



ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Identification of forensically important blow fly species (Diptera: Calliphoridae) in China by mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase I gene differentiation

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Abstract Unambiguous and rapid sarcosaphagous insect species identification is an essential requirement for forensic investigations. Although some insect species are difficult to classify morphologically, they can be effectively identified using molecular methods based on similarity with abundant authenticated reference DNA sequences in local databases. However, local databases are still relatively incomplete in China because of the large land area with distinct regional conditions. In this study, 75 forensically important blow flies were collected from 23 locations in 16 Chinese provinces, and a 278-bp segment of the cytochrome oxidase subunit I gene of all specimens was successfully sequenced. Phylogenetic analysis of the sequenced segments showed that all Calliphorid specimens were properly assigned into nine species with relatively strong supporting values, thus indicating that the 278-bp cytochrome oxidase subunit one region is suitable for identification of Calliphorid species. The clear difference between intraspecific threshold and interspecific divergence confirmed the potential of this region for Calliphorid species identification, especially for distinguishing between morphologically similar species. Intraspecific geographic variations were observed in Lucilia sericata (Meigen, 1826) and Lucilia caesar (Linnaeus, 1758).

Key words Calliphoridae, China, cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI), forensic entomology, species identification

Introduction

Sarcosaphagous insect species infest and colonize human and animal remains in a predictable sequence over time (Amendt *et al.*, 2004; Anderson, 2004). The precise species identification of every insect sample collected

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from criminal scenes play an essential role in the accurate estimation of post mortem interval (PMI), especially when information on the post mortem phenomena is not available. Traditional morphological keys are unavailable or difficult to use for many immature stages of these insects and even for adult specimens (Stevens & Wall, 2001; Wallman & Donnellan, 2001; Saigusa *et al.*, 2009). Morphologic methods may yield definitive identification by rearing larvae to adults, but this approach can be time-consuming and requires larvae to be collected live and kept in conditions suitable for continued development (Ames *et al.*, 2006). Molecular methods can

provide rapid and reliable species determination regardless of insect lifecycle stages and are a necessary supplement to morphologic methods. In addition, molecular analysis only requires small tissue samples under relatively insensitive preservation conditions. After testing, the samples may still be used for further morphological study and/or for additional genetic analysis.

The cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI) region, located in the respiratory chain of the mitochondrial genome, is easy to isolate, has a higher copy number than its nuclear counterparts, and has conserved sequence and structure across taxa (Harvey et al., 2008). In numerous studies covering vast geographic regions, various segments of the COI region, ranging from 229 bp to the entire gene, have been sequenced to differentiate forensically important blow fly species (Wallman & Donnellan, 2001; Harvey et al., 2003a, 2003b; Saigusa et al., 2005; Wallman et al., 2005; Ames et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2007; Cainé et al., 2009; Desmyter & Gosselin, 2009; Park et al., 2009; Reibe *et al.*, 2009). A 278-bp COI region is a classical genetic marker that has been frequently used to identify forensically important fly species (Wells & Sperling, 1999; Harvey et al., 2003a; Cai et al., 2005; Wells et al., 2007). Consequently, there are abundant authenticated reference DNA sequences in the databases for comparing and identifying species.

According to Grassberger and Frank (2004), no global generalizations may be made in precisely estimating PMI or the time of death. Entomological evidence must be evaluated on a regional scale and the creation of local databases with referred ecological data for insect identification is strongly recommended (Alessandrini et al., 2008). Many Calliphorid species are the first to locate and oviposit onto corpses, and are among the dominant species found on corpses in China. Previous studies (Harvey et al., 2003a, 2003b, 2008; Wells et al., 2007; Reibe et al., 2009) encountered difficulties in discriminating between closely related Calliphorid species because of paraphyly and polyphyly. This study evaluates the suitability of the 278-bp COI region for identification of blow fly species, under experimental conditions prior to application in Chinese criminal investigations. The 278-bp COI region of 75 Calliphorids was sequenced and deposited in GenBank to expand local databases.

Materials and methods

Insects

Seventy-five sarcosaphagous adult blow flies were collected from 23 locations in 16 provinces of China during the months of June to September for 4 consecutive years (2006 to 2009). Collection information is listed in Table 1. The southernmost location was Fuzhou, Fujian Province $(26^{\circ}05'\text{N}, 119^{\circ}18'\text{E})$, while the northernmost and westernmost location was Urumqi in Xijiang Autonomous Region $(43^{\circ}45'\text{N}, 87^{\circ}36'\text{E})$.

All samples were collected using traps baited with animal remains (rabbit, dog or pig). Samples were subsequently air-dried at room temperature or stored in 70% ethanol at -20° C. They were identified by entomologists based on traditional morphological characteristics (Lu & Wu, 2003; Xue & Zhao, 1996). Some relatively cosmopolitan species, such as Chrysomya megacephala (Fabricius, 1794), Chrysomya rufifacies (Macquart, 1843), and Calliphora vicina (Robineau-Desvoidy, 1830). were included in this study. Protophormia terraenovae (Robineau-Desvoidy, 1830), Hemipyrellia ligurriens (Wiedemann, 1830), and four morphologically similar Lucilia species – L. sericata, L. bazini (Seguy, 1934), L. porphyrina (Walker, 1857), L. caesar – were also included. Sarcophaga peregrine (Robineau-Desvoidy, 1830) of the family Sarcophagidae was chosen as the out-group species. The protocols used in this study had been approved by the constituted Ethics Committee of the Central South University and conforms to the provisions of the Declaration of Helsinki.

DNA extraction

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) from all samples was extracted using the improved grinding tissue DNA extraction method (An et al., 2003). To avoid possible contamination of fly DNA with DNA from ingested proteins and eggs of gut parasites, the thoracic muscle of each insect was used as the source of DNA, whereas the head and abdomen were retained for further morphological and molecular analysis.

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) protocol

The 278-bp fragment of the COI gene from all specimens was amplified using the primers pair C1-J-2495 (5'-CAG CTA CTT TAT GAG CTT TAG G-3') (sense) and C1-N-2800 (5'-CAT TTC AAG CTG TGT AAG CAT C-3') (antisense) (Wells & Sperling, 1999; Harvey *et al.*, 2003a). The PCR reaction volume was 25 μ L, containing 1–5 μ L (20–40 ng) of template DNA, 12.5 μ L 2×GoTaq[®] Green Master Mix (Promega, Madison, WI, USA: 4 μ L deoxynucleotide triphosphate [dNTP: 1 mmol/mL], 1.0 U *Taq* polymerase, 2.5 μ L 10 × buffer [Mg²⁺ 1.5 mmol/L]), 0.25–2.5 μ L of each primer

 Table 1
 Locality and reference data for the newly sequenced specimens.

| No. | Species | Location (Latitude [E], Longitude [N]) | Preservation method | Accession No. | |
|-----|---|---|---------------------|---------------|--|
| 1 | Chrysomya megacephala (Fabricius, 1794) | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | | FJ746479 | |
| 2 | | Linyi, Shandong (35°03′, 118°20′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746490 | |
| 3 | | Datong, Shanxi (40°06′, 113°17′) | Dried | FJ746464 | |
| 4 | | Yongzhou, Hunan (26°13′, 111°37′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746488 | |
| 5 | | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746461 | |
| 6 | | Datong, Shanxi (40°06′, 113°17′) | Dried | FJ746478 | |
| 7 | | Zhuzhou, Hunan (27°51′, 113°09′) | Dried | FJ746487 | |
| 8 | | Chifeng, Inner Mongolia (42°17′, 118°58′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746477 | |
| 9 | | Zhangjiajie, Hunan (29°08′, 110°29′) | 70% ethanol | GU145185 | |
| 10 | | Yichun, Jiangxi (27°47′, 114°23′) | Dried | GU145191 | |
| 11 | | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | Dried | GU145183 | |
| 12 | | Datong, Shanxi (40°06′, 113°17′) | 70% ethanol | GU145166 | |
| 13 | | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia (40°48′, 111°41′) | 70% ethanol | GU145192 | |
| 14 | | Changsha, Hunan (28°23′, 112.94′) | 70% ethanol | GU145209 | |
| 15 | | Yichun, Jiangxi (27°47′, 114°23′) | 70% ethanol | GU145213 | |
| 16 | | Zhangjiajie, Hunan (29°08′, 110°29′) | 70% ethanol | GU145203 | |
| 17 | | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746460 | |
| 18 | | Yongzhou, Hunan (26°13′, 111°37′) | Dried | GU145184 | |
| 19 | | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia (40°48′, 111°41′) | Dried | GU145182 | |
| 20 | | Datong, Shanxi (40°06′, 113°17′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746459 | |
| 21 | | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia (40°48′, 111°41′) | 70% ethanol | GU145199 | |
| 22 | | Changsha, Hunan (28°12′, 112°59′) | Dried | GU145206 | |
| 23 | | Yichun, Jiangxi (27°47′, 114°23′) | 70% ethanol | GU145181 | |
| 24 | | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | 70% ethanol | GU145215 | |
| 25 | | Zhangjiajie, Hunan (29°08′, 110°29′) | 70% ethanol | GU145194 | |
| 26 | | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia (40°48′, 111°41′) | 70% ethanol | GU145158 | |
| 27 | | Beijing (39°55′, 116°24′) | Dried | FJ746485 | |
| 28 | | Xinxiang, Henan (35°18′, 113°52′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746494 | |
| 29 | | Changsha, Hunan (28°12′, 112°59′) | Dried | GU145212 | |
| 30 | | Urumqi, Xinjiang (43°45′, 87°36′) | Dried | GU145167 | |
| 31 | | Yichun, Jiangxi (27°47′, 114°23′) | Dried | GU145207 | |
| 32 | | Xiangxiang, Hunan (27°44′, 112°31′) | 70% ethanol | GU145147 | |
| 33 | | Yongzhou, Hunan (26°13′, 111°37′) | 70% ethanol | GU145160 | |
| 34 | | Zhangjiajie, Hunan (29°08′, 110°29′) | 70% ethanol | GU145152 | |
| 35 | | Urumqi, Xinjiang (43°45′, 87°36′) | 70% ethanol | GU145187 | |
| 36 | | Xiangxiang, Hunan (27°44′, 112°31′) | 70% ethanol | GU145186 | |
| 37 | | Changsha, Hunan (28°23′, 112°94′) | 70% ethanol | GU145202 | |
| 38 | Chrysomya rufifacies (Macquart, 1843) | Yongzhou, Hunan (26°13′, 111°37′) | Dried | GU145144 | |
| 39 | | Fuzhou, Fujian (26°05′, 119°18′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746466 | |
| 40 | | Changsha, Hunan (28°23′, 112°94′) | Dried | GU145170 | |
| 41 | | Weifang, Shandong (36°43′, 119°06′) | Dried | GU145193 | |
| 42 | Protophormia terraenovae (R-D [†] , 1830) | Chifeng, Inner Mongolia (42°17′, 118°58′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746468 | |

to be continued.

Table 1 Continued.

| No. | Species | Location (Latitude [E], Longitude [N]) | Preservation method | Accession No. FJ746495 | |
|-----|--|--|---------------------|------------------------------|--|
| 43 | Hemipyrellia ligurriens (Wiedemann, 1830) | Quzhou, Zhejiang (28°58′, 118°52′) | Dried | | |
| 44 | Lucilia sericata (Meigen, 1826) [‡] | Yongzhou, Hunan (26°13′, 111°37′) | 70% ethanol | GU145205 | |
| 45 | | Yinchuan, Ningxia (38°27′, 106°16′) | Dried | FJ746462 | |
| 46 | | Yinchuan, Ningxia (38°27′, 106°16′) | Dried | FJ746463 | |
| 47 | | Datong, Shanxi (40°06′, 113°17′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746458 | |
| 48 | | Lanzhou, Gansu (36°04′, 103°51′) | Dried | FJ746474 | |
| 49 | | Baotou, Inner Mongolia (40°39′, 109°49′) | Dried | FJ746471 | |
| 50 | | Tianjin (39°02′, 117°21′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746476 | |
| 51 | | Baotou, Inner Mongolia (40°39′, 109°49′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746469 | |
| 52 | | Xining, Qinghai (36°38′, 101°48′) | 70% ethanol | GU145154 | |
| 53 | | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | 70% ethanol | GU145159 | |
| 54 | | Xining, Qinghai (36°38′, 101°48′) | 70% ethanol | GU145139 | |
| 55 | | Xining, Qinghai (36°38′, 101°48′) | 70% ethanol | GU145157 | |
| 56 | | Urumqi, Xinjiang (43°45′, 87°36′) | 70% ethanol | GU145138 | |
| 57 | | Weifang, Shandong (36°71′, 119°12′) | Dried | GU145142 | |
| 58 | | Urumqi, Xinjiang (43°45′, 87°36′) | Dried | GU145148 | |
| 59 | | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | Dried | GU145143 | |
| 60 | | Xining, Qinghai (36°38′, 101°48′) | 70% ethanol | GU145149 | |
| 61 | | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia (40°48′, 111°41′) | 70% ethanol | GU145151 | |
| 62 | | Yichun, Jiangxi (27°47′, 114°23′) | 70% ethanol | GU145204 | |
| 63 | | Xi'an, Shaanxi (34°17′, 108°57′) | Dried | GU145140 | |
| 64 | | Urumqi, Xinjiang (43°45′, 87°36′) | Dried | GU145153 | |
| 65 | | Changsha, Hunan (28°23′, 112°94′) | 70% ethanol | GU145165 | |
| 66 | Lucilia bazini (Seguy, 1934) | Zhangjiajie, Hunan (29°08′, 110°29′) | 70% ethanol | GU145145 | |
| 67 | Lucilia porphyrina (Walker, 1857) | Changsha, Hunan (28°12′, 112°59′) | Dried | GU145146 | |
| 68 | Lucilia caesar (Linnaeus, 1758)§ | Tianjin (39°02′, 117°21′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746475 | |
| 69 | | Linyi, Shangdong (35°03′, 118°20′) | Dried | FJ746489 | |
| 70 | | Beijing (39°55′, 116°24′) | 70% ethanol | FJ746483 | |
| 71 | | Yichun, Jiangxi (27°47′, 114°23′) | 70% ethanol | GU145201 | |
| 72 | | Xinxiang, Henan (35°18′, 113°52′) | Dried | FJ746493 | |
| 73 | | Xi'an, Shaanxi (34°17′, 108°57′) | 70% ethanol | GU145150 | |
| 74 | Calliphora vicina (R-D † , 1830) | Xining, Qinghai (36°38′, 101°48′) | 70% ethanol | GU145168 | |
| 75 | , | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia (40°48′, 111°41′) | 70% ethanol | GU145169 | |
| 76 | Sarcophaga peregrine (R-D†, 1830) | Shijiazhuang, Hebei (38°02′, 114°30′) | Dried | GU145176 | |
| 77 | (17) | Yongzhou, Hunan (26°13′, 111°37′) | 70% ethanol | GU145177 | |

[†]R-D, Robineau-Desvoidy.

[‡]For *L. sericata*, specimen 44 belonged to clade 1, specimens 45–48 belonged to clade 2, 49–51 belonged to clade 3, and 52–65 belonged to clade 4.

[§] For L. caesar, specimens 68–70 belonged to clade 1, 71–72 belonged to clade 2, and specimen 73 belonged to clade 3.

(10 μ mol/L), and Nuclease-Free Water (Promega) added to a total volume of 25 μ L.

Amplifications were performed in a thermocycler (Perkin-Elmer 9600) programmed with the following parameters: initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min; 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 50°C for 30 s and 72°C for 30 s, and a final elongation at 72°C for 5 min.

Sequencing

Vertical non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was used to isolate PCR products, which were then purified using a QiaQuick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD, USA). Column cycle sequencing was performed on both forward and reverse strands using ABI PRISM Big Dye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Ready Reaction Kit by ABI PRISM 3730 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) with Big Dye terminator v3.1 as the sequencing agent. Sequence chromatograms were edited, and discrepancies between forward and reverse sequences were resolved using Sequence Navigator (v1.01, Applied Biosystems).

COI sequencing analysis and phylogenetic tree construction

Since the sequences were protein coding and did not contain any insertions or deletions, all resultant sequences in this study were aligned using ClustalW (http://www.ddbj.nig.ac.Jp/E-mail/clastalw-e.html). The obtained sequences have been deposited in GenBank by Sequin (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.Gov/equin/index.html) and their accession numbers are listed in Table 1. To identify species, the COI sequences were compared with Dipteral sequences on the NCBI web site via the BLASTn (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) function.

To determine whether they were of mitochondrial origin or represented paralogous sequences in the nucleus, the sequences were tested using MEGA4 (Tamura *et al.*, 2007). Evolutionary history was inferred using the neighborjoining method (Saitou & Nei, 1987). The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 500 replicates was inferred to represent the evolutionary history of the taxa analyzed (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree was drawn to scale, with branch lengths proportional to the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. Evolutionary distances were computed using the maximum composite likelihood method (Tamura *et al.*, 2004) and calibrated with the number of base substitutions per site. Codon positions included here were 1st + 2nd + 3rd + noncod-

ing. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated from the dataset using the complete deletion option. Neighbor-joining analysis was performed using the Tamura-Nei model of substitution and bootstrapping (n = 500) through MEGA4.

Results

Morphological identification of specimens

All samples were identified by entomologists into nine distinct morphological types (species) and were assigned to three subfamilies (Chrysomyinae, Luciliinae, and Calliphorinae) using traditional morphological characteristics. Each of the five species groups (*Ch. megacephala*, *Ch. rufifacies*, *L. sericata*, *C. vicina* and *L. caesar*) had more than one representative; whereas *L. bazini*, *L. porphyrina*, *P. terraenovae* and *H. ligurriens* were singletons. The taxonomic relationships between the 75 blow flies and other relevant species are shown in Table 2. Previous studies about these species and regions of COI are also listed in Table 2.

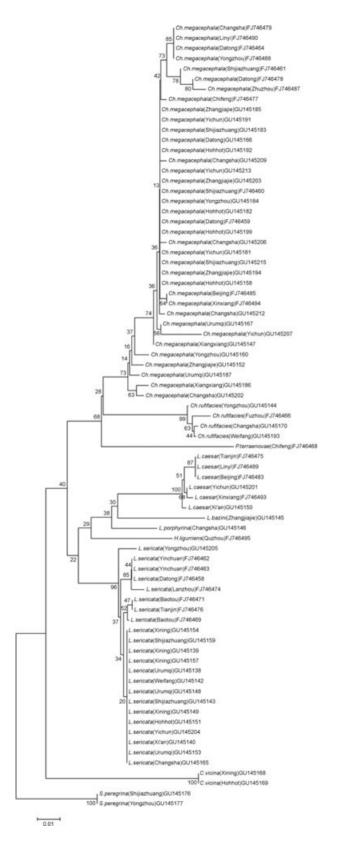
Phylogenetic analysis

Phylogenetic analysis was used to study the relationships between different groups of organisms based on their similarities and differences in selected characteristics. There were 278 aligned sites in the analysis of the 77 COI sequences (Fig. 1). Two specimens of the outgroup species S. peregrine were clustered together with a supporting bootstrap of 100%, and they were clearly separate from the Calliphorids in the NJ tree (Fig. 1). At the species level, five distinct congeneric and monophyletic clusters (Ch. megacephala cluster, Ch. rufifacies cluster, C. vicina cluster, L. caesar cluster and L. sericata cluster) were well-formed with high bootstrap values (>96%), except for Ch. megacephala at 73%. At the genus and subfamily levels, all Calliphorid species were correctly assigned to their appropriate subfamilies (Chrysomyinae, Luciliinae and Calliphorinae). Two subfamilial mitochondrial networks, namely Chrysomyinae and Luciliinae, were formed but with relatively weak supporting values of 22% and 68%, respectively; whereas there was only one species in subfamily Calliphorinae. Three Lucilia species (L. caesar, L. bazini and L. porphyrina) clustered together with a weak bootstrap value of 38%. Ch. megacephala clustered with its congeneric species Ch. rufifacies but with a weak supporting value (28%).

 Table 2
 Taxonomy of sarcosaphagous fly specimens in this study and related studies using COI regions.

| Family | Subfamily | Genus | Species | No.† | References |
|---------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------|-------|--|
| Calliphoridae | Chrysomyinae | Chrysomya | Ch. megacephala | 1–37 | Chen et al. (2009) used 1 120 bp; Harvey et al. (2003a) used 278 bp; Harvey et al. (2003b) used 1 167 bp; Harvey et al. (2008) used 1 167 bp; Wang et al. (2007) used 348 bp; Wells and Williams (2007) used several regions. |
| | | | Ch. rufifacies | 38–41 | Harvey et al. (2003a) used 278 bp; Harvey et al. (2003b) used 1 167 bp; Harvey et al. (2008) used 1 167 bp; Wallman et al. (2005) used 822 bp; Wang et al. (2007) used 348 bp; Wells et al. (2007) used 1 545 bp; Wells and Williams (2007) used several regions. |
| | | Protophormia | P. terraenovae | 42 | Desmyter and Gosselin used 304 bp; Reibe <i>et al.</i> (2009) used 229 bp; Wells and Williams (2007) used several regions. |
| | Luciliinae | Hemipyrellia | H. ligurriens | 43 | Park <i>et al.</i> (2009) used 1 539 bp; Wells <i>et al.</i> (2007) used 1 545 bp; Wallman <i>et al.</i> (2005) used 822 bp. |
| | | Lucilia | L. sericata | 44–65 | Chen et al. (2009) used 1 120 bp; Desmyter and Gosselin (2009) used 304 bp; Reibe et al. (2009) used 229 bp; Harvey et al. (2003a) used 278 bp; Harvey et al. (2003b) used 1 167 bp; Harvey et al. (2008) used 1 167 bp; Saigusa et al. (2005) used 304 bp; Saigusa et al. (2009) used 304 bp; Wallman et al. (2005) used 822 bp; Wells et al. (2007) used 1 545 bp; Wang et al. (2007) used 348 bp. |
| | | | L. bazini | 66 | Wells et al. (2007) used 1 545 bp. |
| | | | L. porphyrina | 67 | Wallman <i>et al.</i> (2005) used 822 bp; Wells <i>et al.</i> (2007) used 1 545 bp. |
| | | | L. caesar | 68–73 | Cainé <i>et al.</i> (2009) used several regions; Park <i>et al.</i> (2009) used 1 539 bp; Reibe <i>et al.</i> (2009) used 229 bp; Wells <i>et al.</i> (2007) used 1 545 bp. |
| | Calliphorinae | Calliphora | C. vicina | 74–76 | Ames <i>et al.</i> (2006) used approximately 400 bp; Cainé <i>et al.</i> (2009) used several regions; Chen <i>et al.</i> (2009) used 1 120 bp; Reibe <i>et al.</i> (2009) used 229 bp; Harvey <i>et al.</i> (2008) used 1 167bp; Wallman <i>et al.</i> (2005) used 822 bp. |

[†]Specimen number is in the same order as that in Table 1.



COI sequence divergence

Table 3 shows that all the maximum intraspecific divergences were less than 1.2%, except for *Ch. megacephala* at 4.3% and *L. sericata* at 2.1%. Levels of interspecific divergences varied from 4.5% to 15.4%. The lowest interspecific divergence (4.5%) was observed between the congeneric species *L. sericata* and *L. porphyrina*.

Geographic variation

A country-wide geographic study of L. sericata, L. caesar and Ch. megacephala was executed at the species level. Both the inter-site and intra-site variations of Ch. megacephala varied from 0.0% to 2.0% (data not shown), indicating that there was no obvious geographic variation. For L. sericata, four different clades were formed while L. caesar had three clades (Fig. 1). In Table 4, the maximum intra-cladistic specific variations of either L. sericata or L. caesar were relatively lower than their corresponding inter-cladistic specific variations. Specifically, the maximum intra-cladistic specific variation in clade 2 of L. sericata was 0.6%, while the inter-cladistic specific variation between species in clade 2 and in each of the other three clades was no more than 0.7%. Within L. caesar, each maximum intra-cladistic specific variation (below 0.3%) was also lower than the corresponding intercladistic specific variations (0.4%–0.9%). These findings indicate some intraspecific geographic variations in L. sericata and L. caesar.

Discussion

All the 77 forensically important sarcosaphagous adult fly specimens were obtained from 23 sites of 16 provinces in China during June to September of 4 consecutive years (2006 to 2009). DNA of all samples were successfully extracted using the improved grinding tissue DNA extraction method, and both sample preservation methods (70% ethanol and drying) used were efficient.

Fig. 1 Neighbor-joining tree displaying evolutionary relationships of 77 taxa. *S. peregrine* was chosen as the out-group. Bootstrap values indicate support for nodes. The bar indicates 0.01 substitutions per site. †*Ch. megacephala, Ch. rufifacies, P. terraenovae, L. caesar, L. bazini, L. porphyrina, H. ligurriens, L. sericata, C. vicina* are abbreviation of *Chrysomya megacephala, Chrysomya rufifacies, Protophormia terraenovae, Lucilia caesar, Lucilia bazini, Lucilia porphyrina, Hemipyrellia ligurriens, Lucilia sericata, Calliphora vicina* respectively.

Table 3 Calculated intraspecific and interspecific divergences expressed as percentage of total 278 bp of COI using neighbor-joining approach with Tamura-Nei model of substitution.

| No. | Species | No.^{\dagger} | Range [‡] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-----|-----------------|------------------------|--------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|---|
| 1 | L. sericata | 22 | 0.0-2.1 | _ | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | L. bazini | 1 | _ | 7.2 | _ | | | | | | | |
| 3 | L. porphyrina | 1 | _ | 4.5 | 6.5 | _ | | | | | | |
| 4 | L. caesar | 6 | 0.0-0.9 | 7.4 | 7.1 | 5.2 | _ | | | | | |
| 5 | H. ligurriens | 1 | _ | 7.0 | 7.9 | 6.6 | 8.5 | _ | | | | |
| 6 | Ch. rufifacies | 4 | 0.3 - 1.2 | 9.2 | 9.6 | 9.8 | 12.0 | 9.9 | _ | | | |
| 7 | Ch. megacephala | 36 | 0.0 - 4.3 | 6.9 | 10.6 | 8.6 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 6.9 | _ | | |
| 8 | P. terraenovae | 1 | _ | 10.5 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 9.7 | 11.6 | 10.2 | 8.7 | _ | |
| 9 | C. vicina | 2 | 0.0 | 9.8 | 12.1 | 11.5 | 10.7 | 11.0 | 14.7 | 11.9 | 15.4 | _ |

[†]Number of specimens.

Species and group identification

All specimens were properly classified into their respective species groups and the results of molecular blow fly species identification correlated with the initial morphological identification. Although several studies considered some Lucilia species pairs difficult to differentiate (Stevens & Wall, 2001; Stevens et al., 2002; Wallman et al., 2005; Ying et al., 2007; Wells et al., 2007; Harvey et al., 2008; Reibe et al., 2009; Tourle et al., 2009), the topology (Fig. 1) and the distinct intraspecific versus interspecific divergence (Table 3) suggests good discrimination among the four morphologically similar Lucilia species (L. bazini, L. porphyrina, L. caesar and L. sericata). The taxonomic relationships between Lucilia species concur with previous studies (Stevens & Wall, 1996; Stevens & Wall, 2001), and confirm the monophyletic L. bazini/ L. porphyrina/ L. caesar cluster and their separation from L. sericata. H. ligurriens was unexpectedly embedded within the Lucilia cluster; similar findings have also been reported by Wells *et al.* (2007) using a 1 545-bp COI region and by Park *et al.* (2009) using the full length of COI region as the molecular marker.

Evaluation of differences in intra- versus interspecific variation has been suggested as a potentially useful criterion for species identification (Wells & Sperling, 2001; Amendt et al., 2004). The maximum intraspecific divergences of Ch. megacephala and L. sericata of 4.3% and 2.1%, respectively, were not much higher compared with the study by Harvey et al. (2008) using a 1 167-bp COI region, which reported the worldwide variability of Ch. megacephala and L. sericata at 0.34% and 0.26% respectively. Furthermore, Reibe et al. (2009) found only 0.5% variability in German L. sericata using a 229-bp COI region. Since they are carrion-breeding species, they have wide geographic distributions that partly explain the relatively large intraspecific divergence of the two species. In addition, their variable behavior (e.g. hybridization) may also lead to high intraspecific genetic variations. Meanwhile, the possibility of misidentification of a specimen

Table 4 Intra-cladistic versus inter-cladistic specific variations in *L. sericata* and *L. caesar*.

| No. | Species clade | No.† | Range [‡] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|-----|---------------------|------|--------------------|-----|-----|-----|---|-----|-----|---|
| 1 | L. sericata clade 1 | 1 | _ | _ | | _ | | | | _ |
| 2 | L. sericata clade 2 | 4 | 0.0-0.6 | 1.6 | _ | | | | | |
| 3 | L. sericata clade 3 | 3 | 0.0-0.3 | 1.3 | 1.1 | _ | | | | |
| 4 | L. sericata clade 4 | 14 | 0.0 – 0.0 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.4 | _ | | | |
| 5 | L. caesar clade 1 | 3 | 0.0 – 0.0 | | | | | _ | | |
| 6 | L. caesar clade 2 | 2 | 0.3 | | | | | 0.7 | _ | |
| 7 | L. caesar clade 3 | 1 | _ | | | | | 0.9 | 0.4 | _ |

[†]Number of specimens.

[‡]Range of intraspecific variations (minimum to maximum value).

[‡]Range of intra-cladistic specific variations (minimum to maximum value).

still exists. Furthermore, the use of a relatively short COI region (278 bp) for analysis may also magnify the variations between different sequences. All these may be responsible for the low bootstrap values in the Ch. megacephala and L. sericata species cluster. Although the intraspecific divergences of the two species were relatively high, the corresponding interspecific divergences were higher (Table 3) at 6.9% and 5.5%, respectively. This indicates that they can still be correctly differentiated from other species. Furthermore, the range of divergence in Table 3 falls within ranges in some previous reports (Desmyter & Gosselin, 2009; Park et al., 2009; Reibe et al., 2009); the clear differences between the threshold levels of intraspecific versus interspecific divergence enable unambiguous differentiation of the nine forensically important blow fly species.

Geographic analysis

In general, the insect succession that occurs during corpse decomposition is related to season, temperature, humidity and type of habitat (Shi $et\,al.$, 2009). Geographic and environmental conditions influence the fauna in a particular area, especially between cities and provinces. Geographic variations within forensically relevant species have been reported for L. sericata, Phormia regina (Meigen, 1826), Lucilia cuprina (Wiedemann, 1830), and Ch. rufifacies (Harvey $et\,al.$, 2003a, 2008; Cai $et\,al.$, 2006; Wallman $et\,al.$, 2005; Wells $et\,al.$, 2007; Desmyter & Gosselin, 2009). However, Picard and Wells (2010) found a negligible correlation between geographic and genetic distances in North American L. sericata through a Mantel test $(r_2 = 0.006\,3, P = 0.02)$.

In the present study, the tree topology (Fig. 1) and intra- versus inter-cladistic specific variations (Table 4) reflect differences between the clades of L. sericata and L. caesar. In most cases, these geographic variations can be explained by the ecological and geographical conditions of the collection locations, such that members of the same clade were recovered from similar environments and members of different clades were from environmentally different locales. However, in this study, specimens of each of the two species in the same clade were recovered from locations that were far from each other. These findings may be attributed to various factors: (i) samples in the same clade could have spread to distant sites through human activities, since most carrion-breeding flies are synanthropic; and (ii) some cryptic species and subspecies, or even misidentified species were not eliminated from the analysis and are skewing the data. For *Ch*. megacephala, multiple monotypes have been observed

at a single location and at multiple locations (Fig. 1); this distribution supports the results mentioned above, since there is no obvious geographic variation for *Ch. megacephala*.

Implications for future work

Species compositions have their own local characteristics (Vanin et al., 2008). As such, ecological succession data obtained from corpses at one geographic location do not necessarily apply to other locations (Wang et al., 2008). This study is the first step toward developing a fast, accurate and easily accessible mtDNA-based biomolecular species identification system, which together with traditional morphological methods and correlative ecological succession data, would help identify forensically important sarcosaphagous insects. A large number of specimens across vast regional distributions must be collected and correlated with ecological succession data to enrich local databases for further large-scale geographic analysis. Morphologic analyses are also needed to discover more distinct morphological characteristics and to eliminate mistakes in species identification.

The length of nucleotide sequences used in this study is still relatively short (278 base pairs) for reliable phylogenetic analysis and some positions of taxa in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1) did not concur with current taxonomic treatment of Calliphoridae. Therefore, more extensive sequencing of the COI gene and other mitochondrial and nuclear DNA sequences must be executed to solve these problems. According to Amendt *et al.* (2004), the combined analysis of mtDNA fragments is a more accurate approach for Dipteral species identification than single COI fragment analysis. In a future work, simultaneous sequencing of a 272-bp COI region, a 250-bp region of mtDNA from the 16S ribosomal DNA gene (16S rDNA), and a 246-bp region of COII from some of the specimens studied here will be performed. Further combined analysis (e.g. COI + COII + 16Sr + morphology+ ecology) would be carried out for fly species identification, geographic distribution analysis and taxonomic classification.

Conclusion

Analysis of the 278-bp region of the COI gene in 75 Calliphorid specimens collected from 23 locations in China illustrate the enormous potential of the COI region as an economical discriminatory tool in forensic entomological investigations. All the blow fly species, especially four morphologically similar *Lucilia* species, were well

discriminated. Geographic variations were observed for *L. sericata* and *L. caesar*, although explanations for their development remain unexplored. Some taxonomic relationships among genera failed to match traditional taxonomic classification. Further studies are required to resolve these discrepancies.

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