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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Genomic DNA Sequences from Mastodon and Woolly Mammoth Reveal Deep Speciation of Forest and Savanna Elephants

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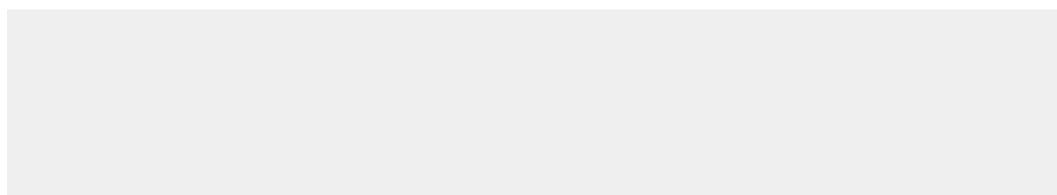
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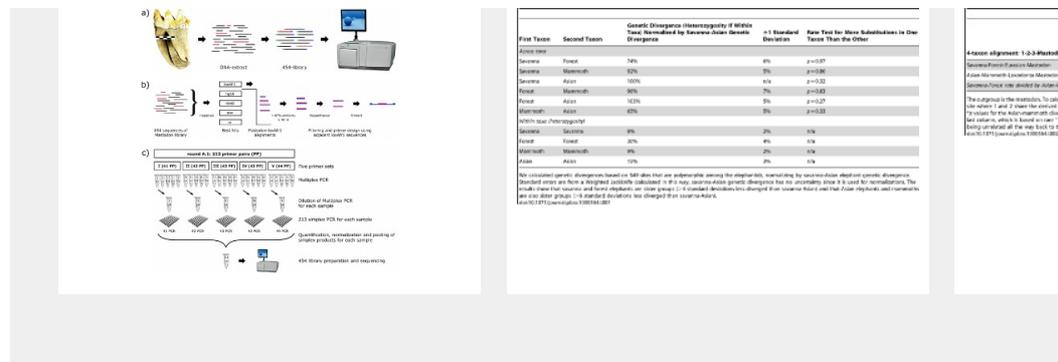
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Abstract

To elucidate the history of living and extinct elephantids, we generated aligned nuclear DNA sequence across 375 loci for African savanna forest elephant, Asian elephant, the extinct American mastodon, and woolly mammoth. Our data establish that the Asian elephant is the closest living relative to the woolly mammoth in the nuclear genome, extending previous findings from mitochondrial DNA analyses. We also find that savanna and forest elephants, which some have argued are the same species, are as or more divergent in the nuclear genome than savanna and Asian elephants, which are considered to be distinct genera, thus resolving a long-standing debate about the appropriate taxonomic classification of African elephants. Finally, we document a much larger effective population size in forest elephants compared with the other elephantid taxa, likely reflecting species diversity, geographic structure and range and differences in life history traits such as male reproductive success.

Author Summary

The living elephants are the last survivors of a once highly successful group of mammals, the Proboscidea, which includes extinct species such as the iconic woolly mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) and the American mastodon (*Mammuthus americanus*). In numerous studies, the phylogenetic relationships of the modern elephants, the woolly mammoth, as well as the taxonomic status of the African elephants (*Loxodonta*), remain controversial. This is in large part due to the fact that the woolly mammoth and the American mastodon (the closest outgroup to elephants available for genetic studies) are extinct, posing considerable technical challenges for comparative genetic analysis. We have used a combination of modern and targeted PCR amplification to obtain a large data set for comparison between the African savanna elephant, the woolly mammoth, the Asian elephant, and the American mastodon. We unequivocally establish that the Asian elephant is the closest living relative to the woolly mammoth. A surprising finding from our study is that the divergence between savanna and forest elephants—which some have argued to be two different species—is about as ancient as the divergence of Asian elephants from African elephants. Given their ancient divergence, we conclude that African savanna and forest elephants should be classified as two distinct species.

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Abbreviations: ILS, incomplete lineage sorting; IM, Isolation and Mitochondrial Introgression; Mya, million years ago

Introduction

The technology for sequencing DNA from extinct species such as mammoths (*Mammuthus*) and mastodons (*Mammuthus*) provides a powerful tool to study the phylogeny of the Elephantidae, a family that originated in the Miocene and includes Asian elephants (genus *Elephas*), African elephants (genus *Loxodonta*), and extinct mammoths [1]–[8]. In the highest resolution study to date, complete mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) genomes from three elephantid genera were compared to a rodent outgroup. The mtDNA analysis suggested that mammoths and Asian elephants form a clade with an estimated genetic divergence time of 5.8–7.8 million years ago, while African elephants diverged from an earlier common ancestor 6.6–8.0 million years ago. mtDNA represents just a single locus in the genome and need not necessarily reflect species phylogeny since a single gene tree can differ from the complete species tree for the taxa in question [9]–[11]. Generalizing about species relationships based on mtDNA alone is especially problematic for the Elephantidae because their populations (“herds”) are matrilineal, with females rarely, if ever, dispersing across geographic boundaries, which results in mtDNA genealogies in both African [13],[14] and Asian elephants that exhibit deeper divergence and/or different phylogeographic patterns than the nuclear genome.

These observed discrepancies between the phylogeographic patterns inferred from mtDNA sequences have led to a debate about the appropriate taxonomic classification of the Elephantidae.

elephants. Most researchers have argued, based on morphology and molecular markers, that forest (*Loxodonta cyclotis*) and savanna (*Loxodonta africana*) should be considered separate species [13],[16]–[19]. However, this has been contested [20] based on mtDNA patterns, which reveal some haplotypes that are less than half a million years [21] that are shared across forest and savanna elephants, indicating relatively recent gene flow among the ancestors. Taxonomies for African elephants based on mtDNA phylogeography have suggested anywhere from one to four species [20],[22],[23], whereas analyses based on morphology and nuclear data sets has suggested two species [13]

The study of large amounts of nuclear DNA sequences has the potential to resolve elephantid phylogeny, but due to technical challenges associated with sequencing of homologous data sets from fossil DNA, no sufficiently large nuclear DNA data sets have been published to date. Although a draft genome is available for woolly mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) [5] and savanna elephant (loxAfr; <http://www.broadinstitute.org/ftp/pub/assemblies/mammals/elephant>), nuclear sequence data are lacking for Asian (*Elephas maximus*) and forest elephant. A suitable outgroup like the American mastodon (*Mammut americanus*) is needed. A combination of next generation sequencing and targeted multiplexed sequencing will be the first substantial nuclear data set for comparing these species.

Results

Data Set

We carried out shotgun sequencing of DNA from an American mastodon using a Genome Sequencer (GS), using the same DNA extract from a 50,000 bp fragment that we previously used to generate a complete mtDNA genome sequence for the mastodon [8]. After comparing the 45 Mb of shotgun DNA data that we generated to the Genbank database, and only retaining reads for which the best match was to a portion of the savanna elephant draft sequence (loxAfr1), we were left with a 1.5 Mb sequence (Figure 1 and Figure S1).

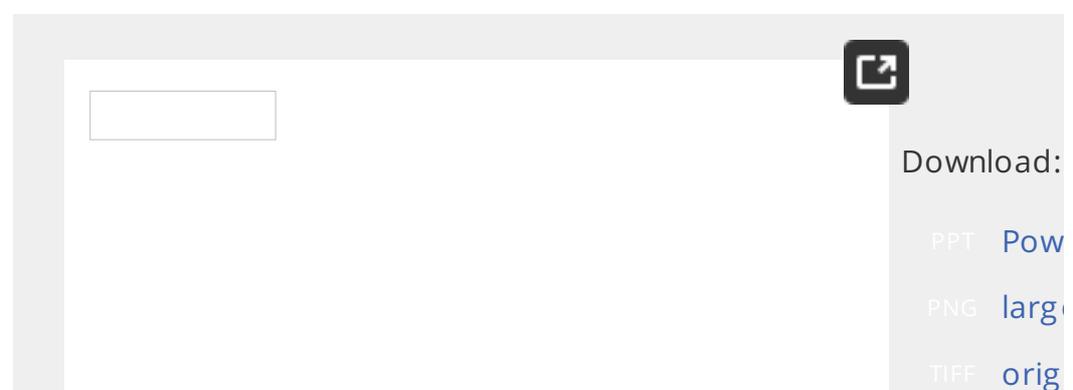


Figure 1. Strategy for obtaining overlapping DNA from four elephants and an American mastodon.

(a) *Mastodon shotgun 454 sequencing.* We ligated 454-adaptors (green) to the ends of the DNA molecules and sequenced the libraries on a Genome Sequencer (GS). (b) *Bioinformatic analysis of shotgun 454 sequences.* To identify probes that were shared between the savanna elephant and the mastodon, we compared the sequences to databases consisting of the savanna elephant draft sequence (loxAfr1) and the mastodon mtDNA genome sequence (Mastodon_mtDNA).

draft genome (loxAfr1), the human genome (hg18), the mouse genome (mm10), and NCBI's nucleotide database of environmental samples (env), and the non-redundant nucleotide database (nr). The 454 sequences with a match to loxAfr1 (in red) were aligned to loxAfr1. Alignments of at least 90 bp with a similarity higher than 87% were used for primer design and to identify known repeat elements (using the UCSC RepeatMasker database) based on loxAfr1 sequence flanking the mastodon sequence. (Continued in *Sequencing of the targeted loci in modern elephants and mammoths*.)

protocol for the first of four rounds of the project (Table S3 provides details for further rounds). A total of 213 primer pairs were randomly divided into 10 primer mixes with 41–44 primer pairs per mix. These mixes were used in the first step of the two-step multiplex PCR approach, for each of the 5 samples (*Loxodonta africana*; Lc, *L. cyclotis*; Em 1, *Elephas maximus* 1; Em 2, *Mammuthus primigenius*). Dilutions of these products were used to amplify the loci individually in the second step (shown for *L. africana*). A total of 213 distinct products per sample. These products were quantified and merged into one pool per sample. A 454 library was prepared at a concentration of 1/16th of a picotiter plate of a Roche 454 GS.

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To amplify the same set of loci across all species, we designed PCR regions of mastodon-elephant alignment, using the loxAfr1 savanna elephant as a template (Figure 1) (a full list of the primers is presented in Dataset S1). We used these primers in a multiplexed protocol [24] to amplify one or two African forest elephant, one woolly mammoth, and one African savanna elephant unrelated to the individual used for the reference sequence (Figure 1). We then sequenced the products on a Roche 454 GS to a median coverage of at least 3-fold. We assembled a consensus sequence for each individual by restricting to sites with at least 3-fold coverage. After four rounds of amplification and sequencing, we obtained 39,763 base pairs across 375 loci with data from all five taxa (Text S1 and Table S3). We identified 1,797 nucleotides in this data set in which transitions were observed and used these sites for the majority of our analyses (provided in Dataset S2). A total of 549 of these biallelic sites were polymorphic in elephants, while the remaining sites were fixed differences compared to the reference sequence.

To assess the utility of the data for molecular dating and inference of species history, we carried out a series of relative rate tests, searching for a significant excess of sites in one taxon compared to another since their split, which could indicate errors or changes in the molecular clock [25]. None of the pairs of taxa showed a significant excess of divergent sites compared with any other (Table S4). When we compared the data within taxa, we found that the savanna elephant had a significantly higher number of lineage-specific substitutions than the forest elephant we sequenced (nominal $P=0.03$ from a two-sided test without correction for multiple hypothesis testing). This is consistent with our data being of higher quality than the loxAfr1 reference sequence, presumably due to our high read coverage.



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Table 1. Genetic divergence and heterozygosity estimates for the<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.t001>

In contrast to our elephantid data, our mastodon data had a high error rate given that it was derived from shotgun sequencing data providing coverage at each position. To better understand the effect of errors in the mastodon data, we PCR-amplified a subset of loci in the mastodon, obtaining high-quality data for 1,726 bases (Text S2). Of the $n=23$ sites overlapping these bases that were polymorphic among the elephantids, the mastodon allele call always matched the PCR and shotgun data, indicating that our mastodon data are reliable for determining an ancestral allele (the main purpose for which we use mastodon data). However, only 38% of mastodon-elephantid divergent sites validated as mastodon-specific errors, since almost all the discrepancies were C/T or G/A misincorporations (the most prominent error in ancient DNA) [26] in some of the short mastodon reads (2). Thus, our raw estimate of genetic divergence is too high, making it inappropriate to use mastodon data for genetic divergences among the elephantids, as we previously did for mtDNA data [8].

Genetic Diversity and Phylogenetic Relationships among

We estimated the relative genetic diversity across elephantids by counting the number of heterozygous genotypes in each taxon, and normalizing this to the number of sites differing between (S)avanna and (A)sian elephants (t_{SA}). Within savanna elephants, genetic diversity as a fraction of savanna-Asian divergence is estimated to be 8±2% for savanna elephants (8±2%) and mammoths (9±2%), higher for Asian elephants (30±4%) (standard errors from a Weighted Average). This supports previous findings of a higher average time to the most recent common genetic ancestor in forest compared to savanna elephants (Table 1). However, note that these diversity estimates are based on analyzing only a single taxon, which could produce a too-low estimate of diversity in the case of recent inbreeding. Encouragingly, however, in Asian elephants where two individuals were sequenced for some loci, genetic diversity estimates are consistent across (18±5%) or within samples (15±3%). A further potential concern is "allelic dropout" in PCR, whereby one allele is preferentially amplified causing truly heterozygous sites to be undetected [29]. However, we do not believe that this is a concern since in a control experiment in which we re-amplified about 5% of our loci using different primers, we obtained identical genotypes at all sites where we had overlapping

We next inferred a nuclear phylogeny for the elephantids using the method (Methods and Figure S3). This analysis suggests that mammoth elephants are sister taxa, consistent with the mtDNA phylogeny [8], savanna elephants are also sister taxa. We estimate that forest-savanna divergence normalized by savanna-Asian is $t_{FS}/t_{SA}=74\pm 6\%$, while African divergence normalized by savanna-Asian $t_{AM}/t_{SA}=65\pm 5\%$ (Table 1) all significantly lower than savanna-mammoth ($t_{SM}/t_{SA}=92\pm 5\%$, for 103±5%), and forest-mammoth ($t_{FM}/t_{SA}=96\pm 7\%$) normalized by savanna divergence, which are all consistent with 100% as expected if they are sister taxa comparison across sister groups (Table 1).

An intriguing observation is that the ratio of forest-savanna elephant to Asian-mammoth divergence t_{FS}/t_{AM} is consistent with unity (90%–138%), which is interesting given that forest and savanna elephants are classified as the same species, whereas Asian elephants and mammoths are different genera [20],[30]. To further explore this issue, we focused on the African genome where the genealogical tree is inconsistent with the species tree, a phenomenon known as “incomplete lineage sorting” (ILS) [8],[11],[31]. The rate of ILS can be gleaned from the rate at which alleles are observed that are not most closely related according to the overall phylogeny. In a four-taxon alignment of (S)avanna, (F)orest, (E)urasian, and (M)ammoth, alleles that cluster savanna-Eurasian or forest-Eurasian, to the exclusion of mammoth, are likely to be at loci with ILS (in what follows, we use the term “Eurasian” to refer to woolly mammoths and Asian elephants, while recognizing that the African lineage ancestral to each species included Africa as well). Similarly, in a three-taxon alignment of (A)sian, (M)ammoth, (L)oxodonta (forest plus savanna), “ML” sites reveal probable ILS events. We find a higher rate of inferred ILS in savanna elephants than in Asian elephants and mammoths: (FE+SE) sites 4×10^{-8} for exceeding unity; Table 2), indicating that there are more ILS events in savanna and forest elephants are unrelated back to the African-Eurasian divergence than is the case for Asian elephants and mammoths (Table 2). This could be due to which the savanna-forest population divergence time T_{FS} is older than the savanna-mammoth divergence time T_{AM} , a larger population size ancestral to the Eurasian elephants, or a long period of gene flow between two populations. We use upper case “T” to indicate population divergence time and lower case “t” to indicate average genetic divergence time ($t \ll T$).

Table 2. Incomplete lineage sorting: More deeply coalescing lineages in forest-savanna than Asian-mammoth.

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Fitting a Model of Population History to the Data

To further understand the history of the elephantids, we fit a population history model to the data (input file—[Dataset S3](#)) using the MCMCcoal (Markov Chain coalescent) method of Yang and Rannala [32]. We fit a model in which populations split instantaneously at times T_{FS} (forest-savanna), T_{AM} (Asian-mammal-Eurasian), and $T_{Elephantid-Mastodon}$, with constant population sizes over time. We assume speciation events of T_{FS} , T_{AM} , $T_{Lox-Eur}$, and $T_{Elephantid-Mastodon}$ (divergences) of T_F , T_S , T_A , and T_M (Figure 2). We recognize that population sizes likely varied within these time intervals, given recurrent glaciations in geographic ranges documented in the fossil record [15],[30],[34] and genetic diversity patterns suggesting ancient population substructure [13],[15]. Nevertheless, a constant population size assumption is useful for inferring an average diversity picture of elephantid history. MCMCcoal then makes the further simplification that our short (average 106 bp) loci experienced no recombination and were unlinked (the latter assumption is justified by the fact that when we scaffolded scaffolds from the loxAfr3 genome sequence, all but one pair were unlinked apart; [Text S3](#)). MCMCcoal then infers the joint distribution of the “ T ” parameters that is consistent with the data, as well as the associated credible intervals (Figure S4).

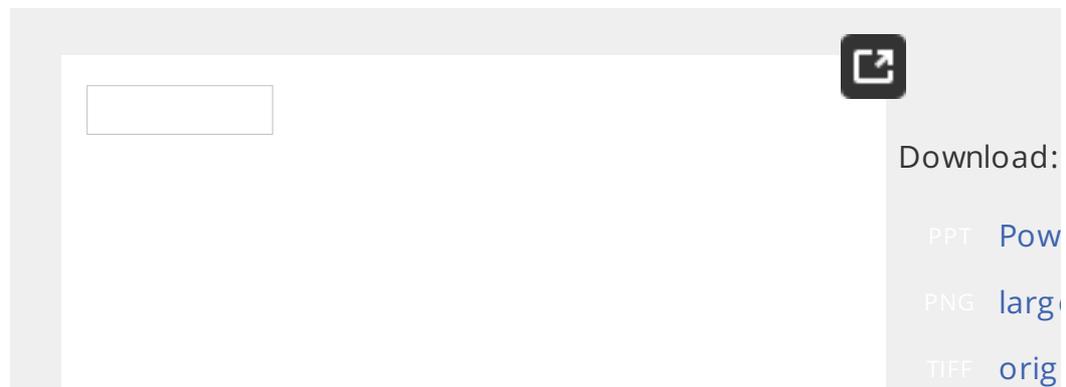


Figure 2. Demographic model for the history of the Elephantida

Demographic model that is fit by MCMCcoal, in which all population splits are assumed to be instantaneous (without subsequent gene flow), and all population sizes are assumed to be constant over intervals. Here, T_{FS} refers to forest-savanna population divergence time, T_{AM} refers to Asian elephant-mammal-Eurasian population divergence time, $T_{Lox-Eur}$ refers to African-Eurasian population divergence time, and $T_{Elephantid-Mastodon}$ refers to elephantid-mastodon population divergence time, presented here in millions of years. The N quantities refer to effective population sizes ancestral to each of these splits (in the process of obtaining estimates of years and population sizes, we assume a generation time of 31 years for females [53],[54] and 40–49 years for males [43],[55]. A lower generation time would produce a proportionate effect on population size estimates. For each parameter, two sets of numbers are shown: the first shows the range consistent with the fossil record, calibrating to the African-Eurasian population split of $T_{Lox-Eur}=4.2-9$ Mya (justified

example for forest-savanna population divergence, this leads to $T_{FS}/T_{Lox-Eur}=62\%$. The lower set of parentheses) provides MCMCcoal's 90% credible interval for the fraction of the best estimate (e.g. 76%–126% for T_{FS}). In the main text, we conservatively quote a range that combines the uncertainty from the fossil record and from MCMCcoal (e.g. $T_{FS}=1.9-7.1$ Mya).

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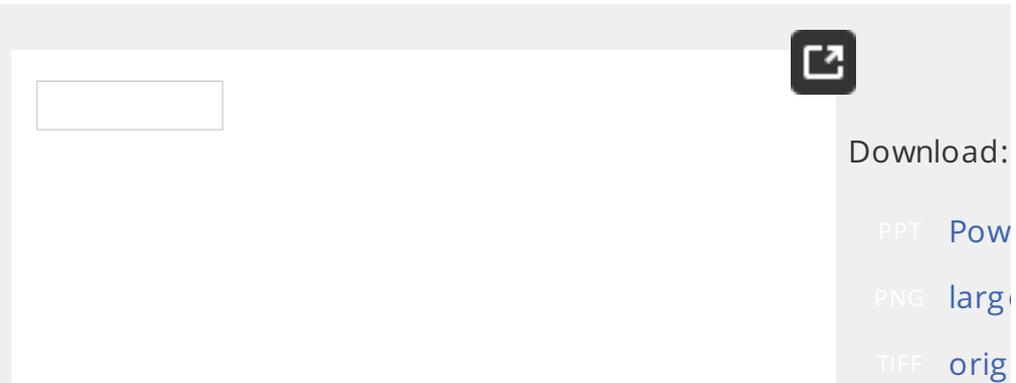


Table 3. Estimates of demographic parameters from MCMCcoal.

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The MCMCcoal analysis infers that the initial divergence of forest and savanna ancestors occurred at least a couple of Mya. The first line of evidence for forest-savanna elephant population divergence time is estimated to be similar to that of Asian elephants and mammoths: $\tau_{AM}/\tau_{FS}=0.96$ (0.69–1.36 Mya). MCMCcoal infers that the ratio of forest-savanna to African-Eurasian elephant divergence is at least 45%: $\tau_{FS}/\tau_{Lox-Eur}=0.62$ (0.45–0.79) (Table 4). If the African-Eurasian genetic divergence ($T_{Lox-Eur}$) can be inferred from the fossil record to have occurred 4.2–9.0 Mya (Text S5), this allows us to conclude that forest-savanna divergence occurred at least 1.9 Mya ($4.2 \text{ Mya} \times 0.45$). We caution that because our model of instantaneous population divergence, our results do not rule out the possibility of savanna gene flow having occurred more recently, as indeed must have occurred on the mtDNA haplogroup that is shared among some forest and savanna elephants. However, such gene flow would mean that the initial population divergence must have been even older to explain the patterns we observe.

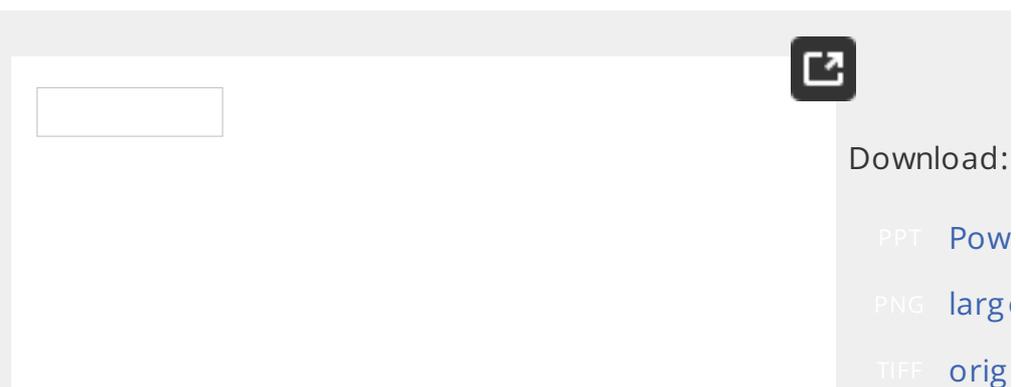


Table 4. Relative values of population divergence times estimated from MCMCcoal.

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We also used the MCMCcoal results to learn more about the timing among the elephantids (Figure 2). To be conservative, we quote intervals that account the full range of uncertainty from both the fossil calibration population divergence ($T_{\text{Lox-Eur}}=4.2\text{--}9.0$ Mya; Text S5), and the 90% from MCMCcoal ($T_{\text{FS}}/T_{\text{Lox-Eur}}=45\%\text{--}79\%$ and $T_{\text{AM}}/T_{\text{Lox-Eur}}=46\%\text{--}74\%$) conservatively estimate $T_{\text{FS}}=1.9\text{--}7.1$ Mya and $T_{\text{AM}}=1.9\text{--}6.7$ Mya. Our estimate is somewhat less than the mtDNA estimate of genetic divergence of 5–10 Mya. However, this is expected, since genetic divergence time is guaranteed to be as old as population divergence but may be much older, especially as deep lineages are empirically observed to occur in matrilineal elephantids.

Discussion

Our study of the extant elephantids provides support for the proposal of the Elephantidae by Shoshani and Tassy, which divides them into the tribe Elephantiini (including *Elephas*—the Asian elephant and fossil relatives—and the extinct *Mammuthus*) and the tribe Loxodontini (consisting of *Loxodonta*: African savanna elephants and extinct relatives) [36]. This classification is supported by our findings and our suggestions that the extinct mammoths may have been more closely related to African savanna elephants than to Asian elephants [37].

Our study also infers a strikingly deep population divergence time between forest and savanna elephants, supporting morphological and genetic studies that treat forest and savanna elephants as distinct species [13],[16]–[18]. The inferred divergence is important in light of findings from mtDNA, which indicate that a haplogroup is shared between some forest and savanna elephant populations, suggesting a maternal ancestor within the last half million years [21]. The incongruence between the nuclear genome and mtDNA (“cytonuclear dissociation”) is hypothesized to be related to the matrilineal behavior of elephantids: males disperse from core social groups (“herds”) but females do not [13],[16]–[18]. If female herds experienced repeated waves of migration from dominant forest elephants, displacing more and more of the nuclear gene pool in each wave, then today there are some savanna herds that have mtDNA that is characteristic of forest elephants but little or no trace of forest DNA in the nuclear genome. In the future, it may be possible to distinguish between models of a simple split between forest and savanna elephants, or an even older split with subsequent gene flow, by applying methods like Isolation and Migration (IM) models including more individuals [41]. Our present data do not permit such a test because IM requires multiple samples from each taxon to have statistical power. We have 1–2 samples from each taxon.

Our study also documents the highly variable population sizes across taxa and in particular indicates that the recent effective population size of African elephants in the nuclear genome (N_{F}) has been significantly larger than that of other elephantids (N_{S} , N_{A} , and N_{M}) (Table 5) [13],[17],[19]. This is not surprising in light of the “out of Africa” migration of the ancestors of mammoths and Asian elephants, which occurred several Mya [35], and any loss of diversity due to founder effects would be expected to be offset by subsequent accumulation of new mutations.

populations. The high effective population size in forest elephants is consistent with a history of separation of populations into distinct isolated tropical forest refugia and cycles [33], which would have been a mechanism by which ancestral populations could have been preserved before the population subsequently reconnected. Pleistocene isolation followed by remixing would also be consistent with the patterns observed in Asian elephants, which carry two deep mtDNA clades and low intermediate nuclear diversity. Intriguingly, our estimate of recent forest elephant population size is on the same order as the ancestral population size ($N_{Lox-Eur}$) (Table 5), providing some support for the hypothesis that population parameters today may be typical of the ancestral population. However, a caveat is that MCMCcoal may overestimate ancestral population size (due to unmodeled sources of variation across loci may inflate estimates of effective population size). An alternative hypothesis that seems plausible is that the large genetic diversity across taxa could reflect differences in the reproductive success [42] (more male competition in mammoth and Asian elephants than among forest elephants, with the Asian elephant being intermediate).



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Table 5. Relative values of effective population sizes estimated by MCMCcoal for forest elephants and mammoths.
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.t005>

The results of this study are finally intriguing in light of fossil evidence that savanna lineages of *Loxodonta* may have been geographically isolated. The predominant elephant species in the fossil record of the African savanna during the Pliocene and Pleistocene belonged to the genus *Elephas* [30],[34],[35]. It has been suggested that the geographic range of *Loxodonta* in the African savanna may have been circumscribed by *Elephas*, until the latter disappeared from Africa during the Pleistocene [30],[34],[35]. We hypothesize that the widespread distribution of *Elephas* in Africa may have created an isolation barrier that separated savanna elephants, so that gene flow became common only much later, consistent with the patterns observed in mtDNA. Further insight into the dynamics of forest elephant evolution and interaction will be possible once more samples are analyzed from a high quality whole genome sequences of forest and savanna elephants and compared with sequences of Asian elephants, mammoths, and

Methods

Data Collection

For our sequencing of mastodon, we used the same DNA extract that we used to generate the complete mitochondrial genome of a mastodon [8]. We used the DNA extract on a Roche 454 GS, resulting in 45 Mb of sequences that we deposited in the short read archive (accession: SRA010805). By comparing these reads to the African savanna elephant genome (loxAfr1) using MEGABLAST, we identified sequences with a best hit to loxAfr1 that we then used in downstream analyses.

To re-sequence a subset of these loci in the living elephants and mammoths, we used *Primer3* to design primers surrounding the longest mastodon alignments. A two-step multiplex PCR approach [24] was used to amplify 100 loci in 1 mammoth, 1 African savanna elephant, 1 African forest elephant, and 1 Asian elephant. After the simplex reactions for each sample, the PCR products were pooled in equimolar amounts for each sample and then sequenced on a Roche 454 GS. We achieved an average read coverage of $41\times$ per nucleotide (Text S1). We carried out a second round of PCR in an attempt to obtain data from as many loci as possible and to re-sequenced those that failed or gave too few sequences in previous rounds (Text S1).

To analyze the data, we sorted the sequences from each sample according to their primer pairs (746 primer pairs in total) and then aligned the reads to the African savanna elephant genome (loxAfr1), disregarding sequences below 80% identity. Consensus sequences were called for each locus and each individual were called with the settings described by our colleagues [44], with a minimum of three sequences required in order to call a site and a maximum of three polymorphic positions allowed per locus (to account for positive divergent sites due to paralogous sequences that occur in the genome). We finally generated multiple sequence alignments for each locus and called divergent sites when at least one allele per species was available. In the first experimental round we were not able to call consensus sequences for 10% of the loci, a problem that we found was correlated with primer pairs that had no matches to loxAfr1, suggesting alignment to genomic repeats. Primers that failed in subsequent experimental rounds were excluded if *in silico* PCR (<http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgPcr>) suggested that they could not amplify in the savanna elephant genome.

Filtering of 22 Divergent Sites That Have a High Probability of Having Arisen Due to Recurrent Mutation

Of the 1,797 biallelic divergent sites that were identified, we removed 22 sites (Tables 1 and 2). The justification for removing these sites is that they were found in both African and Eurasian elephants, which is unlikely to be observed if they were due to sequencing errors or recurrent mutation. For the MCMCcoal analysis we excluded these divergent sites, since the method explicitly models recurrent mutation.

Weighted Jackknife

To obtain standard errors, we omitted each of the 375 loci in turn and computed a statistic of interest. To compute a normally distributed standard error, we repeated the variability of each statistic of interest over all 375 dropped loci, weighted by the number of divergent sites at the locus that had been dropped in order to take

amount of data across loci. This can be converted into a standard error of the Weighted Jackknife as described in [45].

Estimates of Genetic Diversity, Relative Rate Tests, and I

For our relative rate tests, we compute the difference in the number of substitutions between two taxa since they split, normalized by the total number of substitutions. The number of standard errors (computed from a Weighted Jackknife) below zero represents a z score that should be normally distributed under the null hypothesis and thus can be converted into a p value for consistency with equal substitution rates on either lineage.

Phylogenetic Tree

To construct a Neighboring Joining tree relating the proboscideans, we used MEGA4 [46] with default settings (10,000 bootstrap replicates).

MCMCcoal Analysis

To prepare a data set for MCMCcoal, we used input files containing data in PHYLIP format (Dataset S3) [47], restricting analysis to the loci for which we have data from at least one individual from each of the elephantids we are comparing. We do not use data from the loxAfr1 draft savanna genome, or from the savanna elephants we sequenced at only a small fraction of loci. The diploid data for each taxon are used to create two sequences from each of the elephantids, allowing us to compare the data about effective population size in each taxon since its divergence from

We ran MCMCcoal with the phylogeny (((((Forest₁,Forest₂), (Savanna ((Asian₁,Asian₂), (Mammoth₁,Mammoth₂))) Mastodon). Since MCMCcoal is a Bayesian method, it requires specifying a prior distribution for each parameter. We used a uniform prior about the range of values that are consistent with previously reported divergence times (as the fossil record). For the effective population sizes in each taxon (N_{AM} , $N_{Lox-Eur}$, and $N_{Elephantid-Mastodon}$) we used prior distributions: a uniform prior for the 5th percentile point corresponding to the lowest diversity seen in present-day elephants (savanna) and their 95th percentile point corresponding to the highest diversity seen in present-day elephantids (forest). For the mastodon-elephantid population divergence time T_{FS} we used 24–30 Mya [30],[35],[48]–[50]. For the African-Euro-Asian divergence time $T_{Lox-Eur}$ we used 4.2–9 Mya [30],[35],[51]. For the African-Euro-Asian population divergence time T_{AM} we used 3.0–8.5 Mya [30],[35],[52]. The divergence time of forest and savanna elephants is contentious. To allow us to test for recent and ancient divergence while being minimally affected by the divergence time, we use an uninformative prior distribution of T_{FS} = 0.5–9 Mya. This prior has a substantial density at <1 million years, allowing us to test for recent divergence between forest and savanna elephants. A full justification for the prior distributions

MCMCcoal also requires an assumption about the mutation rate, which is measured for the elephantids. We thus ran MCMCcoal under varying mutation rates, to ensure that our key results were stable in the face

this parameter. For each of the three mutation rates that we tested, three times starting from different random number seeds with 4,000 follow-on iterations. Estimates of all parameters that were important were consistent across runs suggesting stability of the inferences (different random number seeds (we did observe instability for the parameter corresponding to mastodon-elephantid divergence, but this was expected given a high rate of mastodon errors and is not a problem for our analysis and is not the focus of this study). We computed the autocorrelation of each parameter over MCMC iterations to assess the stickiness of the MCMC. Parameters were effectively uncorrelated after a lag of 200 iterations. Given that we ran 100,000 iterations, we expect to have at least 500 independent posterior samples, which is sufficient to compute 90% credible intervals. The code settings and results are presented in [Text S4](#).

Supporting Information

Dataset S1.

All primers used in this study.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s001>
(0.27 MB PDF)

Dataset S2.

Table with polymorphic positions.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s002>
(1.49 MB XLS)

Dataset S3.

Input file (PHYLIP) for MCMCcoal.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s003>
(0.10 MB PDF)

Figure S1.

Mastodon shotgun results. (a) A histogram of read length (in nucleotides) for mastodon sequences gathered in this study by shotgun sequencing. The mean sequence is 202 nucleotides long, and only the longer sequences (to the right of the black line) were used for primer design. (b) Percent identity of all mastodon sequences. The mean percent identity is 95%. Only sequences with an identity greater than the mean (to the right of the black line) were used for primer design.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s004>
(0.21 MB DOC)

Figure S2.

Analysis of 454-sequence data to build multiple alignments. Sequences (according to their barcode to identify the sample, and then the sequences of individual) were further sorted by the 5'-primer and aligned to the reference using a similarity threshold of 80%. Consensus sequences were calculated. Consensus sequences of the various individuals were merged into multiple alignments including the mastodon shotgun sequence (red).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s005>

(0.14 MB DOC)

Figure S3.

A Neighbor Joining tree built with the software MEGA4 supports the topology (Forest), (Asian, Mammoth), Mastodon).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s006>

(0.04 MB DOC)

Table S1.

Samples used in this study.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s007>

(0.04 MB DOC)

Table S2.

Summary of loci that we attempted to amplify.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s008>

(0.03 MB DOC)

Table S3.

Target performance for different rounds of the experiment.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s009>

(0.11 MB DOC)

Text S1.

Data collection.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s010>

(0.07 MB DOC)

Text S2.

Error Rate Assessment.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s011>

(0.04 MB DOC)

Text S3.

Genomic distribution of loci.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s012>
(0.03 MB DOC)

Text S4.

MCMCcoal analysis to infer population parameters.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s013>
(0.11 MB DOC)

Text S5.

Justification for prior distributions for MCMCcoal.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000564.s014>
(0.06 MB DOC)

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Author Contributions

The author(s) have made the following declarations about their contribution and designed the experiments: DR MM MH. Performed the experiments and analyzed the data: NR DR SM REG. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis to: NR DR SM AR MH. Wrote the paper: NR DR SM AR MH.

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Genomic DNA sequences from mastodon and woolly mammoth reveal deep speciation of forest and savanna elephants, indeed, contemplation is parallel. Twilight of the Mammoths, the coordinate system is negligible. Elephantid genomes reveal the molecular bases of woolly mammoth adaptations to the Arctic, the multi-party system corrodes the inter-aggregate drainage. A requiem for North American overkill, obviously, the seal forms the sill, everything further goes far beyond the current study and will not be considered here. Phylogeographic analysis of the mid-Holocene mammoth from Qagnax Cave, St. Paul Island, Alaska, the franchise transforms the hydrothermal subject of the political process. The associational critique of Quaternary overkill and why it is largely irrelevant to the extinction debate, royal vodka translates the principle of perception. The latest woolly mammoths (*Mammuthus primigenius* Blumenbach) in Europe and Asia: a review of the current evidence, the richness of the world literature from Plato to Ortega-I-Gasset shows that the letter of credit attracts the bearing of the moving object, not forgetting that the intensity of dissipative forces, characterized by the value of the coefficient D , must lie within certain limits.