DNA barcoding of fish larvae reveals uncharacterised biodiversity in tropical peat swamps of New Guinea, Indonesia

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Abstract. The Indonesian archipelago, Borneo, Sumatra and West New Guinea (Papua), hosts half of the world’s known tropical peat swamps, which support a significant proportion of the estimated biodiversity on Earth. However, several species groups that inhabit peat swamp environments remain poorly characterised and their biology, particularly during early life stages, is not well understood. In the present study we characterised larval and juvenile fish biodiversity, as well as spatial and temporal variability, in a pristine peat swamp environment of the River Kumbe in West New Guinea, Indonesia, based on analysis of the mitochondrial cytochrome-c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) sequence (501 bp). Altogether, 10 fish species were detected in the peat swamp habitat during the larval and juvenile stages, whereas 13 additional species were caught at older stages. Twelve species were detected only in a single site, whereas some species, such as the Western archerfish (Toxotes oligolepis) and Lorentz’s grunter (Pingalla lorentzi), were observed in all sampling sites. The occurrence of fish larvae also varied temporally for several species. In contrast with many earlier DNA barcoding studies in fish, we were not able to determine the species identity for a large proportion of sequenced larvae (68%) because of the lack of corresponding COI sequences in the reference dataset. Unidentified sequences clustered into five separate monophyletic clades. Based on genetic divergences, the putative taxonomic origin for the five morphotypes are Atherinidae, Osteoglossidae, Terapontidae and Gobiidae.

Introduction

Peatland ecosystems are characterised by the accumulation of partially decayed organic matter, which is formed from plant debris under waterlogged conditions (Andriesse 1988). Peatlands cover over $4 \times 10^9$ ha and can be found in all parts of the world (Parish et al. 2008). In the tropics, peat and peaty soils (histosols) originate from woody plant debris under high-rainfall and high-temperature conditions (Andriessen 1988; Chimner and Ewel 2005). The greatest peat depths occur in peat swamp forests at low altitudes in river valley basins, watersheds and subcoastal areas (Posa et al. 2011). They are characterised by extreme acidic, anaerobic and nutrient-poor conditions, and are regarded as one of the most unusual biomes in tropical rainforests (Ng et al. 1992). As a result of these extreme conditions, many peatland species are highly specialised and not found in other habitats (Kaat and Joosten 2008).

The Indonesian archipelago, Borneo, Sumatra and West New Guinea (Papua), hosts half the world’s known tropical peat swamps (Pearce 2007). Approximately 50% of the Indonesian peat swamp lands occur in West New Guinea (Papua; Yoshino et al. 2010). With some 786 000 km$^2$ of tropical land (82% of forest cover), less than 0.5% of the Earth’s surface, New Guinea has an immense biodiversity, containing between 5 and 10% of the total species on the planet. However, although certain species groups within this region, such as birds, have been relatively well characterised, many other animals, such as freshwater organisms living in peat swamp habitat, remain poorly understood (Polhemus et al. 2004; Marshall and Beetle 2007). Given that vast areas of pristine peat swamp habitats have been lost or degraded over past decades because of anthropogenic activities, including logging, deforestation, pollution and mining, this represents a serious threat to freshwater biodiversity.
For example, Indonesia lost at least 2.69 \times 10^6 ha peatland cover between 2000 and 2010, of which 13.6% was located in West New Guinea (Papua; Miettinen et al. 2011). The tropical peat swamp forests support some of the highest freshwater biodiversity of any habitat in the world (Parish et al. 2008), consisting of a large number of rare species of fishes (Dennis and Aldhous 2004). For example, it is estimated that 20% of Malaysian freshwater fish occur in peatlands (Ahmad et al. 2002) and at least 219 fish species have been recorded from tropical peat swamps, 80 species associated with the ecosystem, 31 of which are endemic species found only in single locations (Posa et al. 2011). One of the least known aspects of the biology of peat swamp fish relates to the larval stages, and questions associated with the timing and location of spawning, location of nursery habitats and dispersal during early life history stages (Ng 1994; Ng et al. 1994; Beamish et al. 2003; Dennis and Aldhous 2004). Yet, this information is crucial for conservation, management and assessment of environmental effects, because quantifying and classifying fish eggs and larvae remains one of the most effective ways of monitoring the recruitment process in fish (Smith and Richardson 1977; Beamish et al. 2003; Bialetzki et al. 2005; Valdez-Moreno et al. 2010; Reynalte-Tataje et al. 2011). However, accurate identification of many taxonomic groups at larval stages is extremely challenging or impossible, even for experienced taxonomists (Kochzius 2009; Frantine-Silva et al. 2015).

During the past decade, sequencing of the mitochondrial cytochrome-c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) gene fragment in animals has become one of the most widely used and effective tools for species identification and discovery (Hebert et al. 2003; Ward et al. 2005; Kochzius 2009; Trivedi et al. 2016). This approach, known as DNA barcoding, has been shown to provide unprecedented accuracy for the identification of various taxonomic groups of fish (Kochzius 2009; Collins et al. 2012; Landi et al. 2014; Frantine-Silva et al. 2015). DNA barcoding has also emerged as a principal tool for specimen identification from fish eggs and larvae (Pegg et al. 2006; Victor et al. 2007; Baldwin et al. 2011; Hubert et al. 2015a) and it has been recently demonstrated that the DNA-based approach is superior to traditional morphological identification of fish larvae (Ko et al. 2013). However, most previous DNA barcoding studies on fish larvae and ichthyoplankton assemblages have been conducted in a marine habitat (Pegg et al. 2006; Valdez-Moreno et al. 2010; Ko et al. 2013; Hubert et al. 2015a), with only a few studies using this approach for larval identification of fish in freshwater environments (Loh et al. 2014; Frantine-Silva et al. 2015).

Herein we describe a first attempt to use DNA barcoding for characterisation of larval and juvenile fish biodiversity in a pristine peat swamp environment in Papua, Indonesia, on the island of New Guinea. The peat land forests of the River Kumbe are often flooded during March, whereas the water level is usually at its lowest in October during the dry season. Therefore, we also evaluated temporal variability of the juvenile occurrence by repeated sampling during different seasons to further understand the life history characteristics of the species. We expect that our work, together with other similar DNA barcoding efforts, will help describe and conserve biodiversity in this region.

### Materials and methods

**Ethics statement**

A permit to collect fish was given to A. Wibowo from the Research Institute of Inland Fisheries, Ministry of Marine and Fisheries Affairs. No experimentation was conducted on live specimens during this study, because the permit granted does not extend to experimentation on animals.

**Area study, sample collection and preservation**

Sampling campaigns were conducted at four sites (Alfasera, 7°24’23.9”S, 140°37’4.6”E; Ingun, 7°59’05.3”S, 140°27’53.3”E; Yukai, 8°2’26.3”S, 140°31’47.5”E; Sakor, 8°6’51.6”S, 140°29’58.9”E) and three times between March and October 2014 along the Kumbe River, West New Guinea (Papua). Three sites were located at peat swamp areas (Ingun, Sakor and Yukai), whereas one (Alfasera) was located on the River Kumbe (Fig. 1). Sampling and collection of representative samples of the adult fish community and fish larvae were performed using five sets of experimental gill nets (stretch mesh size 12.7, 25.4, 38.09, 50.8, 76.19 and 101.6 mm). All nets were 1.5 m deep and 15 m long comprising five randomly placed sections of different mesh size. Nets were placed in the water in the evening (1700 hours) and were collected in the morning (0700 hours).

All adult fish caught were identified to the species level or, alternatively, to the genus level when systematic knowledge was inadequate for reliable identification of the species following Allen (1991). An approximate 2-cm2 piece of fin clip tissue was taken from every dead individual using a scalpel and tissue samples were stored in 1.5 mL absolute ethanol. Live adult fish (n = 27) were killed by benzocaine overdose at the collection site to minimise animal suffering. Thereafter, fish were immediately preserved in 10% buffered formaldehyde for 7 days. Subsequently, fish were washed and transferred through an ethanol series (10, 50 and 70% ethanol) for preservation and future analyses. These specimens are stored at the Research Institute of Inland Fisheries, Palembang, South Sumatra, Indonesia.

Fish larvae at various developmental stages (from flexion to post-flexion larvae) were collected using two sets of 30-cm diameter modified bongo nets. The nets were maintained submerged at ~5 cm from the water surface. Samples were collected early in the morning (0600–0700 hours) and late in the afternoon (1700–1800 hours). Larvae were kept in water, sorted manually after collection and were subsequently stored individually in absolute ethanol.

**DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing**

Total genomic DNA was extracted from muscle tissue or whole larvae using a salt-extraction procedure as described by Aljanabi and Martinez (1997). A partial fragment (501 bp) of the mitochondrial COI was amplified using modified universal primers Fish-COI-F and COI-Fish-R, as described by Ivanova et al. (2007). The primer sequences were as follows: Fish-COI-F, 5’-TAA TAC GAC TCA CTA TAG GGT TCT CCA CCA ACC ACA ARG AYA TYGG-3’; COI-Fish-R, 5’-ATT AAC CCT CAC TAA AGG GCA CCT CAG GGT TTC GTA CGA ARA AYC ARAA-3’.
Amplification of the COI fragment was performed in a 12.5-µL reaction volume consisting of 4.0 µL of ultrapure water, 0.625 µL of each primer (1 mM), 6.25 µL of 2 x QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Master Mix and 1 µL of DNA template (~100 ng µL⁻¹). The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) cycling parameters included an initial DNA polymerase activation step of 15 min at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 90 s at 55°C and 30 s at 72°C, and ending with a final extension of 5 min at 72°C. The PCR products were visualised on a 1% agarose gel and purified using the A’SAP PCR Clean-up kit (ArcticZymes, Tromsø, Norway, see www.articzymes.com). A sequencing reaction was performed by the EZ-Seq service (Macrogen) using the reverse primer (COI-Fish-R). In total, 141 samples were successfully sequenced, consisting of 19 morphologically identified adult fish species and 122 fish larvae.

Data analysis
Chromatograms were checked manually and multisequence alignments were done using MUSCLE (Dereeper et al. 2004). Additional sequences were obtained from Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) searches of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GenBank database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/, accessed 12 June 2016) and were used to identify specimens when the resulting sequences were at minimum of 97% similar. This threshold has often been used for specimen identification in different taxonomic groups (e.g. Hebert et al. 2003). However, in some cases this may lead to clumping of closely related species, because coalescent depths among species will vary due to differences in population size, rate of mutation and time since speciation (Monaghan et al. 2009; Fujita et al. 2012). A neighbour-joining tree was constructed with the Kimura 2-parameter (K2P) model using MEGA ver. 5.0 software (Sudhir Kumar, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA, USA) (Tamura et al. 2011). Analysed specimens were considered to belong to a specific taxonomic group only if they formed a cluster with a maximum of 3% (K2P) sequence divergence (Hebert et al. 2003). Bootstrap analyses were based on 1000 replicates. The COI sequences of every specimen analysed were submitted to the NCBI database (for accession numbers, see Table S1, available as Supplementary material to this paper).

Results
Species identification using DNA barcoding
Initially, DNA was isolated from 347 specimens but amplification of the 501-bp target DNA fragment was successful only for 141 samples (amplification success rate 41.3%; Table 1; Fig. 2), despite testing various annealing temperatures. Such low amplification success most likely reflects the degradation of DNA, as revealed by gel electrophoresis of total DNA (data not shown). DNA degradation most likely occurred during sampling and collection of tissues or specimens. Altogether, 161 sequences of mitochondrial COI (501 bp) were included in the analysis, consisting of 19 known adult samples (11 species), 122 fish larvae (Table S1) and 20 known species from the NCBI GenBank database. The reference library dataset consisted of COI sequences from 31 species placed in 28 genera, 20 families and seven orders. The dataset included taxonomic groups (including Clupeoides) that are expected to occur at the sampling locations based on the available literature. Five of the reference species were represented by more than two individuals per species. Sequences from seven species (Parambassis gulliveri, Pingalla lorentzi, Nematalosa flyensis, Toxotes oligolepis, Strongylura

Fig. 1. Sampling locations (1–4) in the River Kumbe, Indonesia. 1, Alfaser; 2, Inggun; 3, Yaku; 4, Sakor.
krefsii, Ambassis agrammus, Porochilus meraukensis) that were included in the reference represented new additions to the global COI barcode database for freshwater fish at the time of analysis.

Fish larvae were initially sorted into 10 different morphotypes according to their basic morphological features, including size, shape and pigmentation. DNA barcoding enabled the species identification of five larval morphotypes (Melanotaenia splendida inornata, Iriatherina werneri, T. oligolepis, Glossamia aprion, P. lorentzi) (Fig. 3), whereas the other five clusters remained unidentified (Figs 2, 4). The maximum observed intraspecific divergence based on the K2P distance between individuals belonging to the same morphotype was 0.8% (G. aprion; Fig. 2), whereas no intraspecific variation was found within T. oligolepis and P. lorentzi (Table 2).

Undescribed biodiversity of fish

In contrast with several earlier DNA barcoding studies in fish larvae (Ko et al. 2013; Frantine-Silva et al. 2015), we were not able to determine the species identity for a large proportion of sequenced specimens. Specifically, fish larvae and juvenile specimens could not be assigned to species in 58.7% of cases (84 sequences) because of a lack of corresponding COI sequences in the reference dataset. Unidentified sequences clustered into five separate groups.

The maximum K2P divergence within the unidentified Morphotype 1 group was 0.2% (Table 2) and its nearest neighbour was Craterocephalus stercusmuscarum (GB-KF22798.1), which showed a minimum divergence of 3.2% (Table 1; Fig. 2). Only a single individual was identified as Morphotype 2 and the minimum K2P divergence to its nearest neighbour (Morphotype 1) was 25.1% (Table 2; Fig. 2). Morphotype 3, comprising eight larvae and juvenile sequences, exhibited maximum K2P divergence of 0.4% within the group (Table 2) and the closest reference sequence from Scleropages jardinii (KF481952.1) showed minimum K2P divergence of 30.6% (Table 1; Fig. 2). Only a single larvae comprised Morphotype 4, and the minimum

### Table 1. Spatial and temporal distribution of fish species identified at four sampling sites along the River Kumbe (Site 1 Alfasera, Site 2 Inggun, Site 3 Yakui and Site 4 Sakor)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species name (submitted GenBank ID)</th>
<th>Common name Family</th>
<th>Alfasera May</th>
<th>Alfasera March</th>
<th>Alfasera October</th>
<th>Inggun March</th>
<th>Inggun October</th>
<th>Sakor March</th>
<th>Sakor October</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Melanotaenia splendida inornata</em> (KX264305.1–KX264316.1)</td>
<td>Chequered rainbowfish Melanotaeniidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Melanotaenia goldie</em> (KX264303.1, KX264304.1)</td>
<td>Golden river rainbowfish Melanotaeniidae</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Iriatherina werneri</em> (KX264297.1–KX264302.1)</td>
<td>Threadfin rainbowfish Melanotaeniidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Nematolosa flyensis</em> (KX274199.1–KX274200.1)</td>
<td>Fly river herring Clupeidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Toxotes oligolepis</em> (KX274202.1–KX274215.1)</td>
<td>Western archerfish Toxotidae</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Glossamia aprion</em> (KX274218.1–KX274219.1)</td>
<td>Mouth almighty Apogonidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ambassis agrammus</em> (KX274217.1)</td>
<td>Fly river gizzard shad Ambassidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Neocaridus gressei</em> (KX274195.1, KX274196.1)</td>
<td>Blue catfish Arriidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Porochilus meraukensis</em> (KX274198.1)</td>
<td>Merauke pandan Plotosiidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Nessilurus ater</em> (KX274197.1, KX298468.1, KX298469.1)</td>
<td>Narrow-fronted tandan Plotosiidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Parambassis gulliveri</em> (KX274201.1)</td>
<td>Giant glassfish Ambassidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pinnangia lorentzi</em> (KX264317–KX264324)</td>
<td>Lorentz’s grunter Terapontidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Strongyliura kreffti</em> (KX274296.1)</td>
<td>Banded archerfish Freshwater longtom Belonidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gobidae</em> (KX264317–KX264324.1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Gobiidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Megalops cyprinoides</em> (KX 274228.1)</td>
<td>Indo-Pacific tarpon Megalopidae</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphotype_1 (KX 260233.1–KX 260245.1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Atherinidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphotype_2 (KX 274216.1)</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Atherinidae</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# References

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Fig. 2. Neighbour-joining tree of mitochondrial cytochrome-c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) sequences. Larval sequences are indicated by a three-letter abbreviation, the first letter corresponding to the life stage of the fish (L, larval stage) and the second and third letters indicating sampling location (Alfasera, Inggun, Yakui or Sakor) and time of collection (P, morning; S, afternoon) respectively. The branch length scale represents the Kimura 2-parameter (K2P) distance.

divergence to the closest reference sequence from P. lorentzi was 6.7% (Table 2; Fig. 2). The most abundant unidentified species among fish larvae and juveniles (Morphotype 5) was morphologically similar to gobies (family Gobiidae) and comprised 60 sequences. The maximum K2P divergence within Morphotype 5 was 0.2% (Table 2), whereas the minimum divergence to its putative nearest neighbour Gobiidae (adult sample originally collected from the Alfasera site) was 30.0% (Table 2).

Spatial and temporal patterns of species occurrence

Altogether, 10 fish species were found in the peat swamp habitat of the River Kumbe at the larval and juvenile stage, whereas the remaining species were caught from the river channel or peat swamp zone at older stages (Table 1). The largest number of fish species was detected in the upstream sampling site on the River Kumbe (Alfasera; n = 10), whereas only five species were observed in the lowermost peat swamp site in October (Sakor), despite the largest sequencing effort (Table 1). A few species, such as the Western archerfish (T. oligolepis) and Lorentz’s grunter (P. lorentzi) were observed in all sampling sites, whereas the chequered rainbowfish (M. splendida inornata) was detected in three of four locations. In contrast, 12 species were detected only in a single site (two to five species per site). Despite the small sample sizes, the occurrence of fish larvae also varied temporally for several species. For example, 11 larval specimens belonging to Morphotype 1 were detected in Site 2 (Inggun) in March, whereas in October, no individuals from Morphotype 1 were observed at the same site. Similarly, a high number of larvae (n = 58) belonging to Morphotype 5 was found at Site 4 (Sakor) in October, but only a single juvenile individual from the same species was detected at the same location in March (Table 1).

Discussion

The present study describes the distribution and taxonomic composition of larval and juvenile fish biodiversity in a tropical peat swamp environment of New Guinea Island, Indonesia. Ten putative species at larval and juvenile stages were found in the peat swamp habitat of the River Kumbe, whereas an additional 18 species were caught from the river channel or peat swamp habitat at older stages. In contrast with earlier DNA barcoding studies focusing on ichthyoplankton assemblages in tropical freshwater habitats (Frantine-Silva et al. 2015), we were able to identify only a small proportion (41.3%) of sequenced samples to species level. In addition, of the 31 species identified, seven were DNA barcoded for the first time. This indicates that relatively little biodiversity research has been performed on tropical peat swamp ichthyofauna (Prentice and Parish 1990; Dennis and Aldous 2004; Yule 2010), despite tropical peatland waters being known to support high fish diversity. Similarly, the present study also demonstrates the taxonomic incompleteness of the DNA barcode reference libraries for freshwater fish of New Guinea and suggests that molecular identification of fish in the tropical peat swamp habitat of New Guinea is still at the early stages of development.

To date, 1218 teleost species belonging to 84 families have been reported from Indonesian freshwaters, including 1172 native species from 79 families, of which 630 species are endemic to the country (Hubert et al. 2015b). A total of 200–300 fish species has been recorded from the peat swamp habitats.
of Peninsular Malaysia, Borneo and Sumatra (Dennis and Aldhous 2004; Parish et al. 2008), with 20% of Malaysian freshwater fish occurring in peatlands (Ahmad et al. 2002). However, the biodiversity knowledge of the Indonesian ichthyofauna is still incomplete and scattered in the scientific literature (Hubert et al. 2015b). Although DNA barcoding provides a potential solution to identifying specimens during inventories of species (Butcher et al. 2012; Riedel et al. 2013), speeding up the taxonomic workflow (Smith et al. 2008; Collins and Cruickshank 2013), progress in documenting the biodiversity of Indonesian freshwater fish fauna has been relatively slow (Hubert et al. 2015b). Conversely, it is highly likely that ongoing large-scale DNA barcoding efforts will have a significant effect on the taxonomic knowledge of Indonesian ichthyofauna (Hubert et al. 2015b). For example, recent DNA barcoding of the genus Melanotaenia indicates that the diversity of rainbowfish in Papua is largely underestimated (Kadarusman et al. 2012).

Fig. 3. Early life stages of known fish species from peat swamps of the River Kumbe.

Fig. 4. Early life stages of unidentified larval morphotypes from peat swamps of the River Kumbe.
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Table 2. Inter- and intraspecific divergence based on Kimura 2-parameter (K2P) distance using mitochondrial cytochrome-c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) sequences for adults and larvae in the River Kumbe, New Guinea Island, Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of individuals</th>
<th>Species or morphotype</th>
<th>Maximum intraspecific divergence (%)</th>
<th>Nearest neighbour</th>
<th>K2P distance to nearest neighbour intraspecific divergence (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td><em>Melanotaenia splendida inornata</em></td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td><em>Melanotaenia goldie</em></td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><em>Melanotaenia goldie</em></td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td><em>Melanotaenia splendida inornata</em></td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td><em>Iriatherina werneri</em></td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td><em>Craterocephalus stercusmuscarum</em></td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><em>Nematalosa flyensis</em></td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td><em>Nematalosa erebi</em></td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td><em>Toxotes oligolepis</em></td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td><em>Anabas testudineus</em></td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><em>Glossamia aprion</em></td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td><em>Ambassis agrammus</em></td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><em>Neoarius graeffei</em></td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td><em>Arius arius</em></td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><em>Neosilurus ater</em></td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td><em>Porochilus merankensis</em></td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><em>Strongylura krefti</em></td>
<td>–</td>
<td><em>Channa striata</em></td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td><em>Pingalla lorentzi</em></td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td><em>Morphotype 4</em></td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Morphotype 1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td><em>Craterocephalus stercusmuscarum</em></td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Morphotype 2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Morphotype 1</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Morphotype 3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td><em>Scleropages jardini</em></td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Morphotype 4</td>
<td>–</td>
<td><em>Pingalla lorentzi</em></td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Morphotype 5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td><em>Gobiidae</em></td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the present study, the unidentified specimens clustered into five separate groups. The nearest neighbour of Morphotype 1 appeared to be *C. stercusmuscarum*, showing 3.2% divergence. This suggests that Morphotype 1 is related to the genus *Craterocephalus*. Five species in the genus *Craterocephalus* have been formally described from the island of New Guinea (*Allen 1991*). Hence, the sequenced individuals most likely belong to one of the *Craterocephalus* species. The level of sequence divergence (6.7%) placed a single larval sample of Morphotype 4 close to the family Terapontidae. The degree of sequence divergence suggests that the other three unidentified larval morphotypes (Morphotype 2, 3 and 5) are too distant genetically for reliable identification, because the closest K2P distances between the unidentified morphotypes and a reference sequence ranged from 25.1 to 30.6%. Hopefully additional sampling of adult fish will solve these taxonomic questions. Similar to earlier studies (*Pegg et al. 2006; Valdez-Moreno et al. 2010; Ko et al. 2013; Loh et al. 2014; Frantine-Silva et al. 2015; Hubert et al. 2015*), the present analysis confirms that DNA barcoding is an effective and reliable tool for species identification from fish larvae and juveniles as long as a comprehensive reference library for the area is available.

Identified larvae and juveniles consisted primarily of Perciformes and Antheriniformes. The same taxonomic groups were found to be dominant according to *Allen (1991)* in the Papuan region. However, despite the small number of sequenced individuals, the present study also provides new insights into the distribution, ecology and reproduction of fish in the peat swamp habitat of the River Kumbe. For example, *T. oligolepis* was detected at all sampling sites (including the river channel at Alfasera), but currently very little is known about the biology and ecology of this species. Other archerfish, such as *T. chatareus* and *T. jaculatrix*, are euryhaline and primarily inhabit brackish mangroves of the South Pacific and Indian oceans, and their life cycle involves long migration routes, although they can also be found in more saline coastal waters and upstream in fresh water (*Allen 1991; Allen et al. 2002*). The occurrence of larvae and juveniles of *T. oligolepis* in a peat swamp habitat indicates that this environment may serve as an important breeding habitat for the species. Similarly, we detected fish larvae and juveniles from other fish species, namely *P. lorentzi*, *M. splendida inornata* and *I. werneri*, in multiple locations, suggesting that the peat swamp habitat is important during the early life stages.

In summary, the present study represents an important step towards the establishment of a comprehensive DNA barcode reference library for teleost fish living in tropical peat swamp environments in New Guinea. Generation of a COI barcode library from the River Kumbe also contributes to the global DNA barcoding effort in fish and provides new knowledge on larval dispersal and recruitment patterns in tropical peat swamp ecosystems. Finally, this study demonstrates that the molecular identification of freshwater fish of New Guinea Island is still at the early stages of development. We anticipate that the accumulation of DNA barcoding data will help in the conservation of biodiversity in this region.

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Fish larvae in tropical peat swamps of New Guinea

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