

Population Genetic Structure of the Ground Pangolin based on Mitochondrial Genomes



Zelda du Toit

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**POPULATION GENETIC STRUCTURE OF THE GROUND PANGOLIN
BASED ON MITOCHONDRIAL GENOMES**

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Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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31 March 2014

*This study is dedicated to both my loving grandfather Gert Johannes van Rhyn
and mother Marlene Burbidge for their unconditional love, support
and understanding as well as for motivating me to follow my dreams.*

DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHT

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted by me for the *Magister Scientiae* degree at the University of the Free State is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at another University/Faculty. I furthermore concede copyright of the dissertation in favour of the University of the Free State.

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31 March 2014

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All samples were obtained by qualified individuals or veterinarians to ensure as little harm as possible were done to the animals. This study was submitted to the NZG's research and ethics committee, where ethics and legislative compliance were evaluated and approved. The NSPCA also played a role in the evaluation process at the NZG. TOPS permits in addition to Provincial collection permits to transport tissue between provinces were obtained for sampling. No individual pangolins were harmed or adversely affected as a direct result of this study.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A260/280	Ratio of absorptions at 260 nm vs 280 nm
AIC	Akaike Information Criterion
AMOVA	Analysis of Molecular Variance
APWG	African Pangolin Working Group
ATP	Adenosine Triphosphate
BI	Bayesian Inference
BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
bp	Base pairs
bp	Basis pare
BSA	Bovine Serum Albumin
C	Conserved Sites
COI	Cytochrome <i>c</i> oxidase I
Cyt <i>b</i>	Cytochrome <i>b</i>
ddH ₂ O	Double Distilled Water
dNTP	Deoxyribonucleotide Triphosphate
DTT	Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane
EDTA	Ethylene Diamine Tetra-acetic Acid
ESU	Evolutionary Significant Units
F _{CT}	Fixation Index (Among Groups)
F _{sc}	Among Populations Within Groups
F _{ST}	Fixation Index (Genetic Differentiation)
G	Gamma Parameter
G _{ST}	Genetic Distance
H _T	Haplotype Diversity
I	Invariant Sites
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
kya	Thousand Years Ago
M	Molar

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MgCl ₂	Magnesium Chloride
ML	Maximum Likelihood
mya	Million Years Ago
n	Nano (10 ⁻⁹)
ng	Nanograms
NCBI	National Centre for Biotechnology Information
NJ	Neighbor-Joining
NRF	National Research Foundation
NZG	National Zoological Gardens of South Africa
Pi	Parsimony Informative
PNG	Pangolin
R	Transition:Transversion Ratio
STR	Short Tandem Repeats
SSR	Simple Sequence Repeats
SNPs	Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms
<i>Sry</i>	Sex-determining Region
ssDNA	Single Stranded DNA
V	Variable Sites
VHF	Very High Frequency

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Temminck's ground pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*) is the only pangolin species that occurs within southern Africa. This species has the largest distribution range of all four African pangolins and their range extends from South Africa northwards and eastwards in Africa as far as Chad (Heath, 1992; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009). Temminck's ground pangolin belongs to the order Pholidota which consists of three genera. Of the eight global pangolin species, the four species that occur in Asia fall under the genus *Manis* and the four African species are divided into two groups: two arboreal species under the genus *Phataginus* and the two ground-dwelling species under *Smutsia*.

Pangolins play an important role in the ecosystem since they feed on termites and ants, thus controlling the numbers of these invertebrates. An adult pangolin can consume approximately 70 million insects per year (Chao, 2002). In China, pangolins perform a significant role in limiting termites from human dwellings and are listed as a second-class protected animal (Heath, 1992; Whitfort, 2012). Very little research has been undertaken on Africa's pangolins and even though Temminck's ground pangolin is the most widely distributed, very limited information is available on the ecology and behaviour of this species (Heath, 1992; Akpona *et al.*, 2008). However, this species is under threat from poaching primarily for traditional medicine (Bräutigam *et al.*, 1994) as well as electrocution by game fences, especially in southern Africa (Pietersen *et al.*, 2014a). The bush-meat trade and *Muthi* markets is a significant cause of mortality within all African pangolin species (Sodeinde & Adedipe, 1994; Soewu, 2008; Soewu & Adekanola, 2011) and, in recent years, there have been significant increases in the export of African pangolins to Asia. In Asia, pangolins are regarded as a delicacy and are used in traditional medicinal practices (Newton *et al.*, 2008; Challender & Hywood, 2012).

Currently, no genetic studies have been carried out on Temminck's ground pangolins and therefore no information is available that can be sourced to determine population genetic structure across their distribution range. This study investigated the phylogenetics of sub-populations of Temminck's ground pangolin, *S. temminckii*, in southern Africa using full mitochondrial deoxyribonucleic acid (mtDNA) sequencing. The results aimed to present the amount of genetic variation within southern Africa and determine whether they should be managed as sub-populations. The latter will be necessitated if molecular variation between populations is of significant magnitude to warrant consideration as Evolutionary Significant Units (ESUs).

A comparison of Temminck's ground pangolin with other Asian and African pangolins elucidated their divergent evolutionary traits (Luo *et al.*, 2007) and allowed us to use genetic markers to determine genetic structure and genetic relationships between species. In turn, this, along with future research, will create a framework for better conservation and management plans as well as captive breeding and relocation programs where necessary (Crozier, 1997).

This study complemented the recent international research program launched towards the better conservation of all pangolin species that are currently listed as threatened. The program is supported by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature's Pangolin Specialist Group and the South African pangolin conservation initiative – the African Pangolin Working Group.

1.2. PANGOLIN OVERVIEW

1.2.1. TAXONOMY OF PANGOLINS

The pangolin is a mammal belonging to the order Pholidota (Weber, 1904; Nisa *et al.*, 2005; Ntiamoa-Baidu *et al.*, 2005) and the family Manidae (Gray, 1821). There are eight species of pangolins in the world (Figure 1.1) of which four are found in Asia and the other four in Africa (Herklots, 1937; Gaudin & Wible, 1999; Gaubert & Antunes, 2005; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Wilson & Reeder, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009; Hsieh *et al.*, 2011). The Asian species differ from the African ones primarily by having hairs that are layered between the scales, whereas the African species do not (Herklots, 1937; Dickman & Richer, 2001). The Asian species include the Philippine pangolin, *Manis culionensis* (De Elera, 1895), Indian or thick-tailed pangolin, *M. crassicaudata* (Geoffroy, 1803), Chinese pangolin, *M. pentadactyla* (Linnaeus, 1758) and Malayan/Sunda pangolin, *M. javanica* (Desmarest, 1822). All pangolins previously belonged to the genus *Manis* (Linnaeus, 1758), but the two African ground pangolin species were later reclassified into the genus *Smutsia* (Gray, 1865) and the two African tree pangolin species to the genus *Phataginus* (Rafinesque, 1821). However, some authors still refer to all the African species as *Manis* (Gaudin & Wible, 1999). The four African species include the two arboreal species, namely the tree pangolin (also known as the African white-bellied pangolin or three-cusped pangolin), *Phataginus tricuspis*, (Rafinesque, 1821) and the long-tailed pangolin (or black-bellied pangolin), *P. tetradactyla* (Linnaeus, 1766). The two ground-dwelling species include the giant ground pangolin, *Smutsia gigantea* (Illiger, 1815) and Temminck's ground pangolin (or Cape pangolin), *S. temminckii* (Smuts, 1832).

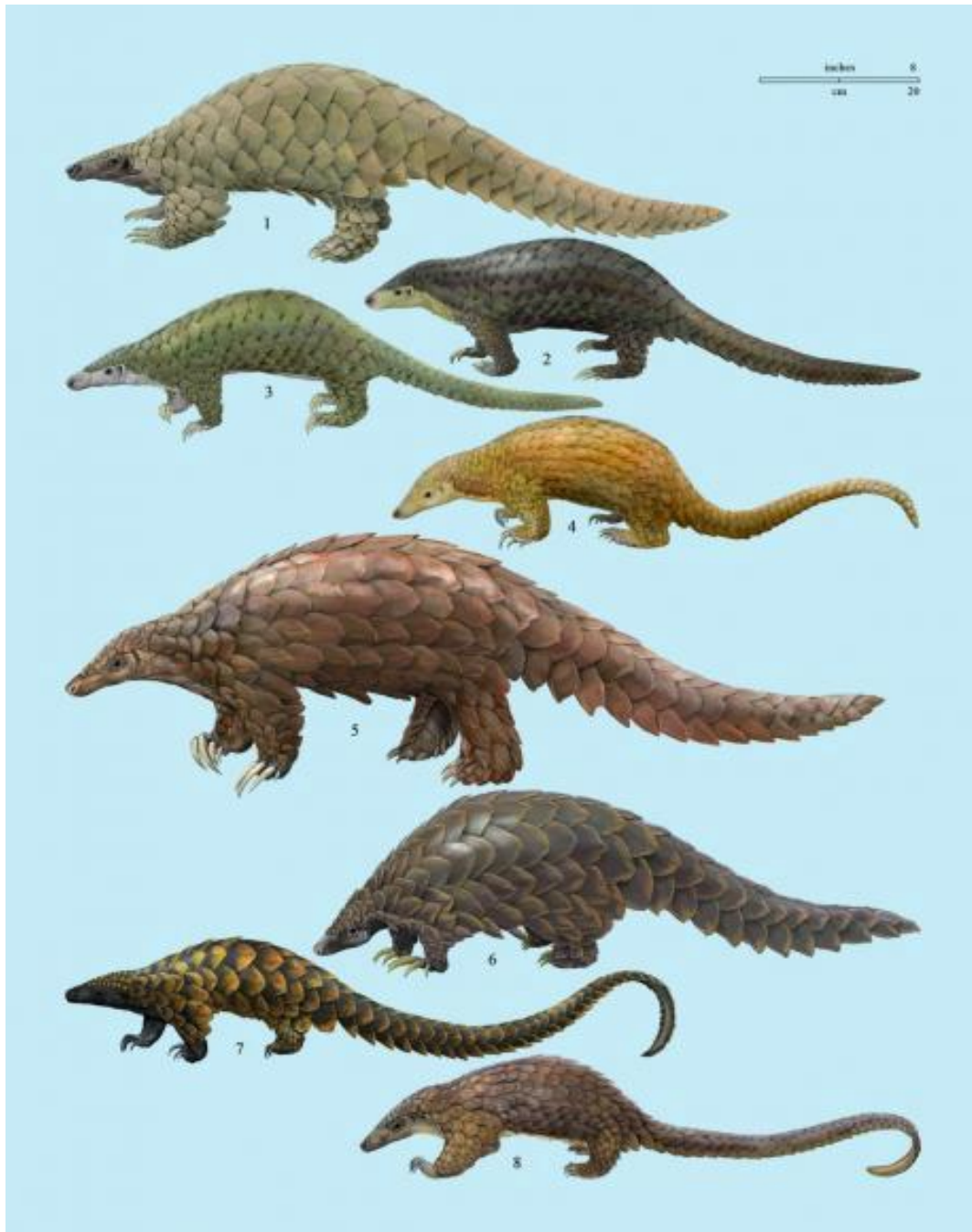


Figure 1.1: Illustration of all eight extant species of pangolins. (1) Indian or thick-tailed pangolin, *Manis crassicaudata*; (2) Chinese pangolin, *M. pentadactyla*; (3) Malayan or Sunda pangolin, *M. javanica*; (4) Philippine pangolin, *M. culionensis*; (5) Giant ground pangolin, *Smutsia gigantea*; (6) Temminck's ground pangolin or Cape pangolin, *S. temminckii*; (7) The long-tailed pangolin or black-bellied pangolin, *Phataginus tetradactyla*; (8) African white-bellied pangolin or three-cusped pangolin, *P. tricuspis* (Illustration: Llobit, 2011).

1.2.2. THREATS TO PANGOLINS***1.2.2.1. HUMAN-PANGOLIN CONFLICT***

According to Beck (2008), Komen (2009) and Pietersen *et al.* (2014a), electrocution on electric fences (Figure 1.2a) constitutes the most significant threat to pangolins in southern Africa. These electrified fences are established mostly around private nature reserves and game farms to either keep animals in or prevent problem animals from entering. Electrocutions occur when a pangolin approach the lower electrified wire of a fence in an upright position. Once shocked; it instinctively curls up into a ball, attempting to make use of its natural method of defence to protect itself from harm. However, repeated electric pulses eventually cause death (Beck, 2008; Komen, 2009; Pietersen *et al.*, 2014a).

1.2.2.2. HABITAT LOSS AND CLIMATE CHANGE

The pangolin's natural habitat has shown a gradual decline in all habitats worldwide and has been destroyed over time due to human actions and development (Sodeinde & Adedipe, 1994; Yang *et al.*, 2007; Whiting *et al.*, 2011). This has led to a decrease in the pangolins' food availability which in turn has led to a population decline in all eight pangolin species (Sodeinde & Adedipe, 1994; Yang *et al.*, 2007). Habitat loss was most likely responsible for the major decline in pangolin numbers in the Kwa-Zulu Natal Province, South Africa (Friedman & Daly, 2004).



Figure 1.2: (a) Temminck's ground pangolin caught on an electric fence (Illustration: Pietersen, 2013); (b) Pangolin scales confiscated from poachers in Malaysia (Illustration: Lumpur, 2009); (c) Pangolin foetus soup: pangolins are targeted as a food source in Africa and a delicacy in Asia (Illustration: Anderson, 2009).

1.2.2.3. ILLEGAL HUNTING AND TRADITIONAL MEDICINE

Over-exploitation has contributed vastly to the decline of various species' numbers globally and the pangolin is no exception. These animals are widely sought after by both the Asian and African markets for various reasons. The majority of animals harvested are for traditional medicine purposes and as a food source.

MUTHI MARKET: One of the biggest threats in Africa is the over-exploitation of wildlife and endangered species due to illegal hunting and the increased demand for traditional medicine (Bräutigam *et al.*, 1994; Sodeinde & Adedipe, 1994; Alves & Rosa, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009; Chakravorty *et al.*, 2011). The pangolin and particularly Temminck's ground pangolin is considered to be one of the most commonly used animals in traditional medicine (Soewu & Ayodele, 2009). Temminck's ground pangolin meat, body parts and scales (Figure 1.2b) are sold and used to create traditional medicines in various parts of Africa (Sodeinde & Adedipe, 1994; Soewu, 2008; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009; Soewu & Adekanola, 2011). According to Sodeinde & Adedipe (1994); Soewu (2006); Semiadi *et al.* (2009); Soewu & Ayodele (2009) and Chakravorty *et al.* (2011) the increase in demand for medicinal animals in order to produce traditional medicine will have a major impact on biodiversity and eventually lead to a great decline and later extinction in certain species, especially Temminck's ground pangolin. The

scales appear to be the most widely used part of the animal for medical or traditional uses (Soewu & Adekanola, 2011). The value of Pangolin products are very high and can vary anything from \$600–\$650 per kilogram of scales on the *Muthi* markets (Andersson, 2014; Davies, 2014). In Zimbabwe prices range between \$7,000 and \$10,000 per pangolin (Hywood, 2013) and in Namibia it starts at \$1500 per individual (Nebe & Rankin, 2013).

ASIAN MARKET: Despite serving as a form of pest control by preying on termites, the Chinese pangolin continues to be severely exploited in numerous ways and achieved the status of *Critically Endangered* on the IUCN Red Data List (Heath, 1992; Whitfort, 2012; IUCN, 2014). This has led to an increase in use of pangolin meat and scales, sources within Asia (Figure 1.2b,c) or imported from Africa (Newton *et al.*, 2008; Pantel & Chin, 2009; Pantel & Anak, 2010; Challender & Hywood, 2012). Trade and export of pangolins and pangolin products, especially the scales, is of great concern due to the high demand for scales for medicinal use. The scales are usually ground into a powder and consumed to increase blood circulation as well as fight various diseases (Fang & Wang, 1980). According to Harrisson & Loh (1965), pangolins have been targeted for decades and it is estimated that more than 60 tons of scales from pangolins were legally exported from Borneo, Malaysia in a six year period ranging from 1958 to 1964.

1.3. TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN (*S. TEMMINCKII*)

1.3.1. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE SPECIES

Heath (1992) and Skinner & Chimimba (2005) stated that Temminck's ground pangolin has the largest distribution range (Figure 1.3) of all four African species and is also the only pangolin occurring in the southern African region. The range of this species extends from the northern parts of South Africa (Northern Cape, Northwest Province, Limpopo Province, Mpumalanga, Free State and Kwa-Zulu Natal) through Namibia, Zimbabwe and Botswana to northeast Africa (Ethiopia, Malawi, Zambia and Chad) (Heath, 1992; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009). They are found in semi-arid habitats such as savannahs and grasslands and occur rarely in woods, forest and swamps since they prefer habitats with drier climates and lower rainfall (Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). However, they do sometimes occur in

habitats such as bushveld, savannah woodlands, floodplains and rocky areas where higher rainfall occurs (Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009).

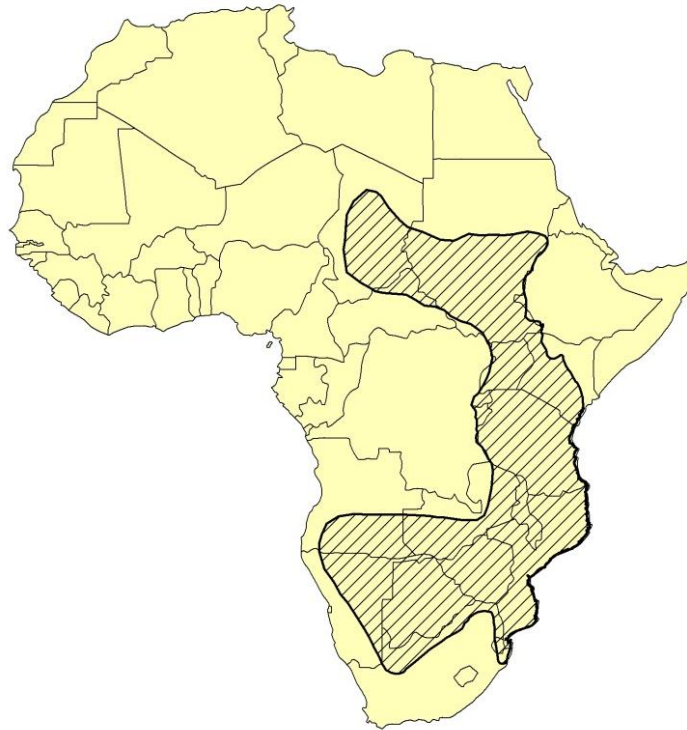


Figure 1.3: Distribution map of Temminck's ground pangolin (*S. temminckii*) (Illustration: Pietersen *et al.*, 2014b).

1.3.2. BEHAVIOUR OF THE SPECIES

According to Herklots (1937); Robinson (1983); Heath & Vanderlip (1988); Skinner & Smithers (1990); Heath (1992, 1995); Heath & Coulson (1998); Dickman & Richer (2001); Coggins (2004); Skinner & Chimimba, (2005); Wilson & Reeder (2005); Luo *et al.* (2007); Davit-Béal *et al.* (2009); Soewu & Ayodele (2009) and Dollens (2010) the pangolin is a unique mammal since its entire body is covered in sharp overlapping scales. When threatened these animals roll into a ball, keeping the softer, most vulnerable parts on the inside and the sharp overlapping scales on the outside. This is a very effective defence mechanism since they keep swinging the tail from side to side and the sharp scales can inflict injuries to a predator (Heath, 1992). Despite this effective defence, Temminck's ground pangolin is preyed on by a number of

predators such as lions (Herklots, 1937; Wilson & Reeder, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009); leopards, hyenas and pythons (Soewu & Ayodele, 2009) who manage to penetrate their defence. These animals are solitary predominantly nocturnal animals (Herklots, 1937; Sweeney, 1956; Fang & Wang, 1980; Heath & Vanderlip, 1988; Heath & Coulson, 1997a; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Tong *et al.*, 2007) and live in burrows made by other species (Herklots, 1937; Heath & Coulson, 1997a; Coggins, 2004; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Tong *et al.*, 2007). This behaviour makes them difficult to observe and study during the day. They predominantly walk upright using their tail and can cover long distances in a short period of time (Herklots, 1937; Dickman & Richer, 2001). The surface of the pangolin scales is coarse and has abrasive uneven grooves that get formed over time (Tong *et al.*, 2007). As they dig holes in the ground and enter their burrows, the scales gets grated against the soil and rocks which leads to the formation of the grooves over time. As the pangolin gets older, the uneven scales become even harder and more defined (Tong *et al.*, 2007). The remains of deceased pangolin are seldom observed, since they go underground when they are ill, hurt or starving and die within their burrows (Heath & Coulson, 1997a).

According to a study performed by Jacobsen *et al.* (1991) and Heath & Coulson (1997a,b) pangolins, and in particular Temminck's ground pangolin, have specific home ranges that they inhabit for a few years at a time. The size of the home range as well as the amount of burrows depends on the size of the pangolin (Jacobsen *et al.*, 1991; Heath & Coulson, 1997a,b). Jacobsen *et al.* (1991) conducted a study where they released confiscated pangolins, found at a *Muthi* market, back into the wild. The animals that were released close to their home ranges migrated back to these areas whereas the ones that were relocated to another location were found dead after a few days. The precise cause of death was unknown, however it appeared that they were victims of predation or hunting, but it could also have been a result of stress due to the long distance travelled or fatigue. This habitat specificity makes rehabilitating and relocating pangolins back into the wild problematic (Jacobsen *et al.*, 1991; Wilson, 1994; Heath & Coulson, 1997a,b).

1.3.3. FEEDING ECOLOGY OF THE SPECIES

Pangolins are entirely myrmecophagous in that they feed solely on ants and termites. They have strong lower front limbs with extensive claws to access termites' nests and cavities (Phillips, 1926; Herklots, 1937; Gebo & Rasmussen, 1985; Skinner & Smithers, 1990; Heath, 1992; Dickman & Richer, 2001; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Lim & Ng, 2007; Yang *et al.*, 2007; Davit-Béal *et al.*, 2009; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009). The giant ground pangolin is known to dig deep into termite nests in order to access termites whereas Temminck's ground pangolin mostly forage near the surface since they are smaller in size and are not regarded as efficient diggers (Swart *et al.*, 1999). Pangolins are primarily nocturnal and mostly feed at night (Pagés, 1975; Heath, 1992; Richer *et al.*, 1997; Swart, 1997; Dickman & Richer, 2001) but are known to forage in the late afternoon during winter in arid areas (Pietersen, 2013). Due to their specialized feeding requirements, these animals are notoriously difficult to keep in captivity as their diet of ants and termites cannot be maintained within a captive environment and the substituted food formula does not fulfil their dietary needs (Heath, 1992; Yang *et al.*, 2007). Pangolins have very small toothless jaws (Robinson, 1983; Gebo & Rasmussen, 1985; Skinner & Smithers, 1990; Dickman & Richer, 2001; Scally *et al.*, 2001; Luo *et al.*, 2007; Ofusori *et al.*, 2007; Davit-Béal *et al.*, 2009) and a long, sticky and very muscular tongue to reach and bind to termites and ants within their nests (Doran & Allbrook, 1973; Gebo & Rasmussen, 1985; Skinner & Smithers, 1990; Heath, 1992; Chan, 1995; Dickman & Richer, 2001; Luo *et al.*, 2007; Davit-Béal *et al.*, 2009). The tongue extends all the way from the abdominal cavity (Doran & Allbrook, 1973; Heath, 1992; Chan, 1995) and can range anything from 30 cm to 75 cm, depending on the species (Doran & Allbrook, 1973). Pangolin eyesight is very limited and therefore these animals rely on their sense of smell to locate termite nests and termites that are on the ground or in trees (Dickman & Richer, 2001).

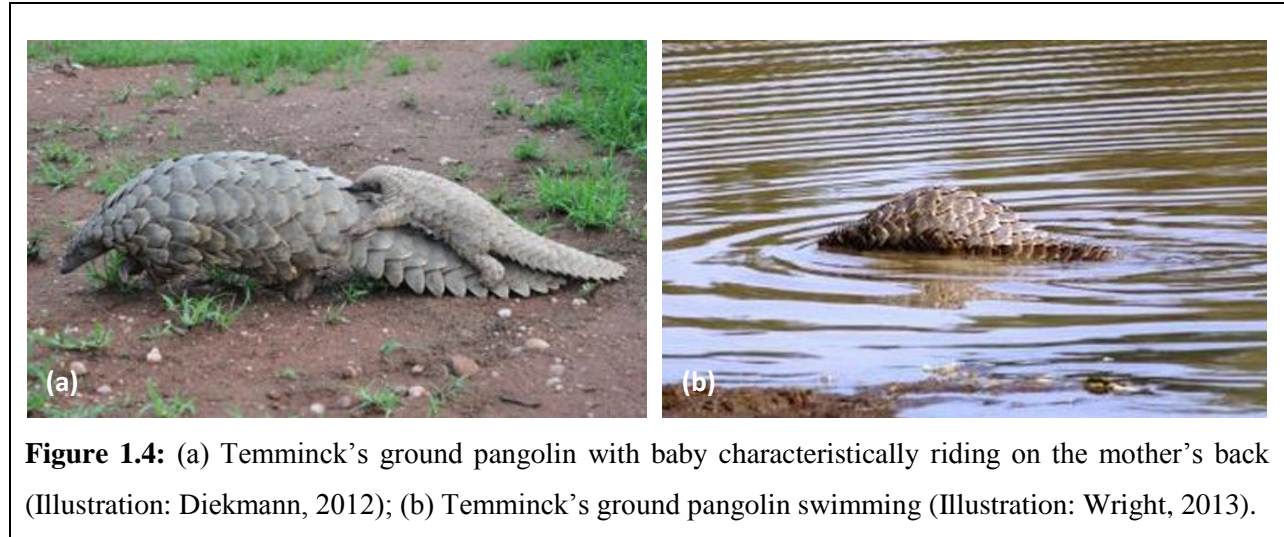


Figure 1.4: (a) Temminck's ground pangolin with baby characteristically riding on the mother's back (Illustration: Diekmann, 2012); (b) Temminck's ground pangolin swimming (Illustration: Wright, 2013).

Pangolins only have one offspring per breeding season (Figure 1.4a) which is carried on the back of the mother's tail (Phillips, 1926; Van Ee, 1966, Pagés, 1975; Van Ee, 1978; Fang & Wang, 1980; Jacobsen *et al.*, 1991, Dickman & Richer, 2001; Soewu & Adekanola, 2011). It is very rare for pangolins to give birth to twins, but Jacobsen *et al.* (1991) reported witnessing this on one occasion. When the pangolin is in danger, the young animal will roll up underneath its mother and she will roll up over him to protect him. However, when the young pangolin gets older only its head get tucked in underneath its mother and its tail wraps around her. She covers him as much as possible, and in the end both of their heads are covered which acts as a double barrier against predators (Phillips, 1926; Dickman & Richer, 2001; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005).

Pangolins are reported to be excellent swimmers (Figure 1.4b) (Fang, 1981; Lewis, 1991; Dickman & Richer, 2001; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Yang *et al.*, 2007) and are capable of swimming long distances (Yang *et al.*, 2007). It has also been reported that pangolins enjoy spending time in water masses e.g. in zoos where zookeepers observed this behaviour while cleaning the enclosures (Yang *et al.*, 2007).

1.3.4. CONSERVATION STATUS OF THE SPECIES

Temminck's ground pangolins' status is currently listed as *Vulnerable* by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Threatened Species (Pietersen *et al.*, 2014b). Although the precise number of individuals remaining is unclear, their numbers appear to be rapidly decreasing. It is believed to already be extinct in most parts of Kwa-Zulu Natal and the Free State Province of South Africa (Friedman & Daly, 2004; Pietersen *et al.*, 2014b). Swart *et al.* (1999) suggests that a possible cause for the extinction in these provinces might be the change in behaviour of their primary food source (*Anoplolepis custodiens*), due to climate and temperature change. Temminck's ground pangolin is listed in Zimbabwe as a specially protected animal according to the Parks and Wildlife Act 20:14, Schedule Six 123/1991 (Connelly, 2013) and is considered to be one of the top ten protected utilized species (Griffin, 1998). There are various factors that contribute to the decrease in population size and one of these factors is over-exploitation, which is greatly compounded by the fact that vast numbers of pangolins are smuggled out to southeast Asia on a yearly basis. Further detrimental factors include the loss of suitable habitats, the low breeding rate of pangolins, indiscriminate application of pesticides (Swart, 1997) and electrocution on farms (Swart, 1997; Komen, 2009). Of these factors, the biggest threats facing the Temminck's ground pangolin in southern Africa at the moment is poaching for illegal trade and electrocution on game fencing.

1.4. PANGOLIN GENETICS

1.4.1. CONSERVATION AND GENETICS

Conserving nature and biodiversity has presented a challenge for researchers in recent times since it is estimated that more than 3000 species go extinct annually (Woodruff, 2001) and around 50% of all animal species are considered either *Critically Endangered*, *Endangered* or *Vulnerable* to extinction (Baillie *et al.*, 2004). This is mainly due to over-exploitation of species, destruction of habitat for agriculture and logging, as well as the introduction of invasive species (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2010). Genetics can be considered an important tool in conservation since it can contribute to a better understanding of populations by determining the evolutionary lineages

of species, as well as to help describe population and ecological structure within and between populations (Allendorf *et al.*, 2013). Conservation and genetics have been used in combination and can assist in establishing a more accurate understanding of the structure and dynamics of natural populations. This, in turn, can contribute to better conservation and distribution strategies that included insight from an evolutionary perspective (Frankel, 1974).

Conservation genetics can be divided into five main categories (Allendorf *et al.*, 2013):

- Managing captive populations and reintroducing them into the wild as well as restoring natural populations.
- Identifying and describing individuals, determining population structure as well as kin and taxonomic relationships in groups.
- Measuring and estimating what the effect of habitat loss, habitat fragmentation and isolation of populations will be.
- Measuring and estimating the effect of hybridization and introgression within populations.
- Understanding adaptation, genetic fitness and genetic characteristics of populations and individuals.

An important aspect of conservation genetics is to measure the influence of landscape features and environmental variables on dispersal, gene flow and genetic variation of populations (Manel *et al.*, 2003; Holderegger & Wagner, 2008). Such studies on phylogeography could contribute to improvement of the accuracy and precision of identification of boundaries for populations (Guillot *et al.*, 2005; Palsbøll *et al.*, 2007). Phylogeography can also assist in establishing phylogenetic patterns between different species and populations (Avise, 2009) that has been geographically isolated for an extended amount of time (Allendorf *et al.*, 2013). This is mostly expected to occur in populations with limited mobility or among populations separated by barriers (rivers, mountains, deserts, forest, roads, human barriers etc.).

Molecular genetics can assist in identifying the phylogenetic and taxonomic relationships among species or populations, which is an important factor in order to design effective biodiversity strategies and conservation plans. In early years, phenotype was the only way to distinguish between different species and this was the dominant system for many years. However, genetics have been implemented to establish taxonomy using genotypic characteristics. As a result, phylogenetics is used to establish similar genetic traits shared from a common ancestor between different organisms in order to more accurately define classifications of species (Allendorf *et al.*, 2013).

1.4.2. DEVELOPMENT OF GENETIC MAKERS

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) can be observed in both the nucleus and mitochondrion of a cell and often codes for specific proteins (Castro *et al.*, 1998). There are a vast variety of different types of markers available depending on the specific application. These markers can include both cross-species and species-specific markers obtained for nuclear DNA studies, Y-chromosome studies, developing Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) and for mtDNA.

1.4.2.1. MICROSATELLITE MARKERS

Microsatellites are also referred to as short tandem repeats (STRs) or simple sequence repeats (SSRs). These regions are considered the most variable type of sequence in the genome and are characterized by high heterozygosity and multiple alleles which creates unique DNA profiles. Microsatellites can consist of various types of repeats motifs, e.g. mononucleotide, dinucleotide, trinucleotide and tetra-nucleotide repeats. Since microsatellites have high mutation rates, these loci are mostly polymorphic which makes them ideal for determining gene flow between populations (Ellegren, 2004). Microsatellites can also be used to determine genetic distance between two populations (Ellegren, 2004; Luo *et al.*, 2007); as well as determining linkage mapping (including linkage-disequilibrium mapping) (Ohashi & Tokunaga, 2003), paternity testing, detection of genetic diseases and for forensic cases (Ellegren, 2004).

Cross-species markers are taken directly from closely related species and can assist in molecular analysis of species that is sparsely studied or where no molecular studies have been performed. These markers are also a cost-effective method since multiple species can be studied using the same marker. However, the success rate of these markers decreases with increased differentiation between species (Barbara *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, it is preferred to use species-specific markers if possible. In pangolin, Luo *et al.* (2007) compared three pangolin species (*M. javanica*, *M. pentadactyla* and *P. tricuspis*) to determine the phylogeography, evolutionary- and population genetic status between these species. The authors designed 32 species-specific microsatellites markers for the Malayan pangolin (*M. javanica*, Asia). These 32 markers were then used as cross-species markers for the Chinese pangolin (*M. pentadactyla*, Asia) as well as for the white-bellied pangolin (*P. tricuspis*, Africa). The results indicated that 27 (84%) of the 32 markers amplified successfully for the Chinese pangolin and 18 (52%) for the white-bellied pangolin, which are more distantly related. The results provided new data on the current molecular status of these species by establishing how genetically different the three species were from each other. The results also indicated an average heterozygosity ranging from 0.321 to 0.708 for the three pangolin species.

The study performed by Luo *et al.* (2007) thus confirmed that cross-species markers are a valuable source where there is limited information available about a species, but that the quality and reliability of the results also decrease as the species become more genetically distant. Although the results attained from the cross-species markers in Luo *et al.* (2007) produced reliable results, the markers produced more consistent results when used as species-specific markers. Thus it could be advantageous in the future to develop species-specific markers for Temminck's ground pangolin rather than using cross-species markers. To date, no studies using microsatellite markers on Temminck's ground pangolin have been reported. However, an unpublished study by De Beer (2013) was performed, where 14 of the initial 32 cross-species markers from Luo *et al.* (2007) were tested on Temminck's ground pangolin samples. The results produced were not robust and could thus not be used for reliable analysis.

1.4.2.2. SINGLE NUCLEOTIDE POLYMORPHISMS (SNPs) MARKERS

Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms are variations at individual nucleotide positions between species or paired chromosomes, which arise within a genome. The distribution of these nucleotide variations is not homogenous and they are more frequently found in non-coding regions compared to coding regions. Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms density can also be influenced by genetic recombination and mutation rate (Nachman, 2001). Currently, no published SNPs have been reported for any of the pangolin species in the family Manidae, both in Asia and Africa. Future research in the development of SNPs for pangolins could contribute to the identification of specific characteristics and measuring differentiation associated with gene regions, as well as identifying possible disease susceptibility (Nachman, 2001; Barreiro *et al.*, 2008).

1.4.2.3. Y-CHROMOSOME MARKERS

The sex-determining region Y (*Sry*) gene is a sex determining locus in mammals which occurs as a single copy and is located on the Y-chromosomes in males (Pamilo & O'Neill, 1997). This chromosome is paternally inherited and the Y-borne gene is responsible for determining maleness in Eutherian mammal species, as well as turning bipotential embryonic gonads into testis (Yu *et al.*, 2011). Using Y-chromosome markers in phylogenetic studies could assist in identifying and determining male-based migration patterns in mammals. The only Y-chromosome study performed on pangolins to date, was a study by Yu *et al.* (2011). The authors sequenced the *Sry* gene in the Formosan pangolin (*M. pentadactyla pentadactyla*) in order to determine the phylogenetic position of the order Pholidota in the Eutherian tree. The results indicated that the Formosan pangolin had a Laurasian origin and is closer related to the order Carnivora and Perrisodactyla compared to the order Xenarthra. The similarities between the order Pholidota and Xenarthra could be conscribed to convergent evolution, since both these orders are insectivores and they share similar morphological characteristics. Yet they are not closely related on a molecular basis (Yu *et al.*, 2011). No recorded Y-chromosome studies have been performed on any of the African pangolins' to date, including Temminck's ground pangolin.

1.4.2.4. MITOCHONDRIAL DNA MARKERS (MTDNA)

According to Castro *et al.* (1998), the mitochondrion is a free living organelle in the cell which is responsible for regulating metabolism and producing adenosine triphosphate (ATP) in organisms. These organelles can also replicate on their own and contain single-stranded DNA (ssDNA). Mitochondrial DNA can be used to describe the foundation for the usage of restriction analysis, evolutionary geneology and phylogeography of species, since it evolves rapidly and there is no recombination, thus yielding noticeable sequence heterogeneity within species (Avise *et al.*, 1979a; Avise *et al.*, 1979b; Allendorf *et al.* 2013). Mitochondrial DNA contains fewer repair enzymes to assist in the replication process; therefore it generally evolves at a faster rate compared to nuclear DNA. The average mutation rate in mtDNA is approximately five to ten times faster compared to nuclear DNA (Brown *et al.*, 1979).

Mitochondrial DNA is a circular molecule consisting of about 14.5–19.5 kilobases and it codes for 37 gene regions. These gene regions include between 20 and 30 transfer ribonucleic acid (tRNA) regions, two ribosomal ribonucleic acid (rRNA) regions, 13 protein coding regions (which includes cytochrome *c* oxidase, ATPase 6 and cytochrome *b*), as well as eight unidentified reading frames (Roe *et al.*, 1985; Castro *et al.*, 1998; Freeland, 2005; Ki *et al.*, 2010). Mitochondrial DNA is well suited for ancient or degraded samples since there is more mitochondria present in the cell, thus the increased chance of finding mtDNA compared to nuclear DNA. Furthermore, only a small amount of DNA is usually necessary for mtDNA testing, which widens the sampling prospects (Freeland, 2005).

Analysis of mtDNA is a very effective way to gain insights of a species' evolutionary processes on a molecular level, as well as allowing insight into mitochondrial genome evolution. Mitochondrial DNA is frequently used in conservation genetics because it is an economically effective method to define the genetic structure of species not studied before (Galtier *et al.*, 2009). Several mtDNA genes can be studied using primer pairs that anneal to conserved areas. Mitochondrial DNA data can also be obtained through various more advanced techniques, such as the primer-walker method where a fragment cannot be sequenced in a single read and has to be divided into several smaller consecutive regions in order to obtain the whole fragment. This

method is usually performed for whole genome sequencing as well as for large gene regions (Sanger & Coulson, 1975). Pyrosequencing is another method implemented to obtain partial sequence fragments, by sequencing ssDNA, using enzymatic properties, to synthesize a complimentary strand (Nyrén & Lundin, 1985). However, both these techniques are time-consuming, costly and labour-intensive. Next Generation Sequencing is a new cost-effective and less time-consuming method since a multitude of small fragments (of a genome) are simultaneously sequenced which permits assembling of the whole genome afterwards rather than undertaking region by region analysis as described above (Metzker, 2005; 2009).

Whole mtDNA sequencing is advantageous for use in genetic studies involving phylogenetics and haplotype distribution, as the whole genome contributes to more accurate results and conclusions from studies where different species are compared. However, individual gene regions are more advantageous when whole or partial gene regions are used for comparative studies between individuals or populations from the same species. Using multiple gene regions simultaneously is a faster method in obtaining accurate results compared to whole mtDNA genome sequencing which is more time consuming.

PARTIAL MITOCHONDRIAL DNA STUDIES: Zhang & Shi (1991) performed a study using 19 restriction enzymes targeting the mtDNA strand to determine whether the Chinese pangolin (*M. pentadactyla*) could be separated into three different sub-species. The authors concluded that there are three sub-species of *M. pentadactyla* and they were characterized as *M. p. pentadactyla*, *M. p. pusilla* and *M. p. aurita*. A study performed by Hsieh *et al.* (2011) observed 38 haplotypes in the Formosan pangolin (*M. p. pentadactyla*) using the D-loop gene region located in mtDNA to distinguish the level of differentiation between the Formosan pangolin and the black-bellied pangolin. The authors also detailed successful extraction of mtDNA from pangolin scale samples.

WHOLE MITOCHONDRIAL DNA STUDIES: The complete mtDNA genome of the black-bellied pangolin, *P. tetradactyla* was sequenced by Arnason *et al.* (2002). The authors determined the placement of various mammals in the Eutherian group by performing a phylogenetic study using only whole mtDNA genomes. Included among these mammals was *P. tetradactyla* (Pholidota) (Figure 1.5). The results indicated that the order Pholidota formed a sister grouping with the orders Carnivora and Perrisodactyla, rather than with the order Xenarthra. The similarities between the order Xenarthra and Pholidota was concluded to be a result from convergent evolution rather than a recent common ancestor. Sequencing of the whole mtDNA genome of the Chinese pangolin *M. pentadactyla* has also been completed by Qin *et al.* in 2012. The authors compared the whole mtDNA genome of the two pangolin species *M. pentadactyla* (Asia) and *P. tetradactyla* (Africa) in order to describe differences in gene regions, genome length and structure between these two species.

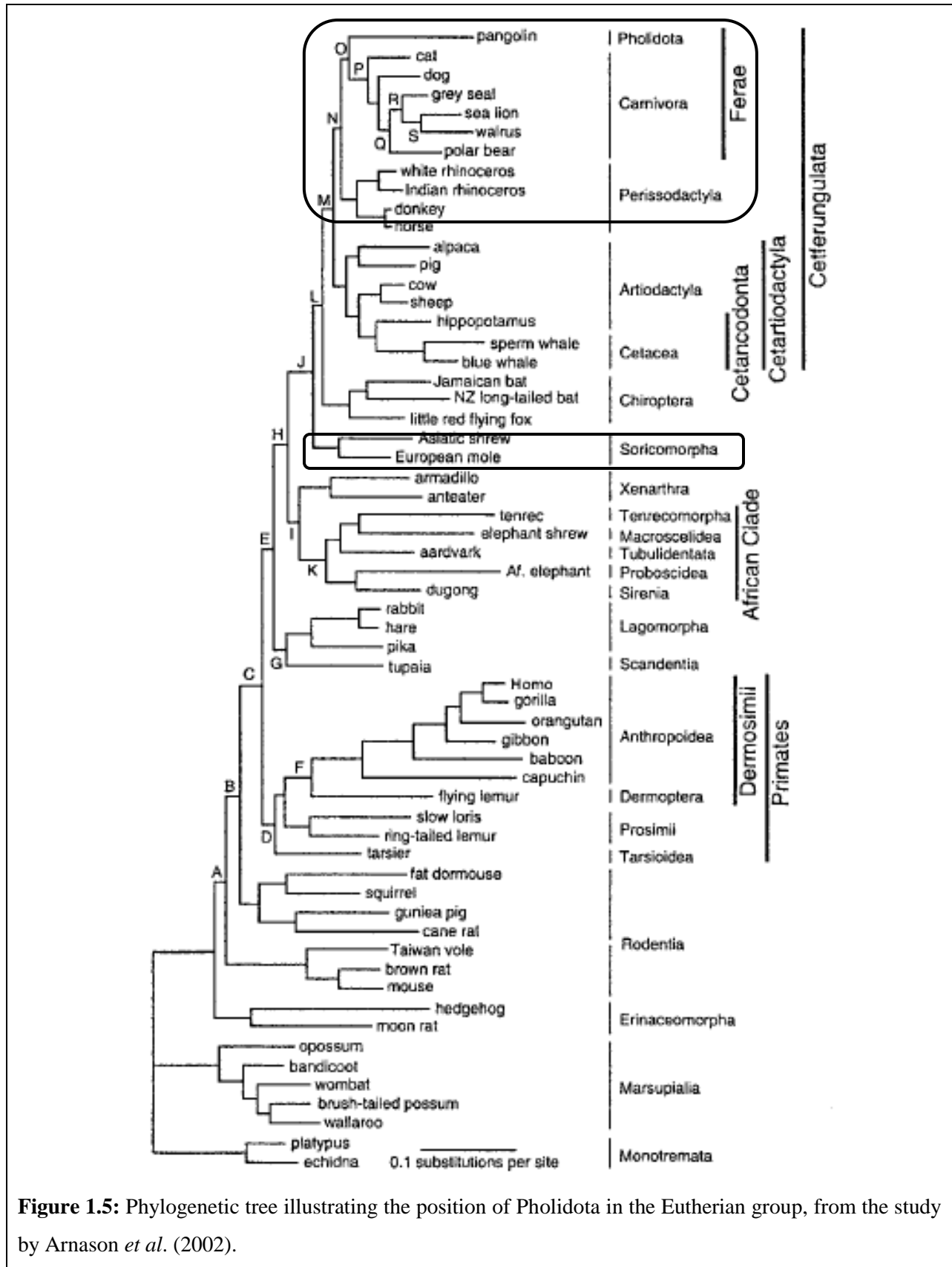


Figure 1.5: Phylogenetic tree illustrating the position of Pholidota in the Eutherian group, from the study by Arnason *et al.* (2002).

1.5. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.5.1. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The overall aims of this study were to develop a molecular method to use whole mitochondrial DNA genome markers to gain insight into the population structure of Temminck's ground pangolins in southern Africa. The study presented here forms part of a larger project aimed at producing molecular data on all four of the African species, in order to contribute to the formulation of an effective conservation strategy for these animals.

1.5.2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- a) Optimize DNA extraction and Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) amplification of scale samples from Temminck's ground pangolin.
- b) Sequence the whole mitochondrial DNA of Temminck's ground pangolin using cross-species and species-specific markers in order to determine the phylogenetic position of the order Pholidota in the super order Eutheria and determine the last common ancestor of the order Pholidota and the time of divergence from their closest relative.
- c) Sequence three specific gene regions in the mitochondrial DNA of Temminck's ground pangolin, specifically cytochrome *c* oxidase I (COI), cytochrome *b* (*Cytb*) and the D-loop. Determine haplotype distribution, population structure and genetic diversity for Temminck's ground pangolins using samples obtained from four countries in southern Africa, namely: Namibia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa.

1.6. STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation is presented in publication format, with papers (submitted for publication) covering various aspects of the study. Additionally, these papers are preceded by a general introduction (Chapter one) and the results discussed in a concluding chapter (Chapter six) to summarize and synthesize the findings of this research project. The papers submitted to international peer review journals are as follows:

1. Du Toit, Z., Grobler, J.P., Kotzé, A., Jansen, R. and Dalton, D.L. *Submitted: February 2014*. Scale samples from Temminck's Ground Pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*); a non-invasive source of DNA. *Conservation Genetics Resources*.
2. Du Toit, Z., Grobler, J.P., Kotzé, A., Jansen, R., Brettschneider, H. and Dalton, D.L. 2014. The complete mitochondrial genome of Temminck's Ground Pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*; Smuts, 1832) and phylogenetic position of Pholidota (Weber, 1904). *Gene* 551: 49-54.
3. Du Toit, Z., Grobler, J.P., Kotzé, A., Jansen, R., Pietersen, D.W. and Dalton, D.L. *Submitted: October 2014*. Molecular phylogeography of Temminck's Ground Pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*) based on mitochondrial DNA variation. *African Zoology*.

CHAPTER TWO

ISOLATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF MITOCHONDRIAL DNA MARKERS FOR THE TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN (*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*)

2.1. ABSTRACT

Poaching and habitat loss are severely depleting both African and Asian pangolin populations throughout their range and, consequently, pangolins are considered among the most threatened species of mammals in Asia (Newton *et al.*, 2008) and Africa (Bräutigam *et al.*, 1994). All eight pangolin species statuses have been uplisted on the IUCN Red Data List and range from *Critically Endangered* and *Endangered* to *Vulnerable* to extinction in some species. Temminck's ground pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*; Pholidota) is no exception as they are harvested for bush meat and traditional medicine in Africa (Bräutigam *et al.*, 1994) and are exported to Asia as a delicacy, as well as for medicinal uses (Newton *et al.*, 2008; Challender & Hywood, 2012). Molecular data is very important to determine the genetic structure of a species. Mitochondrial DNA can be used to trace ancestral lineages of species and can further assist in determining the most effective conservation strategy for these endangered animals. During this study, 15 cross-species and 48 species-specific markers were designed to assist in the sequencing of the whole mtDNA of Temminck's ground pangolin. The use of cross-species markers designed from related species in combination with species-specific markers is an accurate and effective method to sequence whole mitochondrial DNA genomes. However, it is a time consuming process, thus other methods should be investigated for future research to contribute in this matter e.g. techniques such as next generation sequencing.

KEYWORDS: cross-species markers, species-specific markers, *Smutsia temminckii*, Temminck's ground pangolin, whole mitochondrial DNA

2.2. INTRODUCTION

The Temminck's ground pangolin (*S. temminckii*) is one of four extant species of pangolins found in Africa (Herklots, 1937; Gaudin & Wible, 1999; Hsieh *et al.*, 2011). Its distribution range extends from southern Africa through to northeast Africa (Chad) (Heath, 1992; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Soewu & Ayodele, 2009). Temminck's ground pangolin is currently listed as *Vulnerable* on the IUCN Red Data List for endangered species (Pietersen *et al.*, 2014b). The biggest threat currently to the species is mortality from electric fences forming the perimeter of wildlife reserves, particularly in southern Africa (Pietersen *et al.*, 2014a) and over-exploitation as a product in the bush-meat trade and *Muthi* markets (Sodeinde & Adedipe, 1994; Soewu, 2008; Soewu & Adekanola, 2011). Thus far, full mtDNA sequence data has been published for the black-bellied pangolin (Africa) *Phataginus tetradactyla* (AJ421454, Arnason *et al.*, 2002) and the Chinese pangolin (Asia) *Manis pentadactyla* (NC016008, Qin *et al.*, 2012) but no genetic studies have been reported for the full mtDNA sequence of the Temminck's ground pangolin to determine its genetic structure and phylogeny. The identification of primers for full mtDNA sequencing of this species is thus an important step in understanding the evolutionary relationship and phylogeny of this little known order. Furthermore, mtDNA analysis of this species can be used to identify population sub-structure and gain insights into evolutionary and phylogenetic relationships between the Temminck's ground pangolin and other pangolin genomes (Crozier, 1997) both in Africa and Asia. Analysis of mtDNA can be used to determine population structure within species (Moritz, 1994). This information in turn can be used to determine an individual's population of origin which can contribute to successful reintroductions (Freeland, 2005) as well as in forensic analysis as pangolins or pangolin body parts are often found in the illegal wildlife trade. Mitochondrial DNA sequencing can also be used to resolve phylogenetic relationships between species (Moritz, 1994). However some mtDNA studies are limited as they only focus on a few genes or regions of the genome, whereas whole genome sequencing can provide insights into genome organization (Boore *et al.*, 2005). In addition, full genome analysis provides a higher resolution and power for more accurate phylogenetic analysis. Full mtDNA analysis is currently performed via designing primers from highly conserved regions of the genome using publically available complete sequences (Larkin *et al.*, 2007) or with the use of primers designed from a closely related species or via cloning.

2.3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

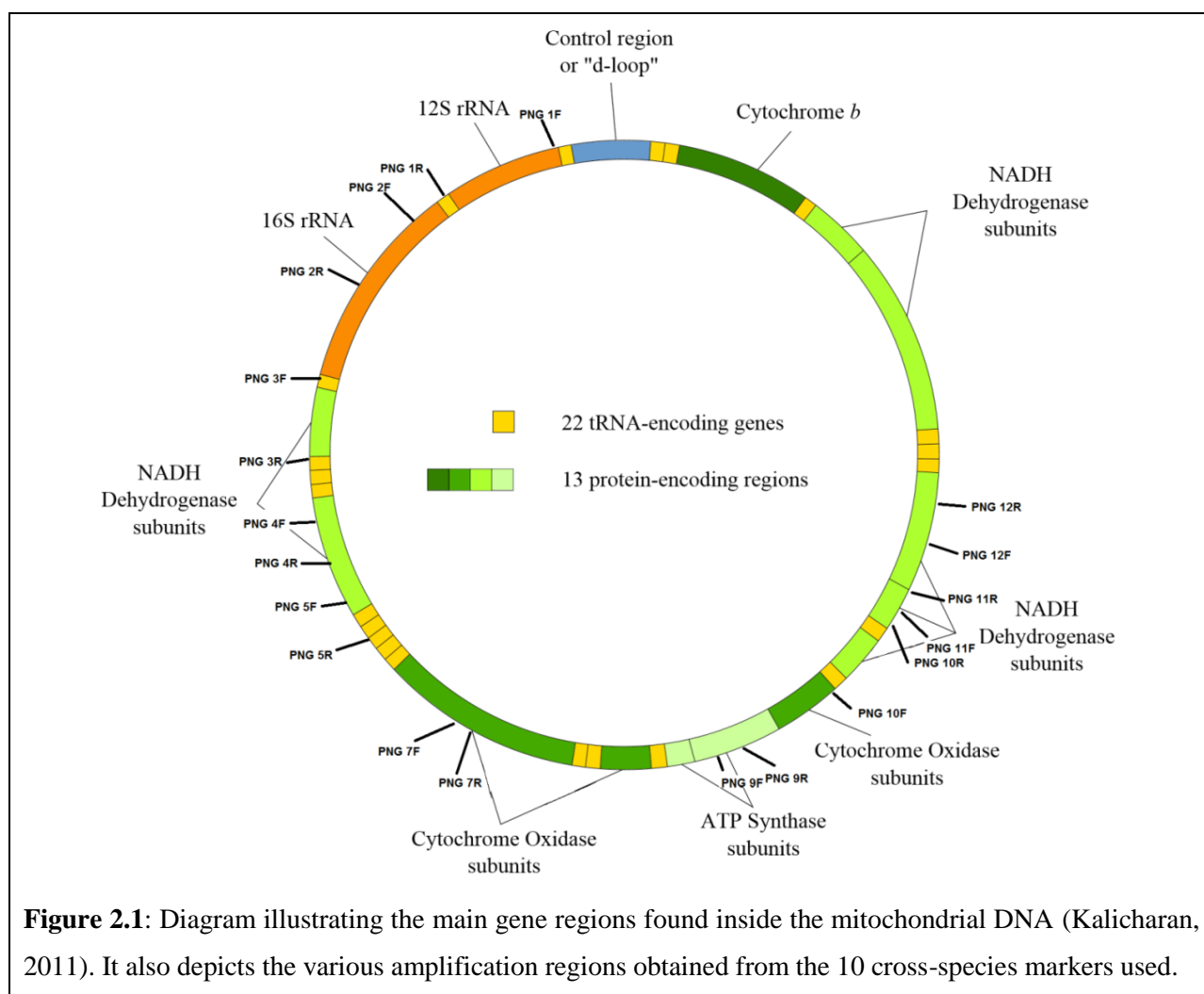
Initially, 15 cross-species markers, of approximately 1000 bp each, were designed (Table 2.1) using the published whole mtDNA sequence of the black-bellied pangolin in order to sequence the complete genome of the Temminck's ground pangolin. Markers were optimized using a tissue sample and a scale sample obtained from a pangolin found by the APWG. The individual was found next to the road in the Northern Province of South Africa and suspected to be a road-killing accident as the cause of death was unknown. DNA extraction for both samples was performed by using the ZR Genomic DNATM-Tissue MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research Corporation), following the manufacturer's protocol for solid tissue as well as the alternative protocol for hair, feathers or related samples for the scale sample. The quality of the samples was determined using a NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) and the DNA stored at -20°C. Polymerase Chain Reaction amplification was performed using 2x Green DreamTaqTM PCR Master Mix (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) using the following reaction mix: 9.5 µl ddH₂O, 12.5 µl 2x DreamTaqTM Mastermix, 1 µl of each 10 µM primer and 1 µl DNA to obtain a total reaction volume of 25 µl. Thermal cycling consisted of: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes, for 45 cycles, denaturation at 95°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 50–55°C for 30 sec, extension at 72°C for 45 sec, followed by final extension at 72°C for 7 min. Amplification was verified by running the PCR product on 2% agarose gels and the exosap (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) protocol was used to purify the samples prior to cycle sequencing. Cycle sequencing was performed using the BigDye v3.1 Terminator Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and the samples purified with a ZR DNA Sequencing Clean-upTM Kit (Zymo Research Corporation) prior to sequencing on a genetic analyser. Purified PCR products were sequenced on a ABI 3130 genetic analyser (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The whole mtDNA of Temminck's ground pangolin was screened, aligned and analysed via CLC Bio Genomics work bench v5.0 software (CLC Bio, Aarhus, Denmark).

Table 2.1: List of 15 two directional cross-species markers used to sequence the whole mitochondrial DNA genome of the Temminck's ground pangolin (*S. temminckii*). The five markers indicated in bold were the only ones which did not yield any amplification for this specie.

Primer name	Primer Sequence	Fragment size Obtained (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)
PNG_1	F: 5'- AGC TGG TAT CAA GCA CGC -3' R: 5'- GAA GGT AGC TCG TCT AGT TTC GGG -3'	400-450	50
PNG_2	F : 5'- AAA GCA CCT GGC CTA CAC C -3' R: 5'- GCC CTC GTT TAG CCA TTC ATA C -3'	200-280	50
PNG_3	F: 5'- ACC GTG CAA AGG TAG CAT AAT CA -3' R: 5'- ACG AGT TCT GAT TCT CCT TCT G -3'	300-480	50
PNG_4	F : 5'- CCC CTA CCC ATA CCA TAC CC -3' R: 5'- GGG TTT ATT AGT ACG GGA AGG -3'	300-320	50
PNG_5	F: 5'- GTA AGG TCA GCT AAA TAA GCT ATC GGG C -3' R: 5'- TAC TTG CTT AGG GCT TTG AAG GC -3'	280-300	50
PNG_6	F: 5'- TAC GCC TAA CCT ACT CAA C -3' R: 5'- ACT TTT ACG CCT GTT GGG -3'	-	-
PNG_7	F: 5'- CGA GCT TAT TTT ACA TCC GC -3' R: 5'- CTG TGT ATT CGT AGC TTC AG -3'	550-600	50
PNG_8	F: 5'- ACG CCC AAG AAG TAG AGA C -3' R: 5'- GTG AGT TTG TTG GTT CAT TAG G -3'	-	-
PNG_9	F: 5'- ATC AGC CTA CTT ATC CAA CC -3' R: 5'- GAG CCT CAT CAA TAA ATG GAG AC -3'	350-400	45
PNG_10	F: 5'- CAC TTC GTA GAT GTA GTC TGA -3' R: 5'- TTC TAC GTG AGC TTT GGG -3'	100-140	50
PNG_11	F: 5'- CGA TGA GGC AAC CAA ACA GAA -3' R: 5'- GGT TCC TAA GAC CAA CGG A -3'	550-570	55
PNG_12	F: 5'- GTA TGC AAG AAC TGC TAA TTC ATG C -3' R: 5'- CCC CCT ATT TTA CGG ATG TCT TGT TC -3'	280-300	55
PNG_13	F: 5'- AGC CAA TTG GGC CTA ATA AT -3' R: 5'- CGG ATG TTT GTC ATT AGG TTC -3'	-	-
PNG_14	F: 5'- GCC GCT GTA TAA CCA AAA AC -3' R: 5'- TTG TAT AGT ATG GGT GGA AGG G -3'	-	-
PNG_15	F: 5'- CAT GAA ACA GGA TCC AAC AAT CC -3' R: 5'- ACT AAT CAG CCC ATG CCG -3'	-	-

2.4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As indicated in Table 2.1, only 10 of the 15 initial cross-species markers successfully amplified for the Temminck's ground pangolin sample (Figure 2.1). The markers did not sequence 1000 bp fragments as expected but instead smaller fragments were obtained. The cross-species markers were initially designed to amplify the whole mtDNA of the pangolin since no reference sequences were available for the species. One of the possibilities for the failure of some of the cross-species markers could be that the targeted fragment was too large for amplification to occur; or due to significant nucleotide differences between the two species, resulting in lack of binding of the primers. Species-specific markers were subsequently designed from the sequences produced via the cross-species markers to fill the gaps.



As illustrated in Table 2.2, forward species-specific markers in combination with reverse cross-species markers were used to amplify the larger regions that were still missing in the whole mtDNA genome of the Temminck's ground pangolin.

Table 2.2: List of one-directional species-specific markers used to sequence the whole mitochondrial DNA genome of the Temminck's ground pangolin (*S. temminckii*) to amplify longer regions.

Primer Name	Primer Sequence	Fragment Size Obtained (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)	Initial Amplification Section (bp)
Pan1_intA	F: 5'- GCG GTC ATA CGA TTA ACC -3'	450-490	50	395-877
Pan1_intB	F: 5'- TGC TTC ATA TCC CTC TAG AGG AG -3'	450-490	50	675-1157
Pan1_intC	F: 5'- CTG AAT TAG GCC CTG AAG CAC GC -3'	350-390	50	949-1336
Pan3_intA	F: 5'- GAG TAA TCC AGG TCG GT -3'	480-520	50	2570-3083
Pan5_intA	F: 5'- CTT CAA TCG CCC ATC TAG G-3'	450-470	50	4499-4964

Thereafter forward and reverse species-specific markers were designed to fill further gaps and to ensure an overlap of more than 200 bp in length (Table 2.3). These markers were developed using the Temminck's ground pangolin sequences obtained, as mentioned above. Species-specific markers amplified with higher success than the cross-species markers that were designed from the black-bellied pangolin.

Table 2.3: List of two directional species-specific markers used to sequence the whole mitochondrial DNA genome of the Temminck's ground pangolin (*S. temminckii*) to amplify smaller regions.

Primer Name	Primer Sequence	Fragment Size Obtained (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)	Final Amplification Section (bp)
Pan Pre-1	F: 5'- CAT CTT GTC AAA CCC CAA AAG C -3'	500-550	53	16292-302
	R: 5'- GGC ACG AGA TTT ACC AAC CCA T -3'			16304-282
Pan_Gap_2	F: 5'- CTC AGC AAA CAC AAG TCC CGC CTG T -3'	160-200	50	1973-2140
	R: 5'- AAA GCT CCA TAG GGT CTT CTC GT -3'			1902-2070
Pan_Gap_3	F: 5'- CTA CGT GAT CTG ATG TCA GAC -3'	270-300	50	2552-2829
	R: 5'- CCT ACA ATG TTT GGK CC -3'			2477-2750
Pan_4A	F: 5'- GTTGCCAGACAATCTCCT -3'	320-360	50	3199-3551
	R: 5'- GGA ATC GTG GAT AGG ATG CTC GG -3'			3140-3484

Primer Name	Primer Sequence	Fragment Size Obtained (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)	Final Amplification Section (bp)
Pan_Gap_4	F: 5'- AAT AGG CAT TGA ACC CAT ACC -3'	150-170	50	3826-3987
	R: 5'- TCG AAT CCA ACT CAG ATT GTC A -3'			3764-3826
Pan4C	F: 5'- CTC TGT GCT ACC AAA TAC ACC -3'	450-500	50	3877-4376
	R: 5'- CCT CCT CAC CCT CCA AT -3'			3804-4303
Pan_Gap_5B	F : 5'- GGA ATC CCA TTA TCA TCA GG-3'	300-330	50	4321-4634
	R: 5'- GAG GCC TCC TAT TGA CAT TAG G -3'			4505-4570
Pan_Gap_5C	F: 5'- CCT GCG TCT AAC CTA TTC CA -3'	200-240	50	4836-5070
	R : 5'- ACC AAT CTA GTG GGG ATT TAG C -3'			4779-5013
Pan_6A	F : 5'- TTA GGT TAC AAC TAG ACC AAG AGC -3'	400-500	50	5007-4515
	R: 5'- AAG GTT CCG GGT TGG CCT AAT TCA -3'			4975-5368
Pan6_intA	F : 5'- TCA GCC ACC TTA CCT ATG TTC -3'	380-430	50	5324-5750
	R : 5'- GAT GAG ATA CCC GCT AAA TG -3'			5308-5732
Pan_6B	F: 5'- GCT GGA ACT GGC TGA ACT GTA -3'	390-440	53	5741-6156
	R: 5'- TTA CGC TGC CTC CAT GTA AGG -3'			5831-6225
Pan_6C	F : 5'- GCT GGA ACT GGC TGA ACT GT-3'	70-100	50	5741-5841
	R: 5'- TGA CTT ATA GCG GGA GGT -3'			5673-5747
Pan_Gap_6D	F: 5'- GGC TTT ATC GTT TGA GCA CAT C -3'	90-120	50	6227-6326
	R: 5'- AAG CCC TAA TGC TCA TAG TAG AG -3'			6171-6284
Pan7_IntA	F: 5'- CAC ACG AGC CTA CTT TAC ATC AGC -3'	300-350	50	6260-6605
	R: 5'- TGC CCG AAA GAC CAA GGA AGT GTT G -3'			6210-6560
Pan_Gap_7A	F: 5'- CAA CGA CAC ATG AGC AAA AG -3'	50-90	50	6820-6895
	R: 5'- CAT AGG TAT GAT ATT GGC TTG -3'			6540-6593
Pan_Gap_7B	F: 5'- CAA TCT GAA CAG TTC TGC CTG C -3'	90-110	50	7243-7352
	R : 5'- TCA AAT GTC AGG TCT TCA TAG TCT G -3'			7184-7274
Pan8_intB	F: 5'- ATT CCC ATC ACC AAA ACG AC -3'	300-320	50	8055-8373
	R: 5'- CTA GGG CTA TGG GTT GAA TAA GC -3'			8014-8325
Pan_8A	F : 5'- CAA TCT GAA CAG TTC TGC CTG -3	370-420	50	7261-7677
	R: 5'- GGG TTC AGG TTT GTC CTT TAT AGC -3'			7669-8040
Pan_8B	F: 5'- CCT AGC AGT ACG ACT AAC CGC -3'	180-200	50	7995-818
	R: 5'- AAG GTT GGA GTT GCT ACG GTG AGG C -3'			7940-8120
Pan_8C	F : 5'- CCG TTC CTT TAT GAG CAG CAA CCG T -3'	160-200	50	8316-8476
	R: 5'- GAT AAA GGT TGG AGT TGC TAC GGT G -3'			8245-8405
Pan9_intA	F: 5'- CCG TAG CAA CTC CAA CCT TT -3'	380-450	50	8543-8984
	R: 5'- CGG ATG TAT TGA GTA GAG GTA C -3'			8508-8925
Pan_Gap_9A	F: 5'- GCA TGT AAT TAT CGG GTC TTC C -3'	100-140	50	9296-9398
	R: 5'- TGG AAG TTA ACT GTA CTG TG-3'			9210-9344

Primer Name	Primer Sequence	Fragment Size Obtained (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)	Final Amplification Section (bp)
Pan_Gap_9B	F: 5'- CCT TTC ACA ATC TCC GAT G -3'	250-280	50	9215-9485
	R: 5'- GCA GGG ATG CTA GTA GTA CAT T -3'			9157-9430
Pan_10A	F: 5'- CCC TGC TTA TAC TGA TCG CCT T -3'	550-580	53	9560-10010
	R: 5'- GGC TAT GGG TTT GGC TCA GTA TT -3'			10541-10631
Pan_10B	F: 5'- ATC GCA CCT CAT ATC CTC AC -3'	540-580	50	10002-10573
	R: 5'- GGC TAT GGG TTT GGC TCA GTA -3'			10067-10614
Pan_11A	F : 5'- TGT TAC GTA TTA CTC CCC TAC TAG-3'	480-500	50	10951-11431
	R: 5'- AGG GCT ATT AGA GCA TTT TCT CG-3'			10889-11383
Pan_Gap_11	F: 5'- TTA CTC CCC TAC TAG AAC CTA CAA C -3'	460-510	50	10955-11460
	R: 5'- GGC AGT AGA TGG AGG GCT ATT -3'			10923-11388
Pan_11B	F: 5'- CCT CCA TCT ACT GCC TAT TCT -3'	260-300	50	11576-11843
	R: 5'- CAG TGC TTT ACA TAG ACT GGG TAG C -3'			11466-11734
Pan_Gap_12A	F: 5'- CCC TAA TAT GAC TCT CAC TCA CAA T -3'	190-210	50	11793-12003
	R: 5'- ACA AGG AGG GCT ACG GAT ATA A -3'			11746-11952
Pan_12A	F: 5'- GCT ACC CAG TCT ATG TAA AGA A -3'	400-440	50	11877-12312
	R: 5'- GGG TTA AGC GCA GAT AGC TGT -3'			12123-12550
Pan_Gap_12B	F: 5'- CCC AGT ATC AGC ATT ACT TCA CTC C -3'	100-130	50	12526-12648
	R: 5'- ATC CTA GTT GGC TTG AGG TTG A -3'			12454-12584
Pan_Gap_12C	F: 5'- TCA ACC TCA AGC CAA CTA GGA T -3'	130-150	50	12700-12850
	R: 5'- CGA TGA TAA GGG CGG AGG TT -3'			12639-12787
Pan_13N	F: 5'- CAA CCT CAA GCC AAC TAG GAT -3'	300-340	50	12723-13043
	R: 5'- ATA GCA CTT GGG GCG GCA AAC-3'			12649-12791
Pan_13A	F: 5'- TTA TAC AAA CGC CTG AGC CCT CTC -3'	330-360	50	13004-13351
	R: 5'- CTG AGG CTT GGG TTT CTA ATG TAG -3'			13141-13209
Pan_13B	F: 5'- GGC TAC TTC CCA ACA ATC ATC CAT CG -3'	400-450	50	13366-13808
	R: 5'- CTG AGG CTT GGG TTT CTA ATG TAG -3'			13347-13754
Pan_13D	F: 5'- CCA ACA CTA ACT CTA TTG CCG ACC C -3'	350-400	50	13806-14201
	R: 5'- TTG GAG GGG GTT GGG AGG TCA ATA A -3'			13759-14145
Pan_14A	F: 5'- CCA TAA ATA GGA GAA GGC TTA GAA G -3'	230-250	50	14043-14297
	R: 5'- GTG TTC TGC TGT GTA GTG TAT TGC -3'			13987-14228
Pan_14B	F: 5'- CCC TCC AAC ATC TCA GCA T -3'	360-400	50	14316-14703
	R: 5'- AGG GGT CGG AAT ATC ATA GTG CGT T -3'			14612-14981
Pan_14C	F : 5'- CCC CTC CAA CAT CTC AGC AT -3'	150-190	50	14274-14444
	R: 5'- CCG TAA TAT AAG CCT CGT CC -3'			14211-14398
Pan_14D	F : 5'- AAC CCC CTA AGC ACA CCT CCC CAT A -3'	320-390	50	14956-15338
	R: 5'- GGG CTT TAG TCT CCT TCC TGA GTC -3'			14980-15297

Primer Name	Primer Sequence	Fragment Size Obtained (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)	Final Amplification Section (bp)
Pan_15N	F: 5'- AAG GAG ATT CTA ACC TCC CC -3'	330-370	50	15385-15745
	R: 5'- CCT TCA GTG GAG GTG ATA CG -3'			15331-15694
Pan_15A	F: 5'- CCA ACG GGC AAA TAC GCT ATG -3'	400-430	50	15526-15955
	R: 5'- GTC CTG CGA CCA TTG ACT GAA -3'			15639-16051
Pan_15B	F: 5'- GAC TGT GGG GTA GTT ATA GGA GAA -3'	450-490	50	15870-16328
	R: 5'- TTA GAG CGG GCA GAA AAC TG -3'			15844-16327

Cross-species markers are very effective for implementation where no genetic data is available for a given species, in order to obtain a basic understanding of their molecular make-up. However, species-specific markers will be required for full information and can be developed via the primer-walking method. The combination of species-specific and cross-species markers proved to be highly effective in accurately sequencing the mtDNA of the Temminck's ground pangolin. It is nevertheless a very labour-intensive and time-consuming method. Alternative methods for future sequencing studies in pangolins could contribute to faster, more accurate sequencing of whole mtDNA genomes, potential alternative methods include Next Generation Sequencing (Metzker, 2010) and the use of alternative *Taq* protocols such as Expand long template PCR system (Roche, Boehanger Mannheim). The availability of full mtDNA genomes for genetic analysis can assist to implement better management strategies and conservation programs for these animals and support forensic cases where samples are confiscated from the illegal wildlife trade.

CHAPTER THREE

SCALE SAMPLES FROM TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN (*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*); A NON-INVASIVE SOURCE OF DNA

3.1. ABSTRACT

Invasive sampling is often stressful due to the capture and handling of animals. However, non-invasive sampling aims to obtain suitable samples without causing harm to the study organism, thus making it a more preferred sampling technique. Molecular methods have advanced in such a way that quality DNA can be obtained from less invasive mammal samples. Various PCR enhancing techniques have also been developed to assist in amplification of low quality DNA samples, to produce reliable results that can be used to monitor populations and species or for forensic applications. Temminck's ground pangolin is one of the few mammals to be covered in scales. In this study, we aimed to identify the most appropriate DNA isolation and PCR methods by testing five different isolation techniques as well as three different PCR methods and two different PCR additives. These various techniques were used to improve isolation of DNA and downstream amplification of mtDNA from scale samples collected from pangolins. The results indicated that a combination of various DNA isolation techniques along with various PCR additives, BSA and glycerol, contributed to obtaining successful sequencing data for around 89% of scale samples. Thus, we conclude that it is possible to obtaining good quality results from scale samples.

KEYWORDS: DNA isolation, non-invasive sampling, PCR optimization, scale samples, Temminck's ground pangolin.

3.2. INTRODUCTION

There are numerous ways to collect molecular samples from animals; some of these are invasive while others are non-invasive to varying degrees. Invasive sampling techniques make use of tranquilisers, traps, handling of animals or even euthanization to obtain samples (Taberlet & Luikart, 1999). These techniques are sometimes necessary but can cause stress, pain and harm to animals. However, non-invasive sampling has become more popular since it is less stressful for the animal and samples can be obtained without harming the animal (Taberlet & Luikart, 1999; Bubb *et al.*, 2011). Temminck's ground pangolins' whole body is covered in overlapping scales (Herklots, 1937) which protects the animal from predators like lions (Wilson & Reeder, 2005) and pythons (Soewu & Ayodele, 2009) amongst others. When pangolins are threatened, they roll into a ball with the overlapping scales protecting the head and other vulnerable parts of the body (Herklots, 1937). This makes it very difficult to obtain blood or hair samples since the body is rolled too tightly. Furthermore, the scales are sharp which could cause injury when handled. Unrolling the animals to get blood samples is not advisable since it would cause unnecessary stress and trauma for the animal which could leave them vulnerable and easy prey (Pietersen, 2013). Thus, an alternative, less invasive sources of DNA that can be obtained from pangolins is their scales. Pangolin scales consists of keratin (Matsuda *et al.*, 2005), like human nails, therefore taking scale clippings is not harmful to the animal and it is a less stressful sampling alternative. In addition, scales would most likely be obtained in forensic cases where animal parts are obtained from the illegal wildlife trade, as scales are used for various traditional medicines in both Africa (Bräutigam *et al.*, 1994) and Asia (Newton *et al.*, 2008; Challender & Hywood, 2012).

Nuclear- as well as mitochondrial DNA can be found in all cells, from tissue and blood to skin, faecal samples, feathers and even scales (Taberlet & Luikart, 1999). Conservation genetics have become more advanced in the use of non-invasive samples where populations can be monitored and species identified (Taberlet & Luikart, 1999). Various population studies have been performed where hair (Morin *et al.*, 1993) and faecal samples in primates (Bubb *et al.*, 2011) were used to determine genetic diversity and population structure within and between different sub-populations. Scale samples have previously been used for pangolins by Hsieh *et al.*

(2011). The authors used confiscated scale samples for species identification of one of the Asian pangolins using forensic techniques. Despite the ethical advantages of non-invasive sampling, the use of such techniques for genetic analysis also has several disadvantages. These include very low quality and quantity of DNA, and in scales it could cause keratin inhibition. This in turn can affect further downstream methods, such as PCR and sequencing, may be more difficult to carry out (Taberlet *et al.*, 1996). Numerous DNA isolation kits and techniques have been designed to assist in the optimization of low quality DNA samples, for example, faecal kits are designed specifically for the isolation of DNA from faecal samples (e.g. ZR Faecal DNA MiniPrep kit, Zymo Corporation). There are also various PCR enhancing techniques to support the amplification of fragments or DNA sequences. These PCR enhancing techniques may, for example, consist of adding Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) or glycerol to the PCR protocol to assist in amplifying the fragmented regions of mtDNA or nuclear DNA (Nagai *et al.*, 1998). Bovine Serum Albumin (Pääbo *et al.*, 1988; Kreader, 1996) is an enzymatic stabilizing agent which binds non-specifically to most PCR inhibitors. It has also been found to improve the yield of PCR amplification in samples that are difficult to amplify, such as faecal samples (Woide *et al.*, 2010). One of the disadvantages of BSA is its sensitivity to high PCR temperatures, which destroys its enhancing abilities (Farell & Alexandre, 2012). Glycerol has been used as a stabilizing reagent in PCR amplifications and this has been shown to improve denaturation of GC-rich DNA (Smith *et al.*, 1990).

The objective of the current study was to find suitable DNA extraction and PCR methods for mtDNA sequencing from pangolin scale samples. Our specific aim was to test various isolation protocols, PCR methods and additives to determine which method can be used to obtain the highest quality of DNA from the scale samples for successful downstream applications.

3.3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.3.1. SAMPLE COLLECTION

In this study, four pangolin scale samples were received from Namibia, two from Zimbabwe, two from Mozambique and one from the National Museum in Bloemfontein (South Africa), as noted in Chapter five. It was then attempted to amplify three gene regions of the mitochondrial DNA genome in these samples, namely cytochrome *c* oxidase 1 (CO1), cytochrome *b* (Cyt*b*) and D-loop.

3.3.2. EXTRACTION AND OPTIMIZATION

The scale samples were all pulverised to powder using a dental electric micro-motor drill (Zhengzhou Xinghua Dental Equipment, Henan, China). The amount of powder used for further analyses varied according to the different DNA extraction protocols used. During this study a total of five different extraction methods were used to determine which one resulted in best downstream mtDNA amplification using scale samples. The first method was based on the ZR Genomic DNATM-Tissue MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research Corporation), used for scales as described for scales samples in Chapter five. The second extraction kit was the QIAamp[®] DNA Investigator Kit (Qiagen, Novato, CA), following the manufacturer's protocol for hair and nail clippings. The third kit was the RecoverAllTM Total Nucleic Acid Isolation Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), following the manufacturers protocol for DNA extraction for tissue samples. The fourth kit was the MasterPureTM Complete DNA and RNA Purification Kit (Illumina Company, Madison, USA) and the general protocol as suggested by the manufacturers were used. The last method consisted of the AutoMate ExpressTM Forensic DNA Extraction System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) along with the PrepFiler Express BTA Forensic DNA Extraction Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), using the manufacturer's protocols. Following extraction, the concentration and quality of the extracted DNA was analysed on a NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania), and extracted DNA was stored at -20°C until further usage.

3.3.3. POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION (PCR) OPTIMIZATION

Polymerase Chain Reaction was performed using various enhancers to obtain high quality sequences, with low background peaks, from the scale samples. The first method used 2x DreamTaq™ Mastermix (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) and the protocol described in Chapter four with a three temperature thermal cycling program. This program consisted of: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes, followed 5 cycles denaturation at 95°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 50°C for 50 sec, extension at 72°C for 1 min; followed by a second step, for 15 cycles, of denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 48°C for 50 sec, extension at 72°C for 1 min; and followed by a third step of 20 cycles, with denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 46°C for 50 sec, extension at 72°C for 1 min; finally followed by final extension at 72°C for 5 min. The second method was performed with the Q-solution PCR protocol using the *Taq* DNA Polymerase Kit (Qiagen, Novato, CA) along with the following reaction mixture: 1.25 µl 10x PCR Buffer, 2.5 µl 5x Q-Solution, 2 µl (25 mM) MgCl₂, 1.3 µl (2 mM) dNTP, 1.5 µl of each (10 µM) Primer, 0.125 µl *Taq*, 0.35 µl ddH₂O and 2 µl DNA to a final reaction volume of 12.5 µl. The thermal cycle program as described above was used. A third enhancing method was performed by using the REPLI-g Single Cell Kit (Qiagen, Novato, CA) on the DNA isolated using the RecoverAll kit. Both a Q-solution and DreamTaq PCR were run with the REPLI-g-based samples, using the methods described above for each. In addition to various *Taq* reagents used, different enhancers at various concentrations were implemented in an attempt to obtain high quality sequences. A total of 0.25 µl–0.5 µl BSA (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) was added to the DreamTaq PCR protocol (Chapter four) followed by PCR amplification using the three temperature cycling method. In addition, another enhancer was tested by adding only half of the ddH₂O with the other half replaced by 5–10% glycerol, in the DreamTaq PCR protocol (Chapter four), along with the three temperature cycle program mentioned above. All PCR products were visualized on 2% agarose gels in order to determine whether amplification occurred. Further downstream amplification and sequencing were performed using the same protocols and steps as described in Chapter four.

3.4. RESULTS

The various DNA extraction methods and PCR protocols attempted in this optimization study are detailed in the optimization protocol presented in Figure 3.1. As indicated in Figure 3.1, DNA was initially isolated using the Zymo kit and various PCR protocols were subsequently followed. Once successful sequencing results were obtained, per sample, no further alternative protocols were followed. However, if all PCR protocols failed to amplify the various mtDNA regions, the alternative DNA extraction kits were applied. In addition, the extracted DNA were each run with the above mentioned PCR protocols, with and/or without enhancers, to determine which overall method provided the best results.

Even though various methods were performed both for DNA isolation and PCR, some of the scale samples still did not yield successful sequences. This could be a result of degraded or fragmented DNA. The concentration and purity of DNA obtained from the various extraction kits used for the isolation of DNA from scale samples are presented in Table 3.1. For illustration during this study, four samples were used as representatives to indicate the success rate of the various extraction kits and PCR enhancing techniques used. As indicated in Table 3.1, the Qiagen, MasterPure, REPLI-g and PrepFiler kits produced high quality extracted DNA from the scale samples. Although the Zymo kit yielded poor DNA quality, downstream applications such as PCR and sequencing was still possible. The only isolation protocol that was not successful for any of the samples was the RecoverAll kit. Among the PCR protocols, the Q-solution protocol was the only *Taq* protocol that didn't produce any results for any of the samples, even with the samples obtained using the REPLI-g Kit.

Table 3.1: DNA quality and quantity obtained for the four scale samples, from the six different extraction methods mentioned in the materials and methods. A260/A280 values between 1.7 and 2.0 were considered indicative of good DNA quality.

Extraction Method	A260/280 Value / Amount of DNA (ng/μl)			
	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4
Zymo Kit	1.38/3.49	0.29/0.25	0.52/0.66	1.75/2.65
Qiagen Kit	1.84/21.56	1.85/10.36	1.34/8.88	1.61/18.95
RecoverAll Kit	1.86/6.35	0.13/2.09	-0.13/0.96	1.64/17.55
REPLI-g Kit	1.87/435.32	1.88/398.23	1.89/283.61	1.88/360.31
MasterPure Kit	1.63/394.56	1.11/43.65	1.56/65.36	1.60/70.48
PrepFiler Kit	1.39/14.16	1.19/29.41	1.19/24.61	1.40/55.47

The remaining PCR techniques all produced sequences that were of high quality. The average length of high quality sequences obtained for the three gene regions ranged between 100–500 bp, depending on the respected primer amplification length (Figure 3.2). Successful sequencing was possible in ±89% (100/112) of the samples. Sequences were of high quality with low background amplification as indicated in Figure 3.2.

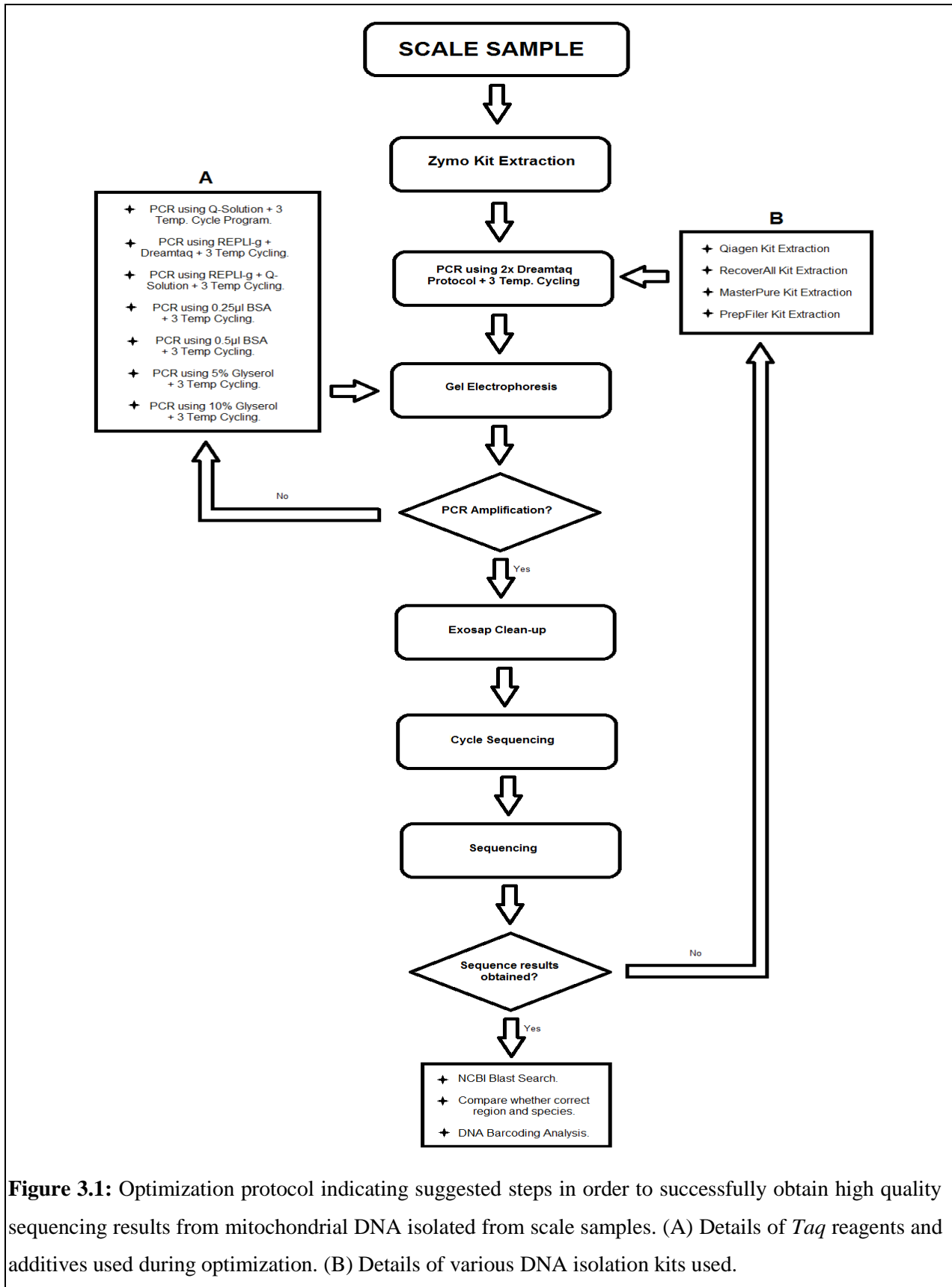


Figure 3.1: Optimization protocol indicating suggested steps in order to successfully obtain high quality sequencing results from mitochondrial DNA isolated from scale samples. (A) Details of *Taq* reagents and additives used during optimization. (B) Details of various DNA isolation kits used.

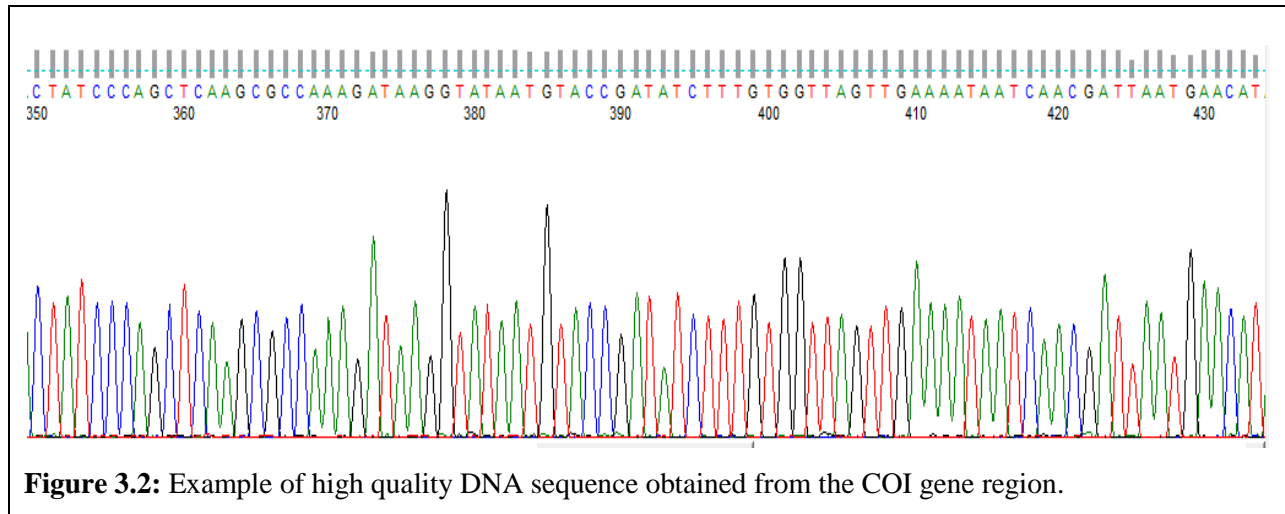


Figure 3.2: Example of high quality DNA sequence obtained from the COI gene region.

3.5. DISCUSSION

Various DNA isolation and PCR enhancer methods are available to enhance the quality of extracted DNA and sequencing results from degraded DNA samples. In this study, we obtained an overall success rate of about 89% with the amplification of scales samples after all five isolation techniques were performed with all eight PCR optimization techniques. From this, we conclude that it is challenging but nevertheless possible to isolate mtDNA from pangolin scale samples. Several different methods are required in order to successfully amplify DNA, and an optimisation protocol rather than a single method should thus be followed. The specific sample area of the scale however can also affect the success rate. Higher quality and quantity DNA is likely to be present at the base of the scale, where it is imbedded in the skin, than on the edges of the scales where it is easy to sample but had more time to degrade over time. Nevertheless, the optimization protocol presented here can be used to amplify gene regions from unconventional samples or low quality DNA from pangolins, for conservation research and for forensic applications. In addition, this technique may also be successful for other non-invasive samples such as faecal samples, shedded skin, hair or museum samples.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE COMPLETE MITOCHONDRIAL GENOME OF TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN (*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*; SMUTS, 1832) AND PHYLOGENETIC POSITION OF PHOLIDOTA (WEBER, 1904)

4.1. ABSTRACT

Temminck's ground pangolin is primarily a nocturnal mammal belonging to the order Pholidota. The body is covered in hard overlapping scales and these animals find refuge in burrows, feeding only on termites and ants. In this study, the whole mitochondrial DNA of Temminck's ground pangolin was sequenced and the phylogenetic position of Pholidota determined within Eutheria, using whole mitochondrial DNA sequences from various representative species. The results indicate that the whole mitochondrial DNA of Temminck's ground pangolin is 16,559 bp long and shared some similarities with the whole mitochondrial DNA of the black-bellied pangolin and the Chinese pangolin. Phylogenetic analysis indicate that the order Pholidota is closely related and share a recent common ancestor with the order Carnivora rather than with the ant/insect eating order Xenarthra and the group Afrotheria. A time measured phylogeny of Pholidota estimated a split from Carnivora at around 87 million years ago (mya), followed by a split of the African pangolins from their Asian counterparts such as the Chinese pangolin at around 47 mya. This suggests a Laurasian origin and convergent evolution of the Pholidota with respect to Xenarthra and Afrotheria.

KEYWORDS: mitochondrial DNA, phylogeny, *Smutsia temminckii*, Temminck's ground pangolin

4.2. INTRODUCTION

Mitochondrial DNA in mammals is a circular structure consisting of approximately 14.5 to 19.5 kilobases which codes for 37 gene regions. These gene regions include between 20 to 30 tRNA regions, two rRNA regions, 13 protein coding regions, various nucleotide gene regions which comprise of cytochrome *c* oxidase, ATPase 6 and *Cytb* as well as eight unidentified reading frames (Roe *et al.*, 1985; Castro *et al.*, 1998, Freeland, 2005; Ki *et al.*, 2010). Mitochondrial DNA is well suited for the analysis of ancient or degraded samples as it is preserved for longer compared to nuclear DNA and only a small amount of DNA is necessary for mtDNA sequencing (Freeland, 2005). Mitochondrial genome sequence and structure is widely used to provide information on phylogenetic relationships (Ermakov *et al.*, 2006), to determine the genetic structure of populations and to assess patterns of gene flow (Awise, 1994).

Temminck's ground pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*; Smuts, 1832) is a mammal belonging to the family Pholidota (Weber, 1904). This is the only mammal species where the entire body is covered in hard overlapping scales (Herklots, 1937; Dollens, 2010) and they will roll into a ball when threatened to protect the inner softer parts of their bodies that are more vulnerable. These animals are predominantly nocturnal and find refuge in abandoned burrows made by other species, where they hide during the day (Heath, 1992). These animals only food source is ants and termites (Heath, 1992). They generally use their sharp claws to break open the termite nests (Herklots, 1937) and use their long proboscis tongue to remove termites from their tunnels (Heath, 1992). There are eight extant pangolin species, four of these occur in Asia and four in Africa (Herklots, 1937). All pangolin species are considered *Vulnerable*, *Threatened* or *Endangered* by the IUCN (IUCN, 2014). The four African species are further divided into two arboreal and two ground-dwelling species. Temminck's ground pangolin has the largest distribution range of all four African species, ranging from southern Africa all the way to northeast Chad (Heath, 1992). To date, the only complete mitochondrial genome sequences available in the order Pholidota, is that of the Chinese pangolin (*Manis pentadactyla*) (Qin *et al.*, 2012) and the black-bellied pangolin (*Phataginus tetradactyla*) (Arnason *et al.*, 2002). Considering that full mtDNA sequencing is useful for obtaining more reliable phylogenetic data (Roe *et al.*, 1985; Freeland, 2005), the current study aimed to sequence the whole mtDNA genome of Temminck's ground pangolin. We discuss results with respect to genome structure, gene arrangement, nucleotide composition, and codon usage.

Further, we report on phylogenetic analysis and molecular dating of Temminck's ground pangolin with the two pangolin species mentioned above in order to describe the phylogenetic relationships within the order Pholidota. We also describe the phylogenetic relationships between the order Pholidota with representatives from other ant-eating mammals from the order Eulipotyphla and Marsupialia as well as the closest related order Carnivora that has been identified previously in phylogenetic studies to be closely related to the order Pholidota (Arnason *et al.*, 2002; Murphy *et al.*, 2007). The out-group used during the phylogenetic analysis was representatives from the order Monotremata.

4.3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.3.1. SAMPLE COLLECTION AND DNA EXTRACTION

The specimen used to sequence the whole mtDNA of Temminck's ground pangolin originated from a deceased individual, collected by the African Pangolin Working Group (APWG) in the Kalahari region of South Africa. The cause of death was unknown, but suspected to be a road killing accident. A total of three muscle tissue samples were collected from various parts of the pangolin's body. Collected samples were placed in absolute ethanol for preservation and were stored at -20°C until further usage. DNA extraction was performed by using the ZR Genomic DNATM-Tissue MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research Corporation) using the protocol for solid tissue and following the manufacturers protocol. The quantity of the extracted DNA was determined by using a NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) and the extracted DNA was stored at -20°C.

4.3.2. PCR AMPLIFICATION AND SEQUENCING OF FULL MTDNA SEQUENCE

A total of fifteen primer pairs were designed based on the 16,571 bp reads identified in a previous study on the black-bellied pangolin (Arnason *et al.*, 2002), to amplify fragments of approximately 1000 bp in length. Sequences obtained in this study were aligned to the full mtDNA sequence of *P. tetradactyla* in order to identify missing gaps. The missing regions were then filled using the primer walking method with species-specific markers, designed from the sequences obtained from Temminck's ground pangolin. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) was performed using 9.5 µl ddH₂O, 12.5 µl 2x DreamTaqTM Mastermix, 1 µl of each primer pair and 1 µl DNA to

obtain a PCR reaction of 25 μ l. The thermal cycling was conducted as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, 45 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 50–55°C for 30 sec, extension at 72°C for 45 sec, followed by final extension at 72°C for 7 min. Resulting amplicons were inspected on 2% agarose gels followed by purification using Exosap (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania). Purified templates were sequenced using the BigDye v3.1 Terminator Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), used according to the manufacturer's instructions and run with the ABI 3130 genetic analyser (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The ZR DNA Sequencing Clean-upTM Kit (Zymo Research Corporation) was used to purify the sequences and remove excess products (BigDye and buffer) prior to genetic analysis.

4.3.3. SEQUENCE ASSEMBLY AND PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSIS

Sequences were viewed and edited using the Chromas programme embedded in MEGA v5.2 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). A sequence blast was done on the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast) to verify sequence identity. Assemblies, mapping and primer design were performed in CLC Bio Genomics Work Bench v5.0 (CLC Bio, Aarhus, Denmark) to obtain an overlapping view of the full mtDNA sequence from Temminck's ground pangolin in relation to the full mtDNA of *P. tetradactyla* (AJ421454) and *M. pentadactyla* (NC016008) for comparison and verification (Table 4.1). Final alignment of the whole mtDNA of Temminck's ground pangolin with that of the other species mentioned in Table 4.2 was performed using MAFFT v7 (Standley, 2013).

Phylogenetic analysis was performed using MrBayes v3.1 (Ronquist *et al.*, 2011) to establish relationships based on Bayesian Inferences (BI), while a Maximum Likelihood (ML) approach was implemented in PhyML v3.1 (Guindon *et al.*, 2010). MEGA v5.2 software was used to infer a Neighbor-Joining (NJ) tree while BEAST v1.7 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) software was used to infer a time-measured phylogeny and obtain estimates of divergence times for this dataset. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) in jModeltest v2.1.3 (Darriba *et al.*, 2012) was employed to determine the best fit model of sequence evolution. The same model was selected for BI, ML, NJ and BEAST analysis as it proved to be the best fit model calculated for each analyses. Nodal support for the NJ tree was evaluated through 10,000 non-parametric bootstrap replications, while ML analyses were carried out with 1000 bootstrap replications. The BI and BEAST

The mtDNA genome of *S. temminckii* consists of 16,559 bp (Figure 4.1) compared to *P. tetradactyla* and *M. pentadactyla* which are 16,571 bp and 16,578 bp in length, respectively. As illustrated in Table 4.1, the mtDNA genome of *S. temminckii* varied from *P. tetradactyla* and *M. pentadactyla* in terms of gene region size at several genes. Two gene regions (16S and ND6) were found to be the same length in both *S. temminckii* and *P. tetradactyla* (Table 4.1) but with a different length in *M. pentadactyla*. Three gene regions (ND1, ATP8 and ND5) share the same length in both *S. temminckii* and *M. pentadactyla* and not in *P. tetradactyla*. In contrast, six gene regions (COX2, ATP6, COX3, ND3, ND4I and ND4) were found to be the same length in all three pangolin species and three gene regions (12S, ND2 and COX1) each have different lengths in all three pangolin species (Table 4.1). Only two gene regions (Cytb and D-loop) were found to be of the same length in both *P. tetradactyla* and *M. pentadactyla* but different in *S. temminckii*. The AT content was determined for all three pangolin species and amount to 62.7% for *S. temminckii*, 63.1% for *P. tetradactyla* and 56.2% for *M. pentadactyla*. The nucleotide sequence similarity for the three species showed a 70.5% sequence similarity between *S. temminckii* and *P. tetradactyla*. Whereas the nucleotide sequence similarity between *S. temminckii* and *M. pentadactyla* amount to 69.9% and 70.8% between *P. tetradactyla* and *M. pentadactyla*. A previous study by Qin *et al.* (2012) found that there was a 79.3% similarity between *P. tetradactyla* and *M. pentadactyla* which separates them into different species levels; however the current study found that there was between 69.9% and 70.8% sequence similarity between the three pangolin species. Due to recent taxonomic changes in the order Pholidota, it would be more correct to indicate that the three pangolin species should be separated on a generic level rather than specific level. The difference in nucleotide similarity between the current study and the study performed by Qin *et al.* (2012) could be a result of different evolutionary models used or a different method of distance calculation between the two studies.

Table 4.1: List of mitochondrial DNA gene region sizes located in *S. temminckii*, *P. tetradactyla* and *M. pentadactyla*. The bold values indicate the gene region length shared between two pangolin species.

Gene Regions (bp)	<i>Smutsia temminckii</i>	<i>Phataginus tetradactyla</i> (Arnason <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	<i>Manis pentadactyla</i> (Qin <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
Entire Genome	16,559	16,571	16,578
12S rRNA	957	956	960
16S rRNA	1553	1553	1570
ND1	955	956	955
ND2	1041	1043	1038
COX1	1549	1553	1550
COX2	683	683	683
ATP8	200	206	200
ATP6	680	680	680
COX3	783	783	783
ND3	345	345	345
ND4I	296	296	296
ND4	1377	1377	1377
ND5	1820	1826	1820
ND6	527	527	524
Cytb	1139	1134	1134
D-loop	1155	1164	1164

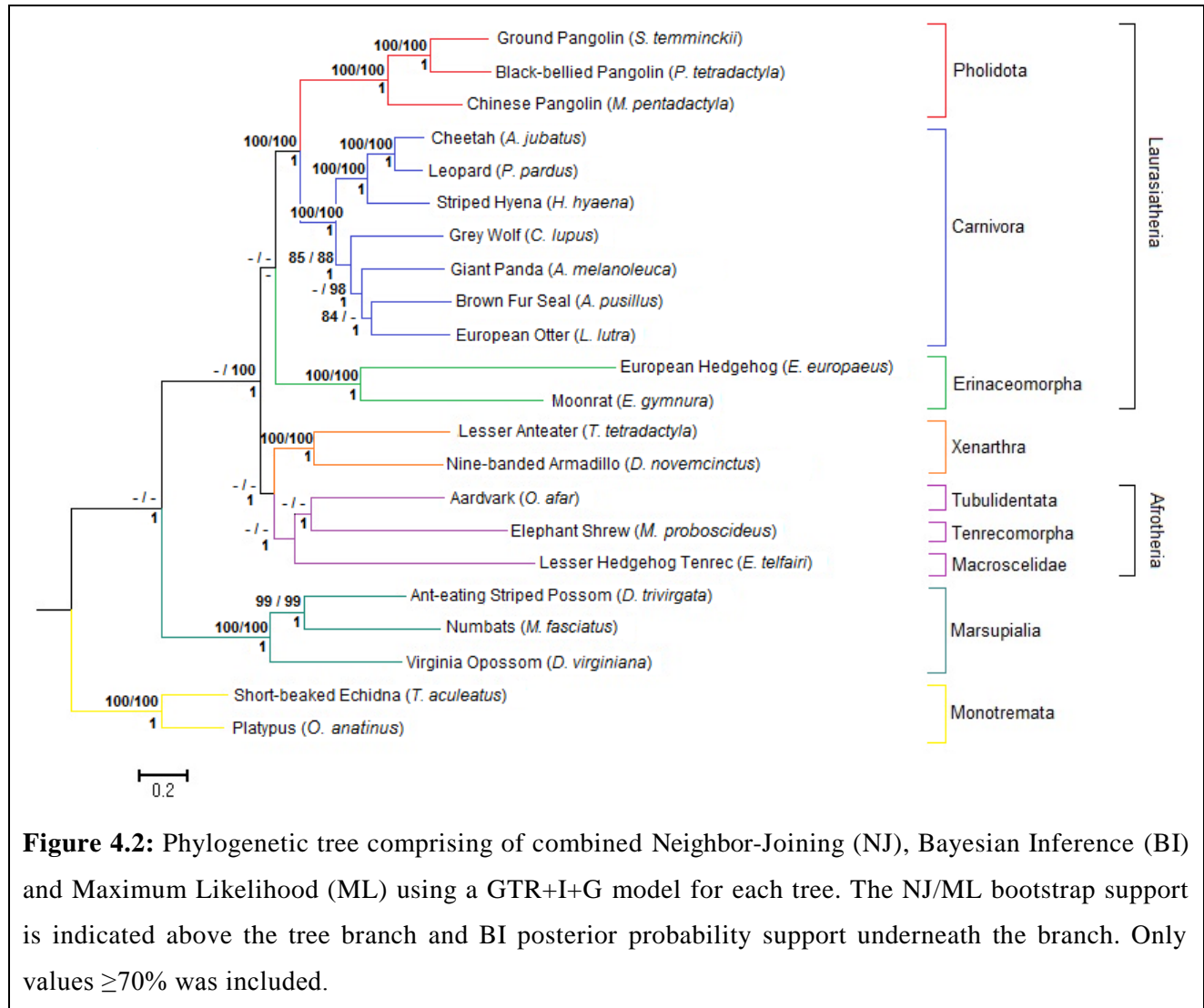
4.4.2. PHYLOGENETIC RELATIONS

The General Time Reversal model with invariant sites and gamma distribution (GTR+I+G model), with gamma parameter (G) = 0.74, was the best-fit model of sequence evolution for the dataset (Table 4.2) chosen under the AIC. Conserved sites for the nucleotide dataset amounted to 6221/16255, 9751/16255 which were variable and 8264/16255 parsimony informative. The transition:transversion ratio (R) was 0.96, while the proportions of nucleotides were T = 28.3, C = 25.1, A = 33.1 and G = 13.5.

Table 4.2: List of 22 species used for the phylogenetic analysis. The order, species and common name is indicated as well as the Genbank accession number.

Order	Scientific Name	Common Name	Genbank accession number
Monotremata	<i>Ornithorhynchus anatinus</i>	Platypus	NC000891
	<i>Tachyglossus aculeatus</i>	Short-beaked Echidna	NC003321
Marsupialia	<i>Didelphis virginiana</i>	Virginia Opossum	Z29573
	<i>Myrmecobius fasciatus</i>	Numbat	NC011949
	<i>Dactylopsila trivirgata</i>	Ant-eating Striped Possum	AB241054
Erinaceomorpha	<i>Erinaceus europaeus</i>	European Hedgehog	X88898
	<i>Echinosorex gymnura</i>	Moonrat	AF348079
Pholidota	<i>Manis pentadactyla</i>	Chinese Pangolin	NC016008
	<i>Phataginus tetradactyla</i>	Black-bellied Pangolin	AJ421454
	<i>Smutsia temminckii</i>	Temminck's Ground Pangolin	Appendix A
Carnivora	<i>Panthera pardus</i>	Leopard	EF551002
	<i>Acinonyx jubatus</i>	Cheetah	NC005212
	<i>Hyaena hyaena</i>	Striped Hyena	JF894376
	<i>Canis lupus</i>	Grey Wolf	DQ480507
	<i>Ailuropoda melanoleuca</i>	Giant Panda	FM177761
	<i>Lutra lutra</i>	European Otter	FJ236015
	<i>Arctocephalus pusillus</i>	Brown Fur Seal	AM181018
Xenarthra	<i>Tamandua tetradactyla</i>	Lesser Anteater	AJ421450
	<i>Dasyopus novemcinctus</i>	Nine-banded Armadillo	NC001821
Macroscelidea	<i>Macroscelides proboscideus</i>	Elephant Shrew	NC004026
Tenrecomorpha	<i>Echinops telfairi</i>	Lesser Hedgehog Tenrec	AJ400734
Tubulidentata	<i>Orycteropus afer</i>	Aardvark	Y18475

Separate NJ, BI and ML trees were constructed and due to similar topologies between the three trees; they were combined into one tree depicting each tree's individual support values (Figure 4.2). Bootstrap values below 70% support were not indicated in the trees. Phylogenetic analysis of the three pangolin species favoured a monophyletic Pholidota that places the Chinese pangolin basal to the two African pangolin species. Maximum Likelihood analysis grouped the orders Pholidota and Carnivora with high support values (100%). Furthermore, the Xenarthra and Afrotheria formed sister clades as expected.



Results from the BEAST analyses (Figure 4.3) supported the same relationships between taxa with node dates representing the time since last common ancestor or estimated divergence dates. Pholidota shared the last common ancestor with the order Carnivora about 87 mya and the two African pangolins split from the Chinese pangolin around 47 mya. In Figure 4.2, Erinaceomorpha clusters with Pholidota and Carnivora, forming part of the group Laurasiatheria whereas with the BEAST tree (Figure 4.3) they group separately.

4.5. DISCUSSION

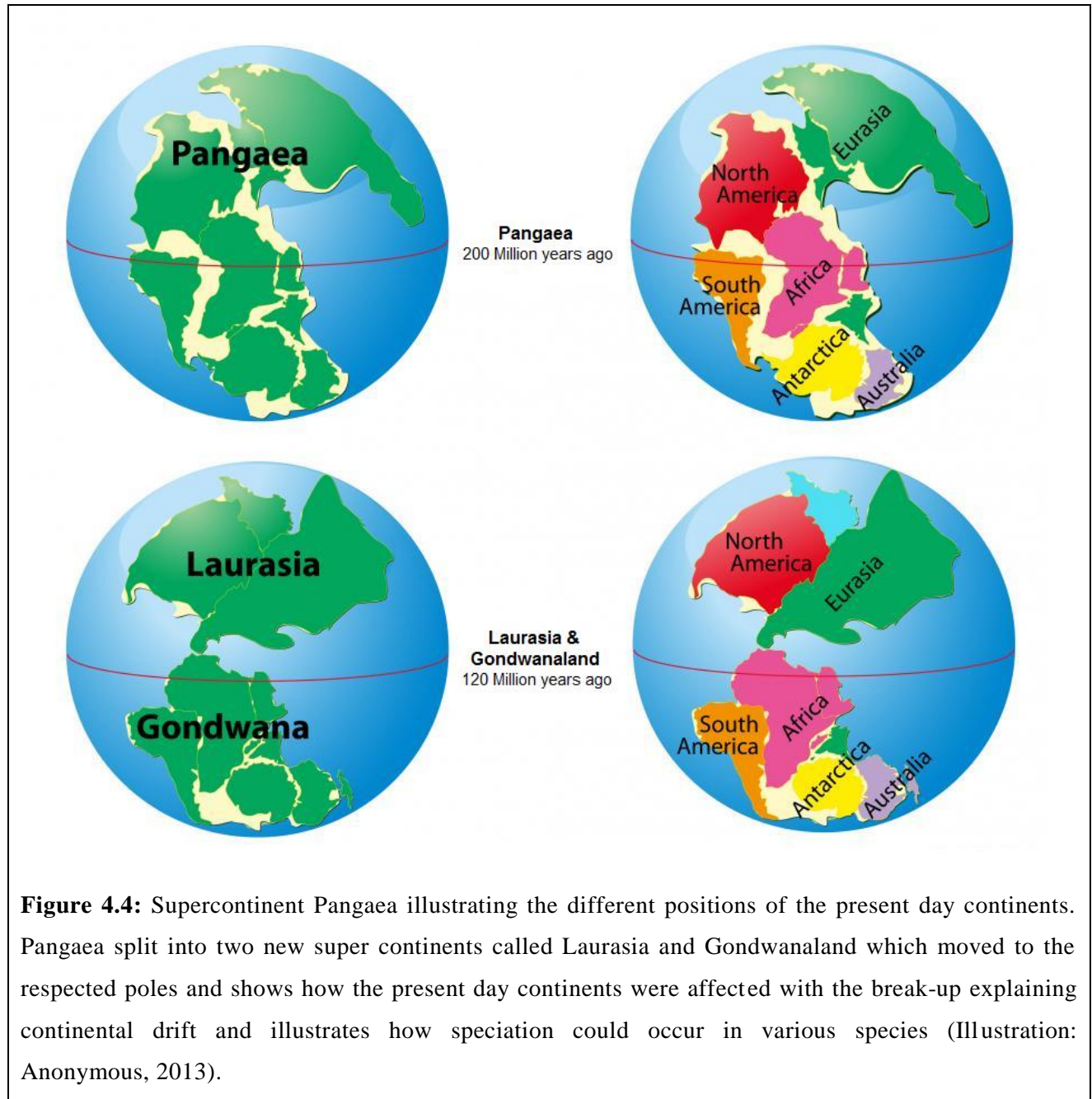
4.5.1. PHYLOGENETIC RELATIONS AND ORIGIN OF PANGOLINS

Full mitochondrial genomes are available for two African pangolin species. In the wider dataset, the pangolins (Pholidota) form a monophyletic grouping with the order Carnivora. It would be expected that pangolins would group with the phenotypically similar order Xenarthra and the group Afrotheria. This Carnivora–Pholidota grouping is supported by an mtDNA study to determine the position of Eutheria (Arnason *et al.*, 2002). In addition, molecular studies on partial regions of mtDNA and genomic DNA confirm the grouping observed during the current study (Springer *et al.*, 2004; Matthee *et al.*, 2007; Murphy *et al.*, 2007). The split among Xenarthra, Afrotheria and Pholidota is thus an example of convergent evolution (Reiss, 1997; Springer *et al.*, 2004; Matthee *et al.*, 2007 and Yu *et al.*, 2011) as Pholidota developed an ant-eating diet and have phenotypic characteristics similar to Xenarthra and Afrotheria, without these groups sharing the same direct common ancestor. As illustrated in Figure 4.2, Xenarthra and Afrotheria form a monophyletic clade, suggesting parallel evolution. In this study, Erinaceomorpha clusters with Pholidota and Carnivora, forming part of the group Laurasiatheria (Figure 4.2) whereas with the BEAST tree (Figure 4.3) they group separately. Previous studies however provide evidence that the grouping pattern illustrated in Figure 4.2 is the more supported pattern of differentiation (Arnason *et al.*, 2002; Murphy *et al.*, 2007).

According to the divergence dates illustrated in Figure 4.3, Laurasiatheria (Pholidota and Carnivora) shared a common ancestor about 87 mya and both orders originated in the supercontinent Laurasia when it separated from Pangaea (Figure 4.4). The group Afrotheria and order Xenarthra, on the other hand, cluster together even though Afrotheria originated in Africa and Xenarthra in South America. The shared common ancestor for both originated around 103 mya which correlates to the time when the supercontinent Pangaea splits into Gondwanaland (Figure 4.4) consisting of both South America and Africa. These observations were also observed in a study performed by Murphy *et al.* (2007) which confirm the dates found for Laurasiatheria, Xenarthra and Afrotheria. This provides further confirmation that Pholidota underwent convergent evolution as mentioned above.

Due to the basal clustering of the Chinese pangolin within Pholidota, it is deduced that Pholidota had their origins in Europe and Asia and later spread to Africa. Further evidence that favour this conclusion is that the oldest and most fossil pangolins were all found in Europe (Storch & Martin, 1994 and Gaudin *et al.*, 2009), Asia (Gaudin *et al.*, 2006) and North America (Emry, 2004), which all formed part of the super continent Laurasia between 200 and 120 mya. The results further indicate that the African and Asian pangolin species shared a last common ancestor about 47 mya indicating the effect of a natural occurrence, e.g. global cooling (Gaudin *et al.*, 2009) which may have interrupted gene flow between populations. This led to some members of the group ascending deeper into Europe and Asia, while others descended into Africa. Migration most likely led to specialised adaptations on each continent.

Temminck's ground pangolin and black-bellied pangolin both originate from Africa, and form a monophyletic group (Figure 4.2). The four African pangolin species are divided into two groups which consist of two arboreal and two ground-dwelling species. Since very little information is available on the other three African pangolin species, excluding Temminck's ground pangolin, it is difficult to determine which group evolved first. According to Gaudin *et al.* (2009), the oldest fossil of pangolins found in Africa was similar in appearance to the giant ground pangolin (*Smutsia gigantea*), a ground-dwelling pangolin species in Africa. Thus, it can be hypothesized that pangolins which descended into Africa were most likely ground-dwelling similar to the Asian species and migrated to the South-eastern parts of Africa to live in drier open habitats. Whereas, some animals adapted to arboreal lifestyles in forest habitats and most likely ascended into the trees due to better food availability, less competition as well as better protection against predators compared to burrows. However, additional research on phylogenetic analysis of African pangolin species should be conducted to support this hypothesis.



CHAPTER FIVE

MOLECULAR PHYLOGEOGRAPHY OF TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN (*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*) BASED ON MITOCHONDRIAL DNA VARIATION

5.1. ABSTRACT

Temminck's ground pangolin faces numerous threats and is listed as *Vulnerable* by the IUCN. Some of the threats include over-harvesting for bush meat and it is used in traditional medicine. This study represents a first attempt to establish the molecular phylogeography of Temminck's ground pangolin across southern Africa. Unique haplotype distribution and phylogeography gave insights to how diverse the populations were. Furthermore, different groupings of Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) were performed to distinguish between and within different paired populations. The different pairings gave a better indication as to which, of these populations are connected or not. These analyses were performed using the three mtDNA gene regions CO1, *Cytb* and D-loop. There was a high level of genetic variation within populations. The results indicated that samples from the Northern Cape and Mpumalanga Provinces of South Africa grouped with samples from Namibia, while samples from Zimbabwe and Mozambique grouped together. This separation could either be the signature of an ancestral or recent split. The BEAST analysis suggested that the two groups shared a recent common ancestor around 2.94–1.27 mya. A more recent split could be attributed to the Mega Kalahari Sand Sea forming a barrier between individuals and populations. The two splits identified in this study were estimated to have occurred between 920 and 710 kya for the Zimbabwe/Mozambique split and between 1.16 mya and 790 kya for the Kalahari/Namibia/Mpumalanga split.

KEYWORDS: cytochrome *c* oxidase I, cytochrome *b*, D-Loop, distribution, heredity, southern Africa

5.2. INTRODUCTION

Temminck's ground pangolin (*S. temminckii*) is one of eight extant pangolin species in the world and one of four extant species in Africa (Wilson & Reeder, 2005). This species has the largest distribution range of the four African species and is also the only pangolin species occurring in the southern African region. Their range extends from South Africa to north-eastern Chad (Heath, 1992; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005; Pietersen *et al.*, 2014b). They are found in arid and mesic savannah and dense woodland, but are absent from true desert and forest (Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). Temminck's ground pangolin is currently listed as *Vulnerable* on the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (Pietersen *et al.*, 2014b).

Local vulnerability is mainly due to over-harvesting of pangolin products such as meat and scales for the traditional medicine or *Muthi* trade in Africa (Chakravorty *et al.*, 2011; Soewu & Adekanola, 2011). According to Soewu & Ayodele (2009) the continued over-utilisation of Africa's pangolins for traditional medicine may contribute significantly to the extinction of these species in Africa. In more recent times, pangolins harvested in Africa are exported to Asia where they are highly sought after as a delicacy and where the scales and other body parts are used for various traditional medicinal purposes (Newton *et al.*, 2008; Pantel & Chin, 2009; Soewu & Adekanola, 2011; Challender & Hywood, 2012). As this illegal trade increases, it is expected that larger amounts of pangolin body parts will be intercepted at customs points. Due to morphological similarities, body parts such as scales often cannot be linked to any one particular species and this creates a need for alternative testing methods to ascertain the species and its possible origin.

DNA analysis has been proven to be a useful tool in such cases and has played an important role in forensic cases where animal parts are confiscated and the origin of the animal traced to assist in identifying targeted areas for harvesting (Jun *et al.*, 2011). In addition, some pangolins are confiscated alive and knowing their origin can contribute to their successful rehabilitation. The use of mtDNA markers has been reported in numerous genetic studies aimed at identifying species as well as determining population differentiation (Avise, 1994). Previous studies made use of CO1 to determine phylogeography in mice and other Eutherians (Luo *et al.*,

2007; Violane *et al.*, 2012). The gene region *Cytb* has also been used to investigate phylogeography in giraffes, *Giraffa camelopardalis* and African lions, *Panthera leo* (Burger *et al.*, 2004; Dubach *et al.*, 2005; Hassanin *et al.*, 2007) and the mtDNA control region (D-loop) used to determine phylogeography in warthogs, *Phacochoerus africanus*, African lions, various African bovids and red pandas, *Ailurus fulgens* (Arctander *et al.*, 1999; Su *et al.*, 2001; Muwanika *et al.*, 2003; Barnett *et al.*, 2006). This indicates that the use of these three mtDNA gene regions is a valid method for determining the phylogeography of species. Also the use of three independent gene regions serves to verify the results, by comparing the patterns observed across all three genes.

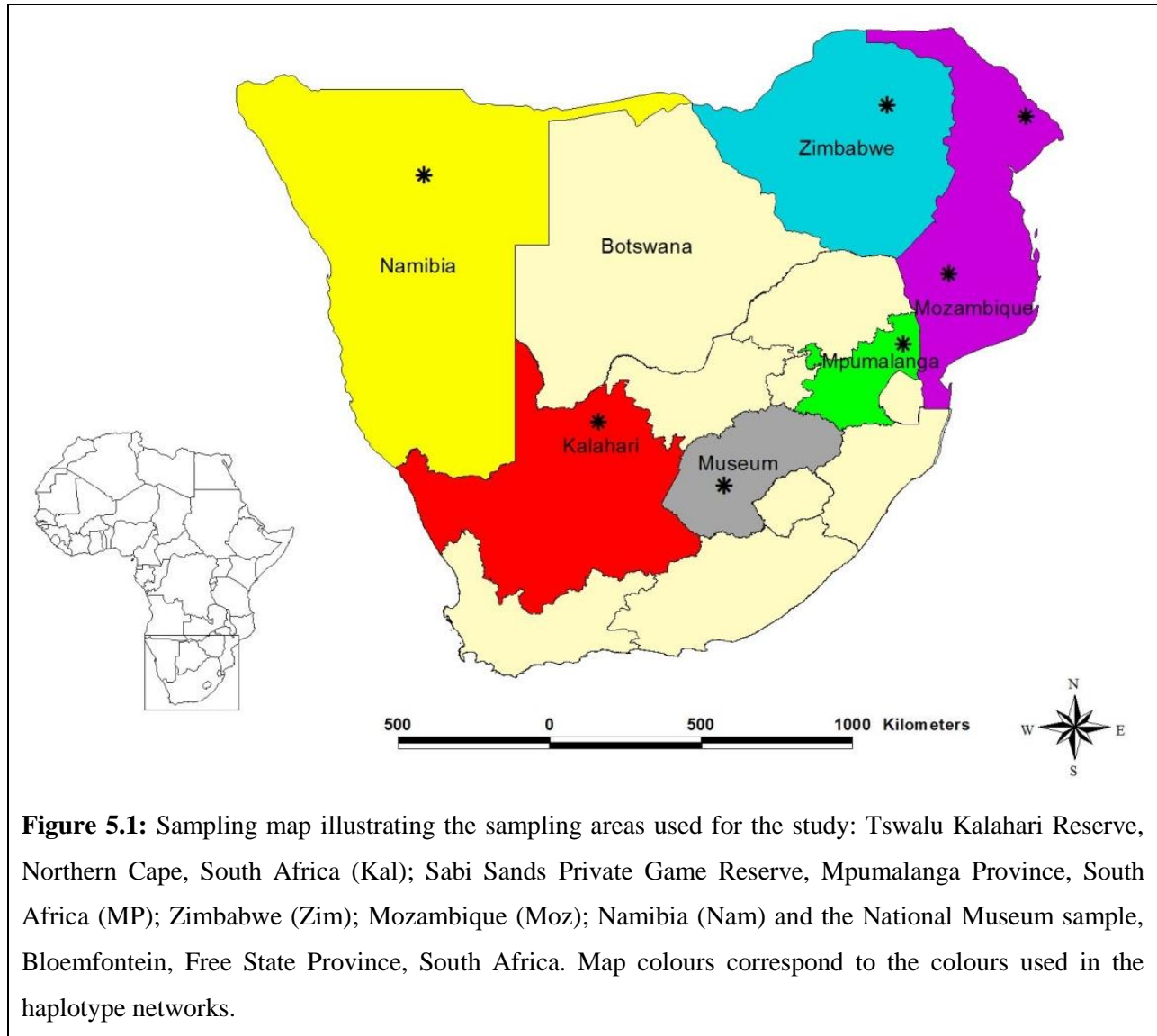
This study was the first attempt to determine the extent of genetic variation, haplotype diversity and phylogeography between different sub-populations of Temminck's ground pangolin across the southern African distribution range of the species. We also want to determine whether there was a genetic separation between the western and eastern parts of the distribution since morphological differences were observed in individuals from the eastern and western populations.

5.3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

5.3.1. SAMPLE COLLECTION, PREPARATION AND EXTRACTION

In this study, a total of 25 Temminck's ground pangolin samples collected from six regions in southern Africa were analysed (Figure 5.1). The type of samples analysed varied among sources and consisted of scales, tissue, skin or blood. The overall sample sizes consisted of four samples from Namibia (Nam), five samples from Zimbabwe (Zim), two samples from Mozambique (Moz), six samples from the Sabi Sands Private Game Reserve, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa (MP) and seven samples from Tswalu Kalahari Reserve, Northern Cape, South Africa (Kal). One museum sample was obtained from the National Museum in Bloemfontein (Free State Province, South Africa). This sample does not have any associated collecting details, but based on morphology and proximity of the specimen, it is believed to have originated from the Northern Cape Province where the population is most abundant. Sequence data from the black-bellied pangolin (*P. tetradactyla*; AJ421454, Arnason *et al.*, 2002) was

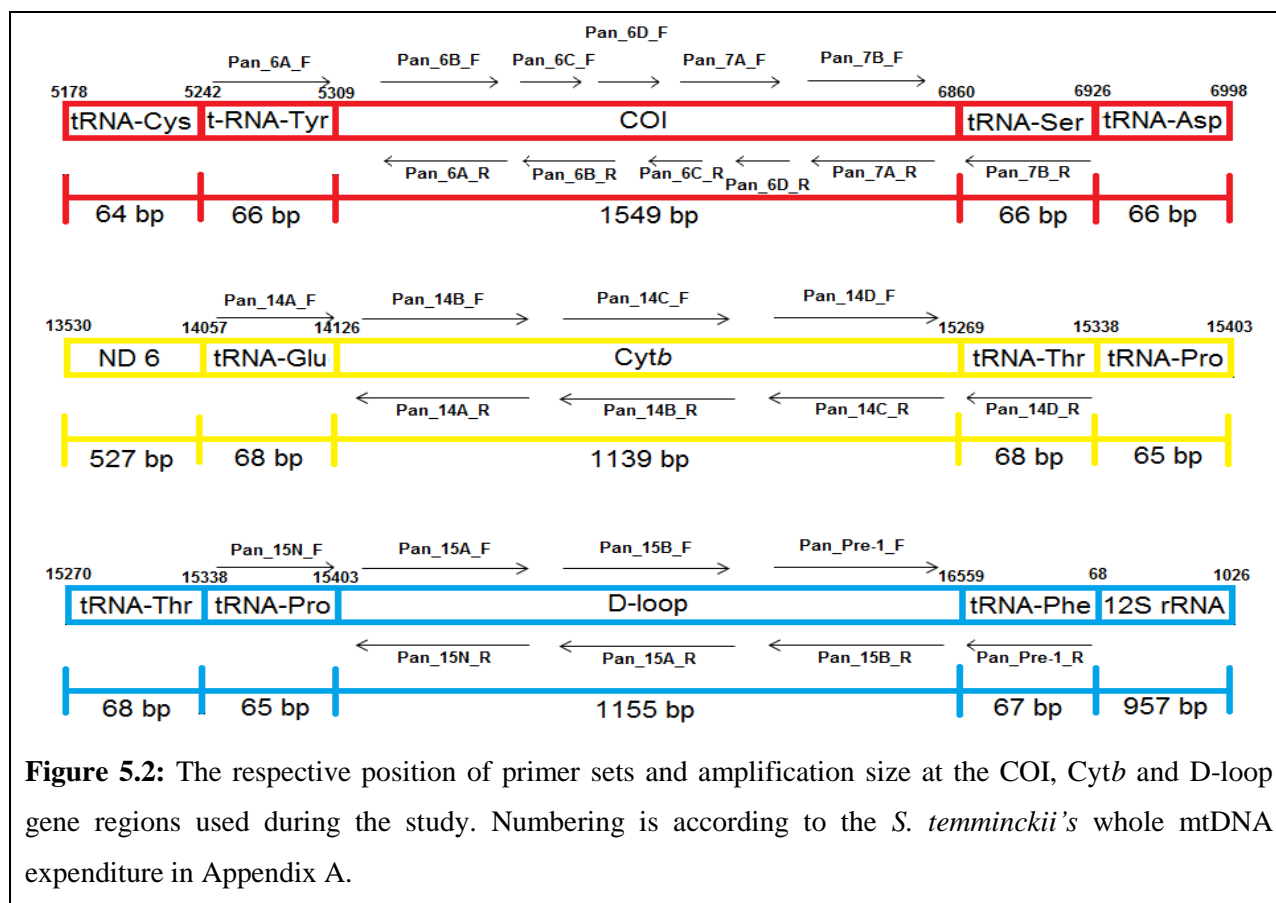
obtained from the NCBI nucleotide bank (Genbank) and used as an out-group in the analysis. Collected tissue and skin samples were placed in absolute ethanol, blood in Ethylene Diamine Tetra-acetic Acid (EDTA) tubes and scales in envelopes for preservation, and were stored at -20°C until further usage.



All samples were extracted using the ZR Genomic DNATM-Tissue MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research Corporation), where the applicable protocols were used to extract DNA from tissue and blood samples. DNA from scale and skin samples was extracted by means of the alternative protocol for hair, feathers or related samples, with alterations. The digestion step included a

mixture of 70 µl ddH₂O, 90 µl 2x Digestion Buffer, 20 µl DTT (1 M) and 20 µl Proteinase K. Samples were incubated for 48 hours in a heating block or until suspended properly. A NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania) was used to determine the quality and quantity of the extracted DNA and samples were stored at -20°C until further usage.

5.3.2. POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION (PCR) AND CAPILLARY ELECTROPHORESIS



Species-specific markers for the three gene regions were designed using the whole mtDNA sequence of Temminck's ground pangolin (Appendix A). The gene regions were sequenced in both the forward and reverse directions using six primer sets for COI, four primer sets for Cytb and four primer sets for the D-loop region (Figure 5.2; Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: List of species-specific primer sequences used to sequence the COI, *Cytb* and the D-loop mitochondrial gene regions of Temminck's ground pangolin. The expected fragment sizes of the sequences are indicated in base pairs (bp) and the annealing temperature used in the PCR is shown.

Gene Region	Primer Name	Primer Sequence	Fragment Size (bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C)
COI	Pan_6A	F: 5'- TCA GCC ACC TTA CCT ATG TTC -3' R: 5'- GAT GAG ATA CCC GCT AAA TG -3'	380-400	50
	Pan_6B	F: 5'- GCT GGA ACT GGC TGA ACT GTA -3' R: 5'- TTA CGC TGC CTC CAT GTA AGG -3'	400-440	53
	Pan_6C	F: 5'- GCT GGA ACT GGC TGA ACT GT-3' R: 5'- TGA CTT ATA GCG GGA GGT -3'	90-100	50
	Pan_6D	F: 5'- GGC TTT ATC GTT TGA GCA CAT C -3' R: 5'- AAG CCC TAA TGC TCA TAG TAG AG -3'	90-100	50
	Pan_7A	F: 5'- CAC ACG AGC CTA CTT TAC ATC AGC -3' R: 5'- TGC CCG AAA GAC CAA GGA AGT GTT G -3'	300-330	50
	Pan_7B	F: 5'- CAA CGA CAC ATG AGC AAA AG -3' R: 5'- CAT AGG TAT GAT ATT GGC TTG -3'	280-300	50
<i>Cytb</i>	Pan_14A	F: 5'- CCA TAA ATA GGA GAA GGC TTA GAA G -3' R: 5'- GTG TTC TGC TGT GTA GTG TAT TGC -3'	230-250	50
	Pan_14B	F: 5'- CCC TCC AAC ATC TCA GCA T -3' R: 5'- AGG GGT CGG AAT ATC ATA GTG CGT T -3'	570-600	50
	Pan_14C	F: 5'- CCC CTC CAA CAT CTC AGC AT -3' R: 5'- CCG TAA TAT AAG CCT CGT CC -3'	130-150	50
	Pan_14D	F: 5'- AAC CCC CTA AGC ACA CCT CCC CAT A -3' R: 5'- GGG CTT TAG TCT CCT TCC TGA GTC -3'	350-380	50
D-Loop	Pan_15N	F: 5'- AAG GAG ATT CTA ACC TCC CC -3' R: 5'- CCT TCA GTG GAG GTG ATA CG -3'	330-360	50
	Pan_15A	F: 5'- CCA ACG GGC AAA TAC GCT ATG -3' R: 5'- GTC CTG CGA CCA TTG ACT GAA-3'	480-500	50
	Pan_15B	F: 5'- GAC TGT GGG GTA GTT ATA GGA GAA -3' R: 5'- TTA G0+ AG CGG GCA GAA AAC TG -3'	450-480	50
	Pan Pre-1	F: 5'- CAT CTT GTC AAA CCC CAA AAG C -3' R: 5'- GGC ACG AGA TTT ACC AAC CCA T -3'	500-530	53

The Polymerase Chain Reaction was executed using 8.5 μ l ddH₂O, 12.5 μ l 2x DreamTaqTM Mastermix, 1 μ l (10 μ M) of each primer pair and 2 μ l DNA to a total PCR reaction volume of 25 μ l. Thermal cycling was conducted as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, 45 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 50–53°C for 1 min, extension at

72°C for 45 sec, followed by final extension at 72°C for 7 min. PCR amplification was verified on 2% agarose gels, followed by PCR purification using exosap (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania). BigDye v3.1 Terminator Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with the purified template DNA were used in a sequencing reaction and the ZR DNA Sequencing Clean-upTM Kit (Zymo Research Corporation) to remove remnants from cycle sequencing. Capillary electrophoresis was performed on an ABI 3130 genetic analyser (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA).

5.3.3. BARCODING, HAPLOTYPE AND GENETIC VARIATION ANALYSIS

The Chromas programme embedded in MEGA v5.2 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) was used for viewing and editing of sequences and NCBI Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast) was used to carry out sequence blast searches in order to establish whether the sequences obtained were from the desired gene region. The MEGA v5.2 software was also used to assemble and trim each gene region. Sequences for each gene region were aligned using the online programme Mafft v7 (Standley, 2013). The programme jModeltest v2.1.3 (Darriba *et al.*, 2012) was used to determine the best fit model of sequence evolution for each gene region under the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1974). The phylogenetic programme BEAST v1.7 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) was used to infer the estimated divergence times among the haplotypes for each gene region and a time-measured phylogeny was also obtained. The BEAST analysis was run over two million generations after which 25% of the trees were removed as burn-in. Tracer software (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) was used to assess the trace files obtained in BEAST and to determine whether mixing was achieved as well as to select the suitable percentage burn-in. The divergence time used to calibrate the BEAST tree was the estimated divergence time calculated in Chapter four, between *P. tetradactyla* and *S. temminckii*. For gene regions to be combined in phylogenetic analyses, the same model of sequence evolution needs to be assumed for these regions since the mutation rates of different regions in the genome can differ in a single species due to nucleotide substitution per basepair per generation (Baer *et al.* 2007). The combined dataset, comprising the three mtDNA gene regions, was therefore subjected to partition analyses in PartitionFinder v1.1 (Lanfear *et al.*, 2012), in order to determine which gene regions evolve under similar models and to select the best-fit partitioning schemes and models of molecular evolution. Partitions were defined

according to gene regions and run using linked branch lengths and a greedy search, testing for the best fit models under the AIC. The haplotype data and genetic distance for each gene region were calculated using DNAsp v5 (Rozas & Rozas, 1995) and the median-joining haplotype networks were drawn with the programme NETWORK v4 (Bandelt *et al.*, 1999). Haplotype and nucleotide diversity, pairwise comparison of genetic differentiation among populations (F_{ST}) and a study of hierarchical distribution of overall genetic diversity (Analysis of Molecular Variance AMOVA) were performed for each gene region using the software ARLEQUIN v3.5 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2010).

5.4. RESULTS

5.4.1. MITOCHONDRIAL DNA VARIATION AND HAPLOTYPE ANALYSIS

Table 5.2: List of models, conserved sites, variable sites, parsimony informative sites, gamma parameter, invariant sites, transition:transversion ratio and nucleotide frequencies for each gene region used during the analysis of the dataset.

	COI	Cytb	D-loop
Model	TIM2+G	TIM2+I	TPM2uf+G
Conserved Sites (C)	1141/1555	814/1135	854/1225
Variable Sites (V)	413/1555	321/1135	329/1225
Parsimony Informative (Pi)	120/1555	91/1135	83/1225
Gamma Parameter (G)	0.228	0	0.375
Invariant Sites (I)	0	0.42	0
Transition:Transversion Ratio (R)	3.64	2.15	1.54
Nucleotide Frequency (T)	32.6	28.3	31.1
Nucleotide Frequency (C)	22.6	27.6	21.4
Nucleotide Frequency (A)	28.0	31.7	32.4
Nucleotide Frequency (G)	16.8	12.5	15.1

The COI (1549 bp), *Cytb* (1139 bp) and D-loop (1155 bp) gene regions were successfully sequenced for all 25 samples. The haplotype sequences for each gene region have been attached as Appendix B (COI), Appendix C (*Cytb*) and Appendix D (D-loop). The best-fit model of sequence evolution for each dataset, selected under AIC is presented in Table 5.2, along with the gamma (G) and invariant sites (I) parameters. The dataset characteristics, obtained

for the datasets were also summarised in Table 5.2. The results from PartitionFinder showed that the three gene regions cannot be combined into one phylogenetic dataset as different models of evolution apply to each gene. The models obtained in PartitionFinder mirrored the models indicated in Table 5.2 for each gene region.

Table 5.3: Haplotype layout for COI gene region illustrating the number of haplotypes shared between individuals as the first value; the proportion of unique haplotypes as the second value; haplotype diversity and nucleotide diversity in the different populations observed during this study.

	Kalahari	Mpumalanga	Namibia	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Museum
Haplotype 1	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 2	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 3	2/0.286	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 4	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 5	1/0.143	1/0.167	2/0.500	-	-	-
Haplotype 6	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 7	-	1/0.167	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 8	-	3/0.50	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 9	-	1/0.167	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 10	-	-	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 11	-	-	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 12	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 13	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 14	-	-	-	1/0.200	1/0.500	-
Haplotype 15	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 16	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 17	-	-	-	-	1/0.500	-
Haplotype 18	-	-	-	-	-	1/1
Proportion unique	85.8	83.5	50.0	80.0	50.0	100.0
Haplotypes (%)						
Haplotype Diversity (%)	95.2 (±9.6)	80.0 (±17.2)	83.3 (±22.2)	100.0 (±12.6)	100.0 (±50.0)	0.0
Nucleotide Diversity (%)	0.398	0.167	0.161	0.631	0.708	0.0

Table 5.4: Haplotype layout for *Cytb* gene region illustrating the number of haplotypes shared between individuals as the first value; the proportion of unique haplotypes as the second value; haplotype diversity and nucleotide diversity in the different populations observed during this study.

	Kalahari	Mpumalanga	Namibia	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Museum
Haplotype 1	2/0.286	4/0.667	3/0.750	-	-	1/1
Haplotype 2	1/0.143	-	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 3	2/0.286	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 4	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 5	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 6	-	2/0.333	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 7	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 8	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 9	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 10	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 11	-	-	-	-	1/0.500	-
Haplotype 12	-	-	-	-	1/0.500	-
Proportion unique	57.2	0.0	0.0	80.0	100.0	0.0
Haplotypes (%)						
Haplotype Diversity (%)	90.5 (±10.3)	53.3 (±17.2)	50.0 (±26.5)	100.0 (±12.6)	100.0 (±50.0)	0.0
Nucleotide Diversity (%)	0.193	0.047	0.044	0.493	0.529	0.0

There were a total of 18 haplotypes observed for the CO1 gene region (Table 5.3), 12 haplotypes for *Cytb* (Table 5.4) and 16 haplotypes for the D-loop region (Table 5.5). The haplotype and nucleotide diversity for all three gene regions are presented in Tables 5.3–5.5 and results indicate that the majority of the haplotypes found were unique for each geographic region. In the CO1 gene region two haplotypes were shared between sampling areas. Haplotype 5 was found in one individual from the Kalahari, one individual from Mpumalanga and two individuals from Namibia. Haplotype 14 was observed in one individual from Zimbabwe and one individual from Mozambique. For the *Cytb* gene region, there were three haplotypes shared between sampling areas, namely haplotypes 1, 2 and 6. A similar pattern was observed for the D-loop region. There were three haplotypes (haplotypes 2, 4 and 14) shared between sampling areas, with the Kalahari, Mpumalanga and Namibia sharing one haplotype. The second

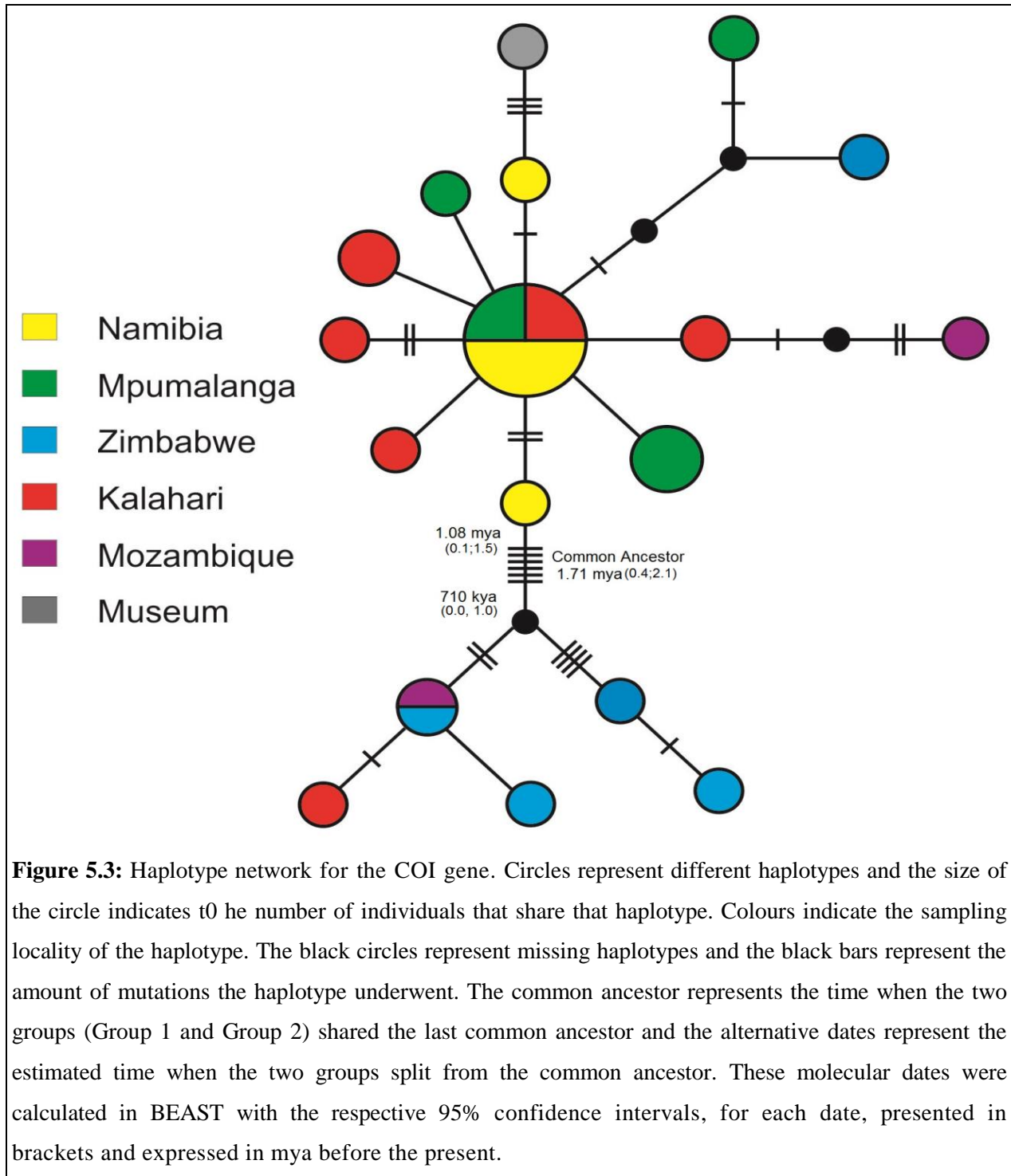
haplotype is shared between Zimbabwe and Mozambique and the third is shared between the Kalahari and Mozambique. A total of 33 haplotypes were unique to individual populations.

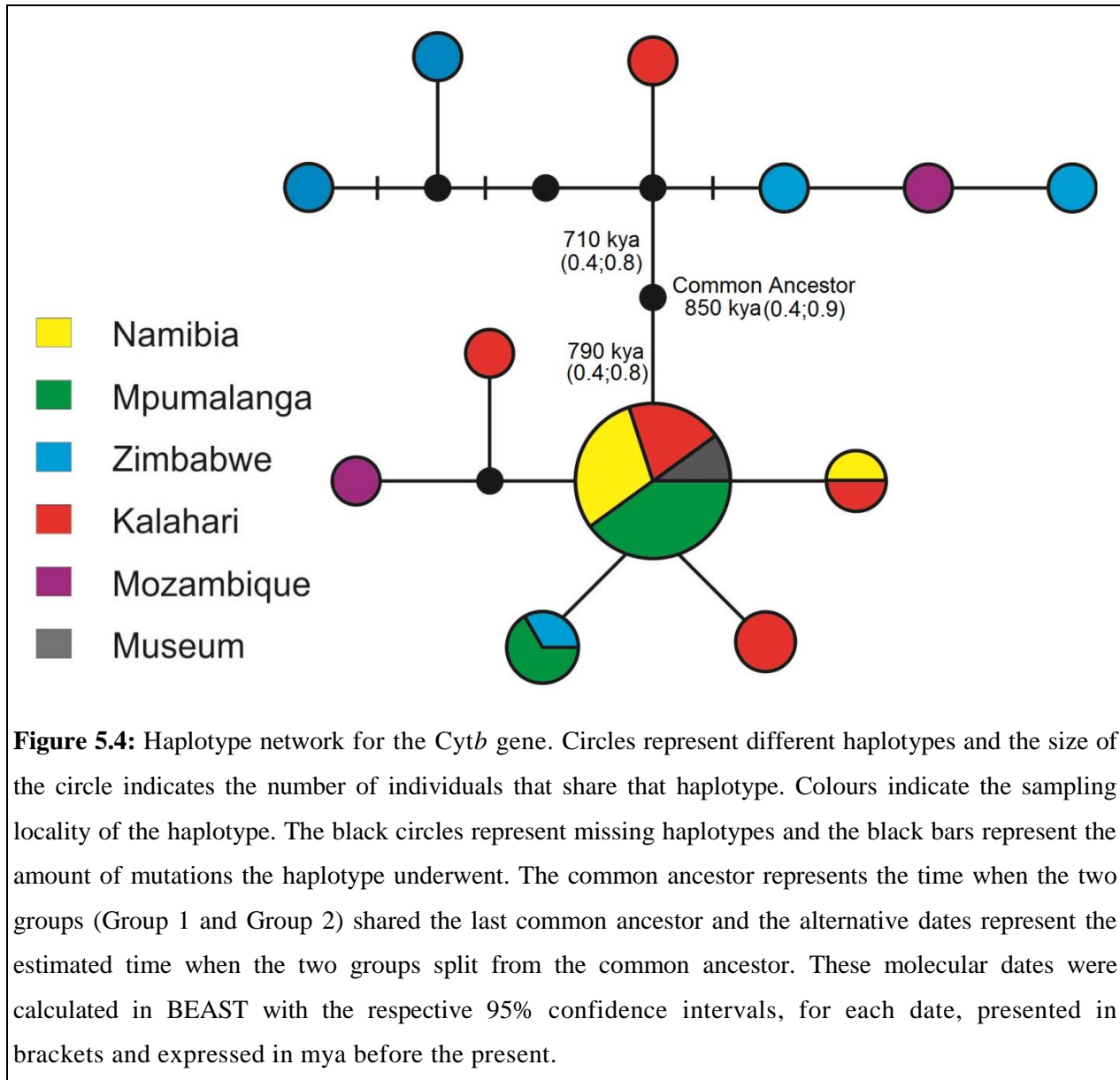
Table 5.5: Haplotype layout for the D-loop gene region illustrating the number of haplotypes haplotypes shared between individuals as the first value; the proportion of unique haplotypes as the second value; haplotype diversity and nucleotide diversity in the different populations observed during this study.

	Kalahari	Mpumalanga	Namibia	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Museum
Haplotype 1	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 2	2/0.286	2/0.333	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 3	2/0.286	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 4	1/0.143	-	-	-	1/0.500	-
Haplotype 5	1/0.143	-	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 6	-	2/0.333	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 7	-	1/0.167	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 8	-	1/0.167	-	-	-	-
Haplotype 9	-	-	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 10	-	-	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 11	-	-	1/0.250	-	-	-
Haplotype 12	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 13	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 14	-	-	-	2/0.400	1/0.500	-
Haplotype 15	-	-	-	1/0.200	-	-
Haplotype 16	-	-	-	-	-	1/1
Proportion unique	57.2	66.8	75.0	60.0	0.0	100.0
Haplotypes (%)						
Haplotype Diversity (%)	90.5 (±10.3)	86.7 (±12.9)	100.0 (±17.7)	90.0 (±16.1)	100.0 (±50.0)	0.0
Nucleotide Diversity (%)	0.483	0.149	0.559	0.929	0.946	0.0

None of the individuals were heteroplasmic and no nuclear homologues were presumably amplified since multiple bands were not observed. Across all three gene regions, none of the populations had exclusively private haplotypes. In general the haplotypes were only found in one or two individuals resulting in a high total haplotype diversity ($H_T = 0.788-0.934$), thus haplotype frequencies are potentially of limited use in determining population structure in pangolins. The nucleotide diversity for the three gene regions varied from 0.261–0.613%. Within

individual geographic populations, there was considerable genetic variation as diversity varied from 0.161–0.708% for COI, 0.044–0.529% for *Cytb* and 0.149–0.946% for the D-loop region (Tables 5.3–5.5).





Haplotype networks (Figures 5.3–5.5) indicate a clear split, for the majority of the samples, between the Zim/Moz region and Kal/Nam/MP samples. The results obtained from the BEAST analysis were extrapolated onto the branches of the haplotype networks to give an indication of divergence time between Group 1 (Zim/Moz) and Group 2 (Kal/Nam/MP). The BEAST results indicated that the two groups shared a common ancestor between 2.94 and 1.27 mya, across the three gene regions, depending on the mutation rate of each gene region (Figures 5.3–5.5).

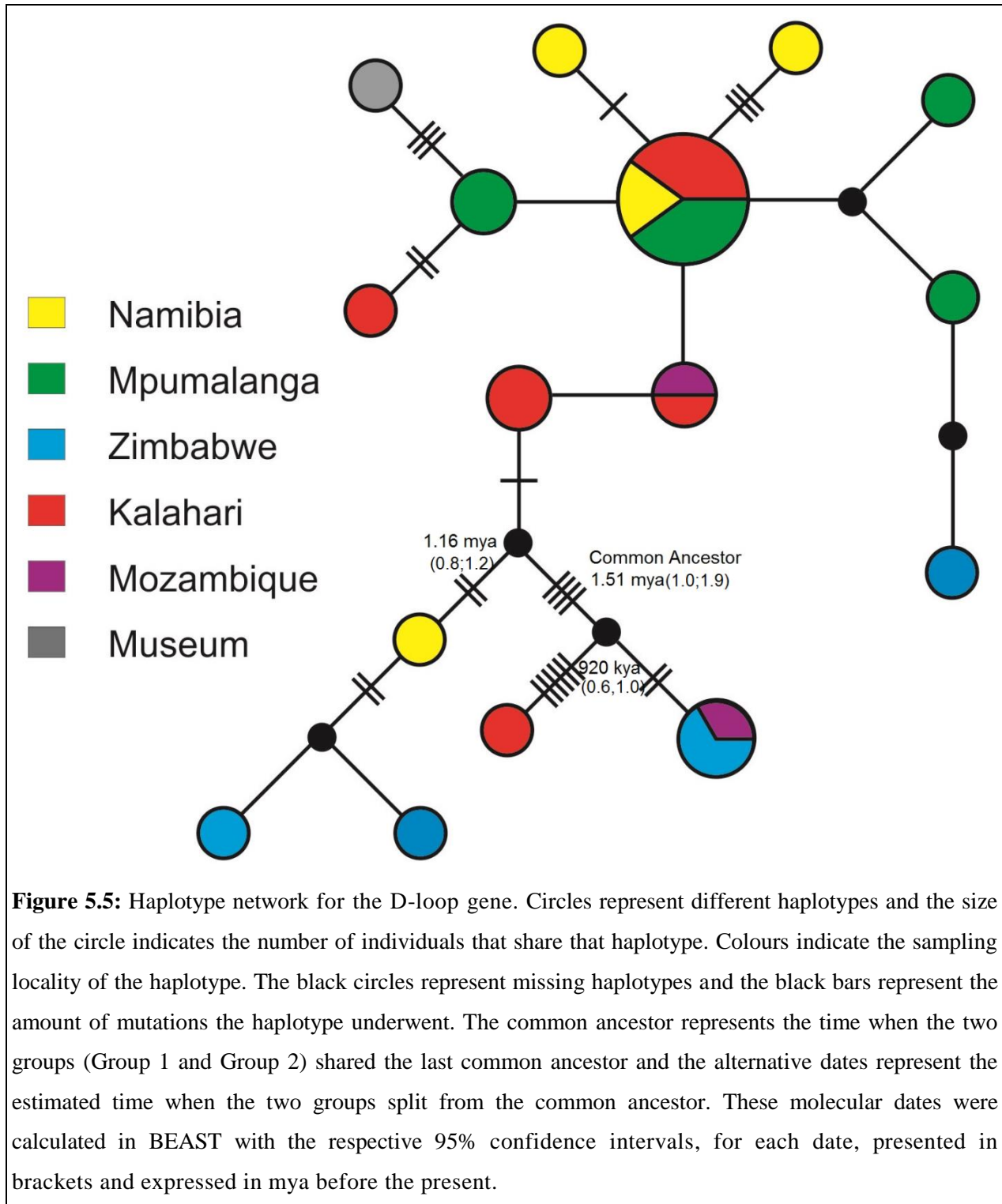


Figure 5.5: Haplotype network for the D-loop gene. Circles represent different haplotypes and the size of the circle indicates the number of individuals that share that haplotype. Colours indicate the sampling locality of the haplotype. The black circles represent missing haplotypes and the black bars represent the amount of mutations the haplotype underwent. The common ancestor represents the time when the two groups (Group 1 and Group 2) shared the last common ancestor and the alternative dates represent the estimated time when the two groups split from the common ancestor. These molecular dates were calculated in BEAST with the respective 95% confidence intervals, for each date, presented in brackets and expressed in mya before the present.

5.4.2. GENETIC DIFFERENTIATION (F_{ST}) AND GENETIC DISTANCE (G_{ST})

Table 5.6: Population pairwise distance (F_{ST}) for COI, *Cytb* and D-loop gene region illustrating distance F_{ST} with significance level ($P < 0.005$) below the horizontal and genetic distance (G_{ST}) above the horizontal. The bold values indicate the highest variation as well as the least variation between populations.

Pairwise Fst (Significance level $P < 0.005$); Genetic Distance (G_{ST})					
	Kalahari	Mpumalanga	Namibia	Zimbabwe	Mozambique
COI					
Kalahari	*	0.054	0.025	0.014	0.055
Mpumalanga	0.023 (0.234)	*	0.059	0.053	0.079
Namibia	0.0 (0.940)	0.071 (0.144)	*	0.044	0.059
Zimbabwe	0.38 (0.045)	0.543 (0.009)	0.447 (0.027)	*	0.0
Mozambique	0.252 (0.036)	0.564 (0.054)	0.483 (0.063)	0.0 (0.721)	*
Cytb					
Kalahari	*	0.058	0.035	0.026	0.063
Mpumalanga	0.061 (0.261)	*	0.0	0.100	0.149
Namibia	0.0 (0.838)	0.111 (0.234)	*	0.138	0.157
Zimbabwe	0.158 (0.027)	0.229 (0.027)	0.161 (0.081)	*	0.031
Mozambique	0.127 (0.207)	0.439 (0.009)	0.314 (0.108)	0.0 (0.892)	*
D-loop					
Kalahari	*	0.011	0.0	0.052	0.039
Mpumalanga	0.021 (0.315)	*	0.0	0.062	0.065
Namibia	0.0 (0.586)	0.029 (0.306)	*	0.027	0.020
Zimbabwe	0.181 (0.072)	0.382 (0.0)	0.166 (0.144)	*	0.0
Mozambique	0.0 (0.378)	0.409 (0.036)	0.056 (0.324)	0.0 (0.991)	*

The highest level of differentiation and genetic distance (for COI) was observed between Mpumalanga and Mozambique with an F_{ST} value of 0.564 (0.054) and G_{ST} value of 0.079 (Table 5.6). The lowest significant level of differentiation was observed between Zimbabwe–Mozambique and Kalahari–Namibia with F_{ST} 0.0 (0.940) / 0.0 (0.721) and G_{ST} 0.0 / 0.025 respectively. For the *Cytb* region the largest differentiation was also observed between Mpumalanga and Mozambique with F_{ST} 0.439 (0.009) and G_{ST} 0.149 (Table 5.6). Zimbabwe–Mozambique and Kalahari–Namibia showed the lowest significant level of differentiation for *Cytb* with F_{ST} 0.0 (0.838) / 0.0 (0.892) and G_{ST} 0.031 / 0.035 respectively. The same pattern was

also observed in the D-loop region (Table 5.6) where the highest differentiation was observed between Mpumalanga and Mozambique with F_{ST} 0.409 (0.036) and G_{ST} 0.065. The regions with the lowest significant level observed were Zimbabwe–Mozambique and Kalahari–Namibia with F_{ST} 0.0 (0.586) / 0.0 (0.991) and G_{ST} 0.0 / 0.0 respectively.

Table 5.7: Genetic structure of all three gene regions using AMOVA to distinguish between and within different paired populations. The source of variation values displays the percentage of variation observed across all three gene regions. The Fixation Index (F_{CT}) with significant values $P < 0.005$, represented in brackets, were also included for all three gene regions. Four different groupings were run with AMOVA. These include the five different populations (Kalahari, Namibia, Mpumalanga, Zimbabwe and Mozambique) as separate entities; West (Kal/Nam)–southeast (MP)–northeast (Zim/Moz) split; East (MP/Zim/Moz)–West (Kal/Nam) split and (Kal/MP/Nam)–(Zim/Moz) split.

	Source of variation								
	Among groups			Among populations within groups			Within populations		
	COI	<i>Cytb</i>	D-loop	COI	<i>Cytb</i>	D-loop	COI	<i>Cytb</i>	D-loop
Individual Groupings	31.92	13.12	13.40				68.08	86.88	86.60
West-southeast-northeast Split	40.75 [0.41 (0.06)]	19.47 [0.19 (0.12)]	22.09 [0.30 (0.10)]	0.0	0.0	0.0	63.35	84.0	83.34
East-West Split	0.0 [0.0 (0.49)]	0.86 [0.009 (0.40)]	0.0 [0.0 (0.60)]	34.81	12.53	18.19	69.02	86.61	88.76
(Kal/MP/ Nam)- (Zim/Moz) Split	50.12 [0.50 (0.10)]	27.75 [0.88 (0.10)]	30.25 [0.30 (0.10)]	0.0	0.0	4.64	52.17	75.64	74.38

A geographical approach and motivation was used to rationalise the four groupings chosen for the AMOVA analysis. The first analysis was performed with all five sampling areas treated as separate units (Table 5.7). Results showed that the highest percentage of genetic variation was observed within populations (68.08–86.88%) across the three gene regions. The lowest variation was observed among the geographic regions (13.12–31.92%). AMOVA was also performed with three different alternative groupings of the data (Table 5.7). The first run was based on an

arrangement of Group 1 (Kal/Nam), Group 2 (MP) and Group 3 (Zim/Moz), representing a west-southeastern-northeastern split within southern Africa. The results indicate the same pattern across all three gene regions with the highest percentage of genetic variation being observed within populations (63.35–84.0%) and the lowest among groups (19.47–40.75%). The Fixation Index (F_{CT}) = 0.19–0.41 (0.06–0.12) across all three gene regions. The second analysis was performed between Group 1 (Kal/Nam) and Group 2 (MP/Moz/Zim) forming an east–west split within southern Africa. The same pattern was also observed in all three gene regions where the highest percentage of genetic variation occurred within populations (69.02–86.02%) and the lowest among groups (0.0–0.86%). The Fixation Index (F_{CT}) = 0.0–0.009 (0.4–0.6) across all three gene regions. The third AMOVA analysis was performed between Group 1 (Zim/Moz) and Group 2 (Kal/Nam/MP). The highest percentage genetic variation was observed within populations (52.17–75.64%) and the lowest among groups (27.75–50.12%). The Fixation Index (F_{CT}) = 0.30–0.88 (0.10) across all three gene regions. The Fixation Indexes (F_{CT}) provides stronger support for the AMOVA results since it validates the percentage variation found among groups. This is significant since we wanted to observe the differences among groups for each analysis in order to obtain the best geographical grouping for these populations as well as to test the hypothesis of the western and eastern split which we suspected.

5.5. DISCUSSION

Total haplotype diversity of Temminck's ground pangolin (0.880 overall and site-specific values ranging from 0.788–0.934) is high and within the range reported for the Malayan pangolin, *M. javanica* (0.947; Wirdateti *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, the haplotype diversity results obtained in this study are similar to those reported for antelope species, for example: Chinese water deer, *Hydropotes inermis inermis* (0.923; Hu *et al.*, 2006), Indian muntjac, *Muntiacus muntjak* (0.862; Wu & Fang, 2005), Kob, *Kobus kob* (0.72; Birungi & Arctander, 2000) and the African buffalo, *Syncerus caffer* (0.91; Simonsen *et al.*, 1998). Genetic diversity expressed as total nucleotide diversity in Temminck's ground pangolin (0.429% overall and site-specific values ranging from 0.261–0.613%) is moderate and lower than values reported for the Malayan pangolin (2.5%; Wirdateti *et al.*, 2013) and also lower than estimates reported for antelope species, for example: Chinese water deer (1.318%), greater kudu, *Tragelaphus*

strepsiceros (1%), impala, *Aepyceros melampus* (2.2%) and eland, *Taurotragus oryx* (0.5–3.6%), (Nersting & Arctander, 2001; Hu *et al.*, 2006; Masembe *et al.*, 2006; Lorenzen *et al.*, 2010).

This study found low levels of differentiation within the two main geographic units (Kal, Nam and MP) and (Zim and Moz), thus suggesting that there is still gene flow between Temminck's ground pangolins found within these regions. However, hierarchical analysis of the data suggests that two geographical units are present, namely Group 1 (which includes samples from Zimbabwe and Mozambique) and Group 2 (which includes samples from the Kalahari, Mpumalanga and Namibia), with a high genetic divergence between these regions. Across all three gene regions, AMOVA results indicate a substantial level of genetic differentiation ($F_{CT} = 0.30\text{--}0.88$; $p = 0.10$ overall and site-specific values ranging from 0.278–0.501) between Group 1 and Group 2. In addition, relatively little differentiation among populations within the same geographic regions was observed (F_{SC} site-specific values ranging from 0.0–0.046). These results are further supported by high levels of subdivision based on F_{ST} in all three gene regions between the two main geographic units. The highest levels of genetic distance were observed between Mpumalanga and Mozambique ($F_{ST} = 0.439$; $p = 0.009$) and between Mpumalanga and Zimbabwe ($F_{ST} = 0.229$; $p = 0.027$). However, the two main geographical units shared two out of 46 haplotypes (Tables 5.3–5.5). There are no obvious restrictions to gene flow within this species; thus, the observed differentiation between the two main geographical units may be due to a more recent phenomenon which could have restricted gene flow as a result of geographic distance, habitat fragmentation and/or behaviour or due to an ancient habitat-based separation.

It is a well-known phenomenon that individuals separated by geographic distance often display large genetic distance as observed in various African Bovids (Templeton & Georgiadis, 1996). Ground pangolins however are known to travel long distances as Van Aarde *et al.* (1990) reported on a young male Temminck's ground pangolin fitted with a Very High Frequency (VHF) transmitter at Olifantshoek in the Northern Cape Province being recaptured four months later in the Northwest Province, 300 km from the release site. The inferred dispersal rate of 2.5 km a day is within the range of 2–7 km a day recorded in a previous study (Pietersen, 2013), although the possibility that this was a human-assisted dispersal event cannot be entirely ruled out. If this was a *bona fide* dispersal event this could indicate that juveniles may disperse

between the sampling localities, since the species' distributional range is continuous, thus maintaining gene flow between regions and sampling areas. Further evidence of possible dispersal between sampling localities was found by Pietersen (2013), where tracked animals dispersed minimum distances of 32–81 km in 20 days before contact was lost or the transmitters removed. Thus it is unlikely that isolation-by-distance itself is resulting in differentiation between the two main genetic sub-populations identified during this study. However, morphological and habitat differences between these two sub-populations of pangolin have been observed, particularly with regards to the average size of individuals (Pietersen, 2013). In addition, portions of this species' range have been transformed due to agricultural practices leading to unsuitable habitat (APWG, 2013). In addition territorial behaviour and natal philopatry may play a role in genetic differentiation (Sugg *et al.*, 1996; Piertney *et al.*, 1998). Although the Temminck's ground pangolins are known as solitary animals with large territories and strong home range fidelity, little is currently known with regards to their behaviour. Thus a combination of habitat differences, substantial geographic distance and intrinsic factors may lead to a degree of gene isolation and genetic drift establishing this divergence between the two sub-populations. A stepping stone model of migration could be suggested since the dispersal habitat of Temminck's ground pangolin is considered to be one enormous overlapping distribution across southern Africa (Figure 5.1). The stepping-stone model suggests that migration is restricted to adjacent sub-populations as would be the circumstance with the pangolins where the populations are not isolated and neighbouring populations (especially juveniles) are able to disperse and exchange genetic material, thus maintaining a high genetic gene pool (Kimura & Weiss, 1964). However, additional sampling in the intervening regions is required to further investigate this hypothesis. Lastly, several species namely African bovids such as impala and Greater kudu as well as giraffes are genetically differentiated into South-eastern and South-western southern African populations (Arctander *et al.*, 1999; Nersting & Arctander, 2001; Hassanin *et al.*, 2007), which may be attributed to the Mega Kalahari Sand Sea forming a barrier to gene flow (Stokes *et al.*, 1998). Thus, these results may reflect an ancient habitat-based separation which coincides with the Mega Kalahari Sand Sea phenomenon, since we estimate that the Zim/Moz split occurred between 920 and 710 kya and the Kal/Nam/MP split between 1.16 mya and 790 kya.

CHAPTER SIX

GENERAL DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was the first to investigate the population genetics of Temminck's ground pangolin in southern Africa. This study forms part of a larger project to determine the genetic structure and phylogenetic patterns of pangolins in Africa. The original aims of this study were met as follows:

6.1. OPTIMIZATION OF SCALE SAMPLES

Non-invasive sampling techniques have become more popular for usage in genetic studies as it has low impact on animals compared to invasive sampling. Furthermore, the pangolin's defence mechanism consists of rolling into a ball when threatened, thus making the collection of blood samples difficult whereas scale clippings are easily obtainable. Pangolin scales consist of keratin, the same composition as human nails, which makes it an attractive alternative of sampling from pangolins. However, extracting DNA from scale samples is challenging as the DNA is usually degraded or fragmented. The results obtained during this study demonstrated that obtaining good quality sequencing data from scale samples is possible by using a variety of DNA isolation protocols such as the QIAamp[®] DNA Investigator Kit which assists in obtaining higher quality DNA. Various PCR enhancing protocols such as addition of BSA and glycerol can also assist to increase the quality of the extracted DNA and the success of the amplification process during PCR. High quality sequences were obtained following usage of the various PCR enhancing techniques and ranged between 100–500 bp, depending on the respected primer amplification length for each region. The success rate obtained from the sequences, after using all the extraction protocols and PCR enhancing techniques, amounted to successful amplification of approximately 89% of the samples used during this study.

6.2. WHOLE MITOCHONDRIAL DNA ANALYSIS AND PHYLOGENETICS

The study presented here indicates that Temminck's ground pangolin mtDNA genome is 16,559 bp in length. These results were generated by using the primer walking method along with ten cross-species markers generated from the black-bellied pangolin (*Phataginus tetradactyla*) as well as 48 species-specific markers in order to fill the remaining gaps in the genome. A comparison between the whole mtDNA genomes of Temminck's ground pangolin (*Smutsia temminckii*), the black-bellied pangolin (*P. tetradactyla*) and the Chinese pangolin (*Manis pentadactyla*) indicated that these three pangolin species differ considerably on a genetic basis. Various differences as well as similarities in the different gene regions were noted. These were observed between the three pangolin species as well as between the two African species respectively. Genetic differences would be expected since the Chinese pangolin is found in Asia, the black-bellied pangolin is an arboreal species from Africa and Temminck's ground pangolin is a ground-dwelling species from Africa. This differentiation was also confirmed during the phylogenetic analysis where the separation between the species was dated. The results further indicated that pangolins are more closely related to the order Carnivora and Erinaceomorpha compared to the order Xenarthra, as would be expected. In addition, results confirm a Laurasian origin for the pangolins, estimated at 87 mya, from where they gradually descended into Africa while some individuals ascended further into Asia. We also suspect that the arboreal species evolved from the ground-dwelling pangolins in Africa since the fossils found in Africa are more closely related to the giant ground pangolin than to the arboreal pangolin species. No fossils have been located for the arboreal species and limited information is available on the other pangolin species. In addition, full mtDNA analysis has yet to be undertaken for the giant ground pangolin (*Smutsia gigantea*) and white-bellied pangolin (*Phataginus tricuspis*).

6.3. PHYLOGEOGRAPHY, GENETIC STRUCTURE AND DIVERSITY

Results from this study indicated that there is a genetic separation between Group 1 (Zimbabwe/Mozambique) and Group 2 (Kalahari/Namibia/Mpumalanga) of Temminck's ground pangolin populations in southern Africa. The AMOVA results indicated a significant level of genetic differentiation suggesting the presence of two geographical units with little differentiation observed between populations in the same geographic unit. These observations were further supported by high levels of genetic distance (F_{ST}) observed between

Mpumalanga and Mozambique ($F_{ST} = 0.439$ (0.009)) and between Mpumalanga and Zimbabwe ($F_{ST} = 0.229$ (0.027)). This separation between the two geographical units could either be caused by an ancestral division such as the formation of the Mega Kalahari Sand Sea during the Pleistocene era or a more recent barrier of unsuitable habitat. The same pattern of separation was observed across all three mtDNA gene regions, with differentiation as well as haplotype network analysis indicating similar results. However, these findings should be regarded as preliminary in the absence of data from nuclear DNA analysis. Such data could verify whether the southern populations of the species may contain smaller units for conservation, whether as ESUs or sub-species. Since this study forms part of a larger project, no conservation plans can be implemented presently with reverence to ESUs since there is still a lot of information absent regarding these species, both genetically as well as morphologically. In addition, larger sample sets from a wider distribution of the species within its range is required.

6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

In concordance with the above mentioned observation noted during the mtDNA analysis, additional nuclear DNA markers could be developed to assist in obtaining more conclusive analysis on Temminck's ground pangolin populations along with the mtDNA results. Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms and development of species-specific microsatellite markers can contribute by giving a more precise indication of population structure in these species. Developing species-specific microsatellite markers would also have better success in amplifying *S. temminckii* DNA than the cross-species markers since it would be developed from the same species thus containing similar DNA compositions located in each cell. A previous study performed by De Beer (2013) indicated that cross-species markers have limited success in amplifying Temminck's ground pangolin genomic DNA, thus justifying the necessity for alternative methods. Larger sample sets covering a wider distribution range, of these animals, will also support more accurate results obtained from both mtDNA and nuclear DNA analysis. This in turn will contribute to a better understanding of the population structure of Temminck's ground pangolin and as a further result, the rest of the African pangolin species.

SUMMARY

Temminck's ground pangolin, *S. temminckii*, is currently listed as *Vulnerable* on the IUCN Red Data List. However, their numbers are decreasing due to illegal hunting for bush meat and over-harvesting for traditional use in Africa. Pangolins are also exported to Asia as a delicacy and for use in traditional medicine. Currently, the greatest threat to ground pangolins in southern Africa is electrocution by electric fences on game farms. This project consisted of two parts. The first was to sequence the whole mtDNA genome of Temminck's ground pangolin to identify gene regions and to determine the evolutionary relationship of the order Pholidota. Results generated using the primer walking method, indicated that the whole mtDNA of Temminck's ground pangolin is 16,559 bp in length. The phylogenetic analysis shows that the order Pholidota form a sister grouping with the order Carnivora rather than with the order Xenarthra as would be expected. Data suggested a Laurasian origin approximately 87 mya and possible migration into Africa during the Paleocene era around 55 mya. The second part of the study was conducted in order to determine the phylogeography of Temminck's ground pangolins in southern Africa. Twenty five samples were collected from four countries, namely Namibia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa (Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape Provinces). The results obtained indicated a high level of genetic variation within populations and only a few individuals displayed private haplotypes, which resulted in an increase in haplotype diversity. Samples from Zimbabwe and Mozambique (Group 1) clustered together while samples from the Northern Cape and Mpumalanga Provinces of South Africa grouped with samples from Namibia (Group 2), suggesting either an ancestral or recent split between Groups 1 and 2. The BEAST analysis indicated that the two groups shared a recent common ancestor between 2.94 and 1.27 mya across the three gene regions. In addition, it was estimated that the Zimbabwe/Mozambique split occurred between 920 and 710 kya and the Kalahari/Namibia/Mpumalanga split between 1.16 mya and 790 kya. This pattern corresponds to the Mega Kalahari Sand Sea forming a barrier between individuals and populations around that time. This study is the first molecular analysis based on the mitochondrial DNA genome of Temminck's ground pangolin in southern Africa and it provides an insight into the species' population genetics across its range in southern Africa. However, additional research into the order Pholidota throughout Africa can assist in

SUMMARY

better understanding of genetic variation within African pangolin species and populations. Furthermore, such studies will also support the conservation of genetic variation within species and contribute to identifying evolutionary distinct populations to assist in developing effective conservation management plans for the different species of the order Pholidota.

KEYWORDS: mitochondrial DNA, phylogeny, phylogeography, *Smutsia temminckii*, Temminck's ground pangolin

OPSOMMING

Die huidige status van Temminck se grond itermagog, *S. temminckii*, is gelys as *Kwesbaar* op die Internasionale Unie vir die Bewaring van Natuurlewe (IUCN) se Rooi Data Lys. Nietemin, toon bevolkings 'n klaarblyklike afname in getalle as gevolg van onwettige jagtery vir wildsvleis, sowel as groot stropings aanvraag vir tradisionêle gebruik in Afrika. Itermagoë word ook na Asië uitgevoer waar hulle beskou word as 'n lekkerny en ook gebruik word in tradisionele medisyne. Die grootste gevaar vir itermagoë in Suider-Afrika is huidiglik doodskokking deur elektrisiteitsdrade op wildsplase. Hierdie projek het bestaan uit twee dele. Die eerste deel het behels om deur middel van volgordebepaling die volledige mitokondriale deoxyribonukleïensuur (mtDNA) genoom van Temminck se grond itermagog vas te stel, om die verskillende geen areas te identifiseer en evolusionêre verwantskappe van die orde Pholidota te bepaal. Resultate wat met behulp van die “primer walking” metode gegenereer is, het getoon dat die volledige mtDNA van Temminck se grond itermagog 16,559 bp lank is. Die filogenetiese analise het getoon dat die orde Pholidota 'n suster groep vorm met die orde Carnivora eerder as groepeer met die orde Xenarthra soos verwag. Gevolglik toon die data ook 'n Laurasiëse oorsprong, ongeveer 87 miljoen jaar gelede, sowel as moontlike migrasie na Afrika gedurende die Paleocene tydperk ongeveer 55 miljoen jaar gelede. Die tweede deel van die studie het gehandel oor die filogeografie van Temminck se grond itermagog in Suider-Afrika. Vyf-en-twintig individue, afkomstig van vier lande, is bestudeer. Die lande het bestaan uit Namibië, Mosambiek, Zimbabwe en Suid-Afrika (Mpumalanga- en Noord-Kaap Provinsies). Die resultate toon dat daar 'n hoë vlak van genetiese divergensie tussen bevolkings is en net 'n paar individue het unieke haplotipes getoon wat gelei het tot verhoging in haplotiep diversiteit. Die resultate het verder getoon dat die individue van Zimbabwe en Mosambiek (Groep 1) saam groepeer terwyl individue van Noord-Kaap Provinsie en Mpumalanga Provinsie saam groepeer met individue van Namibië (Groep 2). Bogenoemde groeperings kan te wyte wees aan 'n voorouer of moderne skeiding tussen die twee groepe. Die BEAST analise het getoon dat die twee groepe 'n gemeenskaplike voorouer gedeel het tussen 2.94 en 1.27 miljoen jaar gelede oor die drie geen areas. Die resultate het verder getoon dat die Zimbabwe/Mosambiek skeiding tussen 920 en 710 duisend jaar gelede ontstaan het en die Kalahari/Mpumalanga/Namibië skeiding tussen 1.16

miljoen jaar gelede en 790 duisend jaar gelede oor die drie geen areas. Bogenoemde patroon is te wyte aan die Groot Kalahari Sand-See wat 'n versperring tussen individue en bevolkings van daardie tyd gevorm het. Hierdie studie is die eerste molekulêre analise gebaseer op die mtDNS genoom van Temminck se grond ieternag in Suider-Afrika en dit verskaf 'n beter insig tot die spesie se bevolkingsgenetika regoor hul verspreidings gebied in Suider-Afrika. Addisionele navorsing van die orde Pholidota regoor Afrika is nietemin nodig ten einde 'n beter begrip van die genetiese variasie in ieternag spesies en bevolkings te verkry. Die resultate dra ook by tot die bewaring van genetiese diversiteit in identifisering van unieke bevolkings, wat verder sal bydra tot die ontwikkeling van effektiewe bewaringsbestuursplanne vir al die spesies in die orde Pholidota.

SLEUTELTERME: filogenie, filo-geografie, mitokondriale DNS, *Smutsia temminckii*, Temminck se grond ieternag

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APPENDIX A

WHOLE MITOCHONDRIAL DNA SEQUENCE OF TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN (*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*)

APPENDIX A

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LOCUS      Smutsia_temminckii      16559 bp      DNA      circular DNA
FEATURES   Location/Qualifiers
    Source      1..16559
               /organism="Smutsia temminckii"
               /organelle="mitochondrion"
               /mol_type="genomic DNA"
    tRNA        1..68
               /label=tRNA-Phe
    rRNA        69..1026
               /label="12S ribosomal RNA"
    tRNA        1027..1092
               /label=tRNA-Val
    rRNA        1093..2646
               /label="16S ribosomal RNARNA"
    tRNA        2647..2721
               /label=tRNA-Leu
    CDS         2726..3681
               /gene=ND1
               /note="TAA stop codon is completed by the
               addition of 3' A
               residues to the mRNA"
               /codon_start=1
               /transl_except=(pos:3680..3681,aa:TERM)
               /transl_table=2
               /product="NADH dehydrogenase subunit 1"

/translating=MSIINLLLTIIPILLAVAFLLTVERKVLGYMQLRKGNIVGPWGLL
QPIADAMKLFSTKEPLRPLTSSIMMFIMAPAMALTLALTMWMPLPMPHPLININLGVLFM
LAMSSLAVYSILWSGWASNSKYALIGAIRAVAQTISYEVTLAIILLSVLLMNGSFTLPT
LIITQEKLWLLVPTWPLAMMWFISTLAETNRAPFDLTEGESELVSGFNVEYAAGPFALF
FLAEYANIIMMNSLSTIIFLGATHSPYSPNLYTANLVTKVLILTMTFLWIRASYPRFRY
DQLMHLLWKNFLPLTLAMCMWHISVPIATSSIPPQT
    Gene        2726..3681
               /label=ND1
    tRNA        3682..3750
               /label=tRNA-Ile
    tRNA        complement(3748..3819)
               /label=tRNA-Gln
    tRNA        3821..3889
               /label=tRNA-Met
    CDS         3890..4931
               /gene=ND2
               /note="TAA stop codon is completed by the
               addition of 3' A
               residues to the mRNA"
               /codon_start=1
               /transl_except=(pos:4931,aa:TERM)
               /transl_table=2
               /product="NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2"

/translating=MNPLALILIMSTVFFSTTLVLISNWLTIWVGFEMNMLAMIPILMK

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 GGWGGLNQTQLRKIMAYSSIAHLGWMMAIMLYNPNIAILNLLIYILMTLSTFMMLHHNS
 TTTTSLSLSHLSNKMPLMTIILLILLMSMGGLPPLSGFMPKWMI IQELTKNDMMLLPTLM
 AMMALLNLYFYLRRLTYSTTLTMFPTPNNMKMTWQFQHNKHKLVSPLIILSTMILPLTP
 IMSILI
 Gene 3890..4931
 /label=ND2
 tRNA 4932..4999
 /label=tRNA-Trp
 tRNA complement (5002..5070)
 /label=tRNA-Ala
 tRNA complement (5072..5144)
 /label=tRNA-Asn
 tRNA complement (5178..5242)
 /label=tRNA-Cys
 tRNA complement (5243..5309)
 /label=tRNA-Tyr
 CDS 5311..6860
 /gene=COX1
 /codon_start=1
 /transl_table=2
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 /translation=MFINRWLFSTNHKDIGTLYLIFGAWAGMVGTALESLLIRAELGQPGT
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 PPSFLLLLASSMVEAGAGTGWTVYPPLAGNLAHAGASVDLTI FSLHLAGISSILGAINF
 ITTIINMKPPAMSQYQTPLFVWSVLVTAVLLLLSLPVLAAGITMLLTDNRNLNTTFFDPA
 GGDPILYQHLEWFFGHPEVYILILPGFGMISHIVTYYSKGKEPFGYMGMVWAMMSIGF
 LGFIVWAHMFVTVGMDVDTRAYFTSATMIIAIP TGVKVFSWLATLHGGSVKWAPALLWA
 LGFIFLFTVGGTLGIVLANSSLDIVLHDTYYVVAHFHYVLSMGAVFAIMGGFVHWFPLF
 SGYTLNDTWAKVHFTIMFVGVNMTFFPQHFLGLSGMPRRYSDYPDAYTLWNTVSSMSGSF
 ISLTAVMLMVMIWEAFASKREILMVELTDTNLEWLHGCPPPYHTFEEPAFVNPMKQ
 Gene 5311..6860
 /label=COX1
 tRNA complement (6856..6926)
 /label=tRNA-Ser
 tRNA 6932..6998
 /label=tRNA-Asp
 CDS 6999..7682
 /gene=COX2
 /codon_start=1
 /transl_table=2

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        /product="cytochrome c oxidase subunit II"

/translation=MAHPFQLGFQDATSPIMEELLHFHDHTLMIVFLISSLVLYIISLML
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VPSLGLKTD AIPGRLNQTTLMSHRPGLFFGQCSEICGSNHSFMPIVIVEMVPLKTFENWS
        LSML*
Gene          6999..7682
              /label=COX2
tRNA          7685..7751
              /label=tRNA-Lys
CDS           7754..7954
              /gene=ATP8
              /codon_start=1
              /transl_table=2
              /product="ATP synthase F0 subunit 8"

/translation=MPQLDTSTWFIMITSMFLTLFILLQLKISKYNYPHNAEIATKLDYK
ISTPWMKKWTKIYLP LSLPQ*
Gene          7754..7954
              /label=ATP8
CDS           7915..8595
              /gene=ATP6
              /codon_start=1
              /transl_table=2
              /product="ATP synthase F0 subunit 6"

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VPLWAATVITGFRHKTKMSLAHLLPQGTPTPLIPVLVIIETISLLIQPMALAVRLTANI
TAGHLLMHLIGSATLALMSISLTVATPTFIILVLLTILEFAVALIQAYVFTLLISLYLH
DNT*
Gene          7915..8595
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CDS           8595..9378
              /gene=COX3
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              residues to the mRNA"
              /codon_start=1
              /transl_except=(pos:9378,aa:TERM)
              /product="cytochrome c oxidase subunit III"

/translation=MNHQTHSYHMVNPSWP L TGALSALLMTSGLAMWFHFNSMILLSLG
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ITISLGLYFTLLQISEYYEAPFTISDGVYGSTFFMATGFHGLHVIIGSSFLLVCFMRQL

KFHFTSKHHFGFEAAAWYWHFVDVVWLFVSIYWWGS

Gene 8595..9378
 /label=COX3
 tRNA 9379..9447
 /label=tRNA-Gly
 CDS 9448..9793
 /gene=ND3
 /note="TAA stop codon is completed by the
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 residues to the mRNA"
 /codon_start=1
 /transl_except=(pos:9793,aa:TERM)
 /transl_table=2
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ARLPFSMKFFLIAITFLLFDLEIVLLLPLPWASQTNQLNIMLITALLLLLLLAIISLAYE

WTQKGLEWAE
 Gene 9448..9793
 /label=ND3
 tRNA 9794..9861
 /label=tRNA-Arg
 CDS 9862..10158
 /gene=ND4L
 /codon_start=1
 /transl_table=2
 /product="NADH dehydrogenase subunit 4L"

/translation=MPSIHINIMLAFVISLAGMLMYRSHLMSSLLCLEGMMLSLFTMIAI

TSLNINFTLASMAPIILLVFAACEAALGLSLLVLSNSYGTDYVQNLNLLRC

Gene 9862..10158
 /label=ND4L
 CDS 10152..11529
 /gene=ND4
 /note="TAA stop codon is completed by the
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 residues to the mRNA"
 /codon_start=1
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 /transl_table=2
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IYTQNMGTLLNMLLQYWAKPMANSWTSTLMWLACMMAFMVKMPYGLHLWLPKAHVEA

PIAGSMVLAAVLLKMGYGLRITPLLEPTTFMAYPFLILSLWGMIMTSSTCLRQTDL

KSLIAYSSVSHMALVIAAIMIQTPWSYMGATALMIAHGLTSSMLFCLANTNYERIHRSRT
 MILARGLQTLPLMATWLLASLTNLALPPSINLIGELFVMSAFSWSNYTITLTGMNI
 IITAAYSLHMLTSTQRSKHTQYINNIKPSFTRENALMALHLLPILLLSINPKIILGLTY
 Gene 10152..11529
 /label=ND4
 tRNA 11530..11598
 /label=tRNA-His
 tRNA 11599..11657
 /label=tRNA-Ser
 tRNA 11657..11725
 /label=tRNA-Leu
 CDS 11726..13546
 /gene=ND5
 /codon_start=1
 /transl_table=2
 /product="NADH dehydrogenase subunit 5"
 /translation=MNTLMWLSLTMLMMLSLPTLINPTHTLMNKSYPVYVKNNTVAISFII
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 WYMNSDPNIDKFFKYLLTFLITMMILVSANNLFQLFIGWEGVGIMSFLFIGWYGRGRTDA
 NTAAMQAILYNRIGDIGFLAMAWFFTKSNSWDLQQIFIINYENTNIPLAGLLLAATGK
 SAQFGLHPWLPSAMEGPTPVSAALLHSSTMVAVGFLIRFYPLMENNKTMTMTLCGSA
 ITTLFTAICALTQNDIKKIVAFSTSSQLGLMMVTIGINQPHLAFIHICTHAFFKAMLFM
 CSGSIIHNLENEQDIRKMGGFLHALPLTTSALIIGSLALTGMPFLTGFYSKDLIIIESIN
 MSYTNAWALSITLLATSLTAAAYSTRMVFLVLTGQPRFTALNAINENNPALTNLSKRLML
 GSIFAGFLLLNYPPTTTPMTMPYKLTLLVTVLGFIVALELCNLSTNLQHNEPSN
 TFKFSNSLGYFPTIIHRTAPMSTLVMSQKSLASLMDLWLEKILPKATSHFHLQASSLT
 SNHKGLIKLYFLSFMMTITLALLTSNYLE*
 Gene 11726..13546
 /label=ND5
 CDS complement(13530..14057)
 /gene=ND6
 /codon_start=1
 /transl_table=2
 /product="NADH dehydrogenase subunit 6"
 /translation=MAMYVVFVLSVVFVISFLGVSSKPSPIYGGFSLIVAGGVGCGIIVC
 SGGFGLMLVFLIYLGGMVVFGYTSAMAIEEYPEAWVSNVVVLGMFVIGSAMELVLVY
 FMIKGEEMGVVLDVDFSSKGDWMVYDTGGLGILSGDIMGVSAALYSYGVWFIVVTGWSSLLMC
 VIIVMEITRGN*

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Gene          complement (13530..14057)
              /label=ND6
tRNA          complement (14058..14126)
              /label=tRNA-Glu
CDS           14130..15269
              /gene=CYTB
              /codon_start=1
              /transl_table=2
              /product="cytochrome b"

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/translation=MTNMRKSHPLFKIISNSFIDLPTPSNISAWWNFGSLLGMCLILQIM
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WGGFSVDKATLTRFFAFHFIFPFIIITGLAMVHLLFLHETGSNNPMGLISNSDKIPFHPY
YTIKDILGLFIMSMALMTLVLFPPDLLGDPDNYTPANPLSTPPHIKPEWYFLFAYAILR
SIPNKLGGVLAALAMSILILAIIPSLQMSKQRTMMFRPLSQIMFWLLVANLLVLTWIGGQ

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PVEHPFILIGQVASISYFTLILVMLPIASTIENKLMKW*

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Gene          14130..15269
              /label=CYTB
tRNA          15270..15338
              /label=tRNA-Thr
tRNA          complement (15338..15403)
              /label=tRNA-Pro
D-Loop       15404..16559

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ORIGIN

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 61  CATAAACACA  TAGGTTTGGT  CCCAGCCTTT  TTATTAGTTT  ATGATAAAAT  TACACATGCA
121  AGTATCCGCC  CTACGGTGAA  AACGCCCTTT  AGCCTTTACA  AGTCAAAAGG  AGCTGGTATC
181  AAGCACGCCA  ATTTAAGGCA  GCTAGTGACA  CCTTGCTTAC  GCCACACCCC  CACGGGAGAC
241  AGCAGTGATA  AAAATTAAAC  CATTAAACGAA  AGTTAGATTT  AGTTATATCA  TTTATGGGTT
301  GGTAATCTC  GTGCCAGCCA  CCGCGGTCAT  ACGATTAACC  CTAATTAATA  AAAAACCGGC
361  GTAAAAGTG  TCAAAGTGTA  TTTAAATCAA  ATAAAATTA  GCCCTAATCA  AGCTGTAAAA
421  AGCCTCGATT  ATAGTAAAAA  TAAACTATGA  AAATAATTTT  AATAAAACCC  ACACACGATA
481  GCTAAGATCC  AAAGTGGGAT  TAGATACCCC  ACTATGCTTA  GCCTTAAACC  TAAATAATTA
541  ATTAAACAAA  ATTATTCGCC  AGAGTACTAC  TAGCAATAGC  TTGAAACTCA  AAGGACTTGG
601  CCGTGCTTCA  TATCCCTCTA  GAGGAGCCTG  TCCTATAAAC  GATAAACCCC  GATAAACCTC
661  ACCAATCCTA  GCTAATGCAG  CCTATATACC  GCCATCCTCA  GCAAACCCTA  ATAAAGGAAC
721  CATAGTAAGC  AAGATCATTG  AACATAAAA  ACGTTAGGTC  AAGGTGTAGC  TTATGGATTG
781  GGAAGAGATG  GGCTACATTT  TCTAAAACAG  AATAAGACGA  ATACCCTTAT  GAAAATAAGG
841  GTTAAAGGAG  GATTTAGTAG  TAAGACAAGA  ATAGAGAGCT  TGAAGTGAAT  AGGCCCTGAA
901  GCACGCACAC  ACCGCCCGTC  ACCCTCTTCA  AATTTCCAAA  AAACAGTAAA  TATATTAATG
961  AATAACAAGA  ATGAGAAGAG  ATAAGTCGTA  ACAAGGTAAG  CATACTGGAA  GGTGTGCTTG
1021 GATAATCAAA  GTGTAGCTTA  AACAAAGCAT  CTGGTCTACA  CCCAGAAGAT  TTCAATTTCA
1081 TGACCACTTT  GAACAAATAC  TAGCCCAATC  AATATATAAC  GAATAATCAA  AGAATCATAA
1141 ACCAAAACAT  TCACCAACCT  AAAGTATAGG  CGATAGAAAT  TATATTATGG  AGCTATAGAA
1201 ACAGTACCGC  AAGGGAAAGA  TGAAAGATTG  AATGATTGTA  CAAAATAGCA  AAGATTAACA
1261 CTTGTACCTT  TCGCATAATG  AATTAGCTAG  AAAGCATCTG  GCAAAGAGAA  CTTAAGCCAG
1321 GAATCCCGAA  ACTAGACGAG  CTACCTTTGA  GCAGTTTAAA  GAACCAACTC  ATCTATGTGG
1381 CAAAATAGTG  AGAAGACTTG  AAGGTAGAGG  TAAAAAGCCT  AACGAGCCTA  GTGATAGCTG
1441 GTTGTCCAAA  AAATGAATCT  AAGTTCAACT  TGAAATATAC  CTAAAAGCAC  AATAACTAAA

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1501	ATGTAAATTT	CAAGTATAGT	CTAAAAAGGT	ACAGCTTTTT	AGAAGTAGTT	AAAACCTTTA
1561	TTAGAGAGTA	AACAATTTAA	TACCCATAGT	TGGCCTTAAA	GCAGCCATCA	ATTAAGAAAG
1621	CGTTCAGCT	CAACAGTAAA	ACATTAACAA	TCCCCAAAAA	CAAGACCAAC	TCCTAAATCA
1681	ATATTGGACT	AATCTATCTA	TAGATAGAAG	AAATACTGCT	AATATGAGTA	ACAAGATATT
1741	AATCTCCTTG	CATAAGCTTA	TATCAGAACG	GATAATCCAC	TGATAGTTAA	CAACATGACA
1801	AAATCAAAC	AAGTATAGAA	ACTTGTCTAA	TAAATTGTTA	ATCCAACACA	GGCATGCACA
1861	CCAAAGGAAA	GATTTAAACA	AATGAAAGGA	ACTCAGCAAA	CACAAGTCCC	GCCTGTTTAC
1921	CAAAAACATC	ACCTCTAGCA	TGACTAGTAT	TAGAGGCACT	GCCTGCCCGG	TGACCATGTT
1981	AAACGGCCGC	GGTATTCTGA	CCGTGCAAAG	GTAGCATAAT	CACTTGTTCT	CTAAATAAGG
2041	ACTAGTATGA	ATGGCCAAAC	GAGGACTTTA	CTGTCTCTCA	TCTGCAATCA	GTGAAATTGA
2101	CCTTCCCGTG	AAAAGGCGGG	AATAATAGAA	TAAGACGAGA	AGACCCATATG	GAGCTTTAAT
2161	TATCAACTTA	AAATTATTTA	TATACACTTC	TAAGGAAATA	AAAAC TAATT	TTATGAGCAA
2221	CTAATTTTGG	TTGGGGTGAC	CTCGGAGAAA	AAAATAACCT	CCGAGCGGTT	TAAATCTAGA
2281	CTTACAAGTC	TAAAAATCCG	TTAATTGATC	CAATATTTGA	TCAACGGAAC	AAGTTACCCT
2341	AGGGATAACA	GCGCAATCCT	ATTCAAGAGT	TCCTATCGAC	AATAGGGTTT	ACGACCTCGA
2401	TGTTGGATCA	GGACATCCCA	ATGGCGCAGC	TGCTATTAAT	GGTTCGTTTG	TTCAACGATT
2461	AAAGTCCTAC	GTGATCTGAG	TTCAGACCGG	AGTAATCCAG	GTCGGTTTCT	ATCTATTTAT
2521	ATATTTTTCC	CAGTACGAAA	GGACAAGAAA	AATAGGGCCT	ACCTTACAAA	AGCGCCCTCA
2581	AACTAATAAA	TGACATATTC	TTAATTTACT	TGGTTTACAA	CAAATTTTAT	CCTAGACACA
2641	GGACTTGTTA	GGGTAGCAAA	GTTTGGTAAT	TGCATAAAAT	TTAAACTTTT	ATATTCAGAG
2701	GCTCAATTCC	TCTTCCTAAT	ACTCCATGTC	CATTATCAAC	TTACTACTAA	CAATCATCCC
2761	AATTCCTTCTA	GCCGTTGCTT	TCCTGACATT	AGTAGAACGT	AAAGTATTGG	GTTATATGCA
2821	ACTTCGAAAG	GGCCCAAACA	TCGTAGGACC	TTGAGGGTTA	CTTCAACCAA	TTGCCGATGC
2881	AATAAACTA	TTTACCAAAG	AGCCCCTACG	ACCACTCACA	TCTTCAATTA	TAATATTTAT
2941	TATGGCACCC	GCTATAGCAC	TAACACTAGC	TCTAACAATA	TGAATACCCC	TACCAATACC
3001	ACATCCCCTA	ATCAATATCA	ACCTAGGAGT	ACTATTTATA	TTAGCCATGT	CAAGCCTAGC
3061	CGTGTATTCC	ATCCTATGAT	CCGGATGGGC	TTCTAACTCT	AAATATGCCT	TAATTGGAGC
3121	AATTCGAGCA	GTTGCCCAGA	CAATCTCCTA	TGAAGTAACC	CTAGCAATTA	TTCTATTATC
3181	TGTCCTATTA	ATAAATGGAT	CATTCACACT	CCCCACACTA	ATTATTACTC	AAGAAAAGTT
3241	ATGACTACTA	GTGCCAACAT	GACCACTAGC	CATAATGTGA	TTTATCTCAA	CCCTAGCCGA
3301	AACCAATCGA	GCCCCATTTCG	ATTTAACAGA	AGGAGAATCG	GAAC TTGTAT	CAGGTTTTTAA
3361	CGTAGAATAT	GCAGCAGGCC	CATTTGCATT	ATTCTTCCTA	GCGGAATATG	CCAATATCAT
3421	CATAATAAAC	TCCTTATCAA	CTATTATCTT	TTTAGGGGGCC	ACCCATAGCC	CCTATAGCCC
3481	TAACCTGTAC	ACAGCCAACC	TAGTCACAAA	GGTACTTATC	TTAACCATGA	CATTCCTATG
3541	AATCCGAGCA	TCCTATCCAC	GATTCCGCTA	CGATCAACTC	ATGCATCTAT	TATGAAAAAA
3601	TTTCCTACCA	CTCACGCTAG	CAATATGCAT	ATGACACATC	TCAGTGCCTA	TTGCAACATC
3661	AAGCATTCCC	CCTCAAACAT	AAGAAATATG	TCCGACAATA	GAGTTACTTT	GATAGAGTAA
3721	AACATAGAGG	TTTAAATCCC	CTTATTTCTA	GAAAAATAGG	CATTGAACCC	ATACCTGAGA
3781	ATTCAAAAAT	CTCTGTGCTA	CAAATAACAC	CATAATCTAA	AGTAAGGTCA	GCTAAAAAAG
3841	CTATCGGGCC	CATACCCCGA	AAATGTTGGA	TTACATCCTT	CCCATACTAA	TAAACCCCTT
3901	AGCATTAAAT	CTTATTATAT	CAACAGTATT	TTTCAGTACA	ACCCTCGTCC	TCATTAGCTC
3961	TAAC TGACTG	ACAATCTGAG	TTGGATTTCGA	AATAAATATA	CTAGCAATAA	TCCCTATTTT
4021	AATAAAAAAA	TTCAATCCAC	GAGCCACAGA	AGCAGCAACA	AAGTACTTCC	TAATTC AAGC
4081	AACCGCATCA	ATATTACTTA	TAGCAGCTAT	CACTATAAAT	TTTATTCATT	CTGGAGAATG
4141	AACTGTCACA	AAAATATGCA	ACACCATCCC	ATCTACCATT	ATTACTATAG	CCATAGCTAT
4201	AAAAC TAGGA	ATATCTCCTT	TCCACTTCTG	AATGCCAGAA	GTAACACAAG	GAATCCCATT
4261	ATCATCAGGC	ATGCTACTAT	TAACCTGACA	GAAAATCGCA	CCAATCTCAG	TCCTGTACCA
4321	AATCATACCC	ACAATTAACT	TAAACCTAAT	ACTAGCTATA	GCCCTACTCT	CAATCCTAAT
4381	TGGAGGGTGA	GGAGGCCTAA	ATCAAACCCA	ACTACGAAAA	ATCATAGCAT	ACTCTTCAAT
4441	CGCCCATCTA	GGCTGAATAA	TAGCAATTAT	ATTATATAAC	CCTAACATTG	CAATCCTAAA
4501	CTTACTAATC	TACATCTTAA	TAACATTATC	AACATTCATA	ATACTACATC	ACAATTC AAC
4561	TACCACAACC	CTATCTCTAT	CACACTTATC	AAACAAAATA	CCATTAATAA	CAATCATCCT
4621	TCTCCTAATC	CTAATGTCAA	TAGGAGGCCT	CCCCCATTA	TCAGGATTCA	TACCTAAATG
4681	AATAATCATC	CAAGA ACTCA	CTAAAAATGA	TATAATATTA	TTACCAACAT	TAATAGCTAT
4741	AATAGCACTA	CTAAACCTAT	ATTTTTTACCT	GCGTCTAACC	TATTCCACAA	CAC TAACAAT
4801	ATTCCCAACA	CCCAACAATA	TAAAAATAAC	ATGACAATTT	CAACATAATA	AACATATAAA

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4861	ATTAGTTTCC	CCTCTAATCA	TTCTATCTAC	AATAATCCTA	CCTCTAACTC	CAATCATATC
4921	AATCCTAATC	TAGAAATTTA	GGTTACAAC	AGACCAAGAG	CCTTCAAAGC	CCTAAGCAAG
4981	TATCAAAACT	TAATTTCTGA	ATAAGGACTG	TAAAAATTC	ATCTACATCT	CTTGACTGCA
5041	AATCAAGTAC	TTTTATTAAG	CTAAATCCCC	ACTAGATTGG	TGGGGTACTA	ACCCACAAAA
5101	CTTTAGTTAA	CAGCTAAAAA	CCCTAACCAA	CTGGCTTCAA	TCTACTTCTC	CCGCCATAAA
5161	AAAAAAGGTG	GCGGGAGAAG	TCCCGGCAGA	GTTGAAGCTG	CCTTCTTGAA	TTTGCAATTC
5221	AATATGTAAA	CACCTCAGGA	CCTGGTAAGA	AGAGGAGTCC	CACCTCTATC	ATTAGATTTA
5281	CAGTCTAATA	CTTATTCAGC	CACCTTACCT	ATGTTTCATTA	ATCGTTGATT	ATTTTCAACT
5341	AACCACAAAG	ATATCGGTAC	ATTATACCTT	ATCTTTGGCG	CTTGAGCTGG	GATAGTAGGA
5401	ACCGCTTTAA	GCCTCCTAAT	CCGAGCTGAA	TTAGGCCAAC	CCGGAACCTT	ATTAGGTGAT
5461	GACCAGATTT	ATAACGTAGT	TGTAAC TGCA	CACGCATTTCG	TAATAATTTT	CTTTATAGTT
5521	ATACCTATTA	TAATTGGAGG	TTTTGGAAAT	TGGCTAGTGC	CTTTGATAAT	TGGTGCTCCC
5581	GACATGGCAT	TTCCCCGTAT	AAATAATATA	AGTTTTTGAC	TTCTCCCACC	TTCATTTCTT
5641	CTTCTCCTAG	CATCTTCTAT	AGTAGAAGCT	GGGGCTGGAA	CTGGCTGAAC	TGTATATCCA
5701	CCCTTAGCTG	GTAAC TTAGC	ACATGCGGGA	GCCTCAGTAG	ACTTAACTAT	TTTTTCCCTT
5761	CATTTAGCGG	GTATCTCATC	AATTTTAGGA	GCTATTAACT	TTATCACAAC	TATCATCAAC
5821	ATAAAACCTC	CCGCTATAAG	TCAATATCAA	ACTCCACTAT	TTGTATGATC	AGTACTAGTC
5881	ACAGCTGTAT	TGCTCCTACT	ATCCCTTCCA	G TACTAGCTG	CTGGAATTAC	AATGCTTCTA
5941	ACTGACCGAA	ATTTAAATAC	AACCTTTTTT	GACCCTGCTG	GAGGAGGGGA	CCCTATTCTA
6001	TATCAACATC	TATTTTGATT	CTTTGGTCAT	CCTGAGGTGT	ACATTCTAAT	TCTTCCTGGT
6061	TTTGGTATAA	TCTCTCACAT	CGTAACTTAT	TATTCAGGAA	AAAAAGAACC	ATTTGGGTAC
6121	ATAGGTATAG	TCTGAGCAAT	AATATCAATC	GGTTTCCTAG	GCTTTATCGT	TTGAGCACAT
6181	CACATATTCA	CAGTAGGTAT	AGATGTTGAC	ACACGAGCCT	ACTTTACATC	AGCTACCATA
6241	ATTATTGCAA	TTCCAACAGG	CGTAAAGGTA	TTTAGCTGAC	TAGCTACCTT	ACATGGAGGC
6301	AGCGTAAAAT	GAGCTCCTGC	TCTACTATGA	GCATTAGGCT	TTATTTTCCT	ATTTACAGTG
6361	GGGGACTAA	CTGGAATTGT	TCTAGCAAAC	TCATCATTAG	ATATTGTTCT	CCACGATACT
6421	TATTATGTAG	TAGCCCATTT	TCACTATGTT	CTCTCTATAG	GCGCAGTCTT	CGCTATTATA
6481	GGGGATTTG	TACTACTGATT	CCCCTATTC	TCAGGATACA	CTCTCAACGA	CACATGAGCA
6541	AAAGTTCACT	TTACTATTAT	ATTCGTAGGA	G TAAATATGA	CCTTTTTTCC	CCAACACTTC
6601	CTTGGTCTTT	CGGGCATAAC	ACGACGATAC	TCCGATTATC	CAGATGCTTA	TACATTATGA
6661	AATACTGTAT	CCTCTATAGG	ATCCTTCATT	TCATTAACCG	CTGTAATACT	GATAGTCTTT
6721	ATAATTTGAG	AAGCATTTCG	CTCTAAACGA	GAAAT TCTCA	TAGTAGAACT	AACTGACACA
6781	AACCTCGAAT	GACTACATGG	CTGTCTCCA	CCCTACCACA	CATTCGAAGA	ACCTGCCTTT
6841	GTCAACCCAA	TAAAACAAGA	AAGGAAGGAG	TCGAACCTCC	AAAATATGGT	TTCAAGCCAA
6901	TATCATAACC	CCTATGTCTC	TCTCAATTAC	TGAAGTATTA	GTAAAAATTA	CACAAC TTTG
6961	TCAAGGTTGA	ATTATGGGTT	TAAATCCTTT	ATACTTCTAT	GGCACACCTT	TTCCAAC TAG
7021	GCTTCCAAGA	TGCCACCTCC	CCTATCATGG	AAGAACTACT	TCACTTCCAT	GACCATACAT
7081	TAATAATTGT	ATTCTTAATT	AGCTCCCTAG	TCTTATATAT	CATTTCCCTA	ATACTA ACTA
7141	CAAAACTAAC	CCATACAAAT	ACAATAGACG	CTCAGGAAGT	AGAAACAATC	TGAACAGTTC
7201	TGCCTGCAAT	CATTTTAATT	CTTATTGCC	TTCCCTCATT	ACGCATCCTA	TATATGATAG
7261	ATGAAATTAA	CAACCCCTCA	CTAACTGTAA	AAACCATAGG	CCATCAATGA	TATTGAAGCT
7321	ACGAATATAC	AGACTATGAA	GACCTGACAT	TTGACTCATA	TATAATTCCT	ACACAAGATC
7381	TTAAACCAGG	TGAAC TCGA	CTCTTAGAAG	TAGACAATCG	ACTTGTATTA	CCTATAGAAA
7441	TAACCATCCG	TATACTTATC	TCATCAGAAG	ATGTATTACA	CTCTTGAGCA	GTCCCTCAT
7501	TAGGTCTAAA	AACAGATGCT	ATTCCC GGAC	GTCTAAATCA	AACAAC TCTG	ATATCCCATC
7561	GACCTGGCCT	ATTCTTTGGG	CAGTGCTCAG	AAATCTGTGG	ATCAAACCAT	AGCTTTATGC
7621	CCATCGTCAT	TGAAATAGTT	CCACTAAAAA	CGTTTGAAAA	TTGGTCCTTA	TCTATACTGT
7681	AAACCATTAA	GAAGCTAGTA	GCACTAACCT	TTTAAAGTTAG	AGATAGAGAA	ATAGGAATTT
7741	CTCCTTAATG	ACTATGCCAC	AACTAGACAC	ATCAACATGA	TTTATTATAA	TTACTTCAAT
7801	ATTCCTTACC	CTATTTATTC	TACTACAAC	AAAAATCTCT	AAATATAACT	ATCCACACAA
7861	CGCAGAAATT	GCAACCAAAC	TAGATTATAA	AATCTCTACC	CCTTGAATAA	AAAAATGAAC
7921	GAAAATCTAT	TTGCCTCTTT	CCTTACCCCA	ATAATAATGG	GCATTCCCAT	TGTTACAATT
7981	ATTATTATAT	TCCAATTAT	TATATTCCCA	TCACCAAAC	GACTAATTAA	CAATCGCATC
8041	GAATCTATAC	AACAATGACT	TTTACAGCAA	ACAAC TAAGC	AAATAATATC	CATTCACAGC
8101	TATAAAGGAC	AAACCTGAAC	CCTAATATTA	ATATCCCTAA	TTATTTTTTAT	TGCCTCCACT
8161	AACCTACTAG	GCTTACTACC	CTACTCATTC	ACTGCCACAA	CTCAACTATC	AATAAATCTG

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8221	GGCATGGCCG	TTCCTTTATG	AGCAGCAACC	GTAATCACAG	GGTTCCGACA	TAAGACAAAA
8281	ATATCCCTAG	CCCATCTTCT	ACCCCAAGGT	ACGCCAACCC	CTCTTATCCC	TGTATTAGTA
8341	ATTATCGAAA	CAATCAGTCT	GCTTATTCAA	CCCATAGCCC	TAGCAGTACG	ACTAACCGCT
8401	AATATCACCG	CTGGCCACCT	ACTAATACAC	TTAATCGGAA	GCGCAACTTT	AGCTTTAATA
8461	TCTATTAGCC	TCACCGTAGC	AACTCCAACC	TTTATCATCC	TAGTCCCTACT	TACAATTCTC
8521	GAGTTCGCGG	TCGCATTAAT	TCAAGCATAc	GTATTTACTC	TGCTTATCAG	CCTTTACTTA
8581	CATGATAATA	CATAATGAAC	CACCAAACCC	ACTCCTACCA	TATAGTAAAT	CCCAGTCCTT
8641	GACCCCTGAC	AGGAGCTCTA	TCTGCCCTCT	TGATAAACCTC	TGGCCTTGCA	ATATGATTTT
8701	ACTTCAACTC	CATGATTTTA	TTATCCCTAG	GCCTGATTAC	AAACTTCTTA	ACTATGTATC
8761	AATGATGACG	TGATATCGTG	CGAGAAAGCA	CATTCCAAGG	TCACCATAcA	ATGACGGTCC
8821	AAAAAGGACT	ACGATACGGC	ATAATCCTTT	TCATTATCTC	TGAAATCTTC	TTTTTCATCG
8881	GATTTTTCTG	AGCATTTTAT	CACTCGAGCC	TAGTCCCAC	TCTCGAACTA	GGTGGGTGCT
8941	GACCACCTAC	AGGAATTAAC	CCCTTAAACC	CCATAGAAGT	ACCTCTACTC	AATACATCCG
9001	TATTACTAGC	CTCTGGTGTA	TCGATCACCT	GAGCACATCA	TAGCTTGATA	GAAGGTAATC
9061	GAAATCACAT	GATCCAGGCC	CTACTCATTA	CAATTTCCCT	AGGACTGTAC	TTTACACTAT
9121	TACAAATTTT	TGAATATTAC	GAAGCACCTT	TCACAATCTC	CGATGGCGTA	TATGGCTCAA
9181	CCTTTTTTAT	AGCAACAGGA	TTTCACGGCC	TGCATGTAAT	TATCGGGTCT	TCCTTTCTAT
9241	TAGTATGCTT	TATACGACAA	CTAAAATTTT	ACTTTACATC	TAAACACCAT	TTTGGATTTG
9301	AAGCTGCTGC	CTGATATTGA	CACTTCGTAG	ATGTAGTATG	ACTATTCCCTA	TATGTCTCTA
9361	TTTACTGATG	AGGTTCTTAT	TTTCTGAGTA	TACACAGTAC	AGTTAACTTC	CAATTAAGG
9421	GATCTGGTAA	AAATCCAGAA	GAAAATAATA	AACCTCGTAA	TAATAATAAT	AATTAATGTA
9481	CTACTAGCAT	CCCTGCTTAT	ACTGATCGCC	TTCTGACTTC	CCCAATTATA	TATTTATTCA
9541	GAAAAAGTCA	CTCCCTATGA	GTGCGGATTT	GATCCAATAG	GATCTGCACG	ATTACCATTTC
9601	TCTATAAAAT	TCTTCTTAAT	TGCTATTACA	TTCTTCTTAT	TTGACTTAGA	AATTGTACTG
9661	CTTCTTCCAC	TTCCATGAGC	GTCACAAACA	AATCAACTTA	ACATTATGCT	TATCACAGCC
9721	TTACTATTAC	TCCTATTATT	AGCCATCAGC	CTGGCCTATG	AATGAACACA	AAAAGGCCTA
9781	GAATGAGCTG	AATATGATAG	CTAGTTTATG	TAAAACAAAT	GATTTGACT	CATTAGATTA
9841	TGATTTCCCC	ATAGCTATTA	AATGCCTTCA	ATTCACATTA	ATATTATACT	AGCATTGTGC
9901	ATCTCTCTGG	CCGGAATATT	AATATACCGA	TCGCACCTCA	TATCCTCACT	TCTATGCCTA
9961	GAAGGAATAA	TACTATCTCT	TTTTACTATA	ATTGCTATCA	CAAGCCTAAA	CATCAACTTT
10021	ACACTAGCTA	GCATAGCCCC	CATTATCCTA	CCTGTATTTG	CAGCATGTGA	AGCCGCCCTA
10081	GGCCTCTCCC	TACTAGTACT	AGTATCGAAC	TCATATGGTA	CAGACTACGT	GCAAACTTA
10141	AATCTTCTTC	GATGCTAAAA	CTTATTATAC	CTATACTTAT	AATAATTCCC	CTGACTTGAA
10201	TATCAAATAA	AAATATAATC	TGAATTAACA	TTACATCCCA	TAGTATATTA	ACTAGTCTCA
10261	TCTCCCTATT	CGTTCTAAGC	CAGCACGATA	ACACCAACAT	AAACCTCTCA	CTAACCTTTT
10321	TTCTAGACCC	CCTATCAGCA	CCCTTACTTG	TACTAACGAC	ATGACTACTC	CCTCTGATAC
10381	TAATAGCAAG	CCAATCTCAT	TTATCAAATG	AAACCCCTAA	CCGAAAGAAA	CTTTTTATTA
10441	GTATACTAAT	TATTCTTCAA	ACACTATTAA	TTATAACATT	CTCTTCTCC	GAAATTATGA
10501	TATTTTACAT	TCTATTTGAA	GCAACACTTA	TACCAACCCT	CATTATCATT	ACACGATGAG
10561	GAAACCAAAT	CGAACGCCTA	AATGCAGGGT	CCTATTTTCT	CTTCTACACA	ATAGCAGGTT
10621	CCCTACCTCT	CTTAGTAACC	CTTATTTATA	CTCAAAATAT	AATAGGAACT	CTTAACCTAA
10681	TGCTACTGCA	ATACTGAGCC	AAACCCATAG	CCAACCTTGG	GACCAGTACA	CTAATATGAT
10741	TAGCATGTAT	AATAGCATTc	ATAGTAAAAA	TACCACTATA	CGGCCTACAC	CTATGACTAC
10801	CCAAAGCCCA	CGTAGAAGCC	CCGATCGCTG	GATCCATAGT	ACTAGCAGCA	GTACTACTCA
10861	AAATAGGCGG	ATACGGAATG	TTACGTATTA	CTCCCTACT	AGAACCTACA	ACAACCTTTA
10921	TAGCTTATCC	ATTCTTAATC	CTCTCCCTAT	GAGGCATGAT	CATAACAAGC	TCAACCTGTC
10981	TACGTCAAAC	AGACCTAAAA	TCACTAATCG	CATATTCCCT	TGTCAGCCAT	ATAGCACTTG
11041	TAATCGCAGC	AATCATAATC	CAGACACCAT	GAAGTTATAT	AGGAGCTACA	GCTCTCATAA
11101	TCGCCACCGG	TTTAACATCA	TCTATATTAT	TTTGCTTAGC	TAATACAAAT	TATGAACGAA
11161	TTCATAGCCG	AACTATAATT	CTAGCACGGG	GCCTACAAAC	CCTCCTCCCA	CTAATAGCCA
11221	CCTGATGACT	TCTAGCAAGC	CTAACAAACC	TAGCCCTACC	CCCCAGCATT	AATCTAATTG
11281	GAGAACTATT	TGTGGTAATA	TCAGCCTTTT	CATGATCCAA	CTATACTATT	ACTCTAACTG
11341	GGATAAACAT	TATTATTACA	GCTGCATATT	CCTTACATAT	ACTGACATCC	ACTCAACGGA
11401	GCAAACACAC	ACAATATATT	AACAACATTA	AACCTTCTTT	TACACGAGAA	AATGCTCTAA
11461	TAGCCCTCCA	TCTACTGCCT	ATTCTATTAC	TATCAATTA	TCCTAAAATT	ATCTTAGGAC
11521	TCACCTACTG	TAAATATAGT	TTAATAAAAA	CATCAGAATG	TGAACCTGAC	AATGGGAAAT

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11581	TCTAACCCCC	TATTTACCAA	AAAAGCACGC	AAGAACTGCT	AACTCATGCT	TCCATGTGTA
11641	AATACATGGC	TTTTTTACTT	TTAAAGGATA	GCAGTATCCA	TTGGTCTTAG	GAACCAAAGA
11701	ATTGGTGCAA	CTCCAAATAA	AAGTAATTAA	CACCCTAATA	TGACTCTCAC	TCACAATACT
11761	AATAATACTA	TCCTTACCCA	CTCTAATTAA	TCCCACGCAC	ACCCTCATAA	ACAAAAGCTA
11821	CCCAGTCTAT	GTAAAGAACA	CAGTTGCAAT	TTCCTTTATC	ATCAGCATT	TCCCCATAAT
11881	AATATTTATT	TACTTAAGTG	AAGAAATAGT	CATTTATAAC	TGGCACTGAA	TATCAATCCA
11941	AACTATAAAA	ATGACAATAA	GTTTTAAATT	AGACTACTTC	TCTGTAACAT	TTATATCCGT
12001	AGCCCTCCTT	GTTACATGGT	CTATTATAGA	ATTCTCCCTA	TGATATATAA	ATTGAGACCC
12061	TAATATTGAC	AAATTCTTTA	AGTACCTACT	AACATTTCTA	ATCACTATAA	TGATCCTAGT
12121	CTCCGCTAAC	AATTTATTTT	AACTCTTTAT	CGGCTGAGAA	GGAGTAGGCA	TTATATCCTT
12181	CCTACTAATT	GGTTGATGAT	ACGGTCGAAC	AGACGCAAAC	ACAGCTGCCA	TACAAGCAAT
12241	CCTATAACAAC	CGTATTGGCG	ACATTGGATT	TCTCCTAGCT	ATAGCATGAT	TCTTCACAAA
12301	ATCAAACCTCA	TGGGACCTCC	AACAAATTTT	TATTATTAAC	TATGAAAACA	CAAACATTCC
12361	CTTAGCCGGC	CTACTACTAG	CCGCAACAGG	AAAATCCGCT	CAATTCCGGAC	TACATCCCTG
12421	ATTACCTTCA	GCAATAGAAG	GTCCCACCCC	AGTATCAGCA	TTACTTCACT	CCAGTACAAT
12481	AGTAGTAGCA	GGAGTATTCC	TCCTGATCCG	ATTCTACCCT	TTAATAGAAA	ACAACAAAAC
12541	AATACAAACA	ATAACCCTAT	GCTCAGGAGC	CATTACAACC	CTATTTACAG	CTATCTGCGC
12601	TTAACCCTAA	AATGATATTA	AAAAAATCGT	AGCATTTTCA	ACCTCAAGCC	AACTAGGATT
12661	AATAATAGTT	ACTATCGGTA	TTAACCAACC	ACACTTAGCC	TTTATTCATA	TCTGTACTCA
12721	CGCCTTCTTC	AAAGCCATAT	TATTTATGTG	CTCAGGGTCA	ATTATCCACA	ACCTAGAAAA
12781	CGAACAAAGAT	ATCCGCAAAA	TAGGCGGCTT	ATTCCACGCC	CTGCCCTCA	CAACCTCCGC
12841	CCTTATCATC	GGAAGCCTGG	CCCTAACAGG	CATGCCTTTC	CTTACAGGAT	TTTACTCCAA
12901	AGACCTCATT	ATCGAATCTA	TCAACATGTC	TTATACAAAC	GCCTGAGCCC	TCTCCATCAC
12961	TCTACTAGCT	ACTTCCCTAA	CAGCTGCATA	CAGTACCCGC	ATAGTATTTT	TCGTATTAAC
13021	AGGCCAACCC	CGATTTACTG	CCCTAAATGC	TATTAATGAA	AATAATCCAG	CACATACTAA
13081	TTCACTTAAA	CGTCTAATAC	TAGGAAGCAT	CTTCGCCGGA	TTCTTGTTAC	TTAACTATAT
13141	TCCCCAACA	ACCACCCCCC	TAATAACCAT	ACCATACTAC	CTAAAACCTCA	CCACTCTATT
13201	AGTCACAGTA	CTAGGATTTA	TTGTAGCATT	AGAACTATGT	AACCTATCTA	CAAATCTTCA
13261	ACATAATGAA	CCCTCAAACA	CATTTAAATT	TTCAAACCTCA	TTAGGCTACT	TCCCAACAAT
13321	CATCCATCGA	ACCGCCCCCA	TATCTACATT	AGTAATAAGC	CAAAAACCTAG	CATCCCTAAT
13381	AATAGACTTA	ACCTGACTAG	AAAAAATCTT	ACCAAAAAGCC	ACTTCACACT	TCCACTTACA
13441	GGCATCTTCC	TTAACATCAA	ATCACAAAAG	CCTAATTAAA	CTATACTTCC	TATCATTCAT
13501	AATGACAATT	ACTCTAGCCC	TGCTAACATC	TAATTACCTC	GAGTAATTTT	CATAACAATA
13561	ATTACACACA	TTAACAAAGA	TCATCCAGTA	ACAACAATAA	ACCAAACTCC	ATAGCTGTAC
13621	AAAGCAGAAA	CCCCATAAAT	ATCTCCACTT	AAAATTCCAA	GTCCCCCAGT	ATCATAAACC
13681	ATTCAATCAC	CTTTACTACT	AAAATCTAAC	ACTACTCCCA	TTTCTTCGCC	CTTAATTATA
13741	AAATAAACCA	ACACTAACTC	TATTGCCGAC	CCAATAACAA	ATATGCCTAA	TACAACCTACA
13801	TTAGAAACCC	AAGCCTCAGG	ATATTCCCTCA	ATGGCTATAG	CAGATGTATA	TCCAAAAACA
13861	ACCAACATAC	CCCCAAGATA	GATTAAAAAA	ACTATTTAAAC	CTAAAAAAGA	CCCACCAGAA
13921	CACACCACAA	TTCCACATCC	CACACCTCCC	GCCACAATCA	AACTAAATCC	CCCATAAATA
13981	GGAGAAGGCT	TAGAAGAAAC	CCCTAAGAAA	CTAATTACAA	AAACAACACT	CAAGACAAAC
14041	ACAACATATA	TTGCCATTAT	TCTTACATGG	ACTCTAACCA	TGGCCTATGA	CATGAAAAAT
14101	CATCGTTGTA	ACTAAACTAC	AAGAACTTAA	TGACAAATAT	ACGAAAATCT	CACCCCCTAT
14161	TTAAAATCAT	CAGTAATTCT	TTTATTGACC	TCCCAACCCC	CTCCAACATC	TCAGCATGAT
14221	GAAACTTTGG	CTCTCTATTA	GGAATATGCT	TAATCCTACA	AATTATAACA	GGACTATTCT
14281	TAGCAATACA	CTACACAGCA	GACACTACAA	CCGCATTTCT	ATCAATTACT	CATATCTGTC
14341	GAGATGTGAA	CTATGGCTGA	ATTATCCGTT	ACATACATGC	CAATGGCGCA	TCAATATTCT
14401	TCATCTGCTT	ATTTATCCAT	ATTGGACGAG	GCTTATATTA	CGGATCCTTC	ACCTACAAAG
14461	AAACATGAAA	CATCGGAATT	ATCCTCTTAT	TTACAGTTAT	AGCAACAGCC	TTCGTAGGGT
14521	ATGTCCTACC	ATGAGGACAA	ATATCATTTCT	GAGGGGCTAC	AGTAATTACT	AACCTCTTAT
14581	CAGCAATCCC	CTATATCGGT	CCAGACCTGG	TAGAATGAAT	CTGAGGGGGC	TTCTCAGTTG
14641	ACAAAGCAAC	TCTAACTCGA	TTCTTCCGAT	TTCACTTCAT	CTTCCCCTTT	ATTATTACAG
14701	GCCTAGCAAT	AGTCCACCTA	CTATTCCCTC	ACGAAACAGG	ATCCAACAAT	CCAATAGGCC
14761	TTATCTCCAA	TTCAGACAAA	ATCCCATTTT	ACCCGTACTA	CACGATCAAA	GACATCCTAG
14821	GTCTATTTCAT	TATATCTATA	GCCCTAATAA	CTCTAGTACT	ATTTTTCCCC	GACCTTCTAG
14881	GAGACCCAGA	CAATTACACA	CCAGCTAACC	CCCTAAGCAC	ACCTCCCCAT	ATTAAGCCAG

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14941 AATGATATTT TCTATTTGCA TACGCAATCC TACGATCAAT TCCCAACAAA CTAGGAGGTG
15001 TACTAGCCTT AGCCATATCC ATCCTAATCT TAGCCATTAT CCCCTCATTA CAAATATCAA
15061 AACCAACGCAC TATGATATTC CGACCCCTAA GCCAAATCAT ATTCTGACTC CTAGTAGCAA
15121 ACCTCCTCGT ACTTACCTGA ATTGGAGGAC AACCCGTGGA ACACCCATTC ATCCTAATCG
15181 GCCAAGTAGC CTCAATCTCA TACTTTACCC TCATCCTAGT AATATTACCA ATTGCAAGCA
15241 CTATTGAAAA TAAACTTATA AAATGAAGAG TCTCTGTAGT ATATCTAATA CACTGGCCTT
15301 GTAAACCCAAA AAAGGAGATT CTAACCCTCC CCGAGACTCA GGAAGGAGAC TAAAGCCCCT
15361 CCATCAACAC CCAAAGCTGA CATTCTCTAT AAACACTTTC CTGAAAAATT TTATACAACA
15421 TAAAACCCCA CCAACGGGCA AATACGCTAT GTATAATCGT GCATTAATGG CTGGCCCCAT
15481 GAATATAAGC AAGTACTAAT AAATCATTAT AGTACATAGG ACATATTATG TATAATCGTG
15541 CATTAAATGAT ATGCCCCATG CATATAAGCA GGTACTATCA ATTATTACAG TACATAGGAC
15601 ATATTATGTA TAATCGTGCA TTACTGATAT ACCCCATGCA TATAAGCAAG TACTATTAAC
15661 CATTAAAGTA CATAGGACAT ATATATTATT AATCGTGCAT ACCACATCCA AGTCAAATCA
15721 TTTCCAGTCA ACATGCGTAT CACCACCTCT GAAGGCCGCT TAATCACCAT GCCGCGTGAA
15781 ATCATCAACC CGCCCACAAC GTGTCCCTCT TCTCGCTCCG GGCCCATATA GACTGTGGGG
15841 TAGTTATAGG AGAACTATAC CTGGCATCTG GTTCTTACTT CATGTTTATT CGTCTATAGT
15901 CGCTCACTCG TTCCTCTTAA ATAAGACATC TCGATGGATT AGTTACTAAT CAGCCCATGC
15961 CGATGCATAA CTGTGGTGTC ATGCCCTTGG TATTTTTTAA TTTTAGGGTG CGGGGGTTCC
16021 ACTAGGCGGA GCCTCAGAGC GGAGGACATT GAATGTGGTC AAGACATATA TTTAACTATT
16081 ATTGGTCGTA CATATACTAC TTTCAGGTGT TATTCAGTCA ATGGTTACGG GACATATAAA
16141 ATTTTACTAC AACATTTCAA GTCAACAATT TTTCCATCAT ACATATAAAT TTATTTTTAC
16201 GTAGCTTAGT ATTCAAACCC CCCCTTACCC CCCCAATCTT ACATGTACTA AACATCTTGT
16261 CAAACCCCAA AAGCAAGAAT ACATACACTG TAAGTGCTAC AAAAAACATA AAGTATTACG
16321 TAAGCATTCA CGTAAGCATT TGGCTCAAAC CTTGTTACAC AGTTTTCTGC CTGCTCTAAA
16381 AACACTTTAT TGTTTGGACA TATATGATCT GGAAATCTTA TAGTAATTAT AGTATTAGAA
16441 TATTTTATTA ATGTAACATA GAGAATATAA TTTTAAACC TACGCAAAAT ATTTACGCAT
16501 TTATTTATTC TTATAGGCGT GCATAATGCA AACTATCTGC TCCCTACATG CAAATTTAAA

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APPENDIX B

**HAPLOTYPE MITOCHONDRIAL DNA SEQUENCES FOR
CYTOCHROME C OXIDASE I (CO1) OF TEMMINCK'S GROUND
PANGOLIN (*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*)**

	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
Haplotype_01	ATGTT C ATTA	ATCGTTGATT	ATTTT C AACT	AACCACAAAG	ATATCGGTAC	ATTATACCTT	ATCTTTGGCG	CTTGAGCTGG	GATAGTAGGA
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06 C
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09 G
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12 T
Haplotype_13 C
Haplotype_14 C
Haplotype_15 C
Haplotype_16 C
Haplotype_17 C
Haplotype_18 C
	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180
Haplotype_01	ACCGCTTTAA	GCCTCCTAAT	CCGAGCTGAA	TTAGGCCAAC	CCGGAACCTT	ATTAGGTGAT	GACCAGATTT	ATAACGTAGT	TGTAAC T GCA
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06 A C
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13 T A
Haplotype_14 A
Haplotype_15 T A
Haplotype_16 A G
Haplotype_17 A C
Haplotype_18

	370	380	390	400	410	420	430	440	450
Haplotype_01	GGGGCTGGAA	CTGGCTGAAC	TGTATATCCA	CCCTTAGCTG	GTAACCTAGC	ACATGCGGGA	GCCTCAGTAG	ACTTAACTAT	TTTTTCCTT
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06	G
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09	G
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12	G
Haplotype_13	C	G
Haplotype_14	G
Haplotype_15	C	G
Haplotype_16	G
Haplotype_17	G
Haplotype_18

	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530	540
Haplotype_01	CATTTAGCGG	GTATTTTCATC	AATTTTAGGA	GCTATTAAC	TTATCACAAC	TATCATCAAC	ATAAAACCTC	CCGCTATAAG	TCAATATCAA
Haplotype_02	C
Haplotype_03	C
Haplotype_04	C
Haplotype_05	C
Haplotype_06	C	T	G
Haplotype_07	C
Haplotype_08	C
Haplotype_09	C
Haplotype_10	C
Haplotype_11	C
Haplotype_12	C
Haplotype_13	G	C
Haplotype_14	C	T	G
Haplotype_15	G	C	T
Haplotype_16	C	T	G
Haplotype_17	C
Haplotype_18	C	T

	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630
Haplotype_01	ACTCCACTAT	TTGTATGATC	AGTACTAGTC	ACAGCTGTAT	TGCTCCTACT	ATCCCTTCCA	GTACTAGCTG	CTGGAATTAC	AATGCTTCTA
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04	G.....
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06	G.....
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10	G.....
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13	G.....
Haplotype_14	G.....
Haplotype_15	G.....
Haplotype_16	G.....
Haplotype_17	G.....
Haplotype_18	G.....
	640	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720
Haplotype_01	ACTGACCGAA	ATTTAAATAC	AACCTTTTTT	GACCCTGCTG	GAGGGGGGGA	CCCTATTCTA	TATCAACATC	TATTTTGATT	CTTTGGTCAT
Haplotype_02	A.....
Haplotype_03	A.....
Haplotype_04	A.....
Haplotype_05	A.....
Haplotype_06	A.....
Haplotype_07	A.....
Haplotype_08	A.....
Haplotype_09	A.....
Haplotype_10	A.....
Haplotype_11	A.....
Haplotype_12	A.....
Haplotype_13	A.....
Haplotype_14	A.....
Haplotype_15	A.....
Haplotype_16	A.....
Haplotype_17	A.....
Haplotype_18	A.....

	730	740	750	760	770	780	790	800	810
Haplotype_01	CCTGAGGTGT	ACATTCTAAT	TCTTCCTGGT	TTTGGTATAA	TCTCTCACAT	CGTAACCTAT	TATTCAGGAA	AAAAAGAACC	ATTTGGGTAC
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06A.....
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10T.....
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13T.....
Haplotype_14A.....
Haplotype_15
Haplotype_16A.....
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18T.....
	820	830	840	850	860	870	880	890	900
Haplotype_01	ATAGGTATAG	TCTGAGCAAT	AATATCAATC	GGTTTCCTAG	GCTTTATCGT	TTGAGCACAT	CACATATTCA	CAGTAGGTAT	AGATGTTGAC
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08G.....
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13
Haplotype_14
Haplotype_15
Haplotype_16
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18C.A.....

	910	920	930	940	950	960	970	980	990

Haplotype_01	ACACGAGCCT	ACTTTACATC	AGCTACCATA	ATTATTGCAA	TTCCAACAGG	CGTAAAGGTA	TTTAGCTGAC	TAGCTACCTT	ACATGGAGGC
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13
Haplotype_14
Haplotype_15
Haplotype_16
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18

	1000	1010	1020	1030	1040	1050	1060	1070	1080

Haplotype_01	AGCGTAAAAT	GAGCTCCTGC	TCTACTATGA	GCATTAGGCT	TTATTTTCCT	ATTTACAGTG	GGGGGACTAA	CTGGAATTGT	TCTAGCAAAC
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06	T	A
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11	T
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13	T
Haplotype_14	T
Haplotype_15	T
Haplotype_16	T
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18

	1090	1100	1110	1120	1130	1140	1150	1160	1170
Haplotype_01	TCATCATTAG	ATATTGTTCT	CCACGATACT	TATTATGTAG	TAGCCCATTT	TCACTATGTT	CTCTCTATAG	GCGCAGTCTT	CGCTATTATA
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06C.....
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11C.....
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13C.....
Haplotype_14C.....
Haplotype_15C.....
Haplotype_16C.....
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18

	1180	1190	1200	1210	1220	1230	1240	1250	1260
Haplotype_01	GGGGGATTTG	TACTACTGATT	CCCACATATTC	TCAGGATACA	CTCTCAACGA	CACATGAGCA	AAAGTTCACT	TTACTATTAT	ATTCGTAGGA
Haplotype_02T.....
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06	..A.....T.....
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09C.....
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11T.....
Haplotype_12C.....
Haplotype_13T.....
Haplotype_14	..A.....T.....
Haplotype_15T.....
Haplotype_16	..A.....T.....
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18

	1270	1280	1290	1300	1310	1320	1330	1340	1350
Haplotype_01	GTAAATATGA	CCTTTTTTCC	CCAACACTTC	CTTGGTCTTT	CGGGCATAAC	ACGACGATAC	TCCGATTATC	CAGATGCTTA	TACATTATGA
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06	C
Haplotype_07	C
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09	C	A
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12	C
Haplotype_13	C
Haplotype_14	C
Haplotype_15	C
Haplotype_16	C
Haplotype_17	C
Haplotype_18
	1360	1370	1380	1390	1400	1410	1420	1430	1440
Haplotype_01	AATACTGTAT	CCTCTATAGG	ATCCTTCATT	TCATTAACCG	CTGTAATACT	GATAGTCTTT	ATAATTTGAG	AAGCATTTGC	CTCTAAACGA
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13
Haplotype_14
Haplotype_15
Haplotype_16
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18

	1450	1460	1470	1480	1490	1500	1510	1520	1530
Haplotype_01	GAAATTCTCA	TAGTAGAACT	AACTGACACA	AACCTCGAAT	GACTACATGG	CTGTCCTCCA	CCCTATCACA	CATTCGAAGA	ACCTGCCTTT
Haplotype_02C.....
Haplotype_03C.....
Haplotype_04C.....
Haplotype_05C.....
Haplotype_06G.....C.....
Haplotype_07C.....
Haplotype_08C.....
Haplotype_09C.....
Haplotype_10C.....
Haplotype_11C.....
Haplotype_12C.....
Haplotype_13G.....C.....
Haplotype_14G.....C.....
Haplotype_15G.....C.....
Haplotype_16G.....C.....
Haplotype_17C.....
Haplotype_18C.....

	1540	1550
Haplotype_01	GTCAACCCAA	TAAAACAAGA AAGG
Haplotype_02
Haplotype_03
Haplotype_04
Haplotype_05
Haplotype_06
Haplotype_07
Haplotype_08
Haplotype_09
Haplotype_10
Haplotype_11
Haplotype_12
Haplotype_13
Haplotype_14
Haplotype_15
Haplotype_16
Haplotype_17
Haplotype_18

APPENDIX C

**HAPLOTYPE MITOCHONDRIAL DNA SEQUENCES FOR
CYTOCHROME *B* (CYTB) OF TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN
(*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*)**

	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90

Haplotype 01	ATGACAAATA	TACGAAAATC	TCACCCCCTA	TTTAAAATCA	TCAGTAATTC	TTTTATTGAC	CTCCCAACCC	CCTCCAACAT	CTCAGCATGA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06 C
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09 A
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180

Haplotype 01	TGAAACTTTG	GCTCTCTATT	AGGAATATGC	TTAATCCTAC	AAATTATAAC	AGGACTATTC	TTAGCAATAC	ACTACACAGC	AGACACTACA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08	.. G
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10	.. G
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12	.. G

	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270

Haplotype 01	ACCGCATTCT	CATCAATTAC	TCATATCTGT	CGAGATGTGA	ACTATGGCTG	AATTATCCGT	TACATACATG	CCAATGGCGC	ATCAATATTC
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07	C.....
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	280	290	300	310	320	330	340	350	360

Haplotype 01	TTCATCTGCT	TATTTATCCA	TATTGGACGA	GGCTTATATT	ACGGATCCTT	CACCTACAAA	GAAACATGAA	ACATCGGAAT	TATCCTCTTA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	370	380	390	400	410	420	430	440	450
Haplotype 01	TTTACAGTTA	TAGCAACAGC	CTTCGTAGGG	TATGTCCTAC	CATGAGGACA	AATATCATT	TGAGGGGCTA	CAGTAATCAC	TAACCTCTTA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03T.....
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530	540
Haplotype 01	TCAGCAATCC	CCTATATCGG	TCCAGACCTG	GTAGAATGAA	TCTGAGGGGG	CTTCTCAGTT	GACAAAGCAA	CTCTAACTCG	ATTCTTCGCA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04A.....
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630
Haplotype 01	TTTCACTTCA	TCTTCCCCTT	TATTATTACA	GGCCTAGCAA	TAGTCCACCT	ACTATTCCTT	CACGAAACAG	GATCCAACAA	TCCAATAGGC
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05	..C.....T..
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07	..C.....
Haplotype 08T..
Haplotype 09	..C.....
Haplotype 10	..C.....T..
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12	..C.....T..

	640	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720
Haplotype 01	CTTATCTCCA	ATTCAGACAA	AATCCCATTT	CACCCGTACT	ACACGATCAA	AGACATCCTA	GGTCTATTCA	TTATATCTAT	AGCCCTAATA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	730	740	750	760	770	780	790	800	810
Haplotype 01	ACTCTAGTAC	TATTTTTCCC	CGACCTTCTA	GGAGACCCAG	ACAATTACAC	ACCAGCTAAC	CCCCTAAGCA	CACCTCCCCA	TATTAAGCCA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04T....
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11T....
Haplotype 12

	820	830	840	850	860	870	880	890	900
Haplotype 01	GAATGATATT	TTCTATTTGC	ATACGCAATC	CTACGATCAA	TTCCAACAA	ACTAGGAGGT	GTACTAGCCT	TAGCCATATC	CATCCTAATC
Haplotype 02A....
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07	...G....
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09	...G....
Haplotype 10	...G....
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	910	920	930	940	950	960	970	980	990
Haplotype 01	TTAGCCATTA	TCCCCTCATT	ACAAATATCA	AAACAACGCA	CTATGATATT	CCGACCCCTA	AGCCAAATCA	TATTCTGACT	CCTAGTAGCA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05A..
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07A....
Haplotype 08A..
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10A..
Haplotype 11	A.....
Haplotype 12A..

	1000	1010	1020	1030	1040	1050	1060	1070	1080
Haplotype 01	AACCTCCTCG	TACTTACCTG	AATTGGAGGA	CAACCCGTGG	AACACCCATT	CATCCTAATC	GGCCAAGTAG	CCTCAATCTC	ATACTTTACC
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07A..
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09A..
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12

	1090	1100	1110	1120	1130	
	
Haplotype 01	CTCATCCTAG	TAATATTACC	AATTGCAAGC	ACTATTGAAA	ATAAACTTAT	AAAAT
Haplotype 02	
Haplotype 03	
Haplotype 04	
Haplotype 05	
Haplotype 06	
Haplotype 07	
Haplotype 08	
Haplotype 09	
Haplotype 10	
Haplotype 11	
Haplotype 12	

APPENDIX D

**HAPLOTYPE MITOCHONDRIAL DNA SEQUENCES FOR CONTROL
REGION (D-LOOP) OF TEMMINCK'S GROUND PANGOLIN
(*SMUTSIA TEMMINCKII*)**

	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90

Haplotype 01	CTACTTCCTG	AAAAATTTTA	TACAACATAA	AACCCACCA	ACGGGCAAAT	ACGCTATGTA	TAATCGTGCA	TTAATGGCTG	GCCCCATGAA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13
Haplotype 14
Haplotype 15G.....
Haplotype 16

	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180

Haplotype 01	TATAAGCAAG	TACTAATAAA	TCATTATAGT	ACATAGGACA	TATTATGTAT	AATCGTGCAT	TAATGATATG	CCCCATGCAT	ATAAGCAGGT
Haplotype 02	C.....
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04	C.....
Haplotype 05	C.....C.....A.....
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07	C.....A.....
Haplotype 08	C.....A.....
Haplotype 09	C.....
Haplotype 10	C.....
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12	C.....
Haplotype 13G.....
Haplotype 14G.....
Haplotype 15C.....A.....
Haplotype 16

	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270
Haplotype 01	ACTATTAATT	ATTACAGTAC	ATAAGACATA	TTATGTATAA	TCGTGCATTA	CTGATATAACC	CCATGCATAT	AAGCAAGTAC	TATTAACCAT
Haplotype 02C.....G.....
Haplotype 03C.....G.....
Haplotype 04C.....G.....
Haplotype 05G.....	T.....T.....
Haplotype 06C.....G.....
Haplotype 07C.....G.....
Haplotype 08C.....G.....
Haplotype 09C.....G.....
Haplotype 10C.....G.....
Haplotype 11C.....G.....T.C..	T.....
Haplotype 12C.....G.....
Haplotype 13G.....G.....T.....
Haplotype 14G.....G.....T.....
Haplotype 15C.....G.....T.C..	T.....
Haplotype 16C.....G.....

	280	290	300	310	320	330	340	350	360
Haplotype 01	TAAAGTACAT	AGGACATACA	TATTATTAAT	CGTGCATACC	ACATCCAAGT	CAAATCATT	CCAGTCAACA	TGCGTATCAC	CACCTCTGAA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03T.....
Haplotype 04T.....
Haplotype 05T.....C.....	T.....
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07T.....
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11T.....C.....
Haplotype 12T.....
Haplotype 13T.....C.....
Haplotype 14T.....C.....
Haplotype 15T.....C.....
Haplotype 16

	370	380	390	400	410	420	430	440	450
Haplotype 01	GGCCGCTTAA	TCACCATGCC	GCGTGAAATC	ATCAACCCGC	CCACAACGTG	TCCCTCTTCT	CGCTCCGGGC	CCATATGGAC	TGTGGGGTAG
Haplotype 02A.....
Haplotype 03A.....
Haplotype 04A.....
Haplotype 05C.....C.....A.....
Haplotype 06A.....
Haplotype 07A.....
Haplotype 08A.....
Haplotype 09A.....
Haplotype 10A.....
Haplotype 11C.....A.....
Haplotype 12A.....
Haplotype 13C.....A.....
Haplotype 14C.....A.....
Haplotype 15C.....A.....
Haplotype 16A.....

	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530	540
Haplotype 01	TTATAGGAGA	ACTATACCTG	GCATCTGGTT	CTTACTTCAT	GTTTCATTCGT	CTATAGTCGC	TCACTCGTTC	CTCTTAAATA	AGACATCTCG
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05C.....
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13C.....
Haplotype 14C.....
Haplotype 15
Haplotype 16

	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630
Haplotype 01	ATGGATTAGT	TACTAATCAG	CCCATGCCGA	TGCATAACTG	TGGTGTCTATG	CCCTTGGTAT	TTTTTAATTT	TAGGGTGCCG	GGGTCCACT
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09G.....G..
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13
Haplotype 14
Haplotype 15
Haplotype 16

	640	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720
Haplotype 01	AGGCGGAGCC	TCAGAGCGGA	GGACATTGAA	TGTGGTCAAG	ACATATATTT	AACTATTATT	GGTCGTACAT	ATACTACTTT	CAGGTGTTAT
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09G.....G.....
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13
Haplotype 14
Haplotype 15
Haplotype 16G.....G.....

		730	740	750	760	770	780	790	800	810
	
Haplotype 01		TCAGTCAATG	GTTACGGGAC	ATATAAAATT	TTACTACAAC	ATTTCAAGTC	AACAATTTTT	CCATCATACA	TATAAAATTTA	TTTTACGTAG
Haplotype 02	
Haplotype 03	
Haplotype 04	
Haplotype 05	
Haplotype 06	
Haplotype 07	
Haplotype 08	
Haplotype 09	
Haplotype 10	
Haplotype 11	
Haplotype 12	
Haplotype 13	
Haplotype 14	
Haplotype 15	
Haplotype 16	

		820	830	840	850	860	870	880	890	900
	
Haplotype 01		CTTAGTATTC	AAACCCCCC	TTACCCCCC	AATCTTACAT	GTACTAAACA	TCTTGTCAAA	CCCCAAAAGC	AAGAATACAT	ACACTGTAAG
Haplotype 02	
Haplotype 03	
Haplotype 04	
Haplotype 05	
Haplotype 06	
Haplotype 07	
Haplotype 08	
Haplotype 09	
Haplotype 10	
Haplotype 11	
Haplotype 12	
Haplotype 13	
Haplotype 14	
Haplotype 15	
Haplotype 16	

XXX

	910	920	930	940	950	960	970	980	990

Haplotype 01	TGCTACAAA	AACATAAAGT	ATTACGTAAG	CATTCACGTA	AGCATTGGC	TCAAACCTTG	TTACACAGTT	TTCTGCCTGC	TCTAAAAACA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13
Haplotype 14
Haplotype 15
Haplotype 16

	1000	1010	1020	1030	1040	1050	1060	1070	1080

Haplotype 01	CTTTATTGTT	TGGACATATA	TGATCTGGAA	ATCTTATAGT	AATTATAGTA	TTAGAATATT	TTATTAATGT	AACATAGAGA	ATATAATTTT
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05G
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10A.....G.....
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13G
Haplotype 14G
Haplotype 15
Haplotype 16

	1090	1100	1110	1120	1130	1140	1150	1160	
Haplotype 01	TAAACCTACG	CAAAATATTT	ACGCATTTAT	TTATTCTTAT	AGCGGCATAA	TGCAAACATAT	CTGCTCCCTA	CATGCAAATT	AAA
Haplotype 02
Haplotype 03
Haplotype 04
Haplotype 05
Haplotype 06
Haplotype 07
Haplotype 08
Haplotype 09
Haplotype 10
Haplotype 11
Haplotype 12
Haplotype 13T
Haplotype 14T
Haplotype 15
Haplotype 16