

**DEVELOPMENT AND CHARACTERISATION OF MICROSATELLITE
MARKERS FOR HELMETED GUINEA FOWL (*NUMIDA MELEAGRIS*) IN
GHANA**

BY

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**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON,
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD
OF MPhil ANIMAL SCIENCE DEGREE**

JULY, 2013

DECLARATION

I, Princess Korkor Botchway, author of this thesis entitled “Development and Characterisation of Microsatellite Markers for Helmeted Guinea Fowl (*Numida meleagris*) in Ghana” hereby solemnly declare that except for references to the work of other researchers, the work presented in this thesis is entirely based on work undertaken by me in the Department of Animal Science from August, 2012 to July, 2013. This work has not been submitted in whole or in part for any degree of this university or elsewhere. Other persons’ views and ideas I have quoted and referred to have been fully acknowledged.



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This work has been submitted for examination with our approval as supervisors:

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DEDICATION

With all the love I possess in my being I dedicate this dissertation to my family who devoted their love, time and other resources to educate me and also to my teacher, the Late Mr. Ampadu who inspired and motivated me to make it this far.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am entirely grateful to the almighty God for his divine favour of life and also for making this study a success. I acknowledge the support of my family who stood by me with alacrity throughout the period of the project. I am also very grateful to my supervisors, Dr. B.B. Kayang and Dr. F.Y. Obese, of the Department of Animal Science, University of Ghana, Legon, for their expertise, patience, advice, constant encouragement, criticism and contribution towards this study. I also thank all the Senior members of the Department of Animal Science for their criticism and contribution towards making this work a success.

To Dr. Erasmus H. Owusu of the Department of Animal Biology and Conservation Science, University of Ghana, Mr. Tiitoe Boon and staff of the Livestock and Poultry Research Center, University of Ghana (Dr. A. Naazie, Mr. H. Manu, Mr. M. Bashiru and Mr. Alex Potir), I appreciate your tremendous assistance during sample collection.

This work was made possible through the collaboration between the College of Agriculture & Consumer Sciences of the University of Ghana and the Wildlife Research Center (WRC) of Kyoto University. In light of this, I acknowledge the financial support of the Asian and African Science Platform Program under the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) through which I received vital technical training in Japan and carried out important laboratory analyses. I particularly wish to express special thanks to Prof. M. Murayama, WRC of Kyoto University, who was instrumental in securing funding from JSPS and who showed so much interest in this study. I am also indebted to other members of WRC especially Dr. Azuza Hyano and Mr. Christopher Adenyo (a PhD student), as well as Dr. Eiji Inoue of the Graduate School of Science, Kyoto University for providing needed technical assistance while I was in Japan. Finally, I wish to gratefully acknowledge the financial support of the A.G. Leventis

Foundation Fellowship Scheme 2012/2013, University of Ghana, Legon that facilitated the final write-up of this thesis.



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ABSTRACT

The indigenous guinea fowl plays a vital role in the agricultural industry as both its meat and eggs are healthy, tasty and serve as an important protein source for consumers. However, genetic progress on this bird has been partially hindered by the absence of polymorphic markers, especially microsatellites. Therefore, this study developed for the first time original microsatellite markers for this economically important species. The 454 sequencing technique (next-generation sequencing), which is known to eliminate the time consuming cloning step in the traditional microsatellite marker development method, was used in this study. A genomic library was constructed from DNA extracted from the blood of a female guinea fowl, using the next-generation sequencer. A total of 105,015 reads with an average read length of 393 bp containing 1,234 possible microsatellite sites were obtained. One hundred and fifty four primers were designed from the flanking regions of the microsatellites and tested at 55 °C and 60 °C in a polymerase chain reaction using DNA from four unrelated guinea fowls. One hundred and twenty two of these primers showed clear amplification patterns. Polymorphism of 38 of the optimized markers was tested with DNA samples from 32 unrelated individuals and 31 of them were polymorphic. For the 31 polymorphic loci, the observed number of alleles ranged from 2 to 9 (mean 3.39) with allele sizes ranging from 94 bp to 286 bp, while the effective number of alleles ranged from 1.03 to 4.97 (mean 2.04). The observed (H_o) and expected heterozygosities (He) ranged from 0.033 to 1.000 (mean 0.396) and 0.033 to 0.799 (mean 0.419), respectively. Nine loci significantly deviated from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium ($p < 0.05$) after Bonferroni correction. The mean fixation index (F) for all 31 loci was 0.052 (-1 to 0.71) while the average probability of identity (PI) was 0.43. Shannon's Index ranged from 0.085 to 1.821 (mean 0.750). The polymorphism information content (PIC) of the 31 markers averaged 0.3689 (0.0329 to 0.7735) with 29% of them being highly informative ($PIC > 0.50$), 35.5% being reasonably informative ($0.50 > PIC > 0.25$), and 35.5% being slightly

informative ($PIC < 0.25$). The results of this study would serve as baseline information for genetic diversity studies, genetic linkage mapping, quantitative trait loci analysis as well as inform breeding strategies for the improvement and conservation in both domestic and wild populations of the species.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFLP	Amplified fragment length polymorphism
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	Deoxy nucleotide triphosphate
F	Fixation index
He	Expected heterozygosity
Ho	Observed heterozygosity
HWE	Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
I	Shannon's Index
MPC	Magnetic Particle Concentrator
mtDNA	Mitochondrial DNA
Na	Number of alleles
NAF	Null allele frequency
Ne	Effective number of alleles
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PI	Probability of identity
PIC	Polymorphism information content
RAPD	Random amplified polymorphic DNA
RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism
RFU	Relative fluorescent unit
RL	Rapid library
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
SSR	Simple sequence repeat

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The successful domestication of animals has led to the development and testing of several methods in the pursuit of improving animal productivity. Due to the fact that animal genetic improvement is a continuous and complex process, the face of animal breeding has been very dynamic over the past decades. Traditionally, the genetic improvement of livestock breeds has been based on phenotypic selection. The 20th century was therefore defined by the development of the quantitative theory and methodology towards accurate selection and the prediction of genetic response (Walsh, 2000; Van Marle-Köster *et al.*, 2003). This resulted in the selection of some economically important genetic traits in cattle, sheep, pigs and poultry (Van Marle-Köster *et al.*, 2003). In recent years, the demonstration of genetic polymorphism at the DNA sequence level has listed several marker techniques with a range of applications. This has resulted in the increased regard for the potential value of these markers in animal breeding (Hines, 1999). These markers have been useful in studies including kinship and population studies, gene duplication or deletion, construction of detailed genetic maps of several organisms and the study of genetic variation within populations of the same species (Santana *et al.*, 2009). The utilization of marker-based information for genetic improvement is based on the choice of marker system for a given application. Several factors such as the degree of polymorphism, dominance, technical know-how, possibility of automation, reproducibility of the technique, and finally the expense involved have influenced the selection of markers for different applications (Van Marle-Köster *et al.*, 2003). Autosomal markers are the most efficient markers for genetic diversity studies because they are easily reproducible, co-dominant and highly polymorphic (FAO, 2007; FAO, 2011; Lenstra

et al., 2012). These markers have however been used in conjunction with mitochondrial and Y-chromosomal DNA to establish breed relationships (FAO, 2007; FAO, 2011).

Current global research efforts on animal genetic variation are geared towards characterising the genetic structure of local populations to serve as the basis for identifying unique populations or genotypes for conservation against future needs (Kayang *et al.*, 2010). This is particularly critical in an era of unnerving global challenges such as population growth, climate change, emerging diseases and rising consumer demands, which would likely require new genotypes in the future (Kayang *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, it is easier to manage and improve genetic diversity of a population or breed of farm animals but once diversity is lost, it is expensive and difficult to make changes (Lenstra *et al.*, 2012). Existing Animal genetic resources thus represent a massive past investment which, if managed appropriately, can provide insurance against an unknowable global future (FAO, 2007; FAO, 2011).

Microsatellite markers are among the key tools for the study of genetic structure of populations (FAO, 2007; Kayang *et al.* 2010) and have been successfully isolated and used for genetic studies in several valuable poultry and livestock species including Japanese quail (Kayang *et al.*, 2002), ducks (Abdelkrim *et al.*, 2009), chicken (Groenen *et al.*, 2000; Osei-Amponsah *et al.*, 2010), grasscutter (Adenyo *et al.*, 2012) and pigs (Rohrer *et al.*, 1996). However, even though the guinea fowl also plays a major role as an important protein source in food and income security, genetic studies have been hampered by the absence of original microsatellite markers for the bird.

The guinea fowl is believed to have originated from the Guinea coast of Africa but is common in the Western, Southern and Central parts of Africa, Europe and Asia. In

these areas, the commonest type of guinea fowl is the helmeted type which is the only type that has been successfully domesticated (Ikani and Dafwang, 2004). Wild populations of helmeted guinea fowls can still be found in certain areas but the population of these birds continues to dwindle as a result of hunting and habitat fragmentation (Church and Taylor, 1992). In Ghana, especially in the Guinea savannah areas, helmeted guinea fowls can be found in many households where they are raised for meat and eggs and therefore play an indispensable role in food security for the people. All over the world, consumers are increasingly becoming health conscious and tend to settle for food products that are low in calories. In this context, the guinea fowl is becoming a substitute for other poultry meat because it is lean and low in calories (Moreki, 2009). The tenderness and unique flavour of the meat of young birds can substitute wild game birds including quails and partridges. Currently, the guinea fowl is becoming popular not only because of its high nutritional qualities and unique ornamental value but also because of its peculiar characteristics. The loud and harsh cry, which though makes the bird irritably noisy, enables it to be used as an “intruder alarm” or watch bird to alert owners to a vast array of issues including strange people, animals and events (Ikani and Dafwang, 2004). Furthermore, guinea fowls are natural insect eaters and can be used as biological control agents to eradicate vast levels of insect infestations, especially in gardens or farms. In fact, Duffy *et al.* (1992) have reported them as an effective control to reduce the deer tick (arachnid) population, which is the vector of Lyme disease. Guinea fowls are also noted for their resistance to most of the common poultry diseases and some toxins (Moreki, 2009) and are therefore valuable models for disease research (Singh *et al.*, 2010).

In light of the numerous values of the guinea fowl, there is the need to develop genetic markers that will serve as a tool for the improvement of this valuable species.

1.1 Justification

A lot of progress has been made in the genetic analysis of several animal species especially among birds in the Galliformes order. However, not much has been done in the guinea fowl. Presently, genetic analysis of guinea fowl includes work done by Sharma *et al.* (1998) who used Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers to differentiate between three varieties of the species; Nahashon *et al.* (2008) who cross-amplified chicken microsatellites in guinea fowl; and Kayang *et al.* (2010) who studied genetic diversity of guinea fowls with autosomal microsatellite markers developed from the Japanese quail. Most importantly, not much has been done regarding the development of original microsatellite markers for guinea fowl. Attempts to improvise by using markers from other birds in the same order as the guinea fowl have not been entirely successful (Kayang *et al.*, 2002; Nahashon *et al.*, 2008). Also attempts to develop these markers using the traditional method have yielded limited success (B.B. Kayang, personal communication, June 9, 2013).

Although Kayang *et al.* (2010) were able to study the genetic diversity of guinea fowls using autosomal microsatellites from the Japanese quail, it is relevant to develop original microsatellite markers for the first time since this will help widen the scope of study in guinea fowl. Furthermore, these markers are usually species-specific and hence need to be developed for the first time when analysis of a new species is started. With the advent of the next-generation sequencing technology, the time-consuming traditional method of developing microsatellite markers is becoming less attractive. This new technology has recently been successfully employed in the development of microsatellite markers for grasscutter (Adenyo *et al.*, 2012) and there is every reason to believe that it will work well if applied to guinea fowl.

Guinea fowls are indispensable economically important species and therefore some genetic analysis is required, to enable researchers discover the genetic capabilities of this bird and also attribute some of their characteristics to the presence or absence of certain genes in their genome. Also the data from this study will serve as a useful resource base for animal breeders and conservationists interested in genetic improvement and conservation of this valuable species.

1.2 Objective

The objective of this study was to develop and characterise original microsatellite markers for guinea fowl using the next-generation sequencing technique.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Guinea Fowl

Guinea fowls are carinate birds (capable of flight), but are terrestrial and most likely to run rather than fly when startled (Ayorinde, 2004). They are however very agile flyers and can also hover (Adjetey, 2006). They belong to the family Phasianidae, sub-family Numididae and order Galliformes. Other agriculturally important birds in the order include turkeys, chickens and pheasants. Guinea fowls are native to West Africa but are now kept in many parts of the world. Generally, the male guinea fowl (cock) and female (hen) are not distinctly sexually dimorphic until they are about two months of age (Moreki, 2009).

2.1.1 Types of guinea fowl

The guinea fowl comprises four genera, namely, *Agelastes*, *Numida*, *Guttera* and *Acryllium* (Ayorinde, 2004). The *Agelastes* consists of the White-breasted guinea fowl (*meleagrides*) and the Black guinea fowl (*niger*), whilst the *Numida* consists of the Helmeted type (*meleagris*). On the other hand, the *Guttera* consists of the Plumed (*plumifera*) and the Crested (*pucherani*) types, with the Vulturine type (*vulturinum*) being found under the last genera *Acryllium* (Ayorinde, 2004).

The White-breasted guinea fowl, *Agelastes meleagrides* (Plate 1a), is a medium-sized terrestrial bird, up to 45 cm long with black plumage, a small featherless red head, white breast, long black tail, greenish brown beak and greyish feet (BirdLife International, 2013). It is distributed in the subtropical West African forests of Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone (Francis *et al.*, 1992). The White-breasted guinea fowl however, has been identified by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) as Vulnerable (IUCN, 2007).

This type of guinea fowl is heavily poached whilst its habitat is rapidly declining owing to logging, forest clearance for agriculture and human settlement (BirdLife International, 2013). In Ghana the white breasted guinea fowl has been rumored to inhabit Krokosua, Boi Tano and the Draw River forest reserves in the Western region of Ghana (Kierulff *et al.*, 2008).



Plate 1: Species of guinea fowl within the four genera (a) *Agelastes meleagrides* (White-breasted guinea fowl), (b) *Agelastes Niger* (Black guinea fowl), (c) *Acryllium vulturinum* (Vulturine guinea fowl), (d) *Guttera pucherani* (Crested guinea fowl), (e) *Guttera plumifera* (Plumed guinea fowl), (f) *Numida meleagris* (Helmeted guinea fowl)

Source: BirdLife International (2008); Moreki (2009); Wikipedia (2008).

Black guinea fowls, *Agelastes Niger* (Plate 1b), are 40 cm to 43 cm in length, and have a featherless head, short crests of black down feathers and black plumage (BirdLife International, 2013). These birds are usually found in the humid forests of Central Africa. They possess large toes to enable them grasp the ground, but tiny feet to aid in flight (BirdLife International, 2008).

The vulturine guinea fowl, *Acryllium vulturinum* (Plate 1c), is the largest (61-71 cm in length) and most ornate, with a long, glossy-blue cape, white hackles extending from the neck and cobalt blue breast, with looks similar to the vulture (Jacob and Pescatore, 2011). It has black body plumage finely spangled white spots, with short rounded wings, and a tail longer than those of other members in the family Numididae (BirdLife International, 2008). In contrast to the other guinea fowls the vulturine guinea fowl has the ability to survive for longer periods without water and is mostly found in East Africa (Martinez, 1994).

The crested guinea fowl, *Guttera pucherani* (Plate 1d), is found in open forest, woodland and forest-savanna medley in sub-Saharan Africa with a body length of approximately 50 cm and blackish plumage with dense white spots (Clements, 2010). It has a noticeable black crest on top of its head, which varies from small curly feathers to down feathers depending on the subspecies (BirdLife International, 2008).

The plumed guinea fowl, *Guttera plumifera* (Plate 1e), have a naked head and neck with a small fold of skin at the back of its head, wattles, long straight black crest and black plumage with white spots (BirdLife International, 2008). They are 45 cm to 51 cm in length and can be found in the humid primary forest of Central Africa (BirdLife International, 2008).

The helmeted guinea fowl, *Numida meleagris* (Plate 1f), which is the focus of this study, is naturally distributed in West Africa along with the other species except the vulturine type (Awotwi, 1987; Ikani and Dafwang, 2004; Kayang *et al.*, 2010). In spite of its African origin, it is able to thrive in various climatic conditions and is reared commercially in Europe, America and Asia (Dei and Karbo, 2004; Moreki, 2009). Helmeted guinea fowls are 53 cm to 63 cm in length and are characterized by a bony helmet, naked grey neck and wattles on either side of the beak (Kumssa and Bekelele, 2013). The helmeted type is the most common guinea fowl with varieties including the white, pearl, royal purple, lavender, coral blue and dundotte (Dei and Karbo, 2004; Moreki, 2009). There are nine subspecies of the helmeted guinea fowl. This type of guinea fowl is the most wide spread and though it can still be found in the wild, it has been domesticated and can even be kept as pets in certain areas. The preferred habitat for the helmeted guinea fowl is the savannah, where they thrive best. In Ghana, the Northern Savannah zone is the niche that accommodates the largest population of helmeted guinea fowls. In Northern Ghana, helmeted guinea fowls have a high cultural value and make up about 25% of the poultry population in the zone (Kayang *et al.*, 2010). In Nigeria, 25% of the entire poultry population is made up helmeted guinea fowl (Ikani and Dafwang, 2004).

2.1.2 Important characteristics of helmeted guinea fowl and its production in Ghana

Guinea fowl production is a substantial income generating venture especially if proper management practices are observed (Teye and Gyawu, 2001). In Ghana guinea fowls are mostly raised in the backyard system (as is the case in most developing countries) where they may be fed by their owners, but are mainly allowed to scavenge for food during the day and return to their owner's yard to roost at night (Teye and Gyawu,

2001; Ikani and Dafwang, 2004). Though this type of poultry keeping is not labour intensive, it is economical in terms of feed cost. The demerits of this system are that the birds are easily lost through thefts and predation and the eggs may also be lost since the birds do not necessarily lay in the owner's yard. Such losses may be colossal and deprive the farmers of the full benefit of rearing these birds (Mallia, 1999; Teye and Gyawu, 2001). According to Teye and Gyawu (2001) improved guinea fowls, when kept in the intensive system, however, enables farmers to make more profit, as they can monitor the eggs and the birds. Although the intensive system may improve overall production in local guinea fowls, Agbolosu *et al.* (2012) reported that generally, guinea fowl production is hampered by poor egg hatchability, male infertility, high keet mortality, difficulty in sexing keets and slow growth rate.

Sexual dimorphism of guinea fowls is not very clear (Agbolosu *et al.*, 2012), although the cry of the cock (one syllabus cry) is distinct from that of the hen (two syllabus cry) at nine weeks (Teye and Gyawu, 2002). Other methods of sex identification including vent sexing, laparoscopy and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) have been used to differentiate between the sexes. The PCR method of sexing has been reported to be the most reliable as it deals with direct identification of the sex chromosomes or genes (Itoh *et al.*, 2001).

Generally guinea fowls are seasonal breeders, but have the potential to lay eggs all through the year provided sufficient supplementary feeding and water are available (Konlan *et al.*, 2011). Hens can lay 12 to 15 eggs in a clutch (between 90- 120 eggs per annum) which will take about 24 to 30 days to hatch into keets weighing 24 to 25 g each (Farrell, 2010). According to Teye *et al.* (2001) and Apiiga (2004), with good feeding and management practices including health care and intensive selection, hens

can lay 150 to 220 eggs per annum with keet weight of 1.48 kg at 18 weeks (Moreki, 2009). Related studies by Agbolosu *et al.* (2012) also revealed a similar trend of increasing guinea fowl performance with improved management practices.

Guinea fowl eggs are protected in hard shells and this helps to extend the shelf life by reducing spoilage. The hard shells also facilitate transportation over long distances and therefore reduce production losses (Moreki, 2009). Although the hens are bad brooders, the eggs are hatched artificially using incubators or other good brooding poultry species including chicken (Adjetey, 2006; Apiiga, 2007). Konlan *et al.* (2011), in a study which involved increasing guinea fowl egg hatchability, reported a 69% rate with artificial incubation.

At six months, guinea fowls reach a slaughter weight of 1.5 kg to 2 kg but this relies greatly on the geographical location and management system (Koney, 2004; Ikani and Dafwang, 2004). Guinea fowl meat is a delicacy as it has a gamey taste and can be used as a substitute for wild birds. Moreover, both the meat (134 kcal per 100 gram) and eggs are healthier (lower cholesterol) compared to other poultry and are rich in minerals (magnesium, calcium and iron), vitamins (E, B1 and B2) and high in essential fatty acids (Moreki, 2009).

Guinea fowls are hardy and are tolerant to mycotoxin and aflatoxin (Moreki, 2009). They are also resistant to most of the common poultry diseases, including coccidiosis, Newcastle disease, fowlpox and gumboro. Furthermore, they also easily adapt to harsh weather conditions as experienced in the tropics (Moreki, 2009; Singh *et al.*, 2010).

2.2 Genetic Markers

Genetic markers are DNA sequences linked to specific locations on chromosomes and related to specific traits (Moore and Hansen, 2003). Although biochemical and molecular markers are the two types of genetic markers, FAO (2011) insists on the application of current advanced technologies because they are most informative. The most advanced and current techniques are molecular genetic markers, which include mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) sequences (which are maternally inherited), Y-chromosomal haplotype (which are paternal linked) and autosomal DNA which are related more to phenotype (Lenstra *et al.*, 2012).

2.2.1 Mitochondrial DNA and Y-chromosomal haplotype

The mtDNA are maternally inherited, circular DNA molecules located outside the nucleus, and are capable of evolving 5 to 10 times more rapidly than nuclear (autosomal) DNA, especially the displacement-loop (D-loop) region which is the control region of mtDNA (Garrime, 2007) located in the non-coding region. Most studies, however, emphasise on the highly polymorphic D-loop, but whole genome sequences have been reported as informative (Achilli *et al.*, 2008). mtDNA can easily be isolated but rely on the recognition of nuclear mtDNA insertions (Hassanin *et al.*, 2010; Calvignac *et al.*, 2011), especially when diverse species-specific primers are used (Den Tex *et al.*, 2010). The D-loop is usually used for intraspecies diversity studies. The cytochrome b gene, on the other hand, is located within the coding region and evolves slowly in terms of non-synonymous substitutions. It is usually applied in interspecies genetic diversity studies (Mburu and Hanotte, 2005).

In contrast to mitochondrial DNA, Y-chromosome is paternally inherited and is a large linear molecule located in the nucleus (Mburu and Hanotte, 2005). The Y-

chromosomal haplotypes have slow mutation rates and are powerful tools used to trace gene flow by male introgression and thus identify paternal lineages in populations (Petit *et al.*, 2002).

2.2.2 Autosomal DNA

According to Baker (1980), initial genetic diversity studies relied on blood groups and protein polymorphisms. Recently, autosomal DNA (Ellegren, 2004; Whittaker *et al.*, 2003) are the most used markers (Bruford *et al.*, 2003; Schlötterer, 2004; Soller *et al.*, 2006). Autosomal markers include Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP), Random Amplification of Polymorphic DNA (RAPD), Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP), Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) and microsatellite markers (FAO, 2007). Microsatellite markers or simple sequence repeats (SSR) and SNPs are the most recent autosomal DNA markers, however microsatellite markers have been identified as the most powerful markers (Tóth *et al.*, 2000; Ellegren, 2004; FAO, 2007; Tenva, 2009).

2.2.2.1 Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)

According to FAO (2007), this technique involves the digestion of DNA with restriction enzymes and the selective amplification of the digested fragments using a PCR. The output is a significant number of informative markers which can be located reliably in the genome allowing a quick scan of the entire genome. These markers are biallelic (Vos *et al.*, 1995), easily reproducible (Table 1) and are capable of estimating relationships between breeds (Ajmone-Marsan *et al.*, 2002; Negrini *et al.*, 2006) and related species (Buntjer *et al.*, 2002). Although this technology yields a large amount of information per run it is not possible to distinguish between heterozygotes and homozygotes (dominant markers) and this makes the use of these markers technically

demanding and labour intensive (Vos *et al.*, 1995; FAO, 2007). Genetic diversity studies using AFLP have been reported in pigs (SanCristobal *et al.*, 2006), goats (Ajmone-Marsan *et al.*, 2002; Negrini *et al.*, 2006) and cattle (Buntjer *et al.*, 2002).

2.2.2.2 Random Amplification of Polymorphic DNA (RAPD)

RAPD markers, first described by Williams *et al.* (1990), are detected using random PCR primers. They are the most popular molecular tools capable of recognizing polymorphisms in large portions of the genome based on minute quantities of DNA. RAPD analysis is quick and simple, because a single RAPD primer can anneal to various locations in a genome (multiple loci). Although results are sensitive to laboratory conditions, this technique is fast and cost effective compared to RFLPs (Table 1). Although RAPD are dominant markers (Table 1), they however have the tendency to underestimate genetic variability and are not easily reproducible (Plotsky *et al.*, 1995). Sharma *et al.* (1998) estimated the intra and inter varietal genetic variation in three varieties of guinea fowl (Lavender, Pearl and White) with RAPD markers. The results showed a very low level of intra and inter varietal genetic variation in the three guinea fowl varieties, implying low genetic variation between the populations. The genetic homogeneity found in the study was attributed to the fact that the guinea fowl populations were diluted, closed, reproduced from small number of sires and subjected to similar type of selection programmes. The ability of RAPD markers to underestimate genetic variability as reported by Plotsky *et al.* (1995) was also indicated as a reason for the low genetic diversity realized in the above study.

Table 1: Characteristics of the main types of molecular markers.

Characteristic	RFLP	SSR (Microsatellite)	AFLP	RAPD	SNP
Type of visualization	Single locus	Single locus	Multi-loci	Multi-loci	Single locus
Type of polymorphism	Sequence	No. of repeats	Sequence	Sequence	Sequence
Level of polymorphism	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Good	Excellent
Polymorphism at the locus	2 to 5 alleles	Multiple alleles	Presence/absence	Presence/absence	2 alleles
Dominance	Co-dominant	Co-dominant	Dominant	Dominant	Co-dominant
Quantity of DNA needed	Large	Small	Small	Small	Small
Quality of DNA needed	Good	No restrictions	Good	Good	Good
Reproducibility	Good	Good	Good	Low	Good
Time	Long	Fast, once developed	Fast	Fast	Fast, once developed
Cost	Expensive	Average	Average	Average	Expensive ^a
Technical difficulty	High	Low	Medium	Medium	High ^a

^a: Both cost and technical difficulty are highly dependent on the chosen method of visualization.

Source: Karp *et al.*(1997); De Vienne (1998).

2.2.2.3 Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP)

RFLPs were discovered in 1980 (Botstein *et al.*, 1980; Schimenti, 1998). Similar to AFLP markers, RFLP markers also rely on the use of restriction enzymes and occur as variations in the length of DNA fragments, after restriction enzyme digestion at precise restriction sites (FAO, 2007). The difference between RFLP and AFLP markers is that the PCR is done prior to restriction enzyme digestion in RFLPs (FAO, 2007). The advantages of this technique include its ability to discriminate between homozygotes and heterozygotes (co-dominant markers) (Table 1). They are also stable markers and therefore produce reproducible results (Table 1). However, although RFLPs are good markers, the methodology is long, labourious and demands the use of DNA of both high quality and quantity. They are also non-informative and therefore are unable to identify whole genome variation especially when inbreeding is high (Tenva, 2009).

2.2.2.4 Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP)

SNPs are single base or nucleotide (A, T, G or C) variations or alterations that occur in DNA sequence (Vignal *et al.*, 2002) and do not directly affect the phenotype of organisms (FAO, 2007). They are abundant in genomes (mostly in non-coding regions) and this makes them easy to find. Sachinandam *et al.* (2001) reported one SNP per 1,000 bp in the human genome. Stoneking (2001) and Vignal *et al.* (2002) have also reported that in most genomes SNPs occur as one SNP per 1,000 bp in both coding and non-coding regions. Although SNPs are biallelic and stable with low mutation rates, they are highly non-informative (Table 1), compared to microsatellites (Tenva, 2009). Studies involving SNPs are costly and require high numbers of the markers to provide little information (FAO, 2007).

2.3 Microsatellite Markers

Microsatellite markers are defined as a class of highly informative, repetitive DNA sequences, based on nucleotide repeats (Griffiths *et al.*, 2000; Gurdebecke and Maelfait, 2002). According to Mburu and Hanotte (2005) microsatellites markers are also referred to as short tandem repeats (*STR*), simple sequence tandem repeats (*SSTR*), variable number tandem repeats (*VNTR*), simple sequence length polymorphisms (*SSLP*), simple sequence repeats (*SSR*) and sequence tagged microsatellites (*STM*). Two types of microsatellites have been described: the rare Type I markers which characterise genes of specific functions and are informative in gene mapping for evolutionary genome studies (Vignal *et al.*, 2002) and Type II markers which are of no known function but are more polymorphic than Type I markers (Odeny, 2006).

Microsatellites can range from between two to six base pairs in length (Wang *et al.*, 2010). The most popular class of microsatellites (Table 2) are dinucleotides (Ellegren, 2004; Adenyo *et al.*, 2012), followed by tri-, tetra-, penta and hexanucleotide repeats (Schlötterer and Harr, 2001). Dinucleotide microsatellites have been reported as the most polymorphic and are known to be characterised by higher repeat numbers (Ellegren, 2004; Li *et al.*, 2004) with low repeat numbers being observed in trinucleotide repeats (Tóth *et al.*, 2000; Thiel *et al.*, 2003). According to Tong *et al.* (2009), dinucleotides occur more frequently in vertebrates whilst in plants the commonest class of repeats are trinucleotides.

Table 2: Common classes of microsatellites

Class of microsatellite	Repeat motif	Microsatellite sequence
Dinucleotide	(GT) ₈	GTGTGTGTGTGTGTGT
Trinucleotide	(GAT) ₇	GATGATGATGATGATGATGAT
Tetranucleotide	(CTAG) ₆	CTAGCTAGCTAGCTAGCTAGCTAG
Pentanucleotide	(CATTG) ₅	CATTGCATTGCATTGCATTGCATTG
Hexanucleotide	(GGATCC) ₄	GGATCCGGATCCGGATCCGGATCC

Source: Schlötterer and Harr (2001).

Within the classes of repeats, longer reads have a higher probability of producing microsatellites with flanking regions critical for primer development (Mallory, 2007; Schoebel *et al.*, 2013) which give polymorphic PCR products with higher polymorphism information contents or low probability of identity values (Qi *et al.*, 2001). In most genomes, the class of repeat is inversely proportional to the number of microsatellites found (Megléczy *et al.*, 2012). According to Tóth *et al.* (2000) and Ellegren (2004), who surveyed microsatellites in different eukaryotic genomes, there is a higher proportion of tetranucleotide repeats than trinucleotide repeats in vertebrate genomes. There are four types of dinucleotide repeats CA/AC/GT/TG, GA/AG/CT/TC, AT/TA, and GC/CG (Ellegren, 2004). However, the most common repeat in most eukaryotic genomes is CA and its complement GT (Tóth *et al.*, 2000; Ellegren, 2004) while AT repeats occur most in plants (Megléczy *et al.*, 2012).

Microsatellites are presumed to originate from single or multiple mutational events including duplications during replication, insertion/deletions, unequal recombination

of chromatids and base substitutions (Gupta *et al.*, 1996; Zane *et al.*, 2002). According to Weber (1990) and Schlötterer and Harr (2001) microsatellites classes can further be grouped into three categories (Table 3), perfect, imperfect (disrupted by base substitutions) and compound microsatellites (consist of more than a single repeat type). Perfect microsatellites are usually the most abundant and the most polymorphic among the three (Kayang *et al.*, 2000; Schlötterer and Harr, 2001). Kutil and Williams (2001) have reported that in genomes, compound microsatellites occur less frequently than perfect microsatellites because they contain more imperfections and deletions and may signify the last stage prior to degradation. Sequence stability and conservation to some extent can be deduced from the nature of repeats (Moriguchi *et al.*, 2003) and be used for studying the evolutionary patterns of genomes (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). The proportion of perfect to imperfect repeat is also directly influenced by the enrichment procedure used in the microsatellite isolation process (Van de Wiel *et al.*, 1999; Moriguchi *et al.*, 2003).

Table 3: Categories of microsatellite repeats

Category of microsatellite	Repeat motif	Microsatellite sequence
Imperfect microsatellite	(GT) ₅ A(GT) ₆	GTGTGTGTGTAGTGTGTGTGTGT
Interrupted microsatellite	(GT) ₄ CCC(GT) ₅	GTGTGTGTCCCGTGTGTGTGT
Compound microsatellite	(GT) ₅ (CT) ₇	TGTGTGTGTCTCTCTCTCTCTCT

Source: Schlötterer and Harr (2001).

Microsatellites occur in both coding and non-coding regions. However, tri- and hexanucleotide repeats occur mostly in coding regions (exons) whilst the other classes

of repeats occur in intergenic regions and introns (Tóth *et al.*, 2000). Microsatellites also belong to a class of genomic sequences called variable number of tandem repeat (VNTR) elements (Buschiazzo and Gemmel, 2006), which are highly mutable, thus their polymorphic nature evident in both prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms (Katti *et al.*, 2001).

Research has shown that it is easier to identify and develop microsatellite markers if the frequency of occurrence is high in an organism (Zane *et al.*, 2002; Selkoe and Toonen, 2006). Even though these sequences are common in eukaryotic and prokaryotic genomes (Chambers and MacAvoy, 2000), they occur at low frequencies in some species including corals, some insects, bats and birds (Neff and Gross, 2001; Baums *et al.*, 2005; Primmer *et al.*, 1997). In a study by Abdelkrim *et al.* (2009) to describe the use of genomic sequencing for the development of microsatellite markers in Blue ducks, only 231 of a total of 17,215 microsatellite sequences, were di-, tri- and tetranucleotide repeats. Santana *et al.* (2009) also reported that there were no pentanucleotide repeats in a study involving microsatellite development for *Sirex noctilio* (a pine-damaging wasp), and attributed this finding to the low abundance of the markers in insects. In animals, there is a positive correlation between genome size and microsatellite abundance (Hancock, 1996; Katti *et al.*, 2001) while in plants, there is a negative correlation (Morgante *et al.*, 2002). Unlike human genomes, there are limiting numbers of Poly-A tails in avian genomes due to the low abundance of interspersed elements which aid in the transition of Poly-A tails into various repeats (Primmer *et al.*, 1997).

2.3.1 Merits of microsatellite markers

Microsatellites offer a variety of advantages in contrast to other molecular markers (Table 1). Among all the marker types, microsatellites are the best markers for genetic

studies because they have higher heterozygosity or exhibit higher polymorphism (Edwards *et al.*, 1996; Liu and Cordes, 2004). Although SNPs, a new class of good markers, have been developed, microsatellites remain the markers of choice for various reasons (FAO, 2007). SNPs have rather low heterozygosity and therefore more of these markers need to be typed to yield better results (FAO, 2007). Microsatellite markers, on the other hand, are highly reproducible, can be amplified easily by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using two unique sequences which are complementary to the flanking regions as primers and require very little amount of DNA as starting material (Liu and Cordes, 2004; Selkoe and Toonen, 2006). Due to the species-specificity of microsatellites, issues with cross-contamination by non-target DNA are reduced in contrast to techniques that employ universal primers (Liu and Cordes, 2004). Microsatellite markers are also co-dominant, therefore the heterozygote can easily be differentiated from the homozygote (Zane *et al.*, 2002; FAO, 2007). Finally, microsatellites have a high tendency to mutate (15 or more alleles in any given population) increasing the ease of establishing allelic identity-by-descent and linkage (FAO, 2007).

2.3.2 Limitations of Microsatellite Markers

Microsatellites, though versatile molecular markers, particularly for population analysis, are not without limitations. Although it is possible to cross amplify microsatellites in closely related species, the percentage of loci that successfully amplify may decrease with increasing genetic distance (Jarne and Lagoda, 1996).

Null alleles may occur as a result of point mutations (Jarne and Lagoda, 1996; Dakin and Avise, 2004). Sequence variation in flanking regions can result in poor primer annealing, especially at the 3' region, which is the starting point of sequence

extension (Jarne and Lagoda, 1996; Dakin and Avise, 2004). Due to the competitive nature of PCR there may be bias amplification of certain allele sizes therefore increasing the possibility of heterozygous individuals being scored for homozygotes (partial null) (Dakin and Avise, 2004). Null alleles which are technical problems complicate the elucidation of microsatellite allele frequencies and thus make assessment of relatedness faulty (Dakin and Avise, 2004; Oddou-Muratorio *et al.*, 2008). Although null alleles change allele frequencies, random sampling (which is a natural phenomenon) during mating may also alter allele frequencies so that an excessive frequency of homozygotes results in a departure from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium expectations (Dakin and Avise, 2004). It is therefore important to distinguish between them if excess homozygotes are observed.

Identification and development of microsatellite markers is quite challenging, especially in organisms where little or no sequence data is available. In genomes with low abundance of microsatellites such as birds, the degree of difficulty is elevated (Primmer *et al.*, 1997). Generally, the process could be expensive, time-consuming and labour-intensive, requiring construction of a genomic library enriched for repeated motifs, isolation and sequencing of candidate clones, primer design, PCR amplification, and testing for polymorphisms in unrelated individuals (Queller *et al.*, 1993; Jarne and Lagoda, 1996; Santana *et al.*, 2009).

2.3.3 Development of Microsatellite Markers

Among a number of available methods to identify microsatellites (Dutech *et al.*, 2007), the most commonly used methods are based on targeted enrichment of DNA for microsatellites (Zane *et al.*, 2002; Selkoe and Toonen, 2006), for example inter simple sequence repeat PCR (ISSR-PCR) (Zietkiewicz *et al.*, 1994). The genome

region between microsatellite loci is the ISSR. This has been improved by the advancement of technology including the Next-Generation Sequencing technique (Zane *et al.*, 2002; Glenn and Schable, 2005).

2.3.3.1. Microsatellite isolation using traditional method

The traditional method of marker isolation (Figure 1) entails cloning of small genomic DNA fragments from existing partial genomic libraries of the target species (Queller *et al.*, 1993; Jarne and Lagoda, 1996). In the absence of an existing library, one must be constructed by extracting DNA from the species of interest. Enriched libraries have been proposed to increase success rates of isolation (Karagyozev *et al.*, 1993; Billotte *et al.*, 1999; Edwards *et al.*, 1996). Prior to cloning, the library is fragmented and then adaptors (double-stranded DNA segments, usually $\approx 10 - 12$ bp long, that contain the recognition site for a particular restriction enzyme) are attached to both ends of the fragments. The fragments are cloned into vectors. Common vectors used in cloning include plasmids, cosmid, lambda phage, bacterial artificial chromosomes (BAC) and yeast artificial chromosomes (YAC) (Primrose and Twyman, 2006). The vectors are then transformed into industrially produced competent bacterial cells and cultured on media.

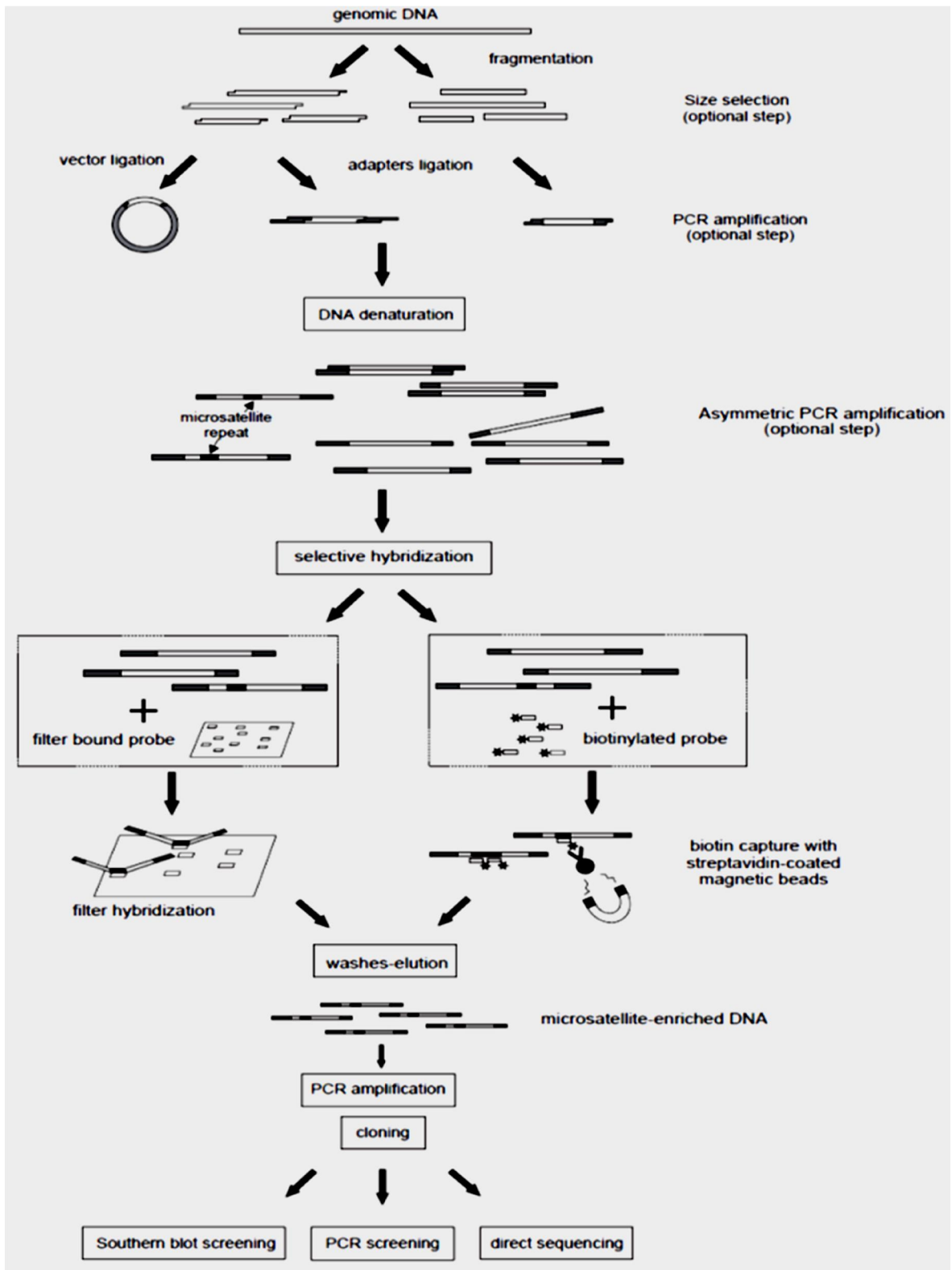


Figure 1: Schematic representation of traditional marker development

Source: Zane *et al.* (2002).

Clones containing fragments are screened through colony hybridisation with probes (Powell *et al.*, 1996; Chen *et al.*, 1997) possibly bound to a nylon membrane (Stajner *et al.*, 2005) or biotinylated and bound to streptavidin-coated beads (Yaish and de la Vega, 2003). Plasmids are then extracted and electrophoresed by Sanger sequencing to confirm microsatellite containing clones (Temnykh *et al.*, 2001), followed by primer design and optimisation.

This procedure is more efficient for species with abundant SSRs in contrast to genomes with low frequency of SSR such as birds (Primmer *et al.*, 1997; B.B. Kayang, personal communication, June 19, 2013). Generally, the efficiency of this method of marker development is low. Kayang *et al.* (2000) for instance, used this method in Japanese quail, and found only 29.2% (372 of 1273 clones) recording a positive signal for microsatellite after hybridization. The isolation process could also be time-consuming (several months), technically demanding and considerably more costly (Croooijimas *et al.*, 1997; Santana *et al.*, 2009; Andrés and Bogdanowicz, 2011; Blair *et al.*, 2012).

2.3.3.2 Microsatellite isolation using 454 next-generation sequencing (NGS) technique

The 454 next-generation sequencing technique combines three main molecular techniques (PCR, Shotgun and Pyrosequencing Sequencing) to convert DNA from the genome into sequence data (Margulies *et al.*, 2005). The 454 sequencing method involves three main steps, namely, DNA Rapid Library Preparation, Emulsion PCR (emPCR) and Sequencing (Margulies *et al.*, 2005). During the DNA library preparation, pure genomic DNA is fragmented through a partial shearing process, adapters ligated and the double strands separated into single strands.

In an emPCR (Figure 2), the fragments are then cloned, mixed with DNA micro capture beads and loaded into cylindrical wells which contain synthetic oil and enzyme reagents in a water mixture (Margulies *et al.*, 2005). The water mixture forms droplets around the beads, (emulsion) with each droplet containing only one DNA fragment. Enzymes cause the single and isolated DNA fragment in the droplets to be amplified into millions of identical copies (≈ 10 million) of the fragments per bead (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

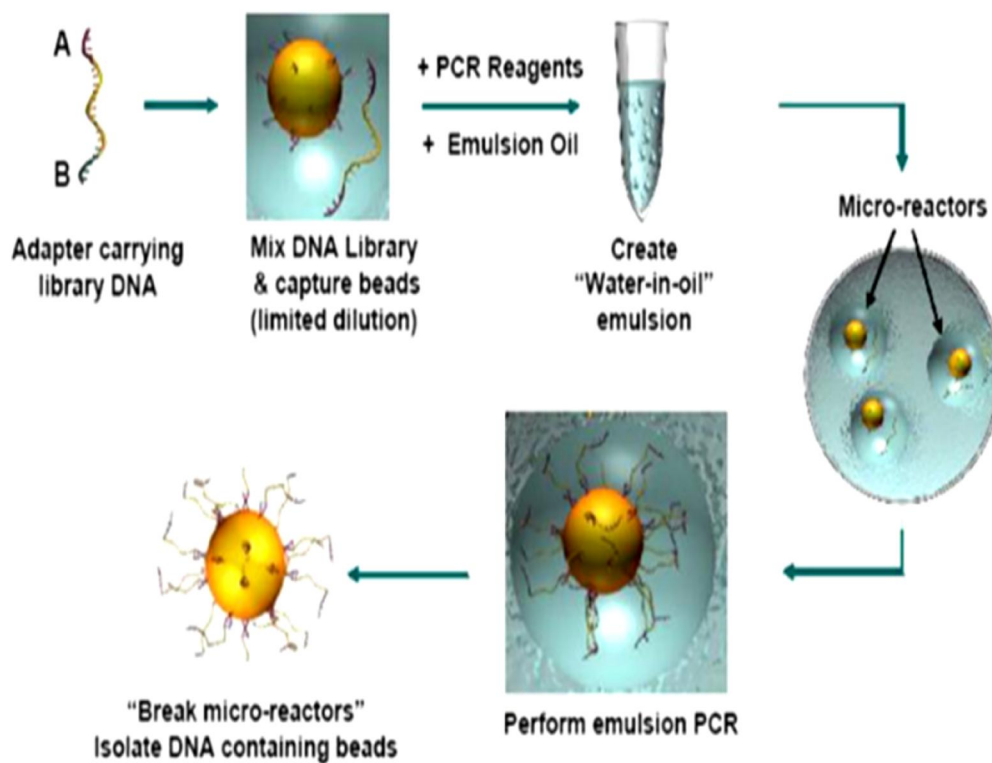


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of emulsion PCR process

Source: Margulies *et al.* (2005)

The DNA-capture beads are loaded onto a picoTiterplate with a pipette (Figure 3), and placed into the genome sequencing system instrument (Figure 4). The instrument washes the plate sequentially with various reagents, including the four nucleotides; A, T, G and C (Margulies *et al.*, 2005). Upon incorporation of the nucleotides, the bead-bound enzymes contained in each plate well converts the chemicals generated into light (which has an intensity directly proportional to the consecutive number of complementary nucleotides on the single stranded DNA fragment) in a chemiluminescent signal which is detected by an in-built CCD camera (Margulies *et al.*, 2005). The signals are then analysed on the 454 sequencing system software to generate billions of sequenced bases per hour from a single run and then primers are designed with bioinformatics and subsequently optimized (Lim *et al.*, 2004; Glenn and Schable, 2005).

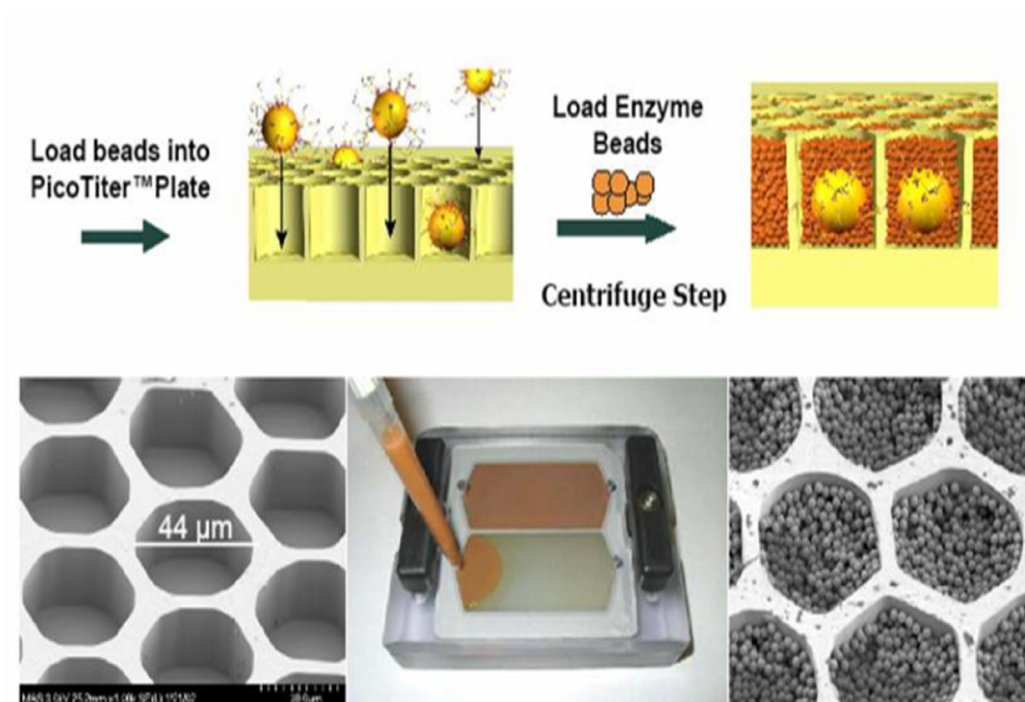


Figure 3: Schematic diagram of bead deposition into PicoTiter Plate

Source: Margulies *et al.* (2005).



Figure 4: Bench top Next-Generation Sequencer (Roche Genome sequencer junior)

Source: Molecular Genetics Laboratory, Wildlife Research Center, Kyoto University, Japan.

2.3.3.2 Primer design and optimisation

The microsatellite containing sequences in the obtained library are exported as FASTA sequences (Figure 5) and primers are then designed from the unique DNA that flanks microsatellite motifs (Glenn and Schable, 2005) with bioinformatics (Lim *et al.*, 2004). For example, for a desired (GAT)₄ microsatellite repeat, the flanking regions (Figure 5) are targeted to enable this particular repeat to be identified in the genome of the organism which contains other similar repeats but probably in different locations. Softwares such as PRIMER 3 (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000), DNASTar and FASTPCR (Tong *et al.*, 2009) can be used to design primers.

Primers are then tested for optimal cycling conditions in a PCR using DNA of the target species (Lim *et al.*, 2004; Glenn and Schable, 2005). Primers with clear amplified patterns (usually less than 100%) are selected at the appropriate annealing

temperatures and used for subsequent analysis. For instance, in a study by Schoebel *et al.* (2013), to develop microsatellite markers for the El Oro parakeet (an endangered parrot species) and Blackcap (a songbird), 86% of 22 primers and 78% of 51 primers respectively amplified successfully in a primer test. According to Mitsuhashi (1996), the G-C content of primer sequence increases stability of the primers, therefore higher melting temperatures will be required for primers in contrast to those with a higher AT content and vice versa (www.premierbiosoft.com, accessed February 31, 2013). Studies by Callen *et al.* (1993) and Smulders *et al.* (1997) have also shown that the occurrence of null alleles could result in the failure of primers to amplify during optimization.

```
>G4QAAT301APAYW length=109 xy=0171_0310
  region=1 run=R_2011_06_22_21_07_31_
```

```
GATAGGGCCTATGGGAACCTGTATTTTAGTGCAGGTTCTGATG
GTGAACTTGAAGATGATGATGATGAGCCTTATTGTATGTCTGGA
TAGGGCCTTTGTCCAACCAGAATAGAAGACTGAGAGAAGAAAC
ATGATGATTTAGGG
```

<p>Forward Primer = TGTATTTTAGTGCAGGTTCTGA Reverse Primer = CTCAGTTCTATTCTGGTTGGA</p>
--

Figure 5: Primer design with bioinformatics

2.3.4 Application of 454 sequencing in microsatellite marker development

Microsatellite marker isolation with 454 sequencing is automated and this reduces the chances of sample contamination and avoids the time consuming cloning step

involved in microsatellite isolation (Allentoft *et al.*, 2008; Abdelkrim *et al.*, 2009; Santana *et al.*, 2009).

Adenyo *et al.* (2012) developed 33 novel microsatellite markers, with number of alleles ranging from 3 to 11 (mean = 6.4), for grasscutter, using the next-generation sequencing technology. From the library screening, 156,966 reads were obtained containing 95,805 microsatellite sites. Subsequently, the primers developed recorded very low cumulative probability of identity (PI) for all loci (3.1×10^{-33}) which indicates that they were highly informative. An and Lee (2012), also confirmed the efficiency of 454 sequencing by using this technology to develop microsatellite markers for *Mytilus coruscus* (a Korean mussel) and obtained a total of 176,327 unique sequences (mean length = 381 bp) containing 2,569 (1.45%) microsatellite sites.

Due to the massive amounts of sequence data generated in a single run, the technique can be applied to genomes where microsatellite frequencies are low (Abdelkrim *et al.*, 2009). The isolation procedure can be done in less than a week, since almost every step is automated (C. Adenyo, personal communication, September 10, 2012). Abdelkrim *et al.* (2009), also reported a total of 17,215 containing 231 (1.3%) microsatellite sequences for Blue ducks with 454 sequencing and confirmed the efficiency of the method. Carvalho *et al.* (2011) also reported a total of 145,071 reads through the NGS, for the threatened Yarra pygmy perch (*Nannoperca obscura*), containing 9,476 microsatellite sites, from which 858 primers were designed.

2.3.5 Measures of microsatellite variation

Good indicators of genetic variation within populations include the mean number of alleles (average number of alleles observed) and the expected heterozygosities

(proportion of heterozygotes observed) detected in each population (FAO, 2007). According to Powell *et al.* (1996) higher values of expected heterozygosity (also known as diversity index) implies more allelic variation and is affected by the number of alleles per locus.

The Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (*HWE*) law states that in a large random mating population, in the absence of migration, selection and mutation, gene and genotype frequencies remain the same from generation to generation (Falconer and McKay, 1996). Conformity to *HWE* is the most commonly reported test in which observed and expected genotype frequencies for an ideal population are compared (Selkoe and Toonen, 2006). An excess of heterozygote (homozygote deficit) is recorded when fewer homozygotes occur than expected under *HWE*, whilst a heterozygote deficit is recorded when the opposite of this phenomenon is recorded. Biological factors including selection against a particular allele or inbreeding (*F* statistic) can cause significant heterozygote deficits (the most common direction of *HWE*) relative to *HWE* (Selkoe and Toonen, 2006). On the other hand, when two genetically different populations are consolidated into a sampling unit, a homozygote excess will be observed under *HWE* (Wahlund effect) (Chakraborty *et al.*, 1992; Nielsen *et al.*, 2003; Latip *et al.*, 2010). In both cases, all loci, instead of just one or a few should be affected by the deficit. Although null alleles are also the common causes of deviations from *HWE* (Jarne and Lagoda, 1996; Dakin and Avise, 2004), only one few loci are implicated by the deficit. Although software such as FreeNA (Chapuis and Estoup, 2007) and MICROCHECKER (Van Oosterhout *et al.*, 2004) can be used to identify null alleles, a more technical way to detect null alleles is to examine inheritance patterns in a pedigree (Paetkau and Strobeck, 1995). According to a model study by Chapuis and Estoup (2007) disregarding the existence of null alleles will only

considerably bias estimates of population differentiation if the frequency is between 5–8% across loci (Oddou-Muratorio *et al.*, 2008). Dakin and Avise (2004) in another model study reported a similar tolerable range of 5–8% and found a less than 5% risk of falsely excluding an actual parent of a heterozygous offspring in parentage/paternity analyses when such alleles are used. Therefore, failure to meet *HWE* expectations is not a basis to reject a locus (Selkoe and Toonen, 2006).

The polymorphism information content (*PIC*) is a measure of genetic diversity that refers to the ability of a marker to detect polymorphism within a population. *PIC* depends on the number of observed alleles and their frequencies. Botstein *et al.* (1980) classified *PIC* values into three groups: slightly informative ($PIC < 0.25$), reasonably informative ($0.50 > PIC > 0.25$) and highly informative ($PIC > 0.5$). Preferably, microsatellite markers with *PIC* values higher than 0.70 are very constructive in genetic linkage studies (Barker *et al.*, 2001).

2.3.6 Microsatellite marker development in some birds

Microsatellites have been reported for several livestock species and poultry. In turkeys, Reed *et al.* (2002) characterized 12 microsatellite loci and reported 7 polymorphic (out of 12 loci) with number of alleles ranging from 1 to 6 (average of 2.7) per locus.

In a similar study, Kayang *et al.* (2002), genotyped 20 unrelated quails with 100 Japanese quail microsatellite markers and found 98 to be polymorphic with 1 to 6 alleles per locus (average of 3.7 alleles). The allele sizes were between 87 bp and 298 bp (mean range 12.6) with the effective number of alleles ranging from 1.0 to 4.3 (mean 2.45). The observed and expected heterozygosities ranged from 0.00 to 0.95 (mean 0.423) and 0.00 to 0.77 (mean 0.527), respectively, with *PIC* values varying

between 0.000 and 0.729 (mean 0.4769). In conclusion, 59.2% (58/98) of the polymorphic markers were highly informative ($PIC > 0.50$), 28.6% (28/98) were reasonably informative ($0.50 > PIC > 0.25$), and 12.2% (12/98) were slightly informative ($PIC < 0.25$).

Tang *et al.* (2003) characterized 70 of 94 microsatellites and used them to detect polymorphisms in 17 unrelated ostrich individuals. Sixty-one of the markers were polymorphic in the individuals tested.

A total of 35 primers were developed and used to detect polymorphisms in 31 unrelated Peking ducks (Huang *et al.*, 2005). Twenty-eight loci were polymorphic covering 117 alleles ranging from 2 to 14 (average of 4.18) per locus. The frequencies of the 117 alleles ranged from 0.02 to 0.98. The observed heterozygosity ranged from 0.97 to 0.04 with a mean polymorphism information content (PIC) value of 0.42 (range of 0.04 to 0.88).

Kopps *et al.* (2013) designed 48 primers and screened for polymorphism in 15 Noisy Miners. Fifteen polymorphic loci were reported in this study, with alleles ranging between 3 to 10 (average = 5.1). The study revealed that none of the 15 loci conformed to Hardy-Weinberg expectations after sequential Bonferoni correction (Rice, 1989).

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Sampling

A heparinised syringe was used to draw approximately 2 ml of blood from the wing vein of one female guinea fowl [the heterogametic sex (ZW)] for microsatellite marker development. Feather samples collected from 36 unrelated guinea fowls (18 males and 18 females) from the Northern and Upper West Regions of Ghana, Benin and the Livestock and Poultry Research Centre (LIPREC) of the University of Ghana (Appendix I) (Kayang *et al.*, 2010) were used to test for marker polymorphism.

3.2 DNA Extraction and quality assessment

DNA was extracted from both blood and feather samples using the QIAGEN DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA, USA) according to the manufacture's protocol (Appendix II). The DNA samples were then analysed on a 1.5% agarose gel to check for the presence of DNA as well as the quality of the DNA samples. The gels were prepared by melting 0.45 g of agarose powder in 30 ml TBE buffer in a microwave. 5 µl of DNA was stained with 1 µl of loading dye containing gel red and loaded onto the gel in an electrophoresis tank. A 100 bp molecular ladder (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA) was used as size standard. The samples were run at 100 V for 30 minutes and the gels observed in a UV Transilluminator (Thermo Scientific).

The concentrations of the DNA samples were checked using Nanodrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). A concentration of 394.9 ng/µl, was recorded for the blood sample. This was within the range required by the Genome Sequencer Junior for sequencing.

3.3 Marker Development

Pure DNA extracted from blood sample was processed and sequenced, adopting the shotgun sequencing technique using the Roche 454 Genome Sequencer Junior (GS Junior) with the Titanium Sequencing kit (Roche, Penzburg, Germany) (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.1 DNA Rapid Library (RL) Preparation

The Individual Sample Cleanup method was used to prepare the library in this study. The DNA sample used in library development was double stranded with optical density of $OD_{260/280} = 1.86$. The DNA Rapid Library preparation involved the following steps: DNA Fragmentation by Nebulisation, Fragment End Repair, AMPure Bead Preparation, Adapter Ligation, Small Fragment Removal, Agilent Library Assessment and Fluorometer Library Quantitation.

3.3.1.1 DNA Fragmentation by Nebulisation

1.3 μ l of the pure DNA sample (from blood) was diluted with TE buffer to a concentration of 500 ng, the required concentration for library development with the Genome Sequencer Junior. The sample was diluted again with TE buffer to top it up to 100 μ l. The 100 μ l sample was pipetted into a nebulizer cap and after 500 μ l of nebulization buffer was added, the solution was mixed by pipetting up and down. The nebulizer cap was connected to a nitrogen tank and 30 psi (2.4 bar) of nitrogen was applied for 1 minute. 2.5 ml of PBI buffer was added, mixed and purified using the QIAGEN MinElute PCR Purification kit (QIAGEN). The DNA was eluted with 17 μ l of TE buffer. 1 μ l of the DNA was reserved for the bioanalyser step while the rest of the 16 μ l was transferred into a 200 μ l PCR tube (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.1.2 Fragment End Repair

To repair the ends of the DNA fragments, a 9 μ l volume PCR mix was prepared by adding 2.5 μ l RL 10x buffer, 2.5 μ l RL ATP, 1 μ l RL dNTP, 1 μ l RL T4 polymerase, 1 μ l RL PNK and 1 μ l RL Taq Polymerase. The 9 μ l mixture was added to the DNA sample, vortexed for 5 seconds and centrifuged for 2 seconds in a mini centrifuge. The PCR sample was run on a thermal cycler using the following cycling conditions: 25°C for 20 min., 72°C for 20 min. and then 4°C hold (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.1.3 AMPure Bead Preparation

125 μ l of AMPure beads was pipetted into a 2 ml centrifuge tube and placed on a Magnetic Particle Concentrator (MPC) to allow the beads to pellet on one side of the tube. The supernatant was discarded and 73 μ l of TE Buffer added and vortexed for 5 seconds. 500 μ l of Sizing solution was added to the beads, vortexed for 5 seconds and centrifuged in a mini centrifuge for 2 seconds. The beads were then kept on ice (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.1.4 Adapter Ligation

1 μ l of RL Adaptor was added to the reaction tube from the fragment end repair. 1 μ l of RL Ligase was also added, vortexed for 5 seconds, centrifuged for 2 seconds and then incubated at 25°C for 10 minutes on a thermocycler (Thermo scientific) (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.1.5 Small Fragment Removal

The sample was then added to the AMPure beads, vortexed for 5 seconds, centrifuged for 2 seconds and incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes. It was then transferred to the MPC to pellet the beads on the wall of the tube and the supernatant was once again discarded. 100 μ l and 500 μ l, of TE Buffer and Sizing Solution respectively

were added, followed by vortexing for 5 seconds after every addition. The sample was incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes and placed on the MPC to pellet the beads. After the beads had pelleted, 100 μ l of TE Buffer and 500 μ l of Sizing Solution was added again and then incubated and returned to the MPC. Still keeping the beads on the MPC, the beads were washed twice with 1 μ l of 70% ethanol, the tube air dried at room temperature for 2 minutes, after which the tube was removed and used in the library assessment step (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.1.6 Library Assessment

This was done using the Agilent Bioanalyser Method. In brief, 53 μ l of TE Buffer was added to the tube from the previous step, vortexed for 5 seconds and centrifuged for 2 seconds. The tube was placed on the MPC to pellet the beads to one side of the tube and then 51 μ l of the supernatant was transferred to a new labeled 2 ml tube, leaving the beads behind. 1 μ l of the DNA before ligation (Figure 6) and another 1 μ l of DNA after ligation (Figure 7) was loaded onto the Agilent Bioanalyser high sensitivity DNA chip (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and the two profiles were compared after 30 minutes to assess the quality of the library. The following characteristics were expected: an average fragment length between 600 to 900 bp and a lower size cut-off <10% below 350 bp (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

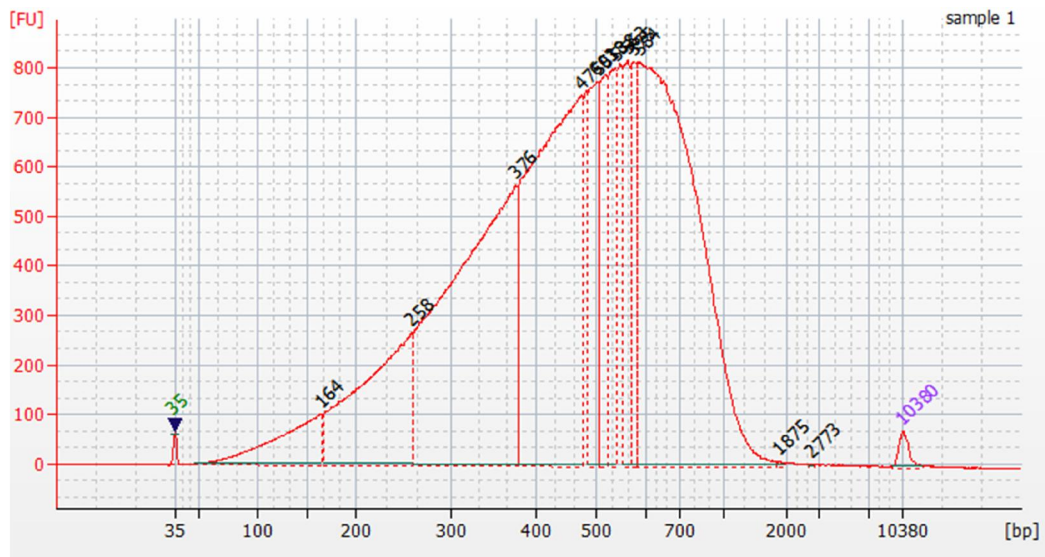


Figure 6: High sensitivity chip profile of sample before ligation

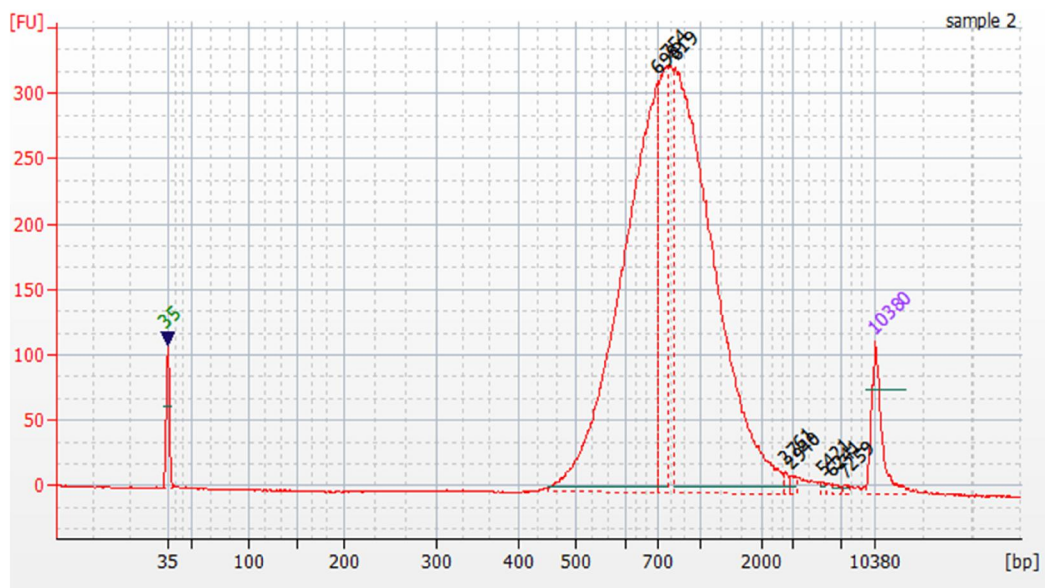


Figure 7: High sensitivity chip profile of sample after ligation

The profiles in Figures 6 and 7 indicate that the majority of the sequences were between 600 bp and 800 bp after ligation and therefore fell within the ideal range of 600 bp to 900 bp after ligation.

3.3.1.7 Library Quantitation

The library was quantitised using the Fluorometer method. In this procedure, 50 µl of the 8 dilutions of the RL (Rapid Library) Standard was transferred into 8 cuvettes. 50 µl of TE Buffer was pipetted into a cuvette and used as blank. The TBS 380 fluorometer was set on the blue channel with the blue cuvette holder inset and then the standard value set to 250. The fluorometer was calibrated with the blank and 2.5×10^9 molecule /µl solution RL standard and the Relative Fluorescence units (RFU) of each dilution recorded. 50 µl of the sample library was pipetted into a cuvette and the RFU recorded. The sample was transferred back into its tube and kept for further analysis (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

The Microsoft EXCEL 2007 spreadsheet was used to generate a standard curve and calculate the sample concentration in this study. Using the fluorescence readings as the X-axis and the RL concentrations as the Y-axis, a scatter plot was drawn (Figure 8). From the graph, the R^2 (correlation coefficient for linear regression) was calculated as 0.9 and this was within the appropriate range suggested by Margulies *et al.* (2005) for library development. In the library quantitation step, the results from the fluorometer were used to generate an RL Standard curve in Excel spread sheet (Figure 8).

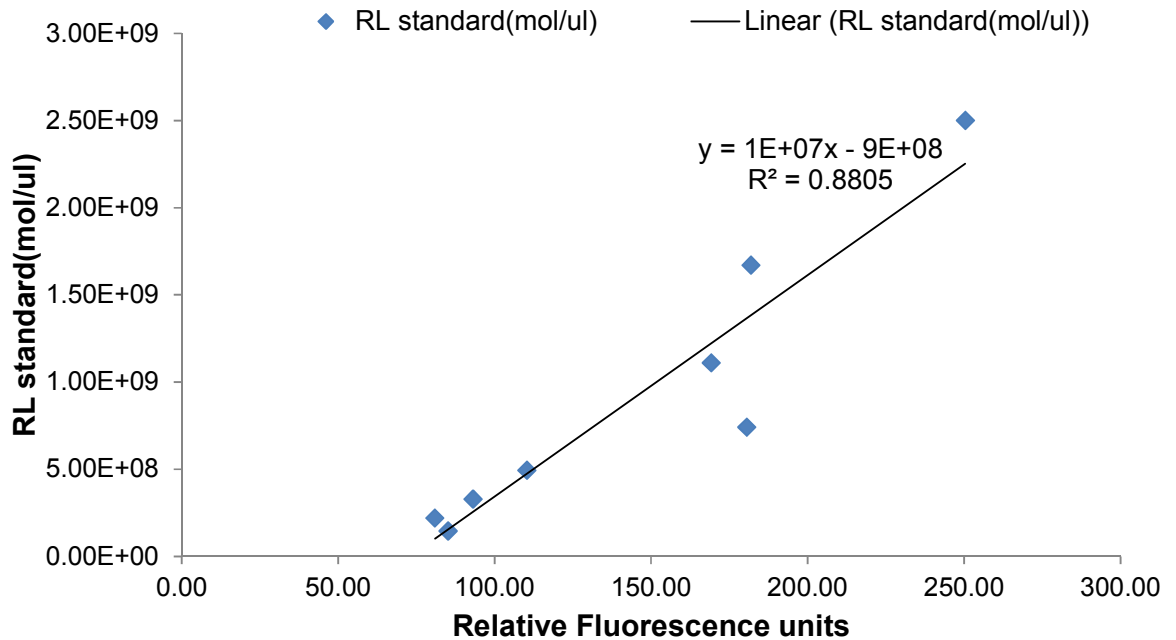


Figure 8: Rapid Library (RL) standard curve

3.3.2 Emulsion PCR Amplification (emPCR)

This process involved the following steps: DNA Library Capture, Emulsification, Amplification, Bead Recovery and DNA Library Bead Enrichment.

3.3.2.1 DNA Library Capture

The beads were pelleted in a centrifuge at 180°C for 20 seconds and the supernatant was discarded. The capture beads were washed twice with 1 ml 1x Wash Buffer, vortexed and centrifuged to resuspend the beads, after which the supernatant was discarded. The DNA library from the rapid library preparation step was then heat denatured on a thermocycler at 95°C for 2 minutes and 4°C hold (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

The volume of DNA library needed was calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Volume of DNA library per tube} &= \frac{\text{desired molecules per bead} \times 10 \text{ million beads}}{\text{Library concentration (molecules/ } \mu\text{l)}} \\ &= \frac{2 \text{ (standard)} \times 10 \text{ million beads}}{2 \text{ million molecules/ } \mu\text{l}} \\ &= 10 \mu\text{l}\end{aligned}$$

Based on the calculation, 10 μl of the library was added to the washed Capture beads and mixed for 5 seconds.

3.3.2.2 Emulsification

1,347 μl Live Amp Mix for Rapid and cDNA Rapid Libraries was prepared by adding 410 μl of Molecular Biology Grade Water, 515 μl of Additive, 270 μl of Amp Mix, 80 μl of Amp Primer, 70 μl of Enzyme Mix and 2 μl of PPIase to a 1.5 ml tube, vortexed and stored on ice. 1.2 μl of the Live Amp Mix was added to the tube of captured DNA library, vortexed and transferred into a Turrax stirring tube. The tube was placed into an Ultra Turrax Tube Drive (UTTD) at 2000 rpm for 5 minutes (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.2.3 Amplification

A Combitip was used to aliquote 100 μl of the emulsion into each well of a 96-well plate. The plate was put into a thermocycler using the following cycling conditions: 4 minutes at 94°C, 50 cycles of 30 seconds at 94°C, 4.5 minutes at 58°C and 30 seconds at 68°C, and a final hold at 10°C (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.2.4 Bead Recovery

In a hood, a 50 ml tube was connected to a vacuum and a transpette. The transpette was dipped into the wells of the 96-well plate and the emulsion aspirated from each well with the aid of the vacuum into the 50 ml tube. The transpette was turned upside

down to facilitate draining the emulsion into the collection tube. The wells were rinsed twice with 100 μ l of isopropanol per well and then the rinse aspirated into the 50 ml tube. About 5 ml of isopropanol was aspirated to collect any beads trapped in the tubing (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

The 50 ml tube was then removed and the contents vortexed. Isopropanol was added to a final volume of 35 ml, vortexed to resuspend the bead pellet and centrifuged at 930 x g for 5 minutes, after which the supernatant was discarded. 10 ml of Enhancing Buffer was added, vortexed to resuspend the pellet and 40 ml isopropanol added to a final volume of 40 ml. The sample was vortexed again and centrifuged at 930 x g for 5 minutes, after which supernatant was discarded. Absolute ethanol was added to attain a final volume of 35 ml. After vortexing, the sample was centrifuged again at 930 x g for 5 minutes and the supernatant discarded. Enhancing Buffer was added to a final volume of 35 ml and vortexed again. The sample was centrifuged at 930 x g for 5 minutes and the supernatant discarded leaving approximately 2 ml of Enhancing Buffer. The DNA-bead-suspension was then transferred into a 1.7 ml micro-centrifuge tube and the supernatant discarded after a process of 'spin-rotate-spin'. The 50 ml tube was rinsed with 1 ml of Enhancing Buffer and the rinse added to the 1.7 ml tube and the process of 'spin-rotate-spin' was repeated and the supernatant discarded. Then the 1.7 ml tube was rinsed thoroughly twice with 1 ml Enhancing Buffer and the supernatant discarded after a process of 'spin-rotate-spin' (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.2.5 DNA Library Bead Enrichment

A tube of brown Enrichment Beads was resuspended and placed in a Magnetic Particle Concentrator (MPC) for 3 minutes to pellet the Enrichment Beads. The supernatant was discarded. 500 μ l of Enhancing Buffer was added, vortexed and the

tube placed on the MPC after which the supernatant was discarded. This was repeated and the supernatant discarded. 80 μ l of Enhancing Buffer was finally added, mixed and the mixture added to the 1.7 ml tube of beads (from the Bead Wash Discovery step) and mixed completely. The tube was placed in the MPC to pellet the beads for 3 to 5 minutes and the supernatant carefully discarded. The beads were washed again with Enhancing Buffer, pelleted and the supernatant carefully discarded (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

A 700 μ l Melt Solution comprising 125 μ l of NaOH and 9.875 ml of Molecular Biology Grade Water was used to resuspend the beads. The tube was returned to the MPC after vortexing for 5 seconds and the supernatant was transferred into a new 1.7 ml microcentrifuge tube. 700 μ l of Melt Solution was again added to the beads, vortexed and the supernatant transferred to the same new 1.7 ml tube. The enrichment tube was then discarded. The supernatant was also discarded after a process of spin-rotate-spin. 1 ml Annealing Buffer was added to the tube 10 times, each time the supernatant was discarded after a process of spin-rotate-spin. Finally, 100 μ l of Annealing Buffer was used to resuspend the beads in the tube (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

25 μ l of Sequence Primer was added to the 1.7 ml tube, mixed and incubated for 5 minutes at 65°C and promptly cooled on ice for 2 minutes. 1 ml Annealing Buffer was mixed with the bead pellet and then centrifuged briefly (“spin-rotate-spin”) (Margulies *et al.*, 2005). The amount of enriched beads was then evaluated by placing the tube into the GS Junior Bead Counter (Roche) and the level and quality of the emulsion assessed (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.3 Sequencing Method

The 175 μ l of Packing Beads containing Polymerase, Polymerase Cofactor and Bead Buffer was mixed with enriched DNA beads (from the emulsion PCR) and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature in a laboratory rotator. The Pico-Titer Plate was assembled into the Bead Deposition Device (BDD) and the plate loaded by injection with a pipette through the loading port on the BDD with four layers of beads. The layers were 350 μ l each of Enzyme beads (pre-layer), enriched DNA beads + Packing Beads, Enzyme beads (Post-layer) and PPIase beads respectively. Centrifugal sedimentation was used to settle the beads at the bottom of the Pico-Titer Plate at 4,013 rpm for 5, 10, 10 and 5 minutes, respectively, for the various layers. After each sedimentation process, excess supernatant was discarded from the device using a pipette. The instrument protocol was followed and all the parameters entered manually. The number of nucleotide cycles used was 200. The BDD was removed and only the Pico-Titer Plate was loaded onto the cartridge in the sequencer and run for 9 hours to generate the sequence data of the library (Margulies *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.4 Library Screening

FASTA sequences obtained in the library were screened for possible microsatellites. Reads containing repeat motifs were screened and selected with MSATCOMMANDER software (Faircloth, 2008). The microsatellites were classified into di-, tri- and tetra-nucleotides, etc.

3.3.5 Primer Design

The PRIMER 3 software (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000) was used to design 154 primer pairs to flank the repeat motifs which comprised di-, tri- and tetra- nucleotides. The primers were designed to meet the following criteria: primer length range of 18 to 25 bp, amplification product size of 100 –250 bp, GC content of 50%, optimal melting

temperature of 55 °C (range 52 °C–60 °C), low levels of self- or pair-complementarity and maximum end stability (ΔG) of 8.0 (Faircloth, 2008). The primers were synthesized and used in subsequent tests.

The forward primers of 20 primer pairs were labeled with fluorescent dyes: FAM, HEX and NED (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). For all the remaining primers (134), an M13 (-21) universal leading sequence (5-TGTAAAACGACGGCCAGT-3) was added to the 5' end of each forward primer (Schuelke, 2000).

3.3.6 Primer Optimisation

One hundred and fifty two synthesised primer pairs were tested in a PCR at two temperatures (55 °C and 60°C), to determine optimal cycling conditions using four guinea fowl DNA samples collected from LIPREC. Owing to limitation of time and resources, only two primer annealing temperatures were used as the basis for determining the optimal cycling conditions.

A 10 μ l volume PCR containing 20 ng of DNA, 0.75 U of LA-Taq DNA polymerase (TaKaRa Biomedicals, Tokyo, Japan), PCR buffer, 400 μ M of each dNTP and 0.4 μ M of forward and reverse primers was prepared for each primer pair. Cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturing at 95 °C for 2 minutes, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 seconds, annealing at 55 °C or 60 °C for 30 seconds, extension at 74 °C for 1 minute, and a final extension of 74 °C for 10 minutes. The PCR products were analysed on 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis and viewed in a UV Transilluminator (Thermo Scientific). The appropriate annealing temperature (i.e. 55 °C or 60 °C) was selected for each primer based on the quality of the bands in the image. Primers that successfully amplified in at least two individual guinea fowl DNA were selected for genotyping.

3.3.7 Genotyping

3.3.7.1 PCR

Polymorphism at each microsatellite locus was determined using DNA isolated from the 32 unrelated guinea fowls. A 10 μ l PCR was prepared containing 0.75 U of LA-Taq DNA polymerase (TaKaRa), PCR buffer, 400 μ M of each dNTP, 0.4 μ M of forward and reverse primers, 0.1 μ g of T4 M13 universal tag sequence and 20 ng of template DNA.

Also, three individual multiplex PCRs (Table 4) were prepared for HEX and FAM fluorescently labeled primers based on the expected product sizes. Each 10 μ l volume contained 5 μ l Master mix, 2x multiplex master mix (QIAGEN), 3 μ l dH₂O, 0.01 μ M of the forward primer, 0.15 μ M of reverse primer and 20 ng of the genomic DNA. General PCR conditions were initial denaturation of 95 °C for 2 minutes, 35 cycles of 95 °C for 30 seconds, 55 °C or 60 °C for 30 seconds, 74 °C for 1 minute and a final extension at 74 °C for 10 minutes.

Table 4: Multiplex PCR and primer information for nine primers

PCR	Locus	Primer sequence	Dye	Product Size
Multiplex 1 T _m 60°C	<i>GF12F</i>	GCACTAATAGTAGAGTACGCAGAA	FAM	110
	<i>GF17F</i>	GATGGCTATTGGGAAATACA	FAM	214
	<i>GF18F</i>	GGACCTTTCTCTGGGAGACTT	HEX	167
Multiplex 2 T _m 55°C	<i>GF16F</i>	TGAGAGTGAAATACCTGCAA	FAM	175
	<i>GF5F</i>	GTCTTCTCTGACTTTTGGAAAT	HEX	173
	<i>GF8F</i>	ATGTCCCAAATCTAAGCA	HEX	248
Multiplex 3 T _m 55°C	<i>GF19F</i>	GTCTCCGAGATGTTGGTTT	FAM	151
	<i>GF20F</i>	TCTTGTTCCAGTTGTCATCA	HEX	119
	<i>GF2F</i>	CATCCAATACCCTGAACCTA	HEX	196

3.3.7.2 Fragment Analysis

1 µl of each PCR product was diluted with 100 µl of water and mixed. 160 µl of Hi Dye Formamide (HDFa) and 0.4 µl of Rox500 size standard (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) were mixed per run (i.e. 16 samples). 10 µl of the mixture was pipette into each well on a 96 well sequencing plate and 1 µl of the diluted PCR product added to the wells on the plate. The plate was covered, spun down and incubated at 95 °C for 5 minutes to denature the DNA. The plate was then quickly transferred onto ice for 5 minutes and loaded onto an ABI Prism 3130 XL Genetic Analyser 16 Capillary System (Applied Biosystems) for sequencing using GENESCAN software. Electrophoregrams were analyzed using PEAK SCANNER version 1 (Applied Biosystems).

3.3.8 Data Analysis

Population genetics parameters were estimated for all polymorphic loci with clear electropherograms. The observed heterozygosity (H_o), expected heterozygosity (H_e), number of alleles (N_a), effective population size (N_e), probability of identity (PI), Shannon's informative index (I), fixation index (F) and deviations from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) were calculated using GENEALEX software version 6.41 (Peakall and Smouse, 2006). Null allele frequency (NAF) was determined for all loci using FreeNA (Chapuis and Estoup, 2007). The polymorphism information content (PIC) of the markers was calculated using Microsoft Office EXCEL 2007 based on the formula:

$$PIC = 1 - \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2 \right\} - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n 2p_i^2 p_j^2$$

where: p_i and p_j are the frequencies of the i -th and j -th alleles of a given microsatellite and n is the total number of alleles detected for that microsatellite (Botstein *et al.*, 1980).

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS

4.1 Library development and screening

A total number of 105,015 reads were generated by the Genome Sequencer Junior instrument. All reads were exported as FASTA sequences, 31 of which are shown in Appendix III. Preliminary library screening with the MSATCOMMANDER software showed that the reads ranged from 40 bp to 757 bp in length, with an average of 393.27 bp. The total number of microsatellite sites obtained was 1,234, comprising 5 classes of repeats. Subsequent library screening showed di-, tri-, tetra-, penta- and hexa- repeats in the proportions shown in Figure 9. It was observed that the number of microsatellites decreased sharply with increasing class of repeat.

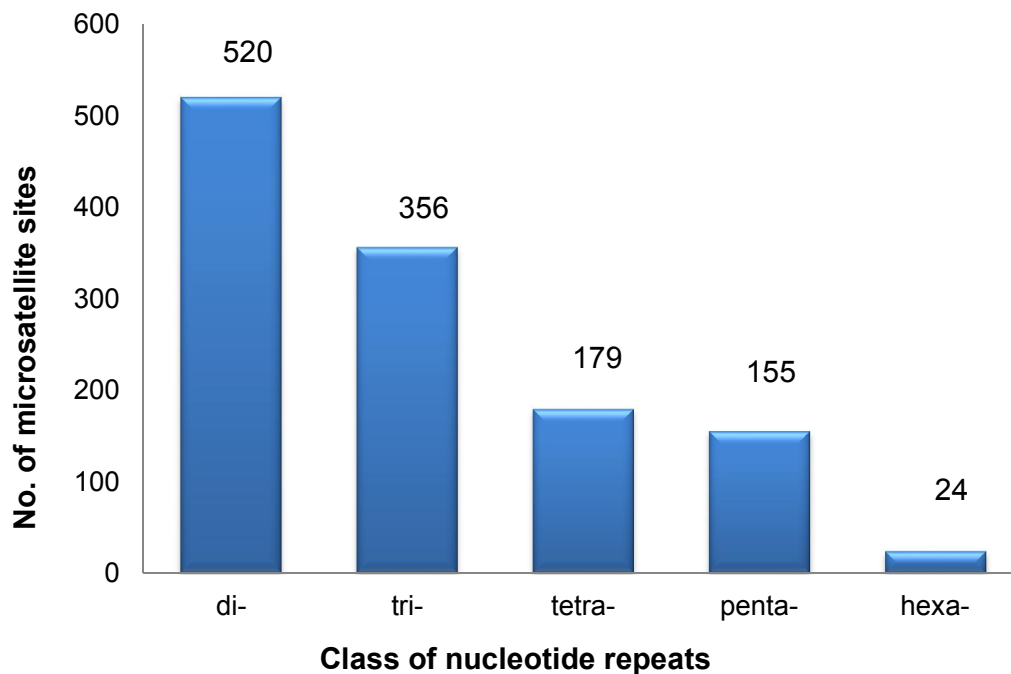


Figure 9: Distribution of microsatellites in five classes of repeats

4.2 Primer Design

Using the PRIMER 3 software, sequences with sufficient flanking regions were used to design 154 primers out of 584 microsatellite sequences. Of the total number of primers designed, 38.3% (59 of 154) were di-, 60.4% (93 of 154) were tri- and 1.2% (2 of 154) were tetranucleotide repeats (Table 5). The primers were made up of seven types of repeats comprising CA/GT, ATC/GAT, CAT, CTG, GCC/CGG, AAAC and ACAT. The primer sequence information for each of the 154 primers is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Number of primers designed

Class of repeat	Total number	Repeat length selected	Type of repeat	Number of reads	Number designed*
Di-nucleotide	520	≥ 7	CA/GT	200	59
			GA	94	-
Tri-nucleotide	356	≥ 4	ATC/GAT	46	35
			CAT	25	19
			GCT	105	-
			CTG	104	35
			GCC/CGG	8	4
Tetra-nucleotide	179	≥ 4	AAAC	1	1
			ACAT	1	1
TOTAL	1055			584	154

* - : No primers designed.

Following the criteria described by Weber (1990) and Schlötterer and Harr (2001), majority of the primers (142) were perfect repeats whilst the rest (loci *GF1*, *GF3*, *GF4*, *GF6*, *GF19*, *GF126*, *GF154*, *GF181*, *GF202*, *GF207*, *GF210* and *GF214*) were imperfect repeats (Figure 10) with one or 2 nucleotide interruptions. No compound repeats were designed in this study.

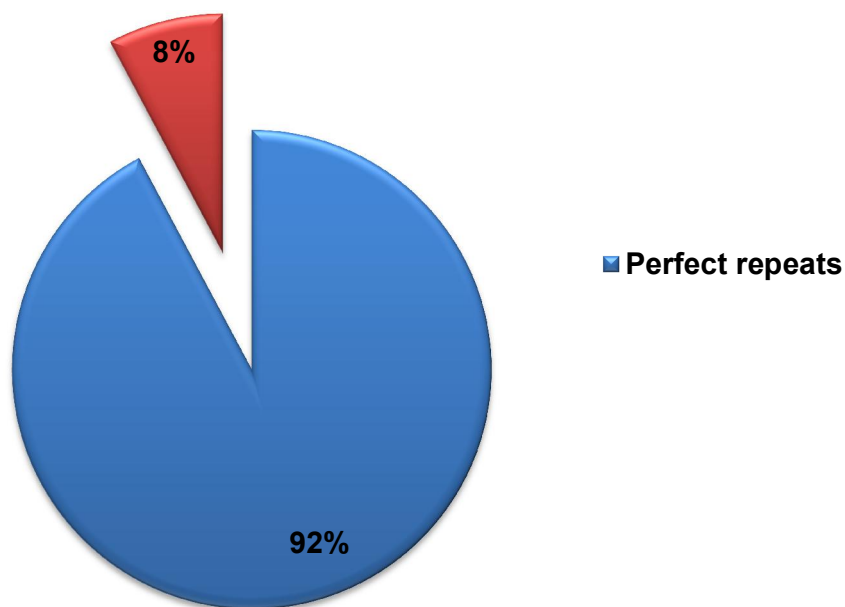


Figure 10: Characteristics of microsatellite repeats

4.3 Primer Testing

Out of a total of 152 primers tested, 122 primers (Table 6) showed clear, distinct amplification patterns, an example of which is shown in Figure 11. Optimisation could not be done for 30 primers, which included 16 di- and 14 trinucleotide repeats. The annealing temperatures for each of the 122 primers are shown in Table 7. Of the

122 primers (43 di-, 77 tri- and 2 tetranucleotide repeats) that amplified at either of the two temperatures, 114 were perfect repeats whilst eight were imperfect repeats.

Table 6: PCR optimization at 55°C and 60°C

Class of repeat	Type of repeat	Annealing temperature		Total
		55°C	60°C	
Dinucleotide	CA/GT	26	17	43
Trinucleotide	ATC/GAT	17	11	28
	CAT	9	5	14
	CTG	20	11	31
	CGG/CCG	3	1	4
Tetranucleotide	AAAC	1	-	1
	ACAT	1	-	1
Total no. of primers optimized		77	45	122

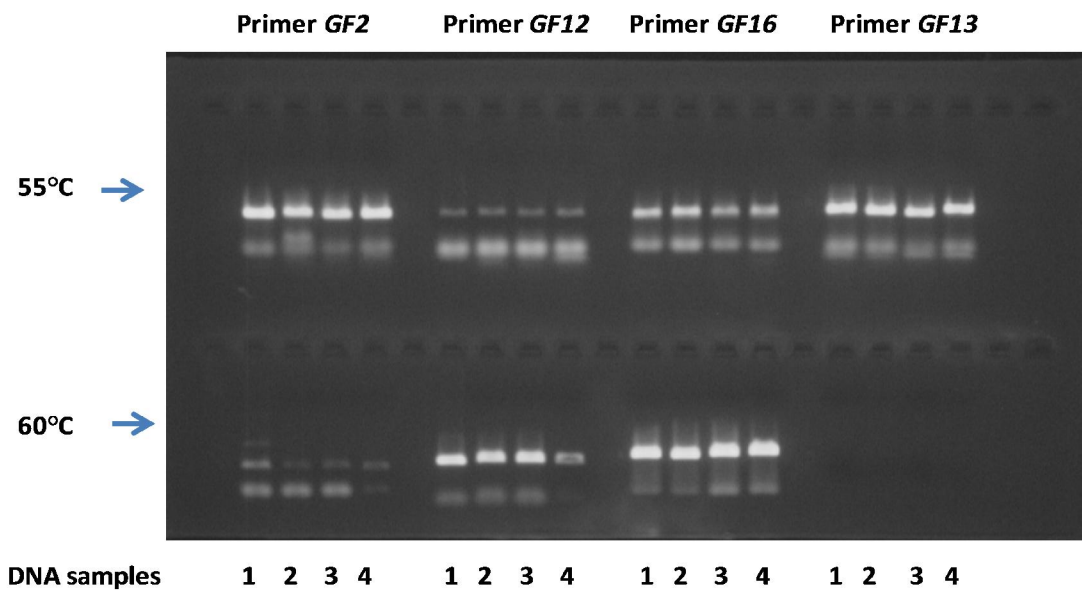


Figure 11: Gel image showing PCR optimization results of four primers with DNA from four individuals. The optimized annealing temperature was 55 °C for Primers *GF2* and *GF13* and 60 °C for Primers *GF12* and *GF16*.

Table 7: Primer sequence and amplification information for 154 designed microsatellite primers

Serial Number	Sequence ID	Type Repeats	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer	Product size (bp)	PCR Ta
<i>GF1</i>	G4QAAT301AA5ZK	(CA) ₉ AA(CA) ₅	CAACCAACGGCACAACAG	TCCCTAGACGTAAATTGCAC	198	NA
<i>GF2</i>	G4QAAT301AQSGU	(CA) ₁₀	CATCCAATACCCTGAACCTA	TTAAACCACAAGACCATTCC	196	55°C
<i>GF3</i>	G4QAAT301BOVV7	(CA) ₇ GA(CA) ₈	TCCTCTGAATGAAGGAAGAA	TGTGATTCACTCTTTGGTCA	183	NA
<i>GF4</i>	G4QAAT301ALJNI	(CA) ₁₂ GA(CA) ₅	TGAACACGGGCTTAGATAGT	GCTTTAGATGGCAATAGTGG	215	55°C
<i>GF5</i>	G4QAAT301BHEM5	(CA) ₁₃	GTCTTCTCTGACTTTTGGAAAT	TACCCACACTGGTACTCTCC	173	55°C
<i>GF6</i>	G4QAAT301AMILO	(CA) ₁₆ CG(CA) ₅	GTAGACCTGCACCTGAACAT	GACTCTGACATTACCCTGGA	140	NA
<i>GF7</i>	G4QAAT301BGU6K	(CA) ₁₀	TTATCCAGACCTCCACTGTC	GGACCTTTCTCTGGAGACTT	165	NA
<i>GF8</i>	G4QAAT301A9VSB	(CA) ₁₃	ATGTCCCAAATTCTAAGCA	TCTGTGCAAGTATGATCAGC	248	55°C
<i>GF9</i>	G4QAAT301BURPT	(CA) ₁₃	TCCCTGTAGTCCTGAACAAG	CAGTTAGGAGAGCTGTAGCC	124	NA
<i>GF10</i>	G4QAAT301A4HM7	(CA) ₁₀	TGCTAAATTATGTGCAGCAG	TGGAACCAGAAGATTTTACG	181	NA
<i>GF11</i>	G4QAAT301AJ5J8	(CA) ₁₅	GTAATTTTGCAGGGTACAGC	GCGTAGCAATTGTATGATGA	196	NA
<i>GF12</i>	G4QAAT301BPAU2	(CA) ₁₁	GCACTAATAGTAGAGTACGCAGAA	TGCTAACTCCAAATGACACA	110	60°C
<i>GF13</i>	G4QAAT301BX99P	(CA) ₁₄	TGTACATGGTGC GTGTTTAT	CGTTTTTGTCCG TACTCAAC	120	55°C
<i>GF14</i>	G4QAAT301AL1V2	(CA) ₁₇	ATGATTGTTGGTTTTTACCG	TTGGTAGAGTTGGTTTCGT	202	NA
<i>GF15</i>	G4QAAT301A3ZTS	(CA) ₁₁	TGCAAATCATCTTTTTCCTT	TCCTCTGACTTATACCAGTTGA	175	55°C

<i>GF16</i>	G4QAAT301BSWC2	(CAT) ₇	TGAGAGTGAAATACCTGCAA	GATCTGTTAGGGCTGCTAGA	175	60°C
<i>GF17</i>	G4QAAT301BJUZI	(GT) ₁₁	GATGGCTATTGGGAAATACA	CTGGCTTACATATCCTTCCA	214	60°C
<i>GF18</i>	G4QAAT301AXXZG	(GT) ₁₀	GGACCTTTCTCTGGAGACTT	TTATCCAGACCTCCACTGTC	167	60°C
<i>GF19</i>	G4QAAT301BFUPO	(GT) ₁₃ T(GT)	GTCTCCGAGATGTTGGTTT	AATCTTTCGCCTCTTACACA	151	55°C
<i>GF20</i>	G4QAAT301A3MWX	(GT) ₁₃	TCTTGTTCCAGTTGTCATCA	ATGCCTCTGCAAATTAGTGT	119	55°C
<i>GF21</i>	G4QAAT301AIKN9	(GT) ₁₀	AAGTTTTTCAGCAAAATCCAG	CACATACAGATCATGGGACA	221	60°C
<i>GF22</i>	G4QAAT301AO8TM	(GT) ₁₂	GAGAACAACCTTTTGCATCC	GCATTAAGCCGGTAAGTAAA	199	NA
<i>GF23</i>	G4QAAT301AXAGK	(GT) ₁₂	TACATTCGGGATATTGTTCC	TATTGCTGGGTAATGGAGTC	209	60°C
<i>GF24</i>	G4QAAT301AL1WL	(GT) ₁₇	GCTGGAACAAGCTAAGAAGA	TGGTAGAAGGCTTTTGTTCAT	228	NA
<i>GF25</i>	G4QAAT301BTSFA	(GT) ₁₁	ATTCTAAAACAATGCACACC	AACTTGGATGGAACAAATG	105	NA
<i>GF26</i>	G4QAAT301BVWMW	(GT) ₁₁	CAACTAAGTTCCTTGATTTCTCA	TGCAGAGTTTCTCTCTTTGAC	129	60°C
<i>GF27</i>	G4QAAT301A6FQK	(GT) ₁₂	AGCTTCATGGCTTGTGTTAC	ATGTCCCTCAAAGCAACTA	224	NA
<i>GF28</i>	G4QAAT301BD6MG	(GT) ₁₀	TACATTCGGGATATTGTTCC	TATTGCTGGGTAATGGAGTC	205	60°C
<i>GF29</i>	G4QAAT301BX2TM	(GT) ₁₁	GGGTAAGTATAGGCCGGTAA	GGACCAGAAGGCTTACTCTT	226	60°C
<i>GF30</i>	G4QAAT301B1L8O	(GT) ₁₁	AACAAAGGATGTTTTGTGCT	TAAACCAATTTCCAGCATTT	197	55°C
<i>GF31</i>	G4QAAT301AP6GY	(GT) ₁₁	GGGTAAGTATAGGCCGGTAA	GGACCAGAAGGCTTACTCTT	225	55°C
<i>GF32</i>	G4QAAT301ABM8I	(GT) ₁₀	GGCTGTGTGAAAGGAGAGTA	GCCAACATGCCTAACTGTAT	133	60°C
<i>GF33</i>	G4QAAT301AUU0F	(GT) ₁₀	GCACAGCCCTCATTTTAACC	TAGCCGCACGGGTACATTAT	215	NA

<i>GF34</i>	G4QAAT301AJLUV	(GT) ₁₀	TCTTGTTCTCCATCAGCTCT	CACAAAACACCTGCTCACTA	101	60°C
<i>GF36</i>	G4QAAT301BZQOR	(CA) ₈	ACACACACACCTACCCTGAT	GAGCTGCGTATGCACTGG	233	NA
<i>GF37</i>	G4QAAT301BB71Y	(CA) ₈	TCTTCCTTCAGAGGTACCAA	TGAAGACCATAGAAGCCTGT	212	60°C
<i>GF38</i>	G4QAAT301AJCIN	(CA) ₈	TCAATAGCAAAGCCCTTAC	TGTGCACTGTTGTCCTACTAT	211	60°C
<i>GF39</i>	G4QAAT301A8JVX	(CA) ₈	AAAGCCAGGAGTCTCTCTCT	CTGCAGCTGCTTGTACTATG	156	60°C
<i>GF40</i>	G4QAAT301BR98J	(CA) ₉	ACTTCATGAGGTTCAAATGG	TGGAATCTAGCTTGTGGTT	248	55°C
<i>GF41</i>	G4QAAT301BTGIR	(CA) ₉	CTCCTCAAAGCAAAGACAAG	CTGTTAGCCTGCCTCTTTTA	127	55°C
<i>GF42</i>	G4QAAT301AERUM	(CA) ₉	TTGACGTTTAAAGGAGAAGC	GTTGAAATTGAGGTCAGAGC	249	55°C
<i>GF43</i>	G4QAAT301BEYNH	(CA) ₉	TCTGAAGTATCTGCCCTGAG	TTATCAAGTGAGCGATCAGA	120	55°C
<i>GF44</i>	G4QAAT301BD16B	(CA) ₉	ATTCTCTGGAATGGGAATTT	ATAGTGGCATGGTTCTCTTC	180	55°C
<i>GF45</i>	G4QAAT301AHKUC	(CA) ₉	AAAATGTTGAGGAAGCAAGA	AAGCTACTGCTCTGTGAAGG	248	55°C
<i>GF46</i>	G4QAAT301BYZHV	(CA) ₈	AAAAAGAAAACATGGCAAAG	TGAAGGGCCATAATTAAGA	117	55°C
<i>GF47</i>	QAAT301A65VV	(CA) ₈	TGCACACAAAATAATCCTGA	CTGCAGTCTCTAGGGGTGTA	216	60°C
<i>GF48</i>	G4QAAT301APKOZ	(CA) ₉	ACCTCTAAACACCCACACAC	GCCAATTACCATGTTTCAGT	235	60°C
<i>GF49</i>	G4QAAT301APHK1	(CA) ₈	GCTGTCTCTGGAATCTAACG	TGTATGTAAGGAGTATATTGGTATG	148	NA
<i>GF50</i>	G4QAAT301AI0Q1	(CA) ₈ A(CA) ₂	TGCTAAATTATGTGCAGCAG	CCAACCTAAGCCATACTAGG	157	60°C
<i>GF51</i>	G4QAAT301BHQ2V	(ATC) ₄	AAAGCCAACTTCTCATCAAA	AGCGCACATTTATTTTCAGAT	180	60°C
<i>GF52</i>	G4QAAT301BQDGC	(ATC) ₄	TGTGAACACGCACTATTGTT	TTGTAGAACAGGCTGTAGGG	172	55°C

<i>GF53</i>	G4QAAT301BIM00	(ATC) ₄	TTAAGAGAACTGCTCCTTCG	GGGACTCTGTCTTACATCCA	203	55°c
<i>GF54</i>	G4QAAT301AI2F5	(ATC) ₄	TGAGTGCAAGTACACAAAGC	GGCTAAATTTAAAATACAGTCCA	131	55°c
<i>GF55</i>	G4QAAT301BDL8A	(ATC) ₄	TAGCTGTTTCTGTGGTGATG	AACCAGTGCCTTTCATTTTA	235	NA
<i>GF56</i>	G4QAAT301AD8W3	(ATC) ₄	TGATTTCCACATCAGTGCTA	CATCATGCAGTGAAAAGTGA	211	55°c
<i>GF57</i>	G4QAAT301AJPOY	(ATC) ₄	AAAGCCAACCTTCTCATCAA	AGCGCACATTTATTTTCAGAT	180	60°c
<i>GF58</i>	G4QAAT301BRKXV	(ATC) ₄	GCCAGAATGGAATAAACTG	CCTCAGAAAACAGAGGGATA	191	NA
<i>GF59</i>	G4QAAT301BWIT1	(ATC) ₄	AGAGAGCTAATGGCAAAGTG	CCACCTTCTGCAGATAAAAC	160	60°c
<i>GF60</i>	G4QAAT301BIQU8	(ATC) ₅	GACACCTCCATACCAACAAC	GGAGAAGGGGAATAATTTGT	200	60°c
<i>GF61</i>	G4QAAT301AGS4L	(ATC) ₄	TTAGAAGGGGTCTCTTCTC	AGGATTAAGCATTGGAATCA	110	55°c
<i>GF62</i>	G4QAAT301B0HEN	(ATC) ₄	GAAGATGTTTAGGCGTATGG	TAAGAGCAGTAGTGGCATGA	227	60°c
<i>GF63</i>	G4QAAT301BYSWW	(ATC) ₄	CATGATTGAATTGGCTTACA	GCATTTTTTCAGCGTAATTTT	141	55°c
<i>GF64</i>	G4QAAT301BKQAG	(ATC) ₄	GCTTCAAAATAGCACAAACA	AACCCATGGGAATTAAGAAT	187	55°c
<i>GF65</i>	G4QAAT301ADTUE	(ATC) ₄	CTCACCTTTGTAGGATACG	GCTGTAGCAGATCCAAAGTT	237	55°c
<i>GF66</i>	G4QAAT301BQI95	(ATC) ₄	ACAAGGTGGAGACAACTGAC	GAGTTTCCTGGGTTTTAGGT	119	60°c
<i>GF67</i>	G4QAAT301B1O3B	(ATC) ₄	AGGAGGGGTTTCTAAGATCA	TGCTAACAAATACCACACCA	125	60°c
<i>GF68</i>	G4QAAT301AP033	(ATC) ₅	CACTAACAGTAGTGGCAGCA	GTCAGCTGTAAATCAGCACA	176	60°c
<i>GF69</i>	G4QAAT301BRYSU	(GT) ₈	TTCCAGCTTGAAAAGTACT	CACAGACACAGACCATTGAG	199	55°c
<i>GF70</i>	G4QAAT301A5XMO	(GT) ₈	ATAGGCATTCTTTGCACATT	AACGAGAAAGAAGGTGTGC	139	NA

<i>GF71</i>	G4QAAT301BLV1A	(GT) ₈	CTAAAAACATCCACCCTTTG	GAAAAGGAAAAAGTGCAAAA	246	55°c
<i>GF72</i>	G4QAAT301B2305	(GT) ₉	GTCACAATGGGGATATCAGA	TCGTGGCTTTTATCTTCTGT	102	55°c
<i>GF73</i>	G4QAAT301BEOTI	(GT) ₈	TTTGGTTGTGTTTTTGTG	CAACCCTCAAGTTTACCTGT	234	55°c
<i>GF74</i>	G4QAAT301ACCH6	(GT) ₉	AACCTGCAGAAACACATTTT	CTGCAATACTTCATTTGTGG	216	60°c
<i>GF75</i>	G4QAAT301A76GJ	(GT) ₈	TCTCTCCTGACTTCCAAAAA	AGGCTTGAACATCATGGACTA	211	55°c
<i>GF76</i>	G4QAAT301AAKP4	(GT) ₈	CACAAGTGTGAAGCAATGTC	ACATCTATGGCCTCAGACAC	189	55°c
<i>GF77</i>	G4QAAT301BKAV7	(GT) ₈	GCTTTATCCTCCCTTTTCTG	TGATACTGAAACACGTCAGG	189	55°c
<i>GF78</i>	G4QAAT301BCKGI	(GT) ₈	TTAACAAAGGCCACTTGAAT	TGCACACGTACACACACATA	174	55°c
<i>GF79</i>	G4QAAT301AC1MN	(GT) ₈	TTAACAAAGGCCACTTGAAT	TGCACACGTACACACACATA	172	55°c
<i>GF95</i>	G4QAAT301AYSGN	(CAT) ₆	ATGGCCACCTCAATTGTC	ATGATGACTGACGACGATG	101	NA
<i>GF113</i>	G4QAAT301BFHA3	(GAT) ₅	TCAGTGATTCTGTGATTCCA	TGAATGGTCACTGCAATTAG	159	60°c
<i>GF114</i>	G4QAAT301AZUE4	(GAT) ₇	CAACATTTGTCTGGTGTGTCAG	AGTCAAATGGTTGTGGATGT	230	60°c
<i>GF122</i>	G4QAAT301BDTPF	(GAT) ₅	CAGCATGCATTTCAAATA	TTCTGCTTCTGTTTCTCCAT	474	NA
<i>GF126</i>	G4QAAT301AA6KW	(GAT) ₄ GAA(GAT)	TTCGAATGTACTCCTCATCC	AGTGCTTACACCACGAAAAT	103	NA
<i>GF129</i>	G4QAAT301B2QC2	(CTG) ₆	CACCTGGGTTTGTGTATCT	AACTTTCCTTCATGCCTACA	223	55°c
<i>GF135</i>	G4QAAT301A0W4Y	(CTG) ₅	GAGCAGCCTACCTGTCACT	GTATTACACGGGAGGTACGA	225	NA
<i>GF137</i>	G4QAAT301AWL9D	(CTG) ₅	TTCATGCAAACCTCAAAGTG	ACATGGGAAGTGTAGACAGG	225	NA
<i>GF151</i>	G4QAAT301BUQ69A	(CTG) ₅	AAACAGAAGGTGAATGCTGT	GTAGCTGTGCACCTCACC	241	60°c

<i>GF154</i>	G4QAAT301A9K1V	(CTG) ₇ TT(CTG) ₂	TTCCGTTTCTTTGATGTTT	ATGGCGAGGTAACCTCTCTTC	206	60°c
<i>GF157</i>	G4QAAT301AP331	(CTG) ₅	TTCTGTTCCCTCTGCAATTCT	CTTGGAGGAATGTTTCTTGA	207	60°c
<i>GF161</i>	G4QAAT301AY169	(CTG) ₅	GTATGAGTGACTTGCCCATC	AGTGTTAGAGCAGCAAGAGC	188	60°c
<i>GF164</i>	G4QAAT301BY5SW	(CCG) ₅	GGGAAGTTGTTGAGCATCAC	GGTTATTACAGCGAGGCGG	311	55°c
<i>GF165</i>	G4QAAT301BMBBV	(CCG) ₅	CCGAGTCATCCTCGGGC	GAGGCGCTGGATTTGAACC	235	55°c
<i>GF166</i>	G4QAAT301A0QBS	(CGG) ₅	AGCCCAAGTCTCCAATCC	AGGTGCCCGTTCTCGATG	441	60°c
<i>GF167</i>	G4QAAT301AKXP4	(CGG) ₅	GTTCCACGAGGAGCCCAAG	CGCCGACAATGCCCTTTAC	301	55°c
<i>GF168</i>	G4QAAT301BZOWA	(ACAT) ₁₀	GGCCCTATCCTCAAATAGTCTCC	TCAAAGCCTGTAAGAAGTGCTC	230	55°c
<i>GF169</i>	G4QAAT301BRRXH	(AAAC) ₆	GACTTGTTCCATAACAAACATGAG	AAGCCACCTCAAATGCAAG	160	55°c
<i>GF170</i>	G4QAAT301A6LFA	(CAT) ₄	GGCCAATTTTTCTCTCTG	GCATGAAGTGGAATGGATGTT	234	55°c
<i>GF171</i>	G4QAAT301BHQ2V	(CAT) ₄	AAAGCCAACCTTCTCATCAAA	AGCGCACATTTATTTTCAGAT	180	55°c
<i>GF172</i>	G4QAAT301BQDGC	(CAT) ₄	TGTGAACACGCACTATTGTT	TTGTAGAACAGGCTGTAGGG	172	NA
<i>GF173</i>	G4QAAT301BSWC2	(CAT) ₇	AAACTGTTGGCAGAATGAGT	CAAATAGCTTTGTGAGCAA	226	55°c
<i>GF174</i>	G4QAAT301BDL8A	(CAT) ₄	TAGCTGTTTCTGTGGTGATG	AACCAGTGCCTTTCATTTTA	235	NA
<i>GF175</i>	G4QAAT301AJPOY	(CAT) ₄	AAAGCCAACCTTCTCATCAAA	AGCGCACATTTATTTTCAGAT	180	55°c
<i>GF176</i>	G4QAAT301BWIT1	(CAT) ₄	AGAGAGCTAATGGCAAAGTG	CCACCTTCTGCAGATAAAAC	160	60°c
<i>GF177</i>	G4QAAT301BIQU8	(CAT) ₄	GACACCTCCATAACCAACAAC	GGAGAAGGGGAATAATTTGT	200	NA
<i>GF178</i>	G4QAAT301B0HEN	(CAT) ₄	GAAGATGTTTAGGCGTATGG	TAAGAGCAGTAGTGGCATGA	227	60°c

<i>GF179</i>	G4QAAT301BLACK	(CAT) ₄	GAATCCAGTGACACACCTTT	TATTTAATGAGGGCTGCTTT	190	NA
<i>GF180</i>	G4QAAT301BKQAG	(CAT) ₄	GCTTCAAATAGCACAAACA	AACCCATGGGAATTAAGAAT	187	55°C
<i>GF181</i>	G4QAAT301BAEKL	(CAT) ₄ T(CAT)	GAGAGAACAGTCTTCCGATG	GCATAAAGTGAGCATGTCTG	125	55°C
<i>GF182</i>	G4QAAT301A1Y3O	(CAT) ₄	ATGGCAGAGTGAAGAAGAAG	AATGAGGTAAGCCACAAGAA	176	55°C
<i>GF183</i>	G4QAAT301BQI95	(CAT) ₄	ACAAGGTGGAGACAACCTGAC	GAGTTTCCTGGGTTTTAGGT	119	60°C
<i>GF184</i>	G4QAAT301B1O3B	(CAT) ₄	AGGAGGGGTTTCTAAGATCA	TGCTAACAAATACCACACCA	125	55°C
<i>GF185</i>	G4QAAT301A4UDZ	(CAT) ₄	AACAAGTTCAGAAACGCCTA	GGTTTTCCCCTTATCCTCTA	156	55°C
<i>GF186</i>	G4QAAT301AP033	(CAT) ₄	CAGTAGTGGCAGCAACATAA	GTCAGCTGTAAATCAGCACA	170	60°C
<i>GF187</i>	G4QAAT301BPBS3	(CTG) ₄	CCTCTTCCTCCTCGTTTAAT	TCCTTTTGCTAGAACACACA	222	55°C
<i>GF188</i>	G4QAAT301A4B6Q	(CTG) ₄	AGAGCTTGCTGGTGTA AAC	TAGAGGTCCACTTGGGAAC	189	60°C
<i>GF189</i>	G4QAAT301BXXOY	(CTG) ₄	GAGAAATGCAGCCTTAAGAA	TTAGGAAACAGAGCGGTAAG	217	60°C
<i>GF190</i>	G4QAAT301AVVSN	(CTG) ₄	CCGTCCATTTTCTTTAAGTG	GGCATCTTCAAGCTTCTTTA	157	NA
<i>GF191</i>	G4QAAT301BKHZS	(CTG) ₄	CCTCTTCCTCCTCGTTTAAT	TCCTTTTGCTAGAACACACA	222	60°C
<i>GF192</i>	G4QAAT301BDGU4	(CTG) ₄	GAGGAATGCCTACCATGTAA	GAAAAGATGCTATGGGAAGA	210	55°C
<i>GF193</i>	G4QAAT301BITQ6	(CTG) ₄	TTCAGTGGCAGCTTTATGTA	TTAACATCTGCAAACAATGC	222	60°C
<i>GF194</i>	G4QAAT301BRUMQ	(CTG) ₄	TTTAACATGGGTACCTGACC	GGCTCAGTCAATACTTCACC	170	55°C
<i>GF195</i>	G4QAAT301AUKD6	(CTG) ₄	ACAGTGCTCTTTGTTTGTCC	CAACAAGATGACTGAGAGCA	175	55°C
<i>GF196</i>	G4QAAT301AE7MM	(CTG) ₄	GTCCTGTGAGTCGTGGAG	ACCACCACCATTAGAGCTT	155	55°C

<i>GF197</i>	G4QAAT301A3WP8	(CTG) ₄	AGTGTGCTGTCAGGGATG	GTAGCACTCCATACCCCATA	139	55°c
<i>GF198</i>	G4QAAT301BE4YD	(CTG) ₄	TGAGATCAGGTGGAAAAACT	TACATTTCTGCTCTCCAGT	186	55°c
<i>GF199</i>	G4QAAT301AC7HB	(CTG) ₄	CCTTGTTCCAGAGCTGTAGT	GGAAGGACAAATAAAGCAAA	161	55°c
<i>GF200</i>	G4QAAT301BPH8Q	(CTG) ₄	ACAAGTCACTTTGCTGTCCT	AACTGAGCCCTAACTCATCC	170	60°c
<i>GF201</i>	G4QAAT301AJUWN	(CTG) ₄	GGGATGTGCTCTTTGAGATA	CACCCAGAAATGAACTTACC	193	60°c
<i>GF202</i>	G4QAAT301AZ1L0	(CTG) ₄ G(CTG)	TACAGAGGGACGATGACTTC	AAGGTTGTGTGGAGGAAAC	157	55°c
<i>GF203</i>	G4QAAT301ABO7N	(CTG) ₄	CCATTCCTTTCATCTCATGT	ATCTTTGCTCTGGTTTGATG	137	55°c
<i>GF204</i>	G4QAAT301B2326	(CTG) ₄	GTCCTTTCACTTTGTTTTGC	CCTGGTGAGGTGTTTCAGTAT	243	55°c
<i>GF205</i>	G4QAAT301B0QB0	(CTG) ₄	AACAACAGGTGCGTAGATTT	AATTTGATTATGAGGTTTGACA	105	NA
<i>GF206</i>	G4QAAT301A7ZXH	(CTG) ₄	CTCTTCCACTTGGTGTGAT	ATGGGAGACTCTACCCTTTT	106	55°c
<i>GF207</i>	G4QAAT301A7TVT	(CTG)TG(CTG) ₄	ACTGTTTCCTGAAAGGTTCC	CTGCTTTGTTCTCTGTTGCT	197	55°c
<i>GF208</i>	G4QAAT301BRLLJ	(CTG) ₄	CCGTTCTAGCTAAGCTGTTC	CATGTTTTCCCACAGAGAAT	227	55°c
<i>GF209</i>	G4QAAT301BR7QH	(CTG) ₄	AACAACAGGTGCGTAGATTT	AATTTGATTATGAGGTTTGACA	107	55°c
<i>GF210</i>	G4QAAT301BNDLR	(CTG)C(CTG) ₄	ACTTGAAAGGGAAATCTGGT	GCATGATCTCATGGGTTAGT	227	60°c
<i>GF211</i>	G4QAAT301AV3BP	(CTG) ₄	CAAGAGAGAGTTCTGGTGGA	CTGAAACATTTTGCTGATGA	248	55°c
<i>GF212</i>	G4QAAT301BJ1OC	(CTG) ₄	AATTCCAACTGCTTCATCAC	CAGAACTCCGTTTTCTTGAC	218	55°c
<i>GF213</i>	G4QAAT301AQTEW	(CTG) ₄	GACTCTCGTGCTGCTGTC	GAACTCGCTGACTTCATTTT	180	55°c
<i>GF214</i>	G4QAAT301BUQ69B	(CTG)C(CTG) ₄	AAACAGAAGGTGAATGCTGT	GTAGCTGTGCACCTCACC	241	55°c

<i>GF215</i>	G4QAAT301AAT8Y	(GAT) ₄	TTTCACAGCCTACCTTCTTC	AATTTCTGCCAAAGAACAAA	236	55°c
<i>GF216</i>	G4QAAT301APAYW	(GAT) ₄	TGTATTTTAGTGCAGGTTCTGA	TCTCAGTTCTATTCTGGTTGG	101	55°c
<i>GF217</i>	G4QAAT301AMOW5	(GAT) ₄	CAAGACATGTTGTTGAGGTG	CTTCTCTTCCCAAATGAGC	170	55°c
<i>GF218</i>	G4QAAT301BBCVI	(GAT) ₄	GTCTGGAGACCACTGAAAAC	ATTCCCTCTCAGCTTTCTCT	189	55°c
<i>GF219</i>	G4QAAT301BJUNR	(GAT) ₄	GACTTTGCAAAATAGATGCAG	ATACAGCGCAGAAGGTAGAG	159	55°c
<i>GF220</i>	G4QAAT301A3PH0	(GAT) ₄	CGGGAACATATTAGCTGAAG	TTTCCTGGTAAATGGTCATC	168	55°c
<i>GF221</i>	G4QAAT301A4YS5	(GAT) ₄	GGGACTCTGTCTTACATCCA	TTAAGAGAAGCTGCTCCTTCG	201	55°c
<i>GF222</i>	G4QAAT301ANT5T	(GAT) ₄	TCAAAGGAAAATCCTGAAA	ATTCTCCACTGAATGATTGC	118	55°c
<i>GF223</i>	G4QAAT301AWU2N	(GAT) ₄	GGCATTGTGTTGGTATTCAT	GCTTCCAGATCAACTGAAG	165	60°c
<i>GF224</i>	G4QAAT301AYJWI	(GAT) ₄	CTCAGACACACACCACAGAG	GTTATGGAAAGCGTGATAGG	493	-
<i>GF225</i>	G4QAAT301BY5R3	(GAT) ₄	ATGGGGTTGGTTTTATTTCT	ACGCTTACACTTGAACCAAA	541	-
<i>GF226</i>	G4QAAT301BYPJ9	(GAT) ₄	TCAAGTCTTGGTTCTCCATC	CTTTTGTGGGCCTTAGAATA	212	55°c
<i>GF227</i>	G4QAAT301BKJ57	(GAT) ₄	AAAAGCGAGATTTAGGGAAT	GTTCTTTGTTTCAGGTTTTGC	187	NA

NA= no amplification; - = not tested; Ta = Annealing temperature

4.4 Genotyping

The genotypes of 32 unrelated individuals at 38 selected loci indicated that 31 loci were polymorphic while the remaining 7 loci were monomorphic. For instance, as shown by the electropherogram in Figure 12, locus *GF75* was polymorphic with two alleles (232 bp and 236 bp) which were observed in the homozygous and heterozygous states in the 32 birds. On the other hand, locus *GF46* is an example of a monomorphic marker occurring as one allele (131 bp) in all the 32 individuals genotyped (Figure 13). Of the 31 polymorphic markers, 23 (74.2%) were di- repeats, 7 (22.6%) were tri- repeats and 1 (3.2%) was a tetranucleotide repeat. The genotypes of all 38 loci are shown in Appendix IV.

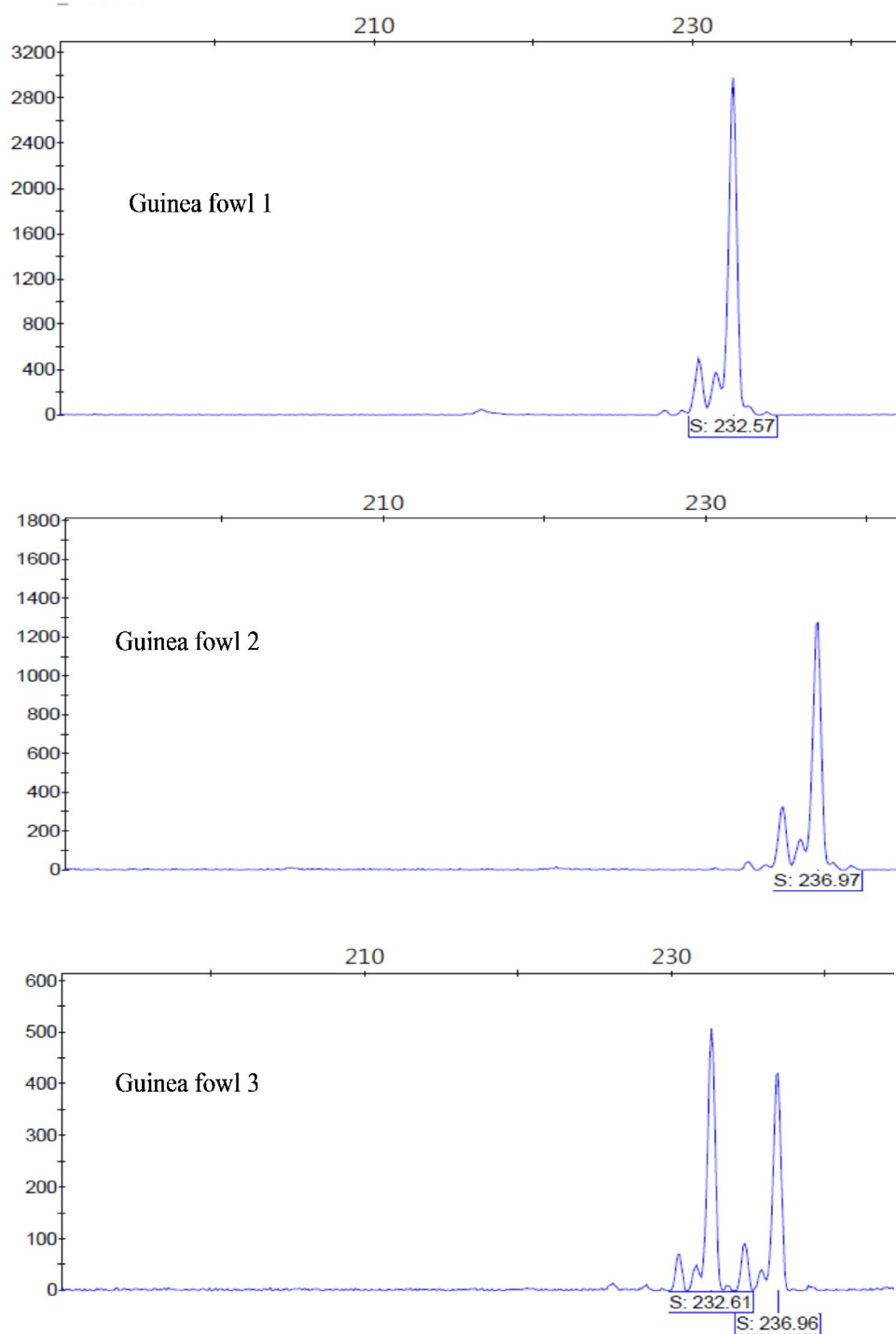


Figure 12: Electropherogram of locus GF75 showing three different genotypes for three individuals. These three alleles were observed at this locus in a total of 32 guinea fowls genotyped. Guinea fowl 1 was homozygous (232/232); guinea fowl 2 was homozygous (236/236); and guinea fowl 3 was heterozygous (232/236).

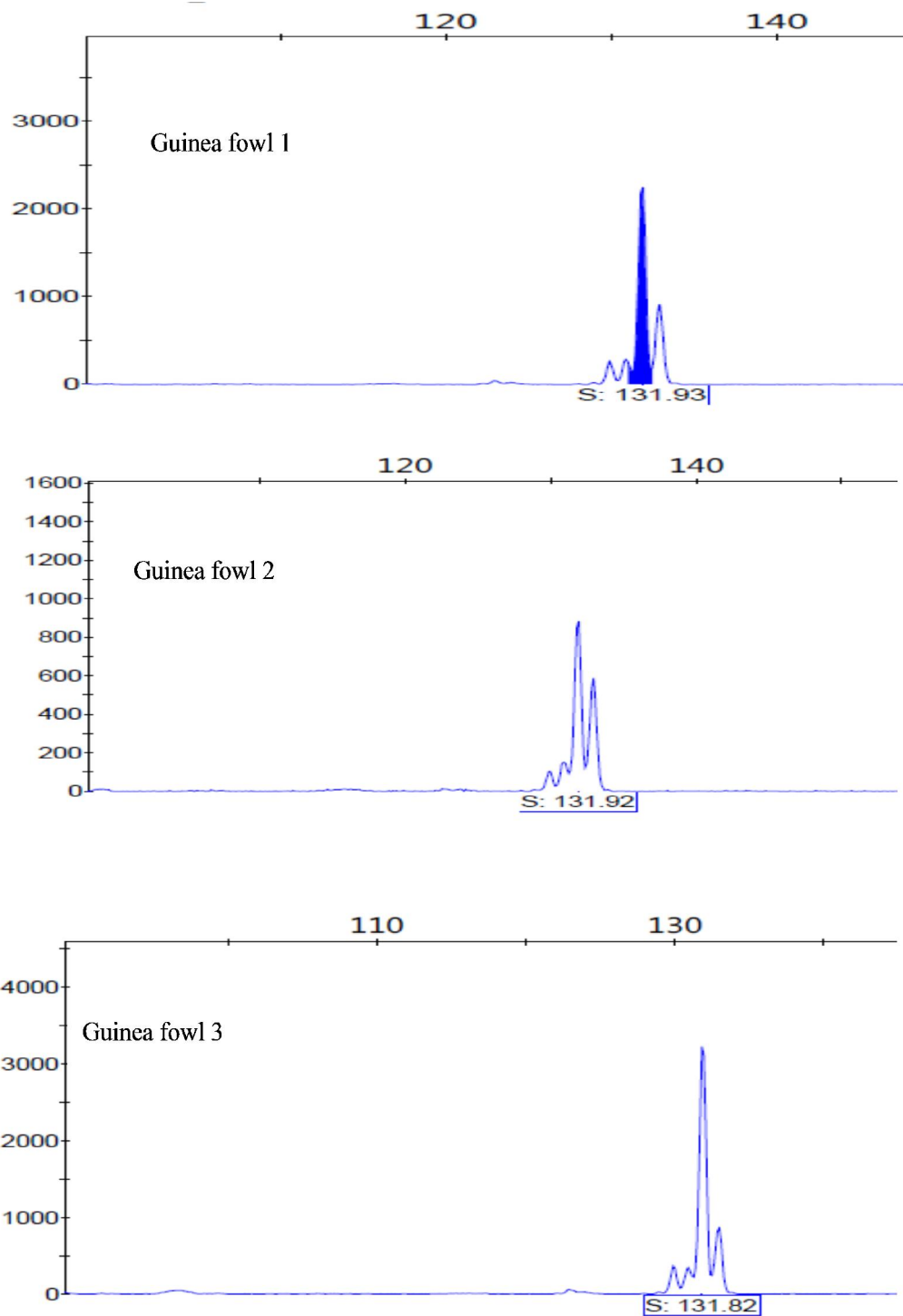


Figure 13: Electropherogram of locus GF46 showing three similar genotypes for three individuals. This single allele (131 bp) was observed at this locus in a total of 32 guinea fowls genotyped.

4.5 Data Analysis

Population genetic parameters established for all 31 polymorphic loci are indicated in Table 8. Although 32 individuals were genotyped, the number of individuals varied across loci due to insufficient amplification. The number of alleles (N_a) ranged from 2 to 9, with a mean of 3.39 for all 31 loci. Locus GF69 recorded the highest N_a , followed closely by loci GF12 and GF13 which recorded 7 alleles each. All three of these loci were perfect dinucleotide repeat. The lowest N_a value was recorded by 11 alleles (Table 8).

Allele sizes ranged from 94 bp to 286 bp, across the 31 polymorphic loci. The widest allele size range (88 bp) was recorded for locus GF4 while the least (2 bp) was recorded for loci GF34 and GF40 (Figure 14). The effective number of alleles (N_e) ranged from 1.034 to 4.966 (mean = 2.039), with locus GF69 recording the highest. The N_a and N_e values were seen to be directly associated with each other (Table 8 and Figure 14).

Observed and expected heterozygosities ranged from 0.030 to 1.000 (mean = 0.396) and 0.033 to 0.799 (mean = 0.419), respectively. The allele frequencies for each locus are indicated in Appendix V. Shannon's index (I) ranged from 0.085 to 1.821 with a mean of 0.750 and was found to be directly associated with the N_a and N_e values (Figure 14). Fixation index for the loci was as low as -1.000 and as high as 0.710. The mean fixation index for the 31 loci was however very low (0.052).

Twelve loci deviated significantly from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE). These were loci GF16F, GF21, GF37, GF43, GF69, GF74, GF76, GF114, GF151, GF168, GF179 and GF199. Following Bonferroni correction ($P < 0.002$), nine loci excluding

loci *GF21* and *GF114* deviated significantly from *HWE*. Six of these loci were affected by null alleles.

From Figure 14, *PI* of the markers decreased with increasing *Na*, *Ne*, and *I* values. The average *PI* among the loci was 0.430. The *PIC* ranged from 0.033 (*GF34*) to 0.776 (*GF69*) with an average of 0.369. Locus *GF69*, which recorded the highest number of alleles also recorded the lowest *PI* value and the highest *PIC* value (Table 9), and therefore was the most informative locus. The degree of information of all 31 markers is indicated in Table 9.

Table 8: Profile of 31 polymorphic loci

Locus	Repeat motif	Allele size range (bp)	<i>N</i>	<i>N_a</i>	<i>N_e</i>	<i>H_o</i>	<i>H_e</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>HWE (P-value)</i>	<i>NAF</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>PI</i>	<i>PIC</i>
<i>GF2</i>	(CA) ₁₀	192-196	31	2	1.29	0.258	0.225	-0.148	0.409	0.000	0.385	0.630	0.200
<i>GF4</i>	(CA) ₁₂ GA(CA) ₅	125-213	32	2	1.28	0.250	0.219	-0.143	0.419	0.000	0.377	0.630	0.195
<i>GF5</i>	(CA) ₁₃	164-168	32	3	2.48	0.750	0.597	-0.256	0.166	0.000	0.978	0.250	0.514
<i>GF12</i>	(CA) ₁₁	94-110	32	7	4.27	0.719	0.766	0.061	0.467	0.008	1.635	0.090	0.735
<i>GF13</i>	(CA) ₁₄	116-152	32	7	4.31	0.656	0.768	0.146	0.097	0.057	1.600	0.090	0.736
<i>GF15</i>	(CA) ₁₁	164-172	22	2	1.10	0.091	0.087	-0.048	0.823	0.000	0.185	0.840	0.082
<i>GF16</i>	(ATC) ₇	169-172	32	2	1.48	0.094	0.324	0.710	0.000*	0.199	0.505	0.510	0.271
<i>GF17</i>	(GT) ₁₁	206-214	32	3	2.18	0.531	0.542	0.019	0.179	0.035	0.883	0.290	0.457
<i>GF19</i>	(GT) ₁₃	142-147	31	2	1.93	0.548	0.481	-0.139	0.437	0.000	0.674	0.380	0.365
<i>GF20</i>	(GT) ₁₃	108-116	31	4	2.46	0.613	0.594	-0.032	0.413	0.021	1.035	0.230	0.525
<i>GF21</i>	(GT) ₁₀	242-246	26	3	1.26	0.192	0.208	0.075	0.021	0.000	0.410	0.640	0.192

<i>GF26</i>	(GT) ₁₁	145-210	29	3	1.36	0.172	0.267	0.354	0.159	0.101	0.486	0.560	0.239
<i>GF30</i>	(GT) ₁₁	214-233	28	4	2.02	0.607	0.504	-0.205	0.182	0.000	0.960	0.300	0.453
<i>GF32</i>	(GT) ₁₀	149-163	30	3	1.53	0.300	0.346	0.133	0.794	0.043	0.581	0.480	0.297
<i>GF34</i>	(GT) ₁₀	118-120	30	2	1.03	0.033	0.033	-0.017	0.926	0.000	0.085	0.940	0.033
<i>GF37</i>	(CA) ₈	223-232	31	5	2.60	0.677	0.616	-0.101	0.000*	0.000	1.130	0.210	0.549
<i>GF40</i>	(CA) ₉	264-266	30	2	1.30	0.200	0.231	0.135	0.461	0.040	0.393	0.620	0.204
<i>GF43</i>	(CA) ₉	135-139	25	3	2.16	0.280	0.537	0.478	0.024	0.160	0.833	0.320	0.430
<i>GF44</i>	(CA) ₉	200-204	30	2	1.11	0.100	0.095	-0.053	0.773	0.000	0.199	0.820	0.091
<i>GF50</i>	(CA) ₈	164-173	30	5	1.53	0.267	0.346	0.230	0.132	0.092	0.740	0.450	0.328
<i>GF69</i>	(GT) ₈	203-234	24	9	4.97	0.250	0.799	0.687	0.000*	0.303	1.821	0.070	0.774
<i>GF74</i>	(GT) ₉	230-236	28	5	2.35	0.321	0.575	0.441	0.000*	0.181	1.121	0.220	0.532
<i>GF75</i>	(GT) ₈	226-236	31	3	2.30	0.387	0.565	0.314	0.132	0.100	0.911	0.280	0.473
<i>GF76</i>	(GT) ₈	207-211	32	3	1.25	0.094	0.200	0.531	0.000*	0.133	0.411	0.650	0.188

<i>GF114</i>	(ATG) ₆	252-257	28	3	1.34	0.143	0.253	0.434	0.011	0.123	0.490	0.580	0.234
<i>GF151</i>	(CTG) ₅	261-286	27	3	2.50	0.704	0.600	-0.173	0.001*	0.000	1.002	0.230	0.531
<i>GF168</i>	(ACAT) ₁₀	236-252	30	4	3.00	0.533	0.667	0.200	0.000*	0.101	1.177	0.180	0.601
<i>GF179</i>	(CAT) ₄	209-235	32	2	2.00	1.000	0.500	-1.000	0.000*	0.000	0.693	0.380	0.375
<i>GF191</i>	(CTG) ₄	241-278	29	2	1.15	0.138	0.128	-0.074	0.690	0.000	0.251	0.770	0.120
<i>GF198</i>	(CTG) ₄	203-209	32	3	1.70	0.438	0.413	-0.060	0.923	0.000	0.654	0.420	0.341
<i>GF199</i>	(CTG) ₄	175-181	30	2	1.99	0.933	0.498	-0.875	0.000*	0.000	0.691	0.380	0.374
Mean			29.645	3.39	2.04	0.396	0.419	0.052		0.054	0.750	0.434	0.369

Number of individuals (N), number of alleles (N_a), Effective number of alleles (N_e), observed heterozygosity (H_o), expected heterozygosity (H_e), fixation index (F), *: significant deviation from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE), null allele frequency (NAF), Shannon's index (I), probability of identity (PI) and polymorphism information content (PIC).

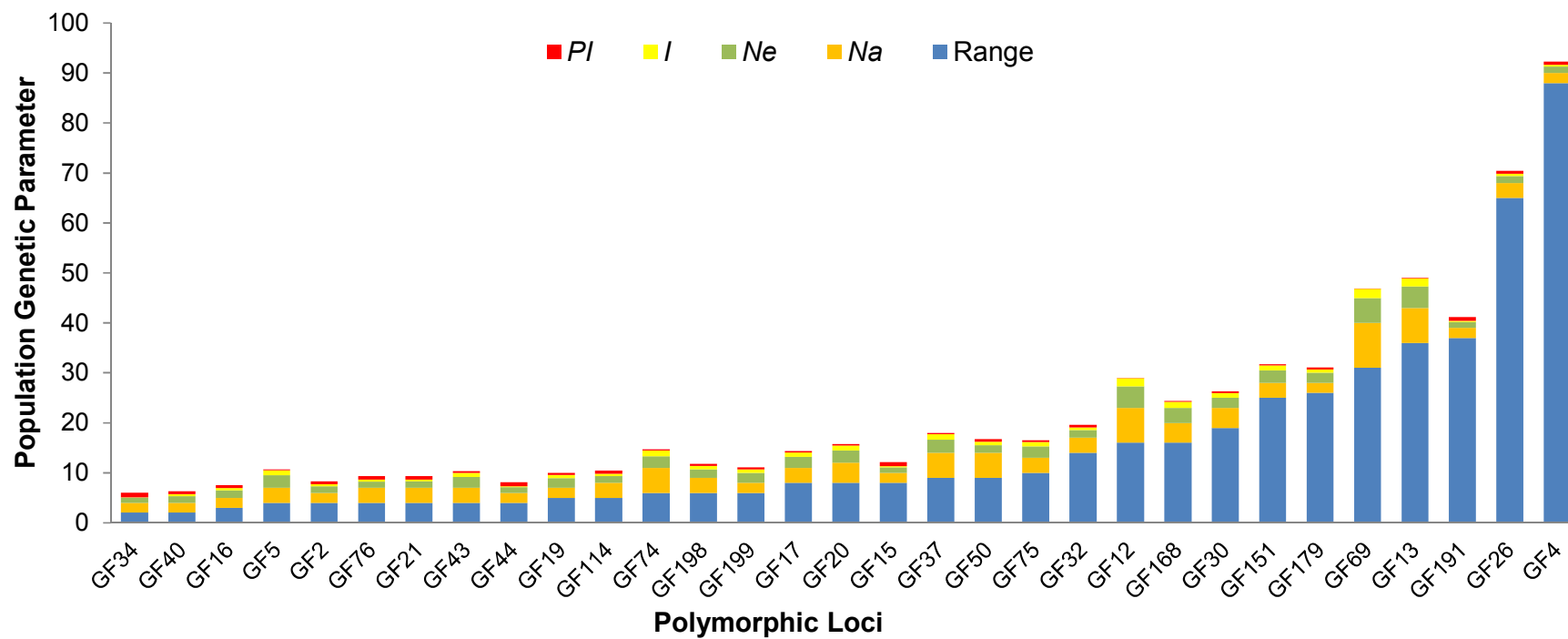


Figure 14: Characteristics of 31 polymorphic loci. Number of alleles (N_a), effective number of alleles (N_e), Shannon's index (I) and probability of identity (PI)

Table 9: Informativeness of 31 guinea fowl polymorphic microsatellite loci

Locus	Repeat motif	PIC	Information
<i>GF34</i>	(GT) ₁₀	0.033	} Slightly informative
<i>GF15</i>	(CA) ₁₁	0.082	
<i>GF44</i>	(CA) ₉	0.091	
<i>GF191</i>	(CTG) ₄	0.120	
<i>GF76</i>	(GT) ₈	0.188	
<i>GF21</i>	(GT) ₁₀	0.192	
<i>GF4</i>	(CA) ₁₂ GA(CA) ₅	0.195	
<i>GF2</i>	(CA) ₁₀	0.200	
<i>GF40</i>	(CA) ₉	0.204	
<i>GF114</i>	(ATG) ₆	0.234	
<i>GF26</i>	(GT) ₁₁	0.239	
<i>GF16</i>	(ATC) ₇	0.271	} Reasonably informative
<i>GF32</i>	(GT) ₁₀	0.297	
<i>GF50</i>	(CA) ₈	0.328	
<i>GF198</i>	(CTG) ₄	0.341	
<i>GF19</i>	(GT) ₁₃	0.365	
<i>GF199</i>	(CTG) ₄	0.374	
<i>GF179</i>	(CAT) ₄	0.375	
<i>GF43</i>	(CA) ₉	0.430	
<i>GF30</i>	(GT) ₁₁	0.453	
<i>GF17</i>	(GT) ₁₁	0.457	
<i>GF75</i>	(GT) ₈	0.473	
<i>GF5</i>	(CA) ₁₃	0.514	} Highly informative
<i>GF20</i>	(GT) ₁₃	0.525	
<i>GF151</i>	(CTG) ₅	0.531	
<i>GF74</i>	(GT) ₉	0.532	
<i>GF37</i>	(CA) ₈	0.549	
<i>GF168</i>	(ACAT) ₁₀	0.601	
<i>GF12</i>	(CA) ₁₁	0.735	
<i>GF13</i>	(CA) ₁₄	0.736	
<i>GF69</i>	(GT) ₈	0.774	

PIC- Polymorphism information content

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION

5.1 Efficiency of 454 sequencing for microsatellite development in guinea fowl

Microsatellites occur at low frequencies in some genomes including birds, thereby increasing the difficulty of their identification and this has limited efforts by previous researchers who unsuccessfully used the traditional method (B.B. Kayang, personal communication, June 19, 2013). Regardless of the low occurrence of these markers in birds, the Sequencing technique used in the present study, rapidly and cost-effectively identified 105,015 reads containing 1,234 microsatellite sequences. Selkoe *et al.* (2006) and Santana *et al.* (2009) also reported that the 454 sequencing technique facilitated the identification of a higher number of microsatellite containing sequences compared to the traditional method.

The isolation process in the present study was done within three days, compared to the traditional method which could take several months, to generate just a few reads or none at all. The efficiency of this technique (454 sequencing) for the development of markers has been reported in several studies (Margulies *et al.*, 2005; Allentoft *et al.*, 2008; Abdelkrim *et al.*, 2009). On the other hand the use of traditional methods of microsatellite development (eg. Cloning vectors combined with Sanger sequencing) has been observed to be time-consuming, technically demanding and considerably expensive (Crooijimas *et al.*, 1997; Santana *et al.*, 2009; Andrés and Bogdanowicz, 2011; Blair *et al.*, 2012).

The total number of microsatellite sites found (1,234) in the guinea fowl, were low considering the total number of reads (105,015) found in the library. The number of

microsatellites represented only 1.2% of the total number of reads. A value of 1.3% (231 of 17,215) microsatellite sequences has also been reported for Blue ducks by Abdelkrim *et al.* (2009). This low frequency can be attributed to the generally low occurrence of microsatellites in birds. This was expected as Neff and Gross (2001), Baums *et al.* (2005) and Primmer *et al.* (1997), reported that microsatellites tend to be relatively rare, in some insects, birds, bats and corals. An investigation into the basis for the low frequency of microsatellites in birds, revealed limiting numbers of Poly-A tails in avian genomes due to the low abundance of interspersed elements which aid in the transition of Poly-A tails into various repeats (Primmer *et al.*, 1997). The limited results obtained by previous researchers who used the traditional method, could thus be attributed to the small percentage of microsatellite sites in the guinea fowl genome as demonstrated in the present study.

5.2 Characteristics of guinea fowl microsatellite markers

The lower classes of repeats harboured more microsatellites, as indicated in Figure 9. This is contrary to reports by Tóth *et al.* (2000) and Ellegren (2004), who reported a higher proportion of tetra- than trinucleotide repeats in vertebrate genomes including chicken, duck, fish and frogs. Furthermore, a higher proportion of microsatellites have also been found in lower classes of repeats in the honey bee (*Apis mellifera*) (Megléczy *et al.*, 2012). Santana *et al.* (2009) also reported that there were no pentanucleotide repeats in a study involving microsatellite development for *Sirex noctilio* (a pine-damaging wasp), and attributed this finding to the low abundance of the markers in insects. A similar reason could account for the low abundance of penta- and hexanucleotide repeat classes in the present study.

Mallory (2007) and Schoebel *et al.* (2013), in similar studies of microsatellite marker development, stated that the longer the read the higher the possibility of finding a microsatellite with the flanking regions necessary for primer development. Due to this finding, repeat lengths of at least four were selected for both tri- and tetranucleotide repeats whilst lengths of at least seven were selected for dinucleotide repeats in the present study. Qi *et al.* (2001), also reported that long repeats, produce polymorphic PCR products with higher *PIC* values. Penta- and hexanucleotide repeats were excluded from the primer design in the present study due to time constraints. Upon specifying the repeat lengths, 584 selected microsatellite sites, made up of 9 repeat types were classified into di (294), tri (288) and tetra (2). Dinucleotides still remained the most common of the 3 classes of repeats (though followed closely by trinucleotide repeats). A high number of dinucleotide repeats have also been observed in many studies in insects, birds, mammals and fish (Primmer *et al.*, 1997; Tóth *et al.*, 2000; Ellegren, 2004; Adenyo *et al.*, 2012).

There was an apparent abundance of CA/GT microsatellite repeats which represented 34.2% (200 of the 584 total number of repeats found) and also among the dinucleotide repeats in this study. This finding agrees with work done by Tóth *et al.* (2000), Ellegren (2004) and Meglécz *et al.* (2012), who reported that CA/GT is the commonest type of repeat in most genomes especially eukaryotes, whilst AT repeats were more common in plants. However, considering the criteria by Ellegren (2004) who reported on four possible types of dinucleotide repeats, there may still be two more possible dinucleotide repeats that can be obtained from the library in this study (i.e. AT/TA, and GC/CG). The next abundant nucleotide repeat after CA/GT was GCT which represented 18% (105 of 584). This was followed closely by CTG which represented 17.8% (104 of 584) of the total number of repeats. These two repeats

were also the most common of the trinucleotide repeats. Primmer *et al.* (1997) also reported that trinucleotides are found in coding regions and were responsible for certain neurological diseases in humans including Huntington's disease (Sermon *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, in agreement with the assertion of Tóth *et al.* (2000) that CCG/GCC repeats were uncommon in the introns of vertebrates, only eight of this type of repeat was found in the library in the present study. Although other tetranucleotide repeat types may exist as shown in reports by Primmer *et al.* (1997), Tóth *et al.* (2000) and Ellegren (2004), only two repeats (AAAC and ACAT) in the proportions of 1:1 were found in the library in the present study.

Only 26.4% (154 of 584) primer pairs were designed (Table 5), due to cost constraints. In general, since CA/GT repeats were the commonest repeats, a higher number of primers (59 of 154) were designed for this repeat type (Table 5). Moreover, according to Ellegren (2004) most polymorphic repeats are CA/GT repeats. Therefore to save cost, primers were not designed for any other dinucleotide repeat even though GA repeats (94) were also found. Among the trinucleotide repeats, 45.5% (70 of 154) of the primers designed were of equal proportions of ATC/GAT and CTG repeat primers.

The number of perfect repeats [142 out of 154 primers (92.2%)] was on the higher side compared to the number of imperfect repeats 12 out of 154 primers 7.8% (Figure 10). This was anticipated as Kutil and Williams (2001) reported that perfect repeats are more persistent in genomes. The number of perfect repeats observed, was higher than the 73% reported by Kayang *et al.* (2000) for quail. Although the number of imperfect repeats found in this study was lower than the 20% found by Kayang *et al.* (2000), the general trend of higher proportion of perfect repeats to imperfect repeats

was clear. The type of enrichment procedure has been reported by Van de Wiel *et al.* (1999) to directly influence the nature of repeat (perfect, compound or imperfect). This implies that the enrichment procedure used in this study was highly successful. Notwithstanding the influence of the enrichment procedure on the nature of the repeats, it is also highly possible that the high number of perfect repeats recorded in this study could be due to the stability or conservation of the sequences (Moriguchi *et al.*, 2003).

Two primers (GF223 and GF224) were excluded from the primer test because the expected product sizes were too large (493 and 541). Approximately 79.2% of the primers (122 of 154) successfully amplified in at least one of the two temperatures tested. This was lower than the 86% (n = 22) observed in the El Oro parakeet (an endangered parrot species) and higher than the 78% (n = 51) observed in the blackcap (a songbird), both in a study by Schoebel *et al.* (2013). Of these 152 markers that were tested, 77 (50.7%) showed clearer bands at 55 °C whilst 45 (29.6%) showed clearer bands at 60 °C making a total of 122 optimised primers. Of the 122 optimised primers 6.6% (8 of 122) were imperfect repeats whilst 93.4% (114 of 122) were perfect repeats. The remaining 30 of the 154 markers designed (19.7%) failed to amplify at either 55 °C or 60 °C but it is possible they may amplify at other temperatures. This variation may be due to the different nucleotide sequence composition of the primers. Moreover, it has been established by Mitsuhashi (1996) that the G-C content of primer sequence increases stability of the primers. A higher melting temperature will therefore be required for such primers than those that have a higher A-T content (www.premierbiosoft.com, accessed February 31, 2013). On the other hand, a lower melting temperature will be required if the A-T content is high. Studies by Smulders *et al.* (1997) have also shown that the occurrence of null alleles

could also result in the failure of primers to amplify during optimization. These occur when the flanking sequences of microsatellites diverge or change. Deletion of microsatellites at specific loci, according to Callen *et al.* (1993), may also cause null alleles to occur.

5.3 Allelic diversity of microsatellites in guinea fowl

Thirty-one out of 38 loci (81.6%) were polymorphic when genotyped in 32 unrelated guinea fowls in this study. This was similar to the 87.1 % (61 of 70 markers) reported for ostrich. The value was higher than the 31.3 % (15 of 48 markers) reported for Noicy miners (Kopps *et al.*, 2013), but lower than the 90.3 % (28 of 31 markers) reported by Huang *et al.* (2005) for ducks.

Dinucleotide microsatellites have been the favourite of many researchers because they are known to be characterised by higher repeat numbers (Li *et al.*, 2004) which makes them the most polymorphic (Ellegren, 2004). In contrast, similar studies by Tóth *et al.* (2000) reported trinucleotide repeats as the most abundant but had fewer repeat numbers (Thiel *et al.*, 2003). The high proportion of polymorphic dinucleotides was obvious in this study and is in agreement with work by Ellegren (2004).

The allele size range of 94 to 286 bp is comparable to work done by Kayang *et al.* (2002), who obtained 147 to 317 bp for quail microsatellites that cross amplified in guinea fowl. However, it is probable that more polymorphic markers exist beyond the allele size range found in the present study since Kayang *et al.* (2002) used more markers (100), compared to the present study. Locus *GF4* which was the only imperfect polymorphic repeat [(CA)₁₂GA(CA)₅], recorded the widest allele size range (125 to 213), as indicated in Figure 14. This was followed by locus *GF26* (145 to 210), *GF191* (241 to 278), *GF13* (116 to 152) and *GF69* (203 to 234). This suggests

the ability of marker *GF4* to amplify a wide array of alleles in diversity studies. However, imperfect and compound repeats are known to be caused by mutations and deletions (Kutil and Williams, 2001; Moriguchi *et al.*, 2003) and this may account for the wide range observed for this locus. Nevertheless, this result suggests that *GF4* could be used for studying the evolutionary patterns of the guinea fowl genome (Zhang *et al.*, 2012).

The N_a value of 2 to 9 (mean = 3.39) was similar to the 2 to 9 alleles (mean = 4.00) reported by Croooijimas *et al.* (1997) in chicken, but higher than the 1 to 6 alleles (mean = 3.7) obtained by Kayang *et al.* (2002) for quail. The 105 alleles observed in the present study for the 31 loci was lower than the 117 different alleles reported by Huang *et al.* (2005) for Peking ducks for 28 polymorphic loci. This may be due to a lower genetic variation in guinea fowl compared to the Peking duck.

The mean N_e of 2.039 was also lower than that reported by Kayang *et al.* (2002) for quail (2.45). The mean H_o (0.396) was lower than the mean H_e (0.419), indicating some genetic diversity in guinea fowl. Furthermore, *HWE* tests showed that 12 loci deviated from *HWE* with the P-values of loci *GF21*, *GF35* and *GF43* (0.021, 0.011 and 0.024 respectively) being significant ($P < 0.05$). The P-values of loci *GF16F*, *GF37*, *GF69*, *GF74*, *GF76*, *GF151*, *GF168*, *GF179*, and *GF199* were highly significant ($P < 0.001$). Following Bonferroni correction ($P < 0.002$; Rice, 1989), nine loci deviated significantly from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium. This adjustment was done in order to maintain a 5% error rate (0.05). The P-value used for Bonferroni correction was calculated as the 0.05 divided by the number of comparisons (31 polymorphic markers). The deviation from *HWE* could be due to the small number of individuals per population and the pooling of data from 3 different populations (Latip

et al., 2010). The presence of null alleles, in-breeding or homogeneity in all or either one of the populations sampled could also account for this heterozygote deficiency (Chakraborty *et al.*, 1992; Dakin and Avise, 2004; Santana *et al.*, 2009).

The null allele frequency was low, ranging from 0.008 to 0.303 for 16 affected loci. The null allele frequency was less than 0.2 in all loci except locus *GF69* (0.300), which also recorded the highest number of alleles. The evidence of the presence of null alleles in this study, though very low, could account for the heterozygote deficit recorded after *HWE* tests (Dakin and Avise, 2004). Only a few loci deviated from *HWE* therefore the heterozygous deficit could be as a result of the null alleles found in the study as indicated by Jarne and Lagoda (1996), Dakin and Avise (2004), Chapuis and Estoup (2007) and Oddou-Muratorio *et al.* (2008). The low mean value recorded for *F* (0.052), implies that there were reduced levels of inbreeding although this value could have been inflated by the presence of null alleles in the current study.

Evidently, the *Na* was directly associated with *I* (Figure 14) in all the loci indicating the high diversity of the loci. The mean Shannon's index (0.750) across all 31 polymorphic loci indicates that the markers are highly informative ($I > 0.5$). Another index for measuring marker informativeness, polymorphism information content, indicated a range of 0.033 to 0.774 with an average of 0.367. The average *PIC* of 0.367 recorded for guinea fowl in the present study was lower than the *PIC* of 0.477 recorded by Kayang *et al.* (2002) for Japanese quail and the 0.420 recorded by Huang *et al.* (2005) for Peking ducks. The mean *PIC* (0.367) observed in the present study was however higher than the mean *PIC* of 0.155 recorded by Kayang *et al.* (2002) for 11 Japanese quail polymorphic microsatellite markers that cross amplified in guinea fowl. This implies a lower level of homogeneity in the guinea fowls sampled for the present study. Consequently, based on the criteria by Botstein *et al.* (1980) and the

mean *PIC* value obtained from the current study, the markers can be described as reasonably informative and therefore would be useful for gene mapping. Furthermore, in the present study, 29% of the markers (9 of 31) were highly informative ($PIC > 0.50$), 35.5% (11 of 31) were reasonably informative ($0.50 > PIC > 0.25$), and 35.5% (11 of 31) were slightly informative ($PIC < 0.25$). The percentage of markers (29%) with high *PIC* in this study was lower than that for Japanese quail i.e. 59.2 % (58 of 98) found by Kayang *et al.* (2002). The percentage of slightly informative markers recorded in the present study i.e. 35.5% was however higher than that recorded for Japanese quail. Although, the average probability of identity among the loci was 0.43 and was higher than that recorded for grasscutter (3.1×10^{-33}) by Adenyo *et al.* (2012), the markers can still be useful for diversity studies and individual discrimination.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 GENERAL CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

- ❖ This study marks the first to utilize the Roche 454 sequencing technology in microsatellite marker development for guinea fowl. The technology proved efficient in facilitating the isolation of 122 microsatellite markers for guinea fowl. The 122 microsatellite markers reported here are also the first original microsatellite markers for the guinea fowl. Of these 122 markers, 31 original polymorphic microsatellite markers have been developed and with moderately high information content.
- ❖ The microsatellite sequences obtained for the guinea fowl was low (1.2%) and is a reflection of the generally low occurrence of microsatellites in birds.
- ❖ The di- and trinucleotide class of repeats were more abundant than tetra-, penta and hexanucleotide repeats, with CA/GT repeats being the most frequent.
- ❖ A high number of perfect repeats were obtained compared to imperfect repeats, a probable consequence of positive influence of the enrichment procedure and stability or conservation of sequences.

6.2 Recommendations

- ❖ The ability to perform effective genetic analyses is enhanced when researchers are provided with the widest possible array of polymorphisms from which to choose. Therefore, the remaining 84 optimised primers should be characterized using 32 unrelated individuals. During optimization, varied PCR conditions other than 55 °C and 60 °C should be considered to increase success rate.

- ❖ Even though null allele frequency was low in this study, affected primers could be re-designed in an effort to recover normal inheritance pattern and sequence them to confirm their detailed molecular basis. Furthermore, primers should be designed and tested for the remaining 1,065 microsatellites sites obtained in the study.
- ❖ Genetic analysis should be done based on the microsatellites developed in the study to uncover economic trait loci required for the improvement and conservation of this valuable species.
- ❖ The microsatellite markers developed in this study could be used to compare the genetic structure of both domestic and feral populations of helmeted guinea fowl for conservation purposes.
- ❖ The possibility of cross-amplification for the other three genera of guinea fowl using the polymorphic microsatellite markers developed in this study should be analysed.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Information on samples collected for primer development and genotyping

Sample ID	Sex	Location
Control	F	LIPREC
1	F	LIPREC
2	M	Upper West Region
3	M	Upper West Region
4	M	Upper West Region
5	F	Northern Region
6	F	Northern Region
7	F	Northern Region
8	M	Northern Region
9	F	Northern Region
10	M	Northern Region
11	F	Northern Region
12	M	Northern Region
13	M	Northern Region
14	F	LIPREC
15	F	LIPREC
16	F	LIPREC
17	M	LIPREC
18	F	LIPREC
19	F	LIPREC
20	M	LIPREC
21	F	LIPREC
22	M	LIPREC
23	M	LIPREC
24	M	LIPREC
25	F	Benin
26	M	Benin
27	F	Benin
28	F	Benin

29	F	Benin
30	M	Benin
31	M	Benin
32	M	Benin
33	M	Upper West Region
34	M	Northern Region
35	F	LIPREC
36	F	LIPREC

LIPREC: F= Female, M= Male, Livestock and Poultry Research Centre

Appendix II: DNA extraction protocols for animal tissue

QIAGEN DNeasy blood and Tissue protocol for isolation of genomic DNA from whole nucleated animal blood.

- (1) Add 10 µl of whole blood into a labeled 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube.
- (2) Add 200 µl of Avian Phosphate Buffered Solution (PBS) to each sample
- (3) Add 20 µl Proteinase K to each sample and mix by vortexing for 5-15 seconds.
- (4) Add 200 µl of Buffer AL and mix by vortexing for 5-15 seconds. Incubate the samples at 50 °C for 10 minutes.
- (5) Add 200 µl of cold 100% ethanol to each sample and mix by vortexing for 5-15 seconds.
- (6) Transfer the mixture from Step 5 into the labeled spin columns and centrifuge at 8000 x gravity for 1 minute. Discard the tubes containing the flow through.
- (7) Add 500 µl of Buffer AW1 to each spin column and centrifuge at 8000 x gravity for 1 minute. Discard the tube containing the flow through.
- (8) Add 500 µl of Buffer AW2 to each spin column and centrifuge at 14,000 x gravity for 3 minutes. Discard the tube containing the flow through.

- (9) Put each spin column in a labeled microcentrifuge tube and discard the tube containing the filtrate. Add 200 μl of Buffer AE to the spin column and incubate at room temperature for 1-5 minutes. Centrifuge at 8000 x gravity for 1 minute and discard the spin columns. Freeze the extracted DNA samples at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for future use. Avian blood produces the best quality DNA and only 1-3 μl of DNA are required per 15 μl PCR reaction.

QIAGEN DNeasy blood and Tissue protocol for isolation of genomic DNA from animal tissue (feathers)

- (1) Set heating block to $56\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.
- (2) Cut feather roots (from 2-3 feathers) and place in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube.
- (3) Add 180 μl of Buffer ATL.
- (4) Add 20 μl of Proteinase K and mix thoroughly by vortexing.
- (5) Incubate in a heating block at $56\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 minutes. Vortex occasionally during incubation to disperse the sample.
- (6) Add 180 μl of Buffer AL to the sample, vortex to mix thoroughly for 10 seconds.
- (7) Incubate at $70\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 10 minutes.
- (8) Add 200 μl of 96-100% ethanol, vortex thoroughly for 10 seconds, load to spin column by decantation or pipetting.
- (9) Centrifuge at 14,000 rpm for 1 minute and discard collection tube.
- (10) Add 500 μl of Wash buffer AW1, centrifuge at 8,000 rpm for 1 minute and discard collection tube.
- (11) Add 500 μl of Wash Buffer AW2, centrifuge at 14,000 rpm for 1 minute and discard collection tube.

- (12) Place in a clean 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube, add 50 μ l Buffer AE and incubate at 56 °C for 5 minutes.
- (13) Centrifuge at 8,000 rpm for 1 minute and store at 4 °C.

Appendix III: FASTA sequences of sites containing 31 polymorphic microsatellite

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TATGATATACACACACACACACACACAAAGAAATTGATTTGAATA
ATCCCTTCCCATGTGTCATTTGGAGTTAGCAGTTACAATGTCATTGGGTAT
ATAGAATTCATTTAAAGAATGCTTCATTTCTCCCTAAACTAGTTATCCTTCT
GTCAATACAGTAATTTGTGAGGGCAAAGAAGCATTTAATTGTCTACAGGG
AAGAATTTCTTTCTACAGAGTAACTGAAAAGGGCAGGAAAACGTGAATTTT
TATCAGCCAGGTCCATCAGCATTAGAGATTTGTTTTCTTACTGTACTCTC
CACTTAGTTTATTAATGACATTTTGTGTGATGGTTTAGCTAAGTTATTTTA
AAGCAGGCAACTTTTAACTTCTCTTCAAAGAGAAATCAAAAAGAATCTG
AATTTAAGAAATAATGATGGAGCTAATAGTACATATGCACATTAGAGAGA
GAGAGGAAGAGAGAGAGAC

>G4QAAT301BHEM5 length=178 xy=0491_0719 region=1
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CACACACACACACACAACAAAAGAAGTAAATGGTACATTATCTGCAT
GTCTAGTGTAATATTAGCCATCAAGATTGTTTTCTTAAGGGAAAGAAATTG
TTGTATGGAGAGTACCAGTGTGGGTAA

>G4QAAT301AQSGU length=517 xy=0188_0012 region=1
run=R_2011_06_22_21_07_31_

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GACCTTGAGAGCTTTCAATACAACCTTAAATGAAATTCAGCAATAGGAAGA
AAAAGAAGGAAGAAA

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CTTGAAAACACACATACACGTTCCCGGGTTTCGGCACCCTTGAAAG**CAC**
ACACACACACACACACACACAGACACACACACAATAGCAGCAAGAAAG
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TTGCCATCTAAAGCTTACTCCCTTAATGCTGATTGGATA

>**G4QAAT301BX99P** length=516 xy=0683_1771 region=1
run=R_2011_06_22_21_07_31_

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ACAGCCTACTAATAACCATAAGAAATTTTTAATAATTTTATTTTCAGAACT
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CGGACAAAAACG

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TCTCATTTTACCATGCATGTTCCAATCCACACAGCTATTTCTCTTAATCACG
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CGCTCACCCACGCCTGCACTGCCCATCTCCCTCCGCTCCGCAGTTTTCTT
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TATGTGCAGCAGTTAGGAAACATCTACTGTACCATATGTTAATTGGGATA
AAAACAAACACACACACACACAACACAGAGATAACTTGAAAAACAA
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CAAGGTCCTTCTAGATGGCATCCCTTCCCTTCAGTGTGTTGACCATACCAT
TCAACTTGGTGTGTCAGCAAACATGCTGAATGTGCCCCCAATCCCTTTA
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GATTCCAAGAAGTGTATCATTATATTATGAAAATAACTCCATAACACTAC
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>**G4QAAT301ABM8I** length=170 xy=0015_2000 region=1
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GGCATGTTGGCAGTCTTCT

>**G4QAAT301AJLUV** length=438 xy=0106_0725 region=1
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>**G4QAAT301BKHZS** length=418 xy=0526_1670 region=1
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ACAATTTAATGTTAAGCCCCTAGGAGATGTTTTTAAAGAACAAATTAAC
ATATTCTAGACAGATCTGT

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AAACAGAAGGTGAATGCTGTATGTGCTGGTGTGCTGGCAGCTGTGGAGCTGC
TGCTGCTGCTGCGTGGCTGCTGGTTCCCCTTCCTCTGGGCGCAGCTGGGA
GCTTTTGTGGCTTTGGTGCCTGCAGTGCGGGTGGCATTGTCCC GCCAGCC
GCCCGTCACCCTCCTGCAGCTTTTCCAGAGCCACGCTCGATGCCGGCCCTC
TGCCTGCTGCTGCTGTTCCAGGGTGAGGTGCACAGCTACAGCGACGTGCA
GGGG

>G4QAAT301AZUE4 length=501 xy=0291_0558 region=1
run=R_2011_06_22_21_07_31_

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TCAGACTGTGATGTTAATTGTTGGTTTTAAAGAGAAAAGATAAATGTTTG
CATCTGATGATGATGATGATGATGATAAAGACTGCTCGCAGGCTAATCA
TTCTTGGGGCTAGTAGGGGGGTATTAGTGAGTAGACTGCAGCATATTGGT
CCAAAGTACCTGAAACTGTCATTTATTTCTGGGTTCTGTGTACTACATCCA
CAACCATTTGACTGTCTGTACAATGTGCTAGAATTCTCAAGCCTAATGTT
TTAAAATCCCTTACTTCATCGCCACTAAAATCTCAGTTCAGTGCCACTAA
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ACA ACTTCCAGCTCTTCCTCCTGCCTGGTGGCCAGACAGTAACTGG

>G4QAAT301BZOWA length=468 xy=0699_1848 region=1
run=R_2011_06_22_21_07_31_

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ATTTCTTTGCATGGATTCTAGAATTATCCGGATCAAACAAGATATAGAGAT
TCAGAACTGTCATATTTCCATAAATACAGACTTACTTTTCATGATATTCAG
CTCTACCATGGGAGAAAATCATCTTGGCCCTATCCTCAAATAGTCTCCTTT
TGTTTTCATCTCCATGTGGACTTTGTCAAATTCTTATATATTCTCCTTGCCTTT
TCAGTGGCAGTAACAGAATACATACATACATACATACATACATAC
ATACATACATATATATGATTGTTTTGGTTTTTATTTAATTTTTTGTTTTAGTT
GGTCTAAACTAGGCAACAGAAGAGTATGAGAGCACTTCTTACAGGCTTTG
AATAATCAGAAGGCTGATGCATGTGAAGCAATGTTATGTGAAGTAGAAAC
TTAATTGGGT

Appendix IV: Genotypes of 38 polymorphic and monomorphic microsatellite loci using 32 unrelated guinea fowls

DNA Sample	GF12F	GF17F	GF16F	GF5F	GF19F	GF20F	GF2F	GF4F	GF13F	GF15F	GF37	GF50	GF69
1	104/104	214/214	172/172	166/166	147/147	110/116	192/196	213/213	116/116	164/172	2223/223	173/173	221/221
2	104/104	212/212	172/172	164/168	142/147	116/116	192/192	213/215	116/116	NA	223/227	NA	203/203
3	104/104	206/206	172/172	164/164	142/147	110/116	192/192	213/215	116/116	164/164	223/227	164/173	203/203
4	104/104	206/212	172/172	164/168	142/147	116/116	192/192	213/215	116/116	NA	227/227	173/173	203/203
5	104/110	206/212	172/172	164/168	142/142	108/116	192/192	213/213	126/126	164/164	223/223	173/173	209/234
6	110/110	206/212	172/172	164/166	NA	NA	NA	213/213	120/120	NA	223/227	169/173	203/203
7	102/104	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	110/110	192/192	213/213	120/124	164/164	223/227	166/173	212/220
8	102/104	206/206	172/172	164/166	142/142	108/116	192/192	213/213	126/136	164/164	223/223	173/173	204/221
9	102/110	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	108/108	192/196	213/213	116/124	164/164	223/223	173/173	214/220
10	94/110	206/212	172/172	166/166	142/147	108/110	192/192	213/213	136/152	164/164	NA	NA	NA
11	104/104	212/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	108/116	192/192	213/213	116/116	164/172	223/223	173/173	220/220
12	94/110	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	108/116	192/192	213/213	120/136	164/164	223/223	173/173	214/214

13	100/110	206/214	172/172	164/166	142/147	108/116	192/196	213/213	116/136	NA	223/225	173/173	203/203
14	104/106	212/212	172/172	166/168	142/147	116/116	192/192	213/213	124/136	164/164	223/227	167/173	NA
15	104/106	212/212	172/172	166/166	142/147	116/116	192/192	213/213	120/136	164/164	223/227	173/173	NA
16	104/106	206/214	172/172	164/166	142/147	116/116	192/192	213/213	120/124	NA	225/227	173/173	NA
17	104/106	212/212	169/172	164/168	142/142	108/116	192/192	213/213	124/136	164/164	223/223	167/167	216/216
18	102/106	212/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	108/116	192/196	213/213	120/124	NA	223/227	173/173	NA
19	102/106	212/212	172/172	166/166	142/147	116/116	192/192	213/213	120/124	164/164	223/227	173/173	216/216
20	102/106	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/147	108/116	192/196	213/213	120/136	164/164	223/227	173/173	203/221
21	106/106	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	108/116	192/196	213/213	116/124	164/164	223/227	173/173	203/221
22	104/106	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/147	108/116	192/196	213/213	116/136	NA	223/227	167/173	NA
23	106/106	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/147	108/116	192/196	213/213	120/124	164/164	223/227	173/173	NA
24	104/106	206/212	172/172	164/166	142/142	116/116	192/192	213/215	116/120	NA	223/223	166/166	203/203
25	94/104	206/212	169/169	166/168	142/147	108/116	192/192	213/215	116/116	164/164	225/227	164/173	221/221
26	100/104	212/212	169/169	164/166	142/147	108/116	192/192	213/213	136/136	NA	227/232	173/173	221/221
27	100/110	206/206	169/169	164/166	142/147	110/110	192/192	213/215	128/136	164/164	223/227	173/173	221/221
28	110/109	206/214	169/169	166/166	147/147	116/116	192/192	213/215	126/136	164/164	223/225	167/173	221/221

29	110/110	206/212	169/172	166/166	147/147	108/108	192/192	213/215	116/136	NA	225/227	173/173	NA
30	100/104	212/212	169/169	164/164	142/147	110/116	192/192	213/213	136/136	164/164	227/232	173/173	221/221
31	104/110	212/212	172/172	164/168	142/147	110/116	192/192	213/213	116/116	164/164	225/225	167/173	221/221
32	100/104	212/212	169/172	166/168	147/147	108/116	192/192	213/213	116/136	164/164	223/227	173/173	203/203

NA- no amplification

DNA Sample	GF179	GF191	GF74	GF75	GF76	GF198	GF199	GF21	GF26	GF30	GF32	GF34	GF114
1	209/235	241/241	234/236	232/232	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/225	151/151	120/120	NA
2	209/235	0	234/236	232/232	207/207	203/203	175/181	244/246	147/147	223/225	149/151	120/120	257/257
3	209/235	241/241	234/234	232/232	207/209	203/203	175/181	NA	NA	223/225	149/151	120/120	252/252
4	209/235	241/241	234/236	232/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	NA	NA	223/223	149/149	120/120	252/255
5	209/235	241/278	232/234	232/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	145/147	NA	151/151	120/120	252/255
6	209/235	241/278	232/232	232/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/244	147/147	223/225	149/151	120/120	257/257
7	209/235	241/278	232/232	NA	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/244	147/147	223/225	151/151	120/120	252/252
8	209/235	241/241	232/234	232/232	209/211	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/225	149/151	120/120	252/252

9	209/235	241/241	232/236	236/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	NA	145/147	223/225	149/151	120/120	
10	209/235	NA	NA	236/236	207/207	203/203	NA	NA	147/147	223/225	151/151	120/120	252/252
11	209/235	241/241	NA	232/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	NA	147/147	223/223	149/151	120/120	252/252
12	209/235	241/241	232/236	226/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/244	147/147	223/223	151/151	120/120	252/252
13	209/235	241/278	230/230	232/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/244	147/210	223/223	151/151	NA	NA
14	209/235	241/241	NA	236/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	NA	NA	223/223	151/151	120/120	NA
15	209/235	241/241	234/234	236/236	209/209	203/206	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	151/151	120/120	252/252
16	209/235	241/241	234/234	236/236	209/209	203/203	NA	242/242	147/147	223/223	151/151	120/120	252/252
17	209/235	241/241	234/236	236/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	149/151	120/120	252/252
18	209/235	241/241	234/234	226/232	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	151/151	NA	252/252
19	209/235	241/241	234/234	232/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/225	151/151	120/120	252/252
20	209/235	241/241	235/235	236/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/225	151/151	120/120	252/252
21	209/235	241/241	232/234	232/232	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	151/151	120/120	252/252
22	209/235	NA	234/234	236/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/225	NA	120/120	252/252
23	209/235	241/241	234/234	232/232	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	151/151	120/120	252/257
24	209/235	241/241	234/234	232/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	151/151	120/120	252/252

25	209/235	241/241	234/234	226/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	214/233	151/151	120/120	252/252
26	209/235	241/241	234/234	232/232	209/209	209/209	175/181	242/242	145/145	223/223	151/151	120/120	NA
27	209/235	241/241	NA	226/236	209/211	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/225	149/149	120/120	252/252
28	209/235	241/241	232/232	226/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	145/147	223/223	151/151	118/120	252/252
29	209/235	241/241	236/236	232/232	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	214/225	NA	120/120	252/252
30	209/235	241/241	234/234	236/236	209/209	209/209	175/181	242/242	145/145	223/223	151/163	120/120	252/252
31	209/235	241/241	234/234	236/236	209/209	203/209	175/181	242/242	147/147	213/223	151/151	120/120	252/252
32	209/235	241/241	234/234	236/236	209/209	203/203	175/181	242/242	147/147	223/223	149/151	120/120	252/252

NA- no amplification

DNA Sample	GF40	GF43	GF44	GF168	GF151	GF18F	GF8F	GF46	GF90	GF216	GF29	GF31
1	266/266	137/137	200/200	248/248	270/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
2	264/266	135/135	200/200	248/252	NA	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	NA	236/236	236/236
3	266/266	137/137	200/204	248/252	270/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	119/119	236/236	236/236
4	NA	135/137	200/200	248/248	270/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	119/119	236/236	236/236

5	266/266	135/135	200/200	248/252	286/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
6	266/266	135/135	200/204	248/252	270/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
7	266/266	137/137	200/200	NA	270/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	NA	236/236	236/236
8	264/264	135/137	200/204	NA	286/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
9	266/266	135/135	200/200	236/252	286/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	NA	236/236	236/236
10	264/266	NA	200/200	236/252	270/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	NA	236/236	236/236
11	266/266	137/137	200/200	248/252	270/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	NA	236/236	236/236
12	264/266	135/135	200/200	236/248	270/286	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
13	266/266	135/135	200/200	252/252	NA	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
14	266/266	135/137	200/200	252/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
15	266/266	135/135	200/200	236/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
16	264/266	NA	200/200	236/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
17	264/266	NA	200/200	236/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
18	266/266	NA	200/200	252/252	NA	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	NA	236/236	236/236
19	266/266	NA	200/200	252/252	NA	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
20	266/266	135/137	200/200	236/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236

21	266/266	137/137	200/200	236/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	NA
22	266/266	NA	NA	236/236	NA	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	NA
23	266/266	135/135	200/200	252/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	NA	236/236	236/236
24	266/266	137/137	200/200	236/236	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	NA
25	266/266	137/139	200/200	244/244	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
26	NA	135/135	NA	248/248	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
27	266/266	137/137	200/200	236/252	270/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
28	266/266	137/137	200/200	236/248	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	117/117	119/119	236/236	236/236
29	266/266	NA	200/200	248/248	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	119/119	236/236	236/236
30	264/266	135/137	200/200	248/248	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	119/119	236/236	236/236
31	266/266	137/137	200/200	248/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	119/119	236/236	236/236
32	266/266	137/139	200/200	252/252	261/270	166/166	248/248	132/132	NA	119/119	236/236	236/236

NA- no amplification

Appendix V: Allele information for 31 polymorphic loci**Allele frequencies for all alleles found in population**

Locus	Allele	Frequency
<i>GF12F</i>	94	0.047
	100	0.078
	102	0.094
	104	0.375
	106	0.203
	109	0.016
	110	0.188
<i>GF17F</i>	206	0.344
	212	0.578
	214	0.078
<i>GF16F</i>	169	0.203
	172	0.797
<i>GF5F</i>	164	0.391
	166	0.484
	168	0.125
<i>GF19F</i>	142	0.597
	147	0.403
<i>GF20F</i>	108	0.290
	109	0.016
	110	0.145
	116	0.548
<i>GF2F</i>	192	0.871
	196	0.129
<i>GF4F</i>	125	0.125
	213	0.875
<i>GF13F</i>	116	0.328
	120	0.172
	124	0.141
	126	0.063
	128	0.016
	136	0.266
	152	0.016
<i>GF15F</i>	164	0.955
	172	0.045

<i>GF37</i>	223	0.516
	225	0.113
	227	0.323
	228	0.016
	232	0.032
<i>GF50</i>	164	0.033
	166	0.050
	167	0.100
	169	0.017
	173	0.800
<i>GF69</i>	203	0.333
	204	0.021
	209	0.021
	212	0.208
	214	0.063
	216	0.083
	220	0.083
	221	0.167
	234	0.021
<i>GF179</i>	209	0.500
	235	0.500
<i>GF191</i>	241	0.931
	278	0.069
<i>GF74</i>	230	0.036
	232	0.196
	234	0.607
	235	0.036
	236	0.125
<i>GF75</i>	226	0.081
	232	0.403
	236	0.516
<i>GF76</i>	207	0.078
	209	0.891
	211	0.031
<i>GF198</i>	203	0.719
	206	0.016
	209	0.266
<i>GF199</i>	175	0.467
	181	0.533
<i>GF2</i>	242	0.885
	244	0.096

	246	0.019
<i>GF26</i>	145	0.138
	147	0.845
	210	0.017
<i>GF30</i>	214	0.054
	223	0.661
	225	0.232
	233	0.054
<i>GF32</i>	149	0.200
	151	0.783
	163	0.017
<i>GF34</i>	118	0.017
	120	0.983
<i>GF114</i>	252	0.857
	255	0.036
	257	0.107
<i>GF40</i>	264	0.133
	266	0.867
<i>GF43</i>	135	0.460
	137	0.500
	139	0.040
<i>GF44</i>	200	0.950
	204	0.050
<i>GF168</i>	236	0.233
	244	0.033
	248	0.300
	252	0.433
<i>GF151</i>	261	0.278
	270	0.537
	286	0.185

Summary of Chi-square test before Bonferonni correction

Locus	Chi-Square	Probability	Significance
<i>GF12F</i>	20.865	0.467	ns
<i>GF17F</i>	4.897	0.179	ns
<i>GF16F</i>	16.150	0.000	***

<i>GF5F</i>	5.077	0.166	ns
<i>GF19F</i>	0.603	0.437	ns
<i>GF20F</i>	6.088	0.413	ns
<i>GF2F</i>	0.680	0.409	ns
<i>GF4F</i>	0.653	0.419	ns
<i>GF13F</i>	29.761	0.097	ns
<i>GF15F</i>	0.050	0.823	ns
<i>GF37</i>	36.221	0.000	***
<i>GF50</i>	15.000	0.132	ns
<i>GF69</i>	123.777	0.000	***
<i>GF179</i>	32.000	0.000	***
<i>GF191</i>	0.159	0.690	ns
<i>GF74</i>	61.878	0.000	***
<i>GF75</i>	5.619	0.132	ns
<i>GF76</i>	19.670	0.000	***
<i>GF198</i>	0.480	0.923	ns
<i>GF199</i>	22.969	0.000	***
<i>GF21</i>	9.692	0.021	*
<i>GF26</i>	5.185	0.159	ns
<i>GF30</i>	8.845	0.182	ns
<i>GF32</i>	1.029	0.794	ns
<i>GF34</i>	0.009	0.926	ns
<i>GF35</i>	11.083	0.011	*
<i>GF40</i>	0.544	0.461	ns
<i>GF43</i>	9.446	0.024	*
<i>GF44</i>	0.083	0.773	ns
<i>GF168</i>	34.216	0.000	***
<i>GF151</i>	16.841	0.001	***

ns = not significant, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001

