

What's for dinner?: Undescribed species of porcini in a commercial packet

Accurate diagnosis of the components of our food and a standard lexicon for clear communication is essential for regulating global food trade and identifying food frauds. Reliable identification of wild collected foods can be particularly difficult, especially when they originate in under-documented regions or belong to poorly known groups such as *Fungi*. Porcini, one of the most widely traded wild edible mushrooms in the world, are large and conspicuous and they are used as a food both on their own and in processed food products. China is a major exporter of porcini, most of it ending up in Europe. We used DNA-sequencing to identify three species of mushroom contained within a commercial packet of dried Chinese porcini purchased in London. Surprisingly, all three have never been formally described by science and required new scientific names. This demonstrates the ubiquity of unknown fungal diversity even in widely traded commercial food products from one of the most charismatic and least overlooked groups of mushrooms. Our rapid analysis and description makes it possible to reliably identify these species, allowing their harvest to be monitored and their presence tracked in the food chain.

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12 *Introduction*

13 Kingdom *Fungi* is one of the most diverse groups of eukaryotes with estimates ranging
14 from 500,000 to nearly 10 million species, yet they remain vastly underdocumented (Bass &
15 Richards, 2011). Present rates of description, which add on average about 1200 new species
16 annually (Hibbett et al., 2011), are grossly inadequate for the task. Recent attempts to accelerate
17 species description using short, unique DNA sequences ‘DNA barcoding’ (Hebert et al., 2003)
18 and rapid, short description ‘turbo-taxonomy’ (Butcher et al., 2012) hold promise for meeting this
19 enormous challenge (Riedel et al. 2013), yet they still remain marginal to traditional methods for
20 formal diagnosis of fungal diversity.

21 Although taxonomists regard new fungal taxa as commonplace, they are often of little
22 apparent consequence to human society and largely go unnoticed by the public. Like all groups of
23 organisms, our knowledge of fungal diversity is biased towards taxa of greatest concern to
24 ourselves, such as edible fungi. For example, wild mushrooms collected and sold as food around
25 the world generally belong to a handful of well-known taxa (e.g. truffles and chanterelles), most
26 of which have long histories of use in European cuisine. However, even some of these well-
27 known groups have been shown to contain underappreciated levels of diversity. One of these,
28 porcini, has recently been shown to be far more diverse than previously thought (Dentinger et al.,
29 2010; Feng et al., 2012), suggesting the potential for unknown species to end up in the
30 international food supply chain. Although no porcini are known to be poisonous, food allergens
31 have been reported from them (Torricelli et al., 1997; Helbling et al., 2002; Castillo et al., 2013).
32 Therefore, insufficient knowledge of the porcini species contained in food products could pose a
33 health concern.

34 Porcini are estimated to have an annual worldwide consumption up to 100,000 metric tons
35 (Hall et al., 1998). However, their harvest is restricted to wild foraging since, to date, their
36 cultivation has failed. The high prices for this wild food foraged locally in Europe and North

37 America has driven the market towards less costly sources, such as China (Sitta & Floriani,
38 2008). According to the official website of Yunnan Province (www.yunnan.cn), the major
39 exporter of wild mushrooms in China, locally-sourced porcini have been exported to Europe
40 since 1973, and mushrooms of Chinese origin now account for approximately half of all dried
41 porcini in Italy (Sitta & Floriani, 2008). The Chinese species of porcini have been shown
42 previously to be more closely related to European *Boletus aereus* than they are to the core
43 commercial species, *B. edulis*, with which they last shared a common ancestor millions of years
44 ago (Dentinger et al., 2010; Feng et al., 2012).

45 We set out to identify the contents of dried porcini originating in Yunnan, China,
46 commercially available in the UK using DNA barcoding and generalized mixed Yule coalescent
47 (GMYC) analysis, a widely used approach to delimit species using single-locus data (Pons et al.,
48 2006).

49 *Material and Methods*

50 A packet of dried porcini was purchased from a in southwest greater London in October
51 2013. Fifteen pieces of mushroom were removed arbitrarily from the packet and DNA extracted
52 using the Sigma Extract-N-Amp kit. The full ITS region of the nrDNA was PCR-amplified using
53 primers ITS1F and ITS4 (White et al., 1990; Gardes & Bruns, 1993). Successful amplicons were
54 purified using ExoSAP-IT (USB, Cleveland, OH) and sequenced bidirectionally using BigDye3.1
55 with an ABI 3730 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Complementary unidirectional reads
56 were aligned and edited using Sequencher 4.2 (GeneCodes, Ann Arbor, MI).

57 New sequences were combined with 22 related sequences downloaded from GenBank
58 corresponding to “*Boletus* sp. nov. 2”(EU231965-66; Dentinger et al., 2010)/”*Boletus* sp. nov.
59 6”(JN563907-08, -09, -11-13, -17; Feng et al., 2012), “*Boletus* sp. nov. 3”(EU231964; Dentinger
60 et al., 2010)/”*Boletus* sp. nov. 7”(JQ172782-83, JN563901-06; Feng et al., 2012), and “*Boletus*

61 sp. nov. 5”(JQ563914-16, -18-19; Feng et al., 2012). A total of 38 ingroup sequences and one
62 outgroup sequence (*Boletus aereus*, UDB000940) were aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) in
63 SeaView v4.4.0 (Galtier, Gouy & Gautier, 1996) and the terminal gaps converted to missing data.
64 A maximum likelihood tree was generated under a GTR+G substitution model using the Pthreads
65 parallelized version of RAxML v7.0.3 (Stamatakis, 2006; Ott et al., 2007) with nonparametric
66 rapid bootstrapping set to automatically terminate with the ‘autoMRE’ function. A GMYC
67 analysis using the single method (Pons et al., 2006; Fujisawa & Barraclough, 2013) was
68 conducted with the ‘splits’ package (v1.0-18) in R version 2.15.0 (R Development Core Team
69 2009) on an ultrametric tree generated using BEAST v1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012). The
70 BEAST analysis applied a rate-smoothing algorithm using an uncorrelated lognormal relaxed
71 clock model (Drummond et al., 2006), the GTR+G substitution model, speciation under a Yule
72 process, the ‘ucl.d.mean’ prior set to a gamma distribution with a shape of .001 and a scale of
73 1000 with all other priors set to default values, and 10 million generations sampling every 1000
74 generations. An ultrametric starting tree was provided using the best ML tree from RAxML with
75 branches transformed using non-parametric rate smoothing in TreeEdit v1.0a10 on The perl script
76 Burntrees [Nylander J.A.A., <http://www.abc.se/~nylander/burntrees/burntrees.html>] was used to
77 sample every 98 trees from the stationary posterior distribution in the BEAST analysis after the
78 first 250 were discarded as the burn-in. These 100 trees were imported for Bayesian GMYC
79 (bGMYC) analysis in R (Reid & Carstens, 2012). Twenty-six GMYC models were evaluated
80 within the 95% confidence and significant clusters were described as new taxa using the ‘turbo-
81 taxonomy’ approach (Butcher et al. 2012), facilitated by the rapid e-publishing tool available
82 through Index Fungorum (www.indexfungorum.org). Voucher material was deposited in the
83 fungarium at the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew (K) and all sequences were submitted to GenBank
84 (KF815926-937, KF854281-283).

85 *Results and Discussion*

86 The GMYC model with the greatest significant ML score included three ML clusters (1-
87 10 clusters with 95% confidence) plus the root (4 ML entities; 2-23 with 95% confidence).
88 GMYC supports for the three ML clusters were weak, low bGMYC posterior probabilities
89 indicated a substantial level of phylogenetic uncertainty, while the maximum likelihood
90 bootstraps supported reciprocal monophyly (79%, 76% and 100% for each cluster respectively;
91 Figure 1). This result suggests that GMYC may be particularly sensitive to phylogenetic
92 uncertainty, even though it distinguished the same three clades supported by ML bootstrapping.
93 The phylogenetic uncertainty in this dataset is almost certainly caused by a high ratio of
94 autapomorphic substitutions and insertion/deletion events to phylogenetically informative
95 changes. These autoapomorphies translate into longer terminal branch lengths relative to internal
96 nodes, which reduces the distinction of within and between cluster branching patterns, a
97 phenomenon that is known to affect GMYC supports (Fujisawa & Barraclough, 2013). These
98 autapomorphies may indicate true variation in the ITS region, although our own observations
99 suggest they may instead be the result of sequencing and editing errors in the sequences
100 downloaded from GenBank, for which we did not have the original trace files to confirm. Such
101 errors can have large impacts on phylogenetic inference when the number of phylogenetically
102 informative sites is small, such as in ITS sequences of recently diverged fungi, underscoring the
103 importance of careful scrutiny during sequence preparation.

104 Three species could be identified based on corroboration of ML-supported reciprocal
105 monophyly and GMYC clustering, and these corresponded to lineages previously reported in
106 phylogenetic analyses (Dentinger et al., 2010; Feng et al., 2012, Sitta & Floriani, 2008), but none
107 of which were formally named or described. Review of recent treatments of Chinese boletes also
108 did not provide names for these taxa, which have been treated as a handful of species that occur
109 in Europe and North America (Zang, 2006). New names were formally published on 12 October

110 2013 (see <http://www.indexfungorum.org/Publications/Index%20Fungorum%20no.29.pdf> for
111 terse descriptions¹, voucher information, and GenBank accessions corresponding to these taxa).

112 Together with improvements in single-locus diagnosis leading to more robust inferences
113 of evolutionary significant units (Butcher et al., 2012), rapid survey and diagnosis of vast
114 communities of undescribed diversity is initiating a revolution in taxonomy (Riedel et al., 2013).
115 This is particularly true for *Fungi*, which are hyperdiverse and largely cryptic, requiring indirect
116 detection with environmental sequencing for documenting their true diversity (Taylor et al. 2014,
117 Lücking et al. 2014). As a consequence, a vast quantity of fungal diversity is only known from
118 DNA sequences, and these are accumulating in public databases at incredibly rapid rates (Hibbett
119 et al., 2011). Turbo-taxonomy is an important improvement to efficiency in reconciling molecular
120 diagnosis with a standard application of names that enable universal communication about
121 biodiversity. Together, DNA sequence-based diagnosis and turbo-taxonomy catalyze description
122 of new species, thereby greatly accelerating the rate at which diversity can be documented and
123 recognized. Although descriptions based on features of organisms that are readily observed
124 without specialized techniques are ideal, this is not always possible and descriptions based on
125 features of DNA sequences could be automated to satisfy rules on naming. Automated pipelines
126 that integrate analysis, taxonomy, and nomenclature will soon accelerate this revolution, enabling
127 us to capture the most comprehensive baseline information on global organismal diversity
128 possible. Given estimated rates of species extinction from 0.1-5% per year (Costello et al., 2013),
129 and using recent estimates of global fungal diversity of ~6 million species (Taylor et al., 2014),
130 extinction rates may exceed description rates in *Fungi* by up to 5 times. An ‘integrative fast track’
131 approach (Riedel et al. 2013) offers the only tractable solution presently available to filling this

1 1 The numbers reported in the original descriptions should be multiplied by 2.43 to achieve
2 correct measurements of cells and spores.

132 knowledge gap. And as has been shown here with the three new species of porcini in a widely
133 available commercial product, this knowledge gap can and does have direct impacts on our lives.

134 *Conclusions*

135 Our analysis of 15 pieces of dried porcini mushrooms from a single commercial packet
136 showed three species corresponding to lineages that although previously reported in phylogenetic
137 analyses have never been formally named or described until now. The recognition of these
138 species enables them to be monitored in foods and facilitates countries' adherence to international
139 agreements on exploitation of wildlife, i.e. the Convention on Biological Diversity.

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220 **Figure 1.** Ultrametric tree rooted with *Boletus aereus* and with branch lengths transformed using
221 the uncorrelated relaxed clock model in BEAST. The relationship of *Boletus edulis* to the dataset
222 is depicted using a dashed line. Clades with dark red branches represent the three maximum
223 likelihood clusters in the GMYC model with the greatest ML score calculated using the single
224 method in the ‘splits’ package in R. Terminal labels in blue represent sequences derived from
225 individual pieces of mushroom sampled from a commercial packet of porcini. Pie charts on
226 branches show maximum likelihood bootstraps (‘MLBS’; lightest red), GMYC supports [19]
227 (‘GMYC’; medium red), and posterior probabilities of the cluster as calculated using bGMYC
228 (‘bGMYC’; darkest red).

Figure 1

What's for dinner?: Undescribed species in commercial porcini from China Ultrametric tree rooted with *Boletus aereus* and with branch lengths transformed using the uncorrelated relaxed clock model in BEAST.

Ultrametric tree rooted with *Boletus aereus* and with branch lengths transformed using the uncorrelated relaxed clock model in BEAST. The relationship of *Boletus edulis* to the dataset is depicted using a dashed line. Clades with dark red branches represent the three maximum likelihood clusters in the GMYC model with the greatest ML score calculated using the single method in the 'splits' package in R. Terminal labels in blue represent sequences derived from individual pieces of mushroom sampled from a commercial packet of porcini. Pie charts on branches show maximum likelihood bootstraps ('MLBS'; lightest red), GMYC supports [19] ('GMYC'; medium red), and posterior probabilities of the cluster as calculated using bGMYC ('bGMYC'; darkest red).

