

© Springer-Verlag New York Inc. 1997

Phylogenetic Position of Mammoth and Steller's Sea Cow Within Tethytheria Demonstrated by Mitochondrial DNA Sequences

Tomowo Ozawa,1 Seiji Hayashi,1 Victor M. Mikhelson2

¹ Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Graduate School of Science, Nagoya University, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya 464-01, Japan

² Cytological Institute, Russian Academy of Science, Tikhoretski 4, St. Petersburg, Russia

Received: 8 August 1996 / Accepted: 30 September 1996

Abstract. Here we report DNA sequences from mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene segments (1,005 base pairs per species) for the extinct woolly mammoth *(Mammuthus primigenius)* and Steller's sea cow *(Hydrodamalis gigas)* and the extant Asian elephant *(Elephas maximus),* the Western Indian manatee *(Trichechus manatus),* and the hyrax *(Procavia capensis).* These molecular data have allowed us to construct the phylogeny for the Tethytheria. Our molecular data resolve the trichotomy between the two species of living elephants and the mammoth and confirm that the mammoth was more closely related to the Asian elephant than to the African elephant. Our data also suggest that the sea cow–dugong divergence was likely as ancient as the dugong–manatee split, and it appears to have been much earlier (22 million years ago) than had been previously estimated (4–8 million years ago) by immunological comparison.

Key words: Cytochrome *b* — Ancient DNA — *Mammuthus primigenius* — *Hydrodamalis gigas* — Proboscidea — Sirenia — Tethytheria — Molecular phylogeny

Introduction

The mammalian orders Proboscidea and Sirenia were confined to Africa in their early history. Because of this

geographic association and the possession of common morphological characters, the proboscideans and sirenians are believed to have shared a common ancestry. Simpson (1945) classified African ungulates including the Proboscidea, Sirenia, Hyracoidea, and some extinct orders in the superorder Paenungulata. McKenna (1975) grouped the Proboscidea, Sirenia, and an extinct order, Desmostylia, in the mirorder Tethytheria, an ungulate group that originated in the coastal areas of the Tethyan Sea in the Paleogene period.

The validity of these supraordinal classifications has been substantiated by subsequent morphologic (Novacek 1992; Prothero et al. 1988; Prothero 1993) and molecular studies (Czelusniak et al. 1990; De Jong et al. 1993; Irwin et al. 1991; Irwin and Wilson 1993; Mckenna 1987; Springer and Kirsch 1993). Immunological approaches have been undertaken by Lowenstein et al. (1981), Lowenstein and Scheuenstuhl (1991), and Shoshani et al. (1985) to clarify the phylogenetic relationships among extinct and extant members of the Tethytheria. In these studies immunologically reactive protein substances were extracted from the soft tissues of the extinct woolly mammoth *(Mammuthus primigenius)* and also from bones of Steller's sea cow *(Hydrodamalis gigas)* and the American mastodon *(Mammut americanum).* Immunological comparisons among the members of the Tethytheria established that the mammoth is immunologically equidistant from the African *(Loxodonta africana)* and the Asian elephants, and that, within the sirenians, the closest resemblance occurs between Steller's sea cow and the living dugong *(Dugong dugon).* These molecular results seem to reject the dental morphology-

Correspondence to: T. Ozawa; e-mail: h44857a@nucc.cc.nagoyau.ac.jp

based phylogenetic hypothesis (Aguirre 1969; Maglio 1973) that the mammoth is closely related to the Asian elephant. Prediction of time of divergence of evolutionary lineages based on the immunological comparisons was also inconsistent with the paleontological inference. The paleontological estimates (Domning 1994) had put the sea cow–dugong divergence not later than late Oligocene $(>=25$ million years ago), whereas the immunological data suggest that divergence occurred only 4–8 million years ago. Further, the paleontological estimate for the dugong–manatee split was put at 30–40 million years ago, while the immunological data points to a common ancestor that lived only 17–20 million years ago.

In this study we determined DNA sequences from mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene segments (1,005 base pairs, bp) for two extinct animals, the woolly mammoth *(Mammuthus primigenius)* and Steller's sea cow *(Hydrodamalis gigas),* and three extant species, the Asian elephant *(Elephas maximus)* and the West Indian manatee *(Trichechus manatus)* and the hyrax *(Procavia capensis).*

Here we present the first analysis of phylogenetic relationships among the extant and some extinct members of the Tethytheria based on mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene sequence data obtained by us and previous authors (Irwin et al. 1991; Irwin and Arnason 1994).

Materials and Methods

DNA Isolation. Total DNA was extracted from muscle tissue of the 40,000-year-old baby Magadan mammoth known as Dima generally following the method of Pääbo et al. (1988). One gram of tissue was minced with forceps in 8 ml of TEN buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0/2 mM EDTA/10 mM NaCl). Following this, 4 mg of collagenase (Sigma) was added and incubated at 37°C for 3 h with gentle agitation. Tissue was then lysed by adding 440 μ l of 20% SDS, 80 mg DTT, and 4 mg of proteinase K at 37°C for 12 h with gentle rotating followed by two extractions with phenol chloroform and one extraction with chloroform.

Steller's sea cow DNA was obtained from a scapula collected on Bering Island, Kamschatka. Extraction followed the method of Hagelberg and Clegg (1991). The surface of the scapula bone was removed using a hand grinder to avoid contamination by extraneous DNA. Two grams of cleaned bone were powdered in an iron mortar and decalcified by suspending in 40 ml of 0.5 M EDTA incubated at room temperature with agitation for 72 h with two fresh exchanges of EDTA. Decalcified bone powder was then subjected to lysis by incubating 37°C 12 h in 20 ml of 0.5 M EDTA/100 μ g ml⁻¹ proteinase K/0.5% N-lauroylsarcosine with gentle rotation followed by two extractions with phenol/ chloroform and one extraction with chloroform.

Purification and Amplification. DNA solutions were concentrated using an Amicon-B15 concentrator (Amicon) to <1 ml followed by washing three times with 2 ml of deionized water using a Centricon 30 microconcentrator (Amicon) and finally preserved in 100 μ l TE for use as a template. One microliter of purified total DNA was subjected to 30 or 40 cycles of PCR reactions, which were performed in 25 μ l of reaction volume containing 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 200 μ M dNTPs, 0.2 μ M each primer, 0.5 mg/ml BSA (Sigma), 0.5% Nonidet p-40 (Sigma), and 2 units of *Taq* polymerase

(Takara). Each cycle consisted of (94°C) 45 s for denaturation, (48– 50°C) 90 s for annealing, and (72°C) 120 s for extension. After the last cycles, samples were incubated for 3 min at 72°C. As a result of several trials, we succeeded in the amplification of five fragments, about 150 to 400 base pairs in length, covering 1,005 base pairs of partial mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene as summarized below. No amplification was detected in extraction and PCR blank.

- *fragment 1:* L14724 5'-CGAAGCTTGATATGAAAAACCATC-GTTG-3' (Irwin et al. 1991) H15149 5'-AAACTGCAGCCCCT-CAGAATGATATTTGTCCTCA-3' (Kocher et al. 1989)
- *fragment 2:* L15144 5'-ATAGCCACAGC(C/A)TTCATAGG(A/ $C)TA(C/T)GTCCT-3'$ H15347 5'-GGGTT(A/G)TT(G/ T)GATCCTGTTTCGTG-3'
- *fragment 3:* L15306 5'-CGATTCTTCGC(C/T)TTCCACTT(C/ T)ATCCT(A/T/C)CCATT-3' H15494 5'-TAGTTGTC(A/ T)GGGTCTCC(G/T)A(A/G)-3'
- *fragment 4: L15408 5'-A(C/T)AGA(C/T)AAAAT(C/T)CC(A/* $C)TT(C/T)CA-3'$ H15603 5'-GCTAG(G/T)AC(G/ T)CCTCCTAGTTT-3'
- *fragment 5:* L15513 5'-CTAGGAGACCC(A/T/C)GA(C/T)AA(C/ T)TA-3' H15755 5'-TCTACTGG(C/T)TG(G/T)CC(T/G/C)CC(A/ G)ATTCATGT-3'

L and H refer to the sequence of light and heavy strands, respectively, and the numbers correspond to the $3'$ end positions of the primers in the numbering system for human mitochondrial DNA (Anderson et al. 1981). In this numbering system the 1,005-bp sequence corresponds to the sequence from 14,747 to 15,751.

The DNA fragments were purified on a 2% Nusieve agarose gel and then subjected to asymmetric PCR (Gyllenstein and Erlich 1988) or subcloned into plasmid pUC118 after terminal polishment by klenow fragment (Frohman 1994). Direct sequencing was performed using Sequenase ver. 2.0 Kit (US Biochemical). Sequencing for plasmid clone was done by *Bca*best dideoxy sequencing Kit (Pharmacia) with A. L. F. DNA sequencer. The sequences of cloned PCR products were determined from the consensus of more than three clones. Most of the cloned molecules examined had an identical sequence. However, 10– 20% of the clones exhibited sequence variation with one random mutation per 100–150 base pairs.

Extant Species. Total DNA was extracted from blood of the Asian elephant and the West Indian manatee following standard procedure. The 1,005-bp partial cytochrome *b* gene sequences were determined by direct sequencing with primer pairs cited above and H15915R: 5'-GGAATTCATCTCTCCGGTTTACAAGAC-3' (Irwin et al. 1991).

Phylogenetic Analyses. DNA sequences were initially aligned using the ESEE program package (Cabot 1987). Neighbor-joining (Saitou and Nei 1987) and maximum parsimony analyses were performed with the PHYLIP program package (Felsenstein 1993). Distance matrices for neighbor-joining trees were estimated by DNADIST with the Kimura two-parameter option (10.0 transition/transversion ratio) and PROTDIST with the Dayhoff matrix option. The neighbor-joining tree and the maximum parsimony tree were generated by NEIGHBOR and PROTPARS, respectively. Bootstrap treatment was performed by SE-QBOOT (1,000 replicates) and CONSENSE. Formerly published sequences used in the analyses (five sequences for outgroups and two sequences for ingroups) were derived from DDBJ, EMBL, and Gen-Bank databases as follows: African elephant *(Loxodonta africana)* (Irwin et al. 1991, X56285), dugong *(Dugong dugon)* (Irwin and Arnason 1994, U07564), fallow deer *(Dama dama)* (Irwin et al. 1991, X56280), pronghorn antelope *(Antilocapra americana californica)* (Irwin et al. 1991, X56286), Grévy's zebra *(Equus grevyi)* (Irwin et al. 1991, X56282), black rhinoceros *(Diceros bicornis)* (Irwin et al. 1991, X56283), and South American opossum *(Monodelphis domestica)* (Ma et al. 1993, X70673).

Result and Discussion

Sequence Similarity

Figure 1 summarizes the alignment of 1,005-bp cytochrome *b* gene sequences of living and recently extinct paenungulates. Newly determined sequences have been deposited in DDBJ, EMBL, and GenBank under accession numbers D83047–D83050 and D86909. The matrix (Table 1) shows sequence differences and genetic distances among 1,005-bp cytochrome *b* gene sequences for the paenungulates. Pairwise sequence differences within the Elephantidae were 9.3% between the African and Asian elephants, 8.4% between the African elephant and the woolly mammoth, and 6.5% between the Asian elephant and the woolly mammoth. As to sirenians, the differences were 14.0% between the dugong and the West Indian manatee, 15.2% between the Steller's sea cow and the West Indian manatee, and 15.0% between the Steller's sea cow and the dugong. Proboscideans differed from sirenians by 24.2% on average. The hyrax was different from sirenians by 21.2% and from proboscideans by 24.2%, on average.

Molecular Phylogenetic Trees

Molecular phylogenetic trees for the seven paenungulates were constructed by the neighbor-joining (Saitou and Nei 1987) and maximum parsimony methods based on three types of data sets—namely, DNA sequences of $1 + 2$ codon positions (670 bp) and inferred amino acid sequences (335 residues) with five mammals as outgroups (Fig.2).

The seven paenungulates were grouped together with bootstrap probabilities ranging from 92% in the maximum parsimony tree based on $1+2$ codon positions to 95% in the neighbor-joining tree based on $1+2$ codon positions in our cytochrome *b* DNA trees. The paenungulate clade was supported with higher bootstrap values in the amino acid trees; 98% in the neighbor-joining tree and 90% in the maximum parsimony trees. There is considerable disagreement about the phylogenetic position of the Hyracoidea. Some workers regard the Hyracoidea as a sister group to Tethytheria based on shared character of carpal elements and reduction of some basicranial bones (Novacek et al. 1988). Others pointed out the close relationship between Hyracoidea and some perissodactyls based on their expanded eustachian sac in the middle ear region (Prothero et al. 1988). The present molecular study strongly supports the hypothesis that Hyracoidea is more closely related to tethyteres than to perissodactyls. This conclusion is similar to that of earlier molecular

studies (De Jong et al. 1981; Lowenstein and Scheuenstuhl 1991; Springer and Kirsch 1993). High bootstrap probabilities strongly support the monophyly of the proboscideans (100% in all trees) and the sirenians (94– 100%). However, in our cytochrome *b* tree, the relationship among Proboscidea, Sirenia, and Hyracoidea was not clear. Some trees (NJ trees based on $1+2$ codon positions and amino acids) showed a Proboscidea + Sirenia clade. The mitochondrial 12S ribosomal RNA gene tree of Springer and Kirsch (1993) also hypothesized a Proboscidea + Sirenia clade with a high bootstrap value.

The MP tree based on $1+2$ codon positions showed a Proboscidea + Hyracoidea clade—a relationship also shown by IRBP gene sequences (Stanhope et al. 1996) while the amino acid MP tree favored a Sirenia + Hyracoidea clade—a relationship also proposed in the α -crystallin tree of De Jong et al. (1981) and in the von Willebrand Factor tree of Porter et al. (1996). With respect to the phylogeny of the Elephantidae including the four genera *Palaeoloxodonta, Loxodonta, Mammuthus, and Elephas,* the morphological approach has suffered from low resolving power due to the paucity of putative synapomorphs and their mosaic distribution. These conditions often yield a polychotomous conclusion or a different view among researchers due to different methods of character evaluation (Aguirre 1969; Maglio 1973; Tassy 1994). The immunological study of Lowenstein et al. (Lowenstein et al. 1981; Lowenstein and Scheuenstuhl 1991) also resulted in a trichotomous conclusion. Recent molecular studies (Hagelberg et al. 1995; Hauf et al. 1995; Höss et al. 1994; Yang et al. 1996) based on amplified mitochondrial DNA sequences of the woolly mammoth (less than 300 base pairs) were also unable to resolve clearly which two of the Elephantid species, including the two living elephants and the woolly mammoth, share the closest kinship.

In our cytochrome *b* DNA tree (Fig.2), the Asian elephant and the mammoth are grouped together, irrespective of the tree-making method and data set used with bootstrap probabilities of 72% in the maximum parsimony and the neighbor-joining tree based on $1+2$ codon positions. In the amino acid trees, bootstrap values increased to 90% in the neighbor-joining tree and 91% in the maximum parsimony tree. This result supports a mode of dichotomous separation within the Elephantidae, with the closest relationship between the Asian elephant and the mammoth excluding the African elephant. The emergence of *Loxodonta* species in geologic time is a few million years earlier than that of the species of *Elephas* and *Mammuthus* (Tassy 1986). Thus our molecular evidence is also concordant with fossil records.

Modern sirenians are divided into the Trichechidae *(Trichechus)* and the Dugongidae *(Dugong and Hydrodamalis)* based primarily on morphological characters of the rostrum, cheek teeth, pectoral limb, and tail fluke. In our phylogenetic analyses based on the mito-

Fig. 1. Alignment of 1,005-bp cytochrome *b* gene sequences of seven paenungulates. A *dot* (.) denotes that the nucleotide at that position is identical to that of Asian elephant. A *dash* (-) represents a gap.

Fig. 1 Continued.

chondrial cytochrome *b* sequence data, the relationships among the three sirenian lineages are not well resolved due to the trichotomous relationship. The *Dugong* + *Hydrodamalis* grouping (Dugongidae) occurred in the neighbor-joining tree based on amino acids and the maximum parsimony tree based on amino acids. In two trees the bootstrap value were rather low, 69 and 61% respectively. In other trees, alternative topologies appeared. Such an old divergence within the Sirenia was not shown in the immunological work of Lowenstein and Scheuenstuhl (1991). In this study, divergence between the Trichechidae and the Dugongidae was three times as much as the divergence between *Dugong* and *Hydrodamalis.* The conflicting topology of the molecular-based

410

Table 1. Sequence differences and genetic distances among 1,005-bp cytochrome *b* gene sequences for seven paenungulates^a

				4		6	
1. Asian elephant		58/7	74/19	136/101	152/97	138/104	124/117
2. Mammoth	0.069		62/22	137/102	141/98	134/105	119/118
3. African elephant	0.102	0.092		134/106	149/102	139/113	126/124
4. Dugong	0.346	0.350	0.355		127/24	110/31	99/110
5. Steller's sea cow	0.367	0.348	0.375	0.177		120/33	121/104
6. Manatee	0.358	0.352	0.385	0.165	0.182		98/107
7. Hyrax	0.364	0.356	0.388	0.297	0.324	0.288	

^a Number of transitions and transversions (above the diagonal) and Kimura's two-parameter distances with a transition/transversion ratio of 10.0 (below the diagonal)

A. NJ, 1+2 codon positions

90

B. NJ, Amino acids

African elephant

Steller's sea cow

Dugong

Manatee

 \overline{Hv} rax

Fig. 2. Two neighbor-joining trees (**A** and **B**) and a maximum parsimony tree (**C**) of seven paenungulates using five mammalian species as outgroups. They were constructed based on data from first and second codon positions **(A)** and deduced amino acid sequences (**B** and **C**) of 1,005 bp from the cytochrome *b* gene. The neighbor-joining trees are depicted inclusive of all outgroups; as to the maximum parsimony tree, outgroups are excluded. The *numbers above or below the nodes* in the trees are bootstrap probabilities (%) based on 1,000 resamplings. The *scale bar* represents tree length (substitutions per site) for the neighbor-joining trees.

phylogenetic trees implies that the previously recognized first (between Trichechidae and Dugongidae) and second divergences (between *Dugong* and *Hydrodamalis*) of modern sirenians occurred closely together in time. Historically, it had been believed that the trichechid and dugongid lineages diverged in Oligocene time and that the hydrodamaline–dugongine divergence occurred in the early Miocene, based on the first appearance of *Metaxytherium* (Domning 1994). In a recent cla-

96

distic analysis based on cranial and dental characters, Domning (1994) provided a new hypothesis of sirenian evolutionary history. In his cladogram, Eocene sirenians were placed as outgroups to modern sirenians and their direct ancestors. This analysis further showed the proximity of two branching points (Trichechidae– Dugongidae and *Dugong*–*Hydrodamalis*) in time and offered a good explanation for the trichotomous relationship of sirenians.

Fig. 3. Transversional divergence (%) between artiodactyls (+), proboscideans (\blacksquare) , and sirenians (\blacktriangle) is plotted against divergence time. All artiodactyls and African elephant data are from Irwin et al. (1991). The used divergence times are as in Table 2.

Evolutionary Rates and Divergence Times

Figure 3 shows the relationship between transversional divergence corrected by Kimura's two-parameter method (Kimura 1980) and divergence time estimated from the fossil records with respect to artiodactyls, proboscideans, and sirenians. Transversional change is expected to be proportional to time as suggested in early studies although it varies among lineages. Table 2 shows transversional divergence rates in the three groups. The rate in the artiodactyls ranges from 0.15% to 0.20% per million years. This contrasts with a rather higher divergence rate of 0.30% per million years in the elephant clade (*Loxodonta* vs *Elephas/Mammuthus*) as suggested in Irwin et al. (1991). A much lower divergence rate of 0.11% per million years was observed in the sirenian clade (*Trichechus* vs *Dugong/Hydrodamalis*). These are comparable to the highest and lowest rates observed in artiodactyls, respectively.

Assuming that transversional substitution rate has been clock-like within the sirenian lineage, the *Dugong*– *Hydrodamalis* divergence can be dated as 22 million years ago, taking 30 million years ago as a reference date for the trichechid–dugongid divergence. The *Mammuthus–Elephas* split can be dated as 4 million years ago using 7 million years ago for the first appearance of *Loxodonta* species as a reference date (calculated using total divergence excluding the contribution of transition at third codon positions, because transversion clock analyses tend to underestimate divergence times within more recent dates). These estimated dates are essentially concordant with fossil records.

In the future, additional sequences will be needed for a more robust molecular tree of Tethytheria. Sequence data from two other species of manatees will provide new information for the evaluation of the sirenian divergence rate.

Acknowledgments. We thank Dr. Howard T. Jacobs, Department of Genetics, University of Glasgow, U.K., and Dr. Thomas A. Deméré of the San Diego Natural History Museum, U.S.A., for help with manuscript; the Zoological Institute, Russian Academy of Science, Tokyo

Table 2. Transversional (TV) divergence rate of artiodactyl, proboscidean, and sirenian lineages

Compared groups	TV divergence ^a $(\%)$	Divergence time ^b (Myr)	Rate $(\% / Mvr)$
Goat vs sheep	1.4		0.20
Cow vs goat/sheep	3.9	20	0.20
Bovidae vs giraffe/deer	4.3	25	0.17
Ruminantia vs suiidae	9.1	60	0.15
Proboscideans ^c	2.1	7	0.30
Sirenians ^d	3.3	30	0.11

^a Averages of possible pairwise transversional divergence between representative species of each compared groups. Species used in each category for rate analyses are as follows, Bovidae (cow, goat, sheep), deers (fallow deer and black-tailed deer), Ruminantia (cow, sheep, goat, pronghorn antelope, giraffe, fallow deer, black-tailed deer, and chevrotain), and Suiidae (pig and peccary). Sequence data are derived from Anderson et al. (1982) and Irwin et al. (1991)

^b Divergence dates are taken from Domning (1994), Tassy (1986), and Savage and Russell (1983)

^c African elephant vs Asian elephant/Mammoth

^d Manatee vs dugong/Steller's sea cow

Metropolitan Ueno-onchou Zoo, Hiroshima Asa Zoo, Okinawa Marine Expo Memorial Aquarium, Japan, and Mr. Hitoshi Furusawa of the Board of Education, Numata Town, Hokkaido, Japan, for samples; Mr. Ken Kato for laboratory assistance; and Mr. Mitsuru Moriguchi and Mr. Haruyoshi Kawai for illustration drawings. T.O. was financially supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, and the funds from the Ishida Foundation, Japan.

References

- Aguirre E (1969) Evolutionary history of the elephant. Science 164: 1366–1376
- Anderson S, Bankier AT, Barrel BG, de Bruijn MHL, Coulson AR, Drouin J, Eperon IC, Nierlich DP, Roe BA, Sanger F, Schreier PH, Smith AJH, Standen R, Young IC (1981) Sequence and organization of the human mitochondrial genome. Nature 290:457–465
- Anderson S, de Bruijn MHL, Coulson AR, Eperon IC, Sanger F, Young IG (1982) Complete sequence of bovine mitochondrial DNA. Conserved features of the mammalian mitochondrial genome. J Mol Evol 156:683–717
- Cabot E (1987) ESEE (The eyeball sequence editor) version 1.0.4. Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, Canada
- Czelusniak J, Goodman M, Moncrief ND, Kehoe SM (1990) Maximum parsimony approach to construction of evolutionary trees from aligned homologous sequences. Methods Enzymol 183:610–615
- De Jong WW, Zweers A, Goodman M (1981) Relationship of aardvark to elephants, hyraxes and sea cows from a-crystallin sequences. Nature 292:538–540
- De Jong WW, Leunissen JAM, Wistow GJ (1993) Eye lens crystallins and the phylogeny of placental orders: evidence for a macroscelidpaenungulate clade. In: Szalay FS, Novacek MJ, McKenna MC (eds) Mammalian phylogeny: placentals. Springer-Verlag, New York, pp 5–12
- Domning DP (1994) A phylogenetic analysis of the Sirenia. Proc San Diego Soc Nat Hist 29:177–189
- Felsenstein J (1993) PHYLIP (phylogeny inference package) version 3.5c, Department of Genetics, University of Washington, Seattle
- Frohman MA (1994) Cloning PCR products. In: Mullis KB, Ferré F, Gibbs RA (eds) The polymerase chain reaction. Birkhäuser, Boston, pp 14–37
- Gyllensten UB, Erlich HA (1988) Generation of single-stranded DNA by the polymerase chain reaction and its application to direct sequencing of the HLA-DQA locus. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 85: 7652–7656
- Hagelberg E, Clegg JB (1991) Isolation and characterization of DNA from archaeological bone. Proc R Soc Lond [Biol] 244:45–50
- Hagelberg E, Thomas MG, Cook CEJ, Sher AV, Baryshnikov GF, Lister AM (1995) DNA from ancient mammoth bones. Nature 370: 333–334
- Hauf J, Baur A, Chalwatzis N, Zimmermann FK, Joger U, Lazarev PA (1995) Selective amplification of a mammoth mitochondrial cytochrome b fragment using an elephant specific primer. Curr Genet 27:486–487
- Höss M, Pääbo S, Vereschagin NK (1994) Mammoth DNA sequences. Nature 370:333
- Irwin DM, Arnason U⁽¹⁹⁹⁴) Cytochrome *b* gene of marine mammals: phylogeny and evolution. J Mamm Evol 2:37–55
- Irwin DM, Wilson AC (1993) Limitation of molecular methods for establishing the phylogeny of mammals, with special reference to the position of elephants. In: Szalay FS, Novacek MJ, McKenna MC (eds) Mammalian phylogeny: placentals. Springer-Verglag, New York, pp 257–267
- Irwin DM, Kocher TD, Wilson AC (1991) Evolution of the cytochrome *b* gene of mammals. J Mol Evol 32:128–144
- Kimura M (1980) A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotides sequences. J Mol Evol 16:111–120
- Kocher TD, Thomas WK, Meyer A, Edwards SV, Pääbo S, Villablanca FX, Wilson AC (1989) Dynamics of mitochondrial DNA evolution in animals: amplification and sequencing with conserved primers. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 86:6196–6200
- Lowenstein J, Scheuenstuhl G (1991) Immunological methods in molecular paleontology. Philos Trans R Soc Lond Biol 333:375–380
- Lowenstein JM, Sarich VM, Richardson BJ (1981) Albumin systematics of the extinct mammoth and Tasmanian wolf. Nature 291: 409–411
- Ma D-P, Zharkikh A, Graur D, VandeBerg JL, Li W-H (1993) Structure and evolution of opossum, guinea pig, and porcupine cytochrome *b* genes. J Mol Evol 36:327–334
- Maglio VJ (1973) Origin and evolution of the Elephantidae. Trans Am Philos Soc 63:1–126
- McKenna MC (1975) Toward a phylogenetic classification of the Mammalia. In: Luckett WP, Szalay FS (eds) Phylogeny of the primates, a multidisciplinary approach. Plenum, New York, pp 21– 46
- McKenna MC (1987) Molecular and morphological analysis of highlevel mammalian interrelationship. In: Patterson C (ed) Molecules

and morphology in evolution: conflict or compromise? Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp 55–94

- Novacek MJ (1992) Mammalian phylogeny: shaking the tree. Nature 356:121–125
- Novacek MJ, Wyss AJ, McKenna MC (1988) The major groups of eutherian mammals. In: Benton MJ (ed) The phylogeny and classification of the Tetrapods, vol. 2: Mammals, Clarendon Press, Oxford, pp 31–71
- Pääbo S, Gifford JA, Wilson AC (1988) Mitochondrial DNA sequences from a 7000-years old brain. Nucleic Acids Res 16:9775–9787
- Porter CA, Goodman M, Stanhope MJ (1996) Evidence on mammalian phylogeny from sequences of exon 28 of the von Willebrand factor gene. Mol Phyl Evol 5:89–101
- Prothero DR (1993) Ungulate phylogeny. In: Szalay FS, Novacek MJ, McKenna MC (eds) Mammalian phylogeny: placentals. Springer-Verlag, New York, pp 173–181
- Prothero DR, Manning EM, Fischer M (1988) The phylogeny of the ungulates. In: Benton MJ (ed) The phylogeny and classification of the Tetrapods, vol. 2: Mammals. Clarendon Press, Oxford, pp 201– 234
- Saitou N, Nei M (1987) The neighbor-joining method: a new method of reconstructing phylogenetic trees. Mol Biol Evol 4:406–425
- Savage DE, Russell DE (1983) Mammalian Paleofaunas of the world. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA
- Shoshani J, Lowenstein JM, Walz DA, Goodman M (1985) Proboscidean origins of mastodon and woolly mammoth demonstrated immunologically. Paleobiology 11:429–437
- Simpson GG (1945) The principle of classification and a classification of mammals. Bull Am Mus Nat Hist 85:1–350
- Springer MS, Kirsch JAW (1993) A molecular perspective on the phylogeny of placental mammals based on mitochondrial 12S rDNA sequences, with special reference to the problem of the Paenungulata. J Mamm Evol 1:149–166
- Stanhope MJ, Smith MR, Waddell VG, Porter CA, Shivji MS, Goodman M (1996) Mammalian evolution and the Interphotoreceptor Retinoid Binding Protein (IRBP) gene: convincing evidence for several superordinal clades. J Mol Evol 43:83–92
- Tassy P (1986) Nouveaux Elephantoidea (Mammalia) dans le Miocéne du Kenya. Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Paris
- Tassy P (1994) Gaps, parsimony, and early Miocene elephantoids (Mammalia), with a re-evaluation of *Gomphotherium annectens* (Matsumoto, 1925). Zool J Linn Soc 112:101–114
- Yang H, Golenberg EM, Shoshani J (1996) Phylogenetic resolution within the Elephantidae using fossil DNA sequence from the American mastodon *(Mammut americanum)* as an outgroup. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 93:1190–1194