Disentangling a cryptic species complex and defining new species within the *Eumerus minotaurus* group (Diptera: Syrphidae), based on integrative taxonomy and Aegean palaeogeography

Antonia Chroni^{1,4,5}, Ana Grković², Jelena Ačanski³, Ante Vujić², Snežana Radenković², Nevena Veličković², Mihajla Djan², Theodora Petanidou¹

¹ University of the Aegean, Department of Geography, University Hill, 81100, Mytilene, Greece

- ² University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Sciences, Department of Biology and Ecology, Trg Dositeja Obradovića 2, 21000, Novi Sad, Serbia
- ³ Laboratory for Biosystems Research, BioSense Institute Research Institute for Information Technologies in Biosystems, University of Novi Sad, Dr. Zorana Đinđića 1, 21000, Novi Sad, Serbia
- ⁴ Institute for Genomics and Evolutionary Medicine; Department of Biology, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122, USA

⁵ E-mail: tonichr3@gmail.com

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Abstract

This study provides an overview of the Eumerus minotaurus taxon group, diagnosing a new species, E. anatolicus Grković, Vujić and Radenković sp. n. (Muğla, Turkey), and unraveling three cryptic species within E. minotaurus: E. karvates Chroni, Grković and Vujić sp. n. (Peloponnese, Greece), E. minotaurus Claussen and Lucas, 1988 (Crete and Karpathos, Greece) and E. phaeacus Chroni, Grković and Vujić sp. n. (Corfu and Mt Olympus, Greece; Mt Rumija, Montenegro). We applied an integrative taxonomic approach based on molecular, morphological and wing geometric morphometric data to corroborate and delimit cryptic species within the complex. In addition, we discuss the latent biogeographic patterns and speciation processes leading to configuration of the E. minotaurus group based on palaeogeographic evolution of the Aegean. Mitochondrial phylogeographic analysis suggested that speciation within the E. minotaurus group is attributable to formation of the mid-Aegean Trench and Messinian Salinity Crisis, and was integrated at the Pleistocene. We show that more accurate estimates of divergence times may be based on geological events rather than the standard arthropod mtDNA substitution rate.

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Introduction

Integrative taxonomy is a multisource approach that takes advantage of complementarity among disciplines and tends to gain ground more and more in species delimitation and diagnosis of cryptic diversity (Dayrat, 2005; Padial et al., 2010; Schlick-Steiner et al., 2010). Single-method approaches in taxonomic and systematic studies have many limitations, especially for diagnosis of cryptic species and, as a result, (two or more) distinct species are often erroneously classified (and hidden) under one species name (Bickford et al., 2007; Pfenninger and Schwenk, 2007). Cryptic species are morphologically indistinguishable but genetically distinct lineages, so a combination of molecular, biological and morphological approaches, as well as phylogeographic and population genetic analyses have been proposed (and are required) as a framework to diagnose and distinguish cryptic species (Pérez-Ponce de León and Nadler, 2010). Mitochondrial (DNA barcodes; Hebert et al., 2003) and nuclear molecular markers (e.g. 28S, Belshaw et al., 1998) have contributed to tally up the total species diversity, leading to the prosperity of integrative taxonomy (e.g.

hoverflies, Mengual *et al.*, 2008) and the detection of new species (beetles, Soldati *et al.*, 2014; butterflies, Kirichenko *et al.*, 2015; cone snails, Puillandre *et al.*, 2014; flies, Diaz *et al.*, 2015) as well as cryptic species complexes (earthworms, Martinsson and Erséus, 2017; flies, Dias *et al.*, 2016; Šašić *et al.*, 2016; lizards, Rato *et al.*, 2016; plants, Perez *et al.*, 2016; rotifers, Papakostas *et al.*, 2016).

The hoverfly genus Eumerus Meigen, 1822 (Diptera: Syrphidae) accounts of its great diversity (256 species recorded worldwide, Pape and Thompson, 2015, of which 37 occur in southeastern Europe, Grković et al., 2017), yet we know little about its fauna (unknown total species number as e.g. new species are regularly described: Doczkal, 1996; Speight et al., 2013; Grković et al., 2015, 2017; Markov et al., 2016), habitat preferences (Speight, 2016), life cycle (often strictly connected to plant species, Arzone, 1971, 1973; Pérez-Bañón and Marcos-García, 1998; Speight, 2016) or foraging behaviour (pests of vegetables, Doczkal, 1996; Pérez-Bañón and Marcos-García, 1998; flower visitors, Petanidou et al., 2011; Speight, 2016). In addition, the nomenclatural history and the taxonomic statuses within the genus are complex and unclear, highlighting the need to revise the genus' taxonomy. Considering the importance of hoverflies in ecosystems (as pollinators, predators of plant pests, herbivores, etc.; Rotheray and Gilbert, 2011), further ecological and biogeographic studies are needed; there might be more out there that we are missing which should be taken into account in, e.g. conservation outlines.

Heretofore, few studies have tackled unresolved problems of the genus Eumerus with DNA barcoding, let alone integrative taxonomy being employed. New species, some of them endemics, have been described over the past decade (Doczkal, 1996; Ricarte et al., 2012; Grković et al., 2015, 2017; Markov et al., 2016; van Steenis et al., 2017; Smit et al., 2017), and several taxon groups (hereafter named as 'groups') have been proposed within the genus (Chroni et al., 2017). The latter study suggested the configuration of the Eumerus minotaurus group with two related species: E. crassus Grković, Vujić and Radenković, 2015 (species range: Lesvos Island, Greece; originally identified as E. niehuisi Doczkal, 1996, and treated as such in the respective publication; specimen EU37) and E. minotaurus Claussen and Lucas, 1988 (species range: Crete and Thessaly, Greece; and parts of the former Yugoslavia; Speight, 2016) (Figure 1A). Doczkal (1996) discussed this topic, and suggested an affinity for E. longicornis Loew, 1855 (species range requires confirmation, but probably: southern and central Germany, Slovakia, Hungary and the Mts Caucasus; Speight, 2016), E. minotaurus, E. niehuisi (species range: Corsica and Sardinia; Doczkal, 1996) and E. sibiricus Stackelberg, 1952 (species range: Siberia; drawn by Stackelberg, 1961; Doczkal, 1996; Figure 1B). Within the frame of this study, we considered all aforementioned species (Doczkal, 1996; Chroni et al., 2017) to belong to the E. minotaurus group (Figure 1C), and we studied the species and specimens (at our disposal) originating from southeastern Europe. We have employed an integrative approach that utilizes molecular, morphological and wing morphometric data (E. crassus and E. minotaurus) or morphological data alone due to unavailability of DNA sequences (E. longicornis). Our current analyses denoted a cryptic species complex within E. minotaurus and one new species within the E. minotaurus group. Cryptic diversity is frequently encountered among hoverflies, with examples described for the genera Chrysotoxum (Nedeljković et al., 2013, 2015), Merodon (M. aureus group, Šašić et al., 2016; M. avidus, Popović et al., 2015, Ačanski et al., 2016; M. nanus group, Vujić et al., 2014), Microdon (M. myrmicae, Bonelli et al., 2011) and Pipiza (Vujić et al., 2013).

The Aegean archipelago and its adjacent regions (Balkan Peninsula, Greek mainland and Anatolian coast) are well-known for their high diversity of both cryptic and endemic species (Poulakakis et al., 2015), as well as for the multiple and complex alterations that have occurred from the Miocene (23 Mya) through to the Holocene (0.0117 Mya to the present) (Poulakakis et al., 2015; Gkontas et al., 2016; Kougioumoutzis et al., 2017; Sfenthourakis and Triantis, 2017). Four major geological events in the Aegean region are considered liable for significant species dispersal barriers: (1) formation of the mid-Aegean Trench (MAT) in the middle Miocene (12-9 Mya), during which a sea interference separated eastern from central-western regions (Sfenthourakis and Triantis, 2017); (2) isolation of Crete from the Peloponnese (5.5-5 Mya) after the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC) in the late Miocene (5.96-5.33 Mya) when the Mediterranean Sea almost desiccated allowing every species to travel anywhere wanted; (3) extensive segregation and widening of the Aegean Sea and separation of the Karpathos-Kassos island group from Rhodos in the Pliocene (5-2 Mya); and (4) orogenetic and eustatic sea-level changes during the Pleistocene (2-0.0117 Mya) (Kougioumoutzis et al., 2017; Sfenthourakis and Triantis, 2017). A series of phenomena including geological (geotectonic forces) and climatic events (sea-level oscillations) as well as



E. longicornis and related taxa sensu Doczkal, 1996



E. minotaurus group sensu Chroni et al., 2017, presented here

human pressure (first evidence of human settlement in the Palaeolithic, ca. 130 000 years ago, Strasser *et al.*, 2010), have shaped everything as known today, with the configuration or isolation of landmasses allowing or impeding the dispersal of organisms and thereby driving speciation or species extinction (Poulakakis *et al.*, 2005; Parmakelis *et al.*, 2006; Poulakakis and Sfenthourakis, 2008; Akin *et al.*, 2010; Simaiakis *et al.*, 2012; Gkontas *et al.*, 2016; Sfenthourakis and Triantis, 2017).

The aims of our study were threefold: (a) to define and delimit cryptic species within *E. minotaurus* by integrating molecular markers (mtDNA and nDNA), subtle morphological characters and wing geometric morphometrics; (b) to provide an overview of the species within the *E. minotaurus* group and to explore the existence of new species within it; and (c) to investigate speciation processes and suggest a biogeographic pattern for the *E. minotaurus* group.

Material and methods

Specimen collection and morphological analysis

Our study relies on collections assembled by hand net between the years 2003 and 2016, and deposited in the entomological collections of the Faculty of

Figure 1. Species composition for (A) the E. minotaurus group sensu Chroni et al., 2017; (B) E. longicornis and related taxa sensu Doczkal, 1996; and (C) the E. minotaurus group sensu Chroni et al., 2017 presented here (species in grey were not included in integrative taxonomy approach due to unavailability of DNA sequences). The branches of species discussed in the present study are marked with different colours: E. anatolicus sp. n. (orange), E. crassus (grey), E. karyates sp. n. (green), E. minotaurus (blue) and E. phaeacus sp. n. (red) (for interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is asked to refer to the web version of this article).

Sciences of Novi Sad (FSUNS), the Melissotheque of the Aegean (University of the Aegean, Mytilene, Greece, MAegean) and the Finnish Museum of Natural History (Zoological Museum, Helsinki, Finland, MZH). The specimens of E. anatolicus sp. n. were collected by Malaise trap and belong to the Miroslav Barták collection (Faculty of Agrobiology, Food and Natural Resources, Czech University of Life Sciences, Prague). A total of 52 specimens from 19 species of Eumerus, representing 33 sampling localities, were used for the molecular analyses (Figure 2; Table 1; 15 specimens of representative Eumerus species and 37 of the E. minotaurus group. Sample sizes and provenances of the studied E. minotaurus group specimens used for morphological/molecular/wing morphometry analyses were, respectively (Figure 2): E. crassus (Greece: Chios, Evros, Lesvos, Mt Rhodope, Samos, Thassos; Turkey: Mt Bozdag; 40/4/10 specimens), E. anatolicus sp. n. (Turkey: Muğla; 7/-/- specimens), E. karvates sp. n. (Greece: Peloponnese; 8/8/9 specimens), E. minotaurus (Greece: Crete, Karpathos; 11/7/10 specimens) and E. phaeacus sp. n. (Greece: Corfu, Mt Olympus; Montenegro: Mt Rumija; 24/18/22 specimens). Additional material of representative Eumerus species from four countries was used in the molecular analyses (see Appendix for details). Furthermore, we examined two paratypes of E. minotaurus from the Zoological

Table 1. List of the specimens used for the molecular analyses, their locality information, and GenBank accession numbers. GenBank accession numbers of sequences: newly-generated (this study) are in boldface; previously-generated are in normal text; and retrieved from GenBank are in italics. FSUNS: Faculty of Sciences of Novi Sad, Serbia. MAegean: The Melissotheque of the Aegean, University of the Aegean, Mytilene, Greece. MZH: Finnish Museum of Natural History, Zoological Museum, Helsinki, Finland.

Sequence ID	Specimen voucher	3'-end fragment of COI	5'-end fragment of COI	288	Species name	Species group	Species subgroup	Sex	Field data
EU10	FSUNS:G1147	KY865493	KX083349	none	Eumerus alpinus Rondani, 1857	E. alpinus	none	F	Italy, Toscana, Mts Apuane, near OrtoBotanico, 44.056359, 10.19884
EU132	FSUNS:60653	KY865499	KX083380	none	Eumerus strigatus (Fallen, 1817)	E. strigatus	none	М	Germany, Unknown
EU135	FSUNS:G3018	KY865500	KY865450	none	Eumerus tricolor (Fabricius), 1798	E. tricolor	none	F	Italy, Baragazza, 44.13217, 11.19112, 09/06/2013
EU146	FSUNS (loan by Maegean):E078 7, UOTA MEL02	KY865501	KY865451	KY865546	<i>Eumerus minotaurus</i> Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Karpathos, Avlona, 35.7689, 27.1849, 2-4/05/2012
EU140	6180 FSUNS-G3025	KV865507	KV865457	none	Fumarus crassus	F minotaurus	none	м	Greece Chios Kambia
20149	130103.03023	K1005502	K1005452	none	Grković, Vujić & Radenković, 2015	E. minotaurus	none	191	Gorge, 38.578499, 25.979666, 14/05/2009
EU16	FSUNS:G0278	KY865494	KY865446	KY865545	Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković & Vuijć sp. n	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Mt Olympus, Ag. Paraskevi, kanjon, 39.8785, 22.5863 17/05/2011
EU17	MAegean:UOT A_MEL0746,	KT221020	KT221006	none	<i>Eumerus torsicus</i> Grković et Vujić,	torsicus	none	М	Greece, Chios, Elinda, 38.393, 25.9914, 9-
EU211	E0746 FSUNS:G0277	KY865503	KY865453	KY865550	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vuiić sp. n	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Mt Olympus, Ag. Paraskevi, kanjon, 39.8785, 22 5863 17/05/2011
EU212	FSUNS:G0269	KY865504	KY865454	none	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Montenegro, Mt Rumija, okosredine (deokajezeru, uz put), 42.11201, 19.21739, 02/05/2011
EU221	FSUNS:G0271	KY865505	KY865455	none	<i>Eumerus sinuatus</i> Loew, 1855	E.tricolor	none	М	Serbia, Fruska Gora, Glavica, 45.153999, 19.834681, 17/06/2011
EU223	FSUNS:G1020	KY865506	KY865456	none	Eumerus armatus Ricarte &	E.tricolor	none	М	Greece, Samos, near Platanos, 37.740527,
EU276	FSUNS:08910	KY865507	KY272852	none	Eumerus pannonicus Ricarte, Vujić & Radenković 2016	E.strigatus	none	F	20.742110, 09/00/2010 Serbia, Mokrin, Pašnjacivelikedroplje, 45.90615, 20.3018, 11/06/2014
EU297	FSUNS:06366	KY865508	KX083386	none	Eumerus minotaurus Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Lassithi, Iraklion, 7 km prePlateau of Lassithi, 35.211883, 25.461649, 22/04/2014
EU298	FSUNS:06452	KY865509	KY865457	none	<i>Eumerus minotaurus</i> Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Chania, 3 km pre Armeni, 35.285761, 24.468983, 25/04/2014
EU300	FSUNS:06557	KY865510	KY865458	KY865549	<i>Eumerus karyates</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145, 22.421241
EU302	FSUNS:06710	KY865511	KY865459	none	Eumerus minotaurus Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Chania, Imbors, 35.252332, 24.174351, 27/05/2014
EU303	FSUNS:06728	KY865512	KY865460	KY865547	Eumerus minotaurus Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Chania, Omalos plain, 35.322592, 23.930496, 28/05/2014
EU320	FSUNS:06561	KY865513	KX083382	none	Eumerus sogdianus Stackelberg, 1952	E. strigatus	none	F	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes2, 25km N from
EU37	FSUNS:G2286	KY865495	KY865447	none	Eumerus crassus Grković, Vujić &	E. minotaurus	none	М	Greece, Lesvos, Argennos, 39.357622, 26.254769, 03-
EU406	FSUNS:E1333	KY865514	KY865461	none	Kadenković, 2015 Eumerus sulcitibius Róndani, 1868	E. sulcitibius	none	F	04/06/2012 Greece, Lassithi, Psichro, 35.15, 25.4666667, Unknown

Table 1 continued

Sequence ID	Specimen voucher	3'-end fragment of COI	5'-end fragment of COI	285	Species name	Species group	Species subgroup	Sex	Field data
EU459	FSUNS:E1260	KY865515	KY865462	none	Eumerus amoenus Loew, 1848	E. strigatus	none	F	Greece, Mt Taygetos, Lok I, 37.066156, 22.265413, 06/08/2014
EU469	FSUNS:07982	KY865516	KX083351	none	Eumerus clavatus Becker, 1923	E. clavatus	none	F	Turkey, Mt Davraz, ski center, 37.781694, 30.75871
EU499	FSUNS:GO290	KY865517	KY865463	none	<i>Eumerus crassus</i> Grković, Vujić & Radenković, 2015	E. minotaurus	none	F	Greece, Samos, Neochori, 37.707965, 26.769917, Unknown
EU73	FSUNS:G0292	KY865496	KX083373	none	<i>Eumerus consimilis</i> Šimić &Vujić, 1996	E. strigatus	none	М	Serbia, Djerdap, 44.54104, 22.02024, 01/09/2011
EU75	FSUNS:G0992	KY865497	KY865448	none	Eumerus clavatus Becker, 1923	E. basalis	none	М	Greece, Ikaria, near Hristos, 37.601523, 26.084755, 11/06/2010
EU99	FSUNS:G2219	KY865498	KY865449	none	Eumerus ornatus Meigen, 1822	E. ornatus	none	М	Montenegro, Boka Kotorska, Morinj Bay, 42.490394, 18.648914, 08/10/2010
GUN5	FSUNS:GUN5	KY865492	KX083393	KY865574	Megatrigon tabanoides Doczkal, Radenković, Lyneborg & Pape, 2015	Outgroup	none	М	South Africa, Unknown
Y1711E	MZH:Y1711	KY865491	KY865444	KM224496 (GB)	Platynochaetus setosus Fabricius, 1794	Outgroup	none	М	France, Banyuls-sur-Mer, Pyrenées-Orientales, JardinMediterranéen, 42 474144 3 117728
EU558	MAegean:UOT A_MEL082471, 10064	KY865518	KY865464	none	Eumerus pulchellus Loew, 1848	E. pulchellus	none	М	Greece, Anafi, Helicodrome, 36.3565, 25.7736, 15-17/06/2013
TS240	FSUNS:06666	KY865520	KY865466	KY865552	<i>Eumerus</i> <i>minotaurus</i> Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Rethymon, Fotinos, 35.285762, 24.468983, 26/05/2014
TS241	FSUNS:6724	KY865521	KY865467	none	Eumerus minotaurus Claussen & Lucas, 1988	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Chania, Omalos plain, 35.322592, 23.930496, 28/05/2014
MN1	FSUNS:11413	KY865522	KY865468	KY865558	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN2	FSUNS:11415	KY865523	KY865469	KY865572	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN3	FSUNS:11419	KY865524	KY865470	KY865565	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN4	FSUNS:11458	KY865525	KY865471	KY865566	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Liapades, 39.673537, 19.756369, 24/05/2016
MN5	FSUNS:11457	KY865526	KY865472	KY865570	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Liapades, 39.673537, 19.756369, 24/05/2016
MN6	FSUNS:11546	KY865527	KY865473	KY865569	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Strinilas, 39.739862, 19.837306, 24/05/2016
MN7	FSUNS:11461	KY865528	KY865474	KY865555	Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Corfu, nr Liapades, 39.673537, 19.756369, 24/05/2016
MN8	FSUNS:11460	KY865529	KY865475	KY865548	Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Liapades, 39.673537, 19.756369, 24/05/2016
MN9	FSUNS:11448	KY865530	KY865476	KY865551	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr AnoKorakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN10	FSUNS:11430	KY865531	KY865477	KY865559	Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN11	FSUNS:11459	KY865532	KY865478	KY865561	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Liapades, 39.673537, 19.756369, 24/05/2016

Table	l continued	
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Sequence	Specimen	3'-end	5'-end	28S	Species name	Species group	Species	Sex	Field data
ID	voucher	fragment of COI	fragment of COI				subgroup		
MN12	FSUNS:11432	KY865533	KY865479	KY86555	Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN13	FSUNS:11436	KY865534	KY865480	KY865567	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN14	FSUNS:11426	KY865535	KY865481	KY865562	<i>Eumerus phaeacus</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN15	FSUNS:11437	KY865536	KY865482	KY865560	Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Corfu, nr Ano Korakiana, 39.69882, 19.786956, 24/05/2016
MN16	FSUNS:11310	KY865537	KY865483	KY865573	<i>Eumerus crassus</i> Grković, Vujić & Radenković, 2015	E. minotaurus	none	F	Greece, Lesvos, Neochori I, 39.024073, 26.321613, 03/5/2016
MN18	FSUNS:11411	KY865538	KY865484	KY865556	Eumerus karyates Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145, 22.421241
MN19	FSUNS:11412	KY865540	KY865485	KY865564	Eumerus karyates Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti 37.304145, 22.421241
MN20	FSUNS:11572	KY865539	KY865486	KY865554	<i>Eumerus karyates</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145, 22.421241
MN21	FSUNS:11573	KY865541	KY865487	KY865557	<i>Eumerus karyates</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145, 22 421241
MN22	FSUNS:11574	KY865542	KY865488	KY865563	<i>Eumerus karyates</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145, 22 421241
MN23	FSUNS:11571	KY865543	KY865489	KY865571	Eumerus karyates Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	М	Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145,
MN24	FSUNS:11410	KY865544	KY865490	KY865568	<i>Eumerus karyates</i> Chroni, Grković & Vujić, sp. n.	E. minotaurus	E. minotaurus	F	22.421241 Greece, Peloponnese, Karyes, 25km N from Sparti, 37.304145, 22.421241
TS24	FSUNS:08451	LN890909 (GB)	KY865445	KY865575	<i>Merodon</i> <i>erivanicus</i> Paramonov, 1925	Outgroup	none	М	Turkey, Isparta, Geledost, Yesilkoy, 42.250833, 32.351111, 29/05/2014

Museum of Amsterdam (The Netherlands, ZMAN) and one Austrian representative of E. longicornis (deposited in FSUNS, which possesses two labels: "longicornis det. Schiner" and "Austria Alte Sammlung"). Outgroup taxa used in the phylogenetic analyses consisted of Platynochaetus setosus Fabricius, 1794 (Accession Nos. KY865491, KY865444, KM224496), Merodon Paramonov, 1925 (Accession erivanicus Nos. LN890909, KY865445, KY865575) and Megatrigon tabanoides Johnson, 1898 (Accession Nos. KY865492, KX083393, KY865574). Two sequences used for P. setosus (28S) and M. tabanoides (COI) were retrieved from GenBank. More details regarding the locality information and GenBank accession numbers for the specimens employed in the molecular analyses are enlisted in the Appendix.

Morphological characters used in the descriptions and drawings are based on the terminology established by Thompson (1999), and those related to male genitalia follow Doczkal (1996) and Hurkmans (1993). Colour characters are described from drymounted specimens. Male genitalia were extracted from specimens using standard methods described in Grković et al. (2015). Figures and drawings were generated from photographs of characters taken with a Leica DFC 320 (Wetzlar, Germany) camera attached to a Leica MZ16 binocular stereomicroscope and then processed in Adobe Photoshop CS3 v10.0 (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA, USA). An ocular micrometer attached to a stereomicroscope was used for measurements. All measurements for a given view were conducted in the same plane. The width of the

face and head were measured in line with the lower margin of the antennal sockets, in frontal view. The proportions of the antennal segments were measured from the outside. We defined the width of the vertex as the distance between the eyes at the posterior margins of the posterior ocelli. The length of the frons was measured from the eyes to the upper margin of the antennal socket. The widths of tergites 3 and 4 were measured in line with their anterior margin and the width of the abdomen across widest part. The lengths of the tergites and abdomen were measured along a median line. Abbreviations used in descriptions are: T - tergite, S - sternite, IL - interior accessory lobe of posterior surstyle lobe.

Molecular analyses

DNA amplification and sequencing

Genomic DNA extractions were performed on two to three legs from each specimen, based on the protocol of Chen *et al.* (2010) with slight modifications as described in Grković et al. (2015). We amplified (a) 3' and 5' fragments of mitochondrial gene Cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI), and (b) nuclear gene 28S ribosomal DNA (28S D2 rDNA: covering the D2 variable region, also referred to as the second expansion region or second divergent domain). The 28S marker was amplified for 29 out of the 52 specimens. The primers used for the PCR amplification and sequencing are listed in Table 2. PCR amplifications and purification of the PCR products were performed as described in Grković et al. (2015). DNA sequencing was conducted based on the Sanger method on an ABI 3730 DNA analyzer (Applied Biosystems, USA) at the Sequencing Service laboratory of the Finnish Institute for Molecular Medicine (http:// www.fimm.fi) and by Macrogen Inc. (The Netherlands; http://www.macrogen.com/eng/).

Sequence analysis

Raw sequences were examined and proofread in BioEdit v7.2.5 (Hall, 1999). Multiple sequence alignments were implemented in MAFFT v7 by



Figure 2. Distributions of all specimens used for the morphological, molecular and wing morphometric analyses. \blacksquare *E. minotaurus*, \blacktriangle *E. karyates* sp. n., \blacklozenge *E. phaeacus* sp. n., \blacklozenge *E. crassus*, \blacklozenge *E. anatolicus* sp. n.

	Primer pair	Primer sequence	Source
3' fragment of COI	C1-J-2183 (alias Jerry)	5'-CAACATTTATTTTGATTTTTTGG-3'	Simon et al., 1994
	TL2-N-3014 (alias Pat)	5'-TCCAATGCACTAATCTGCCATATTA-3'	Simon et al., 1994
5' fragment of COI	LCO-1490	5'-GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTG-3'	Folmer et al., 1994
	HCO-2198	5'-TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3'	Folmer et al., 1994
28s D2 rDNA	28S (F2)	5'-AGAGAGAGTTCAAGAGTACGTG-3'	Belshaw et al., 1998
	28S (3DR)	5'-TAGTTCACCATCTITCGGGTC-3'	Belshaw et al., 1998

Table 2. Primers used for amplification and sequencing of the mtDNA and nDNA gene fragments.

employing the L-INS-i algorithm (see supplementary information, Data S1, S2; Katoh *et al.*, 2005; available at http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/index.html). Polymorphic sites, parsimony informative sites and number of haplotypes were calculated using DnaSP v5.10.01 (Librado and Rozas, 2009).

Phylogenetic analyses and tree-based species delimitation

We constructed three datasets to elucidate and corroborate the phylogenetic positions of four species within the E. minotaurus group (E. anatolicus sp. n. was excluded due to unavailability of DNA sequences) : (1) COI dataset, based on a concatenation of the 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (19 Eumerus taxa, 1238 bp); (2) 28S dataset, based on the 28S nuclear gene fragment (4 Eumerus taxa, 510 bp); and (3) COI subset, based on a concatenation of the 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene for the *E. minotaurus* group alone (4 Eumerus taxa, 1238 bp) (for more details, see Table3). Representatives of other species of Eumerus (15 species) were only considered for the COI dataset in order to properly display phylogenetic positions and relationships of the species encompassing the E. minotaurus group. The phylogenetic positions and species delimitation of these 15 species were previously confirmed and discussed in Chroni et al. (2017) and Grković et al. (2017), thus we argue that the singletons used here do not jeopardize our phylogenetic inferences. The distinct morphologies of these 15 species were also accounted in species delimitation, and confirmed by the taxonomists Ante Vujić and Ana Grković.

We have inferred various phylogenetic analyses for the COI dataset as to clarify and corroborate

the species topology: Maximum parsimony (MP), Maximum likelihood (ML), Neighbour joining (NJ), Bayesian inference (BI) and split network analyses. MP analyses were performed in NONA (Goloboff, 1999), spawned in WINCLADA v1.00.08 (Nixon, 2002). A heuristics search algorithm with 1000 random addition replicates (mult x 1000) was performed with holding of 100 trees per round (hold /100), max trees set to 100 000, and applying TBR branch swapping. The ML analysis was executed in RAxML v8.0.9 (Stamatakis, 2006; Stamatakis et al., 2008) in the Cipres Science Gateway (Miller et al., 2010) with 1000 bootstrap replicates. The ML analysis was implemented under the general timereversible (GTR) evolutionary model with a gamma distribution (GTR+G; Rodriguez et al., 1990) since it is the most accurate substitution model for datasets of approximately 50 taxa. We sought the best-fit substitution model for the COI dataset in MEGA v6.06 (Tamura et al., 2013), resulting in identification of the GTR+G+I model, as proposed by the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). We employed MEGA v6.06 (Tamura et al., 2013) to perform NJ analyses, but used the Tamura-Nei (TN93) nucleotide substitution model with a Gamma distribution (i.e. the second-best nucleotide substitution model proposed by BIC) since GTR model is not allowable in MEGA for NJ trees, and using 1000 bootstrap replicates. We assessed BI tree in MrBayes v3.2.6 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001) in the Cipres Science Gateway (Miller et al., 2010) under the GTR+G+I model, as proposed by the BIC (Rodriguez et al., 1990). We partitioned our sequence data by codon (two partitions; positions 1st+2nd; 3rd), which as it is recommended for protein-encoding genes as the third codon position is considered to be susceptible to higher mutational rates

(Shapiro et al., 2006; Simmons et al., 2006; Bofkin and Goldman, 2007). The settings for the Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) process included two runs of 10*10e⁻⁶ MCMC generations (×4 chains) with a sampling frequency of 1000 generations and a relative burn-in of 10%. MCMC results were checked with TRACER v1.6 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/ software/tracer/; Rambaut et al., 2014) and the tree was displayed in FigTree v1.4.2 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac. uk/software/figtree/; Rambaut, 2013). ML, NJ and BI trees were merged into a split network in order to extract a united tree topology. The split network was produced in SplitsTree4 v4.14.3 (Huson and Bryant, 2006) (http://www.splitstree.org/) under the parameters SuperTree, Z-closure super-network from partial trees, and heuristic analysis (number of runs: 1000). Regarding the 28S dataset, we employed MP analysis, as described above. All phylogenetic trees were rooted on P. setosus.

In addition, Poisson tree processes (PTP) models were implemented in order to highlight putative molecular species clusters (Zhang *et al.*, 2013) based on the best ML tree resulting from the RA×ML analysis of the COI dataset. PTP analyses were conducted on the web server for PTP (available at http://species.h-its.org/ptp/).

Non-tree-based species delimitation

As to compare and confirm the indication of the *E. minotaurus* complex, non-tree-based species delimitation approaches were performed as well. Average pairwise Kimura 2-parameter (K2P) distances between the taxa of the COI dataset, and overall sequence divergence (under the TN93+G+I model for the COI dataset and the COI subset, and under the Tamura 3-parameter for the 28S dataset; Tamura *et al.*, 2013) were estimated in MEGA v6.06 (Tamura *et al.*, 2013) and proposed by BIC. We have considered a threshold of 2% sequence divergence (the barcode gap) for species delimitation (outgroups were excluded; Ratnasingham and Hebert, 2013).

Network approaches can be more effective than classical phylogenetic ones for representing intraspecific evolution (Posada and Crandall, 2001), so we assessed genealogical relationships between haplotypes of the COI subset with haplotype networks constructed using the statistical parsimony algorithm implemented in the program TCS v1.21 (Clement *et al.*, 2000) under the 95% connection limit of parsimony (gaps treated as missing data).

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Molecular divergence time estimates

We created the COI subset to estimate a time-calibrated species tree, and to reconstruct the biogeographic history of species encompassing the *E. minotaurus* group, *i.e. E. crassus*, *E. karyates* sp. n., *E. minotaurus* and *E. phaeacus* sp. n.

Initially, we explored temporal structure in the COI subset –necessary prerequisite for reliable estimation of substitution rates– by performing a regression of root-to-tip genetic distances in TempEst (Rambaut *et al.*, 2016). We used the NJ tree (generated for the COI subset as described above) as the input file.

Subsequently, we estimated divergence times using BEAST v1.8.4 (Drummond et al., 2012). The input file (.xml) was created using BEAUti v1.8.4, and we integrated the BEAGLE library (Ayres et al., 2012) into BEAST runs to achieve high-performance computing. Applied prior specifications were as follows: Relaxed Uncorrelated Lognormal Clock; Birth Death process of speciation; TN93 model with G rate heterogeneity. We also partitioned the dataset by codon (two partitions: positions 1st+2nd; 3rd, Shapiro et al., 2006; Simmons et al., 2006; Bofkin and Goldman, 2007). We have considered three approaches to calibrate the molecular clock, with employment of: (a) one calibration point based on the MAT event that separated the Aegean archipelago into its western and eastern parts (10.5 \pm 1.5 My, MAT analysis, Papadopoulou et al., 2010); (b) two calibration points where the root height was based on the MAT event and the prior of the taxon subset E. karyates sp. n./E. minotaurus was based on the end of the MSC event that represents permanent isolation of Crete from the Greek mainland $(5.3 \pm 0.3 \text{ My},$ MAT&MSC analysis, Kasapidis et al., 2005; Kamilari et al., 2014); and (c) 2.3% pairwise evolutionary rate per million years (My), representing the standard arthropod substitution rate for mtDNA (mtDNA-rate analysis, Brower, 1994). We also created: (i) four taxon subsets based on estimates for each of the four species within the E. minotaurus group for the MAT and mtDNA-rate analyses; and (ii) two taxon subsets, one with E. crassus sequences and one with sequences of E. karyates sp. n./E. minotaurus for the MAT&MSC analysis in order to log the time to the most common ancestor tMRCA for each taxon subset and to set the prior distributions for corresponding divergence times. Three independent runs were performed with a chain length of 10*10e-6 iterations for the MAT and MAT&MSC analyses and 5*10e-6 iterations for the mtDNA-rate analysis, sampled every 1000 generations. The program TRACER v1.6

(http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/tracer/; Rambaut *et al.*, 2014) was employed to confirm stationarity. Independent runs were combined using Logcombiner v1.8.4 (in BEAST). The final tree with divergence time estimates was summarized with TreeAnnotator v1.8.4 (in BEAST; 10% of trees were discarded as burn-in; Maximum clade credibility tree; and Mean heights) and visualized with FigTree v1.4.2 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/; Rambaut, 2013).

Biogeographic analyses

To reconstruct the biogeographic history and to predict biogeographic ancestral ranges of the *E. minotaurus* group (COI subset), we conducted the statistical approach of Bayesian Binary MCMC (BBM) Method For Ancestral State (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003), conducted in RASP v3.2 (Yu *et al.*, 2015). The MCMC chains were run by default, and the annotated trees from the BEAST analyses were used as input tree files. Four geographical areas were defined based on the clustering and distribution of the *E. minotaurus* group lineages as well as on (recorded) plant distributions (Brummitt *et al.*, 2001; Strid, 2016): (A) Crete and Karpathos, (B) Peloponnese, (C) Balkan Peninsula, and (D) East Aegean islands (Appendix). Ancestral ranges were assumed to include from one to four areas.

Geometric morphometric analysis

Geometric morphometric analysis of wing shape was conducted on 51 specimens of the E. minotaurus group (see supplementary information S1). The right wing of each specimen was removed by means of a micro-scissors and was then mounted in Hover's medium on a microscopic slide. Wings have been archived and labelled with a unique code in the FSUNS collection, together with other data relevant to the specimens. High-resolution photographs of the wings were made using a Leica DFC320 video camera attached to a Leica MZ16 stereomicroscope. Ten homologous landmarks at vein intersections or terminations (that could be reliably identified) were selected using TpsDig v2.05 (Rohlf, 2006). Each wing was digitized three times to estimate the measurement error, and average landmark coordinates for each individual were used in analyses (Arnqvist and Mårtensson, 1998). All geometric morphometric analyses were conducted on a dataset in which both sexes were pooled and the male dataset separately, with allometry corrected for both datasets.

Generalised least squares Procrustes superimposition was performed in MorphoJ v2.0 (Klingenberg, 2011) on the raw coordinates to minimize nonshape variations in location, scale and orientation of



Figure 3. Maximum parsimony analyses for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI dataset). Only the condensed tree is illustrated here. Filled circles denote unique changes and open circles non-unique changes. Bootstrap support values are illustrated above the branches: 60 trees, Length 1122 steps, CI=44, RI=72.



Figure 4. A phylogenetic network of ML, NJ and BI tree results for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI dataset).

wings, and to superimpose the wings in a common coordinate system (Rohlf and Slice, 1990; Zelditch *et al.*, 2004). Principal component analysis was carried out on the Procrustes shape variables to reduce the dimensionality of the data set. All further statistical analyses were conducted in the reduced space using a subset of independent principal components (PCs) that describe the highest overall classification percentage calculated in stepwise discriminant analysis (Baylaac and Frieß, 2005).

To explore wing shape variation among the taxa, we employed canonical variate (CVA) and discriminant function analysis. Additionally, a Gaussian naïve Bayes classifier was used to delimit species boundaries based on wing shape variation without *a priori*-defined groups. Phenetic relationships among taxa were determined by UPGMA analysis based on squared Mahalanobis distances computed from the discriminant function analysis applied to wing shape variables. Superimposed outline drawings produced in MorphoJ v2.0 (Klingenberg, 2011) were used to visualize differences in mean wing shape among species pairs. All statistical analyses were performed in Statistica for Windows (Dell Statistica, 2015). Correlation among wing shape, genetic, spatial and climatic differentiation

To test correlations between morphometric, genetic, geographic and climatic distances among species, we performed Mantel tests (Mantel, 1967) with 10 000 permutations in PaSSaGe (Rosenberg and Anderson, 2011). Morphometric distances were represented as a matrix of pairwise squared Mahalanobis distances, and genetic distances as a matrix of uncorrected p distances (as calculated in MEGA v6.06; Tamura et al., 2013). Geographic distances were calculated as the minimum distance between two species using OGIS (Quantum GIS Development Team, 2012). Climatic distances were represented as Euclidean distances of the factor scores calculated based on 19 bioclimatic variables generated for each locality from the current climate WorldClim dataset (2.5 arc-minutes resolution) (Hijmans et al., 2005).

Two-tailed Mantel tests were performed to test pairwise correlations among the four distance matrices, and partial Mantel tests were used to explore relationships between: (i) wing shape and genetic differentiation, while accounting for the

Dataset	COI	285	subset COI
Gene fragment(s)	3' and 5' fragment of COI	28s D2 rDNA	3' and 5' fragment of COI
Taxa no	19	4	4
Sequences no	52	29	37
Sequence length (bp)	1238	510	1238
Singleton variable sites	86	11	18
Parsimony informative sites	258	2	100
Sequence divergence (%)	6.1	0.3	2.8
Haplotypes no (with gaps/missing data: not considered)	41	3	26
Geographical clusters no (BBM analysis)	-	-	4

Table 3. Characteristics for each analyzed dataset; in the 'Sequences no' the number of outgroups is not considered.

effect of geographic distances and climatic distances separately; and (ii) wing shape and geographic distances accounting for the genetic distances.

Results

Molecular analyses

Phylogenetic analyses: tree-based and non-tree-based species delimitation

All tree-based (MP, ML, NJ, BI, split network and PTP models, high bootstrap and probability support values; Figures 3, S2, S3, S4 and 4, respectively) and nontree-based (K2P, TCS) species delimitation analyses of the COI dataset (1238 bp) indicated four, wellsupported, clusters-species within the E. minotaurus group as well as three species within E. minotaurus, revealing the E. minotaurus complex. The PTP analysis returned an estimation of 22 to 26 lineages, with four within the E. minotaurus group. Interspecific genetic distances (K2P) for the COI dataset were found to be 0.025-0.117 (except for specimen TS241, 0.014). Sequence divergence was calculated for both the COI and 28S datasets, as well for the COI subset (Table 3). TCS analysis for the COI subset led to four independent networks, one for each species within the E. minotaurus group (S5).

Unlike the mitochondrial marker (COI dataset; S6), the nuclear molecular marker (28S dataset) could not distinguish evolutionary lineages. Moreover, the low sample size (4 species, 29 sequences) and the short sequence length (510 bp) meant we considered it of no benefit to further analyze the 28S dataset. Therefore, only the results of the COI dataset were sought to be used for the species delimitation within the *E. minotaurus* group. Molecular divergence time estimates and biogeographic analyses

Our root-to-tip regression revealed relatively strong temporal structure in the COI subset, with a correlation coefficient of 0.1586 (R squared= 0.02514), allowing us to implement a molecular clock model. This analysis also indicated that the sequences EU37, EU149 (*E. crassus*) and TS240 (*E. minotaurus*) are less divergent than the rest, whereas the EU297 (*E. minotaurus*) is the most divergent. The indication of few more or less divergent sequences was not considered as the quality of those sequences was checked and confirmed.

The time-calibrated species tree and the results of the BBM analysis are both depicted in Figure 5. Due to the similar probability values and for simplicity, we only present in Figure 5 the BBM results based on the annotated tree produced from the MAT analysis. The species-tree topology is congruent with that inferred from the phylogenetic analyses. Divergence time estimates, as assessed for the MAT and MAT&MSC approaches are well-nigh consistent. According to the inferred dates, diversification of the E. minotaurus group dates back to the Miocene, whereas speciation within the E. minotaurus complex approximately dates to the MSC (Figure 5). The pairwise substitution rates obtained were 0.882% and 0.706% for the MAT and MAT&MSC analyses, respectively. Divergence times for the mtDNA-rate analysis were much lower, placing the diversification of the E. minotaurus group and the E. minotaurus complex to the Pliocene and Pleistocene, respectively. All posterior probability values per lineage exceeded 0.95 (and ranged up to 1). The substitution rates were approximately 0.80 based on codon positions 1+2, and 1.36 for codon position 3.

The BBM analyses from all annotated trees were congruent and suggested a total of six dispersal and three vicariant events shaped the current distribution of the *E. minotaurus* group, and that speciation events have occurred within areas as follow: A:6, B:7, C:17 and D:3. Dispersal events may have occurred between areas: A to B (Crete and Karpathos to Peloponnese), C to A (Balkan Peninsula to Crete and Karpathos) and D to C (East Aegean Islands to Balkan Peninsula). Three possible dispersal routes are proposed for each node; I: $A \rightarrow BA \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$, II: $C \rightarrow CA \rightarrow C \rightarrow A$ or III: $D \rightarrow CD \rightarrow C \rightarrow D$ (Figure 5).

Geometric morphometric evidence

Geometric morphometric analyses of wing shape showed the same pattern for pooled sexes and for the males separately, so only results based on the pooled dataset are presented here. Measurement (digitizing) error was negligible.

Principal component analysis carried out on the Procrustes shape variables produced 16 PCs (S7).

Stepwise discriminant analysis revealed that the first 13 PCs represented the highest overall classification percentage of investigated taxa. Canonical variates analysis conducted on these 13 PCs produced three highly significant axes (CV1: Wilks' Lambda = 0.0165; $\chi 2 = 170.219$; p < 0.01; CV2: Wilks' Lambda = 0.1420; $\chi 2 = 80.992$; p < 0.01; CV3: Wilks' Lambda = 0.4413; $\chi 2 = 33.949$; p < 0.01). CV1 clearly separated E. crassus from E. phaeacus sp. n., though E. minotaurus and E. karyates sp. n. is related with CV2 and CV3. CV2 separated E. minotaurus from other under study species, while CV3 showed that E. karyates sp. n. differs from E. crassus, E. phaeacus sp. n. and E. minotaurus (Figure 6). Moreover, our discriminant function analysis showed that all species pairs differed highly significantly in wing shape (p < 0.01) (S8). Importantly, 96% of specimens were correctly classified into a priori-defined groups, demonstrating that wing shape is a reliable character for interspecific discrimination. All specimens belonging to E. crassus and E. phaeacus sp. n. were correctly classified. One specimen of E. minotaurus and one of E. karyates



Figure 5. Trees inferred with BEAST for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI subset) for the *E. minotaurus* group. Values on the left and above the branches are mean ages estimated according to the uncorrelated log-normal clock based on (a) MAT (in normal text), (b) MAT&MSC (in bold), and (c) 2.3% mtDNA-rate (in italics), in Mya (a/b/c). The four defined areas are presented with different colours, percentage values (on the right side of the nodes of the tree) and pie charts at nodes I, II and III; (A) Crete and Karpathos (blue), (B) Peloponnese (green), (C) Balkan Peninsula (red), (D) East Aegean Islands (grey), and (*) unknown (black) (for interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is asked to refer to the web version of this article).



Figure 6. Shape variability among species of the *Eumerus minotaurus* species group: A) Scatter plot of individual scores of CV1 and CV2; and B) scatter plot of individual scores of CV1 and CV3.



Figure 7. Wing shape differences among species of the *Eumerus minotaurus* group. A) Superimposed outline drawings showing differences in average wing shape for each species pair. Differences between the species were exaggerated three-fold to make them more visible; and B) UPGMA geo-phenogram constructed using the squared Mahalanobis distances of wing shape (for interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is asked to refer to the web version of this article).

Table 4. Results of simple and partial two-tailed Mantel tests for correlation among phenetic distance (wing shape) and genetic, geographic and climatic distances (p > 0.05).

	r
Simple Mantel test	
wing - genetic	0.75
wing - geography	0.46
wing - climate	-0.58
Partial Mantel test	
wing - genetic - holding geography	0.79
wing - genetic - holding climate	0.58
wing - geography holding genetic	-0.57

sp. n. were misclassified as *E. phaeacus* sp. n. A congruent classification was obtained by the Gaussian naive Bayes classifier, through which all specimens of *E. minotaurus*, *E. crassus* and *E. phaeacus* sp. n. were correctly classified, and only one specimen of *E. karyates* sp. n. was misclassified as *E. minotaurus*. The same male specimen of *E. karyates* sp. n. was misclassified by both approaches.

Superimposed outline drawings depict the differences in mean wing shape among each species (Figure 7A). The most obvious differences are among $E.\ crassus$ and species of them $E.\ minotaurus$ complex. In contrast, the most subtle differences in mean shape are between $E.\ minotaurus$ and $E.\ karyates$ sp. n. This is consistent with the results of our UPGMA analysis based on squared Mahalanobis distances (Figure 7B).

Correlation among wing shape, genetic, spatial and climatic differentiation

Simple Mantel tests revealed that genetic, geographic and climatic distances were not correlated with wing shape distance among *E. minotaurus*, *E. karyates* sp. n., *E. phaeacus* sp. n. or *E. crassus* (Table 4). Additionally, partial Mantel test showed that genetic distance has no impact on wing shape differentiation while accounting for geographic and environmental distances, nor did geographic while accounting for genetic distance (Table 4).

Discussion

Despite its critical role in ecosystems and the high species diversity of the genus *Eumerus*, which

is continuously expanding through new species description, taxonomic issues remain. The new species within the genus (Doczkal 1996; Ricarte *et al.*, 2012; Grković *et al.*, 2015, 2017; Markov *et al.*, 2016; van Steenis *et al.*, 2017; Smit *et al.*, 2017) should be incorporated into new phylogenetic and biogeographic studies. There has only been one phylogenetic study on the genus so far (Chroni *et al.*, 2017), which provided genetic evidence of two major monophyletic lineages and seven 'molecular' groups within the genus *Eumerus*, including an *E. minotaurus* group.

The present study is the first to focus on the E. minotaurus group and, by employing an integrative framework, we reveal one new species and identify the E. minotaurus cryptic species complex within the genus (Figures 8, 9). Evidence for the new species is based on morphological data, and the cryptic species complex is well supported by mtDNA sequences, discrete morphological features (antennae, male genitalia), wing morphometry, and biogeographic reconstructions. We also attempted, albeit unsuccessfully, to use a nuclear marker (never previously tried before in Eumerus) to infer phylogenetic relationships between species of the E. minotaurus group. Below, we discuss our findings and further conclude with contingent biogeographic patterns and speciation processes within the E. minotaurus group in relation to the palaeogeography of the Aegean region.



Figure 8. Summary of the results of integrative species delimitation within the *Eumerus minotaurus* complex: morphological characters (male genitalia), molecular markers (COI and 28S gene fragments), wing geometric morphometrics and geographical distribution. Each species is represented by a different colour; *E. karyates* sp. n. (green), *E. minotaurus* (blue) and *E. phaeacus* sp. n. (red). Solid colour boxes indicate successful species delimitation by particular approach. Multicolour boxes depict clusters formed by multiple species.



Figure 9. Mitochondrial phylogeographic pattern of the E. minotaurus taxon group. Specimens are grouped according to species/geographical cluster: E. crassus/ East Aegean Islands, D; E. karyates sp. n./Peloponnese, B; E. minotaurus/Crete and Karpathos, A: and E. phaeacus sp. n./Balkan peninsula, C. The major geological events in the Aegean Archipelago, that led to speciation within the group are displayed, *i.e.* the formation of MAT (12-9 Mya) and separations of: Crete from the Peloponnese (5.5-5 Mya), the Peloponnese from the Greek mainland (5-3 Mya) and Karpathos from Crete (3.5 Mya). There is evidence that until the end of the Pleistocene (0.021 Mya), the Greek mainland, Anatolia and the East Aegean Islands were still linked (for interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

Taxonomic and molecular implications

Doczkal (1996) published the first study indicating the affinity among Eumerus species with elongated pedicels (i.e. the E. minotaurus group) in which he described E. niehuisi. Taxonomic and phylogenetic analyses of E. crassus, E. anatolicus sp. n., the E. minotaurus complex and E. longicornis have evidenced their differentiation from other Eumerus species (Doczkal, 1996; Chroni et al., 2017). We argue that all these aforementioned species belong to the same taxon group (the *E. minotaurus* group) owing to all of them having an elongated pedicel and similarly shaped male genitalia, the major common features differentiating them from other *Eumerus* species and groups. Studies by Hasson et al. (2009) and House et al. (2013) indicate that natural and sexual selection (and their interaction) may promote insect genital evolution.

Our morphology-based results are supported by our mtDNA analyses. The utility of a molecular marker is determined by its ability to reveal with high resolution the phylogenetic relationships of the organism(s) being studied, which is dependent on the mutation rate of the coding region. Our mtDNA phylogenetic reconstructions (tree-based species delimitation) and putative species limits analyses (non-tree-based) reaffirmed our morphological assignments (species predictions), clustering all these species within the same phylogenetic group with quite high bootstrap and probability values, and fully supporting the configuration of the E. minotaurus group. In addition, the employed mtDNA sequences clearly granted three lineages representing three different species within E. minotaurus, proving its suitability for resolving cryptic species. Identification of these three mitochondrial lineages led us to examine the male genitalia in more detail to seek subtle differences that we consider crucial to differentiating cryptic species. Tree topologies within the E. minotaurus group were consistent; in all cases, the E. crassus lineage was distinct from that of the *E. minotaurus* complex and, within the complex, E. karyates sp. n. and E. minotaurus clustered together but apart from *E. phaeacus* sp. n.

A combination of mitochondrial and nuclear gene fragments is often preferred to discriminate evolutionary lineages; therefore we intended to incorporate a nuclear marker dataset into our phylogenetic analyses. The 28S nuclear marker has shown genetic divergence among hoverflies (Mengual *et al.*, 2008), and not only (*e.g.* Awasthi *et al.*, 2016). However, in our study, the 28S marker resulted in low tree resolution and lineage admixture. We detected partial (six out of

eight sequences) clustering for one species of the *E.* minotaurus complex (*E. karyates* sp. n.) in the 28S MP tree, denoting a recent speciation event, most likely not yet complete. For the remaining species of the *E. minotaurus* complex, the 28S marker proved un-informative. We had only one 28S sequence (that of *E. crassus*) outside of the *E. minotaurus* complex from which it was clearly separated, but the lack of sequences prevent us from making further conclusions about the utility of this marker for species diagnoses within *Eumerus*. We speculate that differences in lineage clustering in the trees generated by the two molecular markers are due to the faster evolutionary (mutation) rate of the mitochondrial gene fragment.

Our molecular and morphological inferences are also supported by highly significant morphological wing differentiation among species within the E. minotaurus complex. Although our species assignments for wing shape assessments were based on phylogenetic inferences, we consider wing shape heritability as a part of an integrative approach and a significant additive factor to our diagnosis of the cryptic species complex. Previous studies on hoverflies have shown that wing shape is a reliable predictor of interspecific differentiation, with wing geometric morphometry mainly being conducted on the genus Merodon (Milankov et al., 2009; Francuski et al., 2009, 2011; Ačanski et al., 2016; Šašić et al., 2016), but other examples of successful implementation of this method in hoverfly genera exist, such as in Cheilosia (Ludoški et al., 2008) and Chrysotoxum (Nedeljković et al., 2013; 2015), as well as in the hoverfly tribe Pipizini (Vujić et al., 2013). Moreover, in recent taxonomic studies of cryptic hoverfly species, molecular data strongly supported the results of geometric morphometrics results, even though small sample size was employed (as for the current study, Vujić et al., 2013; Nedeljković et al., 2013; 2015; Ačanski et al., 2016; Šašić et al., 2016; Radenković et al., 2017). This is the first study to include wing shape analyses on the genus Eumerus and the results are in accordance with previous hoverfly studies. Apart from the significant differences in wing shape among species, the high percentage of correct specimen assignments to species by both discriminant function analysis and the Gaussian naïve Bayes classifier analyses demonstrates that wing shape is highly reliable in cryptic species delimitation.

The topology of the phenogram based on wing shape variables was congruent with the topology inferred from phylogenetic analyses. The most similar wing shape was detected between E. minotaurus and E. karyates sp. n., and E. crassus wing shape was distinct from the species of the E. minotaurus complex. Observed differences in mean wing shape of the species within the E. minotaurus complex were mainly associated with broadness of the proximal part of the wing. Both proximal and distal parts of the wing differed between E. crassus and the E. minotaurus complex. Due to our small sample size, it was not possible to account for sexual dimorphism. Therefore, sexual dimorphism may bias some of our conclusions about mean wing shape differences among the investigated species. Wing length and width influence insect flight ability and male species-specific courtship song (Cowling and Burnet, 1981; Stubbs and Falk, 1983; Routtu et al., 2007; Sacchi and Hardersen, 2012; Menezes et al., 2013; Outomuro et al., 2013), indicating potential natural and sexual selection on wings. The Mantel tests (both simple and partial) we conducted showed no significant correlation among wing shape and current climate, or for geographic or genetic proximity. Following the statement and results mentioned above, we assume that interactions of natural selection, adaptive processes to paleogeographic conditions, phylogenetic history, and restricted gene flow of isolated ancestral populations could explain wing shape differences among the cryptic species.

Mitochondrial dating, biogeographic history and divergence time estimates

important issue for the mitochondrial An phylogeography of hoverflies (including *Eumerus*) is the absence of a fossil record and an accurate mitochondrial substitution rate for gene fragments that could be used to calibrate the molecular clock. Here, we essayed three different analytical approaches based on the two major geological events that occurred in the Aegean Archipelago (MAT and MSC) as well as the standard mitochondrial substitution rate reported for arthropods (mtDNA-rate, Brower, 1994). The mtDNA-rate is not always feasible for all insect groups, having been shown to produce unreliable results, and hence, potential pitfalls should be taken into account (Papadopoulou et al., 2010). Indeed, we found that the divergence times generated from our mtDNA-rate analysis were rather low and inconsistent with any major geological event of the Aegean region that could explain speciation within the E. minotaurus group, confirming its reputation to give 'unrealistic ages'. In contrast, the MAT and MAT&MSC divergence

time estimates were similar, with the latter approach being more in line with biogeographic events in the region. We posit that our MAT&MSC divergence times might reflect better the actual diversification events. The low estimated pairwise substitution rates arising from the MAT and MAT&MSC analyses are exceptional; low COI pairwise substitution rates have been found in other insects, such as ants (1.5%, Quek *et al.*, 2004) and *Drosophila* species (1.54%, Nunes *et al.*, 2010), suggesting that caution should be exercised if calibrating the molecular clock according to the standard arthropod substitution rate of 2.3%.

Heled and Drummond (2010) highlighted the necessity of assessing multiple samples per species when inferring speciation times and that 'two or more sequences per species are necessary for a complete estimation of speciation times, given enough loci'. We included from 4 to 18 sequences per species in our phylogenetic analyses with samples originating from different localities (except for E. karyates sp. n. that has only been recorded in Karyes of the Peloponnese, so all specimens were from one locality). Since the tree topology obtained from BEAST was congruent to those obtained from mitochondrial phylogenetic inferences (i.e., the COI dataset) and as the estimated molecular divergence times were concordant with the geological events that occurred in the Aegean region, we claim that our estimates for speciation events in the E. minotaurus group most likely reflect reality. Certainly, more sequences/taxa (or more loci) would further assist to elucidate the phylogeography of the E. minotaurus group but, unfortunately, insect sampling and gene amplification are always challenging.

Our phylogenetic assessment of the four species within the E. minotaurus group reflects their geographic distributions, with each species occurring in a specific region and belonging to a separate geographical cluster. As the initial diversification event occurred approximately 11.08 Mya (hereinafter, all timings are based on our MAT&MSC analysis), we speculate that there was a single species during the Miocene in Ägäis, which served as the first ancestor of all species of the E. minotaurus group (as it is known today). When the MAT occurred, eastern populations split from western ones, with one population progressively dominating the eastern part of the Aegean to become E. crassus. Our biogeographic reconstructions suggest an east-to-west (from the East Aegean towards the Greek mainland and the Balkan Peninsula) species diversification of E. crassus, with dispersal and/or vicariant events, confirming the MAT scenario. In

the biogeographic context, the Greek mainland was isolated from Anatolia and the East Aegean Islands at 0.18-0.14 Mya (and were most likely consolidated until the end of the Pleistocene at 0.021 Mya), and some of the Aegean Islands started to acquire their current configurations ca. 0.03-0.018 Mya and were finally shaped at 0.008 Mya (for a thorough review see Kougioumoutzis *et al.*, 2017). We have estimated speciation of *E. crassus* at 0.91 Mya (mid-Pleistocene), reflecting a period of momentous geological and climatic changes in the Aegean that likely drove speciations and/or extinctions.

Another diversification event was detected at 7.6 Mya by our analyses that separated a northwestern population (Balkan Peninsula) from a southwestern one (Peloponnese/ Crete and Karpathos); our biogeographic analyses confirmed that 'northto-south' division. Distribution patterns among the Aegean Islands are far more complex than those of the Ionian Islands because of their greater numbers and greater topographic, palaeogeographic, and environmental complexity (Gillespie and Clague, 2009; Kougioumoutzis et al., 2017). However, "the fauna and flora in the Ionian Islands are expected to be more 'harmonic', without profound gaps in their taxonomic composition" (Gillespie and Clague, 2009), harbouring fewer endemic taxa and existing taxa being more similar to those of the adjacent mainland. Indeed, E. phaeacus sp. n. is an insular (Corfu: Ionian Archipelago, Greece) and montane species (Balkan Peninsula: Mt Olympus, Greece; and Mt Rumija, Montenegro). Speciation forces similar to those that acted on E. crassus must have also influenced speciation of E. phaeacus sp. n. (estimated divergence at 0.67 Mya).

The Messinian Salinity Crisis was another major event that occurred in the Aegean, during which Crete became isolated from the Greek mainland but maintained a land connection to the Peloponnese until 5 Mya. Due to intense tectonic phenomena, the Aegean region was fragmented and considerably altered during the Pliocene. Crete became permanently isolated from the Peloponnese and other inland areas, and a wide sea-barrier (aka the Corinthian Channel) separated the Peloponnese from mainland Greece (5-3 Mya, Dermitzakis, 1990). Later, during the Pleistocene, climatic oscillations and sea-level fluctuations led to repeated connection/disconnection cycles (eight glacial cycles; for a review see Perissoratis and Conispoliatis, 2003), which altered the size and isolation of land areas (e.g. of the islands) by forming temporary landbridges/corridors, allowing exchange of biota between islands and the mainland. These sea-level fluctuations continued until the late Pleistocene (0.021 Mya) and into the Holocene (Dermitzakis, 1990), inducing species diversification and dispersal (Perissoratis and Conispoliatis, 2003). A diversification event occurred 5.2 Mya within the southern populations of the E. minotaurus complex that subsequently gave rise to two species: E. karvates sp. n. (Peloponnese cluster) and E. minotaurus (Crete and Karpathos cluster). We have estimated the speciation events for these latter two species to date to 0.49 Mya and 2.26 Mya, respectively. We speculate that gene flow between the Peloponnese and Crete/Karpathos populations was impeded at the end of the MSC, when the Mediterranean Sea was refilled, and that speciation was favoured when the sea level started to stabilize. It is worth mentioning that the disconnection of Crete and Karpathos Islands (5-2 Mya) did not seem to affect the distribution of E. minotaurus (the same species is recorded on both islands), and no further speciation has taken place.

Among other phylogeographic studies carried out in the Aegean that explore the driving forces of animal speciation and biogeographic patterns, Poulakakis (2014) highlighted the importance of MAT for species distributions in the area. According to that study, species such as those of the E. minotaurus group can be characterized as post-MAT colonizers, describing them as "species that reached the region after the creation of the MAT, and whose diversification is due to the MSC, intense tectonism during the Pliocene and the climatic oscillations in these periods" (Poulakakis et al., 2014). Molecular clock is infrequently applied to insects groups in the Aegean, and when it does, it concerns mostly beetles (Papadopoulou et al., 2009; 2010), crickets (Allegrucci et al., 2009; 2011), termites (Luchetti et al., 2005; 2007) and sand fly (Kasap et al., 2015). Here, for the first time, we present phylogeographic and mitochondrial dating inferences about the hoverfly genus Eumerus in the Aegean, firmly supported by integrative taxonomic data, which may foster similar studies on other hoverfly genera to further elucidate the biogeographic evolution of the Aegean.

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S1. List of specimens used for wing geometric morphometric analysis by geographical area and species.

S2. Maximum likelihood analysis for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI dataset). Values above branches indicate bootstrap replicates (only values >50 are illustrated).

S3. Neighbor-joining analysis for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI dataset). Values in the branches indicate bootstrap replicates (only values >50 are illustrated).

S4. Bayesian analysis for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI dataset). Values indicate Bayesian probabilities.

S5. Haplotype networks constructed using the statistical parsimony algorithm for the concatenated 3' and 5' fragments of the COI gene (COI subset) for the E.minotaurus group.

S6. Maximum parsimony analysis of the 28S gene fragment (28S dataset). Only one tree was generated (Length 90 steps, CI=93, RI=81). Filled circles denote unique changes and open circles are non-unique changes. Bootstrap support values are illustrated above the branches.

S7. Results of Principal component analysis conducted on wing shape variables.

S8. Results of discriminant analysis conducted on wing shape variables. F values are shown above the diagonal, p values are shown below the diagonal (df = 13.35).

Appendix

Systematics

Eumerus minotaurus group

Diagnosis. Species with elongated pedicel, at least 1.5 times longer than deep. Short body pile. Metafemur moderately swollen. Ventral pile on metafemur not longer than half the depth of the femur. Abdomen black with bronze to gold tinge laterally, about two times as long as wide. S4 in males flat, with invaginated posterior margin (Figure 10K), very similar in shape in all species of the group. Posterior surstyle lobe in males genitalia simple, oval (Figure 10A-C); hardly varying in shape between species, except for *E. crassus* and *E. niehuisi* (slightly different). The group includes the following species in Europe: *E. crassus*



Figure 10. Male genitalia. Epandrium, lateral view: A) *E. minotaurus* complex, B) *E. longicornis* Loew, 1855, C) *E. anatolicus* sp. n., ventral view: D) *E. minotaurus* complex, E) *E. longicornis*, F) *E. anatolicus* sp. n.; G) *E. minotaurus* Claussen and Lucas, 1988, aedeagus with accessory structures; distal part of aedeagal apodeme: H) *E. karyates* sp. n., I) *E. phaeacus* sp. n., J) *E. anatolicus* sp. n., aedeagus with accessory structures; K) *E. minotaurus* complex, males abdominal sternite IV; hypandrium, lateral view: L) *E. minotaurus* complex, M) *E. longicornis*, N) *E. anatolicus* sp. n. Scale 0.2 mm. ae – aedeagal apodeme, as – anterior lobe of surstylus, il – interior lobe of surstylus, p. – posterior lobe of surstylus, vp. – ventral margin of posterior surstyle lobe.



Figure 11. E. minotaurus group, head, lateral view: A) *E. minotaurus* Claussen and Lucas, 1988, male, B) *E. phaeacus* sp. n., female; antenna: C) *E. karyates* sp. n., D) *E. anatolicus* sp. n., E) *E. crassus* Grković, Vujić and Radenković, 2015, F) *E. longicornis* Loew, 1855; dorsal view: G) *E. minotaurus*, male, H) *E. phaeacus* sp. n., female. *E. minotaurus* complex, leg: I) male, J) female. Scale: 1mm.

(Figure 11E), *E. longicornis* (Figures 10B, E, M, 11F), *E. niehuisi* and the *E. minotaurus* cryptic species complex (comprising *E. karyates* sp. n., *E. minotaurus* and *E. phaeacus* sp. n.; hereafter named *E. minotaurus* complex); and in Turkey: *E. anatolicus* sp. n. and *E. crassus*.

Eumerus minotaurus cryptic species complex

Diagnosis. Dark appearance, body blackish-bronze. Eyes covered with long white scattered pilosity (Figure 11G, H), whereas eyes in *E. longicornis* are almost bare. Second and third antennal segment elongated, with almost the same width (Figure 11A-C), similar to *E. longicornis* but the ventral margin of the basoflagellomere of this latter species is linear (Figure 11F) whereas it is slightly convex in the *E. minotaurus* complex. White to grey, very narrow and linear pollinose maculae on tergites, often absent on T4, especially among female; these maculae are well expressed and lunulate in *E. longicornis* in particular, but also in other species of the *E. minotaurus* group. Females of the *E. minotaurus* complex can be easily Table 5. Morphological differences between the E. minotaurus complex and E. longicornis.

E. longicornis Loew, 1855	E. minotaurus complex
Eyes almost bare	Eyes covered with moderately long and dense pile
Ventral margin of basoflagellomere linear	Ventral margin of basoflagellomere slightly convex
Ventral pile of pedicel shorter than the depth of pedicel	Ventral pile of pedicel longer than the depth of pedicel
Ventral pile of scape distinctly longer than ventral pile of pedicel	Ventral pile of scape about the same length as ventral pile of pedicel
Ventral pile on femur short as the dorsal	Ventral pile on femur longer than the dorsal
Pollinose maculae on tergites II-IV wide, well expressed, third pair clearly oblique	Pollinose maculae on tergites II–IV narrow, linear, third pair often absent

distinguished from *E. crassus* females by the welldeveloped and wider pairs of maculae on T2-4 and the conspicuously developed pollinosity behind the posterior ocellus of *E. crassus*. Table 5 describes the clear morphological differences between the *E. minotaurus* complex and *E. longicornis*. The male genitalia of these two taxa are shown in Figure 10.

Distribution. Eastern Mediterranean (Greece, Montenegro).

General description. Male. Head. Eyes holoptic. Eye contiguity about 6 ommatidia long. Eye with scattered long white pilosity, bare near the margins. Face, vertex and occiput black to bronze, moderately punctuated. Face with uneven white to bronze pollinosity, less or more expressed but usually with a prominent longitudinal median stripe of silver pollinosity. Ocellar triangle isosceles, longer than wide (Figure 11G). Face slightly convex, covered with white pile (Figure 11A). Pile on vertex and occiput yellow, but in ocellar triangle mixed with black. Scape and pedicel dark brown and covered with yellow pile, ventrally as long as the depth of the pedicel. Pedicel elongated, almost as long as the basoflagellomere (Figure 11A-C). Basoflagellomere elongated, brown, from almost yellow to dark brown, covered with grey pollinosity. Sensory pit located ventrally near the distal margin of the basoflagellomere. Arista reddish-brown.

Thorax. Scutum, scutellum and pleurae black to bronze, moderately punctuated. Mesonotum anteriorly with fine white pollinosity that extends in two pollinose vittae, reaching 2/3 of the length of the scutum. Median vitta present only in anterior part. Pile on thorax yellow to white, short on scutum and scutellum and longer on pleurae. Pleurae black with bronze to golden sheen, covered in silvery-white pollinosity and long white pile. Scutellum roughly transversely striated. Legs black to brown with reddish connections between segments, covered with golden pollinosity and moderately long white pile (Figure 11I). Metatrochanter covered in medium length pile. Metafemur moderately swollen, ventral pile yellow to white, as long as about half the depth of the femur. Metatibia greatly thickened, a little narrower than metafemur, slightly curved. Tarsi covered with short, dense, golden pile ventrally. Plumula covered in dark yellow pilosity. Wing with brown tinge. Costal bristles black.

Abdomen. Length: width of abdomen is about 1.4-1.6. Tergites black, densely punctuated, covered in short white pilosity that turns yellow in proximal half of T4. T1 with scarce white pollinosity laterally. T2-3 with pairs of silvery-white maculae of pollinosity, narrow, almost straight. Maculae on T4 barely visible, sometimes absent. Sternites light brown, covered with bronze pollinosity and moderately long white to yellow pile. S3 wide, on posterior margin with longer yellow to golden pile. Pregenital segment covered with golden pilosity.

Male genitalia. Posterior surstyle lobe large, covered with long scattered pile (Figure 10A, D). IL covered with short dense pilosity (Figure 10D). Hypandrium simple (Figure 10L). Distal part of aedeagal apodeme with processes that differ in shape in different species of the *E. minotaurus* complex (Figure 10G-I).

Female. Similar to the male with normal sexual dimorphism (Figure 11B, H, J). Frons less or more wrinkled longitudinally, in narrower part approximately as wide as one fourth of the width of the head in dorsal view or twice as wide as the width of the ocellar triangle. White pollinosity along eye margin less or more expressed. Pollinose maculae on T4 usually absent.

We have resolved three cryptic species within the *E*. *minotaurus* complex: *E*. *karyates* sp. n., *E*. *minotaurus* and *E*. *phaeacus* sp. n.

Eumerus minotaurus Claussen and Lucas, 1988

Material studied. Paratypes. One male, Greece: Crete, one male, Lasithi, Sissi, 08.iv.1983, leg. Claussen; Heraclion, 7.iv.1975, leg. Lucas, (NBC). Additional material. Greece: one female, Crete, Rethimnon, Bali, 06.v.2003, leg. Tkalcu; one female, Orne-Agia Galini, 25.iv.2014, leg. Vujić; 2 males, Fotinos, 26.v.2014, leg. Vujić; Chania, one male, Armeni, 25.iv.2014, leg. Vujić; one female, Imbors, 27.v.2014, leg. Vujić; one male, one female, Omalos plain, 28.v.2014, leg. Vujić; Karpathos, one male, Avlona, 02-04.v.2012, leg. Vavitsas.

Diagnosis. Differs from other species of the *E*. *minotaurus* complex by the shape of the distal part of the aedeagal apodeme (Figure 10G), wing morphometric characters (significant wing shape differences), and molecular data (see accession numbers in Appendix). Basoflagellomere is usually pointed (Figure 11A).

Distribution. Greece: Crete and Karpathos.

Description. Size: body length 10-11.5 mm; wing length 7-9 mm.

Male. Width of face: width of head is 0.25-0.3. Width of vertex: width of the head is 0.21-0.22. Length of eye contiguity: length of frons is 0.47-0.62. Basoflagellomere usually conspicuously pointed (Figure 11A). Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is about 0.8. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is about 0.6. Thorax. Length: width of scutellum is 0.5.

Female. Width of frons: width of head is 0.24-0.27. Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is about 0.94. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is 0.5-0.8. Abdomen. Height: width ratio of T4 is 0.8. Height: width of T3 is 0.46-0.49.

Eumerus karyates Chroni, Grković and Vujić sp. n.

Type material. Holotype. Male. Greece: Peloponnese, Karyes, 20.v.2016, legs. Vujić, Nedeljković, Ačanski, Likov, Miličić. Paratypes. Greece: Peloponnese, Karyes, three females, 20.v.2016; one male, 22.v.2016; two males, two females, 23.v.2016, legs. Vujić, Nedeljković, Ačanski, Likov, Miličić.

Diagnosis. Differs from other species of the *E*. *minotaurus* complex by the shape of the distal part of the aedeagal apodeme (Figure 10H), wing

morphometric characters (significant wing shape differences) and molecular data (see accession numbers in Appendix). Basoflagellomere is slightly pointed, but less pronounced than in *E. minotaurus* (Figure 11C).

Distribution. Greece: Peloponnese.

Description. Size: body length 10-11 mm; wing length 7-8 mm.

Male. Head. Width of face: width of head is 0.27-0.32. Width of vertex: width of the head is 0.19-0.21. Length of eye contiguity: length of frons is 0.29-0.42. Basoflagellomere usually slightly pointed (Figure 11C). Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is 0.8-0.9. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is about 0.7. Thorax. Length: width of scutellum is 0.6.

Female. Head. Width of frons: width of head is 0.24-0.27. Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is 0.8-1. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is about 0.7. Abdomen. Height: width of T4 is 0.7. Height: width of T3 is 0.46.

Etymology. Karyatides are mainly known as the model figures sculptured as columns of the Erechtheion on the Acropolis of Athens and were the priestesses of Artemis at Karyae (today's Karyes) in ancient Laconia, Peloponnese. As all our Peloponnesian specimens derived from Karyes, we considered the male adjective "karyates" to be an appropriate name for the species.

Eumerus phaeacus Chroni, Grković and Vujić sp. n.

Type material. Holotype. Male. Greece: Corfu, Ano Korakiana, 24.v.2016, leg. Vujić, Nedeljković, Ačanski, Likov, Miličić. Paratypes. Montenegro, Rumija, one male, 42.11201 Lat., 111.217311 Long., 02.v.2011, leg. Vujić; Greece: Mt Olympus, one male, one female, Ag. Paraskevi, 17.v.2011, leg. Vujić; Corfu, Ano Korakiana, 14 males, 24.v.2016, leg. Vujić, Nedeljković, Ačanski, Likov, Miličić; four males, one female, Liapades, 24.v.2016, leg. Vujić, Nedeljković, Ačanski, Likov, Miličić; one male, Strinilas, 24.v.2016, leg. Vujić, Nedeljković, Ačanski, Likov, Miličić.

Diagnosis. Differs from other species of the *E*. *minotaurus* complex by the shape of the distal part of the aedeagal apodeme (Figure 10I), the absence of pollinosity behind the posterior ocelli, wing morphometric characters (significant wing shape differences) and molecular data (see accession numbers in Appendix). Basoflagellomere is rounded, which is quite a stable character in this species (Figure 11B). *Distribution*. Montenegro: Mt Rumija, Greece: Corfu,

Mt Olympus.

Description. Size: body length 10-11 mm; wing length 7-8 mm.

Male. Width of face: width of head is 0.28-0.32. Width of vertex: width of the head is 0.19-0.23. Length of eye contiguity: length of frons is 0.28-0.4. Basoflagellomere almost always rounded (Figure 11B). Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is about 0.8. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is about 0.8. Thorax. Length: width of scutellum is 0.5-0.6.

Female. Width of frons: width of head is 0.27. Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is 0.8. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is 0.6. Abdomen. Height: width of T4 is 0.7. Height: width of T3 is 0.45.

Etymology. The Phaeacians (Φαίακες, in Gr.), the ancient inhabitants of Corfu Island, were famous for their nautical skills, and renowned for their ability to travel and rapidly reach any location. We selected this name given the origin of the majority of our insect specimens (Corfu) and the wide geographic range of the species.

Taxonomic notes

Doczkal (1996) noted the morphological affinity between *E. minotaurus* and *E. longicornis* and their dissimilarity to *E. niehuisi*, with the latter being morphologically similar and closely related to *E. crassus*. The first two species can be distinguished from the latter two by their slightly shorter body pile, the pruinose supra-alar area without transverse striae, and the scutum without black pile. The pedicels of *E. crassus* and *E. niehuisi* are about 1.5 times as long as deep (Figure 11E), whereas in *E. longicornis* (Figure 11F) and the *E. minotaurus* complex (Figure 11A-C) the pedicel is about twice as long as deep.

New species for the Eumerus minotaurus group

Eumerus anatolicus Grković, Vujić and Radenković sp. n.

Type material. Holotype. Male. Turkey: Muğla, University campus (720 m), iv.2011. leg. Kavak. Paratypes. Muğla, University campus (720 m), one female, 17-22.v.2011. legs. Barták and Kubík, 3 males, iv.2011, 2 males, 26.v.-26.vi.2015 leg. Kavak.

Diagnosis. Species belongs to the E. minotaurus group and presents the highest similarity to the E. minotaurus complex compared to other species of the E. minotaurus group, but also displays clear differences to the E. minotaurus complex.

E. anatolicus sp. n. can be distinguished from E. crassus and E. longicornis by the longer pile on the ventral metatrochanter and metafemur, as well as by the shape of the basoflagellomere (Figure 11D) and the posterior lobe of the surstylus (Figure 10C). E. anatolicus sp. n. can be distinguished from the three cryptic species belonging to the E. minotaurus complex by patches of grey to white pollinosity on the vertical triangle anteriorly and near the posterior ocelli, as well as by distinctive pollinose maculae on T2-4. In the E. minotaurus complex, these markings are linear on T3, whereas in E. anatolicus sp. n. they are wider and lunulate. This character is also present in females. Additionally, the vertex of the new species is moderately punctuated and shiny, whereas in the E. minotaurus complex it is roughly punctuated and matte. Also, in females of the E. minotaurus complex, the frons is wrinkled and covered in white pollinosity along the eye margin apart from an interruption in front of the ocellar triangle, whereas in E. anatolicus sp. n., frons is shinier and with a continuous line of pollinosity along the eye margin, as far as the wide pollinose patch behind the posterior ocelli. Regarding the male genitalia, they are very similar to those in the E. minotaurus complex but with a slightly larger posterior surstyle lobe and with denser pilosity (Figure 10C) that extends along almost the entire length of the ventral margin (Figure 10F); in species of the E. minotaurus complex, this pilosity is restricted to the upper part of the posterior surstyle lobe and sometimes with only a few pile lower down (Figure 10D). The inner lobe of the anterior surstylus is more oval in lateral view than in the *E*. *minotaurus* complex, covered with fine short pilosity (Figure 10C). The apical part of the aedeagal apodeme is clearly different from those in the E. minotaurus complex (Figure 10J).

Distribution. Turkey: Muğla.

Description. Size: body length 10-12 mm; wing length 7-10.5 mm.

Male. Head. Width of face: width of head is 0.30-0.33. Width of vertex: width of head is 0.22-0.24. Length of eye contiguity: length of frons is 0.40-0.47. Eye contiguity 6-10 ommatidia long. Eyes covered in long dense white pilosity, bare near posterior margins. Face, frons, vertex and occiput black with bronze sheen. Face and frons covered in very dense silvery-white pollinosity and white pile. Frons laterally often with a few long black pile mixed with black. Face convex. Vertex and occiput moderately punctuated. Pile on vertex and occiput yellow mixed with black.

Ocelli arranged in an isosceles triangle, longer than wide. Scape and pedicel brown, covered in dense yellow pile, ventrally sometimes longer than the depth of the pedicel. Pedicel elongated, approximately as long as the basoflagellomere and even longer in some specimens (Figure 11D). Width of pedicel: width of basoflagellomere is about 0.9. Width of pedicel: length of pedicel is about 0.7. Basoflagellomere is usually pointed but in some specimens it is oval with the ventral margin quite convex. Thorax. Scutum, scutellum and pleurae black to bronze, densely punctuated. Pleurae, anterior scutum and supra-alar area with fine white pollinosity. Mesonotum with two longitudinal vittae of pollinosity extending up to 4/5 of the length. Narrow median vitta present, almost as long as lateral vittae. Pile on thorax white to yellow. Scutellum roughly striated transversely. Length: width of scutellum is 0.5-0.6. Legs black, tips of femora at both sides brownish. Base of tibiae brownish. Metafemur slightly swollen, ventral pile approximately as long as half the depth of the femur. Metatibia curved in the middle. Wings with dark tinge, entirely microtrichose. Abdomen. Tergites black, densely punctuated and covered in short white pilosity that turns yellow to golden in the posterior half of T4. T2-4 with clearly visible, wide, lunulate maculae of pollinosity. Maculae on T4 narrower. Sternites brown with long white to yellow pile. S4 broad, with yellowish pile posterolaterally. Genitalia. Posterior surstyle lobe large, covered in long, dense and evenly distributed pilosity (Figure 10C). IL covered with short dense pile. Ventral margin of surstylus densely pilose, almost along entire length (Figure 10F).

Female. Similar to the male with normal sexual dimorphism. Head. Width of frons: width of head is 0.3. Frons shiny, moderately punctuated with a continuous line of pollinosity along the eye margin as far as the wide pollinose patch behind the posterior ocelli.