05$ ). Additionally, significant differences existed between some other species as well (Table S6).

### Comparative mitogenome characteristics

#### Whole mitochondrial genome and protein-coding genes

We compared the F-type mitochondrial genomic features of *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, and *Sinosolenia recognita* obtained in our study with the complete mitochondrial genomes of *Sinosolenia oleivora* and *Sinosolenia carinata* downloaded from GenBank. The six complete mitochondrial genomes ranged from 16,045 bp to 16,716 bp (Table 2), all of which contained the typical 37 genes (13 PCGs, 2 rRNAs, and 22 tRNAs) (Fig. 5A; Table S7). The A + T content of all six complete mitochondrial genomes was higher compared to the G + C content. Additionally, their mitochondrial nucleotide compositions exhibited a positive AT skew and a negative GC skew (Table 2). The gene arrangement in the mitochondrial genome sequences of the six species was identical (Fig. 5A). The heavy chain (H chain) encoded eleven genes (*cox1*, *cox2*, *cox3*, *nad3*, *nad4*, *nad4L*, *nad5*, *atp6*, *atp8*, *trnD* and *trnH*), while additional twenty-six genes were located on

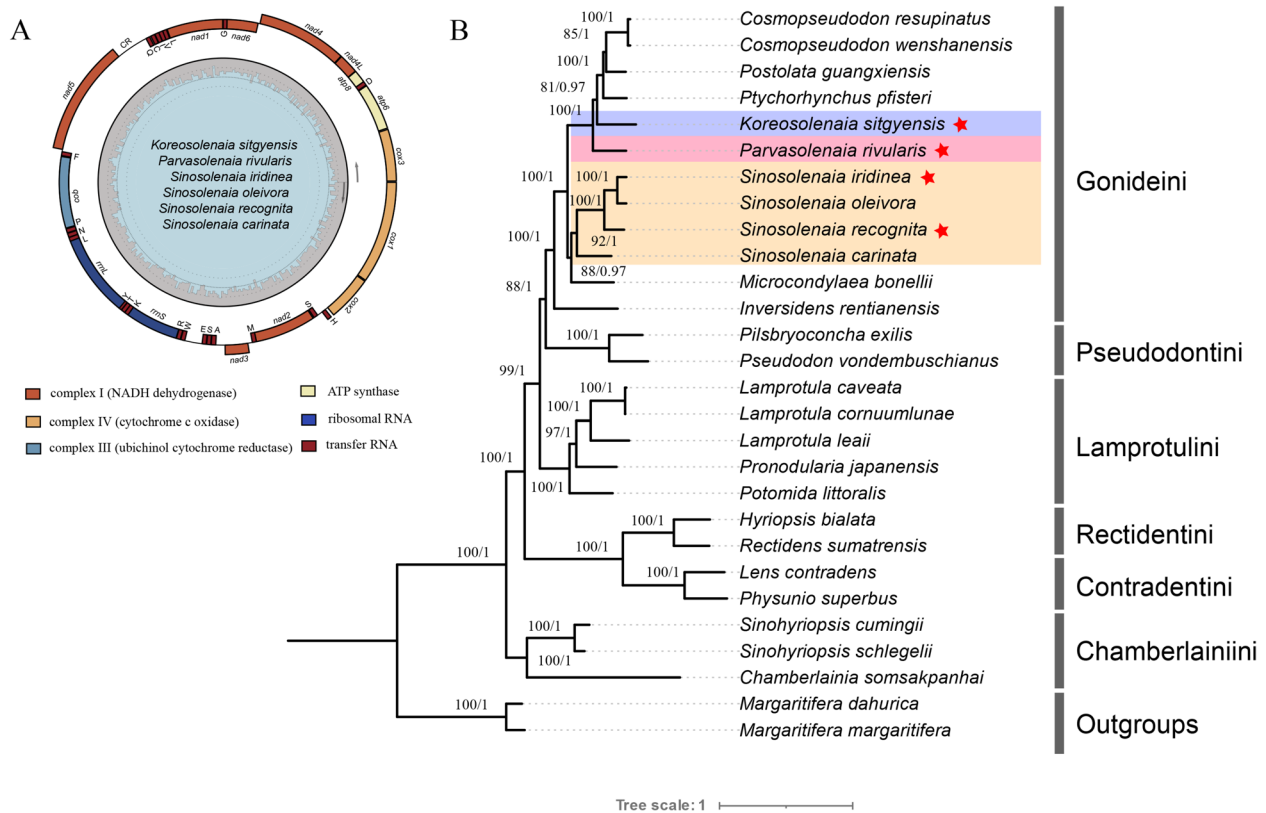




**Fig. 4** Principal component analysis (PCA) based on the data of (H1-H2)/W, (H1-H2)/L, and W/L

**Table 2** Mitochondrial genome structural characterization of *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Sinosolenia recognita*, *Sinosolenia oleivora*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, and *Sinosolenia carinata*

	<i>K. sitgyensis</i>	<i>P. rivularis</i>	<i>S. iridinea</i>	<i>S. oleivora</i>	<i>S. recognita</i>	<i>S. carinata</i>
Total (bp)	16,045	16,607	16,368	16,392	16,312	16,716
AT%	60.52	57.85	60.78	59.93	61.64	60.89
ATskew	0.22	0.25	0.21	0.22	0.2	0.22
GCskew	−0.34	−0.37	−0.38	−0.37	−0.37	−0.39
No. of gene intervals	28	28	31	24	24	25
No. of gene overlaps	4	4	2	1	3	2
Size range of gene overlap	1 ~ 20	1 ~ 22	2 ~ 10	8	1 ~ 9	1 ~ 8
CR	509	994	778	789	689	1049
<i>rrnS</i>	840	849	844	843	842	857
<i>rrnL</i>	1326	1288	1286	1287	1289	1296
<i>atp6</i>	702 (ATG/TAG)	708 (ATG/TAG)	708 (ATG/TAG)	708 (ATG/TAG)	708 (ATG/TAG)	708 (ATG/TAG)
<i>atp8</i>	192 (GTG/TAA)	192 (GTG/TAG)	198 (ATG/TAA)	198 (ATG/TAG)	198 (ATG/TAA)	198 (GTG/TAG)
<i>cox1</i>	1545 (TTG/TAA)	1536 (TTG/TAG)	1545 (TTG/TAG)	1545 (TTG/TAA)	1548 (ATA/TAG)	1545 (TTG/TAG)
<i>cox2</i>	681 (ATG/TAA)	681 (ATG/TAA)	681 (ATG/TAA)	681 (ATG/TAA)	681 (ATG/TAA)	681 (ATG/TAA)
<i>cox3</i>	780 (ATG/TAG)	780 (ATG/TAG)	780 (ATG/TAG)	780 (ATG/TAA)	780 (ATG/TAA)	780 (ATG/TAA)
<i>cob</i>	1137 (ATA/TAA)	1137 (ATA/TAA)	1137 (ATA/TAA)	1149 (ATC/TAG)	1158 (ATT/TAA)	1161 (ATC/TAG)
<i>nad1</i>	885 (ATT/TAA)	885 (ATT/TAG)	894 (ATT/TAA)	897 (ATC/TAA)	897 (ATC/TAA)	897 (ATC/TAA)
<i>nad2</i>	963 (ATG/TAA)	963 (ATG/TAA)	963 (ATG/TAA)	963 (ATG/TAA)	963 (ATG/TAA)	963 (ATG/TAA)
<i>nad3</i>	357 (ATG/TAG)	357 (ATG/TAG)	345 (ATG/TAG)	357 (ATG/TAG)	357 (ATG/TAA)	357 (ATG/TAG)
<i>nad4</i>	1332 (ATG/TAA)	1347 (ATT/TAA)	1332 (ATA/TAA)	1350 (ATT/TAG)	1350 (ATT/TAA)	1350 (ATT/TAG)
<i>nad4L</i>	297 (ATG/TAG)	297 (ATG/TAG)	297 (ATG/TAG)	297 (ATG/TAG)	297 (ATG/TAG)	297 (ATG/TAG)
<i>nad5</i>	1734 (GTG/TAA)	1728 (ATT/TAG)	1728 (ATT/TAG)	1734 (GTG/TAG)	1734 (ATG/TAG)	1734 (ATG/TAA)
<i>nad6</i>	489 (ATT/TAA)	492 (ATT/TAA)	489 (ATA/TAA)	489 (ATT/TAA)	489 (ATT/TAG)	489 (ATC/TAA)



**Fig. 5** Analysis based on mitochondrial data. **A:** Gene map of the F-type mitochondrial genome of *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, *Sinosolenia iridinea*, *Sinosolenia oleivora*, *Sinosolenia recognita*, *Sinosolenia carinata*. **B:** Phylogenetic trees inferred from Bayesian Inference (BI) and Maximum Likelihood (ML) analyses. Support values above the branches are maximum likelihood bootstrap support values and Bayesian posterior probabilities, respectively. The colored shaded clades represent three genera that are the focus of this study. Pentagrams symbolize the sequences from this study

the light chain (L chain) (Table S7), which was consistent with the mitochondrial genomes of other Gonideinae species [38, 39].

Most protein-coding genes (PCGs) in the six mitochondrial genomes started with the typical start codon ATN (ATA, ATC, ATG, ATT). However, exception made for *Sinosolenia recognita*, which used ATA as the start codon for *cox1*, the other five species used TTG as the start codon for *cox1*. Additionally, GTG was found to be used as the start codon for some PCGs (e.g., *nad5* in *Koreosolenia sitgyensis* and *Sinosolenia oleivora*; *atp8* in *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Parvasolenia rivularis*, and *Sinosolenia carinata*). Furthermore, all PCGs had the typical TAR (TAA, TAG) as the stop codon (Table 2; Table S7). For all six mitochondrial genomes, the A + T content of PCGs (57.01% ~ 60.69%) was slightly lower than that of the whole genome and also exhibited positive AT skew (0.23 ~ 0.29) as well as negative GC skew (−0.38 ~ −0.43).

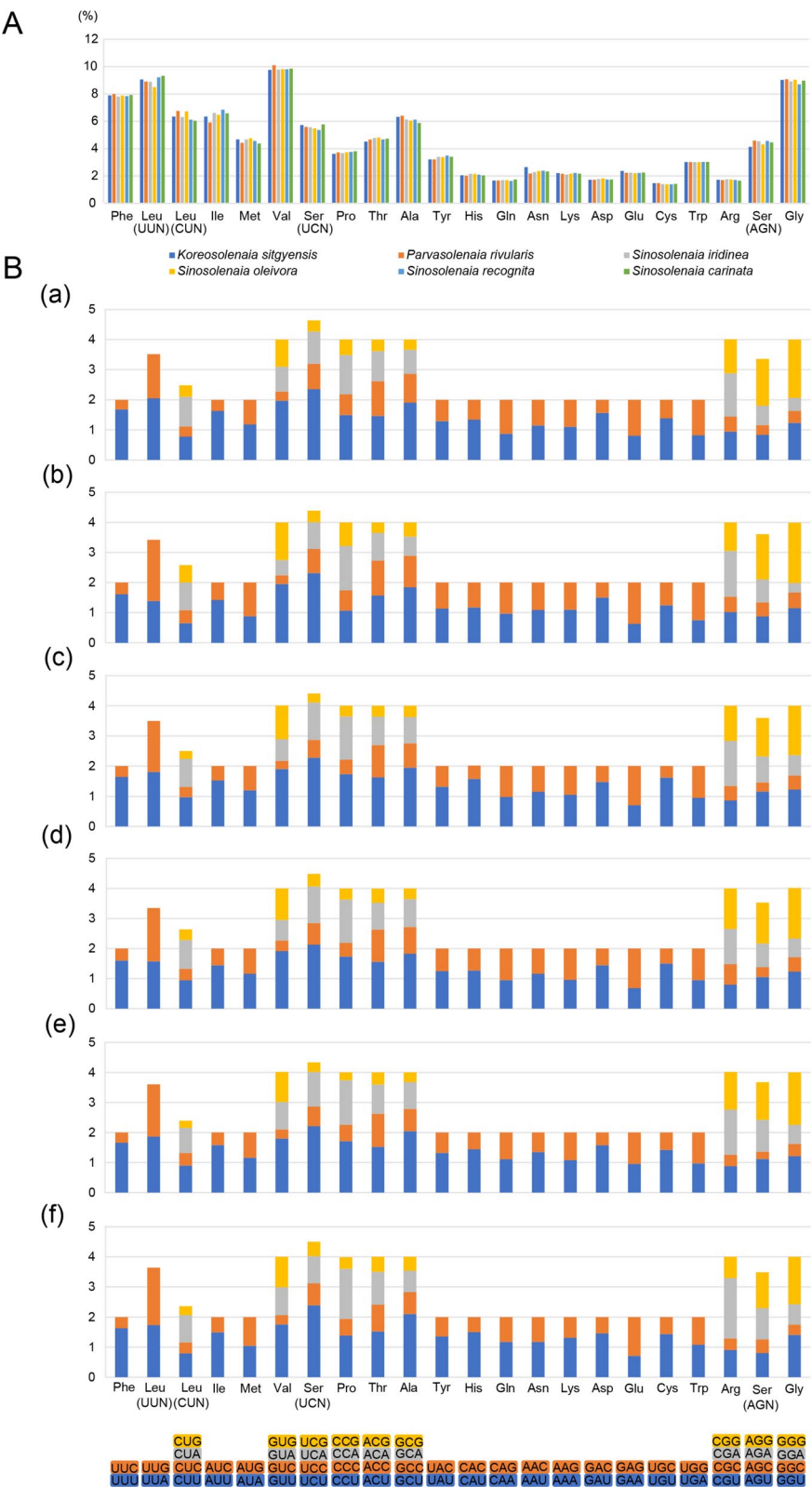
In the six mitochondrial genomes, the most frequently utilized amino acids were Val, Gly, and Leu

(UUN), while the least commonly used were Arg, Cys, and Gln (Fig. 6A). By calculating the relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU), it was found that the codon usage bias in the six mitochondrial genomes was generally similar (Fig. 6B). The preferred amino acid coding codons mostly have A or T in the third position (Fig. 6B).

#### tRNA, rRNA, and CR structure

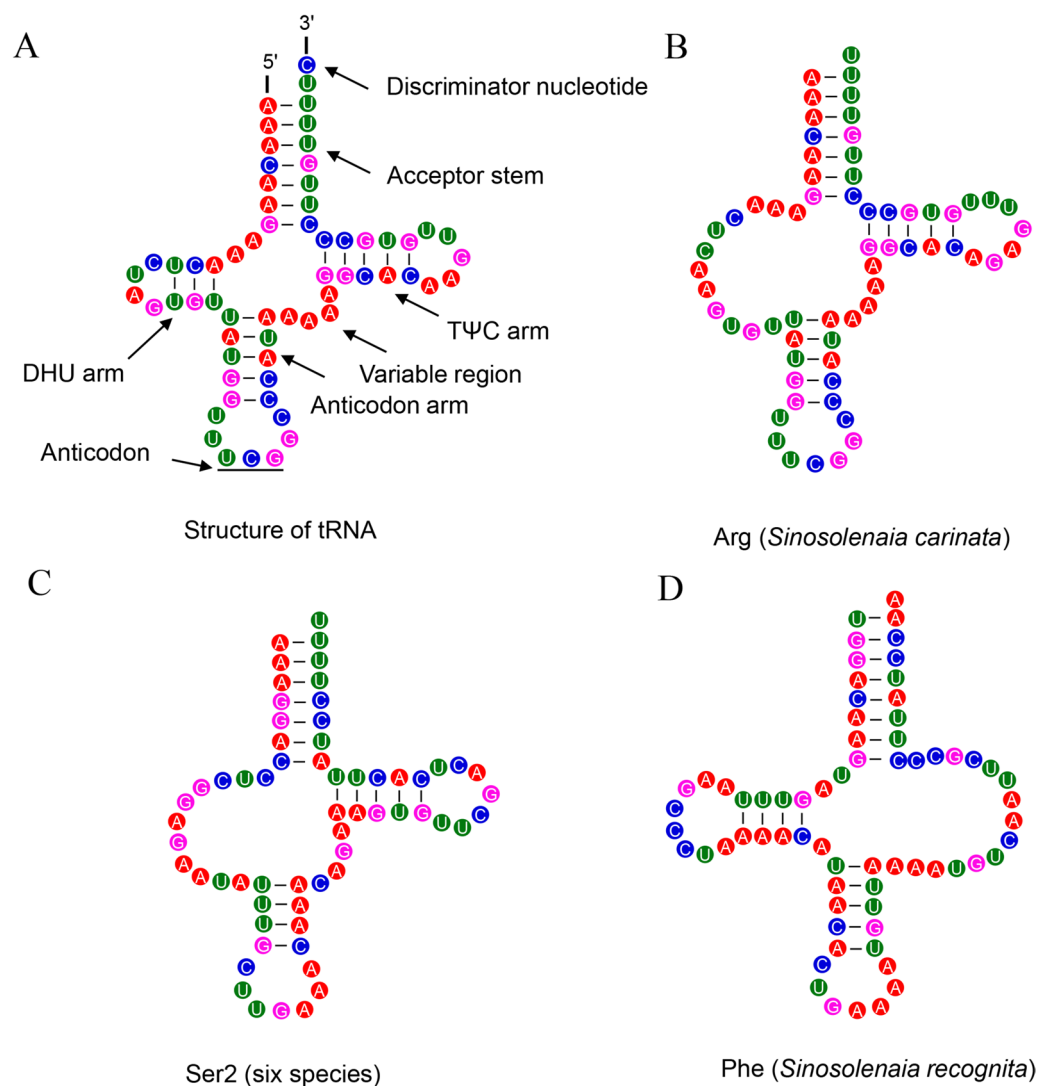
The six mitochondrial genomes contained a total of 22 predicted tRNA genes. The length of tRNAs ranged from 52 to 74 bp, with the smallest being tRNA-Ala in *Parvasolenia rivularis* and the largest being tRNA-Phe, tRNA-Pro and tRNA-Ala in *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*, *Sinosolenia iridinea* and *Sinosolenia carinata*, respectively.

Most tRNAs adopted a characteristic cloverleaf secondary structure, encompassing distinct regions such as discriminator nucleotide, acceptor stem, T $\Psi$ C arm, variable loop, anticodon arm, and DHU arm (Fig. 7A). However, all six mitochondrial genomes showed a large loop



**Fig. 6** The amino acid usage (A) and relative synonymous codon usage (B) of Protein-coding genes (PCGs). (a): *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*; (b): *Parvasolenia rivularis*; (c): *Sinosolenia iridinea*; (d): *Sinosolenia oleivora*; (e): *Sinosolenia recognita*; (f): *Sinosolenia carinata*





**Fig. 7** Predicted secondary structure for tRNAs. **A:** Standard secondary cloverleaf structure; **B, C, D:** abnormal secondary structure (**B:** Arg in *Sinosolenia carinata*; **C:** Ser2 in six species; **D:** Phe in *Sinosolenia recognita*)

in the DHU arm for the tRNA-Ser2 instead of the typical stem-loop structure (Fig. 7C). In addition, the tRNA-Arg in *Sinosolenia carinata* lacked DHU arm (Fig. 7B), and the tRNA-Phe in *Sinosolenia recognita* lacked the TΨC arm (Fig. 7D).

The two rRNA genes (*rrnS* and *rrnL*) of the six mitochondrial genomes were both encoded on the L chain. The *rrnL* was located between tRNA-Tyr and tRNA-Leu1, while *rrnS* was located between tRNA-Arg and tRNA-Lys. Among the six mitochondrial genomes, the lengths of *rrnS* and *rrnL* genes ranged from 840 to 857 bp and 1286 to 1326 bp, respectively (Table 2). Both rRNA genes showed a preference for (A + T) bases.

The control region (CR) was the largest non-coding segment of the mitochondrial genome, exhibiting the

highest degree of nucleotide composition asymmetry and sequence length variation. In this study, the CRs of six mitogenomes were consistently located between ND5 and tRNA-Gln, with lengths ranging from 509 to 1049 bp. They displayed a higher A + T content compared to G + C. Furthermore, the CRs exhibited a variety of structural elements, such as stem-loop structures and tandem repeat sequences (Fig. S3).

#### Mitochondrial phylogenomics

In this study, we used mitochondrial genomes from 26 Gonideinae species to construct a consistent topology using ML and BI analyses. The monophyly of all tribes within Gonideinae was strongly supported by 100% maximum likelihood bootstrap supports (BS) and Bayesian

posterior probabilities (PP) in most nodes, and their relationships at the tribal level were consistent with previous studies (Fig. 5B) [38–41, 44].

Focusing on the tribe Gonideini, BI and ML trees consistently supported genus-level relationships as follows: (*Inversidens* + ((*Microcondylaea* + *Sinosolenaia*) + (*Parvasolenaia* + (*Koreosolenaia* + (*Ptychorhynchus* + (*Postolata* + *Cosmopseudodon*)))))) (BS > 80%, PP > 0.9; Fig. 5B). In the genus *Sinosolenaia*, BI and ML yielded consistent and strongly supported phylogenetic relationships as follows: (*S. carinata* + (*S. recognita* + (*S. iridinea* + *S. oleivora*))) (BS > 90%, PP = 1; Fig. 5B).

## Discussion

### Comparative morphology and species distribution

A robust taxonomy is crucial for inferring biological characteristics from closely related species, comprehending their evolutionary history, and effectively prioritizing conservation efforts [90–92]. Combining morphological and molecular data, we re-examined the three recently separated genera from *Solenaia sensu lato*, namely *Koreosolenaia*, *Parvasolenaia*, and *Sinosolenaia* [35–37]. *Koreosolenaia* and *Parvasolenaia* can be easily distinguished from *Sinosolenaia* by shell shape and sculpture (Fig. 1). Compared to *Parvasolenaia rivularis*, *Koreosolenaia sitgyensis* had wider margins on the anterior margin and posterior margin. *Sinosolenaia carinata* could be distinguished from other congeneric species (*S. oleivora*, *S. iridinea*, *S. recognita*) by the prominent keel-like ridges on its dorsal ridge (Fig. 1). However, the shell features of *S. oleivora*, *S. iridinea*, and *S. recognita* were very similar, making it difficult to distinguish them based solely on shell characteristics (Fig. 1). Capturing changes in shell height, length, and width is crucial for accurately identifying distinctive features for unionids [93]. During the examination of specimens, we observed visible differences in the ratio of the anterior and posterior margins among different species. Therefore, we quantified three indicators ((H1-H2)/L, W/L, and (H1-H2)/W3) for PCA analysis. The results indicated that there was no overlap among *S. oleivora*, *S. iridinea*, and *S. recognita* with statistically significant differences (Fig. 4;  $p < 0.05$ ). Due to the taxonomic challenges posed by the considerable variability of shells, it has been acknowledged that considering soft-body characteristics is equally imperative [38, 39, 57, 94, 95]. By observing and comparing the soft-body morphology, we identified distinct variations in the papillae on excurrent apertures among *S. oleivora*, *S. iridinea*, and *S. recognita*, which can be considered as species diagnostic characteristics (Fig. 3). Furthermore, our findings discovered that *Sinosolenaia* species exhibited small cysts closely interconnected on both the dorsal surface of

apertures, potentially representing a unique feature specific to the genus *Sinosolenaia* (Fig. 3).

The comprehension of species distribution is a fundamental requirement for comprehending their spatial patterns and paleobiogeography. The currently available distribution data suggest that *Koreosolenaia sitgyensis* is endemic to Korea, while Chinese *Sinosolenaia recognita* is found in the Yangtze River Basin, encompassing Jiangxi, Hunan, Hubei, Anhui, and Jiangsu [27, 35–37]. In this study, we conducted a comprehensive survey and sampling throughout China, revealing the presence of *S. recognita* in Nanwan Lake, Henan Province. Additionally, we also collected *K. sitgyensis* from the Yalu River, Liaoning Province. These findings significantly expand the known distribution range of these species, providing a solid foundation for subsequent assessments regarding their endangerment status and conservation strategies.

### Mitochondrial genome structure and phylogenetic relationships

At present, three gene arrangement patterns have been found in the family Unionidae [43, 96]. We successfully assembled the complete mitochondrial genomes of *Parvasolenaia rivularis*, *Koreosolenaia sitgyensis*, *Sinosolenaia iridinea*, and *Sinosolenaia recognita*. Our findings indicated that their gene arrangements align with those observed in *Sinosolenaia carinata* and *Sinosolenaia oleivora*, while also sharing the gene arrangement with the majority of species within Gonideinae.

The six complete mitogenomes exhibited a high A + T content in genomes, protein-coding genes, tRNAs, rRNAs, and CRs. Upon analyzing the protein-coding genes, we observed that nucleotide A or T was predominantly favored in the third codon position for most amino acids (Fig. 6). This phenomenon is also prevalent among other taxa [97–100]. The majority of tRNAs adopt a typical cloverleaf secondary structure. However, in the DHU domain, tRNA-Ser2 of six species exhibited an atypical large ring structure (Fig. 7C). Interestingly, the absence of the stem in tRNA-Ser is commonly observed in other metazoan mitochondrial genomes [99–104], although the reasons for this absence remain unclear. This study also observed that the CR of the six complete mitochondrial genomes contained some structural elements, such as stem-loop structures and tandem repeat sequences (Fig. S3). Clayton et al. [105] believed that these stem-loop structures play a role in initiating replication within animal mitochondria.

Recent molecular phylogenetic studies showed that the multi-locus phylogeny yielded inconsistent results at the generic level [36, 38–40, 47]. This inconsistent phylogenetic relationship may be attributed to the limited number of polymorphic sites and its non-neutral

nature, which might not provide sufficient information for resolving deep nodes. However, the mitochondrial genome is widely acknowledged for its remarkable capacity to elucidate both shallow and deep relationships in freshwater mussels [35, 44, 106–109]. Therefore, based on the complete mitochondrial genome, we constructed a robust phylogenetic framework focusing on the subfamily Gonideinae in Unionidae. Both BI and ML trees strongly supported that *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia* belonged to the tribe Gonideini, with the following phylogenetic relationships: (*Inversidens* + ((*Microcondylaea* + (*Sinosolenia carinata* + (*Sinosolenia recognita* + (*Sinosolenia iridinea* + *Sinosolenia oleivora*)))) + (*Parvasolenia* + (*Koreosolenia* + (*Ptychorrhynchus* + (*Postolata* + *Cosmopseudodon*)))))).

### Threats and conservation implications

It is imperative to evaluate and monitor species diversity in the era of ongoing biodiversity loss. A scientific comprehension of both species diversity and phylogenetic diversity serves as the foundation for species conservation efforts [40, 88, 110, 111]. Here, we integrated morphology, morphometrics, and mitochondrial genomics to conduct a comprehensive study on *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia*, elucidating their distinctive classification features and phylogenetic relationships, while also supplementing new information regarding the geographic distribution. These findings establish a scientific groundwork for subsequent species threat assessment and conservation endeavors.

The *Sinosolenia* group is an important local source of aquatic food with fresh and tender meat [15]; however, due to overconsumption, habitat degradation, alteration, and fragmentation caused by human activities, the distribution range of *Sinosolenia* species is becoming increasingly narrow and population numbers are rapidly declining [17, 24, 25, 112–114]. In recent years, the Chinese government has implemented a series of policies for the protection of aquatic animals, including a 10-year fishing ban in the Yangtze River and an updated list of wildlife species under national key protection. These measures have significantly improved the quality of habitat for these groups. The acquisition of fundamental knowledge regarding biological diversity, taxonomy, evolutionary relationships, essential biological and ecological characteristics, as well as habitat requirements of freshwater bivalves, is imperative for conducting effective conservation assessments, planning, and implementation [3]. Based on comprehensive research conducted by conchologists on its reproductive characteristics, habitat, population distribution, and genetic diversity, the government has officially designated *Sinosolenia carinata* as a nationally

protected secondary keystone species in 2021. However, there is still a significant lack of basic biological and ecological information for most species of *Koreosolenia*, *Parvasolenia*, and *Sinosolenia*, which hinders the assessment of their endangerment status. Therefore, we urgently call for more colleagues to participate in a detailed study of these groups in order to understand their genetic diversity and population structure, as well as the microhabitat, behavioral characteristics, and host fish.

### Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-024-11164-7>.

Supplementary Material 1: Table S1. Collection information of specimens in the present study. Supplementary Table S2. List of sequences used in COI phylogenetic analyses. Bold fonts in red represent the sequence from this study. Supplementary Table S3. List of sequences used in mitochondrial phylogenomic analyses. (\*) the sequence from this study. Supplementary Table S4. Partitioning strategies from ModelFinder and PartitionFinder for mitogenome dataset. Supplementary Table S5. Morphological dataset for principal coordinates analysis. Variables used for morphological analysis are three quantitative ones: (H1-H2)/L, W/L, (H1-H2)/W. Supplementary Table S6. Adjusted *p*-values (< 0.05 in bold) obtained by Tukey's pairwise posthoc-tests following ANOVAs testing for significant differences between species in PC1 (upper right) and PC2 (lower left) values, respectively. Supplementary Table S7. Annotated files of the four mitochondrial genomes sequenced in this study.

Supplementary Material 2: Fig. S1. The definition of morphometric characteristics and soft-body anatomy. Abbreviations: H1 and H2, shell height; L, shell length; W, width; aam, anterior adductor muscle; pam, posterior adductor muscle; exa, excurrent aperture; ia, incurrent aperture; f, foot; ig, inner gill; og, outer gill; lp, labial palps; m, mantle.

Supplementary Material 3: Fig. S2. Anatomical features of labial palps and anal opening. A: *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*; B: *Parvasolenia rivularis*; C: *Sinosolenia iridinea*; D: *Sinosolenia oleivora*; E: *Sinosolenia recognita*; 1: labial palps; 2: anal opening.

Supplementary Material 4: Fig. S3. Secondary structure of the control region. A: *Koreosolenia sitgyensis*; B: *Parvasolenia rivularis*; C: *Sinosolenia iridinea*; D: *Sinosolenia oleivora*; E: *Sinosolenia recognita*; F: *Sinosolenia carinata*.

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### Authors' contributions

WR conceived the study; LXJ and HX procured the samples; ZL, JJ and LXJ analyzed and interpreted the morphological and genomic data. ZL and WR drafted the article. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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### Data availability

All COI and mitogenome sequences used in this study are available on NCBI's GenBank database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>). Accession numbers for all sequences can be found in Table S2–S3.



## Declarations

### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

### Consent for publication

Not applicable.

### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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