

A phylogeny of the land snails (Gastropoda: Pulmonata)

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We have undertaken the first large-scale molecular phylogenetic analysis of the Stylommatophora. Sequences of the ribosomal RNA gene-cluster were examined in 104 species of snails and slugs from 50 families, encompassing all the currently recognized major groups. It allows an independent test of the present classification based on morphology. At the level of families our molecular phylogeny closely supports the current taxonomy, but the deep branches within the tree do not. Surprisingly, a single assemblage including the families Achatinidae, Subulinidae and Streptaxidae lies near the base of the tree, forming a sister group to all remaining stylommatophorans. This primary division into 'achatinoid' and 'non-achatinoid' taxa is unexpected, and demands a radical reinterpretation of early stylommatophoran evolution. In particular, the Orthurethra appear to be relatively advanced within the 'non-achatinoid clade', and broadly equivalent to other super-familial clusters. This indicates that supposedly primitive features such as the orthurethran kidney are derived. The molecular tree also suggests that the origin of the Stylommatophora is much earlier than the main period of their diversification.

Keywords: Stylommatophora; ribosomal RNA genes; molecular phylogeny; Orthurethra; Helicoidea; Achatinoidea

1. INTRODUCTION

Land snails and slugs represent one of the largest invasions of the land, comprising some 30 000–35 000 species (Solem 1984). They have become models for studies on the mechanisms of evolution, and have proved particularly valuable in examining the effects of ecology on evolutionary change (Crampton 1932; Cain & Sheppard 1950; Cain & Currey 1963; Cowie 1992; Johnson *et al.* 1993). Their low vagility also makes them suitable as indicators for biogeographical studies of early tectonic events (Solem 1981). Nonetheless, their evolutionary interrelationships remain largely unresolved.

Four-fifths of land snails belong to the pulmonate (sub)order Stylommatophora. The basis of their present classification was established by Pilsbry (1900*a*) who defined three primary divisions (infraorders), the Orthurethra, Heterurethra and Sigmurethra, based on the anatomy of the excretory system. A fourth division, the Mesurethra, was added by Baker (1955). Of these, only the Orthurethra, the members of which are united by a synapomorphy, have remained universally recognized. Morphological studies have given conflicting results (Tillier 1989; Nordsieck 1986; Shileyko 1979), having been hampered by a long evolutionary history, by relatively rapid radiations, and by convergences.

When morphological features fail to give clear information about relationships, molecular techniques have proved invaluable. There have been some molecular studies of gastropod phylogeny (Emberton *et al.* 1990; Rosenberg *et al.* 1994; Tillier *et al.* 1996; Thollessen 1999) but they have used relatively short sequences and few

(< 15) stylommatophoran taxa. Here we present the first comprehensive molecular phylogeny for the Stylommatophora, incorporating over 100 species across a wide range of families, and based on an analysis of 1460 nucleotides of the ribosomal (r) RNA gene-cluster. For the first time, this permits an independent test of the current taxonomy.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

(a) *Biological material*

One hundred and four species of 94 genera in 50 stylommatophoran families have been examined. Six non-stylommatophoran pulmonate genera, from the orders Eupulmonata, Basommatophora and Systellommatophora, were incorporated as outgroups. Details of the specimens, the sampling localities, and the collectors are given in table 1.

(b) *Extraction, amplification and sequencing of DNA*

Methods for the extraction of DNA, its amplification by the polymerase chain reaction, and the automated sequencing of approximately 1460 nucleotides from the rRNA gene-cluster, have been described in Wade & Mordan (2000). The sequenced region includes about 80 nucleotides at the 3'-end of the 5.8S gene, the complete internal transcribed spacer 2 (ITS-2) region, and approximately 840 nucleotides at the 5'-end of the large subunit (28S) gene.

(c) *Sequence analysis*

Sequences were assembled using the STADEN package (Staden 1993) and then aligned manually within v. 2.2 of the Genetic Data Environment package (Smith *et al.* 1994). Phylogenetic analyses were performed using PAUP* (v. 4.0d65) (Swofford 1998) and were based on 843 unambiguously aligned nucleotide sites. Evolutionary trees of all 110 taxa were constructed using the neighbour-joining (NJ) (Saitou & Nei 1987) and Fitch–Margoliash (FM) (Fitch & Margoliash 1967)

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Table 1. *Samples, collectors and localities*

(The classification broadly follows Vaught (1989).)

family	species	collection or location	collector
stylommatophoran pulmonates (phylum Mollusca: class Gastropoda: subclass Pulmonata: order Eupulmonata: suborder Stylommatophora)			
infraorder Orthurethra			
Cochlicopidae	<i>Cochlicopa lubrica</i> (Müller, 1774)	Box Hill, Dorking, UK	P. Mordan and E. Platts
Amastridae	<i>Cochlicopa lubricella</i> (Porro, 1838)	San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
	<i>Leptachatina lepida</i> Cooke, 1910	Hawaii Island, Hawaii	P. Mordan and R. Cowie
Pupillidae	<i>Lauria cylindracea</i> (da Costa, 1778)	Mullaghmore, Co. Sligo, Ireland	E. Platts
Valloniidae	<i>Lauria fasciolata</i> (Morelet, 1860)	San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
	<i>Vallonia costata</i> (Müller, 1774)	San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
Vertiginidae	<i>Vallonia eccentrica</i> Sterki, 1892	San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
	<i>Vertigo antivergo</i> (Draparnaud, 1801)	Chuetz, Arnoldstein, Austria	P. Miltner
Orculidae	<i>Orcula austriaca</i> Zimmerman, 1932	Kuhberg, Austria	P. Miltner
Pyramidulidae	<i>Pyramidula rupestris</i> (Draparnaud, 1801)	Mullaghmore, Co. Sligo, Ireland	E. Platts
Chondrinidae	<i>Chondrina avenacea</i> (Bruguiere, 1792)	Verdon Gorge, France	H. Selvadaruai
	<i>Chondrina clienta</i> (Westerlund, 1883)	Villach, Austria	P. Miltner
Buliminidae	<i>Solatopupa similis</i> (Bruguiere, 1792)	Verdon Gorge, France	A. Davison
	<i>Buliminus labrosus</i> (Olivier, 1804)	Saladin's Castle, Syria	P. Mordan
Cerastidae	<i>Pene sidonensis</i> (Férussac, 1821)	Saladin's Castle, Syria	P. Mordan
	<i>Macaronapaeus vulgaris</i> (Morelet & Drouet, 1857)	San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
Cerastidae	<i>Mastus pupa</i> (Bruguiere, 1792)	Sicily	A. Davison
	<i>Cerastus schweinfurthii</i> (Martens, 1895)	Al-Mahuit, N. Yemen	P. Mordan
Partulidae	<i>Pachnodus silhouettanus</i> Van Mol & Coppo, 1980	Silhouette Island, Seychelles	J. Gerlach
	<i>Partula suturalis</i> Pfeiffer, 1855	Moorea	B. Clarke
Partulidae	<i>Samoana conica</i> (Gould, 1848)	Samoa	R. Cowie
	<i>Eua zebrina</i> (Gould, 1848)	Samoa	R. Cowie
infraorder Mesurethra			
Clausiliidae	<i>Cochlodina laminata</i> (Montagu, 1803)	South Downs, East Sussex, UK	B. Clarke
	<i>Albinaria xantostoma</i> (Boettger, 1883)	Crete	D. Thomaz
	<i>Papillifera papillaris</i> (Müller, 1774)	Sicily	A. Davison
	<i>Clausilia bidentata</i> (Ström, 1765)	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Macrogastera rolphii</i> (Turton, 1826)	South Downs, East Sussex, UK	B. Clarke
	<i>Stereophaedusa japonica</i> (Crosse, 1871)	Yamaguchi City, Japan	P. Callomon
	<i>Mundiphaedusa decapitata</i> (Pilsbry, 1902)	Osaka City, Japan	P. Callomon
infraorder Elasmognatha			
Succineidae	<i>Succinea putris</i> (L., 1758)	Southampton, UK	C. MacDonald
Athoracophoridae	<i>Athoracophorus bitentaculatus</i> (Quoy & Gaimard, 1832)	Mere Mere, New Zealand	G. Barker
infraorder Sigmurethra			
Bulimulidae	<i>Placostylus ambagiosus</i> Suter, 1906	Manaaki Whenua, New Zealand	D. Gleeson
Cerionidae	<i>Cerion incanum</i> (Binney, 1851)	Florida Keys, USA	J. Taylor
Subulinidae	<i>Subulina striatella</i> (Rang, 1831)	Kew Gardens, UK (introduced)	F. Naggs
	<i>Bocageia</i> sp.	Sao Thomé	A. Gascoigne
Subulinidae	<i>Glessula ceylanica</i> (Pfeiffer, 1845)	Colombo, Sri Lanka	P. Karunaratne
	<i>Rumina decollata</i> (L., 1758)	Sicily	A. Davison
Subulinidae	<i>Xerocerastus</i> sp.	Otjiwarongo, Namibia	W. Sirgel
	<i>Zootecus insularis</i> (Ehrenberg, 1831)	Dubai, United Arab Emirates	S. Green
Achatinidae	<i>Achatina fulica</i> Bowdich, 1822	unknown (Zool. Soc. Lond. colln)	P. Pearce-Kelly
	<i>Archachatina marginata</i> (Swainson, 1821)	Nigeria (NHM collection)	unknown
Coeliacidae	<i>Limicolaria</i> sp.	Somalia (NHM collection)	M. Leng
	<i>Pyrgina umbilicata</i> Greeff, 1882	Sao Thomé	A. Gascoigne
Spiraxidae	<i>Euglandina rosea</i> (Férussac, 1821)	Moorea (Zool. Soc. Lond. colln)	P. Pearce-Kelly
Testacellidae	<i>Testacella scutulum</i> Sowerby, 1821	North London, UK	R. Hurst
Streptaxidae	<i>Gonaxis quadrilateralis</i> Preston, 1910	Reunion	O. Griffiths
	<i>Gonospira</i> sp.	Mauritius	O. Griffiths
Megalobulimidae	<i>Megalobulimus oblongus</i> (Müller, 1774)	Antigua (Zool. Soc. Lond. colln)	P. Pearce-Kelly
Dorcasiidae	<i>Dorcasia alexandri</i> Gray, 1938	Windhoek, Namibia	C. Boix-Hinzen
	<i>Trigonephrus globulus</i> (Müller, 1774)	Natal, South Africa	W. F. Sirgel
Acavidae	<i>Acacus phoenix</i> (Pfeiffer, 1854)	Kitugula, Sri Lanka	P. Karunaratne
	<i>Leucoaenus proctori</i> (Sowerby, 1894)	Beheloa, Madagascar	O. Griffiths

(Cont.)

Table 1. (Cont.)

family	species	collection or location	collector
Caryodidae	<i>Caryodes dufresnii</i> Leach, 1815	Mt Wellington, Hobart, Tasmania	B. Smith
Rhytididae	<i>Rhytida stephenensis</i> Powell, 1930	Manaaki Whenua, New Zealand	D. Gleeson
	<i>Schizoglossa</i> sp.	Kaikarangi, New Zealand	G. Barker
Chlamydephoridae	<i>Chlamydephorus burnupi</i> (Smith, 1892)	Pevensey, Natal	D. Herbert
Haplotrematidae	<i>Haplotrema vancouverense</i> (Lea, 1839)	Eugene, Oregon	D. Taylor
Corillidae	<i>Corilla adamsi</i> Gude, 1914	Sri Lanka	D. Raheem
Punctidae	<i>Laoma</i> sp.	Mannacau Harbour, New Zealand	P. Mordan
Charopidae	<i>Sutera ide</i> (Gray, 1850)	Waitomo, New Zealand	P. Mordan
Otoconchidae	<i>Otoconcha dimidiata</i> (Pfeiffer, 1853)	Waitakere New Zealand	P. Mordan
Discidae	<i>Discus rotundatus</i> (Müller, 1774)	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
Euconulidae	<i>Euconulus fulvus</i> (Müller, 1774)	New Forest, Hampshire, UK	P. Mordan
Helicarionidae	<i>Fastosarion brazieri</i> (Cox, 1873)	Mossman, Queensland, Australia	J. Stanisic
	<i>Rhyotina heptazion</i> (Gould, 1848)	Sao Thomé	A. Gasgoine
	<i>Harmogenanina argentea</i> (Reeve, 1852)	Reunion	O. Griffiths
	<i>Louisia barclayi</i> (Benson, 1850)	Mauritius	O. Griffiths
	<i>Plegma caelatura</i> (Férussac, 1821)	Reunion	O. Griffiths
	<i>Hiona</i> sp.	Moorea	P. Pearce-Kelly
Ariophantidae	<i>Cryptozona bistrialis</i> (Beck, 1837)	Sri Lanka	D. Raheem
	<i>Asperitas inquinata</i> (v.d. Busch, 1842)	Java	J. Reynolds
Trochomorphidae	<i>Trochomorpha pallens</i> Pease, 1870	Faatoai Valley, Moorea	unknown
Vitrinidae	<i>Vitrina pellucida</i> (Müller, 1774)	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Plutonia laxata</i> (Morelet, 1860)	San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
Vitreidae	<i>Vitrea crystallina</i> (Müller, 1774)	New Forest, Hampshire, UK	P. Mordan
Zonitidae	<i>Oxychilus alliarius</i> (Müller, 1822)	Deepdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Oxychilus helveticus</i> (Blum, 1881)	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Oxychilus cellarius</i> (Müller, 1774)	Co. Kerry, Ireland	unknown
Milacidae	<i>Milax budapestensis</i> (Hazay, 1881)	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
Limacidae	<i>Deroceras reticulatum</i> (Müller, 1774)	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
Polygyridae	<i>Vespericola columbiana</i> (Lea, 1838)	Eugene, Oregon, USA	D. Taylor
Camaenidae	<i>Polydotes undulata</i> (Férussac, 1821)	Dominican Republic	G. Seal
	<i>Satsuma japonica</i> (Pfeiffer, 1847)	Osaka City, Japan	P. Callomon
	<i>Craterodiscus pricei</i> McMichael, 1959	Ravenshoe, NE Qld, Australia	J. Stanisic
Hygromiidae	<i>Trichia striolata</i> (Pfeiffer, 1828)	Deepdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Trichia hispida</i> (L., 1758)	Deepdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
Helicellidae	<i>Cochlicella acuta</i> (Müller, 1774)	Porthcurnick, Cornwall, UK	E. Bailes
	<i>Cernuella virgata</i> (Da Costa, 1778)	Porthcurnick, Cornwall, UK	E. Bailes
Helicidae	<i>Cantareus aspersa</i> (Müller, 1774) (= <i>Helix aspersa</i>)	Kettering, Northants, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Cantareus apertus</i> (Born, 1778)	Sicily	A. Davison
	<i>Cepaea nemoralis</i> (L., 1758)	Marlborough Downs, Wiltshire, UK	A. Davison
	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i> (Müller, 1774)	Marlborough Downs, Wiltshire, UK	A. Davison
	<i>Marmorana scabriuscula</i> (Deshayes, 1830)	Sicily	A. Davison
	<i>Theba pisana</i> (Müller, 1774)	Sicily	A. Davison
	<i>Arianta arbustorum</i> (L., 1758)	Deepdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Helicigona lapicida</i> (L., 1758)	Deepdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
Bradybaenidae	<i>Bradybaena similaris</i> (Férussac, 1821)	Sri Lanka	P. Karunaratne
	<i>Aegista vulgivaga</i> (Schumacher & Boettger, 1890)	Osaka City, Japan	P. Callomon
	<i>Euhadra amaliae</i> (Kobelt, 1875)	Osaka City, Japan	P. Callomon
	<i>Euhadra sandai</i> Pilsbry, 1928	Osaka City, Japan	P. Callomon
Helminthoglyptidae	<i>Monadenia fidelis</i> (Gray, 1834)	Oregon	D. Taylor
Arionidae	<i>Arion hortensis</i> Férussac, 1819	Kirkdale, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Arion ater</i> (L., 1758)	Kirk Ireton, Derbyshire, UK	C. Wade
	<i>Geomalacus maculosus</i> Allman, 1843	unknown	P. Wisniewsky
non-stylommatophoran pulmonates (phylum Mollusca: class Gastropoda: subclass Pulmonata)			
order Eupulmonata			
Ellobiidae	<i>Melampus luteus</i> (Quoy & Gaimard, 1832)	Souilla, Mauritius	O. Griffiths
	<i>Laemodonta</i> sp.	Suralaya, W. Java	B. Dharma
Carychiidae	<i>Carychium tridentatum</i> (Risso, 1826)	Abelheira, San Miguel, Azores	P. Mordan
order Basommatophora			
Siphonariidae	<i>Siphonaria pectinata</i> (L., 1758)	Zamara Los Atunes, Spain	S. Hawkins
order Systellommatophora			
Veronicellidae	<i>Laevicaulis alte</i> (Férussac, 1823)	Dubai, United Arab Emirates	A. Green
Rathouisiidae	<i>Atopos australis</i> (Heynemann, 1876)	Malanda, Queensland, Australia	J. Stanisic

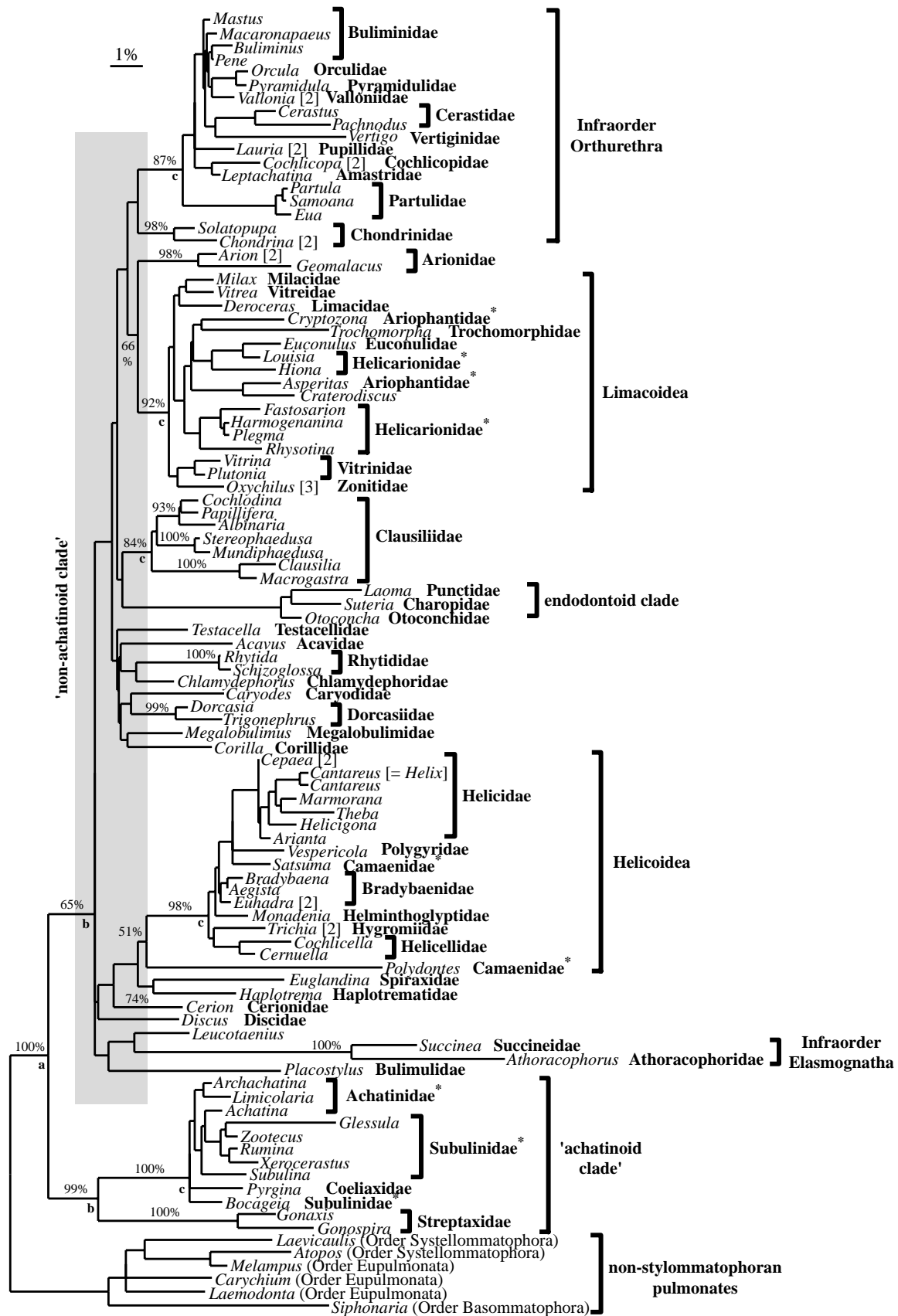


Figure 1. NJ phylogenetic tree for the stylommatophoran pulmonates. The phylogeny is based on 843 nucleotide sites, and genetic distances are estimated using a GTR model incorporating variation in rates between sites (pinvar = 0.290, $\alpha = 0.367$). Bootstrap values indicate the percentage support for individual branches based on 1000 replicates (only bootstrap values over 50% are shown). The scale bar corresponds to one substitutional change per 100 nucleotide positions. The phylogeny is rooted on the non-stylommatophoran pulmonate taxa. (a–c) indicate the major periods of diversification; see § 4(d). The asterisks indicate families that do not appear to be monophyletic in the tree. Numbers in brackets after the genus name indicate the number of species sequenced in that genus.

distance methods and maximum parsimony (MP) (Fitch 1971). In addition, maximum-likelihood (ML) (Felsenstein 1981) trees were constructed based on a smaller set of 22 taxa spread widely across the NJ tree. For the NJ, FM and ML methods, we corrected for multiple hits using the general time-reversible (GTR) model. The rate matrix, base frequencies, proportion of invariant sites (pinvar) and gamma shape parameter (α) of the gamma distribution (based on 16 rate categories) were estimated using likelihood by iteration from an initial NJ tree. Parameters estimated from the initial tree were used to make a new NJ tree. The parameters were then re-estimated, and the process repeated until there was no further improvement in likelihood. Tree searching for FM, ML and MP methods used a heuristic procedure with tree-bisection-reconnection branch swapping. Bootstrap resampling (Felsenstein 1985) assigned support to particular branches within the tree. Alternative phylogenetic hypotheses were tested using the Kishino-Hasegawa likelihood-ratio test (Kishino & Hasegawa 1989) in PAUP. Alternative trees were generated under particular topological constraints, allowing the optimization of a tree by rearrangement of the unconstrained taxa. The likelihood of the optimal tree generated under a specific constraint was then compared with that of the actual (i.e. best unconstrained) tree. Principal coordinates analysis was performed using the PCOORD program (Higgins 1992).

(d) Nucleotide sequence accession numbers

Nucleotide sequences in this study have been given the GenBank accession numbers AY014018–AY014163.

3. RESULTS

(a) Variation in rDNA sequences

The sequenced region includes a combination of conserved, variable and highly variable sections (see Wade & Mordan 2000). The ITS-2 region showed extremely high variability between taxa and most of its sites could not be aligned across all the taxa. These sites were excluded from the phylogenetic analyses. There were 843 nucleotide sites that could be aligned, and phylogenetic comparisons were based on this subset.

DNA base frequencies were highly consistent, ranging from 59 to 63% GC. ML estimates of the pinvar and the α were 0.290 and 0.367, respectively. Thus about 30% of sites seemed to be invariant. The remainder followed a gamma distribution in which the majority seemed to be evolving slowly, but a few were more variable. Genetic distances between taxa ranged from 0 to 24.5% when the non-stylommatophoran pulmonate taxa were included, and from 0 to 22.1% within the Stylommatophora. Genetic distances between taxa ranged from 0 to 10.2% between genera within a family, and from 0 to 1.8% between species within a genus.

(b) Evolutionary relationships among the stylommatophoran pulmonates

An NJ phylogeny of all 94 stylommatophoran genera is given in figure 1. The tree is rooted on the non-stylommatophoran pulmonate taxa *Melampus*, *Laemodonta*, *Carychium*, *Siphonaria*, *Laevicaulis* and *Atopos* (in the orders Eupulmonata, Basommatophora and Systelommatophora, according to the taxonomy of Haszprunar & Huber (1990)). These taxa cluster outside

the Stylommatophora in other molecular analyses (Wade & Mordan 2000).

(c) Phylogenetic relationships above the family level

The molecular phylogeny clearly supports the monophyly of the Stylommatophora (figure 1). The clade is consistently resolved by all the methods of constructing trees, and supported in 100% of bootstrap replicates. At the base of the Stylommatophora there is a single dichotomy giving rise to two major clades. The first includes the families Achatinidae, Subulinidae (including the Coeliacidae) and Streptaxidae, and is strongly supported in 99% of replicates. It will henceforth be called the 'achatinoïd' clade. The remaining Stylommatophora, including representatives of all four infraorders, appear in a second clade. This 'non-achatinoïd' grouping is more weakly supported (65%). Nonetheless, it is consistently resolved in all the trees (NJ, FM and MP based on 110 taxa, and ML based on 22 taxa). Moreover, the primary division of the Stylommatophora into 'achatinoïd' and 'non-achatinoïd' groups is reinforced by a principal-coordinates analysis of distances, in which the 'achatinoïd'–'non-achatinoïd' split forms the major distinction, encompassing 25% of the total variation (figure 2).

The 'achatinoïd clade' (figure 1) shows two distinct lineages, one including the Streptaxidae, and the other the Achatinidae and Subulinidae (incorporating the coeliacidae *Pyrgina*). Both lineages are supported in 100% of bootstraps. The branching at the base of the 'non-achatinoïd clade' is not resolved, having little evident structure (figure 1, shaded area). Nevertheless, several well-supported clades correspond to currently accepted familial or superfamilial groups. Two of Pilsbry's (1900a) primary stylommatophoran divisions, the Orthurethra and Heterurethra (or more inclusively the Elasmognatha), are retained, and appear to be monophyletic.

The Heterurethra, when first described, included only the Succineidae, but they are now normally regarded as also embracing the Athoracophoridae. These two families (together termed the Elasmognatha) form a monophyletic group which is supported in 100% of bootstraps and resolved by all methods of constructing trees. While the monophyly of the Elasmognatha is convincing, their phylogenetic placement is less certain, as both taxa exhibit long branches. Long-branch taxa tend erroneously to fall at the base of trees (Felsenstein 1978; Philippe & Laurent 1998).

The Orthurethra (figures 1 and 3a), represented by 18 genera from 11 families, consistently form a monophyletic group. However, when the Chondrinidae are included the clade is only weakly supported (30% of bootstrap replicates). When they are excluded, the branch to the remaining orthurethrans is supported in 87% of bootstraps. Thus the more restricted group (including the families Partulidae, Amastridae, Cerastidae, Buliminidae, Vertiginidae, Orculidae, Pyramidulidae, Cochlicopidae and Valloniidae) appears to be monophyletic.

The Limacoidea *sensu lato* (Hausdorf 1998), represented by 17 genera from the families Milacidae, Vitreidae, Limacidae, Ariophantidae, Trochomorphidae, Euconulidae, Helicarionidae, Vitrinidae and Zonitidae, form a distinct monophyletic group, supported in 92% of bootstraps (figures 1 and 3b). Interestingly, they associate

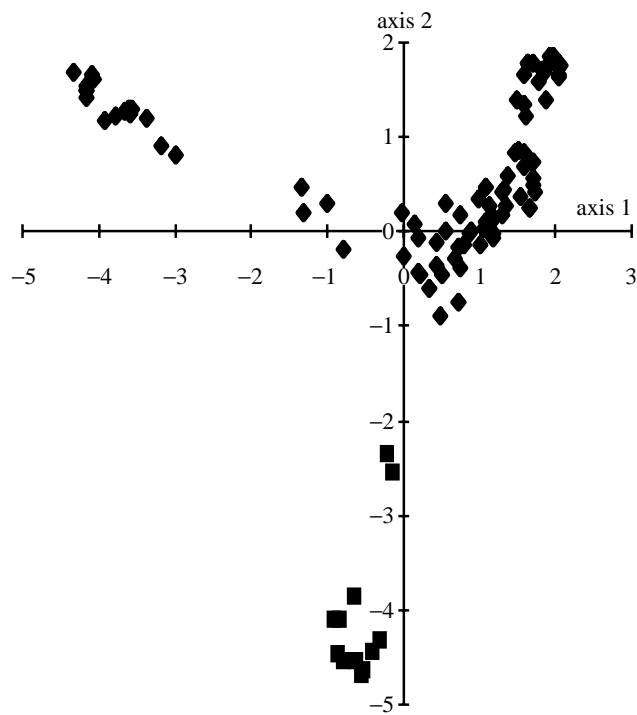


Figure 2. Principle coordinate analysis using PCOORD (Higgins 1992). Symbols: solid diamonds, 'non-achatinoïd' taxa; solid squares, 'achatinoïd' taxa. Only the first and second axes, explaining 14 and 11%, respectively, of the variation, are shown. The next two axes explain 7 and 5% of the variation. The remaining axes each explain less than 5%. The 'non-achatinoïd' and 'achatinoïd' taxa are separated along axis 2. Additionally, the helicoid taxa are separated from other 'non-achatinoïd' taxa along axis 1.

with the Arionidae (figure 1), a relationship supported in 66% of bootstrap replicates, and by all tree methods. The Helicoidea (figures 1 and 3c), represented by 17 genera from the families Helicidae, Polygyridae, Bradybaenidae, Helminthoglyptidae, Hygromiidae, Helicellidae and Camaenidae, are also monophyletic, although the New World camaenid *Polydontes* is weakly related to the others. The main helicoid clade excluding *Polydontes* is supported in 98% of bootstrap replicates; with *Polydontes* the support falls to 51%.

The families Punctidae, Charopidae and Otoconchidae, each represented by a single taxon, form an 'endodontoid' clade which has 100% bootstrap support. A fourth supposedly endodontoid family, the Discidae, is excluded (figure 1). Several other poorly supported clusters of families occur in the tree. Perhaps the most interesting is a 'southern' group comprising the 'acavoid' (*sensu* Zilch 1959–1960) families Acavidae, Caryodidae, Dorcasidae and Megalobulimidae, as well as the Rhytididae, Chlamydephoridae and Corillidae. A second 'southern' grouping unites the elasmognaths with *Placostylus* (Bulimulidae) and *Leucotaenius*, transferred from the Achatinidae to the Acavidae by Mead (1985).

(d) Family-level groupings

Fifty of the currently recognized stylommatophoran families are represented in the tree. When they include more than one taxon, the monophyly of the family is

usually supported, as in the cases of the Cerastidae (96% of bootstrap replicates), Partulidae (100%), Chondrinidae (98%), Arionidae (98%), Clausiliidae (84%), Rhytididae (100%), Dorcasidae (99%), Helicidae (93%), Helicellidae (96%) and Streptaxidae (100%) (figures 1 and 3). Some groups, such as the Buliminidae (Orthurethra, figure 3a), the subulinid–achatinoïd complex (achatinoïd clade, figure 1), and the bradybaenid–polygyrid complex (helicoid clade, figure 3c), show no clear evidence for or against monophyly.

In two families, the Ariophantidae and the Helicariionidae (figure 3b), there is good support for diphyletic or polyphyletic origins. In Kishino–Hasegawa tests, for the ariophantids, the best tree is one that indicates a polyphyletic origin ($-\ln L$ 9291.77550) and it is significantly better than any tree that assumes a monophyletic origin ($-\ln L$ 9320.95260, s.d. = 11.68919, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, for the Helicariionids, the best tree indicates polyphyly ($-\ln L$ 9291.77550) and is significantly better than any tree assuming monophyly ($-\ln L$ 9332.04913, s.d. = 12.53077, $p < 0.01$). It is surprising that the helicariionid *Louisia* strongly clusters with the Euconulidae (figure 3b). There is evidence that the Camaenidae, represented by *Polydontes* and *Satsuma* may be diphyletic. Although phylogenies constructed under the constraint that the camaenids are monophyletic are poorer than the optimal tree, in which they are diphyletic, the difference is not significant. *Polydontes* has a relatively long branch, which may lead to problems in its placement.

4. DISCUSSION

This study represents the most comprehensive molecular analysis of land snail phylogeny, dealing with almost 100 genera of snails and slugs. We have already demonstrated the monophyletic nature of the Stylommatophora (Wade & Mordan 2000), confirming the findings of Emberton *et al.* (1990) and Tillier *et al.* (1996). The evidence for their monophyly is even more convincing in the present analysis.

(a) Evolutionary relationships at the level of the family

One striking aspect of the phylogeny is its agreement at the family level with the currently accepted taxonomy. The families Cerastidae, Partulidae, Chondrinidae, Arionidae, Vitrinidae, Clausiliidae, Rhytididae, Dorcasidae, Helicidae, Bradybaenidae, Helicellidae and Streptaxidae, each represented by two or more genera, form well-defined monophyletic groups with good bootstrap support. Several major superfamilies, such as the Limacoidea, Achatinoidea and Helicoidea, are also shown to be monophyletic.

The molecular tree resolves several areas of contention. The endodontoid families fall into two distinct groups: the Pacific Charopidae, Punctidae and Otoconchidae, and the strictly Holarctic Discidae. The sister-group relationship between the Achatinidae and the Subulinidae is supported, endorsing Fischer's (1887) original unification. The enigmatic Australian snail *Craterodiscus* (previously thought to be either a corillid (Tillier 1989) or a camaenid (Smith 1992)) is clearly placed as a sister group of the ariophantid *Asperitas* in the Limacoidea. Finally,

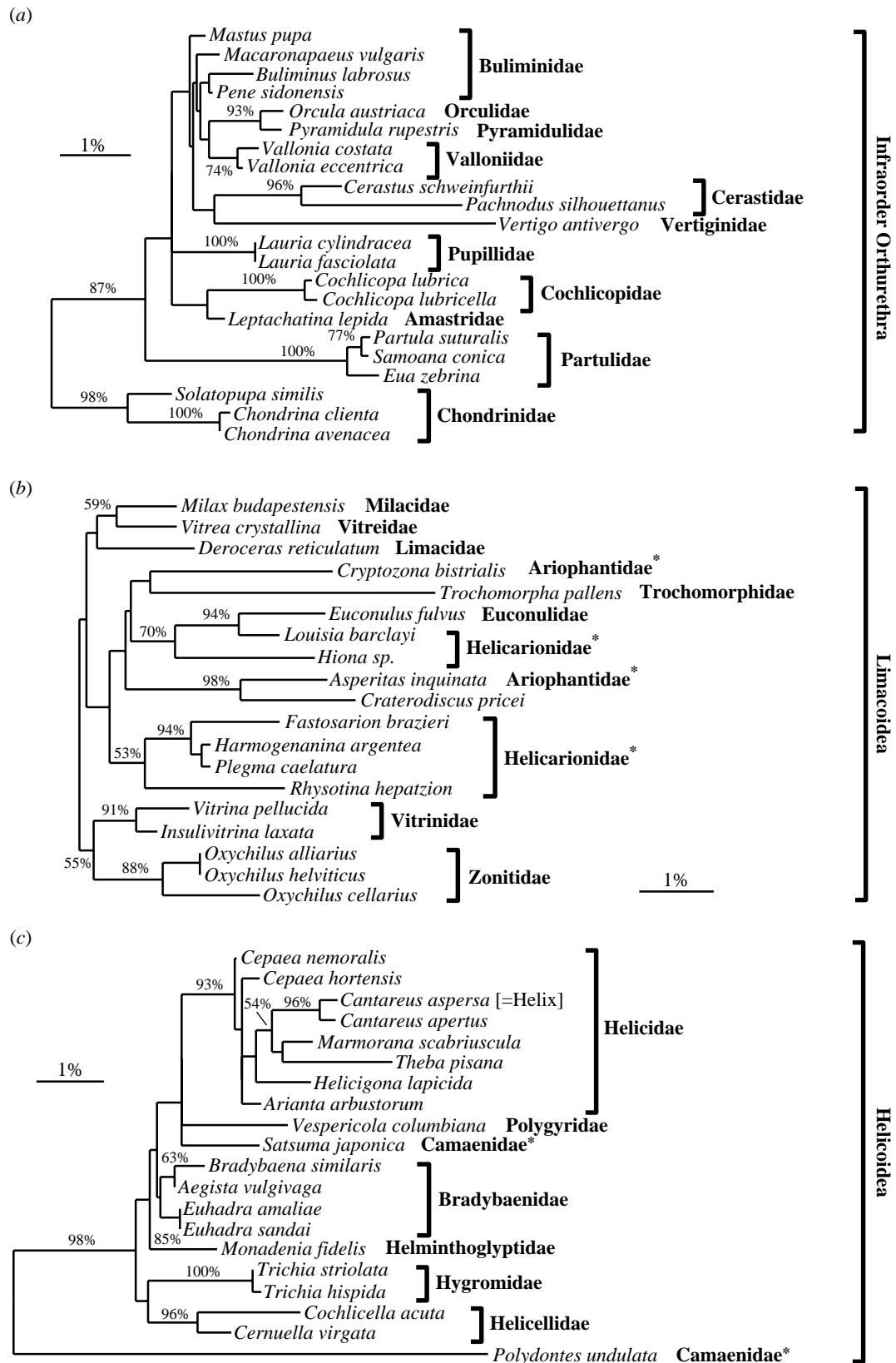


Figure 3. Phylogenetic trees for (a) the Orthurethra, (b) Limacoidea and (c) Helicoidea. Each tree is taken from the main NJ phylogeny and is constructed under the same constraints. Bootstrap values indicate the percentage support for individual branches based on 1000 replicates (only bootstrap values over 50% are shown). The scale bar corresponds to one substitutional change per 100 nucleotide positions. The asterisks indicate families which do not appear to be monophyletic in the tree.

the distance between *Polydontes* and *Satsuma* in the tree supports Scott's (1996) argument that the New and Old World Camaenidae are not sister groups.

(b) *Polyphyletic origins of slugs*

Seven families of slugs are represented in the tree, and each appears to be independently derived. Although this polyphyly is reflected in morphological taxonomies (Tillier 1989; Vaught 1989; South 1992) our tree establishes sister-group relationships for some controversial groups: the South African slug family Chlamydephoridae appears to come from rhytidid snails, and the Pacific athoracophorid slugs appear to come from succineid snails. Less well supported are the pairings of the Milacidae with the Vitreidae, and the Vitrinidae with the Zonitidae. The arionid slugs appear as a sister group of the Limacoidea, but the relationships of testacellid slugs are not resolved. It is interesting that slugs are absent from several major clades such as the Orthurethra, Helicoidea and Achatinoidea. Apart from the pairing of the Haplotrematidae with the Spiraxidae, predatory snail families are also polyphyletic.

(c) *Deep-level evolutionary relationships: the primary divisions in stylommatophoran taxonomy*

While the upper levels of the molecular tree conform remarkably well to current orthodoxy, the deeper levels disagree fundamentally with all morphological taxonomies, which are themselves inconsistent. The primary divisions in the Stylommatophora were laid down by Pilsbry (1900*a*), and subsequently modified by Baker (1955). Four infraorders make up the so-called 'Pilsbry–Baker' system, based on the morphology of the kidney and ureter: the Sigmurethra, Orthurethra, Heterurethra and Mesurethra. The subsequent history of this system has been complex (see Emberton *et al.* 1990), but although variously modified it still forms the basis of most modern classifications.

Pilsbry used the name Orthurethra for a small group of families possessing a straight ureter leading directly from the kidney to near the pneumostome. Although orthurethrans closely resemble other Stylommatophora in their renal histology, they show differences such as the lack of cilia in the elongated ureter (Delhay & Bouillon 1972*a,b*). Pilsbry's concept of the Orthurethra, including the Partulidae, which are excluded by Shileyko (1979) and Nordsieck (1986), is supported by the molecular phylogeny. However, the family Chondrinidae falls at the base of the clade. This considerably reduces the bootstrap support for the group as a whole, although when they are considered separately the chondrinid clade and the remaining Orthurethra both have strong support. There are no obvious morphological or biogeographical reasons for separating the Chondrinids from the remaining Orthurethra. Note that the Pacific Partulidae and Amas-tridae appear to have arisen independently, as previously supposed from their anatomy, following the separation of the Chondrinidae.

The infraorder Mesurethra was introduced by Baker (1955) for a group characterized by a relatively short, triangular kidney and generally with a lateral pore but no ureter. It included the families Cerionidae,

Dorcasidae, Corillidae and Strophocheilidae (including the Megalobulimidae (Leme 1973)). Later Baker (1961) enlarged the group to include the Clausiliidae. All five 'mesurethran' families are represented in the molecular tree, but there is no support for their monophyly. This reflects current opinion. Most of the recent classifications reject the Mesurethra entirely (Shileyko 1979; Nordsieck 1986; Tillier 1989) or reduce it to the single family Clausiliidae (Vaught 1989).

The Heterurethra originally contained only the succineids, and Pilsbry (1900*a*) specifically excluded the athoracophorid slugs. Baker (1955) added the Aillidae and the Athoracophoridae. Several morphological similarities between the succineids and the athoracophorids, as in the mechanism of tentacular retraction (Burch & Patterson 1969), have caused many workers to unite them as the Elasmognatha (Shileyko 1979; Nordsieck 1986). Our molecular tree strongly supports this relationship.

Implicit in Pilsbry's original description of the infra-order Sigmurethra was the view that they are a monophyletic assemblage of families possessing a 'sigmoid' ureter (Pilsbry 1900*a,b*, text and figure on p. 570). The group has persisted in most morphological classifications, but has become larger with the incorporation of the Mesurethra and/or Heterurethra. Our molecular analysis shows that the Sigmurethra are not monophyletic. Rather they appear as a paraphyletic stem within which both the monophyletic Orthurethra and Elasmognatha, and the polyphyletic 'mesurethran' groups evolved. Central to this interpretation is the early separation of the fully supported 'achatinoid' clade from the remainder (i.e. the 'non-achatinoid' clade).

If this dichotomy did indeed precede the principal stylommatophoran radiation, then it is parsimonious to suggest that the stylommatophoran excretory system was primitively sigmurethrous, and the 'mesurethran' grade, with the heterurethran and orthurethran clades, were derived from it. This is a direct contradiction of Pilsbry's (1900*a,b*) belief that the orthurethran kidney was primitive and ancestral, a view that is still widely accepted (Shileyko 1978; Nordsieck 1985; Tillier 1989; Pokryszko 1994). Our phylogeny shows that the Orthurethra are an advanced group, occupying a position equivalent to that of several other recently evolved superfamilies. Histological studies by Delhay & Bouillon (1972*a,b*) have already suggested that the similarity between the orthurethran and basommatophoran excretory systems is a consequence of convergence. Principal coordinates analysis and Kishino–Hasegawa testing confirm the position of the Orthurethra in our tree: PCOORD analysis places the Orthurethra with the other 'non-achatinoid' taxa and Kishino–Hasegawa testing shows that a phylogeny in which the Orthurethra are advanced is significantly better than one assuming that they are basal and ancestral ($-\ln L 9291.77550$ and $-\ln L 9314.79238$, respectively, *s.d.* = 11.45053, *p* < 0.05).

Several attempts have been made to split the Sigmurethra *sensu lato* into primary subdivisions but none agrees with the basal 'achatinoid'–'non-achatinoid' dichotomy shown in our molecular tree. Pilsbry (1896, 1900*a*) recognized two primary divisions based on pedal morphology: the Holopoda and the Aulacopoda. The 'achatinoid' clade includes only holopod taxa, but holopods also occur in

the 'non-achatinoïd' clade with the aulacopod groups (Limacoidea, Arionoidea and Endodontoidea). It is therefore parsimonious to suggest that the holopod foot is plesiomorphic. Thus the primitive condition of the Stylommatophora was probably sigmurethrous and holopod.

(d) *Origins and diversification of the Stylommatophora*

Following the initial divergence of the Stylommatophora there appear to have been three principal periods of diversification (a–c, figure 1).

After the division into 'achatinoïd' and 'non-achatinoïd' lineages (a, figure 1), each lineage shows further diversification (b, figure 1). In the 'non-achatinoïd' clade this first cladogenesis gives rise to the progenitors of the Orthurethra and Heturethra, the various 'mesurethran' families and a major subset of the Sigmurethra (figure 1, shaded area). The branching at this level is not resolved, and it could reflect either a period of explosive cladogenesis or a limitation in the resolving power of the sequence. At the equivalent stage in the 'achatinoïd' clade there is a simple dichotomy between the streptaxids on the one hand and the achatinids and subulinids on the other.

Both the 'non-achatinoïd' and 'achatinoïd' clades include groups of biogeographical interest, since their present distributions suggest origins in the southern Mesozoic supercontinent Gondwanaland. In the 'non-achatinoïd' clade, the most notable are the 'acavoid' families Acavidae, Caryodidae, Megalobulimidae and Dorca-siidae (Zilch 1959–1960), as well as the Rhytididae, Corillidae and Bulimulidae, which appear to branch more or less directly from the base of this clade. These taxa show high levels of endemicity and disjunct southerly continental distributions. Because of their large size and tendency to lay small numbers of large eggs (Peake 1978) their distributions are unlikely to have arisen by trans-oceanic dispersal. They can reasonably be assumed to have had a wide distribution in Gondwanaland before its fragmentation in the Mesozoic around 150 million years before present (Myr BP) (Peake 1978). The 'achatinoïd' clade similarly includes both the Subulinidae and Streptaxidae, which, although they are dominant Afrotropical families, show endemic radiations in South America and India, again suggesting a wide distribution in Gondwanaland (Zilch 1959–1960; Van Bruggen 1997). These considerations favour a Mesozoic date for diversifications within both the 'non-achatinoïd' and 'achatinoïd' clades, perhaps correlated with the break up of Gondwanaland. This would indicate that the initial separation of the two clades (a, figure 1) took place even earlier. Unambiguous fossil evidence about the timing of this split does not exist, but there are records of fossil terrestrial pulmonates in the Upper Carboniferous coal forests (ca. 300 Myr BP). Solem & Yochelson (1979) regarded them as the earliest stylommatophoran land snails, although some have been re-interpreted as non-stylommatophoran eupulmonates (Bandel 1991, 1997). A Mesozoic diversification of the 'non-achatinoïd' and 'achatinoïd' clades is consistent with the existence of Stylommatophora in the Palaeozoic. This would push back their divergence and early diversification to a date well before that suggested by Tillier *et al.* (1996) on the basis of a 'molecular clock' approach

(90–60 Myr BP) and by Bandel (1991, 1997) on the basis of fossils (130 Myr BP).

Radiations higher in the tree, such as those of the Orthurethra, Limacoidea, Helicoidea, Clausilioidea and Achatinidae–Subulinidae (c, figure 1), probably took place much later, possibly in the Late Cretaceous or Early Tertiary, when a diverse fossil stylommatophoran fauna first appears (Tracy *et al.* 1993). This would coincide with the early diversification of the flowering plants (Crane *et al.* 1995), an event likely to have been significant in land snail evolution.

In conclusion, while the study gives strong support to current taxonomy at the familial and superfamilial levels, it poses fundamental questions about the deep phylogeny of the land snails. This has not been satisfactorily resolved by classical methods, and the new data present strong challenges to the morphologist.

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