# Nucleotide Variation and Selective Pressure in the Mitochondrial Genome of African Elephants

# Sery Gonedelé Bi<sup>1, 2</sup>, Didier P. Sokouri<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratoire de Génétique, UFR Biosciences, Université Félix Houphouët Boigny, Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, 22 BP 582 Abidjan 22

<sup>2</sup>Centre Suisse de Recherches Scientifiques en Côte d'Ivoire, 01 BP 1303 Abidjan 01

Abstract: Among the large mammals of Africa, elephants are probably the worst affected by human activities. Although they have been listed as endangered and protected since 1989, illegal poaching and habitat destruction continue to diminish and isolate remaining populations that are dispersed widely over 37 sub-Saharan African countries. Their populations currently exist in small isolated habitat, and this threatens elephant genetic diversity. Although literature is available on the taxonomy and phylogeny of African elephant, few studies have focused on codon usage on mitochondrial genomes. To analyze nucleotide diversity, selective pressure and demographic history of African elephants, we used the portion of mitochondrial sequences of 102 individuals available in the genome database. Our data indicated a low codon bias index (CBI) and a relatively high effective number of codons (ENC) value in the mitochondrial genome, suggesting that African elephants are less biased in their codon usage preference. The data also support a strong purifying selection in the mitochondrial genome of African presenting more sites under positive selection compared to L. cyclotis. The present work supports the idea that different evolutionary rate among nucleotide sites in L. africana and L. cyclotis, attributable to differences in the frequency of positive selection and probably different environmental conditions, are the driving forces for the codon usage bias in African elephants. Further studies are needed to investigate the contribution of different subpopulation in the genetic structure and diversity of African elephants.

Keywords: African elephant, Loxodonta africana, Loxodonta cyclotis, codon usage biais, selective pressure, mitochondrial DNA

## 1. Introduction

Africa is home to at least 400,000 elephants (Blanc *et al.*, 2003). They occur in a wide variety of habitat, from tropical swamp forests to deserts (Blanc *et al.*, 2007). A number of genetic studies have suggested that the previously recognized subspecies of African elephant, namely the savannah elephant *Loxodonta africana africana* and the forest elephant *Loxodonta africana cyclotis*, may, in fact, constitute two separate species, namely *Loxodonta africana* (Blumenbach 1797) and *Loxodonta cyclotis* (Matschie 1900) respectively (Comstock *et al.*, 2002; Roca and O'Brien, 2005). In addition, the existence of a third species, a West African elephant inhabiting both forests and savannah in that region, has also been postulated (Eggert *et al.*, 2002).

There is still no consensus in the scientific community as to the number of species of elephant currently extent in Africa (Debruyne *et al.*, 2003; Debruyne, 2005).

Among the large mammals of Africa, elephants are probably the worst affected by human activities. Although African elephants have been listed as endangered and protected since 1989, illegal poaching and habitat destruction continue to diminish and isolate remaining populations that are dispersed widely over 37 sub-Saharan African countries (Said *et al.*, 1995; Barnes *et al.*, 1999). Their populations currently exist in small isolated pockets of habitat, and this threatens elephant genetic diversity (Georgiadis *et al.*, 1994).

Because they live in matriarchal societies, the DNA (mtDNA) genealogies in both African (Roca *et al.*, 2005; Lei *et al.*, 2008) and Asian elephants (Vidya *et al.*, 2009) exhibit deeper divergence and/or different

phylogeographic patterns than the nuclear genome. Mitochondrial DNA has been the most widely used tool for reconstructing population and species histories. Its mutation rate is high on average and, additionally, appears variable between animal lineages, as indicated by evolutionary analyses (Martin and Palumbi, 1993; Rand, 1994; Mindell et al., 1996). Several studies have been conducted to determine the nucleotide differences between forest and savanna elephants used mitochondrial sequence (Brandt et al., 2012), nuclear sequences (Ishida et al., 2011) or microsatellite data (Roca et al., 2001). Although literature is available on the taxonomy and phylogeny of African elephant, few studies have focused study of codon usage on mitochondrial genomes. Finch et al. (2014) studied the adaptive evolution of the mitochondrial genome by combining phylogenetic and protein prediction methods to better understand the structural biology of the OXPHOS pathway in the African elephant.

Here we present data on the nucleotide diversity, selective pressure and demographic history of African elephants using the portion mitochondrial genome sequences of 102 individuals available in the genome database using codon usage analysis and mismatch distribution. Understanding the genetic diversity and affinities of this population, and determining the effects selective pressure, can contribute to scientifically sound conservation practices to ensure their long-term persistence.

# 2. Methods

#### 2.1 Sequence data collection

We extracted from National Center for Biotechnology Information/GenBank the African elephant mitochondrial sequences. Accession number of the sequences is available as a supplementary material (Annex A). The mitochondrial sequences of African forest elephant (*Loxodonta cyclotis*) and savanna elephant (*Loxodonta africana*) include NADH dehydrogenase subunit 5 (ND5) gene, partial cds; NADH dehydrogenase subunit 6 (ND6) gene, complete cds; tRNA-Glu gene, cytochrome b (CYTB) gene, tRNA-Thr and tRNA-Pro genes, and Dloop sequence. The final set included the 102 sequences originating from 12 African countries: Central African Republic, Zimbabwé, Republic of the Congo, Namibia, Gabon, Botswana, Botswana, South Africa, Tanzania, Kenya, Cameroon, Sierra Leone and Côte d'Ivoire.

The sequences were first aligned using the ClustalX program (Thompson *et al.*, 1997). All sites with deletions and insertions were then excluded in order to preserve the reading frames of the genes. The final alignment was 4257 bp long and is presented as supplementary information.

### 2.2 Nucleotide diversity

DnaSP v.5 software (Librado and Rozas, 2009) was used for quantifying genetic polymorphism by calculating the number of haplotypes (n), haplotype diversity (h), and nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ). Pairwise comparisons were performed to estimate interspecific divergence (Dxy; average number of nucleotide substitutions per site between species) and intraspecific nucleotide diversity (Pi) using DnaSP v.5 program.

#### 2.3 Codon usage analyses

The Relative Synonymous Codon Usage (RSCU) values were calculated for the dataset. The RSCU statistics is calculated by dividing the observed usage of a codon by that expected if all codons were used equally frequently. If RSCU value of a codon >1, that codon is frequently used than expected whereas RSCU value <1, means that the codon is less frequently used than expected. If RSCU equals 1, it means that the codon is used randomly and equally with other synonymous codons (Sharp *et al.*, 1986). If the RSCU value is <0.6, the codon is >1.6, the codon is over-represented (Gupta et *al.*, 2001). RSCU analysis was conducted using Mega 6 software (Tamura *et al.*, 2013).

Parameters related to codon usage bias, such as the codon bias index (Morton, 1993), the effective number of codons (Wright, 1990), and G + C content at second and third positions as well as overall were estimated for savannah elephant and forest elephant mitochondrial protein coding genes using DnaSP v.5 (Librado and Rozas, 2009). Furthermore, to determine whether the compositional changes of the nucleotide content in the mitochondrial protein-coding genes are caused by directional mutation pressure or a result of positive selection, we performed a correlation analysis. The correlation analysis of GC content at the second codon position (nonsynonymous mutations related, GC2) and GC content at third position (synonymous mutations related, GC3) with CG content of all protein codon genes (GCc) were implemented using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS, 2009).

#### 2.4 Demographic history and population expansion

To test for recent demographic expansion in each elephant species, Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989) and Fu's FS (Fu, 1997) were calculated in DnaSP v.5 (Librado and Rozas 2009) with 16,000 permutations. Negative results of these tests are indicative of a population that has undergone a recent expansion, as rare alleles are more common than expected. These metrics are expected to have significantly negative values if the populations are not in equilibrium between mutation and drift, e.g., because of demographic expansion. These negative values can arise under selective effects, but they can also be indicative of population expansion or bottlenecks (Tajima, 1993; 1996). To further demographic history, we analysed the investigate distribution of pairwise differences (mismatch distribution) for all sequences using the same program. Mismatch distribution analysis (Schneider and Excoffier, 1999) was also used to analyse if expansion occurred in the analysed populations. In addition, Harpendings reggedness index (Harpending, 1994) was calculated for any deviation from population expansion model. Mismatch distributions showing the pattern of nucleotide (or restriction) site differences between pairs of individuals in a sample (Rogers et al., 1996) were tested against a model of sudden population expansion with a bootstrap resampling procedure (Schneider and Excoffier, 1999). A population that is at equilibrium is expected to have a multimodal mismatch distribution, whereas populations that have experienced recent growth should have a unimodal mismatch distribution (Slatkin and Hudson, 1991: Rogers and Harpending, 1992).

### 2.5 Analysis of selective pressures

The Non-synonymous/synonymous substitution ratios ( $\omega$ = dN/dS, also called Ka/Ks) was used for quantifying the impact of natural selection on molecular evolution (Ohta, 1992). The ratio of the number of nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous sites (dN) to the number of synonymous substitutions per synonymous sites (dS) indicates the level of selection against nonsynonymous substitutions relative to synonymous ones. dN/dS distributions in pairwise comparisons between DNA sequences were calculated (Nei and Gojobori, 1986) using DnaSP. dN/dS > 1 indicates positive selection, dN/dS < 1negative (purifying) selection, and dN/dS = 1 neutrality. HyPhy software (Pond et al., 2005) was used to generate simulated data under a neutral model with trees generated from the original alignments. The same sequence alignments used as input in the initial analysis were used and one hundred simulated datasets were generated for each alignment. Each simulated dataset was then analyzed using the Dual Model. The minimum value of mean dS across all sliding windows of three adjacent codons, in all of the one hundred simulated datasets, was used as a conservative threshold to identify windows of reduced dS in the observed data. This stringent threshold and a less stringent one that included 95% of the values inferred

from the simulated data are shown in the sliding window plots.

# 3. Results

### 3.1. Patterns of nucleotide change and genetic diversity

The nucleotide composition of the mitochondrial sequences analysed was similar in *Loxodonta africana* and in *Loxodonta cyclotis*: T(U): 27.7%, C: 27.5%, A: 33.2%, G: 11.5% for *L. africana* and T(U): 27.8%, C: 27.6%, A: 33.5%, G: 11.2% for *L. cyclotis*.

We measured nucleotide diversity for each species using p (Nei and Li, 1979; Tajima, 1983), a standard estimator of the population mutation rate (Table 1). The nucleotide diversity observed in *L. cyclotis* (1.19%) is five time higher than the nucleotide diversity in *L. africana* (0.22%). Both the taxa presented similar haplotype diversity: 0.99 and 0.97, respectively for *L. africana* and *L. cyclotis*. The gene region having the highest  $\pi$  value was found between nucleotides 500 to 2,300 in *L. cyclotis* (Figure 1).

Table 1. Results of neutralit	v tests (Fu's FS	and Taiima's D) by	region and the total data set
Table 1. Results of neutrant	y icsis (1 u s 1 b i	and rajina s D) by	region and the total data set

Species	N	Haplotype	Haplotype diversity	Ρί (π)	D	Fu Fs	Raggedness index (p)
Loxodonta africana	68	40	0.987	0,0022	- 1.2150	-17.18	0.0346
Loxodonta cyclotis	27	17	0.972	0,0119	0.746	5.105	0.0203



**Figure 1:** Sliding window analyses of nucleotide diversity (π) along the portion of mitochondrial sequence of (a) *Loxodonta cyclotis* and (b) *Loxodonta africana*.

The red line shows the value of nucleotide diversity Pi ( $\pi$ ) in a sliding window analysis of window size 3 00 bp with step size 10, and the value is inserted at its mid-point.

### 3.2. Codon usage

Twenty seven codons occurred more frequently versus 31 that occurred less frequently (overall RSCU value of frequently and less frequently used codons, Supplementary Materials) than expected in Loxodonta africana. For L. cvclotis, 29 codons occurred more frequently versus 30 occurred less frequently. Of the codons that occurred more frequently 25 are shared by both the species (86% for L. africana vs 93% for L. cyclotis) (Figure 2). For the codons that occurred less frequently 26 are shared by both the species (84% for L. africana vs 87% for L. cyclotis) (Figure 3). No significant difference was found between the frequencies of the shared codons (t test p > 0.05) between the two species.







Figure 3: Less frequently used codons than expected (RSCU<1) for the portion of mitochondrial DNA of African elephant

The Codon Bias Index (CBI) is a measure of the deviation from the equal use of synonymous codons with values ranging from 0 (uniform use of synonymous codons) to 1 (maximum codon bias). CBI values were near low, respectively 0.227 and 0.238 for L. africana and L. cyclotis (Table 2). The Effective Number of Codons (ENC), which may range from 20 (only one codon is used for each amino acid; i.e., the codon bias is maximum) to 61 (all synonymous codons for each amino acid are equally used; i.e., no codon bias), were similar for the both species and approach 61: respectively 52.514 and 52.133 for L. africana and L. cyclotis. This indicated that the codon usage bias is not remarkable for mitochondrial sequence in these species. GC content at the second position (GC<sub>2</sub>) is similar for both the species 39.80%, GC content at third codon position (GCs3) is also similar in both the species 40%. For L. africana, there was a highly significant correlation between the GC3s and GCc (r = 0.436, P < 0.001). However, the correlation between GC2 and GCc was not significant (r = 0.191, P = 0.11). For L. cyclotis, the correlation between the GC3s and GCc was not significant (r = -0.036, P = 0.85). However, the correlation between GC2 and GCc was significant (r =0.191, P < 0.001). The correlation analyses indicate that the nucleotide bias affects synonymous sites in L. africana whereas nonsynonymous sites are affected in L. cyclotis.

The overall GC content range from 31.8% in tRNA-Thr to 41.2% in tRNA-Pro (Table 3). Within the 6 genes analysed, no significant difference were observed between *L. africana* and *L. cyclotis*.

 
 Table 2: Summary of codon usage index of portion of mitochondrial genome of African elephants

mitoenonariar genome of 7 mitean elephants						
Species	ENC	CBI	GC 2	GC 38	GC c	G+ C:
Loxodo nta africana	52,5 14	0,22 7	0,39 8	0,39 3	0,40 1	0,39 0

Loxodo nta cyclotis 52,1 33	0,23 8	0,39 8	0,40 3	0,39 8	0,38 8
--------------------------------------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------

 Table 3: Average GC content in the mitochondrial genome of African elephants

Gene	Size (bp)	GC content (%) Loxodonta africana	GC content (%) Loxodonta cyclotis
ND5	1798	38.4	38.0
ND6	527	38.3	37.5
tRNA- Glu	64	35.3	33.8
CYTB	1136	40.7	41.0
tRNA- Thr	65	33.3	31.8
tRNA- Pro	67	41.2	41.2
D-loop	589	39.6	39.2

#### 3.3 Demographic history and population expansion

Both standard tests of neutrality were negative and not significant for *Loxodonta africana* : Tajima's D = -1.22, p > 0.10; Fu's Fs = -17.18, p > 0.10; a result indicating demographic change. For *L. cyclotis*, the neutrality tests were positives, in contrary to *L. africana*; however, they were also not significant: Tajima's D = 0.746, p > 0.10; Fu's Fs = 5.105, p > 0.10.

Multimodal mismatch distribution graphs were observed for either the species (Figure 4), which indicates stable population or a population in equilibrium.

However, non significant raggedness index did not supported population stability for both the African savannah elephant (r = 0.035, p > 0.05) and African forest elephant populations (r = 0.020, p > 0.05) (Table 1).



**Figure 4:** Mismatch distribution analysis for African elephants. Graphs of the mismatch distributions of (a) *Loxodonta cyclotis*; (b) *Loxodonta Africana*. The X axis shows the observed distribution of pairwise nucleotide differences, and the Y axis shows the frequencies. The dotted lines with circles represent the observed frequency of pairwise differences, and the solid lines show the expected values under the sudden population expansion model.

#### 3.4 Analysis of selection pressure

The dN/dS ratio of the portion of mtDNA was less than 1 in both the species: 0.6 and 0.62, respectively for *Loxodonta africana* and *L. cyclotis*. A low dN/dS ratio indicates that, the sequences did not undergo adequate immune pressure to lead to changes in amino acids. The dN/dS ratio of *L. africana* showed no significant difference (P < 0.022) compared to *L. cyclotis*. The synonymous substitution rate was always significantly

higher (P = 0.001, Student's t) than the nonsynonymous substitution rate.

These results indicate that these mitochondrial genome regions analyzed are subject to very strong purifying selection. The location of the midpoints of the window showing negative selection is given in Figures 5 and 6. Very few sites were under positive selection, with more sites in *L. africana* (4%) (Figure 5) compared to *L. cyclotis* (1%) (Figure 6).



Figure 5: Sliding-window analysis of the cumulative dN/dS across Bayes factor for the event of positive selection at a site along the portion of mitochondrial DNA of *Loxodonta cyclotis* 



**Figure 6:** Sliding-window analysis of the cumulative dN/dS across Bayes factor for the event of positive selection at a site along the portion of mitochondrial DNA of *Loxodonta africana*.

#### 4. Discussion

The nucleotide diversity observed in Loxodonta cyclotis (1.19%) is five time higher than the nucleotide diversity in L. africana (0.22%). This adds further evidence supporting species level distinction for the two African groups (Comstock et al., 2002). Using microsatellite data, Comstock et al. (2002) found that genetic divergence distances computed between forest and savannah elephant populations are almost great as the difference between Asian and African genera (forest vs savannah Fst = 0.243microsatellite data, Comstock et al., 2002). This suggests forest elephant populations may be completely or almost completely isolated from gene flow from savanna elephant populations (Rohland et al., 2010). High genetic diversity between the two species may reflect the biogeographical history of the subspecies. However, regards the actual threat affecting African elephants, the loss of this diversity is ineluctable. With their small size, African elephant populations are genetically isolated and are at risk losing genetic variation (Blanc et al., 2003). Loss of genetic diversity can reduce the ability of populations to adapt to environmental change, as well as reducing reproductive fitness and disease resistance (Reed and Frankham, 2003). Therefore, the maintenance of genetic diversity of these populations should be a priority for their long-term conservation.

Our data indicated a low codon bias index (CBI) and a relatively high effective number of codons (ENC) value in African elephant's mitochondrial genome. The relatively high ENC value suggests that African elephants are less biased in their codon usage preference. The low G+C content and GC3s reveal that mutational pressure is the mild factor that contributes to the less biased synonymous codon usage pattern in African elephants.

The results suggested that compositional constraint was one of the major factors in shaping codon usage in the genomes. The correlation analyses indicate that the nucleotide bias affects synonymous sites in *L. africana* whereas nonsynonymous sites are affected in *L. cyclotis*.

In general, there are two traditional paradigms that account for the phenomenon of synonymous codon usage bias: mutational bias and translational selection (Duret, 2002). Shackelton et al. (2006) indicated that the genome of mammal tends to exhibit the pattern of synonymous codon usage that is shaped by mutational pressure. Geographic factors are also involved in determining some synonymous codon usage pattern (Liu et al., 2011). Previous studies have shown that variation in the evolutionary rate among nucleotide sites may be attributed to differences in the frequency of positive selection (Yang et al., 2000) or in the magnitude of selective constraints (Li, 1997; Rausher et al., 2008). For a number of different organisms, it was suggested that codon usage was best explained by selection for tRNA abundance, gene expression levels, and translational optimization (Duret, 2000). In other cases, the codon usage was explained by mutation rate, mutation preference (Powell and Moriyama, 1997), environmental conditions (Goodarzi et al., 2008), generation time (Subramanian, 2008), and recombination rates (Meunier and Duret, 2004).

Our results support the idea that different evolutionary rate among nucleotide sites in *Loxodonta africana* and *L. cyclotis*, attributable to differences in the frequency of positive selection and probably different environmental conditions are the driving forces for the codon usage bias in African elephants.

Our data indicates a multimodal mismatch distribution for both the savannah and forest elephant populations, supporting the hypothesis of stable population or a population in equilibrium.

With small migration rates between subpopulations, the mean of the mismatch distribution increases and thus the mismatch distribution can become multimodal (Hartl, 2004). Therefore, geographical subdivision might explain the mismatch distributions that were observed for the populations considered in this study. However, these results should be interpreted with caution given the limited reliability of these types of tests (Yang *et al.*, 2012).

The analyses indicate that the mitochondrial sequences of African elephants are subject to purifying selection overall and that the derived proteins are not subject to positive selection favoring diversity at the amino acid level but actually tend to be conserved evolutionarily. A similar result was first found during analysis of the mitochondrial genomes of humans, in primates (Zaho et al., 2012) chimpanzees, and gorillas (Hasegawa et al., 1998) and also reported in additional studies on fruit flies, humans and Atlantic cod (Ballard, 2000 ; Elson et al., 2004; Marshall et al., 2009). The role of purifying selection, necessary for maintaining mitochondrial gene functions, has been clarified in many papers based on in silico analysis, and also by in vivo experiments. Rand and Kann (Rand and Kann, 1996; Kann and Rand, 1998) used the neutrality index (Rand and Kann, 1996) to determine the influence of selection on protein coding genes in fruit fly and some mammalian species (Mus musculus, Homo sapiens). Indeed, it is well known that strong negative (purifying) selection plays a central role in the evolution of mitochondrial DNA to keep its important functions in energy metabolism (Stewart et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2011).

Our hyphy analysis indicates evidence for positive selection limited to only a few sites. Hence positive selection at these sites, are masked by the continuous negative selection that occurs on most sites in the mitochondrial sequence as indicated by several authors (Zhang *et al.*, 2005; da Fonseca *et al.*, 2008; Shen *et al.*, 2009).

# 5. Conclusion

Our study based on the analysis of partial mitochondrial DNA sequences from African savannah and a forest elephant indicates a higher nucleotide diversity in forest elephant (*Loxodonta cyclotis*) compared to savannah elephant (*Loxodonta Africana*).

A low codon bias index (CBI) and a relatively high ENC value were observed in the mitochondrial genome of both the species, suggesting that these mammals are less biased in their codon usage preference. The data also support a strong purifying selection in the mitochondrial genome of African elephants. However, few sites are under positive selection in the mitochondrial genome of African elephants, with *L. africana* presenting more sites under positive selection compared to *L. cyclotis*.

The present work supports the idea that different evolutionary rate among nucleotide sites in *Loxodonta africana* and *L. cyclotis* that are attributable to differences in the frequency of positive selection and probably different environmental conditions, are the driving forces for the codon usage bias in African elephants. Further studies should be performed to investigate the contribution of different subpopulation in the genetic structure and diversity of African elephants.

# References

- Blanc, J., Thouless, C.R., Dublin, H.T., Douglas-Hamilton, I., Craig, G.C. and Barnes, R.F.W. 2003. African Elephant Status Report 2002, IUCN/SSC African Elephant Specialist Group, IUCN, Gland Switzerland and Cambridge, U.K.
- [2] Blanc, J., Barnes W.R.F., Craig, G.C., Dublin, H.T., Thouless, C.R., Douglas-Hamilton I and Hart, J.A. 2007. African Elephant Status Report. IUCN/SSC African Elephant Specialist Group, IUCN, Gland Switzerland and Cambridge, U.K.
- [3] Comstock, K.E., Georgiadis, N., Pecon-Slattery, J., Roca, A.L., Ostrander, E.A., O'Brien, S.J. and Wasser, S.K. 2002. Patterns of molecular genetic variation among African elephant populations. Mol. Ecol., 11: 2489–2498.
- [4] Roca, A.L. and O'Brien, S.J. 2005. Genomic inferences from Afrotheria and the evolution of elephants. Current Opinion in Genetics and Development, 15: 652–659.
- [5] Eggert, L.S., Rasner, C.A. and Woodruff, D.S. 2002. The evolution and phylogeography of the African elephant inferred from mitochondrial DNA sequence and nuclear microsatellite loci," Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B, 269: 1993-2006.
- [6] Debruyne, R., Van Holt, A., Barriel, V. and Tassy, P. 2003. Status of the so-called African pygmy elephant (Loxodonta pumilio [NOACK 1906]): phylogeny of cytochrome b and mitochondrial control region sequences. C. R. Biol., 326: 687–697.
- [7] Debruyne, R. 2005. A case study of apparent conflict between molecular phylogenies: the interrelationships of African elephants. Cladistics, 21: 31–50.
- [8] Said, M.Y., Chunge, R.N., Craig, G.C., Thouless, C.R., Barnes, R.F.W. and Dublin, H.T. 1995. African Elephant Database 1995. Occasional Paper of the IUCN Species Survival Commission. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- [9] Barnes R.F.W., Craig, G.C., Dublin, H.T. *et al.* (1999) African Elephant Database 1998. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, pp. XX.
- [10] Georgiadis, N., Bischof, L., Templeton A. *et al.* (1994). Structure and history of African elephant populations. I. Eastern and southern Africa. *Journal* of Heredity 85: 100Đ104.
- [11] Roca, A.L., Georgiadis, N. and O'Brien, S.J. 2005. Cytonuclear genomic dissociation in African elephant species. Nat. Genet., 37: 96–100.
- [12] Lei, R., Brenneman, R.A. and Louis, E.E. 2008. Genetic diversity in the North American captive African elephant collection. Journal of Zoology, 275: 252–267.
- [13] Vidya, T.N., Sukumar, R. and Melnick, D.J. 2009. Range-wide mtDNAphylogeography yields insights into the origins of Asian elephants. Proceedings. Biological Sciences, 276, 893–902.
- [14] Martin, A.P. and Palumbi, S. 1993. Body size, metabolic-rate, generation time, and the molecular clock. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 90: 4087–4091.

## Volume 4 Issue 1, January 2015 www.ijsr.net

- [15] Rand, D.M. 1994. Thermal habit, metabolic-rate and the evolution of mitochondrial-DNA.Trends Ecol. Evol., 9: 125–131.
- [16] Mindell, D.P., Knight, A., Baer, C. and Huddleston, C. 1996. Slow rates of molecular evolution in birds and the metabolic rate and body temperature hypotheses. Mol. Biol. Evol., 13: 422–426.
- [17] Brandt, A. L., Ishida, Y., Georgiadis, N. J. and Roca, A. L. 2012. Forest elephant mitochondrial genomes reveal that elephantid diversification in Africa tracked climate transitions. Molecular Ecology, 21:1175– 1189.
- [18] Ishida, Y., Demeke, Y., De Groot, P.J.V., Georgiadis, N.J., Leggett, K.E.A., Fox, V.E. and Roca, A.L. 2011. Distinguishing forest and savanna African elephants using short nuclear DNA sequences. J Hered., 102:610–616.
- [19] Roca, A. L., Georgiadis, N., Pecon-Slattery, J. and O'Brien, S. J. 2001. Genetic evidence for two species of elephant in Africa. Science 293:1473–1477.
- [20] Finch, T.M., Zhao, N., Korkin, D., Frederick, K.H. and Eggert, L.S. 2014. Evidence of Positive Selection in Mitochondrial Complexes I and V of the African Elephant. PLoS ONE, 9(4): e92587.
- [21] Thompson, J.D., Gibson, T.J., Plewniak, F., Jeanmougin, F. and Higgins, D.G. 1997. The CLUSTAL\_X windows interface: flexible strategies for multiple sequence alignment aided by quality analysis tools. Nucleic Acids Res., 25: 4876–4882.
- [22] Librado, P. and Rozas, J. 2009. DnaSP v5: a software for comprehensive analysis of DNA polymorphism data. Bioinformatics, 25: 111451-1452.
- [23] Sharp, P.M., Tuohy, T.M. and Mosurski, K.R. 1986. Codon usage in yeast: Cluster analysis clearly differentiates highly and lowly expressed genes. Nucleic acids Res., 14: 5125-5143.
- [24] Gupta, S.K. and Ghosh, T.C. 2001. Gene expressivity is the main factor in dictating the codon usage variation among the genes in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Gene, 273: 63-70.
- [25] Tamura K, Stecher G, Peterson D, Filipski A, and Kumar S (2013) MEGA6: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis Version 6.0. Molecular Biology and Evolution, 30: 2725-2729.
- [26] Morton, B.R. 1993. Chloroplast DNA codon use: evidence for selection at the psb A locus based on tRNA availability. J Mol. Evol. 37:273–280.
- [27] Wright, F. 1990. The "effective number of codons" used in a gene. Gene, 87: 23–29.
- [28] SPSS. 2009. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows (Version 17.0). SPSS, Chicago.
- [29] Tajima, F. 1989. Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA polymorphism. Genetics, 123: 585–595.
- [30] Fu, Y.X. 1997. Tests of neutrality of mutations against population growth, hitchhiking and background selection. Genetics, 147: 915–925.
- [31] Tajima, F. 1993. Simple methods for testing molecular clock hypothesis. Genetics, 135: 599-607.
- [32] Tajima, F. 1996. The amount of DNA polymorphism maintained in a finite population when the neutral

mutation rate varies among sites. Genetics, 143: 1457-1465.

- [33] Schneider, S. and Excoffier, L. (1999). Estimation of past demographic parameters from the distribution of pairwise differences when the mutation rates vary among sites: application to human mitochondrial DNA. Genetics 152: 1079–1089.
- [34] Harpending, H.C. (1994). Signature of ancient population growth in a low resolution mitochondrial DNA mismatch distribution. Hum. Biol., 66: 591– 600.
- [35] Rogers, A.R., Fraley, A.E., Bamshad, M.J., Watkins, W.S. and Jorde, L.B. 1996. Mol. Biol. Evol., 13: 895– 902.
- [36] Slatkin, M. and Hudson, R.R. (1991). Pairwise comparisons of mitochondrial DNA sequences in stable and exponentially growing populations. Genetics 129: 555-562.
- [37] Rogers, A.R., Harpending, H. 1992. Populationgrowth makes waves in the distribution of pairwise genetic differences. Mol. Biol. Evol., 9: 552–569.
- [38] Ohta, T. 1992. The Nearly Neutral Theory of Molecular Evolution. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics, 23: 263-286.
- [39] Nei, M. and Gojobori, T. 1986. Simple methods for estimating the numbers of synonymous and nonsynonymous nucleotide substitutions. Mol. Biol. Evol., 3: 418-426.
- [40] Pond, S.L., Frost, S.D.W. and Muse, S. V. 2005. HyPhy: hypothesis testing using phylogenies. Bioinformatics, 21: 676–679.
- [41] Nei, M. and W.-H. Li. 1979. Mathematical models for studying genetic variation in terms of restriction endonucleases. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 76: 5269-5273.
- [42] Tajima, F. 1983. Evolutionary relationship of DNA sequences in finite populations. Genetics, 105: 437-460.
- [43] Rohland, N., Reich, D., Mallick, S., Meyer, M., Green, R.E., Georgiadis, N.J., Roca, A.L. and Hofreiter, M. 2010. Genomic DNA sequences from mastodon and woolly mammoth reveal deep speciation of forest and savanna elephants. PLoS Biol., 8: e1000564.
- [44] Blanc, J.J., Thouless, C.R., Hart, J.A., Dublin, H.T., Douglass-Hamilton, I., Craig, G.C. and Barns, R.F.W. 2003. African Elephant status report 2002. An update from the African Elephant database. IUCN/SSC African Elephant Specialist Group," IUCN, Gland & England.
- [45] Reed, D.H. and Frankham, R. 2003. Correlation between fitness and genetic diversity. Conserv. Biol., 17: 230–237.
- [46] Duret, L. 2002. Evolution of synonymous codon usage in metazoans. Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev., 6: 640-649.
- [47] Shackelton, L.A., Parrish, C.R., and Holmes, E.C. 2006. Evolutionary basis of codon usage and nucleotide composition bias in vertebrate DNA viruses. Journal of Molecular Evolution, 62: 551-563.
- [48] Liu, Y-S., Zhou, J-H., Chen, H-T., Ma, L-N., Pejsak, Z., Ding, Y-Z, and Zhang, J. 2011. The characteristics of the synonymous codon usage in enterovirus 71

virus and the effects of host on the virus in codon usage pattern. Infection Genetics and Evolution, 11: 1168-1173.

- [49] Yang, Z., Nielsen, R., Goldman, N. and Pedersen, A. M. 2000. Codon-substitution models for heterogeneous selection pressures at amino acid sites. Genetics, 155: 431–449.
- [50] Li, W.-H. 1997. Molecular evolution. Sinauer, Sunderland, MA.
- [51] Rausher, M.D., Lu, Y. and Meyer, K. 2008. Variation in constraint versus positive selection as an explanation for evolutionary rate variation among anthocyanin genes. J Mol. Evol., 67: 137-144.
- [52] Duret, L. 2000. tRNA gene number and codon usage in the C. elegans genome are co-adapted for optimal translation of highly expressed genes. Trends Genet., 16: 287–289.
- [53] Powell, J.R. and Moriyama, E.N. 1997. Evolution of codon usage bias in Drosophila. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 94: 7784–7790.
- [54] Goodarzi, H., Torabi, N., Najafabadi, H.S. and Archetti, M. 2008. Amino acid and codon usage profiles: adaptive changes in the frequency of amino acids and codons. Gene, 407(1-2): 30-41.
- [55] Subramanian S. 2008. Nearly neutrality and the evolution of codon usage bias in eukaryotic genomes. Genetics, 178: 2429-2432.
- [56] Meunier, J. and Duret, L. 2004. Recombination drives the evolution of GC content in the human genome. Mol. Biol. Evol., 21: 984-990.
- [57] Hartl, D. L. 2004. The origin of malaria: mixed messages from genetic diversity. Nature Reviews, 2 : 15-22.
- [58] Yang, F.S., Qin, A.L., Li, Y.F. and Wang, X.Q. 2012. Great genetic differentiation among populations of *Meconopsis integrifolia* and its implication for plant speciation in the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. PlosOne, 7: e37196.
- [59] Zhao, L., Zhang, X.T., Tao, X.K., Wang, W.W. and Li, M. 2012. Preliminary analysis of the mitochondrial genome evolutionary pattern in primates. Dongwuxue Yanjiu, 33: E47–E56.
- [60] Hasegawa, M., Cao, Y. and Yang, Z. 1998. Preponderance of slightly deleterious polymorphism in mitochondrial DNA: nonsynonymous/synonymous rate ratio is much higher within species than between species. Mol. Biol. Evol., 15: 1499-1505.
- [61] Ballard, J. W. O. 2000. Comparative genomics of mitochondrial DNA in Drosophila simulans. J. Mol. Evol., 51: 4-75.
- [62] Elson, J.L., Turnbull, D.M. and Howell, N. 2004. Comparative genomics and the evolution of human mitochondrial DNA: assessing the effects of selection. Am. J. Hum. Genet., 74: 229-238.
- [63] Marshall, H.D., Coulson, M.W. and Carr, S.M. 2009. Near neutrality, rate heterogeneity, and linkage govern mitochondrial genome evolution in Atlantic Cod (*Gadus morhua*) and other gadine fish. Mol. Biol. Evol., 26: 579-589.
- [64] Rand, D.M. and Kann, L.M. 1996. Excess amino acid polymorphism in mitochondrial DNA: contrasts among genes from Drosophila, mice, and humans. Mol. Biol. Evol., 13: 735–748.

- [65] Kann, L.M. and Rand, D.M. 1998. Mutation and selection at silent and replacement sites in the evolution of animal mitochondrial DNA. Genetica, 102/103: 393–407.
- [66] Stewart, J.B., Freyer, C., Elson, J.L. and Larsson, N.G. 2008. Strong purifying selection in transmission of mammalian mitochondrial DNA. PLoS Biol., Vol. 6: e10.
- [67] Shen, Y.Y., Liang, L., Zhu, Z.H., Zhou, W.P., Irwin D.M. and Zhang Y.-Pi. 2010. Adaptive evolution of energy metabolism genes and the origin of flight in bats. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A., 107: 8666-8671.
- [68] Sun, Y.B., Shen, Y.Y., Irwin, D.M. and Zhang, Y.P. 2011. Evaluating the roles of energetic functional constraints on teleost mitochondrial-encoded protein evolution. Mol. Biol. Evol., 28: 39-44.
- [69] Zhang, J., Nielsen, R. and Yang, Z. 2005. Evaluation of an improved branch-site likelihood method for detecting positive selection at the molecular level. Mol. Biol. Evol. Vol., 22: 2472-2479.
- [70] da Fonseca, R.R., Johnson, W.E., O'Brien, S.J., Ramos, M.J. and Antunes A. 2008. The adaptive evolution of the mammalian mitochondrial genome. BMC Genomics, 9: 119.
- [71] Shen, Y.Y., Shi, P., Sun, Y.B. and Zhang, Y.P. 2009. Relaxation of selective constraints on avian mitochondrial DNA following the degeneration of flight ability. Genome Res., 19:1760–1765.

Annex A: List of African elephants mitochondrial sequences used in the present study. Their region of isolation, size and GenBank accession numbers are indicated

Geographical origin	Source	Size (bp)	GenBank
Loxodonta cyclotis			
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438305
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438302
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438273
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438269
Zimbabwe: Hwange	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438373
Republic of the Congo:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438621
Namibia: Northern	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438588
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438510
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438266
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438265
Botswana: Chobe	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438244
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438308
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438301
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438267
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438264
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438261
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438263
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438260
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438512
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438268
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438262
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438513
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438503
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438502
Central African Republic:	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438310
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438507
Gabon: Lope	Ishida et al.,	4,258	JQ438504
Loxodonta africana			
South Africa: Kruger	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438464

Geographical origin	Source	Size (bp)	GenBank
South Africa: Kruger	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438451
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438135
Botswana: Savuti	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438629
			JQ438719
Tanzania: Tarangire	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438686
Tanzania: Tarangire	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438685
Zimbabwe: Sengwa	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438677
Tanzania : Serengeti	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438664
Tanzania: Ngorongoro	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438613
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438575
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438573
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438564
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438562
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438554
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438551
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438550
Namibia: Northern	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438547
Botswana: Mashatu	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438533
Bolswana: Mashalu	Isnida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438532
South Africa: Kruger	Isliida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438407
South Africa: Kruger	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438400
South Africa: Kruger	Ishida et al	4257	10438/62
Kenva: Central	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438402 IQ438402
Zimbabwe <sup>.</sup> Hwange	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438402 JQ438341
Botswana: Chobe	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438341 JQ438221
Botswana: Chobe	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	IO438220
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida <i>et al</i> .,	4257	IO438172
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i>	42.57	JO438577
Zimbabwe: Zambezi	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JO438758
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JO438594
Namibia: Northern	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438545
Namibia: Northern	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438544
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438126
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438125
Zimbabwe: Zambezi	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438767
Zimbabwe: Sengwa	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438681
Zimbabwe: Sengwa	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438676
Kenya: Central	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438391
Botswana: Chobe	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438245
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438142
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438140
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438138
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438137
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438136
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438129
Kenya: Central	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438406
Cameroon: Benoue	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ438211
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida <i>et al.</i> ,	4257	JQ4381/4
Kenya, Central	Isliua et al.,	4237	JQ438443
Kenya: Control	Islinda et al.,	4237	JQ438410 IO428407
Kenya: Central	Isliua et al.,	4237	JQ438407 IQ428202
Kenya: Central	Ishida <i>et al</i>	4257	10/38388
Kenya: Amboseli	Isliida et al.,	4257	JQ438388 IQ438152
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al	4257	IQ438120
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al	4257	IO438110
Kenya: Central	Ishida et al	4257	JO438411
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida et al	4257	JO438155
Kenya: Amboseli	Ishida et al	42.57	JO438151
Cameroon: Waza	Ishida et al	4257	JO438734
Cameroon: Waza	Ishida <i>et al</i>	4257	JQ438730
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al	4257	JQ438134
Kenya: Aberdares	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438131
Democratic Republic of	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438322
Cameroon: Waza	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438742

Geographical origin	Source	Size (bp)	GenBank
Cameroon: Waza	Ishida et al.,	4257	JQ438737
Unknown	Murata et al.,	16945	AB443879
Unknown	Hauf et al.,	16866	AJ224821
Unknown	Rogoev et al.,	16913	DQ316069
Sierra Leone	Brandt et al.,	16109	JN673264
Cote d'Ivoire: Tai NP	Finch et al.,	16030	KJ557424
Central African Republic:	Brandt et al.,	161028	JN673263