# Identification of the forensically important sarcophagid flies Boerttcherisca peregrina, Parasarcophaga albiceps and Parasarcophaga dux (Diptera: Sarcophagidae) based on COII gene in China 

Guo, Y.D., Cai, J.F.*, Li, X., Xiong, F., Su, R.N., Chen, F.L., Liu, Q.L., Wang, X.H., Chang, Y.F., Zhong, M., Wang, X. and Wen, J.F.<br>Department of Forensic Science, School of Basic Medical Sciences, Central South University, Changsha 410013, Hunan, China<br>* Corresponding author email address: cjf_jifeng@163.com<br>Received 30 March 2010; received in revised form 30 June 2010; accepted 1 July 2010


#### Abstract

Accurate species identication is a crucial step in forensic entomology, as the insect collected on a corpse can provide useful information for estimation of postmortem interval (PMI). The utility of the forensically important Sarcophagidae (Diptera) for crime scene investigation has been severely restricted, as morphological identification is difficult, especially the identification of females and larvae. In this study, a method for using mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) sequence data and phylogenetic analysis was performed to distinguish the three Chinese sarcophagid species: Boerttcherisca peregrina (Robineau-Desvoidy, 1830) Parasarcophaga albiceps (Meigen, 1826) and Parasarcophaga $d u x$ (Thompson, 1869) (Diptera: Sarcophagidae). DNA was extracted and analyzed by a 189 bp fragment of cytochrome coxidase subunit II (COII) gene. The monophyletic branches of the phylogenetic tree reveal that this marker is suitable for discrimination between these species, providing high support for separation on congeneric species. Therefore, the molecular method applied to the sarcophagid species identification is feasible.


## INTRODUCTION

Forensic entomology involves the study of the interaction of insects and other anthropods with legal matters (Harvey et al., 2003a). Especially in the estimation of postmortem interval (PMI), forensic entomology possesses a distinct advantage. In order to apply entomological evidence to the estimation of PMI or other related issues, it is essential to precisely identify the species of insects attracted to the remains (Kiyoshi et al., 2005).

The Sarcophagidae or flesh flies (Diptera) comprise over 2,500 species in over 100 genera globally, with many species being carrion breeders and initial corpse colonizers (Fan \& Pape, 1996).

Many sarcophagid species have the potential to be used to estimate the PMI or death of place. Firstly, the larval stages of many species of Sarcophagidae are necrophagous and for this reason those species termed 'esh-ies' are signicant in forensic entomology, being second only to the Calliphoridae (Diptera) in terms of their usefulness (Pe'rez-Moreno et al., 2006). Death scenes from which esh y larvae have been recovered vary from ones with relatively fresh remains to much older mummied corpses (Benecke, 1998). Secondly, the reproductive cycle of the sarcophagids makes them prospectively more reliable for PMI estimations compared with other initial dipteran colonizers (Kamal, 1958; Meiklejohn et al.,
2009). According to Introna et al. (1998), the postmortem interval (PMI) of charred remains was calculated based on third instar of Bercaea africa. Furthermore, in contrast to other forensically important flies, sarcophagids deposit live larvae rather than eggs, and these may be dropped in the vicinity of the corpse when an adult female cannot physically reach the body (Denno et al., 1976). Sarcophagid flies, such as B. peregrina, P. albiceps and $P$. $d u x$ and others. are widely distributed in China (Xu et al., 1996).

Species identification is a crucial step in forensic entomology. Accurate estimation of the PMI requires accurate identification of insects, as misidentification may result in the application of incorrect development data (Harvey et al., 2003b). Sarcophagids adults and larvae are easily recognized at family and generic level, as all sarcophagids share common characteristics (Pape, 1996; Byrd \& Castner, 2001), but are morphologically remarkably similar subgenerically and inter-specically (Aspoas, 1991). For some sarcophagid species it is only the adult males that can be identified with certainty by taxonomic experts. Therefore, DNAbased method was used for forensic sarcophagid species identification (Wells et al., 2001; Zehner et al., 2001; Kiyoshi et al., 2005, 2009; Harvey et al., 2008; Meiklejohn et al., 2009). To implement the use of sarcophagids for PMI estimation, a method for easy yet accurate species-level identification at any life stage is required (Meiklejohn et al., 2009).

The use of sarcophagids as PMI estimators is restricted due to inadequate documentation of their thermobiological histories, especially for the Chinese species. Molecular identification can be carried out on any lifecycle stage without further rearing and on dead, preserved or live samples. Molecular identification can be regarded as an alternative method proposed to eliminate the issues surrounding correct species-level identification based solely on taxonomy. Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA has been
widely used for analyses of metazoan phylogenetic relationships at various taxonomic levelsbecause of the lack of intermolecular recombination, its maternal inheritance, the relatively rapid evolutionary rate, and the large numbers of copies (Machida et al., 2004). Sequence of the mitochondrial region encoding the cytochrome oxidase II (COII) gene is particularly useful in evolution studies, population genetics and systematics due to the relatively high degree of variation in the region molecular systematic study (Ying et al., 2007).

Genetic species identification is crucial in matching the sequence of the evidence item to an authenticated reference DNA sequence (Altschul et al., 1976). However, molecular data available with respect to the sarcophagid flies are very limited in China. To this day, few genetical species identication studies on Sarcophagidae in China have been published yet. In this study, we investigated the ability of the COII region to accurately identify adult sarcophagid specimens from 13 districts of 9 provinces in China. At the same time, molecular data was accumulated for the future implementation of Chinese Sarcophagidae as a tool in forensic investigations.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Specimens

Twenty two dried adult specimens of Sarcophagidae (Diptera), including three species (B. peregrina, P. albiceps, P. dux), were obtained from 13 districts of 9 provinces in China during the year 2007 to 2009. Another two dried adult specimens of Musca domestica (Diptera: Muscidae) were obtained from Xi'an (Shannxi) and Yongzhou (Hunan) in the year 2009. All samples were trapped using animal (rabbit, dog or pig) corpse-baited traps, stored at room temperature by air drying, and were identified to subfamily level using traditional morphological characters by entomologist. Specimens used in this study
are listed in Table 1, the distributions of collection locations were are also showed in Fig. 1.

The southernmost collection location was Wanning located in Hainan province, SA ( $18^{\circ} 802,110^{\circ} 392$ ), the northernmost and westernmost location was Urumqi in Sinkiang municipality, SA ( $43^{\circ} 462,87^{\circ} 362$ ).

## DNA extraction, polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methods and nucleotide sequencing

The thoracic muscle of each fly was isolated for DNA extraction by a CTAB protocol described by Skevington et al. (2000). The head and abdomen of each specimen was retained to check its identity. DNA was resuspended in 50 ul of 1 xTE buffer [1xTE buffer, $\mathrm{pH} 8.0 ; 10 \mathrm{mM}$ Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0 ] and stored at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

All of the COII sequences were aligned using the sequence alignment programme DNASTAR (Megalign version 7.1.0). Conserved regions of the alignment were evaluated and marked. The most commonly occurring nucleotides at each position of
the conserved sequence were selected and inputted in the primer design programme Primer Premier 5.0. The primer-binding site should lie entirely within the conserved region. The general primer-design rules were considered to avoid false priming and primer-dimer formation in cross-family PCR. A portion of 189bp fragment of the mitochondrial COII gene was amplified and sequenced by using forward primer ( 5 '-ATTAGATGTTGATAATCG-3') and reverse primers (5'-ACAAATTTC-TGAACATTG-3').

The PCR reaction volume was $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$, containing $1-5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ ( $20-40 \mathrm{ng}$ ) of template DNA, $12.5 \mu \mathrm{l} 2 \mathrm{xGoTaq}^{\circledR}$ Green Master Mix ( $4 \mu \mathrm{l}$ dNTP ( $1 \mathrm{mmol} / \mathrm{ml}$ ), 1.0u Taq polymerase, $2.5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ 10xbuffer ( $\mathrm{Mg} 2+$ $1.5 \mathrm{mmol} / \mathrm{l})$ ), $0.25-2.5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ each primer $(10 \mu M)$, Nuclease-Free Water added to a total volume of $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$. PCR amplifications were performed in a Thermo Cycler (Perkin-Elmer 9600) and programmed with the following parameters: initial step at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (3 min), continued for 30 cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (30s) and $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (30s for mt-rDNA annealing) and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (30s). An elongation

Table 1. Locality and reference data of specimens sequenced for this study

| NO. | Species | Accession NO. | Locality and coordinates | Date |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | B. peregrina (R-D,1830) | HM016746 | Urumqi, Xinjiang [87:36E, 43:46N] | 2009.7 |
| 2 |  | HM016747 | Changsha, Hunan [112:59E 28:12N] | 2009.8 |
| 3 |  | HM016748 | Linyi, Shangdong [118:35E 35:05N] | 2007.8 |
| 4 |  | HM016749 | Shijiazhuang, Hebei [114:26E, 38:03N] | 2009.8 |
| 5 |  | HM016750 | Urumqi, Xinjiang [87:36E, 43:46N] | 2009.8 |
| 6 |  | HM016751 | Lanzhou, Gansu [103:83E, 36:06N] | 2007.8 |
| 7 |  | HM016752 | Jishou, Hunan [109:43E 28:18N] | 2008.8 |
| 8 |  | HM016753 | Changsha, Hunan [112:59E 28:12N] | 2009.8 |
| 9 |  | GU270079 | Shijiazhuang, Hebei [114:26E, 38:03N] | 2007.8 |
| 10 |  | HM016754 | Nanging, Guangxi[108:21E 22:47N] | 2008.8 |
| 11 |  | HM016755 | Shijiazhuang, Hebei [114:26E, 38:03N] | 2007.8 |
| 12 | P. albiceps (Meigen, 1826) | HM016756 | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia [111:38E, 40:48N] | 2009.8 |
| 13 |  | HM016757 | Wanning, Hainan [110:39E, 18:80N] | 2009.8 |
| 14 |  | GU270084 | Hohhot, Inner Mongolia [111:38E, 40:48N] | 2007.8 |
| 15 |  | HM016759 | Zhatong, Shanxi [113:13E 40:07N] | 2009.8 |
| 16 |  | HM016760 | Wangiiajie, Hunan [114:51E 38:04N] | 2009.7 |
| 17 |  | HM016761 | Yongzhou, Hunan [111:61E, 26:42N] | 2009.8 |
| 18 | P. dux (Thompson, 1869) | HM016762 | Changsha, Hunan [112:59E 28:12N] | 2009.8 |
| 19 |  | HM016763 | Yongzhou, Hunan [111:61E, 26:42N] | 2009.8 |
| 20 |  | HM016764 | Wanning, Hainan [110:39E, 18:80N] | 2007.8 |
| 21 |  | GU269967 | Xi'an, Shannxi[108:91E, 34:23 N] | 2008.8 |
| 22 |  | GU269968 | Yongzhou, Hunan [111:61E, 26:42N] | 2007.8 |
| 23 | M. domestica (Linnaeus, 1758) |  | 2009.8 |  |
| 24 |  |  |  | 2009.8 |



Figure 1. From north to south, 14 sample collecting locations shown in a Chinese map

1. Urumqi; 2. Changsha; 3. Linyi; 4. Shijiazhuang; 5. Lanzhou; 6. Jishou; 7. Xiangxiang; 8. Nanning;
2. Hohhot; 10. Wanning; 11. Datong; 12. Zhangjiajie; 13. Yongzhou; 14. Xi'an
of PCR products by $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min completed the reaction.

PCR products were purified with QiaQuick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen). Columns 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). And the sequencing agent was BigDye terminator v3.1. Sequence chromatograms were edited and discrepancies between forward and reverse sequences resolved using Sequence Navigator (v1.01, Applied Biosystems).

The resulting sequences were compared with the Diptera sequences in the NCBI web site by Blastn function to identify species. The sequences have been deposited in GenBank by Sequin (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.Gov/equin/index.htmland the accession numbers are listed in Table 1. As 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/clastalwe.html).

## Sequencing analysis

A total of 189 aligned sites for the 22 fragments of the mitochondrial COII sequences were included in the analyses. We tested whether the sequences were of mitochondrial origin or represented paralogous sequences resident in the nucleus using MEGA4 (Tamura et al., 2007). The evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method (Saitou et al., 1987). The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 500 replicates is taken to represent the evolutionary history of the taxa analyzed (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed
using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method (Tamura et al., 2004) and are in the units of the number of base substitutions per site. Codon positions included were $1 \mathrm{st}+2 \mathrm{nd}+3 \mathrm{rd}+$ Noncoding. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated from the dataset (Complete deletion option). Neighbor-joining analysis was performed using the Tamura-Nei model of substitution and bootstrapping ( $\mathrm{n}=500$ ) conducted using MEGA4.

## RESULTS

## Alignment of COII sequences

The COII region was straightforward to both amplify and sequence. A 189-bp fragment of the COII gene was sequenced from 22 specimens: $11 B$. peregrina, $6 P$. albiceps, and 5 P. dux. The alignment of all specimens lacked any insertion or deletion and revealed 143 variable positions on 189 analysed (Figure 1). All COII sequences were aligned through the program DNASTAR (Megalign version 7.1.0), before the final adjustments were made by eyes.

The same bases were marked dark, while the different ones were marked light.

## Phylogenetic analysis

A total of 189 aligned sites for the COII sequences were included in the analyses. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (500 replicates) was shown next to the branches, which provides an indication of the percentage support for a grouping by randomly resampling the data.

Two M. domestica (Linnaeus, 1758) samples belonging to the family Muscidae were used as outgroup for phylogenetic analyses (Table 1). These two specimens clustered together with a supporting bootstrap of $100 \%$, and they were clearly separated from the family Sarcophagidae in NJ tree (Fig. 2). Several distinct congeneric clusters were formed based on the sequence data. The high bootstrap values (100\%) provide an indication of good percentage support for the grouping nodes of $P$. dux. Within the B. peregrina species, two different clades were formed (two

|  | A | C | J | A | T | 6 | C | T | T | I | 6 | 1 | T | I | A | 1 | T | 1 | A | I |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 46 | 54 | 60 | 63 | 72 | 79 | 81 | 84 | 87 | 88 | 94 | 102 | 111 | 121 | 123 | 141 | 144 | 147 | 156 | 166 |
| B.peregrina(Urumqi)HM016746 | A | C | 1 | T | A | A | C | C | T | C | $G$ | 1 | T | T | A | T | C | T | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Changsha)HM016747 | A | T | C | A | T | A | C | I | T | C | 6 | I | I | 1 | A | I | C | T | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Linyi)HM016748 | A | C | T | T | A | A | C | C | T | C | 6 | T | $T$ | T | A | T | C | I | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Shijiazhuang)HM016749 | A | C | I | I | A | A | C | C | T | C | G | 1 | I | I | A | I | C | I | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Urumqi)HM016750 | A | c | T | T | A | A | C | C | T | C | 6 | T | T | T | A | T | C | I | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Lanzhou)HM016751 | A | C | I | T | A | A | C | C | T | C | G | 1 | T | I | A | T | C | I | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Jishou)HM016752 | A | C | I | I | A | A | C | C | T | C | 6 | I | T | I | A | I | C | T | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Changsha)HM016753 | A | T | C | A | T | A | C | T | T | C | G | T | I | T | A | T | C | 1 | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Shijiazhuang)GU270079 | A | C | 1 | T | A | A | C | C | T | C | G | 1 | I | I | A | 1 | C | I | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Xiangxiang)GU270087 | A | T | C | A | T | A | C | T | T | C | 6 | I | I | I | A | T | C | T | A | T |
| B.peregrina(Nanning)HM016754 | A | T | C | A | T | A | C | T | T | c | 6 | 1 | T | I | A | 1 | C | I | A | T |
| P.albiceps(Shijiazhuang)HM016755 | C | 1 | 1 | A | T | G | T | T | T | 1 | A | G | T | 1 | A | A | T | C | T | C |
| P.albiceps(Hohhot)HM016756 | C | T | 1 | A | T | 6 | T | T | T | 1 | A | 6 | I | I | A | A | T | C | T | C |
| P.albiceps(Wanning)HM016757 | C | 1 | 1 | A | T | 6 | T | T | T | T | A | G | T | T | A | A | T | C | T | C |
| P.albiceps(Hohhot)HM016758 | C | 1 | 1 | A | T | G | T | T | T | T | A | G | T | I | A | A | T | C | T | C |
| P.albiceps(Datong)GU270084 | C | I | I | A | T | 6 | T | T | T | - | 6 | T | I | I | A | A | T | T | C | T |
| P.albiceps(Zhangiajie)HM016759 | C |  | 1 | A | T | 6 | T | T | T | 1 | G | 1 | 1 | I | A | A | 1 | 1 | C | T |
| P.dux(Wanning)HM016760 | A | C | 1 | A | T | 6 | A | T | C | 1 | 6 | I | A | c | I | A | T | C | A | T |
| P.dux(Yongzhou)HM016761 | A | C | T | A | T | 6 | A | T | C | 1 | 6 | 1 | A | C | T | A | T | C | A | T |
| P.dux(Changsha)HM016762 | A | C | T | A | T | 6 | A | T | C | 1 | G | I | A | C | I | A | T | C | A | T |
| P.dux(Yongzhou)HM016763 | A | C | 1 | A | T | G | A | T | C | I | G | I | A | C | T | A | T | C | A | T |
| P.dux(Wanning)HM016764 | A | C | I | A | T | G | A | T | C | I | 6 | I | A | C | T | A | 1 | C | A | 1 |

Figure 2. Variable positions in the 189 bp COII gene fragment alignment of B. peregrina , P. albiceps, and $P$. dux obtained from different regions of China. The numbers of horizontal axis represent the order of the bases, and only the bases that exist variance were shown
specimen from Changsha, one from Nanning and one from Xiangxiang formed clade 2 and the other specimens clustered as clade 1 , clade 1 had a supporting value of $99 \%$ and clade 2 had a supporting value of $96 \%$ ) sharing a supporting values of $95 \%$. Two $P$. albiceps samples were clustered as a clade with the supporting value of $72 \%$, while the other $P$. albiceps specimens formed a clade with the supporting values of $98 \%$. These two clades of $P$. albiceps share a weak supporting value of $63 \%$.

## Interspecific and intraspecific variation

 All results were based on the pairwise analysis of the 22 sequences. Analyses were conducted using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method in MEGA 4.0 (Tamura et al., 2004, 2007). Codon positions included were 1st+2nd+3rd+ Noncoding. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated from the dataset (Complete deletion option). Pairwise divergence between species was calculated and was showed on in Table 2. And variation among all individuals of the species was calculated. The number of base substitutions per site from analysis between sequences was shown. The overall average of all specimens was 0.05 .In Table 2, levels of interspecific variation varied from $0 \%$ to $9 \%$. The
maximum and minimum levels of divergence between the $B$. peregrina and P. albiceps were $9 \%$ and $4 \%$, that of $B$. peregrina and $P$. $d u x$ were both $7 \%$, and that of P. albiceps and P.dux were $7 \%$ and $5 \%$. The mean value of interspecific variation between each species was as follows: the values between $B$. peregrina and other two species were both $7 \%$, and between $P$. albiceps and $P$. dux was $6 \%$.

The data matrix (Table 3) displays the maximum, minimum and mean intraspecific divergence of uncorrected percentage sequence. And the Table 2 showed the detail of the intraspecific divergence of each species. The mean intraspecific variation of $B$. peregrina and P. albiceps were both $1 \%$, and the maximum values were both $3 \%$. However, there is no significant intraspecific variation within the $P$. dux samples. Both the mean and maximum intraspecific variation of $P$. $d u x$ was 0\%.

## DISCUSSION

Although our primary purpose was to accumulate genetic data for the future study of forensically important sarcophagid flies, these data provide an opportunity to evaluate the potential value of COII

Table 2. Pairwise distance matrix of $B$. peregrina, P. albiceps, and P. dux 189 bp COII sequences

| B. peregrina (Urumqi) HM016746 | [ 1] - |
| :---: | :---: |
| B. peregrina (Changsha) HM016747 | [ 2] $0.03-$ |
| B. peregrina (Linyi) HM016748 | [ 3] $0.000 .03-$ |
| B. peregrina (Shijiazhuang) HM016749 | [ 4] $0.000 .030 .00-$ |
| B. peregrina (Urumqi) HM016750 | [ 5] $0.000 .030 .000 .00-$ |
| B. peregrina (Lanzhou) HM016751 | [ 6] $0.000 .030 .000 .000 .00-$ |
| B. peregrina (Jishou) HM016752 | [ 7] $0.000 .030 .000 .000 .000 .00-$ |
| B. peregrina (Changsha) HM016753 | [ 8] $0.030 .000 .030 .030 .030 .030 .03-$ |
| B. peregrina (Shijiazhuang) GU270079 | [ 9] $0.000 .030 .000 .000 .000 .000 .000 .03-$ |
| B. peregrina (Xiangxiang) GU270087 | [10] $0.030 .000 .030 .030 .030 .030 .030 .000 .03-$ |
| B. peregrina (Nanning) HM016754 | [11] $0.030 .000 .030 .030 .030 .030 .030 .000 .030 .00-$ |
| P. albiceps (Shijiazhuang) HM016755 | [12] $0.090 .070 .090 .090 .090 .090 .090 .070 .090 .090 .07-$ |
| P. albiceps (Hohhot) HM016756 | [13] $0.090 .070 .090 .090 .090 .090 .090 .070 .090 .090 .070 .00-$ |
| P. albiceps (Wanning) HM016757 | [14] $0.090 .070 .090 .090 .090 .090 .090 .070 .090 .090 .070 .000 .00-$ |
| P. albiceps (Hohhot) HM016758 | [15] $0.090 .070 .090 .090 .090 .090 .090 .070 .090 .090 .070 .000 .000 .00-$ |
| P. albiceps (Datong) GU270084 | [16] $0.060 .040 .060 .060 .060 .060 .060 .040 .060 .040 .040 .030 .030 .030 .03-$ |
| P. albiceps (Zhangjiajie) HM016759 | [17] $0.060 .040 .060 .060 .060 .060 .060 .040 .060 .040 .040 .030 .030 .030 .030 .00-$ |
| P. dux (Wanning) HM016760 | [18] $0.070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .060 .060 .060 .060 .050 .05-$ |
| P. dux (Yongzhou) HM016761 | [19] $0.070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .060 .060 .060 .060 .050 .00-$ |
| P. dux (Changsha) HM016762 | [20] $0.070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .060 .060 .060 .060 .050 .000 .00-$ |
| P. dux (Yongzhou) HM016763 | [21] $0.070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .060 .060 .060 .060 .050 .000 .000 .00-$ |
| P. dux (Wanning) HM016764 | [22] $0.070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .070 .060 .060 .060 .060 .050 .000 .000 .000 .00-$ |

Table 3. Maximum, minimum and mean intraspecific variation of $B$. peregrina, P. albiceps, and P.dux expressed as a percentage of the total of 189base pairs of COII data

| Species | Numbers | Max (\%) | Min (\%) | Mean (\%) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S. peregrina | 11 | 3 | 0 | 1 |
| S. albiceps | 6 | 3 | 0 | 1 |
| S. $d u x$ | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |



Figure 3. Single most parsimonious phylogram of B. peregrina, P. albiceps, and $P$. dux (heuristic search with 500 random step-wise additions) based on a 189 bp region of the COII gene. Numbers on branches indicate the support value. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The bar indicates 0.01 substitutions per site
for basic biological studies of these sarcophagid flies. Although some samples were clustered as a clade with weak supporting value, the three species groups of Sarcophagidae were ultimately diagnosed and delimited. From the bootstrap support for each group and the level of nucleotide divergence between groups, it is thus evident that these gene sequences have potential for identification of sarcophagid flies.

Phylogenetic analysis was performed to examine the ability of the region to resolve species identities and taxonomic relationships between species (Harvey, 2003b). The monophyletic separation and support for the congeneric groupings and sub-familial arrangements in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 2) basically agreed with the classical morphological-based phylogeny and again affirmed the ability of the 189 bp COII region in interspecific distinction. The three species groups of Sarcophagidae were separated and most of the bootstrap values were over $95 \%$. However, one P. albiceps sample from Datong (GU270084) and one from Zhangjiajie (HM016759) were clustered as a clade with weak supporting value. Low levels of variation between some species indicate that sarcophagid flies from more locations should be studied in the future.

Table 2 and Table 3 show the intraspecific variation analysis. The pairwise divergence from COII revealed interspecific and intraspecific divergences that could be useful for species identification. The maximum mean intraspecific variability for all specimens was $5 \%$, while the minimum interspecific variability was $6 \%$, this difference between the thresholds levels indicates that is possible to distinguish between $B$. peregrina, P. albiceps, and P. dux in China. According to the strong bootstrap support for $P$. dux samples, both the mean and maximum intraspecific variation of $P . d u x$ was $0 \%$, which makes partial sequences of this COII gene sequence in particular suitable for distinguishing $P$. dux from other sarcophagid species.

Species identication of Sarcophagidae by molecular methods has the advantage of speed and simplicity, because the stage, preservation and sex of the samples can be ignored. For exploring better species identification, different single mtDNA fragment should be sequenced and studied. Some entomologists recommended combined analysis of different mtDNA fragments for Diptera species identication (Amendt et al., 2004). The combined analysis of COI and COII fragments is a more accurate approach for Diptera species identication than single mtDNA fragment analysis (Wallman, et al., 2001; Alessandrini et al., 2007). However, before the combined analysis was carried out, the superiority and limitation of single fragment of mtDNA should be researched. To the best of our knowledge, there are no previous reports on the COII sequences of B. peregrina, P. albiceps, and $P$. dux from China. The COII sequences of three species analyzed in this study were different from each other, indicating that species identication by COII sequences was possible. However, the sarcophagid family is a part of a larger taxonomic group, and seven species are considered to be forensiclly important in China, including $B$. peregrina, P. albiceps, and P.dux (Min, 1999). Further investigation of the sarcophagid species found on the remains and their molecular biological features are required in order to accumulate forensic entomological evidence.

Although entomology is used in a variety of forensic cases in some countries, its potential has not yet been realized in China. One of the limiting factors is that the longitude and latitude span of China is so large that the climate condition and geographical environment of different provinces exhibits great diversity. Consequently, those forensically-important species that have a widespread distribution could potentially have marked phenotypic differences between populations - and this could compromise their identification by molecular methods. Consequently, local databases are strongly recommended.

This study indicated that the partial COII region has sufficient discrimination power for Sarcophagidae identification. Future work with more Sarcophagidae family species from different provinces of China could indicate the examination of more variable mitochondrial genes, and then improve the molecular method for identification of forensically important sarcophagid species. The distribution and succession of sarcophagid flies from other parts of China should be studied and local database set up are strongly recommended in China.

Acknowledgements. This study was funded by National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC, No. 30672354) and National university student innovation test plan (NMOE, YC10107, YC10117, YC09139). We thank Prof. SONG Dong-Bao and Dr HUANG Guo-Hua (Plant Protection Department, College of Bio-safety Science and Technology, Hunan Agricultural University) for identifications of insects and Prof. WU Kun-Lu (School of Biological Science and Technology, Central South University) for designing the PCR primers.

## REFERENCES

Alessandrini, F., Mazzanti, M., Onofri, V., Turchi, C. \& Tagliabracci, A. (2007). MtDNA analysis for genetic identication of forensically important insects. Forensic Science International Genetics 1: 584-585.
Altschul, S., Madden, T., Schaffer, A., Zhang, J., Zhang, Z., Miller, W. \& Lipman, D.J. (1976). Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. Nucleic Acids Research 25(17): 3389-3402.
Amendt, J., Krettek, R., Zehner, R., Amendt, J., Krettek, R. \& Zehner, R. (2004). Forensic entomology. Naturwissenschaften 91: 51-65.
Arnaldos, M., Romera, E., Presa, J., Luna, M.A. \& Garca. (2004). Studies on seasonal arthropod succession on carrion in the southeastern Iberian

Peninsula. International Journal of Legal Medicine 118: 197-205.
Aspoas, B.R. (1991). Comparative micromorphology of third instar larvae and the breeding biology of some Afrotropical Sarcophaga (Diptera: Sarcophagidae). Medical and Veterinary Entomology 5: 437-445.
Benecke, M. (1998). Six forensic entomology cases: description and commentary. Journal of Forensic Science 43: 797-805.
Byrd, J.H. \& Castner, J.L. (2001). Insects of forensic importance. CRC, Boca Raton.
Denno, R.F. \& Cothran, W.R. (1976). Competitive interactions and ecological strategies of sarcophagid and calliphorid flies inhabiting rabbit carrion. Annals of the Entomological Society of America 69: 109-113.
Fan, Z.D. \& Pape, T. (1996). Checklist of Sarcophagidae (Diptera) recorded from China. Studia Dipterologica 3: 237258.

Felsenstein, J. (1985). Confidence limits on phylogenies: An approach using the bootstrap. Evolution 39: 783-791.
Harvey, M.L., Gaudieri, S., Villet, M.H. \& Dadour, I.R. (2008). A global study of forensically significant calliphorids: implications for identification. Forensic Science International 177: 66-76.
Harvey, M.L., Dadour, I.R. \& Gaudieri, S. (2003a). Mitochondrial DNA cytochrome oxidase I gene: potential for distinction between immature stages of some forensically important fly species (Diptera) in western Australia. Forensic Science International 131: 134-139.
Harvey, M.L., Mansel, M.W.L. \& Villet, M.H. (2003b). Molecular identification of some forensically important blowflies of southern Africa and Australia. Medical and Veterinary Entomology 17: 363-369.
Introna, F.J., Campobasso, C.P. \& Di, F.A. (1998). Three case studies in forensic entomology from southern Italy. Journal of Forensic Science 43: 210214.

Kamal, A.S. (1958). Comparative study of thirteen species of sarcosaprophagous Calliphoridae and Sarcophagidae (Diptera). Annals of the Entomological Society of America 51: 261-271.
Kiyoshi, S., Masatoshi, M., Yoichi, Y., Masataka, T. \& Yasuhiro, A. (2009). Practical applications of molecular biological species identication of forensically important ies. Legal Medicine S344-S347.
Kiyoshi, S., Masataka, T. \& Yasuhiro A. (2005). Species identication of the forensically important ies in Iwate prefecture, Japan based on mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase gene subunit I (COI) sequences. Legal Medicine 7: 175-178.
Machida, R.J., Miya, M.U., Nishida, M. \& Nishida, S. (2004). Large-scale gene rearrangements in the mitochondrial genomes of two calanoid copepods Eucalanus bungii and Neocalanus cristatus (Crustacea), with notes on new versatile primers for the srRNA and COI genes. Gene 332: 71-78.
Meiklejohn, K.A., Wallman, J.F. \& Dowton, M. (2009). DNA-based identification of forensically important Australian Sarcophagidae (Diptera). International Journal of Legal MedicineDOI 10.1007/s00414-009-0395-y.

Min, J.X. (1999). Study of forensiclly important saprophagous muscoid flies. Advances and Practices in Forensic Medicine 2: 38-45.
Pape, T. (1996). Catalogue of the Sarcophagidae of the world (Insecta: Diptera). Associated Publishers, Gainesville.
Pe'rez-Moreno, S., Marcos-Garcl'a, M.A. \& Rojo, S. (2006). Comparative morphology of early stages of two Mediterran Sarcophaga Meigen, 1826 (Diptera; Sarcophagidae) and a review of the feeding habits of Palaearctic species. Micron 37: 169-179.
Saitou, N. \& Nei, M. (1987). The neighborjoining method: A new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. Molecular Biology and Evolution 4: 406-425.

Skevington, J.H. \& Yeates, D.K. (2000). Phylogeny of the Syrphoidea (Diptera) inferred from mtDNA sequences and morphology with particular reference to classication of the Pipunculidae (Diptera). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 16(2): 212-224.
Tamura, K., Dudley, J., Nei, M. \& Kumar, S. (2007). MEGA4: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) software version 4.0. Molecular Biology and Evolution 24: 1596-1599.
Tamura, K., Nei, M. \& Kumar, S. (2004). Prospects for inferring very large phylogenies by using the neighborjoining method. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 101: 1103011035.

Wallman, J.F. \& Donnellan, S.C. (2001). The utility of mitochondrial DNA sequences for the identification of forensically important blowflies (Diptera: Calliphoridae) in southeastern Australia. Forensic Science International 120: 60-67.
Wells, J.D., Pape, T. \& Sperling, F.A.H. (2001). DNA-based identification and molecular systematics of forensically important sarcophagidae (Diptera). Journal of Forensic Science 46(5): 1098-1102.
Xu, W.Q., Zhao, J.M. (1996), (editors). Flies of China. Shenyang: Liaoning Science and technology press.
Ying, B.W., Liu, T.T., Fan, H., Wei, D., Wen, F.Q., Bai, P., Huang, J. \& Hou, Y. P. (2007). The application of mitochondrial DNA cytochrome oxidase II gene for the identification of forensically important blowflies in Western China. The America Journal of Forensic Medicine and Pathology 28: 308-313.
Zehner, R., Amendt, J., Schutt, S., Sauer, J., Krettek, R. \& Povolny, D. (2004). Genetic identification of forensically important flesh flies (Diptera: Sarcophagidae). International Journal of Legal Medicine 118: 245-247.

