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# Will the genomics revolution finally solve the *Salmo* systematics?

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1 **Will the genomics revolution finally solve the *Salmo* systematics?**

2

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13

14 **Abstract**

15           On one hand, studies on *Salmo* biological variations during the last centuries have led  
16 to the morphological description of several *Salmo* species (>50). On the other hand, *Salmo*  
17 *trutta* is seen as a polymorphic species, i.e. including populations with different morphotypes  
18 and ecotypes, subdivided into nine genetically divergent evolutionary lineages. For 30 years,  
19 phylogeographic and phylogenetic investigations tried to solve the *Salmo* systematic problem  
20 using the mitochondrial control region, sometimes combined with other mitochondrial (e.g.  
21 protein coding region or rRNA genes) or nuclear (e.g. allozymes or microsatellites) markers.  
22 With the advent of high throughput next-generation sequencing, complete mitogenomes  
23 were made available for *Salmo* phylogenetic studies. Even better, complete genome or  
24 chromosomes with annotations as well as genes of interest can now be loaded from public  
25 database. However, in the genomic era, some challenges still need to be addressed such as  
26 an appropriate taxon sampling or the identification of orthologous genes before having an  
27 accurate phylogeny. In the present review, I examine how traditional molecular markers  
28 contributed to our knowledge of trout systematics, and what we can expect from the  
29 genomics revolution.

30

31 **Keywords:** mitochondrial DNA, molecular phylogeny, next-generation sequencing  
32 technologies, nuclear DNA, *Salmo trutta*

33

## 34 Context

35 Salmonidae are the focus of much scientific attention, in particular the subfamily  
36 Salmoninae, with, at least, three species (*Onchorhynchus mykiss* (Walbaum, 1792), *Salmo*  
37 *salar* Linnaeus, 1758, and *Salmo trutta* Linnaeus, 1758) among the ten most studied fishes  
38 (Hutching, 2014; Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2019). Despite this attention, some issues remain,  
39 however, unresolved, such as *Salmo* systematics. Problems started nearly 300 years ago  
40 when Linnaeus first classified *Salmo trutta* under different common and Latin names  
41 (Linnaeus, 1758). Because of complex patterns of phenotypically distinct geographic forms  
42 and considerable life-history strategies (Bernatchez et al., 1992; Elliott, 1994; Kottelat &  
43 Freyhof, 2007; Sanz, 2018), studies of *Salmo* biological variations during the last centuries  
44 have led to the morphological description of several *Salmo* species (or morphospecies;  
45 Cronquist, 1978), from around 30 (Kottelat & Freyhof, 2007; IUCN, 2022) to more than 50  
46 (Behnke, 1986; Froese & Pauly, 2021) depending on the source. Molecular data have,  
47 however, refuted the validity of some species, such as *S. dentex* (Heckel, 1851) (Snoj et al.,  
48 2010) or *S. platycephalus* Behnke, 1968 (Sušnik et al., 2004), whereas they confirmed the  
49 reclassification of others in the genus *Salmo*, such as *S. obtusirostris* (Heckel, 1851) (Snoj et  
50 al., 2002) and *S. ohridanus* Steindachner, 1892 (Phillips et al., 2000; Sušnik et al., 2006).  
51 Indeed, most of the described (morpho)species have close phylogenetic relationships with *S.*  
52 *trutta*, and, for this reason, several taxonomic and phylogenetic studies consider *S. trutta* as  
53 a complex of species, except *S. salar*, *S. obtusirostris* and *S. ohridanus* (e.g. Patarnello et  
54 al., 1994; Lo Brutto et al., 2010; Vera et al., 2011; Meraner et al., 2013; Gratton et al., 2014;  
55 Tošić et al., 2014; Splendiani et al., 2017). On the other hand, *Salmo trutta* is also seen as a  
56 polymorphic species, i.e. including populations with different morphotypes and ecotypes,  
57 subdivided into several genetically divergent evolutionary lineages (Bernatchez et al., 1992;  
58 Bernatchez, 2001; Suárez et al., 2001; Sušnik et al., 2005; Bardakci et al., 2006; Vera et al.,  
59 2010; Snoj et al., 2011; Tougard et al., 2018). To avoid confusion, the term “trout” is here  
60 used to refer to both the *S. trutta* species complex and the evolutionary lineages.

61 There is no phylogenetic study based on morphological characters and including all  
62 *Salmo* species. Attempts of molecular phylogeny were restricted to a limited number of  
63 *Salmo* species, while relationships between *S. trutta* evolutionary lineages are not fully  
64 resolved (e.g. Bernatchez, 2001; Cortey et al., 2004; Pustovrh et al., 2014; Sanz, 2018;  
65 Tougard et al., 2018; Guinand et al., 2021; Hashemzadeh Segherloo et al., 2021). In all  
66 cases, *Salmo* is a monophyletic genus with *S. salar* as the first offshoot of this group (Crespi  
67 & Fulton, 2004; Crête-Lafrenière et al., 2012; Shedko et al., 2013; Horreo, 2017; Lecaudey et  
68 al., 2018). From the molecular dating, this genus originated during the Miocene, between 16  
69 and 10 Myr (Crête-Lafrenière et al., 2012; Shedko et al., 2013; Horreo, 2017; Lecaudey et

70 al., 2018). In most phylogenetic studies, *S. obtusirostris* is the sister species of *S. ohridanus*,  
71 except in Pustovrh et al. (2014) where *S. obtusirostris* was found to be the sister species of  
72 *S. trutta* and *S. marmoratus* Cuvier, 1829. The clade including *S. obtusirostris*, *S. ohridanus*  
73 and trout is dated back to the Pliocene, around 5-4 Myr (Crête-Lafrenière et al., 2012;  
74 Pustovrh et al., 2014; Lecaudey et al., 2018), while the trout age was estimated between 4  
75 and 0.40 Myr (Crête-Lafrenière et al., 2012; Pustovrh et al., 2014; Horreo, 2017; Lecaudey et  
76 al., 2018). This is more or less concordant with the fossil record since the oldest fossil  
77 remains of *Salmo*, found in Croatia, dated from the Middle or Upper Miocene (13 – 5.33 Myr;  
78 Gorjanović-Kramberger, 1891; Anđelković, 1989), and those of *S. trutta*, found in Caucasus,  
79 dated from the Pliocene (~ 2 Myr) (Vladimirov, 1946, 1948). Several hypotheses were  
80 proposed in trying to understand the trout evolutionary history during the Pleistocene, and  
81 how it was impacted by the Quaternary climatic changes (e.g. Hamilton et al., 1989; García-  
82 Marín et al., 1999; Sanz et al., 2000; Bernatchez, 2001; Antunes et al., 2002; Cortey et al.,  
83 2004; McKeown et al., 2010; Snoj et al., 2011; Splendiani et al., 2016). However, since  
84 phylogenetic relationships between evolutionary lineages are poorly resolved, and no  
85 phylogeny includes all *Salmo* species, this history can only be partial at best.

86 Paradoxically, *S. trutta*, considered as one of the world's invasive species in countries  
87 (at least 24) where it was introduced, is imperiled in much of its native distribution, i.e. in  
88 Eurasia and North Africa (Budy et al., 2013; Elliott, 2018). Among the 36 *Salmo* species  
89 listed in the International Union for Conservation of Nature, 18 are threatened or  
90 endangered, and one (*S. pallaryi* Pellegrin, 1924) considered extinct (Crivelli, 2006; IUCN  
91 2022). Trout provides recreation and food to million of people and plays important roles in  
92 ecosystem functioning, but it is extremely sensitive to habitat disturbances induced by human  
93 activities (e.g. overfishing, pollution, dams, deforestation, agriculture, grazing, and mining)  
94 and climate change (Muhlfeld et al., 2018). Native trout diversity is also threatened by the  
95 massive stocking of domesticated strains that facilitates the spread of pathogens and  
96 parasites. By hybridization of native populations with specimens from hatcheries, stocking  
97 erodes genetic diversity or eliminates original local adaptations (García-Marín et al., 1998;  
98 Lobón-Cerviá, 2018). Even if the genetic diversity of *Salmo* populations is relatively well  
99 understand, notably at the intra-basin level, concrete conservation strategies should take into  
100 account practices that do not erode and/or modify this natural diversity. Efforts to protect  
101 native trout morphological, ecological and genetic diversity should rely on appropriate local  
102 and/or global conservation and management strategies, and systematics is essential to  
103 biodiversity conservation by helping to set conservation priorities (Wheeler, 2001). However,  
104 what must be done in the case of a messy systematics as in the trout case?

105 Indeed, systematics discrepancies hamper our understanding of trout evolutionary  
106 history, and impede the development of appropriate strategies to protect natural diversity of

107 native trout (Bernatchez et al., 1992; Antunes et al., 2001; Fumagalli et al., 2002; Snoj et al.,  
108 2010; Crête-Lafrenière et al., 2012; Gratton et al., 2013; Ninua et al., 2018; Hashemzadeh  
109 Segherloo et al., 2021). Trout systematics thus needs urgently revision/clarification. This  
110 systematics was mostly investigated from a genetic standpoint, and the use of genetics in  
111 trout systematics has a long history (Fig. 1). In the present review, I examine how traditional  
112 molecular markers, and notably mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), contributed to our knowledge  
113 of trout systematics, and what we can expect from the genomics revolution.

114

### 115 **PAST: mitochondrial DNA rise**

116       Until the end of the 1980s, genetic discrimination of trout relied mostly on protein  
117 electrophoretic (allozyme) analyses (e.g. Ryman & Ståhl, 1980; Ferguson & Mason, 1981;  
118 Vuorinen & Piironen, 1984; Guyomard & Krieg, 1986; Skaala & Nævdal, 1989). First  
119 investigations on trout systematics were performed with these markers, and refuted the  
120 classification of Greek trout populations into five subspecies (Karakoukis & Triantaphyllidis,  
121 1990). Despite their usefulness in the delineation of genetically distinct salmonid populations,  
122 allozymes displayed a limited ability to identify existing genetic diversity by detecting only a  
123 part of amino acid substitutions and examining only coding regions of the genome (Hynes et  
124 al., 1989). Genetic diversity was thus studied in a population genetics context (genetic  
125 similarities between populations) rather than in a phylogenetic view (relationships among or  
126 within species with inference of their evolutionary history).

127       By the early 1990s, two molecular markers were proposed as new diagnostic markers  
128 to genetically differentiate salmonid species and populations: the eye-specific lactate  
129 dehydrogenase *Ldh-5* nuclear locus (Hamilton et al., 1989), and the mitochondrial DNA  
130 (Hynes et al., 1989). The *Ldh-5* locus, now called *LDH-C1\** locus, is polymorphic for two co-  
131 dominant alleles, *Ldh-5 (100)* or *LDH-C1\*100* and *Ldh5 (90)* or *LDH-C1\*90*. The “100” or  
132 “ancestral” allele is present in several species of Salmonidae including southern European  
133 trout populations, while the “90” or “modern” allele is fixed for north-western European and  
134 hatchery trout populations (Hamilton et al., 1989). Initially proposed to differentiate  
135 “ancestral” from “modern” populations in phylogeographic studies, this marker is today  
136 mostly used to differentiate natural populations from domesticated Atlantic strains or to  
137 detect and characterize introgression patterns between these populations (Berrebi et al.,  
138 2019; Rossi et al., 2019; Splendiani et al., 2019; Vera et al., 2019; Kanjuh et al., 2020).  
139 Oleinik et al. (2017) also tested this locus as phylogenetic marker in a study including 11  
140 salmonid genera. If the genus *Salmo* was monophyletic, this locus failed to solve  
141 phylogenetic relationships between *S. obtusirostris*, *S. ohridanus* and *S. trutta*. Indeed, the  
142 most used molecular marker to date in trout phylogeographic and phylogenetic studies (116  
143 out of 137; Table S1) is mtDNA (Fig. 1). Compared to nuclear DNA (nucDNA), mtDNA is a

144 fast evolving and easy-to-isolate genome with a small size, simple constitution, and  
145 uniparental inheritance avoiding recombination and allowing matrilineal phylogeny inferences  
146 and molecular dating (Hynes et al., 1989; Meyer, 1993). Comparison of mtDNA variations  
147 can be realised by restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analyses of  
148 mitochondrial fragments and/or by nucleotide sequences of mitochondrial partial or complete  
149 genes (e.g. Hansen & Loeschcke, 1996; Osinov & Bernatchez, 1996; Machordom et al.,  
150 2000; Weiss et al., 2000; Aurelle & Berrebi, 2001; Bernatchez, 2001; Sell & Spirkovski, 2004;  
151 Bardakci et al., 2006; Splendiani et al., 2006; Apostolidis et al., 2008; Cortey et al., 2009;  
152 Griffiths et al., 2009; McKeown et al., 2010; Schenekar et al., 2014).

153 Craze for mitochondrial markers, and especially the control region (CR), is particularly  
154 linked to a study focused on the phylogeography of European *S. trutta* populations  
155 (Bernatchez et al., 1992). Based on two CR fragments (310+330 base pairs, bp), this study  
156 was the first assessment of phylogenetic relationships between widely remote European  
157 populations (151 individuals from 24 populations). Identified haplotypes were distributed in  
158 five major mitochondrial evolutionary lineages: Adriatic (AD), Atlantic (AT), Danubian (DA),  
159 *marmoratus* or Marble (MA) and Mediterranean (ME) (see Fig. 2 for their distribution). These  
160 genetic lineages were not congruent with ecological and morphological differentiation  
161 (Bernatchez et al., 1992). These preliminary results were later confirmed by Bernatchez  
162 (2001) in a study based on 1794 individuals from 174 populations. Bernatchez (2001)  
163 suggested that both Pleistocene glaciations and biological factors impacted the distribution of  
164 these major lineages as well as trout population structure. Since then, others evolutionary  
165 lineages, with a more restricted distribution (Fig. 2), were highlighted: the Duero lineage (DU)  
166 endemic of the north-western Iberian Peninsula (Cortey et al., 2009; Vera et al., 2010, 2015);  
167 the Tigris lineage (TI) endemic of the Çatak river in Turkey (Sušnik et al., 2005; Bardakci et  
168 al., 2006); the Dades lineage endemic of the Drâa basin in Morocco (Snoj et al., 2011); the  
169 North-African lineage (NA) found in Morocco, Algeria, Sicily and maybe in Spain (Tougard et  
170 al., 2018; Splendiani et al., 2019). Mitochondrial DNA was also a valuable marker to estimate  
171 past trout genetic diversity from museum samples (Giuffra et al., 1994; Lahnsteiner &  
172 Jagsch, 2005; Splendiani et al., 2017) or even archeological remains (Splendiani et al.,  
173 2016), notably because nucleic acids degrade over time, and mtDNA is available in much  
174 higher copy numbers per cell compared with single-copy nucDNA (Höss, 2000; Wandeler et  
175 al., 2003).

176 The mitochondrial control region is thus considered as a reference to identify trout  
177 lineages or species (Table S2). However, this highly variable marker does not allow, alone,  
178 to get resolved trout phylogenetic relationships. Other mitochondrial markers, such as protein  
179 coding (cytochrome *b*, or cytochrome *c* oxidase, ATPase and NADH dehydrogenase  
180 subunits) and/or rRNA (12S and 16S) genes, have been proposed as alternatives (e.g.

181 Giuffra et al., 1994; Patarnello et al., 1994; Machordom et al., 2000; Dudu et al., 2010; Lo  
182 Brutto et al., 2010; Dudu et al., 2011; Crête-Lafrenière et al., 2012; Shedko et al., 2013;  
183 Rezaei, 2015; Turan et al., 2020). Some phylogenetic studies have involved also nucDNA  
184 such as allozymes (e.g. Bernatchez & Osinov, 1995; Riffel et al., 1995; Apostolidis et al.,  
185 1996; Antunes et al., 1999; Bouza et al., 2001; Cagigas et al., 2002), microsatellites (e.g.  
186 Sušnik et al., 2007; Snoj et al., 2011; Kohout et al., 2013; Gratton et al., 2014; Marić et al.,  
187 2017) or nuclear genes (e.g. *transferin* in Antunes et al., 2002; internal transcribed spacer 1  
188 or ITS1 in Presa et al., 2002; Turan et al., 2009; Vera et al., 2011; C intron of growth  
189 hormone 2 or GH2C in Razpet et al., 2007; somatolactin in Snoj et al., 2010; recombination  
190 activating gene 1 or RAG1 in Shedko et al., 2012). For both mitochondrial and nuclear  
191 alternatives, few studies were, however, fully freed from the CR reference. Even the genomic  
192 study of Hashemzadeh Segherloo et al. (2021) based on 15,169 single nucleotide  
193 polymorphisms markers (SNPs) includes CR sequences. Recently, Pustovrh et al. (2011a,  
194 2014) and Snoj et al. (2021) performed phylogenetic analyses based exclusively on nuclear  
195 loci. These studies contradicted mtDNA observations. Among the 7000 to 8000 bp of the  
196 final alignments, few variations are, however, informative sites (70, 196 and 286,  
197 respectively), and this low number of information could provide insufficient phylogenetic  
198 signal, and thus false phylogenetic inference (Philippe & Douzery, 1994; Wiens, 2003;  
199 Phillippe et al., 2004) as suggested, for instance, by the lack of resolution at several nodes of  
200 the trees and the trichotomy linking *S. obtusirostris*, *S. marmoratus* and *S. trutta* in Pustovrh  
201 et al. (2011a, 2014).

202 Over the years, molecular diagnostic protocols were designed to allow rapid trout  
203 identification, either from SNPs (CR SNPs in Apostolidis et al., 2007; nucDNA SNPs in  
204 Pustovrh et al., 2011b; Casanova et al., 2022) or pyrosequencing assay (Keller et al., 2010).  
205 Both approaches did not receive, however, the expected success. As illustrated by the  
206 numerous references cited above, genetic trout identification is mostly done through mtDNA  
207 or nucDNA sequences, and the combination or concatenation of these markers provided  
208 better inferences on trout systematics as in the following examples: inclusion of  
209 *Acantholingua ohridana* (cytochrome *b*, ITS1 and GH2C sequences; Phillips et al., 2000) and  
210 *Salmothymus obtusirostris* (CR, cytochrome *b* and *LDH-C1\** sequences; Snoj et al., 2002) in  
211 the genus *Salmo* (*S. ohridanus* and *S. obtusirostris*, respectively); reclassification of *Salmo*  
212 (*Platysalmo*) *platycephalus* in a lower taxonomic category (CR, cytochrome *b* and ITS1  
213 sequences; Sušnik et al., 2004).

214 With the advent of high throughput next-generation sequencing (NGS), complete  
215 mitochondrial genomes (or mitogenomes) were made available for *Salmo* phylogenetic  
216 studies (Horreo, 2017). Compared to *S. salar* (Hurst et al., 1999), it is very recently that first  
217 *S. trutta* mitogenomes were published. One (KT634053) was obtained in a more classical



218 way with amplification by PCR and Sanger sequencing of overlapping mtDNA fragments (Li  
219 et al., 2016), while the other (KT633607) was obtained through shotgun libraries subjected to  
220 Illumina Miseq sequencing (Sahoo et al., 2016). Since then, mitogenomes were produced for  
221 several trouts (*S. macrostigma* (Duméril, 1858), *S. ischchan* Kessler, 1877, *S. trutta fario*  
222 Linnaeus, 1858 and *S. trutta caspius* Kessler, 1877) from modern (Rezaei & Akhshabi, 2017;  
223 Rezaei et al., 2017) or museum (Levin et al., 2018, 2022; Nedoluzhko et al., 2018a, 2018b;  
224 Tougard et al., 2018) samples. More than any other technology, NGS has also made  
225 thousand of loci and SNPs available through the whole trout genome. For instance,  
226 Restriction-site Associated DNA sequencing markers (RADseq) or double digest RADseq  
227 (ddRADseq) were recently used to screen for genetic variations in Atlantic and  
228 Mediterranean populations (Leitwein et al., 2016, 2018; Saint-Pé et al., 2019), while RADseq  
229 and Genotyping-by-Sequencing methods were recently used to investigate phylogenetic  
230 relationships among Salmoninae and some *Salmo* species, respectively (Lecaudey et al.,  
231 2018; Hashemzadeh Segherloo et al., 2021).

232

### 233 **PRESENT: new hope through next-generation sequencing**

234 Despite 30 years of trout phylogeographic and phylogenetic investigations, no  
235 consensus was found between morphological and genetic approaches about trout  
236 systematics. In fact, no molecular phylogeny has yet included specimens from all trout  
237 (morpho)species and/or covering the whole geographic distribution of *S. trutta* evolutionary  
238 lineages. Some studies underlined, however, relationships between one of the nine trout  
239 lineages from CR - sometimes combined with other mtDNA or nucDNA markers - with some  
240 trout (morpho)species (e.g. Lo Brutto et al., 2010; Kalayci et al., 2018; Tougard et al., 2018;  
241 Hashemzadeh Segherloo et al., 2021; Table S2). Moreover, it should be noted that higher  
242 morphological diversity is associated to southern lineages compared to the AT lineage, but  
243 this diversity is not congruent with genetic diversity known for each evolutionary lineage. The  
244 AT and DA lineages have an extended distribution (Fig. 2) associated to a higher haplotype  
245 diversity (Sanz, 2018) compared to the AD, Dades, DU, MA, ME, TI and NA lineages. This  
246 unequally distributed diversity could be one of the reasons why phylogenetic relationships  
247 between lineages remain poorly solved. However, it seems more likely that currently used  
248 mtDNA (control region or cytochrome *b*) and/or nucDNA markers are not sufficiently  
249 informative. Informative sites in these markers represent a weak proportion of the genetic  
250 variation, compared, for instance, to the whole mitochondrial genome (Fig. 3).

251 As already mentioned, NGS technologies are promising to study trout phylogeny.  
252 Through these technologies, the whole annotated genome of *Salmo trutta* was recently made  
253 available from the National Center for Biotechnology Information  
254 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/31807>). Complete genome or chromosomes with

255 annotations as well as genes of interest can now be loaded, and used to identify more  
256 appropriate markers (e.g. Sass et al., 2016; Hughes et al., 2018; Cloutier et al., 2019;  
257 Hansen et al., 2021) to get an accurate trout phylogeny, and to understand morphological  
258 character evolution such as colour pattern, a key character in trout description and  
259 identification.

260

### 261 **FUTURE: challenges to face**

262 Without clear phylogenetic consensus, it is unrealistic to draw conclusions on the  
263 trout evolutionary history. It seems that genomics methods can provide qualitatively and  
264 quantitatively new types of information that cannot be achieved using traditional methods,  
265 and our ability to reconstruct evolutionary histories from (phylo)genomic analyses will thus  
266 help us to define conservation units. However, if technical processes of NGS technologies  
267 are increasingly better mastered, practical and analytical issues remain challenging such as  
268 taxon sampling, identification of orthologous genes, bioinformatics, and data storage.

269 Sampling choice is a crucial step in phylogenetic studies. First, stocking programs  
270 may conceal *Salmo* natural genetic patterns. In Morocco, for instance, *Salmo* populations  
271 with higher levels of genetic diversity were those affected by stocking programs (Perea et al.,  
272 2020). Then, it may lead to contradictory evolutionary assumptions as in the studies of  
273 Doadrio et al. (2015) and Tougard et al. (2018) focused on Moroccan populations. In Doadrio  
274 et al. (2015), specimens only from Moroccan populations were taken into account, and no  
275 type specimen was included in the molecular dataset, while Tougard et al. (2018) included in  
276 their molecular dataset sequences from Doadrio et al. (2015) and specimens belonging to  
277 the nine evolutionary lineages, valid species (*S. ohridanus* and *S. obtusirostris*), as well as  
278 one syntype of *S. macrostigma*. Conclusions of both studies were not congruent: Doadrio et  
279 al. (2015) considered populations of the Lake Isli and the Drâa basin as distinct species (*S.*  
280 *viridis* Doadrio et al., 2015 and *S. multipunctata* Doadrio et al., 2015, respectively); Tougard  
281 et al. (2018) identified a new evolutionary lineage (NA) including specimens from Algeria  
282 (notably *S. macrostigma* syntype), Sicily and all Moroccan populations, except the Drâa  
283 basin population that was already considered a different lineage (Dades) by Snoj et al.  
284 (2011). Therefore, in phylogenetic studies, especially those discussing specific status, and  
285 for more relevant comparisons, it would be recommended to include, in the molecular  
286 dataset, sequences of specimens from the evolutionary lineages, some genetically valid  
287 species such as *S. obtusirostris* and *S. ohridanus* and/or type specimens (e.g. holotype,  
288 syntype, lectotype) to check the taxa validity, and thus to strengthen phylogenetic and/or  
289 systematic inferences.

290 A diversity of NGS technologies exists to produce data suitable for phylogenomic  
291 studies (e.g. Díaz-Arce et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2016; Hughes et al., 2018; Parhi et al.,

292 2019). One main question then arises: will it be possible to easily identify orthologous genes  
293 since the common ancestor of all Salmonidae experienced a whole genome duplication no  
294 later than 88 Myr, resulting in an autotetraploid genome (Moghadam et al., 2011; Alexandrou  
295 et al., 2013; Macqueen & Johnston, 2014)? Two recently released databases, PhyloFish  
296 database (<http://phylofish.sigenae.org/index.html>; Pasquier et al., 2016) and SalmoBase  
297 (<https://salmobase.org/>; Samy et al., 2017) constitute promising genomic tools for this  
298 challenging key task. The PhyloFish database is a resource offering the possibility to analyze  
299 gene expression after gene duplication for 23 ray-finned fish species, including six salmonids  
300 (*Thymallus thymallus* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Coregonus lavaretus* (Linnaeus, 1758), *C.*  
301 *clupeaformis* (Mitchill, 1818), *S. trutta*, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, *Salvelinus fontinalis* (Mitchill,  
302 1814)) (Pasquier et al., 2016), while SalmoBase is an online database to access, visualize  
303 and download genomic data of salmonids (*S. salar*, *S. trutta*, *O. mykiss*, *O. kisutch*  
304 (Walbaum, 1792), *Salvelinus alpinus* (Linnaeus, 1758)) (Samy et al., 2017). Guidelines for *de*  
305 *novo* or graph-based inference methods for orthologous gene identification were also  
306 proposed, and several pipelines are available for automating this procedure (see Kapli et al.,  
307 2020).

308 Phylogenomic reconstruction methods are of two kinds: methods based on whole-  
309 genome features (such as SNPs), and methods based on primary sequences (such as  
310 mitogenomes). First methods are, however, sensitive to hidden paralogy, horizontal gene  
311 transfer or tree reconstruction artifacts (Delsuc et al., 2005; Philippe et al., 2005). For these  
312 reasons, the second methods, having already a substantial methodological background, are  
313 thus currently preferred and recommended (Delsuc et al., 2005; Philippe et al., 2005; Kapli et  
314 al., 2020). These latter phylogenomic methods have, however, also their own sets of  
315 problems related to phylogenomic dataset construction and inference. Although NGS  
316 technologies have greatly improved sequence quality, they also led to the amplification of  
317 data errors that are manually intractable because of the amount of data generated (Philippe  
318 et al., 2017). Despite the development of numerous custom scripts, no consensus has yet  
319 been found regarding the quality controls that should be included in phylogenomic dataset  
320 construction (Philippe et al., 2017). A special care should be then brought to the data  
321 assembly to avoid frameshift errors (sequencing or annotation errors) for protein-coding  
322 genes, and/or contaminant sequences (commensals/symbionts, parasites, gut contents in  
323 animals, environmental sources or experimental errors) (Philippe et al., 2017; Kapli et al.,  
324 2020). Contaminants can be identified and excluded based on the GC content of sequences,  
325 read coverage and taxonomy of sequence similarity matches (Kapli et al., 2020). Data  
326 alignment is also a challenging task since alignment errors would hamper phylogenetic  
327 inferences. It is thus crucial to identify the homologous nucleotides or amino-acid residues at  
328 every position of the sequences (Philippe et al., 2017; Kapli et al., 2020). Alignment methods

329 can be classified into several categories, and for each category, a panel of softwares is  
330 available (for a review, see Philippe et al., 2017; Kapli et al., 2020). Lastly, the choice of  
331 phylogenetic reconstruction methods constitutes one of the most essential criteria to avoid  
332 phylogenomic result inconsistency. Character-based methods, and in particular the  
333 probabilistic maximum likelihood and Bayesian methods, are based on an explicitly  
334 evolutionary model of sequences (Delsuc et al., 2005; Kapli et al., 2020). The use of the  
335 most complex models will thus reduce the probability of inconsistency, except when  
336 sequences evolve heterogeneously and are not identically distributed (Kolaczowski &  
337 Thornton, 2004; Delsuc et al., 2005). Research on more realistic models of sequence  
338 evolution is a work-in-process (Delsuc et al., 2005; Philippe et al., 2017). Detailed guidelines  
339 and a phylogenomic pipeline recently proposed by Kapli et al. (2020) could easily be applied  
340 to trout phylogenomic studies.

341 Last but not least, the raw data generated, considered part of the “Big Data science”,  
342 and all steps from data assembly to phylogenetic inference need huge storage requirements  
343 (Giribet, 2015). Although some public databases allow to store raw data, assemblies or data  
344 matrices, satisfactory repositories are still lacking (Giribet, 2015). Moreover, these amounts  
345 of generated genomic data and the complexity in evolutionary models come at a high  
346 computational cost (Giribet, 2015). For instance, most heuristic searches with probabilistic  
347 methods will be nearly impossible with more than 200 species (Philippe et al., 2005). Faster  
348 and more efficient algorithms are thus required to overcome the current and upcoming size  
349 of phylogenomic datasets (Giribet, 2015).

350 Nevertheless, genomics, thanks to a much larger number of loci available, has  
351 increased our ability to evaluate the degree of genetic isolation of populations and to detect  
352 introgression in many species. For this reason, genomic data can play an important role in  
353 species delimitation under many species concepts (Rannala & Yang, 2020). In order to  
354 propose clear and objective definition of species, powerful methods, such as coalescent-  
355 based species delimitation (Fujita et al., 2012), were developed. Because species can show  
356 low genetic divergence but high divergence in other traits, the whole process of lineage  
357 diversification cannot be explained by these methods alone (Fujita et al., 2012, Cicero et al.,  
358 2021). Some authors advocate that studies aimed at delimiting species are best framed in a  
359 more integrative context, by taking into account, notably, morphological and ecological  
360 characters as well as life-history traits of taxa across their distribution and habitats (Fujita et  
361 al., 2012; Cicero et al., 2021). Indeed, when the taxa in question are of conservation  
362 concern, it is important to use multiple lines of evidence into taxonomic decision, even if this  
363 evidence can now, in theory, be provided by genomic data (for some examples, see Stanton  
364 et al., 2019). Trout systematics will thus benefit from a more integrative view of the  
365 taxonomy.

## 367 **Implications and prospective directions**

368 In conservation biology, taxa identification (taxonomy) and the understanding of their  
369 evolutionary relationships (systematics) is fundamental to design efficient biodiversity  
370 conservation priorities and management strategies (Allendorf, 2012). In taxonomy and  
371 systematics, the central and fundamental unit is the species. Therefore, conservation  
372 strategies have long been focused on species. In order to protect trout biodiversity, some  
373 authors suggested thus to maintain species names for some trout populations despite  
374 discrepancies between morphology and genetics. For instance, *S. letnica* (Karaman, 1924)  
375 populations of the Lake Ohrid in the Balkans represent a monophyletic group inside the AD  
376 lineage, whereas differences in morphology, intralacustrine distribution, ecology and the  
377 season of spawning were observed between populations (Sell & Spirkovski, 2004; Sušnik et  
378 al., 2007). In order to preserve the Lake Ohrid biodiversity, Sušnik et al. (2007)  
379 recommended, however, to keep the taxonomic epithet *S. letnica* for the endemic Ohrid trout.  
380 At a larger geographic scale, *S. marmoratus*, characterized by a marbled-colour pattern, is  
381 supposed to inhabit northern and southern parts of the Adriatic Sea drainage, and it is often  
382 associated to the mitochondrial MA lineage (Sanz, 2018). However, the marble-colour  
383 pattern was also found in some trouts from Norway (Skaala & Solberg, 1997), while MA  
384 haplotypes were identified in Central Italy as well as in French, Turkish or Greek populations  
385 (Fig. 2). These cases are just some examples among some others underlying the urgent  
386 need to revise the trout systematics in an integrative view. In this purpose, it will be crucial to  
387 consider all types of diversity (morphology, ecology, genetics, life-history traits, and so on),  
388 but also to choose appropriate morphological and genetic/genomic proxies, and taxon  
389 sampling (including type specimens) to describe a part of these diversities.

390 On the one hand, because species is a fundamental unit in conservation and, on the  
391 other hand, because less attention has been focused on the definition and delimitation of  
392 conservation units from intraspecific diversity, numerous known subspecies are elevated to  
393 the species rank for conservation purposes (Isaac et al., 2004; Berrebi et al., 2013; Zachos  
394 et al., 2013). Subspecies seem, however, also relevant in biodiversity conservation, with  
395 many taxa listed under the International Union for the Conservation of Nature Red List  
396 criteria (Gippoliti & Amori, 2007; Braby et al., 2012; IUCN, 2022), and recognized as a  
397 taxonomic unit by the International Code of Nomenclature (Article 5.2;  
398 <https://www.iczn.org/the-code/the-code-online/>; Braby et al., 2012). The utility of subspecies  
399 in taxonomy and conservation biology has been debated for decades, notably, because  
400 subspecies are not defined conceptually with objective criteria allowing their delimitation  
401 (Braby et al., 2012). Moreover, discrepancies exist, at the subspecies level, between  
402 molecular and phenotypic characters (Phillimore & Owens, 2006; Cicero et al., 2021). Other

403 intraspecific conservation units – e.g., the evolutionary significant units (ESU; Ryder, 1986;  
404 Waples, 1991; Dizon et al., 1992; Moritz, 1994; Crandall et al., 2000), the operational  
405 conservation units (OCU; Doadrio et al., 1996) or the management units (MU; Taylor &  
406 Dizon, 1999) - have been proposed. Several definitions exist to define an ESU, but the most  
407 popular one is that proposed by Moritz (1994): an ESU can be defined as populations that  
408 are monophyletic for mtDNA and showing significant divergence in nucDNA allele  
409 frequencies. An OCU is rather a continuous area limited by geographic boundaries, and  
410 inhabited by one or more populations sharing the same genetic pattern (Doadrio et al.,  
411 1996), while a MU is for populations of conspecific individuals among which the degree of  
412 connectivity is sufficiently low so that each population should be monitored and managed  
413 separately (Palsbøll et al., 2006). Some of these units were, in fact, already suggested to  
414 manage and conserve natural diversity of Iberian trout populations (Machordom et al., 2000;  
415 Almodóvar et al., 2006). Even if the definition of most of these conservation units relies on  
416 genetic/genomic data, other types of information (e.g. life history traits, habitat type,  
417 phenotype, gene flow pattern, genomic clusters) are proposed to define conservation units  
418 (Allendorf, 2012; Hashemzadeh Segherloo et al., 2021). In the near future, genomic  
419 approaches could be really appropriate to estimate the level of vulnerability of *Salmo* native  
420 populations as well as the extant of threats acting on them.

421 I cannot agree more with Kottelat & Freyhof (2007) when they say that, despite the  
422 innumerable studies on trout, this interest has resulted in very little data usable in the  
423 taxonomic framework, unfortunately still today. To cite Kottelat & Freyhof (2007), it is thus  
424 more than time that the “hordes” of geneticists and taxonomists studying trout start working  
425 together to better preserve natural diversity of trout in its native distribution. This will be  
426 probably allowed in a near future thanks to the combination of NGS technologies, a more  
427 integrative approach of the trout systematics and the appropriate definition of conservation  
428 units.

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- 918

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931

932 **Data availability**

933 Mitogenome sequences that support the findings of this study are openly available in  
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936

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940

941 **Ethics declarations**

942 **Conflict of interest**

943 There is no conflict of interest concerning the manuscript.

944

945 **Ethical approval**

946 New DNA sequences were obtained from DNA stored at – 20 °C or fin clips stored in ethanol  
947 96% and collected in the frame of previous studies. Therefore, no specific permissions were  
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949

950 **Figure legend**

951

952 **Fig. 1** Number of publications dealing with trout systematics found in public reference  
953 databases (Web of Sciences, Google Scholar, PubMed) in December 2021 using the words  
954 “*Salmo*” and “phylogeny”, “systematics” or “diversity”. A reference was considered when, at  
955 least, two *Salmo* species or *S. trutta* evolutionary lineages were included in the studied  
956 dataset, and phylogenetic relationships were represented by a tree or a network. The list of  
957 references considered is in Table S1. MtDNA, mitochondrial DNA; nucDNA, nuclear DNA;  
958 NGS, next-generation sequencing technologies.

959

960 **Fig. 2** Approximate native distribution of the nine *Salmo trutta* mitochondrial DNA  
961 evolutionary lineages based on references listed in Table S1.

962

963 **Fig. 3** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees reconstructed from the mitochondrial control  
964 region (A), the mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene (B), the concatenation of these two  
965 mitochondrial regions (C) and the complete mitogenome (D) using PhyML v3 (Guindon et al.,  
966 2010). Informative sites (IS) are indicated in brackets. Numbers at nodes are for bootstrap  
967 percentages (BP $\geq$ 50%). Black circles indicate nodes with BP = 100%. White circles are for  
968 node with BP < 50%. Acquisition of new molecular data was done according to Tougard et al.  
969 (2018). Sample list and information related to phylogenetic analyses are in Table S3. AD,  
970 Adriatic; AT, Atlantic. DA, Danubian; DU, Duero; MA, marble; ME, Mediterranean; NA, North  
971 African.

972

973 **Supplementary information**

974 **Table S1** Detailed list of references taken into account for Figures 1 and 2.

975

976 **Table S2** Relationships between evolutionary lineages and morphospecies based on genetic  
977 studies.

978

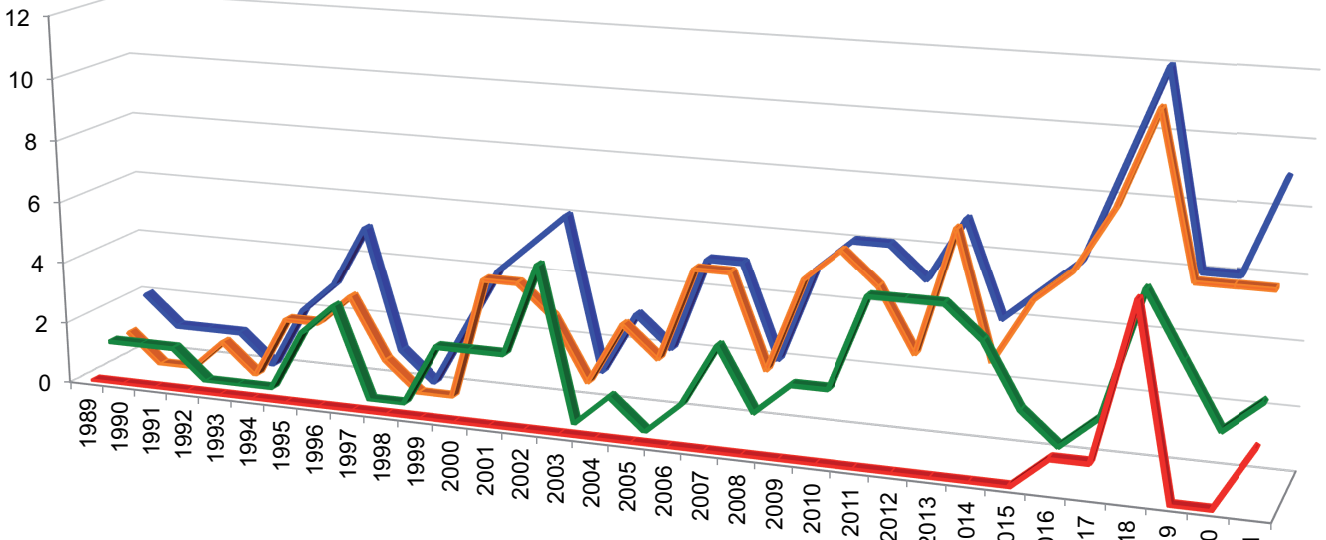
979 **Table S3** Details on models of sequence evolution and sampling (accession number, locality  
980 and reference) used for phylogenetic reconstruction with PhyML v3 (Guindon et al., 2010).

981

982

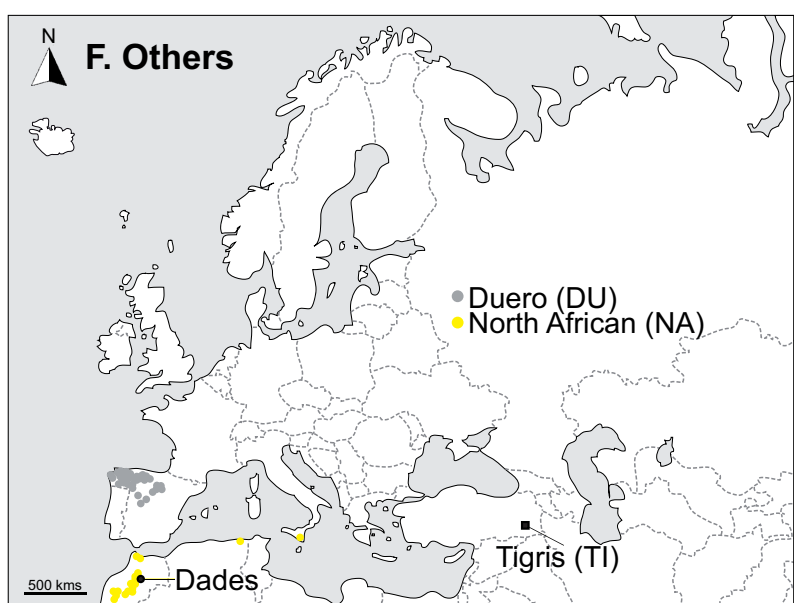
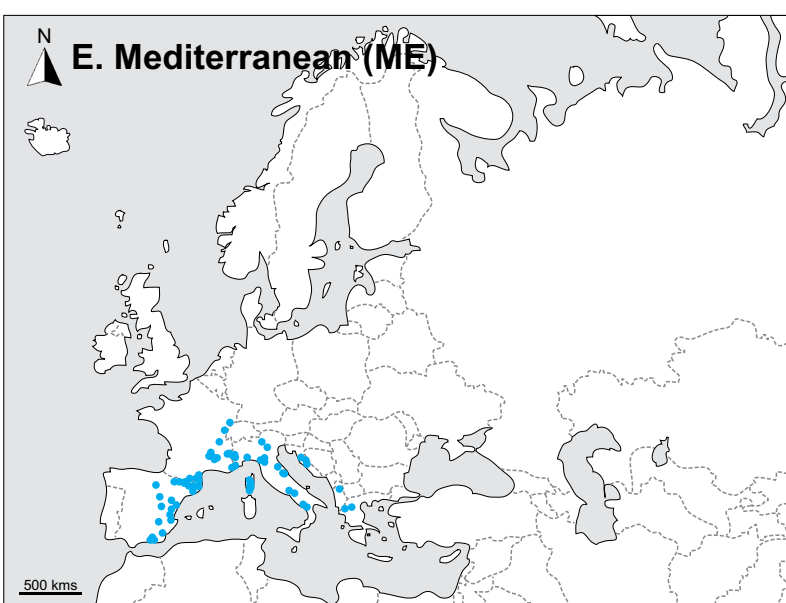
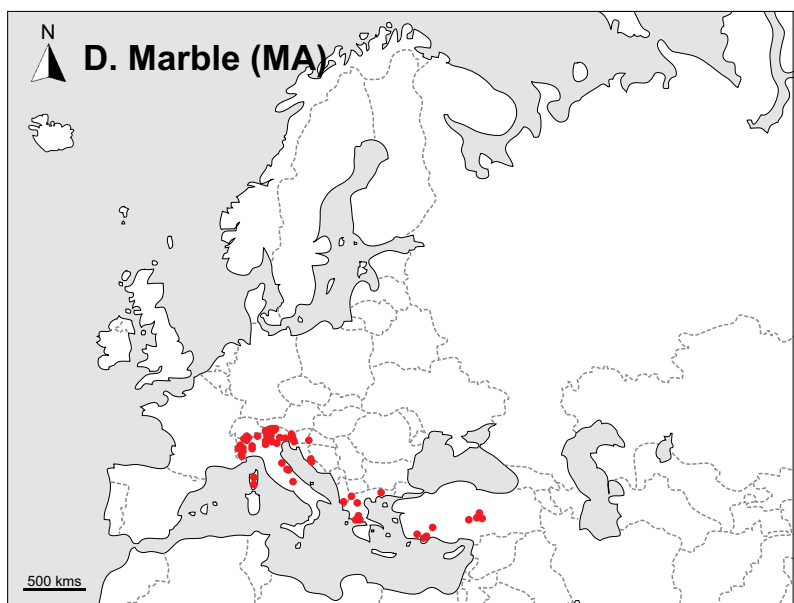
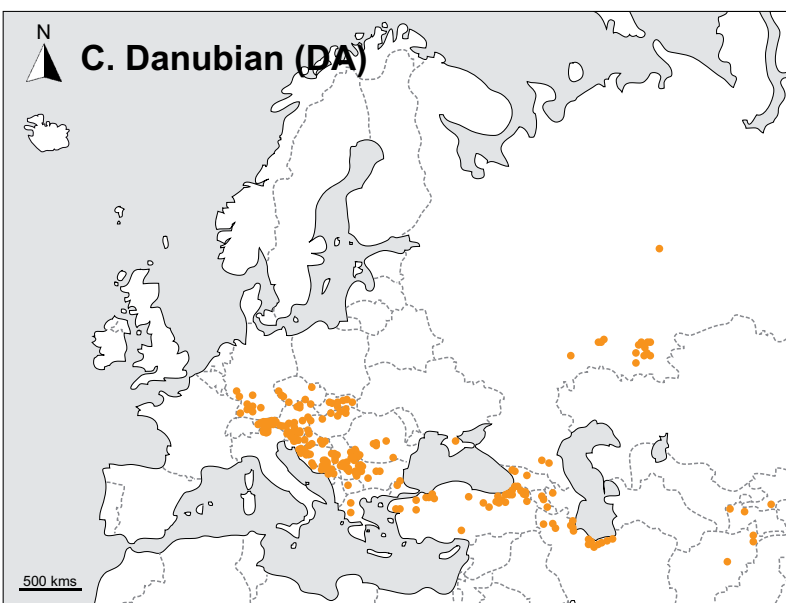
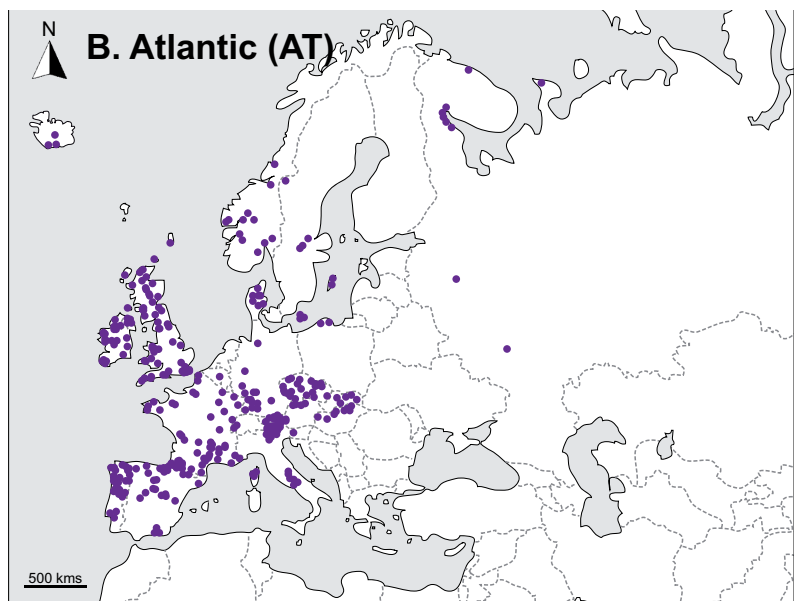
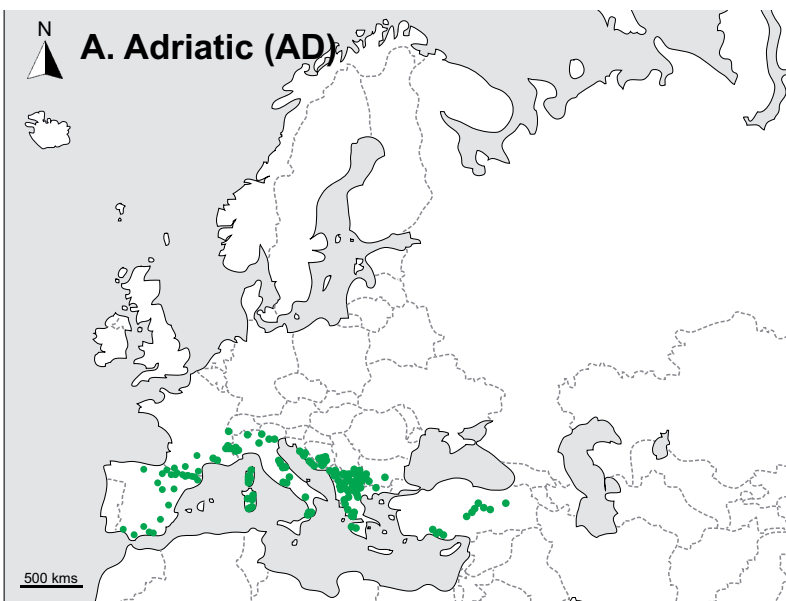
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Nb of publications

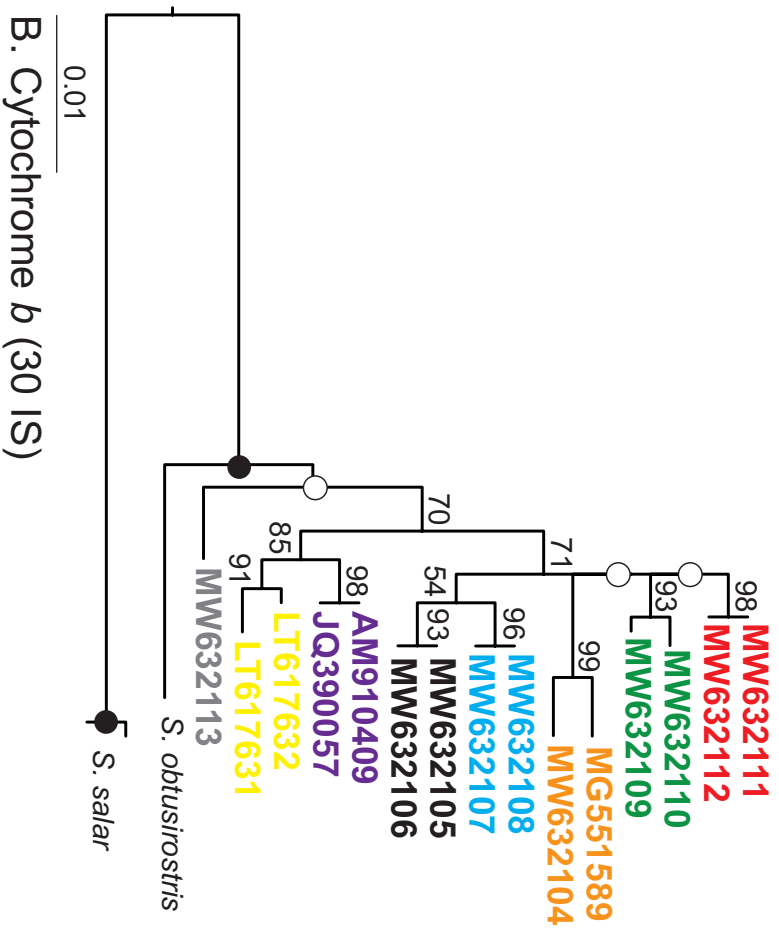
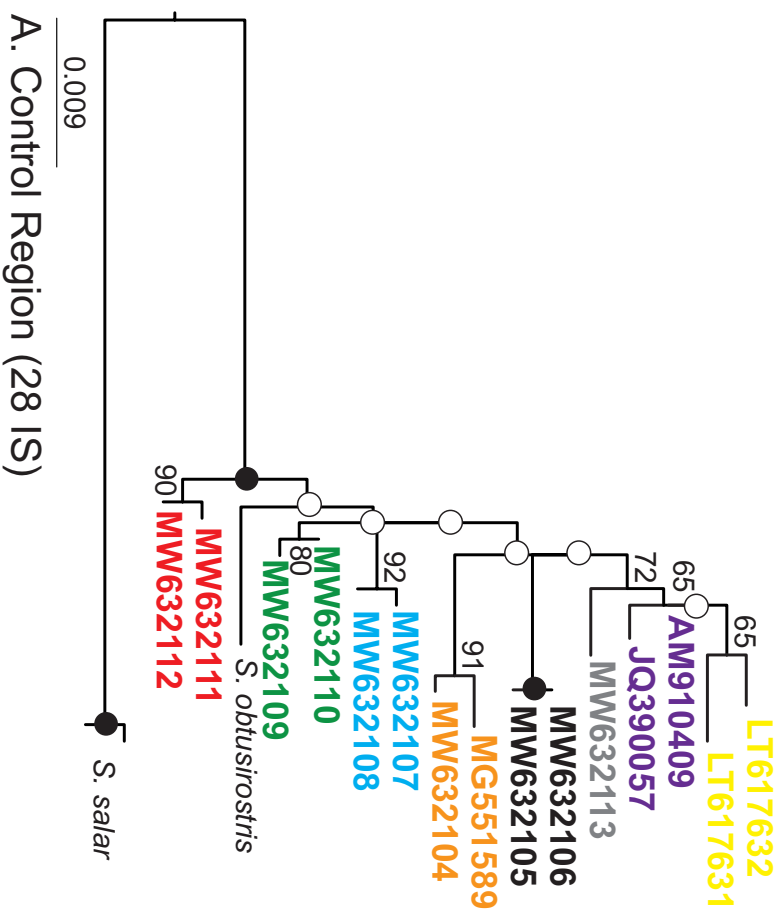


■ Total number of publications  
■ mtDNA ■ nucDNA ■ NGS

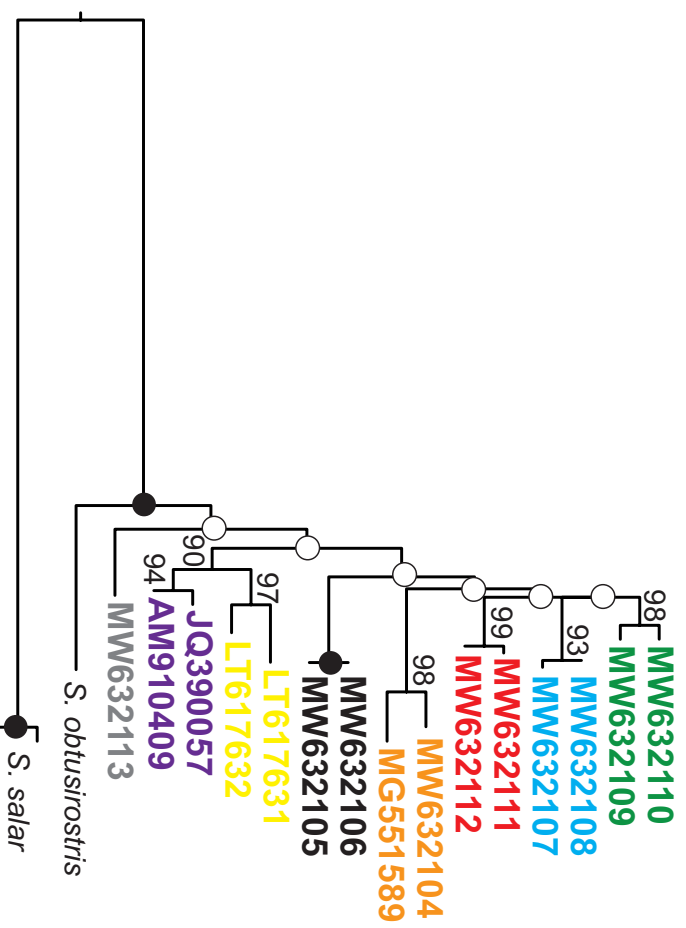
Years



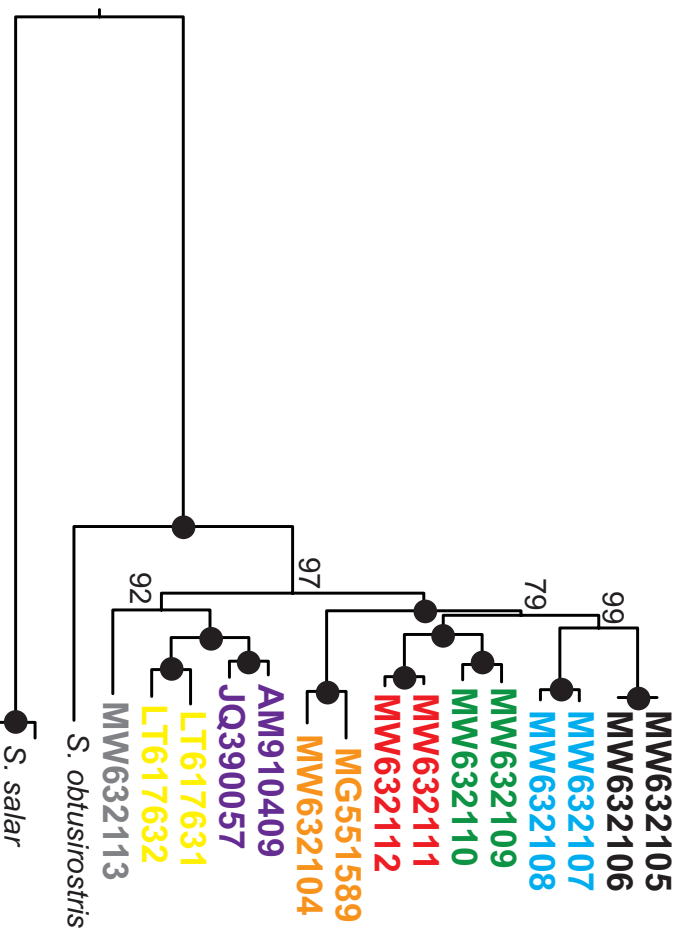




**B. Cytochrome b (30 IS)**



**C. Control Region + Cytochrome b (58 IS)**



**D. Complete Mitogenome (387 IS)**

**Dades**

**ME**  
**AD**  
**MA**  
**DA**  
**AT**  
**NA**  
**DU**