RESOLVING THE XENARTHRAN PHYLOGENY USING NUCLEAR LOCI

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By JONATHAN J. HUGHES

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree Master of Science

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McMaster University MASTER OF SCIENCE (2016) Hamilton, Ontario (Biology)

TITLE: Resolving the Xenarthran Phylogeny Using Nuclear Loci AUTHOR: Jonathan J Hughes, M.Sci. (University of Leicester) SUPERVISORS: Dr Hendrik Poinar & Dr Brian Golding NUMBER OF PAGES: x, 73

Lay Abstract

Xenarthrans – sloths, armadillos, and anteaters – have a long and complicated evolutionary history. In recent years a growth of new genetic information has made it easier to answer questions about their relation to each other and to other species. By examining many new gene sequences across all living Xenarthra, plus some extinct species, we aim to bolster our understanding of these relationships and the importance of particular traits.

Abstract

Xenarthra form the least diversified major clade of placental mammals, being comprised of 31 described species of sloth, armadillo, and anteater. The past decade has seen a growth in the amount of xenarthran genetic data available, including the recent publication of a phylogenetic framework based on mitochondrial genomes, but more is required to aid in conservation assessments and to elucidate the evolutionary history of this unique order. We aimed to expand upon this by generating a framework based on nuclear genes.

Using molecular baits, we enriched nuclear DNA from all extant and a selection of extinct ancient Xenarthrans for 74 phenotypically relevant genes. We aim to build phylogenetic trees based on each successfully enriched loci. Comparing trees against the previous mitochondrial framework will provide a measure of robustness. By seeing how estimated divergence times and rates vary across nuclear genes, we were able to examine how particular xenarthran phenotypes were selected upon in different points of their evolutionary history. While the sequencing of certain genes and species encountered mixed success rates, we have a solid framework for further study and can confirm that nuclear and mitochondrial information yields very similar evolutionary histories.

Acknowledgements

When I came to McMaster I had no idea what I would be working on and who, beyond two emails and a name drop, my supervisors would be. I am as such incredibly thankful that I have been able to do such exciting work under the tutelage of the truly wonderful Hendrik Poinar and Brian Golding. Hendrik has been a inspiring and supportive supervisor with an infectious enthusiasm, and working with him has allowed me to flourish and to hone my own academic interests. Through all my progress and all my missteps, I have never had anything but understanding and encouragement from Hendrik. Brian too has been a great mentor, and his insightful comments during committee meetings have made sure I think long and hard about the methods I apply and the reasons for them. Thanks to these two great academics I have become a far better scientist.

Of course, I must also thank the individual members of the Poinar lab, though if I had to thank them for every single thing they've done for me this thesis would be twice as long. Special mentions must go to; Ana, for remaining patient with me and for guiding me through so much of the computational work; Jen, Mel, Steph and Kat for sharing their vast knowledge of the lab and its protocols; Emil, for mentoring me in my first few months here (though one day I hope to make him change his mind about British food); and Matthew for being a great support and soundboard when times were tough. I will never forget my time with this fantastic group of human beings, all of whom have helped me in ways they might never know.

I also owe a great debt of gratitude to the people who have inspired me and built me up along the way. Had Jonathon Stone not allowed me to work with him in my third year I might still be figuring out what it was I wanted to do with my life. The experience of his classroom and his lab brought me an excitement for learning that I hadn't felt in years. Trude Scwarzacher helped build on that foundation and was instrumental in my undergraduate success.

Thanks also to my family and friends both near and far, especially to Sarah for being such a pillar of support when I was struggling and a much needed booster of confidence when I couldn't see my successes. Of course I must thank my parents too, for a plethora of reasons. The folks in the biology and anthropology departments – and a few others – have been great friends to me, and ensured that my time has been enjoyable, so I can add them to the list of things I'll be looking back fondly on.

And lastly, thank you Tony Iommi, the Lord of the Riff, for inspiring the entire genre of music that forms such a core part of my identity, and provides me with the motivation to keep going.

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Declaration of Academic Achievement

The following is a declaration that the content of the research in this document has been completed by Jonathan Hughes and recognizes the contributions of Dr. Hendrik Poinar, Dr. Brian Golding, Melanie Kuch, Dr. Ana Duggan, Jennifer Klunk, and Stephanie Marciniak in both the research process and the completion of the thesis. Jonathan Hughes contributed to the study design and was responsible for performing experiments, data collection, data analysis and writing of the manuscript. Dr. Hendrik Poinar and Dr. Brian Golding assisted with the study design, data analysis and manuscript review. Melanie Kuch prepared the original DNA extracts and many of the sequence libraries used in the analysis. Dr. Ana Duggan, Melanie Kuch, Jennifer Klunk, and Stephanie Marciniak provided insightful advice and experimental guidance.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Order Xenathra

The superorder Xenarthra is represented by 31 extant species divided into two orders; Cingulata and Pilosa. Cingulata contains the extant armadillos, whilst Pilosa is further divided into Vermilingua and Folivora, respectively anteaters and sloths. They are the oldest of the placental mammals (O'Leary *et al.*, 2013), with their origins being traced as far back as 59–65 million years ago in South America (Gibb *et al.*, 2016), where they were able to diversify and flourish during its separation from Central America, leaving behind over 200 extinct species (Möller-Krull *et al.*, 2007).

It was previously thought that pangolins and aardvarks were contained in the same superorder as Xenarthra, on account of their strikingly similar appearances. This group was named Edentata in reference to the unusual tooth morphology it displayed, with species possessing either no teeth whatsoever, or otherwise lacking any frontal incisors or apparent molars (Rose & Gaudin, 2001). There exist however a number of characteristics that distinguished Xenarthra from them, leading to pangolins and aardvarks to be classed separately amongst Ferae and Afrotheria. Firstly there is the presence of "xenarthry," the trait for which the superorder is named. This describes the presence of intervertebral articulations in the posterior thoracic and lumbar vertebrae (Gaudin & Biewener, 1992), thought to be used in defensive curling movements or, more probably, remnants from early adaptations for digging (Gaudin, 1999). Additional skeletal traits include a secondary scapular spine (Gaudin & Biewener, 1992) as well as a fusion between in ischium and the sacrum (Delsuc *et al.*, 2001).

In terms of biological attributes, Xenarthra have the lowest basal metabolic rate of any mammal barring monotremes, likely as a result of low selection pressure from predation (Lovegrove, 2000). They have a long history of specialised feeding habits, which has reduced competition between them and other species occupying the same space, helping to account for their success; a lack of competition for a resource coupled with low energy requirements lowers the need for migration in times of resource scarcity (Lillegraven, 1983). Male Xenarthra possess internal testicles located between the rectum and bladder (Kleisner *et al.*, 2010). Female characteristics are somewhat variable; amongst the Cingulata, only *Tolypeutes* possess typical mammalian genital tracts, whereas in other armadillos a simple urogenital sinus is observed (Cetica *et al.*, 2005).

1.1.1 Pilosa

1.1.1.1 Vermilingua

Vermilingua contains the four extant species of anteater across three genera; *Cyclopes*, *Tamandua*, and *Myrmecophaga*. As their name implies they are entire myrmecophagic, meaning they consume only ants and other small invertebrate insects. All Vermilingua possess powerful front legs with a single enlarged claw for burrowing into ant nests. This feeding behaviour is aided by the iconic long sticky tongue, covered in small hook–like structures, a trait that is coupled with the total absence of teeth. Instead the lining of the anteater's digestive system contains hard folds that are contracted in order to grind its food (Grzimek, 2004). The low calorie reward from their prey, as well as the possibility of reprisal when digging in an ants nest, has lead anteaters to be highly ambulatory as they must raid approximately 100 ant nests and consume 5000–30,000 ants in a single day, depending on their size (Redford, 1987).

The smallest of the anteaters, *Cyclopes didactylus* or the silky anteater, is both entirely arboreal and nocturnal. Slightly larger and partially terrestrial are the two *Tamandua* species, which have the northernmost territorial range and are the most common anteaters. Perhaps the most iconic and recognisable anteater is *Myrmecophaga tridactlya*, the Giant Anteater. Unlike the other three species it is entirely terrestrial, being approximately 30kg in weight and 180cm long. Large mammals such as this are not typically considered to be insect specialists, but due to the characteristically low basal metabolism of Xenarthra, *Myrmecophaga* is still able to thrive (Carbone *et al.*, 1999; McNab, 2000). Its greatest threats instead come from the conversion of its habitat for farming practices, predominantly cattle pasture. Due to their need to compete for limited fragile resources, Giant Anteaters are highly solitary, and male aggression is common.

There are a few known examples of extinct ancestors to anteaters discovered at the turn of the 18th century, but there has been a limited amount of research into their relationships. *Palaeomyrmidon* was a close relative to the silky anteater and of similar size, though it appears to have been entirely terrestrial (Rovereto, 1914). Meanwhile the genera *Protamandua* and *Neotamandua* are much more closely related to the other groups of anteaters. *Protamandua* has been considered a common ancestor to both *Myrmecophaga* and *Tamandua* (Hirshcfield, 1976), while *Neotamandua* may be congeneric with *Myrmecophaga* (McDonald *et al.*, 2008). Genetic studies on any of these groups are lacking, and only scant morphological data is available.

1.1.1.2 Folivora

Modern extant sloths derive their name from their metabolic adaptations; idleness, slow movement, and low dietary requirements. As a result of their speed there are a number of symbiotic algae and insects that live in their fur, and some insects whose life cycle revolves around the sloth's fortnightly defecation. Their slow temperament even results in them mistaking their own arms for tree branches, causing them to fall from forest canopies. Despite this, they are in fact surprisingly fast when provoked, remarkably strong for their size, and are incredibly capable swimmers. As folivores their diet consists primarily of tender buds and leaves, though occasionally they have been observed consuming insects and faeces (Heymann *et al.*, 2010). The six extant species of sloth are divided across the genera *Choloepus* (two-toed sloths) and *Bradypus* (three-toed sloths); the divergence between them and the placement of the diverse array of extinct sloth species is however of some contention, and there is disagreement between morphological and genetic analyses (Gaudin, 2004; Farina *et al.*, 2013; Slater *et al.*, 2016). This disagreement can be largely attributed to lacking genetic data and the dearth of knowledge about the many extinct sloth relatives.

While extant sloths are predominantly arboreal, they are believed to be derived from terrestrial ancestors (Corbet, 1989). However, which taxon of ground-sloth *Bradypus* is thought to evolve from, or whether they in fact share an arboreal ancestor with *Choloepus*, is a matter of some discussion (White & MacPhee, 2001). The most anciently diverged of the sloths are Bradypodiae (Hoss *et al.*, 1996), represented only by the four extant species of three-toed *Bradypus*, two of which are at high risk of extinction. Given the long 7 million year divergence time between *Bradypus* and *Choloepus*, it would appear that their arboreal lifestyles and similar appearances are an example of convergent evolution, whereby the only surviving members of Folivora were those that could leave the ground behind them (Hoss *et al.*, 1996).

Both genera of modern sloths occupy the same regions of South America, and possess similar body plans. Their long forearms are for climbing and dragging but cannot be walked upon as a result of reduced musculature – a result of their low metabolism – and they are covered in a thick, algae-ridden fur that aids thermoregulation, as sloths cannot shiver. Beyond this however there are a large number of distinctions between the two. Both have simple dental structures, in keeping with other Xenarthra, but dentition between the two varies. Three-toed sloths are slightly smaller than their two-toed relatives, being about the size of small dog, and also possess a short tail. They are also the superior swimmers of the two species, which is perhaps unsurprising given their apparent close relationship to the extinct aquatic sloth, Thalassocnus. Furthermore, two-toed sloths are unique amongst mammals for possessing only five cervical vertebrae, in comparison to the six possessed by three-toed sloths and manatees, and the seven in all other mammals (Galis, 1999). The two also share a number of behavioural distinctions; Three-toed sloths are diurnal, versus the nocturnal two-toed, and when descending from trees *Bradypus* will go bottom-first while *Choloepus* will go head-first.

While the number of extant sloth species is low, Folivora was once a highly diverse suborder containing large numbers of the iconic giant sloth, until the last of them went extinct approximately 10,000 years ago. Beyond the early divergence of Bradypodiae, the positioning of the other Folivora families is somewhat disputed, but is comprised of Nothrotheriidae, Megatheriidae, Mylodontidae, and lastly Megalonychidae, which contains *Choloepus*. These widely distributed ancient species are suggested to have occupied a much wider range of habits than their modern relatives, ranging from arboreal (Pujos *et al.*, 2007), aquatic (Canto *et al.*, 2008), and terrestrial environments; as well as possibly carnivorous (Farina & Blanco, 1996) and fossorial (Bargo *et al.*, 2000) behaviours.

Nothrotheriidae has been considered a sister taxon to Megatheriidae based on morphological data (Gaudin, 2004), but genetic evidence suggests it is a sister taxon to Bradypodiae (Greenwood *et al.*, 2001; Slater *et al.*, 2016). It contains the aforementioned aquatic *Thalassocnus*, a genus of giant sloths that resided either entirely or predominantly in water. The more recent the species, the more they appear to have adapted to an aquatic niche (Canto *et al.*, 2008). It is also the home clade of the reasonably well characterised Shasta ground sloth, *Nothrotheriops shastensis*. While one of the smaller ground sloths at around nine feet, *N. shastensis* was highly successful throughout western North America. Alongside other Nothrotheriidae, it was thought for a time to be closely related to the much larger *Megatherium* of the Megatheriidae family; they are now known to be distinct taxa (Muizon *et al.*, 2004).

Instead, Megatheriidae and Megalonychidae are thought themselves to be closely related to each other and distinct from Bradypodidae and Nothrotheridae (Slater *et al.*, 2016). At about six meters in height and four tonnes in weight (Bargo, 2001), members of the genus *Megatherium* may well be the most imposing and iconic of the ancient ground sloths with the largest, *M. americanum*, rivalled in size only by some mammoth species. Megalonychidae on the other hand exhibits some of the longest surviving and smallest species of sloth; while the older genera such as *Megalonyx* were still several meters tall, many of the island dwelling sloth populations became quite diminutive, as seen in the modern two-toed sloths; this is likely a result of the restrictions of island inhabitance (Steadman *et al.*, 2005).

Lastly there are the Mylodtonidae, typified by *Mylodon*. Their taxonomic position has been an element of contention, depending on the use of morphological (Gaudin, 1995; Gaudin, 2004) or genetic (Hoss *et al.*, 1996; Slater *et al.*, 2016) evidence, but they appear more closely related to Megalonychidae than to Bradypodidae or Megatheriidae. *Mylodon* had an expansive ecological tolerance (Brandoni *et al.*, 2010) and no natural predators on account of its large size and thick fur lined with osteoderms, demonstrating the relation to armadillos.

1.1.2 Cingulata

The most successful and diverse of the Xenarthrans are the Cingulata, which are the only Xenarthrans still found in North America. They can be divided into three families. The first of these is the entirely extinct branch Pampatheriidae, containing the pampatheres or "pampas beasts." Then there are Dasypodidae, the long-nosed armadillos, and the Chlamyphoridae, which are the glyptodontids and other armadillos. While being similar in appearance, pampatheres differentiate themselves from armadillos in a number of ways. They were much less diverse, and had more powerful jaw musculature that suggests a diet of primarily vegetation, versus the predominantly insect based diet of armadillos (Vizcaíno *et al.*, 1998). Perhaps the most striking difference lies in the structure of their iconic osteodermal plates; their armoured shell was made flexible by the presence of three movable lateral bands of scutes – bony external plates overlaid with horn – as with three–banded armadillos. However, the osteoderms of pampatheres were covered by just one, whereas the osteoderms of armadillos each have multiple scutes (Vizcaíno et al., 1998). Armadillos posses characteristic articulated dermal osteoderms, which are also found in the extinct ground sloth mylodon, indicating pleisomorphy (Hill, 2006). The last of the pampatheres went extinct approximately 12,000 years ago.

1.1.2.1 Dasypodidae

Of the armadillos there are 21 extant species, all sharing the common armour plating in bands across the shoulders, hips, legs and head. A majority of their diet is formed by invertebrates, though they also consume some small vertebrates alongside plant matter. The most successful group of armadillos are the Dasypodes, of which the most widespread is the Nine–Banded Armadillo, *Dasypus novemcinctus*. All Dasypodes have simple teeth that lack enamel, as well as poor vision (Vijayaraghavan, 2009). Fascinatingly, they are unique amongst Xenarthrans in being able to hold their breath and cross streams by walking along the stream bed (Vijayaraghavan, 2009).

While currently all extant Cingulata are experiencing some forms of habitat reduction,

D. novemcinctus proves the exception and is in fact exhibiting a dramatic increase in range size, being the only Xenarthran to remain as far north as the United States of America. They are non-territorial and have few natural predators, but their ranges are restricted by the absence of particular insect species and their inability to adapt to colder environments, a result of their slow metabolism (Vijayaraghavan, 2009). Further, they are the only Xenarthra to display jumping as a startle response; this can prove unfortunate when encountering vehicles. All Dasypus are also strangely unique for demonstrating polyembryony during reproduction, which is entirely uncharacteristic of the Xenarthran order and produces four genetically identical offspring at birth (Bagatto et al., 2000). Data on many species of Dasypus is remarkably lacking, meaning that while many are considered to be under threat of extinction, there simply is not enough information to reach a definitive conclusion.

1.1.2.2 Chlamyphoridae

The most diverse of the Cingulata are the Chlamyphoridae, containing four subfamilies including the extinct lineage of glyptodonts, which are much larger and more comprehensively armoured than modern armadillos. It was previously assumed that glyptodonts were a separate lineage from armadillos, but recent molecular evidence has suggested a much more recent divergence time, placing them within the Chlamyphoridae group (Delsuc *et al.*, 2016). They were for a time, along with other armadillos and sloths, able to successfully though temporarily colonise Northern America (Carlini *et al.*, 2008). As with many Xenarthra, the exact cause of their extinction is subject to debate.

Curiously the closest relative to the giant glyptodon is, it has been recently discovered, the Chlamyphorinae or fairy armadillos (Delsuc *et al.*, 2016). Contrary to being the size of small cars as per many glyptodon, fairy armadillos are often only about 15 centimeters in length. Very little is known about them as a result of their nocturnal and almost entirely subterranean lifestyle (Delsuc *et al.*, 2012), and individuals caught in the wild have almost universally died soon after capture, making them difficult to study (Superina, 2011). Sightings of them are becoming ever rarer, seemingly as a result of increased farming, and predation from cats and dogs (Borghi *et al.*, 2011; Superina, 2014), making them high priority targets for conservation efforts.

Sister to the Chlamyphorinae are the Tolypeutinae; the giant, three banded, and

naked-tailed armadillos. Many Tolypeutinae are specialist termite feeders and have remarkably low metabolism even in comparison to other Xenarthra (McNab, 1980), and the genera in this subfamily are rife with distinguishing characteristics. The giant *Priodontes*, of which *Priodontes maximus* is the largest, are the largest living Xenarthra at about a meter in length. In contrast to the giant anteater it possess a rather different strategy for ant – and termite – consumption, where it often digs burrows into active insect nests and slowly consumes the nest to exhaustion, as opposed to intentionally preserving the food source. Once incredibly widespread across the South American plains, most *Priodontes* are highly endangered as a result of overfarming.

As they have the least comprehensive armour plating of the Cingulata, the three banded *Tolypeutes* are the only ones that rely heavily on said armour for defence – no other armadillo can completely curl themselves into a ball as the two *Tolypeutes* can. Meanwhile the naked-tailed *Cabassous* armadillos, so named due to a lack or diminished quantity of the usual osteoderms on their tails, make up some of the smallest armadillos on average. The Northern naked-tailed armadillo, *Cabassous centralis* is the only other species of armadillo besides the nine-banded to be distributed outside of South America, with its range encompassing Central America and the southern tip of Mexico.

The most anciently diverged of all the Chlamyphoridae are the Euphractinae; five species across three genera. The dwarf armadillo Zaedypus pichi is the only member of its genus, as is the six-banded armadillo Euphractus sexcinctus. Dwarf armadillos are the only armadillo species to hibernate (Superina & Abba, 2014), and as their name implies they are some of the smallest armadillos. Despite their diminutive body size, they actually have one of the proportionally largest penises in the animal kingdom, with it occupying some 60% of their body length (Superina & Loughry, 2012). Six-banded armadillos conversely are one of the largest of the armadillo species. At one time they were considered to be in the same genera as dwarf armadillos, but karyotypical (Jorge *et al.*, 1978), morphological (Wetzel, 1985), and mitochondrial (Gibb *et al.*, 2016) studies have all since disputed this notion. Finally there are are last genera of Euphractinae; the three hairy armadillos, *Caetophractus*. They are so named for the prominent tufts of hair that emerge from between the osteodermal bands.

1.2 Evolutionary History

1.2.1 Genetic Data

Having established the key traits of the various members of Xenarthra, it is prudent to explore how each is related to one another. However given the incredibly broad range of phenotypic characteristic found throughout Xenarthra, determining their evolutionary relationships has proven difficult, a problem compounded by a lack of genetic and fossil evidence for many of the numerous extinct taxa (Slater *et al.*, 2016).

The reduced diversity of modern Xenarthra is the result of a mass extinction a mere 10,000 years ago. Before this point, Xenarthra experienced a large scale radiation after being isolated on the South American continent through most of the Cenozoic, with the Great American Interchange opening up vast new ecological niches for them (Patterson & Pascual, 1972). Across both extant and extinct Xenarthra there has been limited research aimed at elucidating the phylogenetic relationships between them (Delsuc & Douzery, 2009).

Early morphological assessments have proven contradictory and inconclusive, with the most prominent characteristics analysed being teeth (Ferigolo, 1985), ears (Segall, 1976), and crania (Bugge, 1979). Some would identify sloths and armadillos as the most closely related taxa (Bugge, 1979), while others gave evidence for the grouping of sloths and anteaters (Patterson *et al.*, 1992), in line with current thinking. Another common finding based on skull morphology was that anteaters were a basal group to other Xenarthra. Preliminary molecular analyses from the same time did little to improve our understanding, with studies of alpha crystallin–A (Van Dijk, 1999; McKenna, 1992) and serum albumin (Sarich, 1985) establishing little beyond the monophyly of Xenarthrans and supporting high taxonomic level divergences amongst them based on hairy (sloths and anteaters) and non–hairy phenotypes.

However, since the turn of the century great progress has been made in the use of molecular markers to resolve the Xenarthran phylogeny across the core five families; Bradypodidae and Megalonychidae forming sloths, Cyclopedidae and Myrmecophagidae forming anteaters, and Dasypodidae representing armadillos. The first study to give strong evidence for this arrangement examined eight of the extant Xenarthran genera and utilised both mitochondiral 12S and 16S rRNAs, as well as Von Willebrand Factor (VWF) exon 28 (Delsuc *et al.*, 2001). While attempts had been made to examine the relationships between Xenarthra and other mammalian groups (Huchon *et al.*, 1999), this represented a huge leap in the amount of available genetic information for Xenarthrans specifically and was swiftly followed by an expanded phylogenetic analysis (Delsuc *et al.*, 2002). This time twelve genera were included and three nuclear genes assessed; VWF exon 28, alpha–2B adrenergy receptor gene (ADRA2B) and breast cancer susceptibility (BRCA1) exon 11.

While this study was unable to fully resolve the phylogeny of armadillos, it did successfully corroborate morphological evidence suggesting three major subfamilies; Dasypodinae), Tolypeutinae, and Euphractinae (McKenna & Bell, 1997). The inclusion of mitochondrial genes into these analyses only gave further credence to this division (Delsuc *et al.*, 2003), as did wider scale studies of mammalian phylogenies that utilised large nuclear genetic data sets in extant species (Madsen *et al.*, 2001; Murphy *et al.*, 2001b; Murphy *et al.*, 2001a). These studies were also useful in confirming earlier works (Meyer & Kircher, 2015; Shoshani & McKenna, 1998) that pointed to Xenarthra as the earliest offshoot of placental mammals. These findings were in direct contradiction to the earlier morphological studies suggesting anteaters as basal to Xenarthrans (Segall, 1976; Bugge, 1979; Ferigolo, 1985), likely as a result of adaptations in anteater skulls suited for myrmecophagy (Delsuc & Douzery, 2009).

1.2.2 Establishing A Phylogenetic Framework

The succession of studies from Delsuc et al (2001, 2002, 2003) was able to cement the relationships between anteaters. Molecular analyses all suggested that both Tamandua and Myrmecophaga shared a close relationship. This is in line with morphological assessments (Gaudin & Branham, 1998; Reiss, 1997) that described the lone *Cyclopes* species as divergent from other Vermilingua, with one ancestral genus in the form of *Palaeomyrmidon* (Hayssen *et al.*, 2012).

Regarding sloths, while the fossil record is comparatively plentiful for the many ancient and diverse ground sloths there have only been very few historical remains found of the two extant genera. Based primarily on cranial evidence they are assumed to be diphyletic (Gaudin, 2004), and a number of molecular studies on a wide range of extinct sloth species (Hoss *et al.*, 1996; Poinar *et al.*, 1998; Greenwood *et al.*, 2001; Poinar *et al.*, 2003) seem to confirm this with varying degrees of certainty. These studies are predominantly focused on 12S and 16S rRNA, and imply a close relationship between Nothrotheriidae and the two-toed Bradypodidae; the three-toed Megalonychidae meanwhile are more closely related to the Megatheriidae and Mylodontidae. A study of retrovirus and mitochondrial DNA suggests that *C. didactylus* and *C. hoffmani* diverged between six and seven million years ago (Slater *et al.*, 2016). Prior to this a similar date of divergence between the two extant *Choloepus* species was suggested based on cytochrome c oxidase subunit I sequences (Moraes-Barros & Arteaga, 2015), all of which agree with the suggestions of Delsuc et al (2002).

Analyses of armadillo phylogeny has been formed to a large degree by studies of their shells, which have impacted the evolution of many of their other traits (Superina & Loughry, 2012). Positioning Pampatheres amongst other Cingulata has proven challenging, as it has thus far been difficult to recover DNA from any samples (Shapiro *et al.*, 2014), and there is disagreement over placement of particular species, particularly fairy armadillos, as a result of conflicting morphological and genetic data (Delsuc *et al.*, 2012; Billet *et al.*, 2011). Analyses of retrosposons from representatives of each of the 13 major genera suggested for the first time that *Cheatophractus* and *Zaedyus* formed a sister group to *Euphractus* (Möller-Krull *et al.*, 2007), a grouping that has been confirmed in subsequent studies (Gibb *et al.*, 2016), see Figure 1.1.

With the gradual increase in available data, as well as an increase in available methods, it has been possible to derive a time scale for Xenarthran evolution and make more precise estimates of their phylogeny. In the Delsuc et al (2001) paper described in Section 1.2.1, maximum likelihood methods were used to calculate divergence rates amongst key lineages, based upon a local molecular clock. Over the following two years with the refinement of a Bayesian relaxed clock method (Thorne *et al.*, 1998; Kishino *et al.*, 2001; Thorne & Kishino, 2002), a large set of both mitochondrial and nuclear genes (Murphy *et al.*, 2001a) were analysed across a large number of mammalian clades, including a small selection of Xenarthra (Springer *et al.*, 2003). These works suggested placing the root of the Xenarthran clade at 60–90 mya, with the order undergoing



Figure 1.1: Taken from Gibb et al 2015. Tree showing the relationships between all extant Xenarthra based on mitochondrial data. Asterisks (*) mark branches with maximal support. Values at nodes indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities (PP) obtained under the CAT-GTR-G4 mixture model and maximum-likelihood bootstrap percentages (BP) obtained under the optimal partitioned model, respectively. Afrotheria was used as an outgroup. This represents the first time that phylogenetic inferences have been made using genetic data from every extant Xenarthran.

intraordinal diversification about 12 million years before the boundary between the Cretaceous and Paleocene periods.

This approach has been applied more specifically to Xenarthra, with studies across twelve extant genera approximating the divergence between Cingulata and Pilosa, representing the Xenarthran MRCA, to have occurred 70.5 mya (Delsuc *et al.*, 2004). The same three nuclear genes in the 2002 Delsuc et al paper were used here; ADRA2B, BRCA1, and VWF. While this conflicts with earlier molecular studies that suggested divergence occurred about ten million years earlier (Hoss *et al.*, 1996), it aligns better with morphological evidence (Bergqvist *et al.*, 2004) that notes the earliest armadillo scutes in the fossil record being dated to approximately 58 mya in Brazil. In either instance, the next major split, between Folivora and Vermilingua, appears to have followed shortly after, around 60 mya.

There are certain difficulties in calibrating the lineages of the sloth genera. The oldest fossil remains that are undoubtedly sloth are approximately forty million years old, but thus far they have not been placed within any particular lineage (Vizcaíno *et al.*, 1998). This trend persists with a number of more recent extinct sloths, especially in the numerous Caribbean species (Anderson & Handley Jr, 2001; White & MacPhee, 2001). Amongst these sloth, which outlived giant sloths on the mainland by a few thousand years until the arrival of humans (Steadman *et al.*, 2005), many are representatives of Megalonychidae and comprise a contested set of phylogenetic placements. That said, there is little doubt that divergence between the two– and three–toed sloths runs deep at around 20 mya(Delsuc *et al.*, 2004), supporting their distinction.

Molecular dating studies that explore anteaters show that the two genera, Cyclopedidae and Myrmecophagidae, have an ancient split between them, though corroborating this with fossil evidence has proven a little difficult. The fossil record for anteaters is thought to be very incomplete on account of their low diversity and difficult environmental conditions for fossilisation. The earliest unquestioned anteater fossil can be dated to approximately 20 mya in Patagonia (Carlini *et al.*, 1992), while molecular estimates have consistently placed the Cyclopode/Myrmecophage split at around 40 mya (Delsuc *et al.*, 2004; Meredith *et al.*, 2011), supporting *C. didactylus* as being distinct from other anteaters (Barros et al., 2008).

The dates obtained in these analyses indicate that environmental shifts in South and Central America over the past 65 million years influenced Xenarthran evolution (Delsuc *et al.*, 2004). More specifically, the aforementioned divergences appear to correlate with a series of tectonic events whereby the North Andes plate experienced major uplift (Marshall & Sempere, 1993). The split between anteater lineages seems to have occurred shortly after a period of heavy uplift in the Andes around 43 mya (Marshall & Sempere, 1993). Likewise the divergence between sloth families 20 mya coincides with another period of geological upheaval associated with widespread climate change and rapid shifts in fossil communities (Marshall & Sempere, 1993).

1.3 Research Aims

As has been noted numerous times, Xenarthrans possess numerous unique characteristics that make them particularly peculiar mammals, and the evolution and significance of these traits is of importance. After all, Xenarthra are a basal clade of placental mammals, and events in their early life history may be reflective of early mammal evolution (Superina & Loughry, 2015). Studies into both the earliest mammals (O'Leary *et al.*, 2013) and the earliest Xenarthrans(Gaudin & Croft, 2015) have suggested that Xenarthrans began as myrmecophages and transitioned to omnivory and herbivory, and also make predictions about the development of their preferences for habitat and ambulation. Their formerly diverse clade is now represented by just 31 extant species, marking them as important models for conservation.Broadening our knowledge of Xenarthrans requires a firm understanding of the relationships between them, an understanding which is necessarily coming more and more from genetic data.

Despite difficulties in acquiring genetic information in Xenarthra on account of their scarcity and the poor environmental conditions for preservation (Superina, 2014), there has been a steady growth in the amount of available information. This has culminated in the development of a phylogenetic framework based on full mitochondrial genomes (Gibb *et al.*, 2016), the first to cover all extant species. However, there are two intuitive ways in which it can be further expanded upon. Firstly, one can bolster the mitochondrial information with nuclear genes. Nuclear genes are typically more

efficient at recovering benchmark clades (Springer *et al.*, 2001) and can give conflicting phylogenetic accounts to mtDNA (Shaw, 2002), though nuclear DNA has worse long term survivability *in situ*, hence the prevalence of mtDNA in studies with ancient specimens (Hunter, 2006). Secondly, while the Gibb et al (2015) paper accounts for all extant Xenarthra, the use of extinct fossil species will allow more accurate phylogenetic calibration.

Using well established methods of DNA enrichment (Horn, 2011; Enk *et al.*, 2014), we intend to fulfil both of these aims. From the samples used in the Gibb et al (2015) paper we intend to enrich 74 nuclear genes. From the genes that can be most successfully enriched across all species, we can create a framework based on nuclear genes. Furthermore, using mitochondrial genomes previously sequenced from extinct Xenarthran species, we can further calibrate the mitochondrial framework.

Chapter 2

Methods

2.1 Samples

The taxa of all samples used can be found in tables 2.1 and 2.2. All modern samples were previously used in a Xenarthran mitochondrial genome study (Gibb *et al.*, 2016). Ancient samples were previously sequenced but most are unpublished, with the exception of An28 (Delsuc *et al.*, 2016). In this context, "modern" will refer to samples from extant Xenarthra, while "ancient" refers exclusively to extinct species.

ID	Species	Collection No.	Origin	Sample Type
An16	Mylodon darwinii	MNHN 1905–4	Unknown	Derm & osteoderm
An28	Glyptodon doedicurus	MACN 6744	Rio Salado, Arizona	Carapace
An54	Megatherium parodii	UF 75452	Unknown	Long bone
An58	Acratocnus ye	UF76365	Unknown	Mandible with molar
An67	Mylodon darwinii	MPI SP57	Mylodon Cave	Bone
An69	Megalonyx jeffersonii	PMA P98.6.28	Unknown	Bone
AnX18	Mylodon	2 C.2c	Penas de las Trampas	Coprolite
AnX22	Mylodon	#1 Capa 1.C16-17/H1	Penas de las Trampas	Coprolite
AnX23	Mylodon	C.2E_Layer 4	Penas de las Trampas	Coprolite
AnX25	Mylodon	3 C.2E. Layer 4	Penas de las Trampas	Coprolite
AnX32	Nothrotheriops shastensis	RC L12 #1	Rampart Cave	Coprolite

Table 2.1: Table showing species, type, and location of ancient samples used in this study.

ID	Species	Collection No.	Origin	Year	Sample Type
Mod1	Dasypus novemcinctus	T-1863	French Guiana	1995	Ear
Mod2	Dasypus kappleri	T-3365	French Guiana	2001	Internal organ
Mod3	Dasypus pilosus	T-1246	Bolivia	1993	Internal organ or skin
Mod4	Dasypus septemcinctus	T-3002	Rosario, Argentina	2000	Ear
Mod5	Chlamyphorus truncatus	T-CT1	Mendoza, Argentina	2005	Internal organ
Mod6	Chaetophractus villosus	T-NP390	Argentina	2001	Ear
Mod7	Chaetophractus vellerosus	T-CV1	Mendoza, Argentina	2005	Internal organ
Mod8	Euphractus sexcinctus	T-ES1	Santa Fe Zoo, Argentina	2000	Blood in 95% EtOH
Mod9	Zaedyus pichiy	T-ZP67	Mendoza, Argentina	2005	Internal organ
Mod10	Cabassous unicinctus	T-1641	French Guiana	1995	Internal organ
Mod11	Cabassous unicinctus	T-2291	French Guiana	2000	Internal organ
Mod12	Cabassous chacoensis	T-2350	Argentina	2000	Skin from tail
Mod13	Priodontes maximus	T-2353	Argentina	2000	Muscle or skin
Mod14	Tolypeutes matacus	T-2348	Argentina	2000	Ear
Mod15	Cyclopes didactylus	T-1631	French Guiana	1995	Internal organ
Mod16	Myrmecophaga tridactyla	T-5150	French Guiana	2007	Internal organ
Mod17	Tamandua mexicana	T-3000	Chiapas, Mexico	1977	Internal organ
Mod18	Bradypus tridactylus	T-5013	French Guiana	2006	Ear
Mod19	Bradypus variegatus	T-2999	Amazonas, Peru	1978	Internal organ
Mod20	Choloepus hoffmanni	T-33694	Philadelphia Zoo, USA	2001	Kidney
Mod21	Choloepus didactylus	T-1722	French Guiana	1997	Internal organ
Mod22	Myrmecophaga tridactyla	T-2862	French Guiana	2001	Internal organ
Mod23	Chaetophractus nationi	T-LP1	Bolivia	2008	Blood
Mod24	Dasypus yepesi	T-Dyep	Argentina	1988	bone
Mod25	Calyptophractus retusus	T-Bret	Bolivia	1974	Internal organ
Mod26	Dasypus pilosus	T-1246	Bolivia	1993	Internal organ
MoL27	Dasypus hybridus	205722	Uruguay	Unknown	Vertebral disk
MoL28	Cabassous centralis	10752	Costa Rica	Unknown	Bone fragments from skull
MoL29	Dasypus pilosus	MSB49990	Huanuco, Peru	1980	Skin
MoL30	Dasypus pilosus	LSUMZ19240	Huanuco, Peru	1974	Skin
MoL31	Dasypus pilosus	LSUMZ21888	Amazonas, Peru	1978	Skin
MoL32	Bradypus pygmaeus	USNM579179	Panama	1991	Tissue sample in DMSO
MoL33	Dasypus sabanicola	USNM372834	Venezuela	1966	Skin
MoL34	Bradypus torquatus	USNM259473	Brazil	1919	Skin
MoL35	Dasypus hybridus	ZVC-M843	Uruguay	Unknown	Dried skin
MoL36	Dasypus hybridus	ZVC-M844	Uruguay	Unknown	Dried skin
MoL37	Dasypus hybridus	ZVC-M1118	Uruguay	Unknown	Dried skin
MoL38	Dasypus hybridus	ZVC-M2010	Uruguay	1976	Dried skin + Tail
MoL39	Cabassous tatouay	ZVC-M365	Uruguay	Unknown	Dried skin
MoL40	Tamandua tetradactyla	(PK44) T-6054	French Guiana	Unknown	Ear biopsy in 95% EtOH
MoL41	Bradypus torquatus	Tube 449/11	Unknown	Unknown	DNA
MoL42	Tolypeutes tricinctus	Tube 21	Unknown	Unknown	DNA

Table 2.2: Table showing species, type, and location of modern extant Xenarthran samples used in this study.

2.2 DNA Extraction

2.2.1 Ancient DNA Laboratory Set-up

All laboratory experiments were performed under appropriate conditions for aDNA (Fulton, 2011). Modern and ancient samples were stored separately and were processed in entirely different buildings. All work was performed in clean rooms which were separated across sample preparation, pre–PCR, and PCR, with a separate DNA free room for preparing reagents. All rooms maintained a positive–pressure air flow and contained dead air workstations. In the PCR room were two separate dead air workspaces; one for totally DNA free reagent preparation and the other for DNA extraction and manipulation. All work spaces and large pieces of equipment were regularly sterilised with bleach and water; smaller tools were placed in a UV crosslinker for 30 minutes after every use. Water used in reactions and for cleaning was UV filtered.

Movement in and between clean rooms was strictly regulated. Entry into pre–PCr environments was contingent on the entrant having showered and put on clothing that had not been in a post–PCR room. All persons therein were required to wear surgical masks, control their hair with a hairnet, and don a whole–body boiler suit with a hood, as well as shoe covers and easy to clean shoes that were used only in the clean rooms. Protective clothing was stored and equipped in an atrium adjacent to the clean rooms. The outermost of the two pairs of gloves was changed after interacting with each sample or between each step of a given protocol.

2.2.2 Ancient Paleofeces

Paleofecal extractions were adapted from a well established protocol utilising Nphenacyl thiazolium bromide (PTB) (Poinar *et al.*, 1998; Kuch, 2011; ?). 1.75ml of GuSCN extration buffer was added to each 100–200 mg subsample of paleofeces. Samples were then left overnight at 37°C while shaking at 1000 rpm. The next day the samples were centrifuged at maximum speed for 5 minutes, with the resulting supernatant being transferred to a 2 ml tube.

This was followed by part of an ultra–filtration step. The membrane of an Amicon Ultra 0.5ml 30 kDa filter was primed with 450 μ l of 0.1X TE, which was passed through the membrane via centrifuge. Raw DNA extract was applied to the membrane and spun through 450μ l at a time. However, due to difficulties with the columns that resulted in some breakage, the ultra–filtration step was disregarded and the flowthrough poured back into the raw extract. Finally a MinElute (Qiagen) purification was conducted in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol, eluting into 25μ l 0.1X TE and 0.05% Tween.

2.2.3 Ancient Bones and Modern Tissues

DNA extraction of modern samples was performed as described in Gibb et al's 2015 paper. Ancient bones underwent identical extraction but were first pulverised with a hammer, resulting in a crumbly powder. Samples were split into small pieces weighing a combined 50mg, and bone samples were demineralized in 0.75ml of 0.5M EDTA by being agitated overnight at room temperature. A digestion buffer was then prepared, containing per reaction; 10μ l 20mM Tris, 25μ l of 0.5% Sarcosyl, 1μ l of 5 mM CaCl₂, 5mg of 1% PVP, 38.55mg of 50mM DTT, 3.55mg of 2.5 mM PTB, and 6.25μ l of 250μ g/ml Proteinase K. Samples were digested using this buffer by being agitated within it at 55°C for two hours, after which the resulting supernatants were removed. Organics left in the supernatant were extracted using pheonl:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1), and the aqueous phase was passed through a 30 kDA Amicon Ultra 0.5 ml centrifugal filter (Millipore) at 14,000 × g. Washes for the filter utilised 0.1X TE buffer and 0.05% Tween-20. The final extraction had a volume of 50μ l.

Samples Mod1 through Mod26 also underwent DNA fragmentation using NEBNext ds-DNA Fragmentase (New England Biolabs). Reactions were purified with the MinElute PCR Purification kit (Qiagen) and eluted in 20 µl buffer EB. Samples ModL27 through MoL42 were sonicated using a Covaris S220 according to manufacturer's protocol to yield a median fragment length of 200 bp.

2.3 Library Preparation and Indexing

2.3.1 Library Preparation

All libraries were prepared in approximate accordance with, and using the primers from, a well established protocol (Meyer & Kircher, 2010). For each reaction a blunt–end repair mix was prepared, containing 4μ l of 10X Buffer Tango (Fermentas), 0.16 μ l 25nM dNTPs, 0.40 μ l 100mM dATPs, 2 μ l of 10U/ μ l T4 polynucleotide kinase (Fermentas), 0.8 μ l of 5 U/ μ l T4 DNA polymerase (Fermentas), 12.64 μ l water, and 20 μ l of template DNA. These were processed in an MJ thermocycler (BioRad) at 25°C for 15 minutes, 12°C for 5 minutes, and then held at 4°C. The resultant template was purified through a MinElute column, eluted in 20 μ l EB buffer, and maintained on ice.

Next, the template was combined with an Adapter Ligation mix containing 4μ l 10X T4 DNA ligase buffer, 4μ l 50% PEG-4000, 1μ l 100 μ M Adapter mix, 1μ l 5U/ μ l T4 DNA ligase (Fermentas), and 10μ l of water, which was then held at 16°C for a minimum of 15 hours. Again, this was then purified over a MinElute column and eluted in 20μ l of EB buffer. Finally, to complete the library preparation, the template was combined with an Adapter Fill–In Mix containing 4μ l 10X ThermoPol rxn buffer, 4μ l 2.5mM dNTPs, 1.50 8U/ μ l Bst polymerase. 10.5 μ l of water and 20 μ l of template. The mixture was heated to 37° for 20 minutes, then once more eluted in 20μ l EB buffer through a MinElute column.

2.3.2 Indexing of Ancient Samples

Indexing methods were adapted from the 2010 Meyer & Kircher paper, with all libraries being double indexed with unique forward/reverse primer combinations. For each library, the Indexing Mix contained 10μ l of 1X Herculase II Reaction buffer, 1.25μ l 0.5X EvaGreen, 5μ l 0.25mM dNTP mix, 2μ l each of the forward and reverse primers, 0.5μ l Herculase II Fusion DNA Polymerase, 22.50μ l water, and 10μ l of template. Primer combinations can be found in Appendix C.

Amplification cycles were as follows: 95° C for 2 minutes; cycle 10 times through 95° C for 15 seconds, 60° C for 20 seconds, 72° C for 30 seconds; after 10 cycles, hold at 72° C.

2.3.3 Indexing of Modern Samples

Fragmented modern samples (Mod1 through Mod26) were single indexed with a common forward primer (P5) and a unique reverse primer (P7). The Indexing Mix contained 5μ l of 10X PCR Buffer II, 5μ l 25mM MgCl₂, 5μ l 0.25mM dNTP mix, 1μ l

each of the forward and reverse primers, 0.5μ l Amplitaq Gold, 22.50μ l water, and 10μ l of template. Primer combinations can again be found in Appendix C. The sonicated samples (ModL27 through ModL42) were indexed with both a unique P5 and a unique P7, based on Kircher et al's 2012 paper. For double indexing, the Indexing Mix contained 5μ l 10X Accuprime Pfx Reaction mix, 1.25μ l 20X EvaGreen, 0.5μ l $2.5U/\mu$ l AccuPrime Pfx DNA polymerase, 2.5μ l each of the forward and reverse primers, and 5μ l of template.

Both methods used almost identical amplification cycles, as follows: 95°C for 4 minutes; cycle 12 times through 95°C for 30 seconds, 60°C for 30 seconds, 72°C for 30 seconds; hold at 8°C. However, for the double indexed variant, temperature of 72°C were changed to 68°C.

High protocol variability comes as a result of the extractions, library preparations, and indexing, being performed by Melanie Kuch over a period of four years between 2010 and 2014. As such, reagents, concentrations, and PCR cycles were adjusted for performance between modern and ancient samples, as well as to account for improved understanding of and experience with the underlying chemistry.

2.3.4 Re-indexing of Exhausted Libraries

Due to the fact that some indexed libraries were exhausted, a number of both ancient and modern libraries required re–indexing; specifically, all AnX samples, and modern samples Mod5, 11, 13, 19, L28, L29, L31, L33 & L38. Samples that were previously double indexed were re–indexed with the same combination of primers, while those that were single indexed were re–indexed with entirely new combinations. The Indexing Mix contained 25μ l of 2X KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR Master Mix, 3.50μ l water, 0.75μ l each of the forward and indexing primers, and 20μ l of template. The amplification cycle was performed on an MJ thermocycler (BioRad), and applied the following scheme: 95° C for 5 minutes; 10 cycles of 95° C for 30 seconds, 60° C for 45 seconds; 60° C for 3 minutes.

2.4 Bait Design

The methods in sections 2.4 through 2.7 describe only work performed in aid of enriching the nuclear loci; mitochondrial sequences were generated previously by other persons.

Each nuclear loci and their respective variants were repeat masked using Repeat-Masker (Smit *et al.*, 2013–2015), so that repetitive regions were substituted with an N. This was done to limit non–specific binding of baits to non–targets. From the repeat masked sequences, 80mer baits were generated with a 4x tiling density. This yielded approximately 20bp probe spacing, or 60bp probe overlap Where regions were too short to land 80mer baits, the minimum permitted length was 50bp; these baits were brought up to 80bp by padding with Ts. Any stretches of unknown base pairs (N) that were 10bp or fewer were replaced with lowercase t's. Tiling was flexible to ensure even distribution of baits across the loci, as most loci were not perfect multiples of 20.

All baits were then BLASTed against the two-toed sloth, *Choloepus hoffmanni* (NCBI assembly GCA_000164785.2), and nine-banded armadillo, *Dasypus novemcinctus* (NCBI assembly GCA_000208655.2), reference sequences. Baits with one or no hits are described as specific or unique, while non-specific and non-unique baits have more than one hits returned. Then the melting temperature (Tm's) of all the hits were tallied and a judgment made about whether or not to drop that individual bait from the baitset, depending on the number of hits, the Tm composition of the hits, and the performance of the neighboring baits. Ideally baits should only have one hit and Tm of 35–40°C.

It may be worth noting that the two reference sequences are sequenced to a high coverage depth, but not yet well curated and organised; in particular the *Choloepus hoffmanni* genome is still in 260,000 scaffolds not organised by chromosome. The approach used here to detect non–specific probes is only as reliable as the reference genome used for the analysis. Where a reference genome has a large degree of incomplete contig assembly, unique probes will appear to be non–specific. If the genome used does not contain a homologous locus, or there is too much divergence, there will be no BLAST hits at the appropriate Tm.
At this stage there were 22,495 raw unfiltered baits. In order to fit the smallest baitset scale available, which allows up to 20,020 baits, baits with a similarity of up to 3 mismatches were collapsed, leaving 19,659 unfiltered collapsed baits. The vast majority of probes had 1 or 0 hits across the two genomes, and there are only a small number of probes with 2–3 hits and Tm's greater than 40°C. There were two exceptions to this: firstly, CNGB1partcdsSLOTH, when blasted to the *Choloepus hoffmanni* genome, possessed a section (baits 2909–3035) that have 5–6 genome hits with a high Tm. The second exception was GJA10exon1ARMADILLO, which when blasted to the *Dasypus novemcinctus* genome, has anywhere from a few tens to several hundreds of hits at low Tms for over half of its' probes. Therefore the baits for these two loci were removed entirely from the baitset, leaving a final set of 19,435 baits.

2.5 Targeted Enrichment

All libraries were enriched with the baitset in order to selectively capture sequences representing the loci of interest. Five enrichments were performed in total across two "sets." The first set contained one enrichment on ancient samples, and three on modern samples. The second set contained one enrichment on both ancient and modern samples. All enrichments were performed in two rounds following the same basic methodology.

2.5.1 Hybridisation

 5μ l of indexed libraries were used for hybridisation. Where there was less than 5μ l available, the library was exhausted and the full remaining amount was used. Each volume was brought to 10μ l by adding water. 1.94μ l of Human Cot1 DNA (Life Sciences, $1\mu g/\mu$ l), 0.19μ l of Salmon sperm DNA (Life Sciences, $10\mu g/\mu$ l) and 0.40μ l of Illumina bloligos (48μ M) were added to create a Library Mix.

Alongside this, a Hybrid–Capture Mix was produced containing for each library; 8.23μ l 20X SSPE, 0.33μ l 0.5M EDTA, 3.29μ l 50X Denhardt's, 0.33μ l10% SDS, 1.16μ l SUPERase–In, and 1.16μ l of the Xenarthran nuclear baits, equivalent to 100ng. The Lib Mix was heated to 95°C for five minutes then cooled to 55°C – the Hybrid–

Capture Mix was also heated to 55° for four minutes. Once both mixes were at 55°, 12.72 μ l of the Hybrid–Capture Mix was added to each Library Mix. The resulting Library–Hybrid–Capture Mix was kept at 55°C for 20–24 hours.

2.5.2 Reagent Removal

For each reaction, 20μ l of Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin C1 beads (Life Technologies) were washed with 80μ l of Binding Buffer (MYcroarray). Washing was performed by adding Binding Buffer to beads in 1.7μ l tubes, each tube containing beads for 18 reactions, then vortexing. Beads were then magnetically pelleted and the supernatant removed; this was repeated twice more before resuspending the beads in 360μ l of Binding Buffer per tube. The now washed beads were transfered in 20μ l quantities to high–profile PCR strip tubes and incubated at 55° C.

Next the bead mixtures were added to the Library–Hybrid–Capture Mixes and incubated at 55°C for 30 minutes. Tubes were agitated every 10 minutes to prevent settling or clumping of the beads. After 30 minutes the beads were pelleted and the supernatant removed and stored. Beads were then washed for 10 minutes in 180μ l of Wash Buffer 2 (MYcroarray) diluted to 0.2X in 0.1% SDS. Every three minutes the tubes were agitated, and the wash was repeated three more times, with fresh 0.2X Wash Buffer 2 being introduced for each wash. After the fourth wash the final supernatant was removed and the tubes spun down to ensure all liquid was removed. The final pellet was eluted in 18.8μ l of EBT.

2.5.3 Amplification

In order to re–amplify the captured sequences, a LibQ Master Mix was prepared. This contained 20μ l of KAPA SYBR® FAST qPCR Master Mix (2X), 0.60μ l Forward Primer 1469 (150nM) and 0.60μ l Reverse Primer 1470 (150nM) per reaction. The LibQ Mix was added to the 18.8μ l of captured template and amplified on a CFX. Amplification cycling protocols were as follows: 95°C for 5 minutes; cycle 12 times through 95°C for 30 seconds, 60°C for 45 seconds; finally hold at 60°C for 3 minutes. Following this the supernatant was removed and saved, yielding the captured library. This was purified using a Minelute PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen) using their standard protocol, yielding a final enriched and purified library suspended in 15μ l of EB.

2.6 Quantification and Sequencing

All libraries to be sequenced were pooled together at varying concentrations with the aim of creating a single solution containing approximately 250 pM of DNA post size selection. In general, each library was calculated to ideally produce one million reads for sequencing. Libraries then underwent size selection to decrease the amount of non-target DNA and increase sequencing efficiency. Size selection was carried out on a 2% gel (50 ml agarose/1X TAE with2 μ l EtBr). Loading dye equivalent to 1/5 of the library volume was added and samples were then run through the gel for 30 minutes at 100V. A 50 bp ladder was used for determining band position and size, and the bands from approximately 50 to 150 bp were excised.

The excised gel was then purified using a MinElute Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) following their standard protocol. Purification took place over one column and the size selected library was eluted into 60 μ l of EB buffer. Final pool concentrations prior to sequencing were verified using a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). Sequencing of the first enrichment set was performed on a single lane on an Illumina HiSeq 1500, while the second set took a single lane on an Illumina MiSeq. Illumina Bustard software (MiSeq) or FreeIbis27 (HiSeq) were used to call bases (Renaud *et al.*, 2013).

2.7 Data Processing

Sequences not matching perfectly with one of the expected index combinations were discarded. Index and adapter sequences were removed from the raw reads and paired reads were merged using leeHom with standard aDNA settings (Renaud *et al.*, 2014). Reads shorter than 24 bp were filtered from the analysis with Samtools (Li *et al.*, 2009), with the remaining reads being mapped to the reference exon sequences using BWA (Li & Durbin, 2009). Duplicates with overlapping start and end coordinates were then removed using the Samtools rmdup function, resulting in a single aligned bam file for each sample. The bam files were then imported into Geneious version 9 (Kearse *et al.*, 2012) for assessment by eye of enrichment success. A gene was considered to have been enriched successfully if the mean base coverage was three or more, with no gaps in the consensus. Consensus sequences were called with a 50% threshold. GATK (McKenna *et al.*, 2010; DePristo *et al.*, 2011) was used to call SNP variants in accordance with

the pipeline described in Appendix D.1.

2.8 Alignment and Tree Estimation

2.8.1 Nuclear genes

The consensus sequences of the most successfully enriched genes across the greatest number of species (four) were aligned using MUSCLE with standard parameters (Edgar, 2004). Equivalent genes in the African savannah elephant (*Loxodonta africana*; NC_000934) were used as an outgroup. Ambiguously aligned sites were then removed with Gblocks (Castresana, 2000) using default relaxed settings. Tree estimations were performed both with individual genes and with genes concatenated with 10 N spacers. jModelTest 2 was used to pick an appropriate substitution model using 5 gamma-rate categories (Darriba *et al.*, 2012). For concatenated genes, the model deemed best according to a corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (Hurvich & Tsai, 1989) was GTR+I+G4 with gamma shape parameter (-a 0.809) and proportion of invariant sites (-i 0.270).

A maximum likelihood (ML) tree was generated using PhyML (Guindon & Gascuel, 2003; Guindon *et al.*, 2010) using the parameters obtained from jModelTest. One hundred bootstrap iterations were performed to assess statistical reliability (Pattengale *et al.*, 2010). Bayesian support for these trees was estimated using BEAST 2 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014), with XML files prepared in Beauti. Tip dates for each sample were incorporated and a relaxed molecular clock (Drummond *et al.*, 2006), as suggested in previous studies involving concatenated nuclear loci (Douady & Douzery, 2003; Springer *et al.*, 2003; Delsuc *et al.*, 2004), was used for a constant coalescent population model. Clock values were typical of nuclear DNA (1.0E-12). Data partitioning was automatically performed using the inbuilt RBS package (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014) across three partitions, which is more appropriate than other methods for use in Bayesian inference. No clades were pre–established.

Under these parameters, the model was run for 10 million generations, sampling every thousand generations. After a 10% burn–in, Tracer (Rambaut *et al.*, 2014) was employed to assess convergence, with all parameters having an effective sample size (ESS) of over 200. Treeannotator (Drummond *et al.*, 2012) was used to annotate the tree with greatest clade probability, showing mean node heights. The resulting trees are discussed in Chapter 3.2.

2.8.2 Mitochondrial genomes

Methods for aligning mitochondrial genomes and generating accurate an phylogenetic framework followed a similar methodology as with the nuclear data. The 33 new mitochondrial genomes from the 2015 Gibb et al paper representing all extant Xenarthra were added to those of the dugong (*Dugong dugon*; NC_003314), the African savannah elephant (*Loxodonta africana*; NC_000934), and the aardvark (*Orycteropus afer*; NC_002078), which were used as outgroups. Further, the recently published *Doedicurus clavicaudatus* mitochondrial genome (Delsuc *et al.*, 2016) and seven unpublished mitogenomes for other Xenarthra were also incorporated. These included three Antillean sloth (*Acratocnus, Parocnus, Megalonyx*), *Nothrotheriops, Mylodon listaii*, and two mitogenomes of *Mylodon darwinii*.

The mitogenome sequences were aligned using MUSCLE with standard parameters (Edgar, 2004). Ambiguously aligned sites were then removed by Gblocks (Castresana, 2000) with default relaxed settings, yielding sequences with 14995 sites across 44 taxa. An appropriate set of parameters for phylogenetic reconstruction were investigated with jModelTest. This resulted in using a GTR+I+G4 model of nucleotide substitution, with gamma (-a 0.381) and invariant proportion (-i 0.658). PhyML and BEAST were used for tree generation as in the previous section, and analysed in much the same fashion. One core difference was in the molecular clock rate, which was adjusted to a more appropriate value for mitochondrial DNA (1.0E-9).

Chapter 3

Results and Discussion

3.1 Enrichment

3.1.1 First Enrichment Set

Analyses with preseq (Daley & Smith, 2013) indicated that many of the libraries were of low complexity, with an average of 27.1% of the reads being unique. Furthermore this appeared to account the majority of unique reads with the libraries, with an average estimated exhaustion of 86.5%. Each sample produced on average just 7327 reads that uniquely mapped to any of the reference baits, with a range of values between 0 and 67966, indicating great disparity of enrichment success. Rather than the complete extant phylogeny we had sought, only twenty species generated enough reads to be reliably represented. There did appear to be some distinction in enrichment success based on which enrichment subset they samples were in, as described in Section 2.5. Ancient non-paleofeces specimens met their enrichment targets, as did many of the second modern subset. However, the first and third modern subsets performed much more poorly. A number of the libraries in these subsets are slightly older than those that were more successful.

Some explanations for the wide variation in enrichment success are discussed in Section 3.1.3. However, there are two additional complications that apply only to this first enrichment set. Specifically, the first modern enrichment was performed with ten times the intended concentration of blocker (salmon sperm DNA). This may have inhibited the ability of baits to anneal to target sequences. Additionally, due to a math error all enrichments in this subset were performed with a lower concentration of baits that recommended by protocols which, intuitively, would inhibit targeted enrichment. In light of these errors and the need for more sequence data, a second enrichment was performed.

3.1.2 Second Enrichment Set

Barring differences based on the volumes of library used, the second enrichment generated more useable data than the first. For analyses, the sequence data from the two enrichments were combined together. The full results of the combined enrichment can be found in Appendix E. Twenty eight extant species generated enough reads to be used in phylogenetic analyses, as well as two mylodon. The other ancient species, while slightly improved, still underperformed substantially. Furthermore, only 38 baits generated any level of coverage.

Going forwards, it was decided to focus on optimising the number of species included in analyses over the number of loci used. As such, four genes – ADORA3, BCHE, BRCA1, and TTN – were selected for further examination. These four represented a range of different functions that optimised the balance between having sufficient read coverage for sequence consensus calling and the total number of species accounted for. While there were multiple other genes that could have been incorporated, doing so would have quickly decreased the total number of species that could be investigated as the coverage depth was too shallow for many of them. Mean coverage for each sequences ranged between 249X (TTN, *Cyclopes didactylus*) to 3x (ADORA3, *Chaetophractus vellerosus*).

3.1.3 Variable Success

The wide variation in sequencing success across our genes and samples is curious. Given that all libraries were enriched identically, mostly in concert with one another, and that they had been successfully enriched for mtDNA previously, one would expect similar levels of enrichment success here. Instead we see some baits failing to generate any reads whatsoever, and of the baits that work there are some samples that have vastly different numbers of reads generated. There exist a number of hypotheses that might explain this variation.

One consideration is that the GC content of certain genes may have inhibited their ability to be enriched and to be sequenced, as has been suggested in the literature (Dohm *et al.*, 2008; Clark *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011). As such we investigated the GC content of each gene and the mean base coverage achieved after sequencing. Mean base coverage was normalised by taking the mean coverage across all samples and dividing all means through by the value of the largest mean. Both GC content and normalised mean base coverage were normally distributed. A Spearman's Ranked Rho (-0.77) derived from these two variables indicates there may be a strong negative monotonic relationship between them; that is, generally we observe that as GC content increases, our ability to successfully enrich reads decreases. This conflicts with previous reports that GC content and hybridisation success are positively correlated in genes up to a GC content of around 45%. However, our sample is biased in this regard, as of the 75 genes investigated only 8 of them have a GC content less than 40. The majority have a GC content of higher than 50.

In contrast, the number of reads generated for the mitochondrial genomes in the Gibb etl al (2015) paper was a comparatively poor predictor for nuclear enrichment success. One might imagine that should there be some positive correlation between the successful sequencing of mitochondrial DNA and the sequencing of nuclear DNA, barring well known trends that suggest mtDNA has far greater survivability than nuclear DNA. This did not however hold true. While a few samples in Gibb et al's paper that sequenced comparatively poorly, here meaning less than one million reads generated, corresponded to a low number of reads generated in nuclear genes, there were equally as many that generated huge numbers of mitochondrial reads and essentially no nuclear data.

There is also something to be said for the function of particular genes and our success in enriching them. Genes involved in the development of dentine and enamel, such as AMBN, AMELX, and DMP1, were consistently among the highest performing baits. Likewise signalling genes (ADORA3, ADRB2, GJA10) and those relating to cone and rod cells (CNGB1, PDE6C) generated high coverage across many samples. Meanwhile genes associated with chitin production (CHIA, CHID1, CHIT1) experienced some of the worst enrichment, generating only very few reads. This difference may be due to the evolutionary history of each of these gene families. If several genes are more closely related to one another and bear more similar sequences, then there might be "competition" between different enrichment baits for particular sequences leading to overall lower levels of enrichment for each gene or a biased enrichment for one gene over the over. If instead genes in the same family should be more diverged, or share a function as a result of convergent evolution, then this competitive element will disappear. BLAST results of poorly performing genes indeed show some such similarity when restricted to Xenarthra, but further analysis is required.

It is worth noting that across the two sets of enrichments there is little variability in which samples performed well. Any variation could possibly be explained by experimental errors, and indeed some known errors have been described previously. Where there are large differences between the number of reads generated by each enrichment, it appears to be explained by the lower volumes used in the second enrichment. The overall mixed enrichment results might be a result of long term sample storage and the inevitable damage to sequencing libraries. Libraries that had been re-indexed performed no better or worse than those that were not. Many of the samples had been in cold storage between two and six years. Additionally they had experienced thawing and refreezing over that time due to being moved, amongst other things, which might result in further damage.

3.2 Phylogenetic analysis of nuclear loci

The resulting well supported phylogenetic tree from the nuclear data can be found in Figure 3.1. The overall topology of the tree is in strong agreement with Gibb et al's 2015 mitogenomic framework, here on referred to as the Gibb framework, as well as the topology of other genetic studies (Delsuc *et al.*, 2001; Delsuc *et al.*, 2002; Delsuc *et al.*, 2003; Möller-Krull *et al.*, 2007; Delsuc *et al.*, 2012; Delsuc *et al.*, 2016). There are a number of Dasypodes that have slightly different placement. These differences may be due to fluctuations in the mammalian mitochondrial clock, which would lead to inconsistencies depending on the data used to generate any phylogeny (Nabholz *et al.*, 2009). The Dasypodes also show a node of lower statistical support between *D. hybridus* and *D. septemcinctus*. While all members of the genus appear to be

closely related, it should also be noted that there is almost no distinction between *D. sabanicola* and *D. yepesi*, which may indicate either that their distinct taxonomic classification is in error, or that they may be only recently separated from one another, given their distinct locales (Abba & Superina, 2010), a point echoed by Gibb et al (2015).

The positioning of Mylodon, the only successfully enriched ancient species in these experiments, has had a number of hypotheses tested. Our results agree with the positioning of Mylodon as a sister taxon to two-toed sloths (*Choloepus*), a positioning that is well established (Gaudin, 1995; Hoss *et al.*, 1996; Slater *et al.*, 2016). The absence of nuclear loci for other ancient species in these analysis makes it difficult to corroborate our framework with morphological studies that place the Mylodontidae as sister to all other Megatherids (Gaudin, 2004; Farina *et al.*, 2013), but this is addressed somewhat more thoroughly with the incorporation of additional ancient mitogenomes.

Branch lengths are quite heterogeneous across clades and show a wide range of evolutionary rates. Dasypodes in particular show this high variation. Three-toed and two-toed sloths show a clear divergence from one another, and the categorising of Cyclopodidae as it's own single species clade is supported by the deep divergence between them and the Myrmecophages. In three toed sloths we see that the maned sloth *Bradypus torquatus* forms a sister group to the three other Bradypodes, a distinction that has some literature support (Barros *et al.*, 2003). There have been suggestions that it be placed in a genus of its own (*Scaeopus*) to represent its distinctiveness (Barros *et al.*, 2008; Gibb *et al.*, 2016), which makes implications for conservation given its scarcity in the wild (Superina *et al.*, 2010). The same holds for the also endangered *Bradypus pygmaeus*, so named for its realtively small body size.

In short, we see strong evidence to support Mylodontidae as a sister taxon to two-toed sloths. This new nuclear framework representing all genera within Xenarthra is highly congruent with the Gibb framework, and makes similar suggestions in terms of rates of evolution across all clades. The unfortunate lack of success in enriching naked tailed armadillos (*Cabassous*) prevents further resolution of this genera, which is a long standing problem (Gaudin & Wible, 2011; Delsuc *et al.*, 2002), and there are some disagreements amongst the Dasypodes that are likely explained by their rapid



Figure 3.1: Phylogenetic relationships of 27 extant xenarthran species and 1 ancient species. Consensus tree obtained using PhyML and BEAST2. Values at nodes indicate maximum-likelihood bootstrap percentages (BP) obtained under the optimal model. Nodes with a score of 100 all had a Bayesian posterior probability of 1 as well. The outgroup, *Loxodonta africana*, is not shown.

evolution. We also note that nuclear data confirms the paraphyly of *Chaetophractus* suggested in the Gibb framework. In this same genus, there is little distinction between C. nationi and C. vellerosus; collapsing these as one genus might reasonably resolve this paraphyly.

3.3 Phylogenetic analysis of mitochondrial genomes

The ultrametric tree (Figure 3.2) gives approximate divergences in agreements with Gibb et al 2015 and Delsuc et al 2016, which is to be expected. When scaled to fit a chronogram as in Figure 3.3, we see divergence times matching that of the Gibb framework within the margin of error (Gibb *et al.*, 2016). The overall topology of the tree is uncontroversial, and many modern species tell much the same story as the nuclear data. *B. torquatus* appears long diverged from other Bradypodes; *C. didactylus* is likewise anciently diverged from other anteaters. In the modern armadillo species we observe an early divergence between *D. kappleri* and other Dasypodes, before the other members of that group rapidly evolve. The Euphractinae also show periods of rapid evolution, resulting in the paraphyly of the *Chaetophractus* genus. In all, these observations are well corroborated with the Gibb framework.

When investigating the placement of ancient species we see more controversial results. Firstly the ancient glytpdodon *Doedicurus* is placed more in line with (Gaudin & Wible, 2011) and (Billet *et al.*, 2011) as a sister taxon to the Euphractinae, which are based on morphological data. This stands in contrast to the Gibb framework, which places *Doedicurus* as most closely related to the Chlamyphorinae rather than the Euphractinae. It does however reconfirm that glyptodonts formed a group within armadillos and were not a sister taxon distinct from modern armadillos. Placing them within armadillo crown group implies their giant size is a derived feature.

The two nodes following the split in Chlamyphoridae have comparatively low posterior support, at 0.61 and 0.65. This may be indicate that the placement of *Doedicurus* next to Euphractinae is not necessarily the correct placement. Delsuc et al



Figure 3.2: Phylogenetic relationships of all extant xenarthran species and 8 extinct species. Ultrametric consensus tree obtained using PhyML and BEAST2. Values at nodes indicate posterior value obtained under the optimal model. High posterior values (<0.97) are rounded up to 1. The outgroup, *Loxodonta africana*, is not shown.

(2016) received stronger support for their placement of *Doedicurus* as a sister to the Chlamyphorinae, though both indicate similar divergence times and this placement is more congruent with recent morphological investigations (Billet *et al.*, 2011). This distinction may be a result of differing partition schemes (Kainer & Lanfear, 2015); Delsuc et al utilised PartionFinder (Lanfear *et al.*, 2012), which is not always optimal for Bayesian analyses on small data sets.

Perhaps most interesting are the positioning of the ancient sloth species. Mylodontidae is again places as a sister taxon alongside two-toed sloths, as before (Hoss *et al.*, 1996; Slater *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore there is very little to distinguish *M. listaii* from *M. darwinii*. The two Antillean sloths, *Acratocnus* and *Parocnus* are grouped as sister taxa, closely related to the other Megalonychid, *Megalonyx*. The placing of *Nothrotheriops* as a sister species to *Megalonyx* is however more curious. This positioning is in agreement with morphological data (Gaudin, 2004; Farina *et al.*, 2013) that places three-toed sloth as a sister group to all other species of sloth. This would also support the placement of *Nothrotheriops* closer to *Megalonyx* than the other



Figure 3.3: Chronogram from all extant Xenarthra and 8 extinct species. Created using the ape, strap, phyloch, and OutbreakTools in R. Scaled from tree in Figure 3.2. Major divergences in the overall phylogeny are very similar to those in the Gibb et al (2015) mitogenome paper.

Megalonychids. It does however conflict with recent limited retrovirus data (Slater *et al.*, 2016) that argues Bradypodidae and Nothrotheriidae are in fact sister taxa. That said, the retroviral analysis is based on a much smaller number of Xenarthran species (5), and may represent a divergence of host/virus phylogeny, evidenced by the fact the authors suggest numerous repeated infections to explain their tree.

The trees presented here could perhaps be improved by better calibrating the tree– building methods used. For example, the split between the Afrotheria outgroup and Xenarthra occurs much approximately 10 million years more recently than has been suggested in elsewhere (Hallström *et al.*, 2007). As such the mitochondrial trees may likely require further analysis and refinement.

Chapter 4

Concluding Remarks

Here we present an increase in nuclear DNA across the majority of extant Xenarthra, as well as a number of mitogenomes for extinct species. With this new data we have examined the evolutionary history and relationships of Xenarthra. Our analyses provide strong support for the phylogenetic framework proposed by Gibb et al (2015), showing a strong corroboration between both nuclear and mitochondrial genetic phylogenies.

With regard to the newly incorporated ancient species, certain parts of our proposed phylogeny have mixed evidence from the literature, but receive strong posterior support nonetheless. In particular, the positioning of Nothrotheriops has repeatedly experienced poorer resolution compared to other groups (Greenwood *et al.*, 2001; Slater *et al.*, 2016) Some inconsistencies across trees could be resolved by focusing only on non-neutral loci and by using both mitochondrial and nuclear loci simultaneously in analyses, though this was hampered by the mixed enrichment success of our DNA libraries. We attribute this variable success to enrichment inhibition caused by high GC content of some baits, as well as exhaustion and damage long term storage to some libraries.

This increase in genetic data marks a step forwards for resolution of the Xenarthran phylogeny. There is room for analyses of more nuclear loci that experienced lower enrichment success in these experiments. Further enrichment attempts of ancient Xenarthran species will allow for better calibration of clades that have proven difficult to consistently resolve. Future studies focusing on phylogeography of Xenarthrans will benefit from this work. Perhaps most importantly, better understanding of these difficult to study organisms and their relation to each other will enable informed conservation decisions to be made, as both the genetic and morphological diversity of the clade becomes more evident.

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Appendix A

Abbreviations

- AIC: Akaike Information Criteria
- DNA: Deoxyribonucleic Acid
- dNTP: Deoxynucleotide Triphosphate
- dsDNA: Double Stranded DNA
- DTT: Dithiothreitol
- EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic Acid
- ESS: Effective sample size
- GATK: Genome Analysis ToolKit
- ML: Maximum Likelihood
- PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction
- PTB: N-phenacyl thiazolium bromide
- PVP: Polyvinylpyrrolidone
- ssDNA: Single Stranded DNA
- TE: Tris–EDTA

Appendix B

True Enrichment Volumes

As discussed in the methods section, there were limited quantities of library available for the second enrichment set. As such, it was not possible to use the desired 5μ l of library for every library. Here are the true volumes used in each enrichment. Values of 0.01 indicate that the volume was so low as to essentially be zero.

Samples	uL used	Samples	uL used
AnX18	3.45	Mod21	5
AnX25	4.72	Mod22	5
AnX32	3.46	Mod23	2.34
AnBlkX1	4.72	Mod24	5
Mod02	1.61	Mod25	5
Mod03	5	Mod26	2.87
Mod04	3.72	Mod27	5
Mod06	4.68	Mod28	0.01
Mod07	4.34	Mod29	0.9
Mod08	5	Mod30	5
Mod09	5	MoL32	3.28
Mod10	5	MoL33	1.45
Mod11	1.4	MoL34	5
Mod12	2.63	MoL35	5
Mod13	1.36	MoL36	5
Mod14	5	MoL37	5
Mod15	5	MoL38	2.96
Mod16	5	MoL40	2.48
Mod17	5	MoL41	1.85
Mod18	5	MoL42	3.3
Mod19	0.01	MBlk1	5
Mod20	5		

Appendix C

Primer Combinations

Detailed here are the indexing primer combinations used in the sequencing of each sample. The library name can be cross referenced to the species as given in tables 2.1 and 2.2. As described in the Methods chapeter, all indexes are sourced from (Meyer & Kircher, 2010).
Library #	R index (i7)			F index (i5)		for Illumina
	Index #	Sequence (5' to 3')	Reverse complement	Index #	Sequence (5' to 3')	input file
An016	9	AGTTGGT	ACCAACT	4	TTGATCC	ACCAACT-TTGATCC
An028	10	GTACCGG	CCGGTAC	5	ATCTTGC	CCGGTAC-ATCTTGC
An054	22	CCAATGC	GCATTGG	17	GGTACCT	GCATTGG-GGTACCT
An058	24	CATATTG	CAATATG	19	GAGATTC	CAATATG-GAGATTC
An067	30	GCGGCAT	ATGCCGC	25	GACGTCA	ATGCCGC-GACGTCA
An069	32	TACTATT	AATAGTA	27	GTAATTG	AATAGTA-GTAATTG
AnX18	40	TTGCGAA	TTCGCAA	35	CGGTTCT	TTCGCAA-CGGTTCT
AnX25	45	ACCTGCT	AGCAGGT	40	TTGCGAA	AGCAGGT-TTGCGAA
AnX32	46	CCGGTAC	GTACCGG	41	TTGAATT	GTACCGG-TTGAATT
AnBX1	9	AGTTGGT	ACCAACT	50	TCTAGTT	ACCAACT-TCTAGTT
Mod01	2	CCTGCGA	TCGCAGG	P5	TCTTTCC	TCGCAGG-TCTTTCC
Mod02	3	ACCTAGG	CCTAGGT	P5	TCTTTCC	CCTAGGT-TCTTTCC
Mod03	4	TTGATCC	GGATCAA	P5	TCTTTCC	CCTAGGT-TCTTTCC
Mod04	5	ATCTTGC	GCAAGAT	P5	TCTTTCC	GGATCAA-TCTTTCC
Mod05	6	TCTCCAT	ATGGAGA	P5	TCTTTCC	GCAAGAT-TCTTTCC
Mod06	7	CATCGAG	CTCGATG	P5	TCTTTCC	ATGGAGA-TCTTTCC
Mod07	8	TTCGAGC	GCTCGAA	P5	TCTTTCC	CTCGATG-TCTTTCC
Mod08	9	AGTTGGT	ACCAACT	P5	TCTTTCC	GCTCGAA-TCTTTCC
Mod09	10	GTACCGG	CCGGTAC	P5	TCTTTCC	ACCAACT-TCTTTCC
Mod10	11	CGGAGTT	AACTCCG	P5	TCTTTCC	CCGGTAC-TCTTTCC
Mod11	12	ACTTCAA	TTGAAGT	P5	TCTTTCC	TTGAAGT-TCTTTCC
Mod12	13	TGATAGT	ACTATCA	P5	TCTTTCC	ACTATCA-TCTTTCC
Mod13	14	GATCCAA	TTGGATC	P5	TCTTTCC	TTGGATC-TCTTTCC
Mod14	15	CAGGTCG	CGACCTG	P5	TCTTTCC	CGACCTG-TCTTTCC
Mod15	16	CGCATTA	TAATGCG	P5	TCTTTCC	TAATGCG-TCTTTCC
Mod16	17	GGTACCT	AGGTACC	P5	TCTTTCC	AGGTACC-TCTTTCC
Mod17	18	GGACGCA	TGCGTCC	P5	TCTTTCC	TGCGTCC-TCTTTCC
Mod18	19	GAGATTC	GAATCTC	P5	TCTTTCC	GAATCTC-TCTTTCC
Mod19	20	GAGCATG	CATGCTC	P5	TCTTTCC	CATGCTC-TCTTTCC
Mod20	21	GTTGCGT	ACGCAAC	P5	TCTTTCC	ACGCAAC-TCTTTCC
Mod21	22	CCAATGC	GCATTGG	P5	TCTTTCC	GCATTGG-TCTTTCC
Mod22	23	CGAGATC	GATCTCG	P5	TCTTTCC	GATCTCG-TCTTTCC
Mod23	24	CATATTG	CAATATG	P5	TCTTTCC	CAATATG-TCTTTCC
Mod24	25	GACGTCA	TGACGTC	P5	TCTTTCC	TGACGTC-TCTTTCC
Mod25	26	TGGCATC	GATGCCA	P5	TCTTTCC	GATGCCA-TCTTTCC
Mod26	27	GTAATTG	CAATTAC	P5	TCTTTCC	CAATTAC-TCTTTCC
MoL27	6	TCTCCAT	ATGGAGA	2	TGCAGAG	ATGGAGA-TGCAGAG
MoL28	7	CATCGAG	CTCGATG	3	ACCTAGG	CTCGATG-ACCTAGG
MoL29	9	AGTTGGT	ACCAACT	5	ATCTTGC	ACCAACT-ATCTTGC
MoL30	10	GTACCGG	CCGGTAC	6	TCTCCAT	CCGGTAC-TCTCCAT
MoL31	12	ACTTCAA	TTGAAGT	8	TTCGAGC	TTGAAGT-TTCGAGC
MoL32	13	TGATAGT	ACTATCA	9	AGTTGGT	ACTATCA-AGTTGGT
MoL33	14	GATCCAA	TTGGATC	10	GTACCGG	TTGGATC-GTACCGG
MoL34	15	CAGGTCG	CGACCTG	11	CGGAGTT	CGACCTG-CGGAGTT
MoL35	16	CGCATTA	TAATGCG	12	ACTTCAA	TAATGCG-ACTTCAA
MoL36	17	GGTACCT	AGGTACC	13	TGATAGT	AGGTACC-TGATAGT
MoL37	18	GGACGCA	TGCGTCC	14	GATCCAA	TGCGTCC-GATCCAA
MoL38	19	GAGATTC	GAATCTC	15	CAGGTCG	GAATCTC-CAGGTCG
MoL39	20	GAGCATG	CATGCTC	16	CGCATTA	CATGCTC-CGCATTA
MoL40	21	GTTGCGT	ACGCAAC	17	GGTACCT	ACGCAAC-GGTACCT
MoL41	23	CGAGATC	GATCTCG	19	GAGATTC	GATCTCG-GAGATTC
MoL42	24	CATATTG	CAATATG	20	GAGCATG	CAATATG-GAGCATG
ModB1	8	TTCGAGC	GCTCGAA	4	TIGATCC	GCTCGAA-TTGATCC
1				1	1	

Appendix D

Scripts and code

D.1 GATK

The Genome Analysis ToolKit (GATK) was used for SNP variant calling in the aligned nuclear sequences. This workflow begins with a fasta reference and the bam files generated by the data processing pipeline described in chapter 2.7. Here the reference is named reference.fasta, which was represented by the complete bait set, and the initial bam file is named sorted.bam.

Create sequence dictionary: > java - jar /bin/picard-tools-1.8.5/CreateSequenceDictionary.jar REFERENCE=reference.fasta OUTPUT=reference.dict

Create sequence index: > samtools faidx reference.fasta

 $\label{eq:Markduplicates:} Markduplicates: > java - jar / bin/picard-tools-version/MarkDuplicates.jar I=sorted.bam \\ O=dedup.bam \ METRICS_FILE=metrics.txt$

Sort bam file: > java - jar /bin/picard-tools-version/BuildBamIndex.jar INPUT=dedup.bam

Create realignment targets: > java -jar /bin/GATK3.3/GenomeAnalysisTK.jar -T RealignerTargetCreator -R reference.fasta -I dedup.bam -o targetintervals.list

Indel realignment: > java -jar /bin/GATK3.3/GenomeAnalysisTK.jar -T IndelRe-

aligner - R $\rm PA01.fasta$ -I dedup.bam -targetIntervals targetintervals.list -o realigned.bam

Call variants (HaplotypeCaller): > java -jar /bin/GATK3.3/GenomeAnalysisTK.jar -T HaplotypeCaller -R reference.fasta -I realigned.bam -ploidy 1 -stand_call_conf 30 -stand_emit_conf 10 -o raw.vcf

Appendix E

Enrichment Results

The following table shows the mean base coverage for every sample across every loci of interest. Only the combined results are shown; that is, those from both the first and second enrichment sets, rather than each individually. Values represent the mean base coverage achieved from sequencing a given locus. Blanks are not included, as very few sequences mapped and those that did had a very poor mapping quality, resulting in no reads that could be further utilised.

Library	Species	ADORA3	ADRA2B	ADRB2	AMBN	AMELX	AMTN
An016	Mylodon	4.7	0.1	0.5	3.1	4.1	0.4
An028	Glyptodon doedicurus	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
An054	Parocnus	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	Acratocnus	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	Mylodon	1.6	0.1	0.5	0.9	0.6	0
An069	Megalonyx	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	Pilosa	0	0.1	0	0	0	0
AnX25	Pilosa	0	0.1	0	0	0.1	0
AnX32	Megatheriidae	0	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0
Mod01	Dasypus novemcinctus	5.1	0	0.6	0.8	2	0.3
Mod02	Dasypus kappleri	12.7	0.5	25.8	3.9	5.8	1.1
Mod03	Dasypus pilosus	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	Dasypus septemcinctus	9.9	0.5	9.9	3.3	12.8	1
Mod05	Chlamyphorus truncatus	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	Chaetophractus villosus	1.3	0.7	4.5	6.7	2.7	0.1
Mod07	Chaetophractus vellerosus	3	0.1	6	1.9	4.2	0.1
Mod08	Euphractus sexcinctus	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod09	Zaedyus pichiy	10	0.2	44.5	30.9	31.3	0.1
Mod10	Cabassous unicinctus	13.5	10.4	45.1	27.5	73.4	0.1
Mod11	Cabassous unicinctus	0	1.4	0	0	0	0
Mod12	Cabassous chacoensis	0.7	1.3	1.4	1	2.5	0
Mod13	Priodontes maximus	3.5	1.2	14.1	5.2	36.7	0
Mod14	Tolypeutes matacus	3.4	1.7	10.7	1	0.7	0
Mod15	Cyclopes didactylus	177.1	6.5	73.4	0.1	43.7	0
Mod16	Myrmecophaga tridactyla	0	0	0.1	0	0	0
Mod17	Tamandua mexicana	66.5	0.1	19.3	0.1	53.4	0
Mod18	Bradypus tridactylus	52.4	4.8	72.3	13.5	34.5	0
Mod19	Bradypus variegatus	6.6	0.3	2.2	0.2	1.1	0
Mod20	Choloepus hoffmanni	48.3	1.85	16.2	13.5	21.5	4.4
Mod21	Choloepus didactylus	141.1	1.2	33.9	29.6	33	2.2
Mod22	Myrmecophaga tridactyla	26.3	1.9	18.3	0.1	10.1	0
Mod23	Chaetophractus nationi	1.4	0.1	4.3	3.5	10.1	0
Mod24	Dasypus vepesi	9.9	1	4	1.5	3.5	0.1
Mod25	Calvptophractus retusus	8.19	1	13.7	4.9	7.2	0.1
Mod26	Dasypus pilosus	0.1	0.1	1.2	13.5	1.1	0.1
MoL27	Dasypus hybridus	2.9	0.4	1.8	1.4	2.2	0.5
MoL28	Cabassous centralis	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.2	3.7	0
MoL29	Dasypus pilosus	20.9	0.5	14	12	12.5	1.4
MoL30	Dasypus pilosus	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.1
MoL31	Dasypus pilosus	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL32	Bradypus pygmaeus	57.3	1.2	42	17	48	0
MoL33	Dasypus sabanicola	125	1.6	42	29	18	2.9
MoL34	Bradypus torquatus	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL35	Dasypus hybridus	15	0.5	3.9	5.7	13	1.3
MoL36	Dasypus hybridus	11.8	0.2	4.8	4.4	6.5	1.2
MoL37	Dasypus hybridus	69	0.9	19	21	16	1.9
MoL38	Dasypus hybridus	43	0.4	13	15	5	2
MoL39	Cabassous tatouav	0.2	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
MoL40	Tamandua tetradactvla	51	0.2	17	0	29	0
MoL41	Bradypus torquatus	147	1.7	32	8.6	28	0
MoL42	Tolypeutes tricinctus	5.4	0.4	7.5	0.8	0	0

Library	APOR	ASIP	ATP74	BCHF	BDNF	BBC 41	BBCA2	C4orf26
An016	5.3	0	61	1.0	3.1	26	15	7.5
An010	0.0	0	0.1	0.3	0.1	20 0.1	0.2	0.3
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
An067	2.9	0.1	1.6	6.7	1.2	13	$5.1 \\ 5.2$	3
An069	$\frac{2.5}{0.1}$	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0.1
AnX25	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
AnX32	0	Ő	Ő	0	0	0.1	0	0
Mod01	8.1	0	4.3	12.5	1.3	13.6	11.8	4.2
Mod02	17.7	0	3.5	21.2	6.8	27.7	11.8	13.1
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	20.9	0.1	21.7	23.9	12.6	15.6	16.6	19
Mod05	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	4.5	0	3.2	11.2	7.2	15.2	1.3	2.2
Mod07	4.7	0	2.6	25.9	16.3	18	2	0.4
Mod08	0	0	0	0	0	0.9	0	0
Mod09	13.3	0.1	7.5	47.9	63.6	37.9	3.8	20.9
Mod10	15.5	0	31.2	121.8	15.5	95.9	6.8	17.5
Mod11	1.6	0	0	0	0	12.9	0	0
Mod12	1.4	0	1.1	5.1	2	4.4	0.7	1.3
Mod13	18.5	0	24.9	59.1	13.2	94.3	5.6	8.3
Mod14	5.8	0	5.7	27.2	6.8	23.9	3.9	3.2
Mod15	129.4	0.1	144.8	247.8	63.3	167.5	131.6	0.1
Mod16	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
Mod17	105.7	0	88.8	11.5	38.7	147.5	111.3	0.6
Mod18	56.9	2.4	53.4	56.5	43.8	33.9	44.4	41.8
Mod19	7.3	0	1.5	13.9	2.7	13.8	12.4	5.8
Mod20	42.2	2.8	25.86	51	22.4	45.5	44.2	39.9
Mod21	97	4.3	59.6	67.9	35.2	42.8	105	0
Mod22	46.6	0.4	14.5	31.8	25.4	24	27.6	0.1
Mod23	2.2	0	3.6	8.8	5	10.6	2.2	1.6
Mod24	6.5	0.7	2.5	6.9	4.8	7.2	5.5	4.7
Mod25	17.3	0	23	48.9	10.1	16.5	44	6.9
Mod26	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.3	3.9	2.2	0.1	0.8
MoL27	4.5	0.1	4	4	3	4.9	4.7	5.5
MoL28	1.3	0	1.7	6.6 70	0.9	10.3	1.6	2.1
MoL29	51	0.1	54 0.0	79	18	71.7	74	93
MoL30	0.3	0	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.6
MoL31	0	0	0	U 190	0	0.1	U 190	0
MoL32 MoL32	155	0.5	30 75	138	44 46	87.2	138	88 52
MoL33	142	1.1	() 0	197	40	113	141	ექ ი
MoL34	U 1C	0	U 1C	U 91	0.2	0	0	U 14
MoL35	10 19	0.9	10 C	ঠ1 ১০	U.3 E.C	<u>ა</u> გ ეე	27 21	14 11
MoL36 Mal 27	13 79	2.1	0 07	22 194	0.0 00	22 149	21 120	11 20
MoL37	18 19	0.7	81 57	134 75	22	143 F2	130 79	39 41
MoL38 MoL20	48	0.7	01	() 1 F	14	ეკ ე_4	(Z	41
MoL39 Mal40	0.1	0	U.1 FF	1.0	U.I 10	2.4 97	U.J F2	U.1 11
MoL40 MoL41	07 155	0	00 111	08 185	18 20	07 160	つろ 110	11 102
MoL41 MoL49	100 7-9	0	111 6 9	160 //1	อบ 11	100 91	119 9-1	103 17
10101142	1.4	0	0.4	41	11	<u>4</u> 1	∠.⊥	1.1

Library	CHIA	CHID1	CHIT1	CLOCK	CNGA1	CNGA3	CNGB1	CNGB3
An016	0.1	3.3	0.1	106	12	0.2	0.1	14
An028	0	0	0	1.6	0.2	0	0	0.2
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	0.1	0.7	0	17	4	0	0.1	5.2
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
AnX25	0	0.1	0	0.1	0	0	0	0
AnX32	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0.4
Mod01	0.2	0	0	2.4	6.5	0	0	8.5
Mod02	0.7	0.1	0.3	2.7	13.7	1	0	6.4
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	2.7	0.6	0.4	5.7	16.3	0.6	0.9	16
Mod05	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	0.6	0.4	0	0.4	8	0.8	0.4	2.5
Mod07	0.4	0	0.2	1.7	10	0.3	0.3	9.6
Mod08	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod09	9	0.1	1.2	4.7	22.1	1.7	4.5	7.7
Mod10	6.6	4.8	1.4	17.3	82.1	1	2.5	22.4
Mod11	0	0.1	0	0.8	9	0	0	3.7
Mod12	1.2	0	0.2	0.7	6.6	0.4	0.2	0.5
Mod13	1.4	0.1	0.5	13.8	32	1.7	1.6	13.2
Mod14	1.7	0.1	0.4	6.3	14.2	0.9	0.6	7.1
Mod15	1.4	0.1	0.1	54	89.9	0.1	0.4	96.7
Mod16	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1
Mod17	0.1	0	0	12	35.7	0.1	0.9	8.5
Mod18	1.1	0.3	2.6	8.1	45.8	42.1	0.5	45.6
Mod19	0	0	0	1.86	5.2	3.2	0.1	6
Mod20	4.5	8.4	7.6	33.2	35.78	8.1	0.4	47.2
Mod21	3.2	6.3	11.8	42	125	11.9	0.5	155
Mod22	0.1	0	0.1	8.2	13.2	0.4	0.1	8.5
Mod23	0.1	0	0.3	0.7	6.4	0.1	0.1	4.5
Mod24	1.2	0.8	0.2	2.1	5.2	0.5	0.6	9
Mod25	0	2.5	0.3	27	26	0.9	1.3	21.7
Mod26	0.1	0.1	0.1	2.9	1.4	0.1	0.1	155
MoL27	0.9	0.1	0.1	2.8	3.1	0.1	0.1	6.4
MoL28	0.3	0.1	0.1	6.4	8.1	0.2	0.1	2.2
MoL29	2.7	0.4	0.5	94	47	1	0.88	53
MoL30	0.3	0	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.1	0.1	3.6
MoL31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL32	0	0.1	0.2	26	89	19	0.1	88.9
MoL33	6.8	1.1	0.8	41	125	1.8	2.7	166
MoL34	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0
MoL35	1.3	1	0.2	29	17	0.6	1	24
MoL36	1.8	1.4	0.1	17	14	1.1	1.1	15
MoL37	3.7	2.2	0.2	44	76.5	0.5	1.7	54
MoL38	2.8	1.3	0.3	27	48	0.1	1.2	26
MoL39	0	0	0	1.9	0.9	0	0	0.2
MoL40	0.1	0.1	0	11	21	0.6	0.1	14
MoL41	0.2	0	9.1	20	131	7	0.1	127
MoL42	0.5	0	0.3	4.3	18.8	0.2	0.1	11

Library	CNR1	CRB1	DMP1	DSPP	ENAM	FGF5	GHR	GJA10
An016	0.2	2.96.4	37	51.9	8	20	1.9	2.6
An028	0	0.1	0.6	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	0.1	1.1	11.5	13.9	34.2	5.4	12.8	1
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0	0	0
AnX25	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1
AnX32	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0	0	0
Mod01	0.6	2.7	12	23.8	5	0.9	5.2	0.1
Mod02	5.3	9.7	14.4	17	16.9	5.2	12.8	1.6
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0
Mod04	7.2	12.8	15.4	20	13.2	6.4	13.8	1.2
Mod05	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0
Mod06	4	3.8	15.4	14.9	15.1	3.8	4.7	0.1
Mod07	5.3	5.4	18.7	11.3	9.3	6.2	5.1	0.1
Mod08	0	0.3	0.5	1.7	0.5	0	0	0
Mod09	34	14.1	79.2	37.9	59.5	15.1	20.3	0.1
Mod10	12.7	14.6	94.5	70.7	42.3	14.2	18.1	0.4
Mod11	0	0	15.4	16.5	42.3	0.8	1.6	0.2
Mod12	1.5	1.1	4.1	3.8	1.6	1.7	2.5	0.1
Mod13	8.8	7.3	88.8	135.6	49.9	12.1	19.3	0.6
Mod14	7.4	4.1	19	26.1	16.2	8.9	5.1	0
Mod15	41.7	14.9	208.3	5.6	84.5	70.5	72.7	0.1
Mod16	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0.1
Mod17	19.7	6	84.4	76	16.7	37.96	53.9	0
Mod18	26.7	20.9	60	75.6	38.1	49.9	37.6	28.6
Mod19	1.7	1.6	17.9	19.2	14.3	1.2	1.8	1.2
Mod20	14.2	27.5	30.4	53.4	34.2	30.6	329.6	40
Mod21	25.4	70	152	235	68.7	70	52	45
Mod22	17.9	3.7	38.5	24.8	29.9	17.3	27.1	0.1
Mod23	2.9	3.2	9.6	10.9	3.1	4.6	5.6	0
Mod24	2.4	4	54	74	3.2	2.3	3.6	07
Mod25	89	11.9	43	43.8	18.7	12	11 4	1.5
Mod26	0.1	0.1	2.6	13	16	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL27	14	3.2	3.6	3.3	3.2	19	2.7	$0.1 \\ 0.5$
MoL28	0.7	0.8	8.4	15.4	2	1.5	0.7	0.0
MoL29	9.3	29	50	42	- 29	14	33	2
MoL30	0.3	0.3	04	0.7	04	0.2	0.6	01
MoL31	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1
MoL32	28	41	71	123	81	60	72	51
MoL33	30	88	60	120 68	38	28	78	2.0
MoL34	0.1	0	00	00	0.1	0	0	0
MoL35	0.1 2 A	7	34	48	16	85	11	0.4
MoL36	2.4	87	18	40 94	10	5.7	10	0.4
MoI 37	71	3/	101	<u>⊿</u> 161	21 21	10.6	38	0.1 9
Mol 38	8	94 94	26	54	97	17.0	26	 1 3
MoI 20	0.1	24 01	$\frac{20}{1.7}$	37	03	0.1	20 0.2	1.5 0
MoI 40	0.1	1	1.1 49	5.1 77	64.8	15	0.⊿ 31	0
MoI 41	9.9 19	ч 20.7	ч <i>2</i> 64	266	50 50	10 62	40	70
MoL49	$\frac{12}{37}$	29.1 5.8	04 91	200	18	02 7 3	14	-+ <i>3</i> ()
11101142	0.1	0.0		40	10	1.0	1.T	0

Library	GNAT1	GNAT2	GNB1	GNB3	GNGT1	GNGT2	GRK1	GRK7
An016	0.8	9.2	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.1	0.1	4.3
An028	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	0.2	1.1	0	0	8.5	0.1	0.1	2.5
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
AnX25	0.7	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0.1
AnX32	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod01	0	0	0	0	2	0	1.2	8.1
Mod02	0.4	5.2	0.6	2.5	1.5	0.7	2.7	12.2
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	1.1	12	1.3	0	0	1.6	0	0
Mod05	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	0.5	0.5	0.1	1	1.3	0.3	1.4	0.3
Mod07	0.1	2.4	0.1	0.3	3.4	0	1.6	0.2
Mod08	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod09	2.4	8.7	2.5	3.4	10.4	1.1	10	1.2
Mod10	6.2	8.3	1.7	3.1	16.3	6.9	17.7	1.6
Mod11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.8	0
Mod12	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.6	1	0	0.7	0.1
Mod13	1.6	12.5	0.3	0.8	4.8	0.8	8.6	2.8
Mod14	0.1	3.4	0.1	0.2	3.3	0	4.6	1.3
Mod15	0.9	32.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0	6.4	0.1
Mod16	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0.1	0
Mod17	0.1	18.6	0	0.1	4.6	0	1	0.2
Mod18	7	64.5	3	1.4	10.9	1.4	11.6	19
Mod19	0.1	1.2	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.2
Mod20	1.8	28.5	1.2	1.4	15.2	5.2	9.8	32.2
Mod21	3.3	62	1	0.7	19.7	6.2	16.5	66
Mod22	1	9.2	0.4	0.3	1.8	0	1.8	0.2
Mod23	0	0.9	0.1	0	0	0	0.8	0.3
Mod24	1.5	4.6	0.8	0.5	1.7	4.2	1.7	4.4
Mod25	1.4	8.1	1.3	0.4	11	6	9.5	3.9
Mod26	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL27	0.2	2.7	0.2	0.1	1.5	0.6	1.1	3.2
MoL28	0.1	1.4	0.2	0	1.1	0	0.7	1
MoL29	0.6	29	1.2	0.3	18	18	7	46
MoL30	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.9
MoL31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL32	2.2	53	1	0.2	5.1	1.8	8.8	38
MoL33	1.6	65 0	3.3	1.5	28	4.2	24	58
MoL34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL35	1	10	1	0.3	26	3	0.1	13
MoL36	1.3	7.5	1.7	0.5	21	2.3	5.8	10.7
MoL37	1.0	23	1.0	0.8	58 20	9	18	50 91
MoL38	0.7	22	1.5	0.7	32	2.3	11	31
MoL39	0	0.2	0.1	0	U.4	U	0.1	0.1
MoL40	U./ 1.9	10 62	0.2	0.1	0.8 10 5	U	0.9	0.06
MoL41	1.3	03 0.0	0.7	34 0.1	10.5	0.0	9	26
MoL42	0.2	2.2	U	0.1	2.3	U	3.4	0.7

Library	GUCA1A	GUCA1B	GUCY2D	GUCY2F	HR	IBSP	LWS	MC1R
An016	0.1	0.1	0.1	21.5	1	10	2	0.4
An028	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.1
An067	0.3	0	0.1	1.9	1.2	3.2	0.8	0.1
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0
AnX25	0	0	0.1	0.2	0	0.9	0	0
AnX32	0	0	0	0.4	0	0.3	0	0
Mod01	0	0	0	4.2	0	3.3	0	0.4
Mod02	0.4	0.7	0.2	5.8	0.3	5.6	2.1	1
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	1.4	0	0	9	0	0	0	1.3
Mod05	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	1.2	0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.6	0	0.1
Mod07	0.1	2.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0	0.2
Mod08	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod09	3.2	15.2	1.3	2.3	0.7	3.1	0.4	0.2
Mod10	3.4	0.5	1.4	4.1	1	4.6	2.6	0
Mod11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod12	0.1	0	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.5	0	0.2
Mod13	1.1	1.1	0.4	5.2	0.4	3.3	0.4	0.2
Mod14	0.7	0.2	0.3	3.8	0.8	1	0.5	0
Mod15	0.1	4.1	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Mod16	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0
Mod17	ů 0	0	0.2	1.2	0.1	Ő	0.1	0
Mod18	2.4	2.6	0.9	15.4	1.4	10.5	16.4	8.3
Mod19	0	0.4	0.1	3.4	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.1
Mod20	9.3	2.4	0.7	19	3.7	30	7.4	3.8
Mod21	2	12.4	1	37	2.5	90	19.2	7.8
Mod22	0	0	0.3	1.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Mod23	0.2	0	0.1	1	0.1	0.1	0	0
Mod24	1.1	1.6	0.4	2.6	0.2	3.3	0.1	2
Mod25	0.5	0.7	0.4	7.6	5	7.6	0.3	0.1
Mod26	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL27	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.7	0.1	2.9	0.4	0.1
MoL28	0	0	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.8	0	0
MoL29	0.7	3.2	0.1	21	0.1	21	0.5	2.1
MoL30	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
MoL31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL32	14	13	02	59	44	197	11.9	б б
MoL33	2.3	6.1	0.6	68	0.5	50	0.8	20
MoL34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MoL35	0.2	0.8	0.1	22	0.2	14	0.2	1.2
MoL36	0.6	0.1	0.2	7	0.1	12	0.2	0.9
MoL37	1.1	1.8	0.3	31	0.1	43	0.4	3.4
MoL38	0.7	1.5	0.3	22	0.1	23	0.2	14
MoL39	0	0	0	0.1	0	0.1	0	0
MoL40	0	0	0.1	2.3	1.7	0.8	0.6	0
MoL41	0.4	2.2	0.3	27	1.6	15	6	4
MoL42	0	0	0	0	0.1	1	0.1	0

Library	MEPE	MLPH	MMP20	ODAM	PDE6A	PDE6B	PDE6C	PDE6G
An016	15.5	2	1.5	0.3	3.7	0.9	21	0.1
An028	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	5.5	0.5	0.3	0	0.8	0.3	6.4	0
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0
AnX25	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
AnX32	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0
Mod01	8.5	0.1	0.3	0.4	1	6	7.1	0
Mod02	15.5	0.2	0.8	0.7	0.5	1.1	4.3	0
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	17	0	1.4	0	0	0	0.2	0
Mod05	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	13.4	0	0	0	1.2	0.1	0.2	0
Mod07	22.7	0	0.1	0	1.3	0.2	0.2	0
Mod08	1.7	Õ	0	Ő	0	0	0	Ő
Mod09	57 7	01	02	Ő	6 7	$\tilde{5}6$	36	Ô
Mod10	90.9	0.1	0.8	0	5.4	3	12.2	04
Mod11	11 7	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod12	4.3	01	01	0	0.3	0.2	02	0
Mod12	64.9	0.1	0.1	02	4.5	17	$\frac{0.2}{24.7}$	0
Mod14	13 /	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	0.8	0.2	0
Mod15	142.3	0	0.2	0.1	6.2	1	0.2 47.6	0
Mod16	0.1	0	0.1	0	0.2	0	0.1	0
Mod17	80.0	0.6	0 1	0	2.0	0.6	10.5	0
Mod18	58.6	0.0 12 3	0.1 2.1	4.2	$\frac{2.3}{7.6}$	0.0	13.5	0
Mod10	11 /	0	0	1.2 0.2	0.4	01	28	0
Mod20	34.0	13	5.4	0.2 12	0.4 & 3	3.2	2.0 198 1	0
Mod21	06.6	10 19	5.6	25	28	3.0	120.1 81	0
Mod21	30.0 40.2	$12 \\ 0.7$	0.0	25 0.1	11	0.6	5	0
Mod22	125	0.1	01	0.1	0.3	0.0	16	0
Mod24	12.0 5 4	03	0.1	0.1	1.1	1.8	1.0 7	0
Mod24 Mod25	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.4	1.1 8.9	1.0 2.7	19	0 2
Mod26	1.9	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	2.1	1.2	0.2
MoI 27	2.2	0.1	0.1	06	1.2	0.1	1.1	0.1
MoL 28	5.2 6.6	0.1	0.1	0.0	1.2	0.9	4.9 2.1	0
MoI 20	25.8	05	0.2	1.2	6.2	0.1	0.1 20	0
MoL29 MoL20	0.5	0.5	2.4	4.2	0.2	2.4	29	0 1
MoL 21	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL 22	0 95 1	59	16	0	4.0	17	120	0
MoL 32	57	0.7	1.0 5.4	10	4.9	0.1	130 87	0
MoL 24	0	0.7	0.4	10	10	9.1	0	0
MoL 25	0	0.4	56	25	5	4	20	0 1
Mol 96	47 10	0.4	0.0 2.5	0.0 4	5 4 9	4 2 2	20 11	0.1
MoL 97	19 46	0.0	ม.ม 19	4 10	4.2 15	ა.ა 10	11 55	0
MOL37 Mol 20	40 49	0.9	12 5 0	10 0	10	10 6	55 44	0 1
Mol 20	40 19	0.7	0.9 0.1	0	9.0 0.1	0 1	44	0.1
MoL39	1.3 60	U 1 1	0.1	0	U.1 1 4	0.1	U.O 16	0.0
MoL40	00	1.1	U 1.6	U 6 6	1.4 7 E	0.0 0.4	10 76	0.2
MoL41 MoL49	0U 19	0.4	1.0	0.0	7.0 1.6	2.4 0.2	70 5-1	0
1010142	12	U	U.Z	U	1.0	0.5		U

Library	PDE6H	PNOC	POMC	RAG2	RBP3	RH1	S1PR1	SAMHD1
An016	0.6	1.6	0	3.7	0.3	0.1	1.2	9
An028	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	0.2	0.1	0	2.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	14
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0.5
AnX25	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0.1
AnX32	0	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0
Mod01	0	0	0	11.6	0	0.4	1.3	1.5
Mod02	1.5	1.3	0	7.9	0	2.5	4.9	1.8
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	1.4	0	0	20	0	6.2	10.9	4.1
Mod05	0	Ő	Õ	0	Ő	0	0	0
Mod06	Ő	0.2	Õ	8.2	Ő	0.6	3.4	0.4
Mod07	Ő	0	0	14 1	Ő	17	3.5	2.7
Mod08	0	0	0	0	Ő	0	0.0	0
Mod09	0	02	0	35.5	Ő	10.7	21.8	39
Mod10	0	0.2	01	94.9	0 0	11.9	37.1	14.2
Mod11	0	0.2	0.1	31	0	0	1.3	0
Mod12	0	0	0	4.3	0	0.5	1.5	0.6
Mod12	0	0.6	0	45.4	0	77	1.0	4.1
Mod14	01	0.0	02	173	0	47	84	4.1
Mod15	0.1	26.5	0.2	131.0	18 7	20.8	66 9	20.3
Mod16	0.1	0	0.1	0	0	20.0	0.1	0.1
Mod17	02	19.6	01	76 38	49	44	18	9.5
Mod18	6.2 6.7	12.0	0.1	87.3	11.0	14.4	31.2	4 9
Mod19	0.1	0	0.1	3.8	0.8	0.9	1 4	0.8
Mod20	15	83	01	26.3	0.0 7	0.5 Q	1.4	9.5
Mod21	18	15	0.1	20.5 88.6	15	13.8	1 1 97 3	40.4
Mod21	0	13	0	28	5.5	43	16	5.5
Mod22	0	10	0	61	0.0	4.0 1.2	24	0.1
Mod24	15	01	0	34	0	3	5	0.1 9 1
Mod24 Mod25	11	0.1	0	0.4 20	0	57	66	17.9
Mod26	0.1	01	0	$\frac{23}{14}$	01	0.1	0.0	0.1
MoL27	0.1	0.1	01	1.4	0.1	1.4	1.7	0.1 9
MoL28	0.0	01	0.1	1.0	0	03	1.1	5
MoL20	63	0.1	0	1.0	0	0.5	1.1 21.6	12.8
MoL30	0.5	0.0	01	0.1	01	$-\frac{1}{1}$	0.1	2.0
MoI 31	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	2.5
MoI 32	0 7 5	0 7	0	05	0 25	87	0 36	10
MoI 33	1.5 8 7	0	0	90 198	20 0	17	30 73	10
MoI 24	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	15	0
MoI 25	15	0.4	0	0 15	01	0 15	5	17
MoI 26	1.0 1 7	0.4	0.1	19	0.1	1.J	5	13.9
MoI 97	1.1 5.4	0.1	0.1	12	0	3 () T	J 15	10.2
Mol 20	0.4 2.1	0.2	0.1	03 47	0 1	ე.ყ ე.1	10 19	40 20
MoI 30	0.1 0	0	0	47 1 9	0.1	2.1 0	12	29 0.6
MoI 40	0.2	0 7 4	0	1.2	0	U 1 7	0.2	0.0
MoL4U	0.3 4 7	1.4 1.9	0	42.8 106	2.0 5	1.1	14 20	9.0 94
MoI 49	4.1 0	4.2 0	0	18	0	ს.ა 1-0	02 4 5	$\frac{24}{27}$
MOL4Z	U	U	U	10	U	1.2	4.0	4.1

Library	SLC26A5	SLN	SPARCL1	SPP1	SWS1	TAS1R1	TAS1R2	TAS1R3
An016	14	0	13	3.7	2.1	0.5	0.3	0.1
An028	0.1	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	5	0	5.5	1.1	0.5	0.2	0.1	0
An069	1.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
AnX25	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0
AnX32	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod01	1.8	0	0.4	0.8	8	0.1	0.1	0.1
Mod02	3.2	0.8	6.6	4.3	8.3	3.1	3	0
Mod03	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod04	5.2	Ő	0.6	0	24	0	0	0
Mod05	0	Ő	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod06	2	Ő	1.2	0.2	3.2	0.8	0.8	0
Mod07	0.9	Ő	2.6	0.2	3	0.1	0.6	0
Mod08	0.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod09	21.5	Õ	68	02	29.6	61	48	02
Mod10	15.7	Õ	0.7	3.2	23.1	13.7	4	0.1
Mod11	0	Õ	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mod12	07	Õ	0.8	03	13	0.8	03	0
Mod12	8.5	0	5.1	0.6	17.5	0.0 2 1	2.9	0
Mod14	127	0	4 7	1	10.3	0.2	0.1	01
Mod15	65.5	0	16.5	47	0	0.2	0.1	0.1
Mod16	0.1	0	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Mod17	38.5	Õ	4.6	0	0.6	01	0	0
Mod18	22.3	37	10.8	32.8	34.5	6.7	14	0
Mod19	22.0	0.1	13	1.3	37	0.1	0.1	0
Mod20	15	22	21	28.5	32	6.6	3.2	02
Mod21	30.5	3.9	21	20.0 49	85	11	6.4	0.2
Mod22	11 7	0.0	1.8	0.2	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.1
Mod23	2.6	0	0.6	0.2	1.3	0.8	03	0
Mod24	2.0	0	3.6	0.0 2.1	8.6	2.0	1.2	02
Mod25	12.1	0	12.8	2.1	6.7	5.2	1.2	0.2
Mod26	0.1	01	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL27	1.8	0	2.6	1.7	3.9	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL28	3.5	Õ	0.6	0.2	0.9	0	0	0
MoL29	8.4	Õ	26	15	38	54	28	01
MoL30	0.1	01	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL31	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL32	24	3	31	36	47	13	13	0
MoL33	33	0.9	52	35	186	18	11	04
MoL34	0	0.0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1
MoL35	15	0	16	8	19	16	01	01
MoL36	11	0.5	13.9	61	11	1.0	13	0.1
MoL 37	13	0.7	58	26	83	6.5	5.6	0.1
MoL38	11	0.7	30	17	51	4.6	2.7	0.1
MoL 30	0.4	0.2	0.1	0	1.8	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL40	23	0	74	0	0.8	0.1	0.1	0
MoL41	20 27	3.8	36	18	42	15	0.8	0
MoL42	11.7	0.0	2.5	0	7.2	0.9	0.1	0

Library	TTN	TYR1	UCP1	VWF
An016	23.7	4.4	5.5	0.3
An028	0.1	0	0	0
An054	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An058	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
An067	8.3	0.9	2.4	0.1
An069	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
AnX18	0.1	0	0	0
AnX25	0.1	0	0	0
AnX32	0.1	0.1	0	0
Mod01	15.3	2.6	2.4	0.8
Mod02	24.2	6.1	8	3.4
Mod03	0.1	0	0	0
Mod04	26.5	10.4	0.5	1
Mod05	0.1	0	0	0
Mod06	13.2	0.9	0	3.6
Mod07	26.4	0.1	0	2.8
Mod08	1.2	0	0	0
Mod09	46.4	1.5	0.2	26.7
Mod10	56.6	2.3	0.8	22
Mod11	8.8	0	0	1.3
Mod12	3.7	0.3	0	1.3
Mod13	61.8	0.4	0.1	7.2
Mod14	26.8	0.1	0.1	2.7
Mod15	249.3	45.4	0.1	18.2
Mod16	0.1	0	0	0
Mod17	22.2	71	0.1	12.5
Mod18	75.9	50.7	0.9	7.7
Mod19	16	2	0	1
Mod20	12	28.7	24	3.7
Mod21	154.9	88	61	6.9
Mod22	44	30.6	0	8.1
Mod23	13	0	0.1	3.7
Mod24	7	5.7	4.7	1.5
Mod25	44.3	7.1	1.1	5.2
Mod26	1.8	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL27	4.9	2.4	1.8	0.1
MoL28	4.9	0.6	0.2	0.1
MoL29	78.1	21.5	22	4
MoL30	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
MoL31	0	0	0	0
MoL32	172.7	79	1	7
MoL33	190	68	63	15
MoL34	0	0	0	0
MoL35	28.7	8	8	1.6
MoL36	21	7	9.7	0.7
MoL37	127	30	51	4.6
MoL38	78.5	22	28	3.4
MoL39	0.6	0.2	0	0.1
MoL40	85	35	0	8.4
MoL41	195	63	2.3	4.1
MoL42	32.8	0	0.4	2.6