

# Comparative Molecular Genetics of the German Shepherd Dog

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of the requirements for the degree  
***Magister Scientiae***

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## Abstract

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Microsatellite markers were used to measure genetic diversity and population differentiation within and between domestic dog breeds. The German Shepherd Dog was compared with typical outbred mongrel dogs, Dachshunds, Staffordshire Bull Terriers and a cohort of other pedigreed dogs representing 30 recognised breeds.

Although archaeological records report that grey wolves (*Canis lupus*) were domesticated approximately 14 000 years ago, mtDNA analysis suggests that domestic dogs (*Canis familiaris*) and grey wolves diverged in multiple events over 100 000 years ago. Subsequently, the movement of humans and their dogs resulted in extensive gene flow between dog populations for thousands of years. Breeding practices to obtain distinctive phenotypic uniformity were recently introduced, resulting in purebred dogs becoming essentially closed gene pools. However, further mtDNA analyses have reported unexpectedly high levels of variability, supported by microsatellite loci with heterozygosities of between 36% and 55% being reported for some dog breeds.

Microsatellite analyses of 15 polymorphic canine loci are reported. German Shepherd Dogs and outbred mongrel dogs expressed diversity values of 4.0 alleles per locus in the former and 6.4 in the later (corrected for population size by jack-knifing with 1 000 pseudoreplications), with expected heterozygosities of 62% and 83%, respectively. German Shepherd Dogs showed a moderate loss of genetic diversity relative to outbred dogs, but not sufficient to describe the breed as highly inbred. However, in comparison with other purebred dogs examined, they expressed the least genetic diversity, with Dachshunds having 5.2, Staffordshire Bull Terriers 4.8 and the composite group of pedigreed dogs 6.0 alleles per locus, with expected heterozygosities of 72%, 67% and 80%, respectively. Significant population differentiation ( $G_{ST} = 0.103$ ;  $R_{ST} = 0.058$ ) between German Shepherd Dogs and the outbred dogs illustrates the effect of genetic drift since the breed was established just over 100 years ago.

This study would benefit future breeding programs, as management should be facilitated by knowledge of relative measures of inbreeding and differentiation, especially between various separate breeding stocks within the breed.

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## List of Symbols and Abbreviations

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[ $\gamma$ - <sup>32</sup> P] dATP	radioactive Phosphate isotope
A <sub>260</sub> /A <sub>280</sub>	ratio of light absorbency at 260 and 280nm
aa	amino acid
AB	Applied Biosystems
AKC	American Kennel Club
ANOVA	analysis of variance
APS	ammonium persulphate
ATP	adenosine triphosphate
bp	base pairs
C	cytosine nucleotide
CB	<i>Canis familiaris</i> , various pedigreed dogs
CFA	canine chromosome
DH	Dachshund
dNTPs	dinucleotide triphosphates
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid
F	forward primer
g/M	grams per Molar
GC	guanosine and cytosine content of primers
GSD	German Shepherd Dog
H <sub>E</sub>	expected heterozygosity, H-W equilibrium
H <sub>E</sub> Q	H <sub>E</sub> under mutation-drift equilibrium
H <sub>O</sub>	observed heterozygosity, H-W equilibrium
H-W	Hardy-Weinberg
IAM	infinite allele model
ISAG	International Society of Animal Genetics
kb	kilo base pairs
KUSA	Kennel Union of South Africa
M	molar
Mya	million years ago
MgCl	magnesium chloride
mtDNA	mitochondrial DNA
MW	molecular weight measured in daltons (g/M)
N <sub>A</sub>	number of alleles identified at each locus
NaOH	sodium hydroxide

nm	nanometer
OBD	outbred mongrel dog
OD 1nM	optical density per 1nM
PAGE	polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PCA	Principle Component Analysis
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PIC	polymorphism information content
PNK	polynucleotide kinase
R	reverse primer
rpm	revolutions per minute
SBT	Staffordshire Bull Terrier
SD	standard deviation
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulphate
SE	standard error
SNP	single nucleotide polymorphisms
T <sub>A</sub>	annealing temperature
Taq	Taq polymerase enzyme
TBE	tris-borate EDTA
TEMED	tetramethylethylene diamine
T <sub>m</sub>	melting temperature
TPM	two-phased model of mutation
SMM	stepwise mutation model
UV	ultraviolet light
Var	variance

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1. The Evolution of the Family *Canidae*

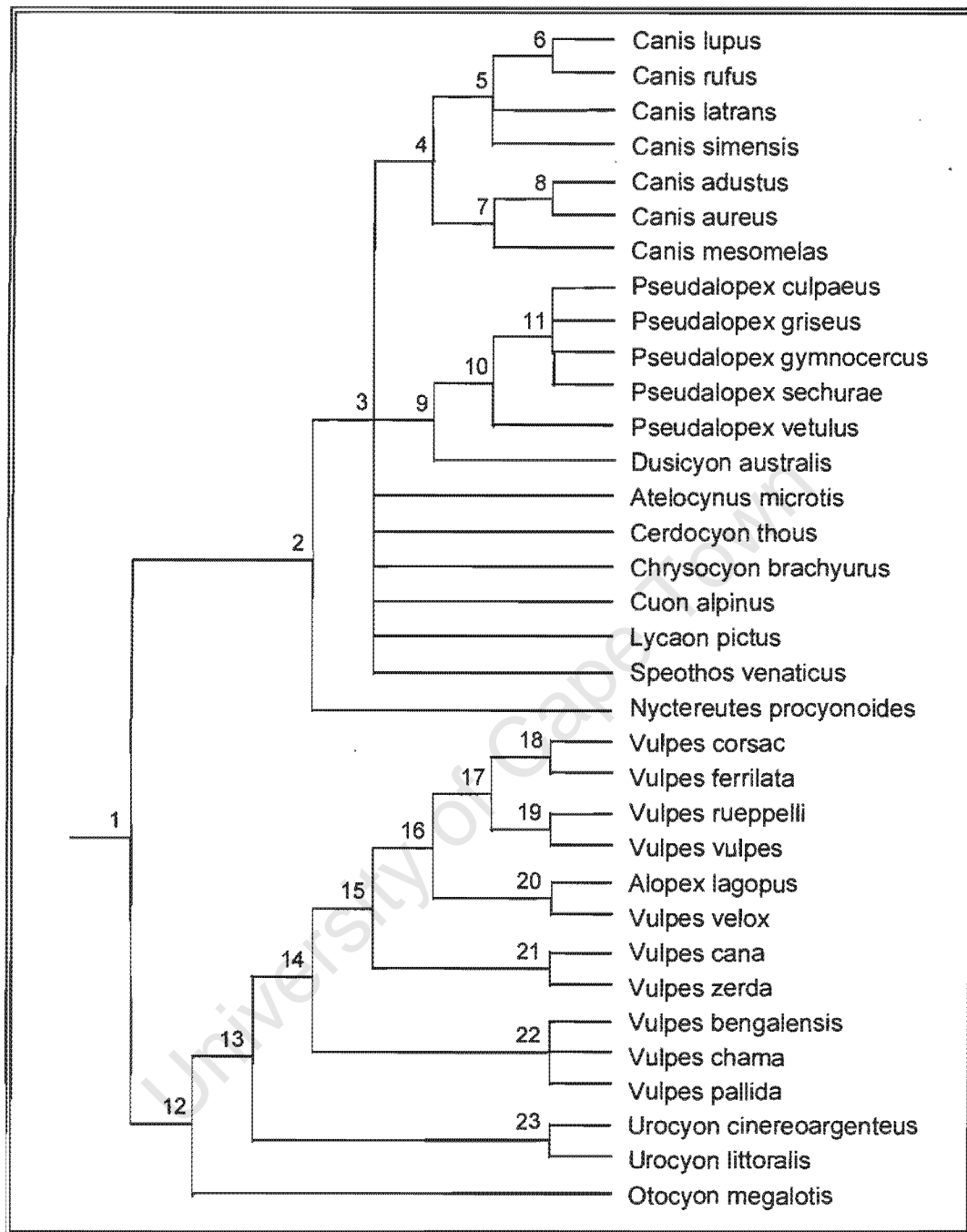
The order Carnivora originated during the Eocene Epoch (Table 1.1.) and diverged to form two superfamilies, the *Feloidea* and the *Canoidea* (Vilà *et al.* 1999). The *Canidae* family is the most phylogenetically ancient lineage within the *Canoidea*, having diverged from the other carnivore families between approximately 50 and 60 million years ago (Mya), when canids first appeared in the fossil record (Wayne 1993, Wayne and Vilà 2001). A multitude of closely related species of fox, jackal, wolf and other canids (Figure 1.2.) has evolved that last shared a common ancestor approximately 12.5 Mya (Bininda-Emonds *et al.* 1999). The grey wolf (*Canis lupus*) first appeared in Eurasia about one Mya (Bininda-Emonds *et al.* 1999) and spread to North America about 250 000 years ago (Cloete 2001).

Published phylogenetic analyses of the *Canidae* family (Figure 1.1.) group the “wolf-like” and “fox-like” species into two main clades (Bininda-Emonds *et al.* 1999). The *Canidae* family includes a diverse collection of 36 closely related extant species living in habitats from the tropics to the tundra (Wayne and Vilà 2001). The wolf-like canids include the grey wolf, maned wolf (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*) and African wild dog (*Lycaon pictus*); the fox-like canids include the red (*Vulpes vulpes*), Arctic (*Alopex lagopus*) and Cape foxes (*V. chama*); with the monotypic genera such as the bat-eared fox (*Otocyon megalotis*) and raccoon dog (*Nyctereutes procyonides*) having separate lineages, though clustering with the fox-like and wolf-like species, respectively (Wayne *et al.* 1997, Wayne and Ostrander 1999, Wayne and Vilà 2001).

Chromosome number and structure differs significantly between species belonging to the *Canidae* family, with 78 acrocentric chromosomes in the closely related wolf-like canids, including all breeds of domestic dogs, 74 acrocentric chromosomes in the South American fox-like canids, and between 36 and 64 metacentric chromosomes in the red fox-like canids (Wayne and Vilà 2001). This level of chromosomal variation differs from that found in other carnivore families where chromosome number and structure is well conserved (Wurster-Hill and Centerwall 1982).

Eon	Era	Period	Epoch	Age	Species	
Phanerozoic	Cenozoic	Quaternary	Holocene	Present	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	
				Bronze Age	<i>Canis familiaris matris-optimae</i>	
				5 800 years ago	<i>Canis familiaris inostranzewi</i>	
					<i>Canis familiaris poutiatini</i>	
				10 000 years ago	<i>Canis familiaris palustris</i>	
			Pleistocene	1 Mya	<i>Canis lupus</i>	
				1.5 Mya	<i>Canis dirus</i>	
			Tertiary	Pliocene	12 Mya	<i>Amphycyon</i>
						<i>Tomarctus</i>
				Miocene	26 Mya	<i>Cynodesmus</i>
		Oligocene		38 Mya		
		Eocene		50 Mya	<i>Mesonyx</i>	
					<i>Cynodictus</i>	
			<i>Miacis</i>			
		Palaeocene	65 Mya	<i>Loxolophus</i>		
		Mesozoic	Cretaceous		100 Mya	<i>Creodontus</i>
			Jurassic		135 Mya	<i>Eurotherium</i>
			Triassic		250 Mya	
	Paleozoic	Permian		280 Mya	<i>Cynognathus</i>	

**Table 1.1.** Earth's History: The Geological Time Scale, the sequence of eons, eras, periods and epochs representing the evolution of the domestic dog (*Canis familiaris*) (Cloete 2001).



**Figure 1.2.** The composite phylogenetic supertree of the Family *Canidae* was constructed by matrix representation with parsimony analysis. The wolf-like and fox-like species diverged approximately 12.5 Mya as represented by node one, with node six indicating the appearance of grey wolves (*Canis lupus*) approximately one Mya (Bininda-Emonds *et al.* 1999).

## 1.2. The Origin of the Domestic Dog (*Canis familiaris*)

*"Domestication is a process by which a population of animals becomes adapted to man and the captive environment, by some combination of genetic changes occurring over generations and environmentally induced developmental events recurring during each generation"* (Price 1984).

Although the association between humans and dogs has been recorded throughout history, the data acquired from either fossil records or molecular methods do not agree as to when, where or how often this domestication event occurred.

Charles Darwin (1859) suggested that the great diversity of form and function that characterises the domestic dog is indicative of its diverse ancestry, having originated from more than one species. The atypical interspecific breeding ability of the *Canidae*, frequently producing fertile offspring, lent further credibility to this theory. The domestic dog can interbreed with jackal, wolf, dingo and coyote (Hunter *et al.* 1787, Clutton-Brock 1977, Vilà *et al.* 1999, Wilton *et al.* 1999), with all being implicated in the origin of the dog.

Post-Pleistocene Man had "tame canids" that developed into domestic dogs after many generations of isolated breeding (Clutton-Brock 1977). These could have been wolves and coyotes in North America, indigenous foxes in South America, wolves and jackals in Europe and Asia, and wolves, jackals and possibly wild dogs in Africa (Clutton-Brock 1977). However, behavioural, morphological and molecular studies indicate that the domestic dog is most closely related to the wolf (Clutton-Brock 1977, Wayne and O'Brien 1987, Wayne 1993, Morey and Wiant 1992, Tsuda *et al.* 1997, Vilà *et al.* 1997). Primitive people and wolves formed mutually beneficial symbiotic relationships, facilitated by similar hierarchical and complex social structures (Clutton-Brock 1977). Since the grey wolf distribution encompasses the holarctic region with more than 30 recognised subspecies, it is possible that multiple independent domestication events resulted in the evolution of the modern dog (Olsen and Olsen 1977, Morey and Wiant 1992, Leonard *et al.* 2002). Tsuda *et al.* (1997) compared mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) D-loop sequences of 34 domestic dogs representing 24 breeds (of mostly Asiatic origin) and 19 wolves representing three subspecies (*C. l. lupus*, *C. l. pallipes*, and *C. l. chanco*) and observed that wolves and dogs were not genetically differentiated. This data was the earliest evidence indicating

that domestic dogs had multiple centres of domestication, and that there was extensive interbreeding between these matriarchal lineages. Sequence divergence values varied within domestic dog breeds between 0% and 3.19%, and within wolf species between 0% and 2.88%. Sequence divergence between wolves and dogs varied between 0.30% and 3.35%, indicating little intraspecific or interspecific divergence, and that the grey wolf is the principal candidate for the matriarchal ancestor of the domestic dog (Tsuda *et al.* 1997).

All domesticated animals serve a purpose; with the concept of having animals merely as pets a comparatively modern aspect of civilisation. Primitive man was a nomadic hunter-gatherer, remaining temporarily at each settlement before moving on to areas of greater food abundance (Montagu 1942). It would appear that the primary function of the dog was the indispensable role of camp scavenger, consuming accumulated human detritus and eradicating not only foul odours and wastes, but also flies, insects and other pests (Montagu 1942). It would have been the progression to a more settled agricultural society that resulted in dogs forming a more integral part of everyday life, being useful for hunting, and guarding and herding domesticated farm animals.

The evolution from wild wolf to domestic dog would have occurred in four distinct phases: contact, acceptance, control and finally selective breeding (Cloete 2001). Wolves would have scavenged food from human settlements, their proximity eventually accepted for the benefits thereof. To perform such functions as guarding and herding, the “tame wolves” had to submit to human control and adopt a new social structure. Selective breeding, in isolation from the ancestral wolf population, improved hunting, herding and guarding instincts (Cloete 2001).

### **1.2.1. Archaeological Approach**

Evidence unearthed at numerous archaeological excavations has revealed that early domestic dogs and wolves can be identified according to specific morphological features. The process of domestication tends to result in decreased body size, shortening of the rostral or facial area, with larger palates and cranial area, and an overall reduction in tooth size (Olsen and Olsen 1977, Morey and Wiant 1992).

Archaeological sites in different parts of the world, dating back to the beginning of the Holocene Epoch, have yielded skeletal remains identified as early domestic dogs (Clutton-Brock 1977). The most ancient specimens on the North American continent were found in Danger Cave, Utah, and radiocarbon ( $^{14}\text{C}$ ) dated to between 7 000 and 8 000 B.C. (Morey and Wiant 1992). The "Palegawra Dog" found in a cave in Northwest Iraq has been radiocarbon dated to 10 000 B.C. (Olsen and Olsen 1977).

According to Olsen and Olsen (1977), vertebrate remains described as canid in nature were found in close association with *Homo erectus pekinensis* at the Chouk'outien site in China. Evidently, the lower section of the cave indicated greatest *Homo* activity approximately 500 000 years ago. *Canis lupus variabilis*, found with "Peking Man", was smaller in size, with a more slender muzzle and weaker sagittal crest, than the common wolf of that region. Reference has also been made to a "domestic dog or wolf" from an Upper Paleolithic site (20 900 years ago) on the Yenisei River, Siberia (Vilà *et al.* 1997).

With the skeletal remains of wolves and hominids being found in association from as much as 400 000 years ago, there is a definite chronological period unaccounted for between the most primitive canid remains and later finds officially designated *Canis familiaris* (Olsen and Olsen 1977, Cloete 2001). Although the actual date of domestication is far from resolved, it is accepted that this event did occur prior to the Neolithic revolution (10 000 years ago) when nomadic hunter-gatherer societies gradually gave way to agriculture and the domestication of farm animals. It is possible that the earliest dogs were not yet morphologically distinct from their wolf ancestors and that it was this event that imposed the necessary selective pressures resulting in the observed morphological changes (Vilà *et al.* 1997). If dogs did originate more recently, then they evolved from an unknown extinct species closely related to the grey wolf (Wayne and Ostrander 1999).

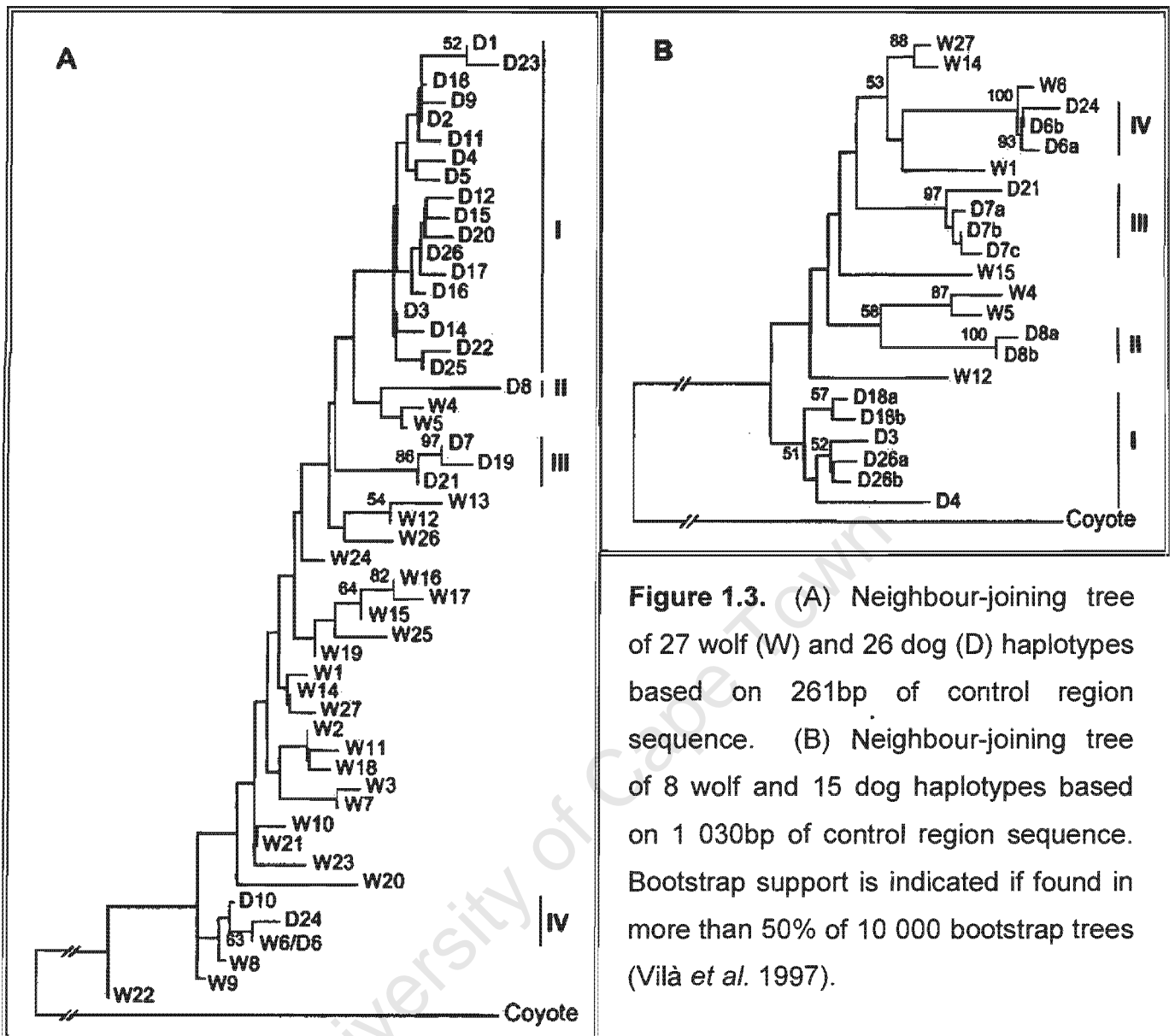
### 1.2.2. Molecular Approach

Archaeologists and anthropologists have been unable to determine whether domestic dogs evolved from a single wolf population, from different populations, or whether there were multiple such occurrences. . Vilà *et al.* (1997) applied molecular methods to investigate these questions. A segment, 261bp in size, of the left domain of the mtDNA control region was sequenced from 140 dogs, representing 67 breeds and five crossbred

dogs, 162 wolves, representing 27 populations from Europe, Asia and North America, and five coyote (*C. latrans*), two golden jackal (*C. aureus*), two black-backed jackal (*C. mesomelas*) and eight Ethiopian wolves (*C. simensis*).

According to Vilà *et al.* (1997), the control region proved to be very polymorphic with 27 wolf haplotypes and 26 dog haplotypes being detected. The wolf haplotypes, differing by an average of 5.31 substitutions (2.10%) and a maximum of ten substitutions (3.95%), were predominantly confined to specific geographic regions. The dog haplotypes, differing by an average of 5.30 substitutions (2.06%) and a maximum of 12 substitutions (4.67%), did not sort according to breed, indicating diverse ancestry and extensive hybridisation of breeds of dogs. Also, the relatively recent origin of most breeds has not allowed sufficient time for the development of unique breed-specific sequences in the mtDNA control region (Wayne and Ostrander 1999). Only a single haplotype (D6/W6) was common to both dogs and grey wolves from Western Russia and Romania. This was attributed to possible recent hybridisation between dogs and wolves. Dog sequences differed from wolf sequences by no more than 12 substitutions and from coyote and jackal by at least 20 substitutions and two insertions, corroborating the wolf ancestry of domestic dogs. Interbreeding between female dogs and male coyote or jackal would not be detected due to the maternal inheritance pattern of mtDNA, but the above interpretation has been corroborated by limited studies on nuclear DNA (Vilà *et al.* 1997).

Vilà *et al.* (1997) used various methods of phylogenetic analysis which grouped the dog haplotypes into four separate clades: I, II, III and IV (Figure 1.3. A). This suggests either several independent domestication events involving a number of wolf populations or the continued exchange of genetic material between dogs and wolves after the original event. Clade I contained 19 of the 26 dog haplotypes from many common breeds and several ancient ones, but no wolf haplotypes. Clade II consisted of haplotype D8 found only in two Scandinavian breeds, clade III consisted of three dog haplotypes (D7, D19 and D21) from a range of different breeds and clade IV consisted of three haplotypes (D6, D10 and D24) most similar to the wolf haplotype W6. These monophyletic groupings were confirmed by sequencing a further 1 030bp (Figure 1.3. B) from the control region of 24 individuals representing each of the four dog clades (Vilà *et al.* 1997).



**Figure 1.3.** (A) Neighbour-joining tree of 27 wolf (W) and 26 dog (D) haplotypes based on 261bp of control region sequence. (B) Neighbour-joining tree of 8 wolf and 15 dog haplotypes based on 1 030bp of control region sequence. Bootstrap support is indicated if found in more than 50% of 10 000 bootstrap trees (Vilà *et al.* 1997).

Vilà *et al.* (1997) used a "molecular clock" method to determine when dogs and wolves diverged. Evolutionary lineages are gradually altered as mutations cause changes in the nucleotide sequences. The "clock" was calibrated using the sequence divergence of coyotes and wolves that, according to the archaeological record, last shared a common ancestor one million years ago. This corresponds to a sequence divergence of 0.075 (7.5%), and as the divergence between the most varied of the dog haplotypes in clade I is 0.010, it indicates that dogs originated about 135 000 years ago. Although this may be overestimated due to undetected substitutions at hypervariable sites and an uneven mutation rate, Vilà *et al.* (1997) are confident that the domestication event occurred a great deal earlier than the proposed 14 000 years before present.

### 1.2.3. Old World Origin

The dog was the only domestic animal distributed across Eurasia, Oceania and the Americas before transoceanic voyage in the 15<sup>th</sup> century (Leonard *et al.* 2002). The Australian dingo, a feral domestic dog, is thought to have originated from Asia approximately 5 000 years ago (Clutton-Brock 1977, Wilton *et al.* 1999). New World dogs either accompanied the Paleo-Indians across the Bering Strait about 20 000 years ago or resulted from independent domestication of North American grey wolves (Vilà *et al.* 1999).

Vilà *et al.* (1999) sought to establish whether mtDNA sequences of native American dogs were similar or identical to North American wolves, implying New World domestication, or similar or identical to European dog breeds, indicating an ancient Old World origin.

The Xoloitzcuintli, a medium-sized, hairless dog, is indigenous to Mexico. Pottery portraying this breed has been discovered in Western Mexico, dating to the Colima culture between 250 B.C. and 450 A.D. (Vilà *et al.* 1999). Due to their religious significance, Mexican tribes concealed the breed to prevent interbreeding with dogs introduced by the Spanish conquistadors. Thus making the Xoloitzcuintli an ideal candidate breed for the investigation of a New World domestication event (Vilà *et al.* 1999).

Vilà *et al.* (1999) sequenced 394bp of the mtDNA control region of 19 Xoloitzcuintlis and detected seven different haplotypes distributed across three of the four dog clades. No haplotype was unique to the breed, or similar to those of North American wolves. The most frequent haplotype (D6) was the one common to both dogs and wolves of Romania and European Russia. These data do not corroborate the New World origin of native North American dogs, especially as the mtDNA sequences were identical to those of Old World dog breeds (Vilà *et al.* 1999).

These data were further substantiated by the research of Leonard *et al.* (2002). As modern New World breeds have probably interbred with dogs of European ancestry, DNA was extracted from 37 dog skeletons from sites in Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia that predate the arrival of Christopher Columbus, and 11 from Alaska before the arrival of European explorers. The control region of a number of samples was successfully sequenced and 11 of the dog haplotypes published by Vilà *et al.* (1997, 1999) were detected. The mtDNA

sequences of native dog breeds of the Americas, including the Eskimo dog, Xoloitzcuintli, Alaskan husky, Newfoundland and Chesapeake Bay Retriever, and the Australian dingo and New Guinea Singing Dog of Oceania were identical to those of Eurasian dog breeds. Phylogenetic analysis of the ancient New World breeds distributes the haplotypes across two of the four previously defined clades, ten of the pre-Columbian specimens are assigned to clade I and the other to clade IV. These sequences differed from North American wolves by between three and 13bp, but were identical or very similar to Eurasian dogs. These data also indicate that both New and Old World domestic dogs originated from Eurasian wolves, and dogs with multiple Old World lineages accompanied humans across the Bering Strait during the late Pleistocene Epoch (Leonard *et al.* 2002).

#### 1.2.4. East Asian Origin

Several studies have proposed an East Asian origin for modern domestic dogs (Olsen and Olsen 1977, Savolainen *et al.* 2002). The Chinese or Asian wolf (*Canis lupus chanco*), one of the smallest sub-species, could be the forerunner of the early Chinese and Mongolian domestic dogs and probably also those that accompanied man across the Bering Strait to North America (Olsen and Olsen 1977, Leonard *et al.* 2002, Savolainen *et al.* 2002).

An aspect of diagnostic morphology used to differentiate between domestic dogs and other wild canids is the “turned back” apex of the coronoid process of the ascending ramus, this feature is also found in Chinese wolves (Olsen and Olsen 1977). The degree of development of the coronoid apex is also significant. True “meat-eating” carnivores (e.g. Felidae) have no overhang in this area whereas a distinct overhang is evident in omnivores (e.g. Ursidae). The overhang is characteristic of both domestic dogs and Chinese wolves but absent in other wolf subspecies, with no evidence of differences in diet to explain this phenomenon (Olsen and Olsen 1977).

Savolainen *et al.* (2002) used molecular methods to investigate whether dogs were domesticated in a single or in multiple events and approximately when and where the event(s) occurred. The mtDNA sequence variation across 582bp was examined in 38 Eurasian wolves and 654 domestic dogs from Europe, Asia, Africa and Arctic America.

Cladistic analysis grouped all haplotypes according to the phylogenetic clades previously defined by Vilà *et al.* (1997, 1999), now identified as clades A, B, C, and D, as well as a unique fifth group designated clade E consisting of an isolated haplotype. Dog haplotypes in each clade were interspersed by wolf haplotypes approximately equidistant from a common ancestor of all dogs and wolves. Savolainen *et al.* (2002) concluded that the modern domestic dog population originated from at least five female wolf lineages.

Clade A contained three wolf haplotypes from China and Mongolia, clade B contained two from East European wolves and one from Afghanistan; implying that clade A originated in east Asia and clade B in Europe or Southwest Asia. A total of 95.9% of the dog haplotypes were assigned to clades A, B, and C, therefore these three clades represent a common origin for most genetic variation in modern dog populations. Unless very effective gene flow occurred throughout the Eurasian continent, most dog populations have a common origin from a single gene pool comprising clades A, B, and C.

If an ancestral population was compared with its derived population, more haplotypes and a greater degree of genetic diversity would be expected in the ancestral population. It would follow that clade A had 3.39 substitutions in East Asia, 2.28 in Southwest Asia, and 2.97 in Europe. Also, more haplotypes (corrected for sample size) were detected in the East Asian cohort than in Southeast Asia or Europe; with 20.2 haplotypes in 51 East Asian dogs being significantly greater than the 16 haplotypes in 51 Southwest Asian dogs ( $p < 0.05$ ; 1 000 replications) and no significant differences in Europe. In addition, 30 of the haplotypes in East Asia were unique to that region.

Savolainen *et al.* (2002) further examined the possible East Asian origin by comparing dog populations from the East and West, the regions being defined as east and west of a line from the Himalayas to the Ural Mountains. In clade A, 13 haplotypes were common to both the East and West, while another 35 were unique to the East and 23 to the West, also 51.5% of the individuals in the East had unique haplotypes as compared to 28.1% in the West. These data suggest that the haplotypes of clade A in the western part of the world originated from a subset of East Asian haplotypes, later developing into haplotypes unique to the West.

Similarly with regards to clade B, more haplotypes were detected in the East than the West, seven haplotypes being unique to the East and only three to the West, and 41.2% of the population having unique haplotypes in the East but only 6.8% in the West.

The haplotype distribution and genetic diversity in Clade C was similar to that of clades A and B, with only the East having two unique haplotypes.

Savolainen *et al.* (2002) concluded that more than 95% of all modern dog populations are grouped in the three phylogenetic clades A, B, and C, indicating a common origin from a single gene pool. The greater genetic diversity in East Asia and the geographic haplotype distribution suggests that these three clades originated in East Asia and the dog populations of Europe and Southwest Asia are derived from the East Asian types.

### 1.3. Experimental Study of Domestication

*“How might the contemporary domestic dogs, so very diverse today, have evolved from a uniform wild-type ancestor?”* (Belyaev 1969)

Neoteny, the retention of juvenile traits into adulthood, is considered the principal driving force behind the radical behavioural and phenotypic changes associated with domestication, which occurred at a rate exceeding genetic prediction (Trut 2001). This evolutionary adaptation was most probably driven by selection, with infantile behaviour and appearance best facilitating the co-existence of man and wolf. It has been proposed that a variety of breed-specific traits are essentially retarded juvenile behavioural responses and arrested morphological development (Coppinger *et al.* 1987).

Dmitry Belyaev, a Russian geneticist and evolutionist, considered the nature and origin of these behavioural and morphological changes and proposed to recreate a domestication event with strict selection for amenability to domestication, namely, “tameability” (Trut 2001). This experiment was carried out for more than 40 years at the Institute of Cytology and Genetics of the Siberian Department of the Russian Academy of Sciences, the last 14 of which under the direction of Lyudmila Trut.

The silver fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) was chosen as the experimental taxon, for although the species is phylogenetically and taxonomically closely related to the dog, it has never been domesticated (Trut 2001). The farm-bred foxes retained their natural behavioural and morphological traits, but approximately 10% exhibited a particularly weak defensive response (Belyaev 1978). Of these individuals, 100 females and 30 males were chosen as the parental generation, with all subsequent progeny selected purely for tameness, being evaluated by their response to human handlers (Trut 2001). It was demonstrated that the variability in defensive behaviour is hereditary and that selection is possible (Belyaev 1978). Individuals in the experimental population that expressed particularly tame characteristics were assigned to the "domestication elite"; and after 47 000 foxes and between 30 and 35 generations of selection, a population of docile "domestic" foxes was produced (Trut 2001). The experimentally bred foxes were not only unafraid of people but exhibited an active positive reaction to human contact, not as a result of training, but rather from continued selection for a tame genotype (Belyaev 1978).

Interestingly, after eight to ten generations of selective breeding, a variety of unselected morphological and physiological changes emerged. These included irregular patches of white incorporated in the previously uniform coat colour, floppy ears, rolled tails, foreshortened legs and tails, elongated bodies, and the feminisation of male craniological dimensions with the loss of natural sexual dimorphism, and a general associated shortening and widening of the face skull and decrease in the width and height of the cerebral skull (Trut 2001). The following domestic characteristics also appeared; altered reproductive cycles with the loss of seasonality and monoestricty, sexual maturity reached at a younger age, larger litters of pups, and the production of higher levels of serotonin, a neurotransmitter thought to inhibit aggressive behaviour (Trut 2001). Belyaev and Trut have motivated that the development of such "phenotypic novelties" are neither the result of inbreeding nor stochastic processes, but rather concordant with the morphological and physiological reorganisation characteristic of domestic dogs (Trut 2001). Most features of the evolutionary pathway were reproducible under domestication as a result of strict selection for the genetic systems governing the behavioural trait for tameability.

### 1.4.1. Hypotheses

1. German Shepherd Dogs express limited genetic variability as a result of the application of artificial selection and deliberate inbreeding in the formation of the breed.
2. German Shepherd Dog populations are highly differentiated due to the isolation of the breeding stock.

### 1.4.2. Aims and Objectives

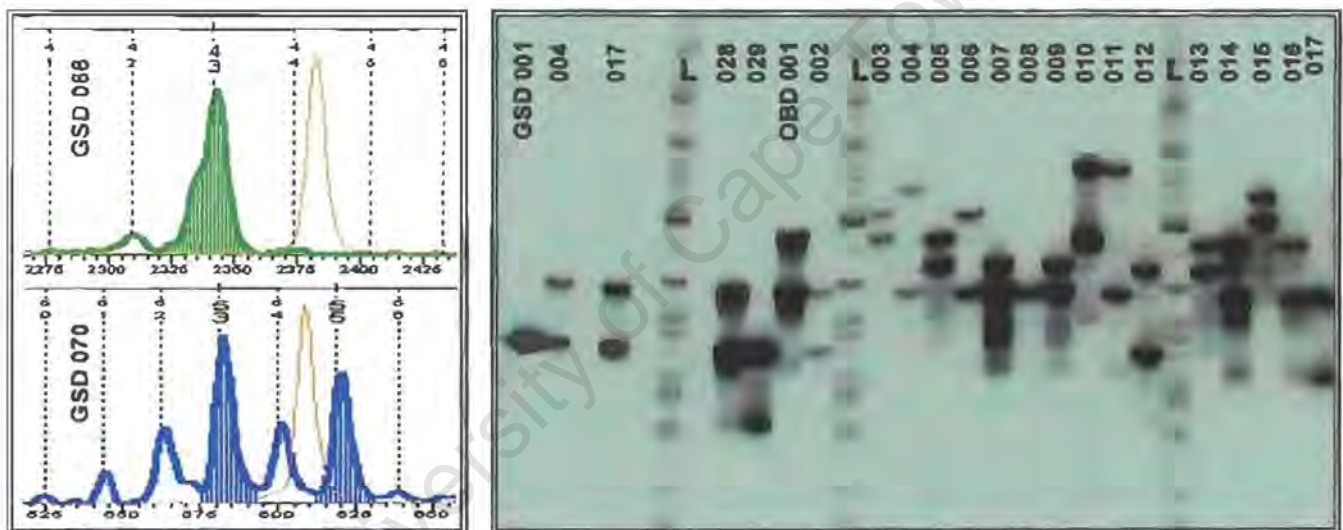
- *To determine the relative genetic diversity and degree of heterozygosity revealed in German Shepherd Dogs in South Africa as compared with those from Germany, and outbred mongrel dogs and other pedigreed dogs.*
- *To determine the extent of population differentiation and substructuring within the breed, with respect to both region of origin and breed type.*

#### **A population study of the German Shepherd Dog will be completed:**

1. Fifteen canine microsatellite markers will be analysed and the data obtained will be quantified by comparison with typically outbred mongrel dogs, Dachshunds, Staffordshire Bull Terriers and a cohort of other pedigreed dogs representing 30 officially recognized breeds.
2. The genetic diversity and degree of heterozygosity will be calculated by determining the number and distribution of allelic variants at each microsatellite locus, and the frequency of heterozygous and homozygous individuals within the population.
3. Population differentiation can be determined by various statistical approaches, with respect to region of origin, as compared with dogs from Germany and the rest of Europe, and type, as compared between “show” and “sport” dogs that are selected for either appearance or performance. These approaches include Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium, relative  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  estimates and other F-statistics, and population assignment tests based on allele frequencies.



Laboratory analysis is PCR-based with sequence specific oligonucleotide primers, designed to recognise and anneal to the flanking regions, amplifying the microsatellite locus. Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) allows the resolution of alleles differing in size by only 1bp. The amplified PCR product (Figure 2.2.) is visualised by either fluorescent or radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled primers and are accurately sized by comparison with a size standard. This approach is extremely sensitive; microsatellite loci can be amplified from minute quantities of target DNA or from significantly degraded DNA, such as forensic material or ancient samples (Bruford and Wayne 1993). PCR primers are relatively species-specific, but often function for other closely related taxa, e.g. microsatellite markers isolated in domestic dogs will often amplify other canid species like wolf, coyote, jackal and African wild dog (Bruford and Wayne 1993).



**Figure 2.2.** Fluorescent-labelled microsatellite markers (left), FH2289 (green, homozygous) and AHT121 (blue, heterozygous), were sized according to an internal size standard (orange). Radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite marker FH2328 (right) was sized by comparison with standard A-T ladders (L).

The highly polymorphic nature of microsatellite markers renders them useful tools for genetic analyses, and an extensive array has been described in the canine genome. These have been employed for genome mapping, genetic linkage analysis, parentage verification, population studies, examining evolutionary and filial relationships, forensic identity testing, and conservation genetics (Bruford and Wayne 1993, Ostrander *et al.* 1993, Gotelli *et al.* 1994, Roy *et al.* 1994, Fredholm and Winterø 1995, Francisco *et al.* 1996, Zajc and Sampson 1996, Müller *et al.* 1999, Zajc and Sampson 1999).

## 2.2. Genetic Diversity

*“Individuals can carry only two different alleles at a given locus, whereas a group of individuals can carry a larger number of alleles, giving rise to a reservoir of genetic diversity” (Klug and Cummings 1994).*

The level of genetic diversity expressed by a population can be estimated by measuring allele frequency distribution across a number of loci. Allele frequencies, the proportion of individuals in a population carrying particular alleles, fluctuate at a rate relative to population size as a result of the following modifying factors: (i) random genetic drift, (ii) mutation, (iii) migration, (iv) selection, and (v) inbreeding.

Genetic drift is the result of random changes in allele frequencies from one generation to the next because the progeny comprise a finite sample of the parental gene pool (Brewer and Sing 1983). The rate at which this process occurs is inversely related to population size, having critical consequences for conservation purposes because the effect is compounded in populations passing through a bottleneck. Genetic drift serves to limit genetic diversity and heterozygosity, and promote differentiation as isolated populations eventually express divergent allele frequencies.

Although mutation is the ultimate source of genetic diversity and can modify allele frequencies in a population, its ability to expand the gene pool is relatively gradual (Brewer and Sing 1983). The mutation process is random and would require multiple generations before the allele frequency in a population is affected. Various models of mutation have been proposed; these include the Infinite Allele Model (IAM), where mutations create new allele at rate  $\mu$ , the Stepwise Mutation Model (SMM), mutations add or delete a single unit to/from the current allele, and the Two-Phased Model of Mutation, which incorporates mostly one-step mutations, but also a small percentage (5 - 10%) of multi-step mutations (Cornuet and Luikart 1996, Samadi *et al.* 1998).

Migration introduces genetic diversity into a population; the extent of isolation from other populations determines the importance of the role of gene flow. The gradual exchange of genes between populations homogenises the genetic diversity between separate populations (Wayne 1993). Various factors promote the fixation of some alleles and loss of others, such that a population can become divided into genetically distinct subgroups. If

these subgroups are also geographically or physiologically isolated then gene flow is reduced and they may become evolutionarily divergent. An estimate of the rate of migration can be determined by the equation  $F_{ST} = 1 / (1 + 4Nm)$ , where  $N$  is the population size and  $m$  the rate of migration (Gotelli *et al.* 1994). Theoretically, only one migrant per generation is sufficient to thwart divergence due to random genetic drift in finite populations (Vucetich and Waite 2000).

Natural selection results in the most advantageous adaptations becoming more common in a population. Individuals may not all survive equally well in a particular habitat and their reproductive success depends on a combination of viability and fertility, i.e. genetic fitness (Brewer and Sing 1983). If individuals carrying a particular allele were more likely to produce progeny as a result of better adaptation to the environment, then the frequency of that allele, and the adaptation, would tend to increase in the population. This process has been intuitively understood for millennia, with man endeavouring to change the nature of plants and animals to fulfil particular functions. In this case, the parental generation is artificially controlled and the process is described as artificial selection.

The consanguineous mating between closely related individuals, or inbreeding, results in the proliferation of only part of the total gene pool, as the parental generation expresses identical alleles more frequently than predicted by chance, with a resultant increase in homozygous offspring and associated decrease in genetic fitness (Klug and Cummings 1994). The inbreeding coefficient measures the probability that two alleles at a locus are identical in origin as inherited from a common ancestor, and not two identical alleles uniting at random in the population (Brewer and Sing 1983). Brouillette and Venta (2002) calculated the inbreeding coefficient with the equation:  $F = (H_E - H_O)/H_E$ , being the observed and expected heterozygosity values.

Loss of genetic diversity reduces the evolutionary potential of a population because it limits response to habitat changes, e.g. newly introduced pathogens or parasites (Garza and Williamson 2001). Heterozygosity ( $H$ ) is an informative evaluation of genetic diversity, being the probability of a random individual expressing two different allelic forms at a particular locus. The level of heterozygosity can be calculated according to the equation:  $H = 1 - \sum p_i^2$ , where  $p_i$  is the frequency of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  allele at that locus (Ostrander *et al.* 2001).

Significant reductions in effective population size (bottlenecks) result in the rapid loss of genetic diversity, especially when post-bottleneck recovery is slow, with the result that homogeneity is increased and deleterious alleles become fixed (Luikart *et al.* 1998b). The effects of random genetic drift intensify, resulting in altered allele frequencies and the loss of some alleles. Recently bottlenecked populations exhibit transient heterozygosity excess relative to that expected from the observed number of alleles, due to the more rapid loss of heterozygosity than alleles (Cornuet and Luikart 1996). Another estimate of reduced effective population size is the mean ratio (M) of the total number of alleles (k) to the range in allele size (r) as calculated from microsatellite loci (Garza and Williamson 2001). When a population experiences a bottleneck event, the loss of any allele would decrease k, but only the loss of the largest or smallest allele would affect r, thus the ratio  $M = k/r$  would be smaller in recently reduced populations (Garza and Williamson 2001).

Godfrey H. Hardy and Wilhem Weinberg independently developed the Hardy-Weinberg (H-W) Principle, a mathematical model that calculates allele frequencies under the assumption that the population is infinitely large, undergoes random mating, and that no modifying factors are involved (Klug and Cumming 1994). A population is described as being in equilibrium if the allele frequencies remain constant from generation to generation, with the expected and observed allele frequencies remaining virtually identical (Klug and Cumming 1994). Genetic diversity will be conserved provided the population remains in H-W equilibrium; allele frequencies of 0.5 indicate higher proportions of heterozygotes than values nearer one or zero (Brewer and Sing 1983). If a population is in disequilibrium with the expected allele frequencies predicted by H-W deviating significantly from the observed values, it indicates that the population is being influenced by one or more modifying factor(s).

The polymorphic information content (PIC) can be considered a more accurate measure of genetic diversity than the levels of heterozygosity, for both the number and frequency of alleles at a particular locus are incorporated (Zajc *et al.* 1997). The PIC values is calculated according to the equation:  $PIC = (1 - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2 - 2) \times (\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n p_i^2 p_j^2)$ , where  $p_i$  is the frequency of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  allele and n the number of individuals in the population (Ostrander *et al.* 2001). The PIC value was initially devised for use in genome scanning to measure the informativeness of markers, but is now commonly used in population studies.

### 2.3. Population Differentiation

*“The process of speciation divides an originally homogenous gene pool into two or more reproductively separate gene pools. This division may be accompanied by changes in morphology, physiology, and adaptation to the environment”* (Klug and Cummings 1994).

Populations distributed across extensive geographic areas encompassing varied habitats often become isolated and genetically differentiated, as these subpopulations no longer comprise a single randomly mating population (Klug and Cummings 1994). Genetic drift, inbreeding, mutation, migration, and selection are factors that can separately or collectively modify allele frequency distribution and initiate evolutionary divergence with eventual speciation. The degree of differentiation between subpopulations depends on population size, the extent of migration, and the period of separation. Population differentiation can be measured by various statistical analyses of allele frequencies in order to reject, with a level of statistical confidence, the null hypothesis that there is no differentiation amongst the populations examined (Raymond and Rousset 1995a).

Wright (1965) introduced the F-statistic parameters ( $F_{ST}$ ,  $F_{IT}$  and  $F_{IS}$ ) for the analysis of population structure. The fixation indices are related according to the following equation:  $1 - F_{IT} = (1 - F_{IS})(1 - F_{ST})$ , for neutral diallelic loci (Jordana *et al.* 1992), although Nei (1977) expanded this concept to multiple alleles. Masatoshi Nei proposed that the  $F_{ST}$  statistical measurement was appropriate for use with molecular data to estimate genetic differentiation between populations, assuming the “Infinite Allele Model” whereby all mutations generate new alleles (Nei 1977, Nei and Chesser 1983). The  $F_{ST}$  parameter varies between 0 (absence of differentiation) and 1 (complete differentiation), with values less than 0.05 implying insignificant population differentiation and those greater than 0.1 indicating the existence of substantial population differentiation.  $F_{ST}$  is usually symbolised as  $G_{ST}$  if the locus expresses more than two alleles (Inion *et al.* 2003). The  $F_{IS}$  and  $F_{IT}$  parameters provide a measure of the excess or deficit of average heterozygotes within each subpopulation or the global estimate of the total population, respectively (Goudet 1995, Rousset and Raymond 1995, Morera *et al.* 1999).

The  $R_{ST}$  estimator of population differentiation was introduced by Chakraborty and Nei (1982) and independently defined and promoted by Slatkin (1995). This measure was designed specifically for the microsatellite “single-step” model of evolution, assuming an increase or decrease of one repeat unit per mutation and allowing for the rapid mutation rate that generates the multitude of alleles characteristic of most microsatellite markers. The  $R_{ST}$  estimate can be calculated by the equation:  $R_{ST} = (S - S_W) / S$ , where  $S$  is the mean estimated variance of allele sizes in the populations, and  $S_W$  the mean estimate within each population (Slatkin 1995).

Both  $F_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  estimates are used to ascertain population structure, but frequently differ. For example,  $R_{ST}$  has a greater variance than  $F_{ST}$ , and requires more loci to obtain accurate results. Balloux and Goudet (2002) used computer simulations to compare these statistical values, using different conditions of gene flow, mutation rate, population size and number under a finite island model restricted to an exact symmetrical stepwise mutation model. It was found that there is no single best estimator of population differentiation, with both experiencing bias and variance to differing degrees under different conditions.

H-W equilibrium is also an effective gauge of differentiation between subpopulations, for if the combined population is significantly out of H-W proportions then disequilibrium results from genetic drift altering allele frequencies in the subpopulations. The significance of the deviations from H-W equilibrium is calculated by chi-square analysis:  $\chi^2 = (1 - H_O/H_E)^2 \times n$ , where  $H_O$  and  $H_E$  are the observed and expected heterozygosities and  $n$  the population size. The degrees of freedom are determined by:  $df = r \times (r - 1) / 2$ , with  $r$  the number of alleles expressed by the locus (Irion *et al.* 2003).

Divergent populations may differ sufficiently in allele frequency distribution, for assignment tests to either group individuals into or exclude them from predefined reference populations, with a degree of statistical confidence (Koskinen 2003). Assignment values are determined as a ratio of the likelihood of the genotype of the individual corresponding with each of the possible source populations. The proportion of individuals correctly assigned to their own population is another measure of population differentiation, and can also be used to determine the hybrid status of individuals or to categorise individuals of uncertain origin.

## 2.4. Canine Molecular Genetics

In conflict with the archaeological record, mtDNA analysis suggests that dogs and wolves diverged in multiple events over 100 000 years ago (Vilà *et al.* 1997, 1999). Regardless of the exact date, man has long intervened in the breeding of domestic dogs to produce diverse characteristics that serve to support human society (Figure 2.3.). Additional mtDNA analysis of polymorphisms at 21 enzyme restriction sites has revealed that domestic dogs and grey wolves differ at the genomic level by just 0.2% (Wayne *et al.* 1992), thus diversity under domestication is the result of only a few changes in the DNA sequence of the founding populations.



**Figure 2.3.** From the 60kg Great Dane to the 2kg Chihuahua, the extravagant diversity of body size, conformation, pelage, temperament, and behaviour characterised by the domestic dog is indicative of the power of artificial selection (© Nouvelles Images 2002).

The movement of humans and their dogs has resulted in extensive gene flow between domestic dog populations for many thousands of years, with mtDNA analysis revealing that dogs display a high degree of polymorphism that is neither breed-specific nor defined by geographical distribution (Tsuda *et al.* 1997). With modern breeding practices striving to achieve distinctive phenotypic uniformity, purebred dogs have become essentially closed gene pools (Vilà *et al.* 1999, Parker *et al.* 2004). Significant levels of inbreeding increase the proportion of homozygotes with the accompanying increased risk of genetic disorders if deleterious recessive alleles coalesce (Koskinen and Bredbacka 2000).

The modern domestic dog population consists of approximately 350 partially inbred genetic isolates (breeds) and a multitude of heterogeneous outbred mongrel dogs (Ostrander *et al.* 2000). The pedigree barrier usually restricts gene flow between these subpopulations to such an extent that 46% of the known genetic disorders associated with dogs occur predominantly or exclusively in one or a few breeds (Ostrander and Kruglyak 2000). This phenomenon is the result of the chance occurrence of recessive disease alleles in one breed but not another, mostly due to the small number of founding individuals and extensive breeding with “popular sires” and other closely related individuals (Ostrander *et al.* 2000). For example, the modern Irish Wolfhound is believed to have arisen from six individuals, and only five of the Leonburger breed survived in Europe after World War I (Wayne and Ostrander 1999). The increased prevalence of a particular disease condition in a breed can be further exaggerated by the inadvertent co-selection of a disease gene with a breed-specific trait (Brooks and Sargan 2001).

Thus, in parallel with the extraordinary variation displayed by domestic dogs, breeds commonly express specific genetic defects; for example, Dalmatians have deafness, Yorkshire Terriers have hydrocephalus and collies a series of ocular defects (Galibert *et al.* 2001). More than 370 canine diseases have been identified as either inherited or with significant inherited components, and many more are detected each year (Ostrander *et al.* 2000). The prevalence of recessively inherited disease traits is a result of the high levels of inbreeding associated with intensive artificial selection and the absence of strong selection against disease phenotypes (Richman *et al.* 2001). Outbred mongrels express inherited diseases fairly infrequently, due to the increased heterozygosity in the population whereby the unaffected gene copy provides a masking effect (Brooks and Sargan 2001).

However, further mtDNA analysis has revealed unexpectedly high levels of variability within certain breeds of dogs, probably due to the heterogeneous outbred nature of the founding individuals, and the relatively recent origin of many breeds during the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Vilà *et al.* 1999, Wayne and Ostrander 1999, Irion *et al.* 2003). Microsatellite marker heterozygosities of between 36% and 55% have been reported, reflecting the diverse gene pool of the founding populations and that breeds of dogs do not necessarily express high levels of genetic homogeneity (Wayne and Vilà 2001).

Significant levels of inbreeding and artificial selection would have been required for the rapid establishment of multiple breeds of dogs; the following studies have used microsatellite markers to investigate genetic diversity and population differentiation.

Fredholm and Winterø (1995) examined the similarities and divergence within and between different populations of *Canidae*, the Flat-coated Retriever and Dachshund (Table 2.4.), and the red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) and Arctic fox (*Alopex lagopus*). The two dog breeds had significantly different allele distribution frequencies and heterozygosities at individual loci, but total breed heterozygosities were comparable. The size range and number of alleles were similar, and breed-specific alleles were observed in all but one locus. Intra-breed diversity was only slightly less than that between wild canid species, but again significantly less than the total diversity in domestic dog breeds.

Pihkanen *et al.* (1996) examined two populations of German Shepherd Dogs (GSD), selected for either appearance or performance since the 1960's, and a composite of 34 other breeds as a reference population (Table 2.4.). The average allelic diversity in the combined GSD population was half that of the composite sample group, with the alleles of the former a subset of the latter, containing only a single unique allele. The average heterozygosity in each GSD subpopulation was similar, but the total less than that of the composite breed group. The homozygote-heterozygote proportions in the two subpopulations were in balance, indicating a relatively stable intrapopulation genetic structure. The genetic profile of the two subpopulations differed greatly from the composite breed population, with significant population differentiation ( $F_{ST} = 0.30$ ) between the combined GSD and composite breed populations. Such interbreed differentiation supports the concept of small founder populations and intense inbreeding in the early

stages of breed establishment. However, these findings were based on limited molecular data, with less than 30 individuals per population analysed for only three microsatellite markers. The relative measures of differentiation between the divergent GSD subpopulations were not investigated. The genetic diversity revealed by this study could have been influenced by the breeding strategies employed in different countries, with dogs selected for performance sampled from Germany (the ancestral population) and dogs selected for appearance, from Finland (a derived population).

Zajc *et al.* (1997) analysed the genetic variability within and between the Greyhound, Labrador Retriever and German Shepherd Dog (Table 2.4.). Relative measures of heterozygosity were less than that of humans or mice but similar to horses and cattle. The mean PIC value across all breeds, 0.5, was similar to the 0.52 calculated for domestic dogs by Ostrander *et al.* (1993). When compared with a composite group of other dog breeds, a substantial decrease in genetic variation was observed within all three breeds, probably due to the inbreeding associated with purebred dogs. Although a few breed-specific alleles were observed, a better measure of breed identification was the relative frequency and distribution of alleles across all the microsatellite loci. The H-W proportions of each breed were tested and significant allele frequency deviations were observed, indicating that none of the populations were in equilibrium, attributed to the limited sample size and non-random mating. Microsatellite genetic distances were used to determine the evolutionary relationships between breeds. Labrador Retrievers were approximately equidistant from the other breeds ( $D_{L,GH} = 0.028$ ,  $D_{L,GSD} = 0.031$ ); with Greyhounds and German Shepherd Dogs significantly separate ( $D_{GH,GSD} = 0.054$ ), indicating that the former was established more recently and that the latter two breeds diverged at an earlier stage.

Morera *et al.* (1999) studied genetic variation within and between five Spanish dog breeds: the Spanish Alano, Spanish Greyhound, Andalusian Hound, Spanish Water Dog and Maneto (Table 2.4.). The results indicated similar levels of genetic diversity between the breeds, with comparable allele counts and heterozygosities. Significant deviations from H-W equilibrium were detected at six of the 20 possible loci with an average heterozygote deficit at all loci for each breed. The levels of population differentiation between the breeds were relatively low, but still significant and thus used as estimates of genetic distance between the breeds. The shortest genetic distance was between the Spanish

Greyhound and Andalusian Hound ( $0.067 \pm 0.014$ ), with the Alano most separate from this group for it belongs to a different morphological group, the Moloses. The molecular data described indicates substantial variation within breeds of Spanish dogs, but less significant interbreed genetic variation than that reported between other breeds of dogs.

Koskinen and Bredbacka (2000) examined the population structure of five Finnish dog breeds: Golden Retrievers, German Shepherd Dogs, wire-haired Dachshunds, Pembroke Welsh Corgis and Bedlington Terriers (Table 2.4.). The Golden Retriever and German Shepherd Dog breeds had more than 18 000 registrations during the previous decade, the wire-haired Dachshunds and Pembroke Welsh Corgis had about 4 000 registrations, but only 138 Bedlington Terriers were registered during that period. This German Shepherd Dog sample group randomly included individuals from both the appearance and performance selection strategies. The frequency and distribution of alleles varied between breeds with the greatest level of genetic diversity usually found in the larger populations. However, the wire-haired Dachshunds displayed the highest levels of variation, indicating that this breed has the most extensive gene pool. Significant deviations from H-W equilibrium were detected at eight of the 50 loci, with the average H-W disequilibrium being statistically significant across all breeds. Positive  $F_{IS}$  estimates coincided consistently with the deviations from H-W equilibrium, indicating that disequilibrium was the result of a total heterozygote deficit (global  $F_{IS} = 0.058$ ). The Bedlington Terrier was a surprising exception with every locus examined being congruent with H-W proportions. Therefore, despite low levels of genetic diversity and a small population size, negligible inbreeding has occurred over recent generations. None of the breeds displayed a significant excess of  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$ , thus there was no indication of recent bottlenecks in any of the populations. All  $F_{ST}$  estimates between breeds were highly significant, indicating extensive population differentiation. Also, genetic distances suggested significant divergence between dog breeds, with the largest distance ( $0.975 \pm 0.229$ ) only slightly less than the lowest between humans and chimpanzees ( $D_S$  between 1.334 and 1.901). The molecular data obtained supports both the genetic isolation of dog breeds and the use of intensive inbreeding and artificial selection in the history of these breeds.

Altet *et al.* (2001) investigated the loss of microsatellite variability in an inbred population by examining three generations of closely related Rottweilers (inbreeding coefficient of 16%) as compared with three populations of unrelated dogs (no common grandparents): Golden Retrievers, Labrador Retrievers and a composite sample of purebred dogs (Table 2.4.). The mean PIC estimate for the Rottweiler population remained similar to those of the other breeds, it was suggested that this sustained polymorphism might be explained in two ways. Either that the animals used for breeding happened to express relatively high levels of heterozygosity or that enough animals were used for breeding to maintain the variability. The mean PIC estimate for the composite sample of 24 dog breeds was significantly greater than that of each of the breeds examined, for it incorporated several breed-specific alleles and expressed an artificially high level of genetic diversity. While breed-specific alleles were revealed in most purebred dog populations, a better measure of breed identification was the relative PIC estimate. For example, at locus CXX366 both the Golden Retriever and Labrador Retriever populations had the same four alleles, but the PIC values (0.427 and 0.085, respectively) were due to the different distribution of these alleles. It was suggested that the microsatellite data acquired from heterogeneous populations could not always be extrapolated to individual breeds.

Irion *et al.* (2003) analysed intrabreed diversity and interbreed differentiation in 28 recognised breeds, representing all seven of the American Kennel Club (AKC) breed groups (Table 2.4.). The German Shepherd Dog, Dachshund and Staffordshire Bull Terrier were not included in the breeds examined. The approximate population size of each breed was calculated according to the number of registrations over the previous five years, with the largest populations more than 100-times greater than the smallest. The approximate age of each breed was determined as the period since official recognition by the breed registry. The molecular data revealed a considerable degree of genetic variation, with the smaller populations tending towards 6% fewer alleles per breed than the larger populations and the older breeds tending towards 7% fewer alleles. Across all the breeds, there was a 3% correlation between average breed heterozygosity ( $H_B$ ) and estimated population size. There was a more robust correlation between  $H_B$  and time since breed recognition, with the more recently recognised breeds having 19% higher  $H_B$  than the older breeds. Tests for H-W equilibrium showed that an average of 27% of the

loci per breed were in disequilibrium. The number of loci in H-W equilibrium was plotted for each breed against estimated population size and time since breed recognition, and indicated a 10% increase in the larger populations and 4% increase in the more recently recognised breeds. Thus the highest levels of genetic polymorphism would be expected in the breed with the largest population size and most recent origin. Phylogenetic analysis, measured by genetic distances from allele frequencies, implied two significant relationships between the 28 breeds. Bull Terriers and Miniature Bull Terriers were grouped together in all trees generated for the final consensus tree, and Australian Shepherds diverged significantly from the remaining 27 breeds (95.9% confidence), possibly due to the geographic isolation of this breed. The extreme polymorphic nature of the microsatellite panel, with additional allelic forms generated at a relatively high rate, chosen specifically for use in genome screening, must be taken into account for these factors may cause breeds to appear more heterogeneous than implied by their pedigrees.

Parker *et al.* (2004) investigated genetic relationships and classification in domestic dog breeds (Table 2.4.). SNP data was used to estimate average genetic distances between breeds ( $F_{ST} = 0.33$ ), which verified the intense isolation of breeds. A Bayesian model-based clustering algorithm was used to identify genetically diverse subpopulations according to patterns of microsatellite allele frequencies. Individual dogs from nearly all the breeds clustered together, and direct assignment tests accurately grouped 99% of the dogs to each breed. Microsatellite typing combined with phylogenetic analysis identified four genetic clusters that included breeds of similar geographic origin, morphology, and/or functional role. One cluster included breeds from Central Africa, the Middle East, Tibet, China, Japan and the Arctic. It has been suggested that early pariah dogs originated in Asia and migrated with nomadic people southwards to Africa and northwards to the Arctic, therefore these breeds may be representative of the true ancestral gene pool. However, most breeds radiated more recently from Europe and probably correspond to the explosion of well-defined breeds in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century. Further analysis of this group revealed a clustering of Mastiff-like breeds, another of herding breeds, and a third of the hunting breeds. This genetic classification substantiates some conventional breed categories and exposes other previously unidentified groupings.

Reference	Number of Loci	Breeds	Country of Origin	Sample Size	Alleles / Locus	H <sub>T</sub>	PIC	F <sub>IS</sub>	F <sub>ST</sub>
Fredholm and Winterø (1995)	20	Flat-coated Retrievers Dachshunds	Denmark Denmark	33 32	4.5 5.6	0.52 0.55	- -	- -	- -
Pihkanen <i>et al.</i> (1996)	3	Show German Shepherd Dogs Sport German Shepherd Dogs Composite of 34 Breeds	Finland Germany Finland	25 23 28	5.0 5.0 10.0	0.58 0.63 0.86	- - -	-0.03 0.03 0.29	- 0.30 -
Zajc <i>et al.</i> (1997)	19	Greyhounds Labrador Retrievers German Shepherd Dogs Composite of 15 Breeds	Ireland U.K./Slovenia U.K./Slovenia U.K./Slovenia	50 50 50 22	2.5 3.3 3.3 4.2	0.36 0.48 0.43 0.58	0.31 0.43 0.38 0.50	- - - -	- - - -
Moreira <i>et al.</i> (1999)	4	Spanish Alano Spanish Greyhounds Andalusian Hounds Spanish Water Dogs Maneto	Spain Spain Spain Spain Spain	35 30 37 28 32	5.0 6.5 6.3 5.8 7.0	0.70 0.74 0.71 0.77 0.76	0.64 0.69 0.67 0.72 0.71	0.09	0.11

Reference	Number of Loci	Breeds	Country of Origin	Sample Size	Alleles / Locus	H <sub>T</sub>	PIC	F <sub>IS</sub>	F <sub>ST</sub>
Koskinen and Bredbacka (2000)	10	Golden Retrievers German Shepherd Dogs Wire-haired Dachshunds	Finland Finland Finland	50 50 50	5.6 6.4 8.0	0.61 0.62 0.67	- - -	0.01 0.04 0.07	- - 0.23
		Pembroke Welsh Corgis Bedlington Terriers	Finland Finland	50 50	5.9 5.2	0.55 0.55	- -	0.13 0.02	
Altet <i>et al.</i> (2001)	10	Rottweilers Golden Retrievers Labrador Retrievers	Spain Spain Spain	360 33 23	3.8 4.1 4.4	0.45 0.59 0.52	0.40 0.52 0.45	- - -	- - -
		Composite of 24 Breeds	Spain	95	7.3	0.55	0.71	-	-
Irion <i>et al.</i> (2003)	100	28 Breeds	U.S.A.	29 - 45	4.0 - 8.1	0.39 - 0.76	-	-	0.23
Parker <i>et al.</i> (2004)	96	85 Breeds	U.S.A.	384	-	-	0.65	-	-

**Table 2.4.** The results of molecular genetic studies of domestic dogs, indicating the number of microsatellite markers, the breeds investigated, their country of origin, sample size, degree of breed heterozygosity (H<sub>T</sub>), PIC values, coefficients of inbreeding (F<sub>IS</sub>) and the mean standardised variance in allele frequencies among populations (F<sub>ST</sub>).

## 2.5. Population History of the Breeds

### 2.5.1. The German Shepherd Dog



**Figure 2.5.** Xavier von der Kahler Heide (left, S. von Kraayenburg), South African Sieger 2001 and 2003, illustrates the conformation and appearance of a typical show dog. Amos vom Chantian (right, S. Lombard), South African Schutzhund Champion 2002 and 2003, is representative of a typical sport dog.

The ancestors of the German Shepherd Dog (Figure 2.5.) can be traced back to the collection of dogs used to herd and guard flocks of sheep in 19<sup>th</sup> century Germany. On the 3<sup>rd</sup> of April 1899, Captain Max von Stephanitz attended one of the first dog shows held in Karlsruhe, Germany where he purchased a grey herding dog named Hektor Linksrhein for it conformed greatly to his ideal of utility and intelligence (Willis 1977). On the 22<sup>nd</sup> of April of the same year he formed the *Verein für Deutscher Schäferhunde* or SV (Club for German Shepherd Dogs), ushering in the second era of the breed; before 1899 there were German sheepdogs, thereafter German Shepherd Dogs (Kern 1994).

The German Shepherd Dog Breed Standard was drawn up at the first membership meeting of the S.V. in Frankfurt on the 20<sup>th</sup> of September 1899 ([www.gsdfederation.co.za](http://www.gsdfederation.co.za)), and official tests of performance called *Schutzhund* (protection dog) that encompass three disciplines; tracking, obedience and protection work, were introduced. These competitions emphasised the working abilities of the breed in keeping with the development of a dog with "a highly developed sense of smell, enormous courage, intrepidity, agility and, despite its aggressiveness, great obedience". ([www.cluebus.com/holly/gsdfaq.html](http://www.cluebus.com/holly/gsdfaq.html)).

The S.V. controlled and directed breeding throughout Germany by exercising authority over which dogs and bitches could be bred and which of the offspring could be kept and raised from each litter (Willis 1977). The dog purchased by von Stephanitz, renamed Horand von Grafrath, was designated S.Z. 1 as the first dog registered with the S.V. Bitches were sought that would perfectly complement his conformation, temperament and utilitarian type and he is regarded as the founding sire of the breed (Pihkanen *et al.* 1996).

The role of the pastoral sheepdog was to become virtually obsolete with the growing industrialisation of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. But the German Shepherd Dog remained in demand for the breed could adapt to other work, for instance being the first breed trained as Guide Dogs for the blind (Kern 1994). During World War I, they were used both by the German military and the Red Cross, and at the end of the war servicemen from America and Europe returned home with stories of these dogs, catapulting the breed into the limelight.

Following the Great War anything German fell out of popular favour and breeds of dogs suffered together with Beethoven and Bach. The German Shepherd Dog was renamed simply Shepherd Dog in the United States of America and Alsatian in Great Britain after the German-French border area of Alsace-Lorraine (Kern 1994). However, the name in German is *Deutsche Schäferhund*, the "German Shepherd Dog", and after numerous campaigns the name of the breed was officially re-instated in 1977 (Kern 1994).

The German Shepherd Dog Breed Standard has remained relatively unchanged since its inception a century ago, however this does not apply to the dogs themselves. German Shepherd Dogs across the world looked quite similar up to the 1940's, but today there are, amongst others, West German and East German show and sport dogs, English Alsatians and American show dogs. These types are distinct and easily distinguishable due to varying physical construction and temperament as a result of alternative interpretations of the breed guidelines, and fashion trends in different countries. Functional preferences have also played an important role, with breed purists placing the emphasis on the showing and focussing on correct conformation and movement, and dog-sport enthusiasts focusing on the dog's innate desire to perform, and its intelligence and trainability.

Show dogs (Figure 2.5.) are preferentially black and tan in colour and have a distinctive shape, with a sloping topline, being slightly long in comparison to the height, the construction enabling an effortless and long-reaching trotting gait. The topline should curve gently from the tip of the ears over the wither and back to the end of the tail. The overall impression of a typical show dog is that of a powerful, well-balanced dog that is substantial but not heavy or clumsy.

Sport dogs (Figure 2.5.) are often sable in colour (black overlay on grey or light-brown), but little attention has been given to specific physical conformation. Selection for those mental attributes that comprise the ideal sport dog has resulted in a more square shape with a flatter topline from wither to croup, and usually smaller in stature and more agile. Breeding programmes focus on temperament and the ability to perform willingly and tirelessly, these dogs must be capable of learning and remembering, determined and self-confident in order to be successful in dog-sport competition.

The German Shepherd Dog has proven popular with 7 990 individuals registered with the Kennel Union of South Africa (KUSA) and 7 415 with the German Shepherd Dog Federation of South Africa for the years 1993 to 2003. However, with little or no compromise on either side, a near complete division exists worldwide within the breed.

### 2.5.2. The Dachshund



**Figure 2.6.** Red and black and tan standard short-haired Dachshunds (left, J. Arthur), and a red long-haired miniature Dachshund (right, Scanziani 1988).

“*Dachs*” is the German word for badger for the standard Dachshund (Figure 2.6.) was bred specifically for the purpose of hunting these animals (Van der Lyn 1995). This sport required a short-legged hound with a well-developed sense of smell, great courage and perseverance that would burrow underground in pursuit of its quarry (Palmer 1981).

The Dachshund is derived from the oldest German hunting breeds, and was first mentioned in the book *La Venerie* (The Hunt) written by Jaques du Fouilloux in 1561 (Van der Lyn 1995). Towards the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, the “Badger Fighter” was described as “*a peculiar, low, crook-legged species*” (Raine 1989).

In the mid-1700's, refugees of the French Revolution arrived in Germany and Austria, often accompanied by French Basset hounds (Nicholas and Foy 1987). Crossbreeding between these dogs and the native Dachshund resulted in shortened ears and a more pointed foreface (Nicholas and Foy 1987).

The miniature Dachshund was also established for a specific purpose, for towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century German sportsmen wanted a hunting dog that could go to ground after rabbits and foxes (Palmer 1981). The smallest standard Dachshunds were crossed with toy terriers and Miniature Pinschers to produce this miniature type (Palmer 1981).

The first Dachshund Club was founded in Germany in 1840, with the official Breed Standard being characterised in 1879 (Adler 1975). Today, there are three varieties of coat-type, the long, short and wire-haired Dachshunds of both the standard and miniature breed types (Figure 2.6.). The long-haired type was acquired by selectively crossing the original short-haired Dachshund with the spaniel and the old German gundogs, the Stöberhund and Wachtel, and received official recognition in 1886 (Scanziani 1988, Raine 1989). The wire-haired type resulted from selective crossing of the short-haired variety with the Scottish and Dandie Dinmont terriers and Miniature Wire-haired Pinschers and received official recognition in 1898 (Palmer 1981, Scanziani 1988, Raine 1989).

After World War I, anti-German sentiments caused the breed to be reviled and detested to such an extent that dogs were even stoned in the street (Van der Lyn 1995). Similarly, after World War II, political prejudice caused the number of individuals in the breed to reach close to obscurity (Palmer 1981). The Dachshund was chosen as the mascot for the 1972 Olympic games held in Munich, Germany, helping to advertise and promote the breed (Adler 1975).

Dachshunds are still bred for hunting, but today their function is mostly as companion dogs (Palmer 1981). The breed has become popular due to the retention of their inherent characteristics of bravery and loyalty, with 655 standard Dachshunds and 6 070 miniature Dachshunds registered in the Hound Group with the Kennel Union of South Africa for the years 1993 to 2003.

### 2.5.3. The Staffordshire Bull Terrier



**Figure 2.7.** An example of a tan (left, [www.donellas.co.uk](http://www.donellas.co.uk)) and a brindle (right, [www.staffordshirebullterrierdogs.com](http://www.staffordshirebullterrierdogs.com)) Staffordshire bull terrier.

The Staffordshire Bull Terrier (Figure 2.7.) was specifically developed for the once fashionable sports of bull-baiting and dog-fighting (Palmer 1981). Once these blood sports were prohibited, enthusiasts began to promote the breed as a companion dog. Official recognition by the British Kennel Club was received in the mid-1930's with a Breed Standard being drawn up and a Breed Club formed in Cradley Heath, South Staffordshire (Palmer 1981).

Bull-baiting was first endorsed by the Earl Warrenne, Lord of Stamford, in Lincolnshire when on the 13<sup>th</sup> of November 1209, he happened to see an enraged bull being tormented by a pack of dogs on the village green (Palmer 1981). Dogs previously used for bear-baiting proved too cumbersome and thus vulnerable to going and tossing, and faster, more nimble, lower-to-ground dogs were required for bull-baiting (Gordon 1986). The bulldog, as evolved from the Old English Mastiff, was crossbred with various English terrier breeds of that time to produce the forerunner of the modern Staffordshire Bull Terrier (Gordon 1986).

An appeal was made in 1802 to prohibit both bear and bull-baiting, but it was in 1835 before the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (now the RSPCA) was able to organize a successful test case at Lincoln Assizes (Gordon 1986). Thereafter, small Bulldogs and the Bulldog terrier crosses were used for dog-fighting, a sport made popular when the more sensational bear and bull-baiting were removed from the public scene (Gordon 1986). Although the Prohibitions Act of 1835 also outlawed dog and cock-fighting, these events continued for they were more adaptable to secret and underground staging (Gordon 1986).

Mr Joseph Dunn of Cradley Heath should receive most of the credit for saving the Staffordshire Bull Terrier from obscurity. He and other admirers of the breed eventually received permission to display the breed in the Any Variety Terrier Class at a show held in Cradley Heath in the spring of 1935, and in July of the same year they founded the first Staffordshire Bull Terrier Club to sponsor and promote the breed (Gordon 1986).

Although the primary function of the Staffordshire Bull Terrier has been rendered null and void, the breed has since proven extremely popular as companion dogs, with 20 472 individuals registered in the Terrier Group with the Kennel Union of South Africa for the years 1993 to 2003. The Staffordshire Bull Terrier has been described as having *"indomitable courage, high intelligence and tenacity, he is affectionate with friends and his character is one of trustworthiness and stability"* (Gordon 1986). The breed can be characterised as "honest" for their true nature should be one that is positive and straightforward, being intelligent rather than shrewd (Gordon 1986).

# Chapter 3

## Materials and Methods

### 3.1. Sample Selection

Whole blood or tissue samples from 156 outbred mongrel dogs were collected from the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (SPCA) in Cape Town, Johannesburg and Pretoria, the Animal Welfare at Bellville South, Cape Town and the Port Elizabeth Community Centre. Whole blood samples or buccal cell swabs of 101 German Shepherd Dogs registered with the German Shepherd Dog Federation of South Africa were collected from various provinces in South Africa and from dogs imported from Germany or other European countries. Buccal cell swabs from 26 Dachshunds, 18 Staffordshire Bull Terriers, and 37 pedigreed dogs representing 30 breeds registered with the Kennel Union of South Africa, were collected from dog shows, veterinary practices, boarding kennels, and private dog owners.

Samples were collected from different geographic areas, for a particular breed might be more inbred within a limited region. First order relatives (parent-offspring and full siblings) were excluded from this data set to reduce the possibility of sampling bias, but the structure of the breed prevented the exclusion of paternal half-siblings. Large sample sizes were selected, where possible, to minimise the effect of second-generation relatives.

The composite group included the following breeds: Airedale, Beagle, Belgian Tervueren Shepherd, Border Collie, Bernese Mountain Dog, Bouvier des Flandres, Boxer, Bulldog, Cocker Spaniel, Dobermann, Elkhound, German Short-haired Pointer, Giant Schnauzer, Golden Retriever, Great Dane, Greyhound, Irish Setter, Jack Russell Terrier, Labrador Retriever, Mastiff, Miniature Schnauzer, Rhodesian Ridgeback, Rough Collie, Scottish Terrier, Siberian Husky, Standard French Poodle, Standard Schnauzer, Weimaraner, Whippet and Wire-haired Fox Terrier.

### **3.2. DNA Isolation Protocols**

DNA was isolated from either whole blood, tissue, or buccal cell samples for each of the individuals included in this research. Reagent blank controls were included and processed through each DNA extraction and quantification procedure.

#### **3.2.1. Whole Blood Extraction**

Approximately 10ml of whole blood were collected in two 7ml Vacutainer® K3 EDTA Tubes (Becton Dickinson Vacutainer Systems) using either 20 or 22 gauge Vacutainer® Needles (Becton Dickinson Vacutainer Systems). The samples were stored at -20°C to initiate red blood cell lysis before undergoing DNA extraction.

Red blood cell lysis buffer (Appendix III) was added to the defrosted blood and centrifuged at 3 000rpm for 10 minutes (Sigma®-302K Centrifuge), the supernatant discarded. The process was repeated until the supernatant was clear, indicating that all red blood cells had lysed, the pellets were transferred to 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes (B&M Scientific).

The following DNA salt precipitation process was employed (Miller *et al.* 1988):

The pellets were resuspended in 450µl saline EDTA solution (Appendix III), 50µl 10% SDS (BDH Laboratory Supplies) and 60µl 20mg/ml Proteinase K (Roche Diagnostics) and incubated overnight in a water bath (Shinko GCS) at 56 °C, being periodically agitated on a vortex machine (Supermixer). Thereafter, each sample was aliquoted 225µl 6M (Saturated) NaCl (Saarchem-Holpro Analytic) and centrifuged at 10 000rpm for 10 minutes at 5 °C (Sigma® - 2MK Centrifuge). The supernatant was collected in fresh sterile 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes (B&M Scientific) and precipitated with approximately 1ml ice-cold isopropanol (BDH Laboratory Supplies). The samples were placed at -20°C for two hours, and then centrifuged at 10 000rpm for 10 minutes at 5°C, discarding the supernatant. The pellets were washed twice with 70% ethanol (Saarchem-Holpro Analytic) by centrifugation at 10 000rpm for 10 minutes at 5°C and discarding the supernatant.

The DNA pellets were air-dried and resuspended with between 100µl and 500µl 1× TE buffer (Appendix III) and incubated in a water bath (Shinko GCS) at 56°C for two hours.

### 3.2.2. Tissue Extraction

Tissue samples were either dissected from uteri and epididymides during sterilisation procedures, or as muscle biopsies from euthanased dogs, using sterile surgical blades (Paramount). These samples were stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  to prevent cell degradation before undergoing DNA extraction.

Tissue samples were finely chopped and rinsed in several washes of saline EDTA and transferred to sterile 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes (B&M Scientific) for the DNA salt precipitation process described above, except that these samples were incubated at  $56^{\circ}\text{C}$  with  $60\mu\text{l}$   $20\text{mg/ml}$  Proteinase K (Roche Diagnostics) for several days, until the solution had reached a homogenous state.

### 3.2.3. Buccal Swab Extraction

Two ear-buds were applied to the gums and cheeks of each dog to collect buccal cells. The swabs were placed in a  $450\mu\text{l}$  saline EDTA (Appendix III) and  $50\mu\text{l}$  10% SDS (BDH Laboratory Supplies) solution in sterile 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes (B&M Scientific) and kept at room temperature for 24 to 36 hours. The swab was removed from the solution, and each sample was aliquoted  $40\mu\text{l}$   $20\text{mg/ml}$  Proteinase K (Roche Diagnostics), continuing with the DNA salt precipitation process described above.

### 3.3. DNA Quantification and Dilution

The DNA concentration ( $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ ) of each extracted sample was calculated by measuring the absorbency of light through the solution at both 260 and 280nm, either with a Gene Quant II RNA/DNA Calculator (Pharmacia Biotech) or an 8450 A Diode Array Spectrophotometer (Hewlett Packard). The ratio of protein contamination, with an optimum value of 2, was calculated by the absorbency ratio of  $A_{260}/A_{280}$ . A waterblank control sample was included in every process.

DNA stock solutions of each sample were diluted with sterile distilled water ( $\text{sdH}_2\text{O}$ ) to produce working solutions of each sample with a final DNA concentration of  $100\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ . DNA stock solutions were stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and working dilutions at  $5^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

### 3.4. Microsatellite Markers

Four polymorphic canine microsatellite markers (Microsatellite loci 1 - 4, Table 3.1. and Table 3.2.) were selected from the Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Centre Dog Genome Project ([www.fhcrc.org/science/dog\\_genome/](http://www.fhcrc.org/science/dog_genome/)). The oligonucleotide primer pairs were synthesised by Beckman Instruments Inc. (Oligo 1 000M DNA Synthesizer). Each microsatellite marker was analysed by the manual end-labelling of the forward primer with a standard [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Amersham) and T4 polynucleotide kinase (BioLabs) reaction. The amplified PCR product was visualised by standard polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. A nonrecombinant M13 control sequence (Appendix III) was run on each gel adjacent to the reaction samples as an absolute size standard for comparisons between different gels.

A further eleven microsatellite markers (Microsatellite loci 5 - 15, Table 3.1. and Table 3.2.) were selected from the panel for canine parentage verification as voted for at the 28<sup>th</sup> conference of the International Society of Animal Genetics (ISAG) in August 2002 in Göttingen, Germany ([www.vgl.ucdavis.edu/research/canine/ISAG/index.html](http://www.vgl.ucdavis.edu/research/canine/ISAG/index.html)). Each forward primer was labelled with a fluorescent dye (Applied Biosystems) for the visualisation of the amplified PCR product by automated fragment size analysis on an ABI Prism™ 310 Genetic Analyzer. A number of these fluorescent-labelled loci have characteristic peaks that show two parts separated by only a single base pair. This phenomenon is the result of Taq polymerase attaching a non-template A nucleotide to the end of the amplification product, and the resultant biphasic peak represents the true allele and the allele-plus-A peak. Therefore, to ensure reliable genotyping, the INRA21, AHTh171, and FH2001 loci have been consistently sized according to the typically large allele-plus-A peaks.

	Locus	Size (bp)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	GC (%)	MW (g/M)	OD 1nM	Nucleotide Sequence
1	DTRCN1 F	20	50	45	6098	4552	AATGCTGACACCAGTAGCTT
	DTRCN1 R	20	48	40	6038	5252	TTCTGCCTGTTTATCTGTCA
2	FH2137 F	21	52	48	6339	4630	GCAGTCCCTTATTCCAACATG
	FH2137 R	20	50	45	6032	5115	CCCCAAGTTTTGCATCTGTT
3	FH2140 F	20	50	45	6176	4376	GGGGAAGCCATTTTTAAAGC
	FH2140 R	20	54	55	6089	4810	TGACCCTCTGGCATCTAGGA
4	FH2328 F	22	51	41	6098	4552	ACCAGGTAGTTTTCAGAAATGC
	FH2328 R	20	52	50	6038	5252	AGTTATGGGACTTGAGGCTG
5	AHT121 F	20	48	40	6095	4808	TATTGCGAATGTCACTGCTT
	AHT121 R	20	50	45	6011	4895	ATAGATACTCTCTCTCCG
6	INRA 21 F	24	54	42	7369	3912	ATGTAGTTGAGATTTCTCCTACGG
	INRA 21 R	22	49	36	6820	4188	TAATGGCTGATTTATTTGGTGG
7	AHTh171F	22	57	55	6670	4177	CTCACCAGGCATAGACACTCAG
	AHTh171R	19	51	53	5674	5531	CTCATTTGTTACGCACCC
8	AHTk253F	22	57	55	6829	4255	ACATTTGTGGGCATTGGGGCTG
	AHTk253R	22	59	59	6772	3982	TGCACATGGAGGACAAGCACGC
9	CXX279 F	21	50	43	6459	4063	TGCTCAATGAAATAAGCCAGG
	CXX279 R	20	54	55	6041	5079	GGCGACCTTCATTCTCTGAC
10	FH2001 F	21	52	48	6264	5400	TCCTCCTCTTCTTTCCATTGG
	FH2001 R	24	54	42	7453	3413	TGAACAGAGTTAAGGATAGACACG
11	FH2164 F	22	53	45	6748	3946	GATTATGACTCGAACCAAAGGC
	FH2164 R	22	53	45	6818	3912	TGGAGGAAGTTCATTAAGCAGC
12	FH2611 F	20	52	50	6131	4363	GAAGCCTATGAGCCAGATCA
	FH2611 R	22	51	41	6679	4598	TGTTAGATGATGCCTTCCTTCT
13	FH2247 F	24	51	33	7213	4112	TTCCCCTTACTTTATCATAGCAT
	FH2247 R	21	50	43	6468	3957	CAAATGCAGATTAGGGACACA
14	FH2289 F	21	54	52	6441	4392	CATGGTCTCAGGATCCTAGGA
	FH2289 R	24	54	42	7282	4163	CTAAGCATTCTCTCTGATGGTCTT
15	PEZ08 F	20	48	40	6095	4808	TATCGACTTTATCACTGTGG
	PEZ08 R	20	52	50	6095	4878	ATGGAGCCTCATGTCTCATC

**Table 3.1.** Forward (F) and reverse (R) primer sequences for PCR amplification of microsatellite markers, indicating locus name, primer length (bp), melting temperature (T<sub>m</sub>), GC content, molecular weight (MW) and optical density (OD) (Oligocalculator).

	Locus	Chromosome	Label	T <sub>A</sub> (°C)	Allele size range (bp)	N <sub>A</sub>	Type	Repeat Motif
1	DTRCN1	CFA 17	<sup>32</sup> P	60	94 - 148	13	tetra	(GATA) <sub>n</sub>
2	FH2137	CFA 03	<sup>32</sup> P	63	150 - 194	11	tetra	(GAAA) <sub>n</sub>
3	FH2140	CFA 05	<sup>32</sup> P	58	129 - 169	11	tetra	(GAAA) <sub>n</sub>
4	FH2328	CFA 29	<sup>32</sup> P	52	180 - 220	11	tetra	(GAAA) <sub>n</sub>
5	AHT121	CFA 13	Fam	60	79 - 113	15	di	(CA) <sub>n</sub>
6	INRA21	CFA 21	Vic	60	86 - 102	9	di	(TG) <sub>n</sub>
7	AHTh171	CFA 06	Vic	60	122 - 142	11	di	(GT) <sub>n</sub>
8	AHTk253	CFA 23	Fam	60	279 - 297	10	di	(TG) <sub>n</sub>
9	CXX279	CFA 22	Ned	60	113 - 223	11	di	(CA) <sub>n</sub>
10	FH2001	CFA 23	Fam	60	120 - 160	11	tetra	(GATA) <sub>n</sub> int
11	FH2164	CFA 06	Ned	60	246 - 354	16	tetra	(GAAA) <sub>n</sub>
12	FH2611	CFA 36	Vic	60	185 - 229	11	tetra	-
13	FH2247	Unlinked	Fam	60	171 - 263	22	tetra	-
14	FH2289	CFA 27	Vic	60	239 - 351	22	tetra	(GAAA) <sub>n</sub>
15	PEZ08	CFA 17	Ned	60	215 - 247	9	tetra	-

**Table 3.2.** Microsatellite markers indicating their location on different canine chromosomes (CFA), whether labelled with radioactive [ $\gamma$ <sup>32</sup>P] dATP (<sup>32</sup>P) or one of three different coloured fluorescent dyes, the annealing temperature (T<sub>A</sub>) of each primer pair, the range of allele sizes (bp) and number of alleles at each locus (N<sub>A</sub>) identified in this research, and the di- or tetranucleotide nature of the repeat motif.

### 3.5. Radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-Labelled Microsatellite Markers

#### 3.5.1. PCR Protocol

Dilutions of both forward and reverse oligonucleotide primers were prepared with a final concentration of 50pmol/ $\mu\text{l}$ , according to the following equation:

$$\text{Concentration (pmol}/\mu\text{l}) = \text{Optical density (OD)} / \epsilon$$

$$\text{Where } \epsilon = \Sigma\text{C} + \Sigma\text{G} + \Sigma\text{T} + \Sigma\text{A},$$

$$\text{and } \Sigma\text{C} = \text{C}_n \times 7.3 \text{ ml}/\mu\text{mol}$$

$$\Sigma\text{G} = \text{G}_n \times 11.7 \text{ ml}/\mu\text{mol}$$

$$\Sigma\text{T} = \text{T}_n \times 8.8 \text{ ml}/\mu\text{mol}$$

$$\Sigma\text{A} = \text{A}_n \times 15.4 \text{ ml}/\mu\text{mol}$$

Microsatellite analysis was performed with [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled primers for the visualisation of the amplified PCR product. All Polymerase Chain Reactions (PCR) were set up under sterile conditions in a separate laboratory from the processing laboratory, in order to eliminate the possibility of DNA amplicon contamination. A negative control and at least one positive control were included in every reaction.

Each forward primer was end-labelled by a standard [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Amersham) and T4 polynucleotide kinase (Biolabs) reaction, whereby ATP molecules including the radioactive  $^{32}\text{P}$  isotope were incorporated in the oligonucleotide primer sequence. The reaction reagents were aliquoted together in a 0.5ml Eppendorf tube (B&M Scientific) to make up the primer end-labelling mix (Table 3.3.). All steps utilising radioactivity were completed under the necessary safety conditions. The reaction was accomplished by incubation for at least 90min at 37°C and then 80°C for 2min (Hybaid Thermal Reactor) and then centrifuged briefly (Beckman Microfuge E™) and stored at -20°C.

Reagent	Stock Concentration	Required Concentration	Quantity per 10 Samples
sdH <sub>2</sub> O			6µl
Forward primer	50µM	7.5µM	1.5µl
PNK buffer (BioLabs)	10×	1×	1µl
T4 PNK (BioLabs)	10U/µl	1U/µl	1µl
[γ <sup>32</sup> P] dATP (Amersham)	20µCi/µl	1µCi/µl	0.5µl
<b>Final Volume</b>			<b>10µl</b>

**Table 3.3.** The primer end-labelling mix used for a standard [γ<sup>32</sup>P] dATP (Amersham) and T4 polynucleotide kinase (PNK) (Biolabs) reaction for ten samples.

The reagents of the PCR reaction mix were aliquoted aseptically in a 0.5ml Eppendorf tube (B&M Scientific) and added to the end-labelled primer mix to make up the final master mix (Table 3.4.). The DNA samples were aliquoted, 1µl of 100ng/µl DNA solution, added to 9µl of the PCR master mix. All PCR reactions were carried out in a final volume of 10µl using 0.2ml Thin Wall PCR<sup>®</sup> Tubes (Whitehead Scientific), with one drop (~20µl) of mineral oil (Kimix) added to each sample to prevent evaporation during the PCR reaction.

The amplification reactions were performed in a PCR Thermal Cycler (Stratagene<sup>®</sup> RoboCycler<sup>®</sup> 96) using the following programme: 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 45sec, annealing at the specific T<sub>A</sub> for 45sec, extension at 72°C for 45sec and then a final extension at 72°C for 30min to complete the reaction. The specific annealing temperatures (T<sub>A</sub>) for each microsatellite marker are listed in Table 3.2.

The post-PCR samples were each aliquoted 4µl loading buffer (Appendix III) and stored at -20°C before undergoing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.

Reagent	Given Concentration	Required Concentration	Quantity per 10 Samples
End-labelled forward primer			10 $\mu$ l
sdH <sub>2</sub> O			50.07 $\mu$ l
Reverse primer	50 $\mu$ M	7.5 $\mu$ M	1.5 $\mu$ l
Mg-free buffer (Promega)	10 $\times$	1 $\times$	10 $\mu$ l
MgCl <sub>2</sub> (Promega)	25mM	15mM	6 $\mu$ l
dNTPs (Amersham)	100mM	8mM	0.8 $\mu$ l
Taq polymerase (Promega)	5U/ $\mu$ l	0.5U/ $\mu$ l	1 $\mu$ l
<b>Final Volume</b>			<b>90<math>\mu</math>l</b>

**Table 3.4.** The above reagents in the PCR reaction mix were added to the end-labelled forward primer and used to amplify the microsatellite marker for ten DNA samples.

### 3.5.2. Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis

The radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}$ P] dATP-labelled amplified PCR products were visualised by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE), with alleles being separated according to size. The standard PAGE protocol was followed, using a 6% acrylamide solution (Appendix III) and 1 $\times$  TBE running buffer (Appendix III), prepared in a purpose-built vertical buffer tank electrophoresis apparatus, approximately 40cm in length. An M13 control sequencing reaction, the A-T ladder (Appendix III), was run adjacent to the samples as an absolute size marker for comparative analysis to determine individual allele sizes (bp).

Post-PCR samples and A-T ladder, combined with loading buffer, were heat denatured at 90°C for 3min and then held at 6°C (Stratagene<sup>®</sup> RoboCycler<sup>®</sup> 96) to prevent reannealing of the DNA strands. Electrophoresis was performed at 65W for approximately 30min to allow the gel apparatus and running buffer to reach optimum temperature. Five microlitres of the denatured product was loaded per sample well. Gel electrophoresis continued at 65W for approximately 6 hours, depending on ambient conditions.

After electrophoresis, gels were fixed to Replica Blotting paper (Waltons Stationery), covered with cling-wrap (Klinga), and dried under vacuum for an hour at 80°C in a Drygel Slab gel dryer (Hoffer Scientific Instruments) attached to a vacuum freeze-dryer (VirTis). Microsatellite marker alleles were visualised by exposure to autoradiographic film (AGFA) for between 12 and 72hrs at -70°C (Revco Freezer).

The autoradiographs were developed in X-ray developer solution (Matalex) for a few minutes until allele bands were visible, placed in a 2% acetic acid (BDH) stop solution before being fixed in a 20% solution of Rapid Fixer (Ilford Hypam). The gel was well rinsed in running water and dried in a gel dryer (Durst UT100) before being analysed manually on a lightbox (Kodak Coldlight Illuminator).

### **3.6. Fluorescent-Labelled Microsatellite Markers**

#### **3.6.1. PCR Protocol**

All PCR reactions were prepared aseptically in a laminar flow hood (Laminar Flow Systems Ltd Lamarflo) in a laboratory separate from the DNA isolation laboratory, oligonucleotide primers were stored and aliquoted in a separate room, and post-PCR samples were prepared under ultraviolet light in a laminar flow hood (Laminar Flow Systems Ltd Lamarflo) to prevent contamination of either reagents or DNA samples.

The forward primers (Applied Biosystems) of all eleven microsatellite markers, labelled with FAM™, VIC™ or NED™ fluorescent dyes, were aliquoted with the corresponding reverse primers to make up the primer mix for the multiplex PCR. The concentration of each primer pair varied between 0.02 and 0.67µM, according to the published protocol ([www.vgl.ucdavis.edu/research/canine/ISAG/CurrentISAGPanelsAug2002.htm](http://www.vgl.ucdavis.edu/research/canine/ISAG/CurrentISAGPanelsAug2002.htm)). The total primer volume was 34.8µl, to which 4.5µl 10× PCR Gold Buffer (Applied Biosystems) and 5.7µl sdH<sub>2</sub>O (Eppendorf AG) were added, and the final volume of the primer mix was 45µl.

The reagents of the PCR reaction mix were aliquoted aseptically in a 0.5ml Eppendorf tube (Whitehead Scientific) and added to the primer mix to make up the final master mix (Table 3.5.). After aliquoting 1µl of the DNA sample solution (100ng/µl), 15µl of the master mix was added to each sample, all PCR reactions were carried out in a final volume of 16µl using 0.2ml Thin Wall PCR® Tubes (Whitehead Scientific),

The amplification reactions were performed in a Gene Amp<sup>®</sup> PCR System 9700 (PE Applied Biosystems) using the following programme: initial denaturation at 95°C for 10min followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30sec, annealing at 60°C for 30sec, extension at 72°C for 1min and then a final extension at 72°C for 60min to complete the reaction. Once the amplification reaction was complete, the post-PCR samples were stored at 4°C until undergoing automated capillary electrophoresis.

Reagent	Stock Concentration	Required Concentration	Quantity per 10 Samples
Primer Mix			42µl
sd H <sub>2</sub> O (Eppendorf AG)			49.5µl
PCR Gold Buffer (AB)	10×	1×	15µl
MgCl <sub>2</sub> (AB)	25mM	3.34mM	20µl
dNTPs with dTTP (AB)	10mM	1.47mM	22µl
AmpliTaq Gold (AB)			1.5µl
<b>Final Volume</b>			<b>150µl</b>

**Table 3.5.** The above reagents of the multiplex PCR reaction mix were added to the primer mix and used to amplify the microsatellite marker for ten DNA samples, with all components added in the above order.

### 3.6.2. Capillary Electrophoresis

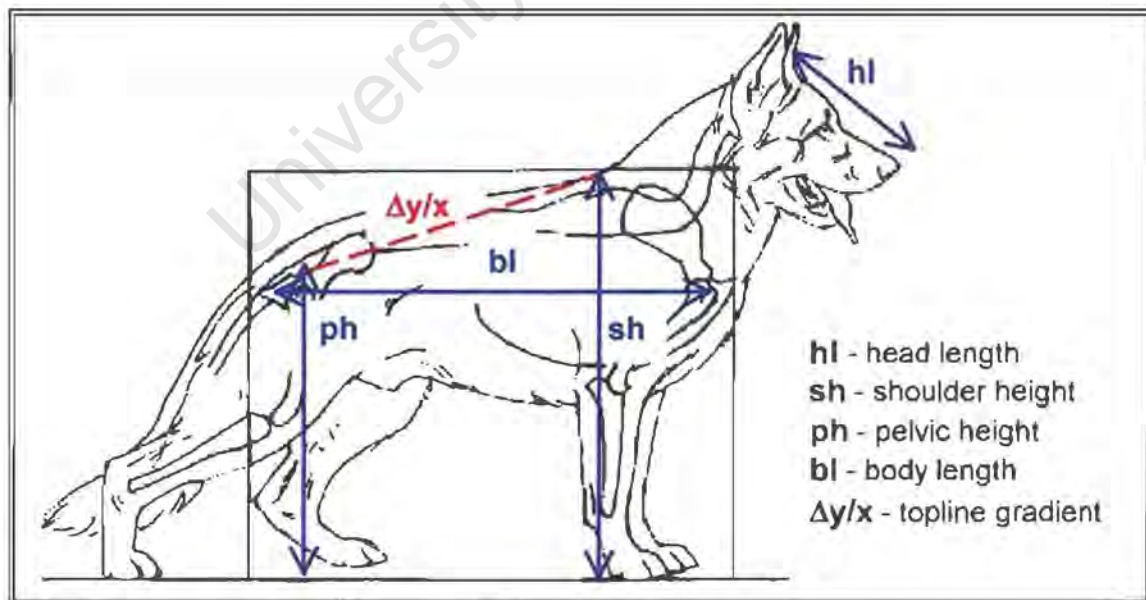
Automated fluorescent fragment size analysis for the visualisation of the PCR product was carried out by capillary electrophoresis on an ABI Prism<sup>™</sup> 310 Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacturer's specifications. The fluorescent-labelled fragments are separated according to size and a laser reader generates a profile based on fragment lengths. Reproducibility tests were performed based on repeated analysis of standard samples. Every sample run included both a positive and negative reagent control and each sample was sized relative to the internal size standard.

After aliquoting 1µl of PCR product, 10µl of formamide (Applied Biosystems) and 0.25µl internal size standard (Prism Genescan-500™ LIZ™) were added to each sample. All DNA samples were denatured at 95°C for 2min on a Gene Amp® PCR System 9700 (PE Applied Biosystems) before being processed through the Genetic Analyser for 26min per sample. Capillary electrophoresis was performed in a 36cm microcapillary tube filled with POP-4 Performance Optimising Polymer (Applied Biosystems).

### 3.7. Morphological Measurements of Breed Types

Morphological measurements (Appendix II) were taken of dogs representative of each breed type, i.e. show, sport and crossbred GSDs, in order to quantify a phenotypic trait that differentiated the morphology of typical show dogs and sport dogs. Head length (hl), shoulder height (sh), pelvic height (ph) and body length (bl) were measured as indicated in Figure 3.6. The author took multiple measurements with the use of a single tape measure, in order to ensure that these measurements were consistent between animals.

Principle component analysis (PCA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the morphological data were used to determine whether significant differentiation existed between the GSD breed types.



**Figure 3.6.** A diagrammatic representation of the morphological measurements used to calculate the GSD phenotypic trait quantified as the gradient of the slope of the back (topline).

### 3.8. Computational Analysis

Oligo Calculator (<http://mbcf.dfci.harvard.edu/docs/oligocalc.html>), a web-based program hosted by Harvard University, was used to confirm the melting temperatures ( $T_M$ ), GC-content and various other parameters of the primer pairs (Table 3.1.).

The molecular data from the ABI Prism™ 310 Genetic Analyser was gathered with the 310 Data Collection Software version 3.0.0. DNA fragment analysis was then performed with STRand software version 2.2.195. (Hughes 1998) and fluorescent-labelled PCR products were sized relative to an internal size standard. These data, together with the manually sized [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite data, were transferred to an Excel (Microsoft®) spreadsheet for further analyses.

Microsatellite Toolkit version 3.1. (Park 2001), an Excel (Microsoft®) add-in, was used to calculate allele numbers and frequencies at each locus by direct counting, for detecting identical genotypes in a population, checking data integrity, and converting data to formats compatible with GENEPOP and BOTTLENECK.

AGARst version 3.1. (Harley 2001) was used for calculating allele number and frequency,  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values, population assignment tests and "M" ratios for detecting reductions in effective population size (Garza and Williamson 2001) from microsatellite data, as well as converting data to formats compatible with GENEPOP and BOTTLENECK.

GENEPOP version 3.3., an updated version of the population genetic software package presented by Raymond and Rousset (1995b), was used to calculate allele numbers, observed and expected heterozygosities. This program was also used to test for deviations from Hardy-Weinberg (H-W) equilibrium, and to assign  $F_{IS}$  and  $F_{ST}$  estimates (Weir and Cockerham 1984). Exact p values, along with their standard errors, were calculated using a Markov chain algorithm with 1 000 dememorisation steps for 100 batches and 1 000 iterations per batch. Corrections for multiple significance tests were performed by the application of sequential Bonferroni tests (Rice 1989). This program was also used to convert data to a format compatible with FSTAT.

The Polymorphism Information Content Calculator ([www.agri.huji.ac.il/~weller/Hayim/parent/PIC.htm](http://www.agri.huji.ac.il/~weller/Hayim/parent/PIC.htm)), a web-based program, was used to determine all PIC values.

FSTAT version 2.9.1. was presented by Goudet in 1995 and was used for the calculation of Weir and Cockerham's (1984) estimators of F statistics. The  $F_{IT}$ ,  $F_{ST}$  and  $F_{IS}$  parameters were estimated per allele, locus, and globally over all samples, including tests of significance and confidence intervals based on resampling schemes.

BOTTLENECK version 1.2.02. (Piry *et al.* 1999) was used to detect recent reductions in effective population size by implementing three statistical tests, the "sign test", "Wilcoxon sign-rank test" and "standardised differences test". The "standardised differences test" requires at least 20 polymorphic loci, so only the first two tests were applied. Allele distribution was measured by simulating three mutation models, the "Infinite Allele Model" (IAM), the "Stepwise Mutation Model" (SMM), and the "Two-phased model of mutation" (TPM). TPM, intermediate to the IAM and SMM, was recommended for microsatellite loci with 95% one-step mutations and 30% variance (Luikart *et al.* 1998b). A qualitative description of the distribution of allele frequencies, the "modal-shift" indicator, separated bottlenecked populations from stable populations (Luikart *et al.* 1998a).

StatSoft, Inc. (2003) STATISTICA (data analysis software system), version 6.1. ([www.statsoft.com](http://www.statsoft.com)) was used to identify significant variation in the morphological data. The data were subjected to both multivariate (ANOVA) and univariate (ANOVA) analyses for comparative purposes.

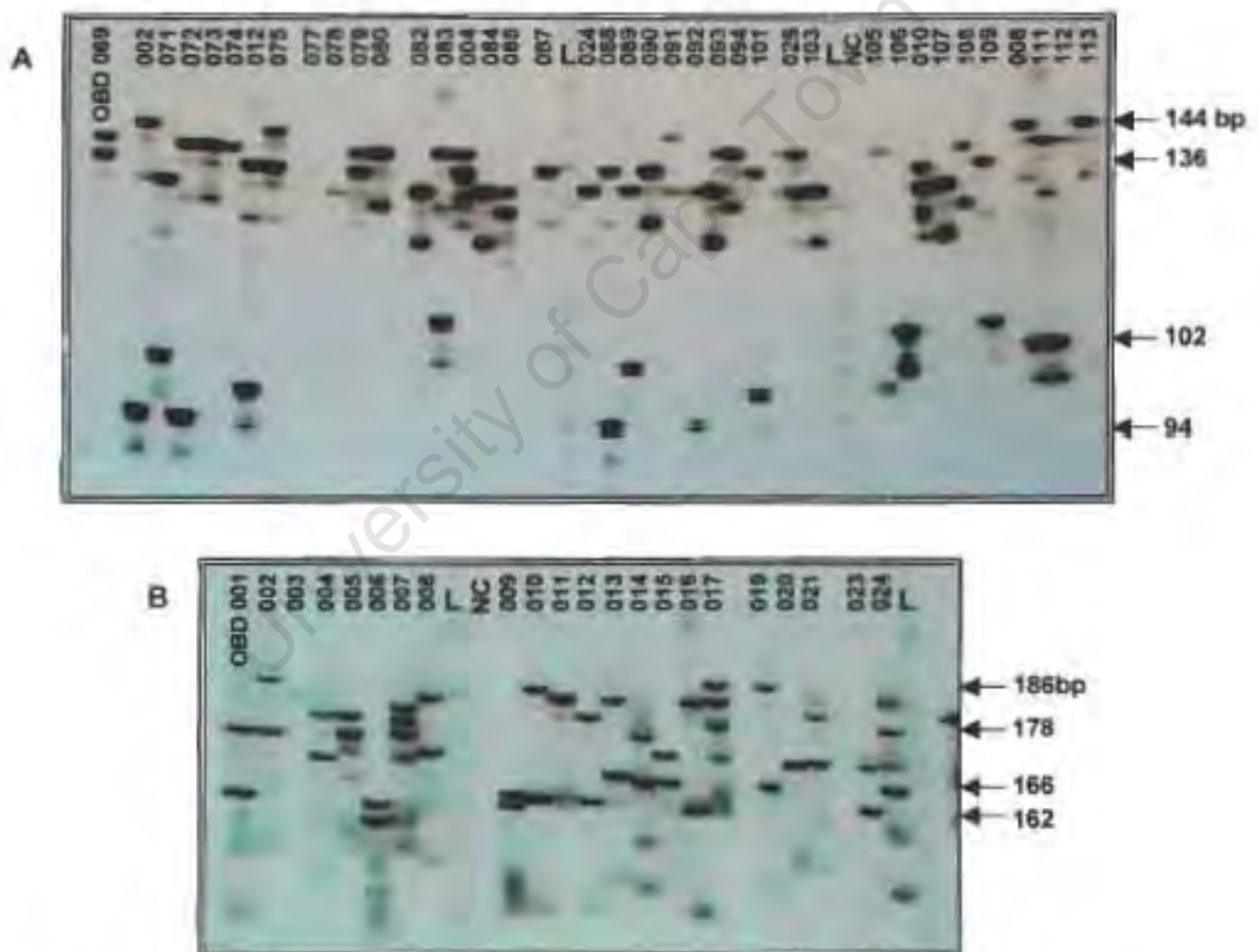
The critical significance level applied to all statistical analyses was 0.05.

# Chapter 4

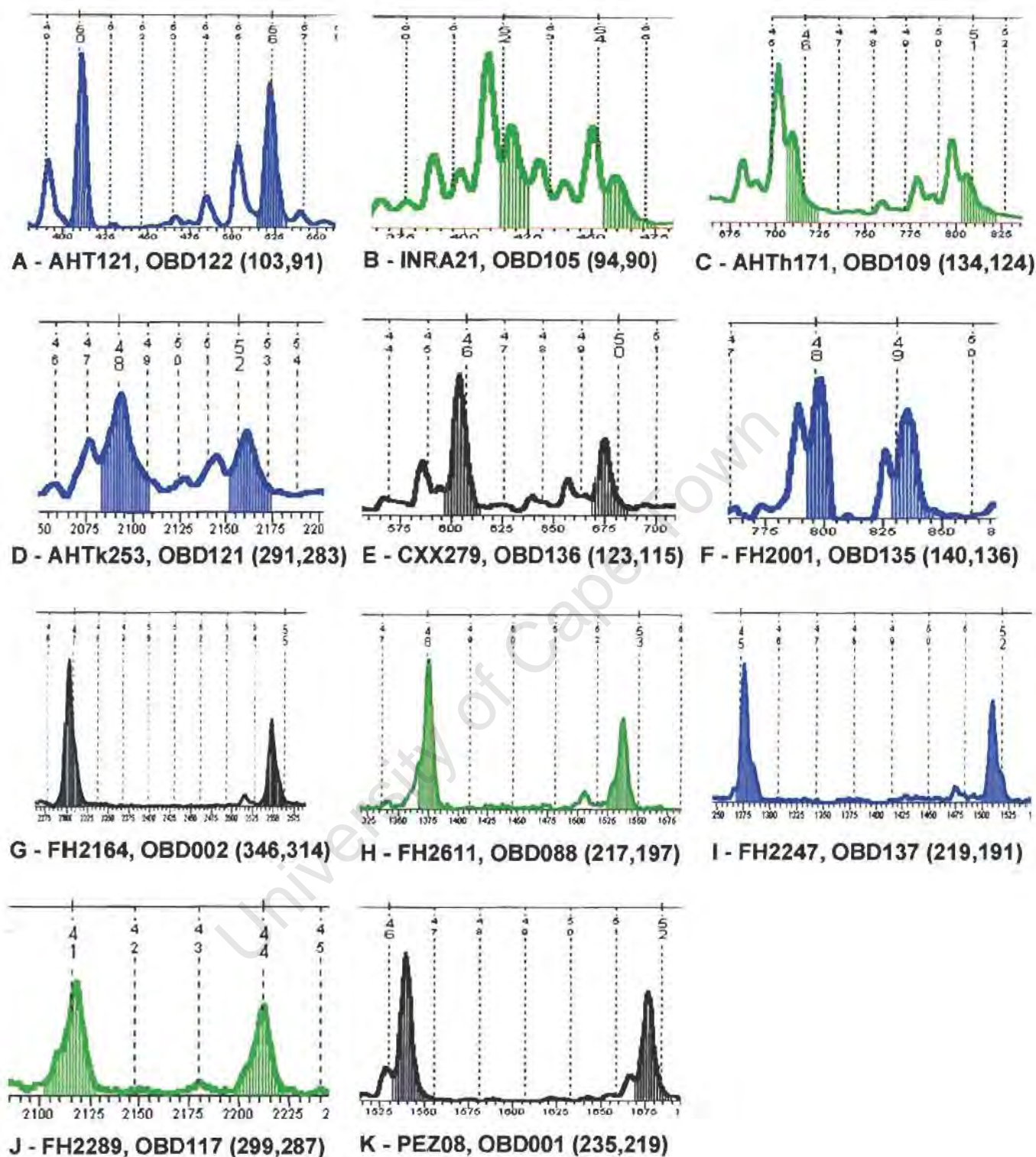
## Results

### 4.1. The Outbred Dog according to region of origin

A total of 156 outbred dogs (OBDs), 46 from Cape Town, 42 from Port Elizabeth, 30 from Johannesburg and 38 from Pretoria (Appendix I), were analysed at 15 polymorphic canine microsatellite markers. Of these microsatellite loci, four were labelled with radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Figure 4.1.) and 11 with fluorescence (Figure 4.2). This data revealed the heterozygous nature of the locus and allele sizes for each individual in the population.

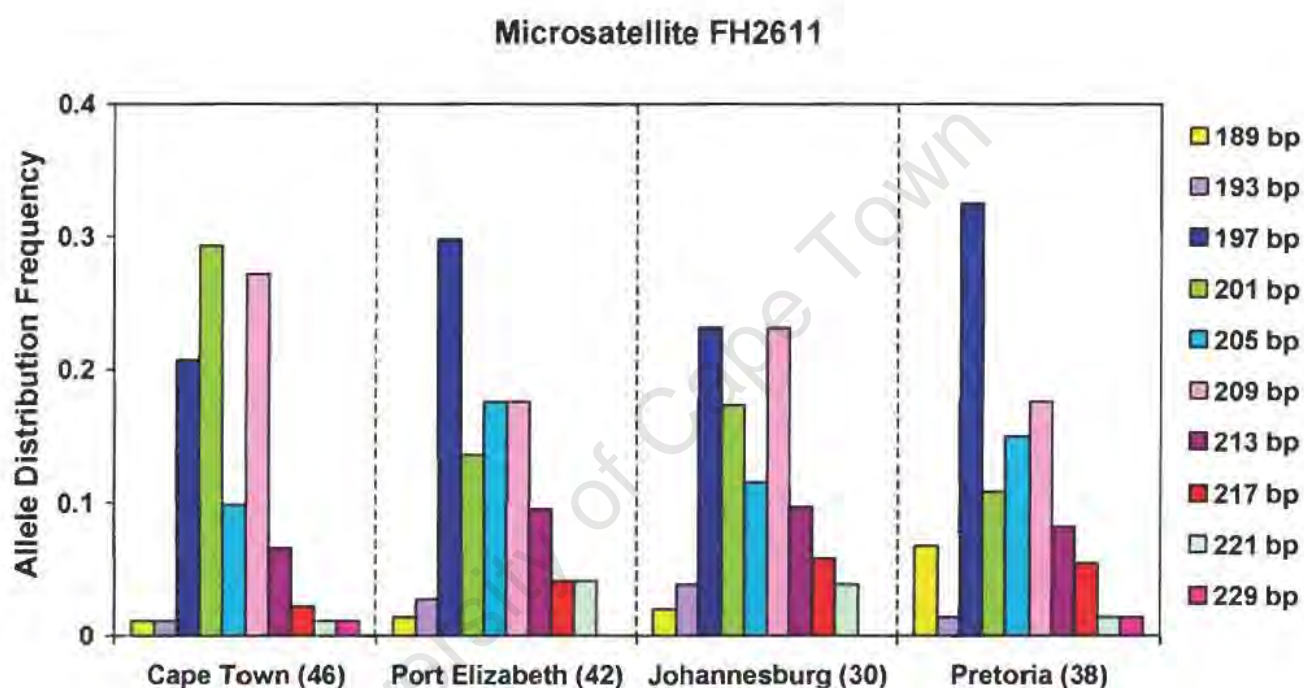


**Figure 4.1.** Polyacrylamide gel electropherograms of some representative OBDs at radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite loci, DTRCN1 (A) and FH2137 (B), visualised autoradiographically. Alleles were sized vertically by comparison with a standard A-T ladder (L), and include a negative control (NC)



**Figure 4.2.** Electropherograms representing fluorescently-labelled microsatellite alleles (shaded peaks) in some representative OBDs, sized from left to right according to an internal size standard (STRand). Microsatellite marker name, individual sample number, and allele sizes (bp) are indicated.

The genetic diversity or polymorphism expressed by a population can be estimated by measuring allele distribution frequencies across a number of loci (Appendix II). An example of one such locus (Figure 4.3.) graphically illustrates the comparable allele frequencies of representative samples selected from Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Johannesburg and Pretoria, as characteristic of the general South African mongrel population. This data indicated extensive genetic diversity and non-significant differentiation between the regional subpopulations.



**Figure 4.3.** A graphic representation of the allele distribution frequencies of each regional OBD subpopulation at the FH2611 microsatellite locus. Sample sizes are indicated in parentheses.

Table 4.4. represents the average genetic diversity of the OBD subpopulations as compared with the combined population across all 15 microsatellite loci. These data include the number of individuals in each population, the total number of alleles, the mean number of alleles per locus corrected for differing sample size with 1 000 pseudoreplications by both the bootstrap and jackknife methods, the observed and expected heterozygosity values, and mean PIC values (AGARst, PIC Calculator).

The corrected number of alleles per locus (between 8.66 and 9.67), expected heterozygosities (between 81.8% and 82.5%), and PIC values (between 0.796 and 0.802), effectively illustrated the comparable and extensive levels of genetic diversity expressed by the OBD subpopulations. Although, evidence of homozygous excess was suggested by the smaller observed heterozygosity values for each subpopulation. The extent of the genetic diversity of the combined OBD population was such that no identical genotypes were detected (Microsatellite Toolkit).

Population	Sample Size	Allele Number	Alleles / Locus (Bootstrap)	Alleles / Locus (Jackknife)	Heterozygosity		PIC
					Obs	Exp	
Cape Town	46	157	8.95	9.50	0.776	0.822	0.800
Port Elizabeth	42	155	9.06	9.80	0.752	0.818	0.796
Johannesburg	30	145	8.66	9.67	0.720	0.819	0.797
Pretoria	38	159	8.96	9.80	0.730	0.825	0.802
OBD	156	185	9.59	9.79	0.748	0.831	0.811

**Table 4.4.** The genetic diversity expressed by each OBD subpopulation and the combined population, as illustrated by comparative allele counts, degrees of heterozygosity, and PIC values (AGARst, PIC Calculator).

Bottleneck events result in the rapid loss of genetic diversity in the population, especially when post-bottleneck recovery is gradual. The effects of random genetic drift intensify as effective population size decreases, resulting in altered allele frequencies and loss of alleles. A recently bottlenecked population would display excess heterozygosity ( $H_E$ ) relative to a population at equilibrium ( $H_{EQ}$ ). Microsatellite allele frequency data of each OBD subpopulation (Table 4.5.) was tested for evidence of such heterozygosity excess using the program BOTTLENECK (Piry et al. 1999). The results of both the "sign test" and "Wilcoxon sign-rank test" under TPM are indicated, with the expected number of alleles exhibiting excess  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$  and p-value for the former, and the probability of either significant excess ( $H_{EXC}$ ) or deficit ( $H_{DEF}$ ) of  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$  for the latter.

The OBD subpopulations and the combined population did not exhibit statistically significant excess  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$ , the populations appear to be in mutation-drift equilibrium in both statistical tests ( $P > 0.05$ ). There is also no indication of a modal shift in allele frequencies, with all populations having normal L-shaped allele distributions. There was no evidence of recent reductions in effective population size in these populations (BOTTLENECK).

Garza and Williamson's "M" is the mean ratio of the total number of alleles observed in a population ( $k$ ) to the range in allele size ( $r$ ), where  $M = k/r$ , and post-bottleneck populations would indicate a reduction in the number of alleles relative to the total allele size range (Garza and Williamson 2001). A population with  $M < 0.680$  can be assumed to have experienced a recent bottleneck event (Garza and Williamson 2001). All M ratios calculated for the OBD subpopulations and the combined population (Table 4.6.) exceeded this critical value, indicating no evidence of bottleneck events in the recent histories of these subpopulations (calculated using AGARst).

Population	"Sign Test" TPM		"Wilcoxon Test" TPM		Modal Shift
	$H_E > H_{EQ}$	p-value	P of $H_{EXC}$	P of $H_{DEF}$	
Cape Town	8.9	0.578	0.467	0.555	L-shaped
Port Elizabeth	8.8	0.570	0.381	0.640	L-shaped
Johannesburg	8.8	0.191	0.104	0.906	L-shaped
Pretoria	8.9	0.236	0.511	0.511	L-shaped
OBD	8.7	0.447	0.555	0.467	L-shaped

**Table 4.5.** A summary of the results of the "sign test" and "Wilcoxon sign-rank test" that detect bottlenecks in the history of each OBD subpopulation (BOTTLENECK).

Population	Garza & Williamson's "M"	Variance	Monomorphic Loci
Cape Town	0.904	0.024	0
Port Elizabeth	0.878	0.026	0
Johannesburg	0.849	0.027	0
Pretoria	0.787	0.065	0
OBD	0.832	0.057	0

**Table 4.6.** Garza & Williamson's "M" ratios for the detection of bottleneck events in each OBD subpopulation, the variance and number of monomorphic loci are also indicated (calculated using AGARst).

F-statistic and Rho-statistic estimates were used to measure genetic differentiation within and between populations. The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Johannesburg, and Pretoria OBD subpopulations were  $F_{IS} = 0.068, 0.095, 0.136,$  and  $0.128,$  respectively (FSTAT). There was an average global heterozygote deficit of 10.3% across all 15 microsatellite loci for each OBD subpopulation ( $F_{IS} = 0.103$ ), with a heterozygote deficit of 10.4% ( $F_{IT} = 0.104$ ) in the combined population. There was non-significant average differentiation between these subpopulations ( $G_{ST} = 0.002, R_{ST} = 0.003;$  FSTAT, GENEPOP).

Table 4.7. represents the pairwise comparisons of  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values between the OBD subpopulations (GENEPOP). These data consistently indicated non-significant differentiation, indicating that sufficient gene flow has occurred across the country during past generations to result in a homogenous OBD population.

Population	Cape Town	Port Elizabeth	Johannesburg	Pretoria
Cape Town	-	0.002	0.002	0.002
Port Elizabeth	0.009	-	0.003	0.001
Johannesburg	0.001	0.010	-	0.001
Pretoria	0.002	0.004	0.001	-

**Table 4.7.** The mean pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  estimates between OBD subpopulations across all 15 microsatellite loci ( $G_{ST}$  values above the diagonal and  $R_{ST}$  below; GENEPOP).

The number of loci in H-W equilibrium was another method of detecting levels of population differentiation. Table 4.8. indicates that the deviations across all 15 loci remained highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) and thus H-W disequilibrium was statistically supported for all OBD subpopulations (GENEPOP).

Population	$\chi^2$	Df	p-value	H-W Equilibrium
Cape Town	49.8	30	0.013	disequilibrium
Port Elizabeth	66.3	30	<0.001	disequilibrium
Johannesburg	84.6	30	<0.001	disequilibrium
Pretoria	85.8	30	<0.001	disequilibrium
OBD	infinity	30	<0.001	disequilibrium

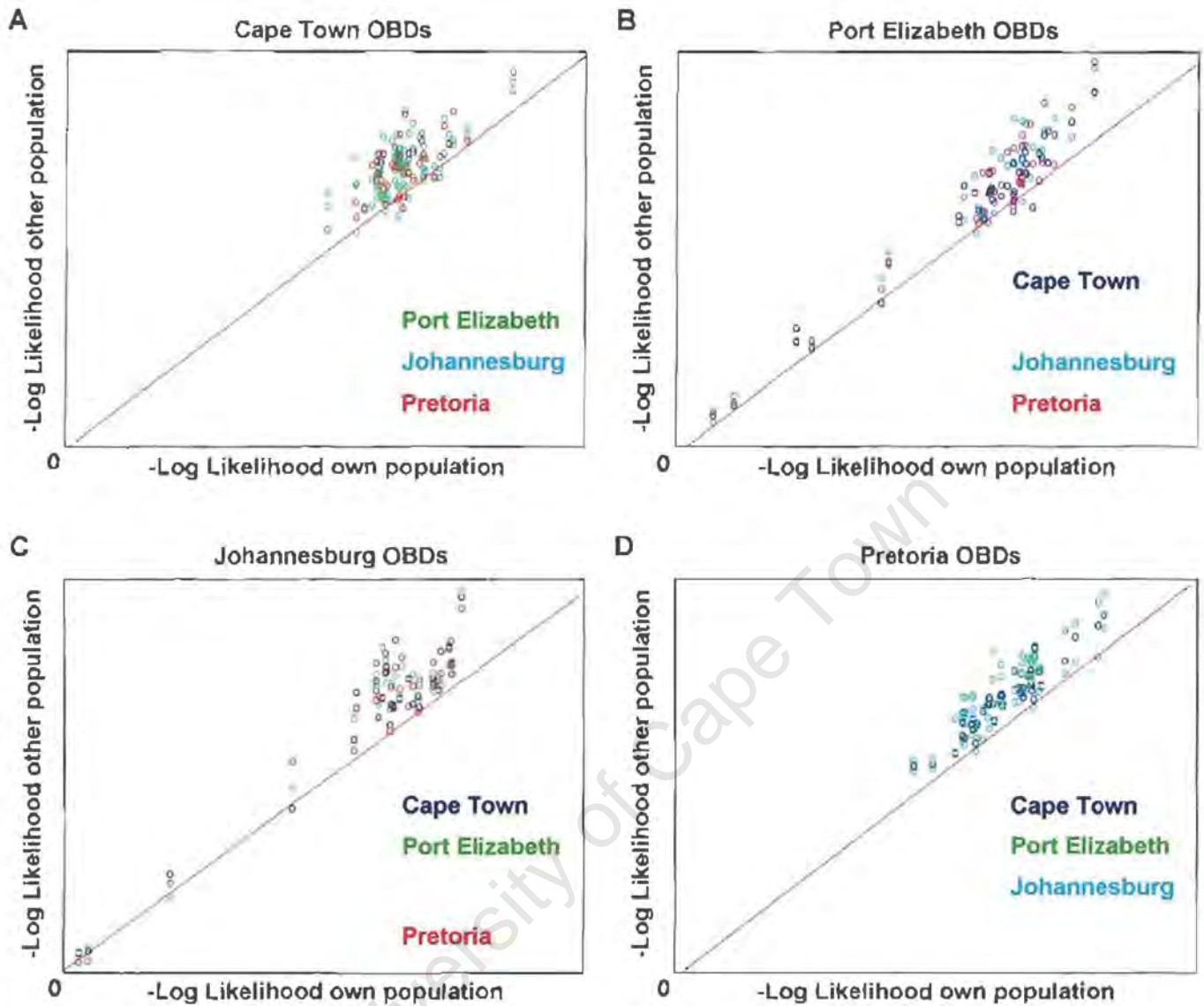
**Table 4.8.** The results of probability tests verifying whether populations deviate significantly from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, indicating  $\chi^2$ , degrees of freedom (Df) and p-values (GENEPOP).

The proportion of individuals in a population correctly assigned to its own source population was another useful measure of population differentiation (Table 4.9.). Only between 80% and 92% of the OBDs were correctly assigned to each subpopulation, indicating minimal genetic differentiation between the regional OBD subpopulations.

Population	Correctly Assigned	Median Value Likelihood Ratios	Range of Values Likelihood Ratios
Cape Town	80%	$2.60 \times 10^1$	$1.22 \times 10^0$ to $7.30 \times 10^3$
Port Elizabeth	83%	$1.58 \times 10^1$	$1.11 \times 10^0$ to $3.25 \times 10^3$
Johannesburg	87%	$6.14 \times 10^1$	$1.16 \times 10^0$ to $1.26 \times 10^5$
Pretoria	92%	$2.41 \times 10^1$	$1.83 \times 10^0$ to $1.48 \times 10^3$

**Table 4.9.** The results of assignment tests indicated the percentage and likelihood ratios of individuals correctly assigned to their own source OBD subpopulation (AGARst).

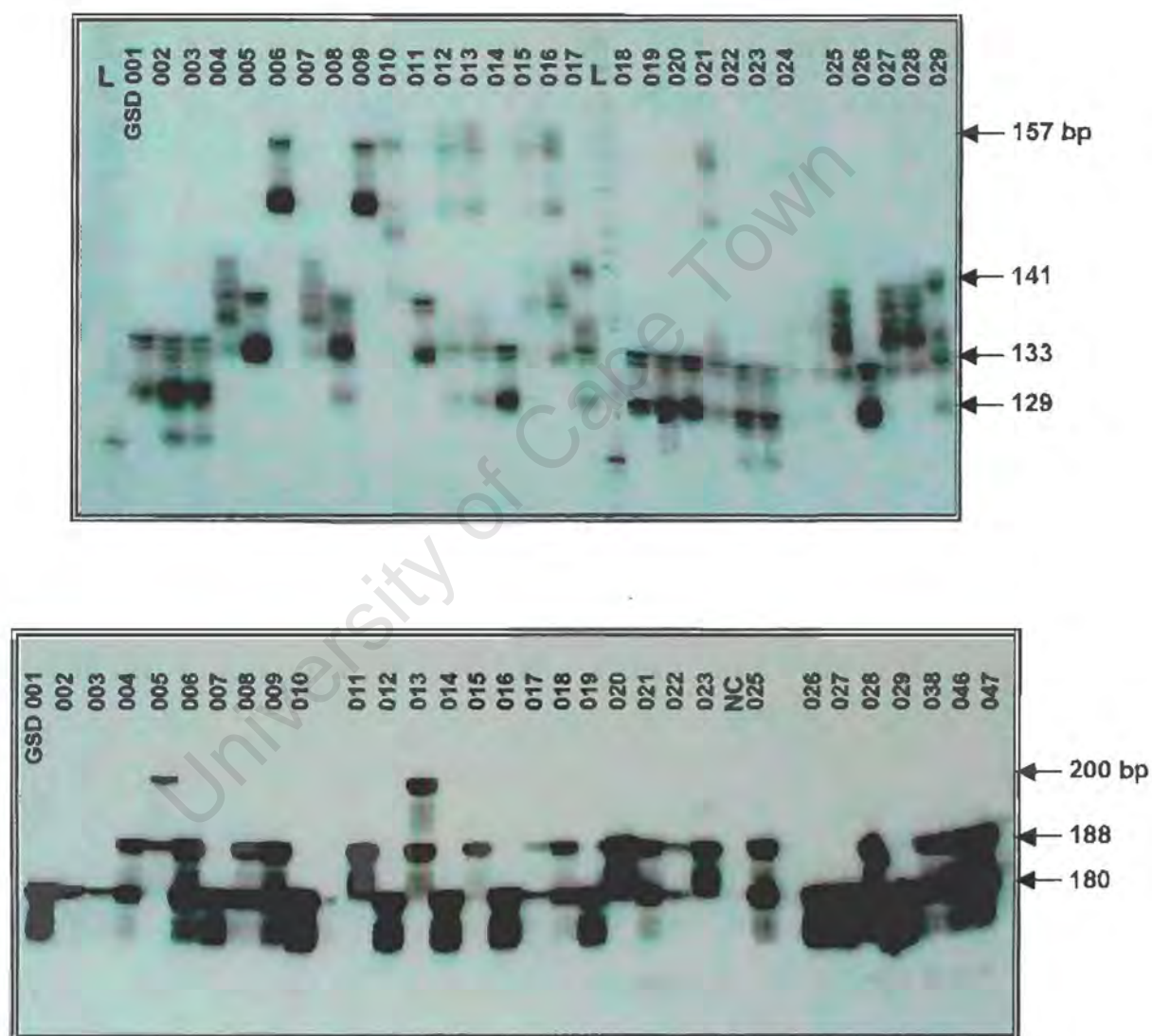
Figure 4.10. (A to D) is a graphic representation of the pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of individuals being assigned to either their own or another of the regional OBD subpopulations (AGARst). The diagonal represents the probability that an individual is equally likely to be assigned to its own or another population. With each comparison between subpopulations, most individuals were clustered across this diagonal, further indication of minimal differentiation between the regional OBD subpopulations.



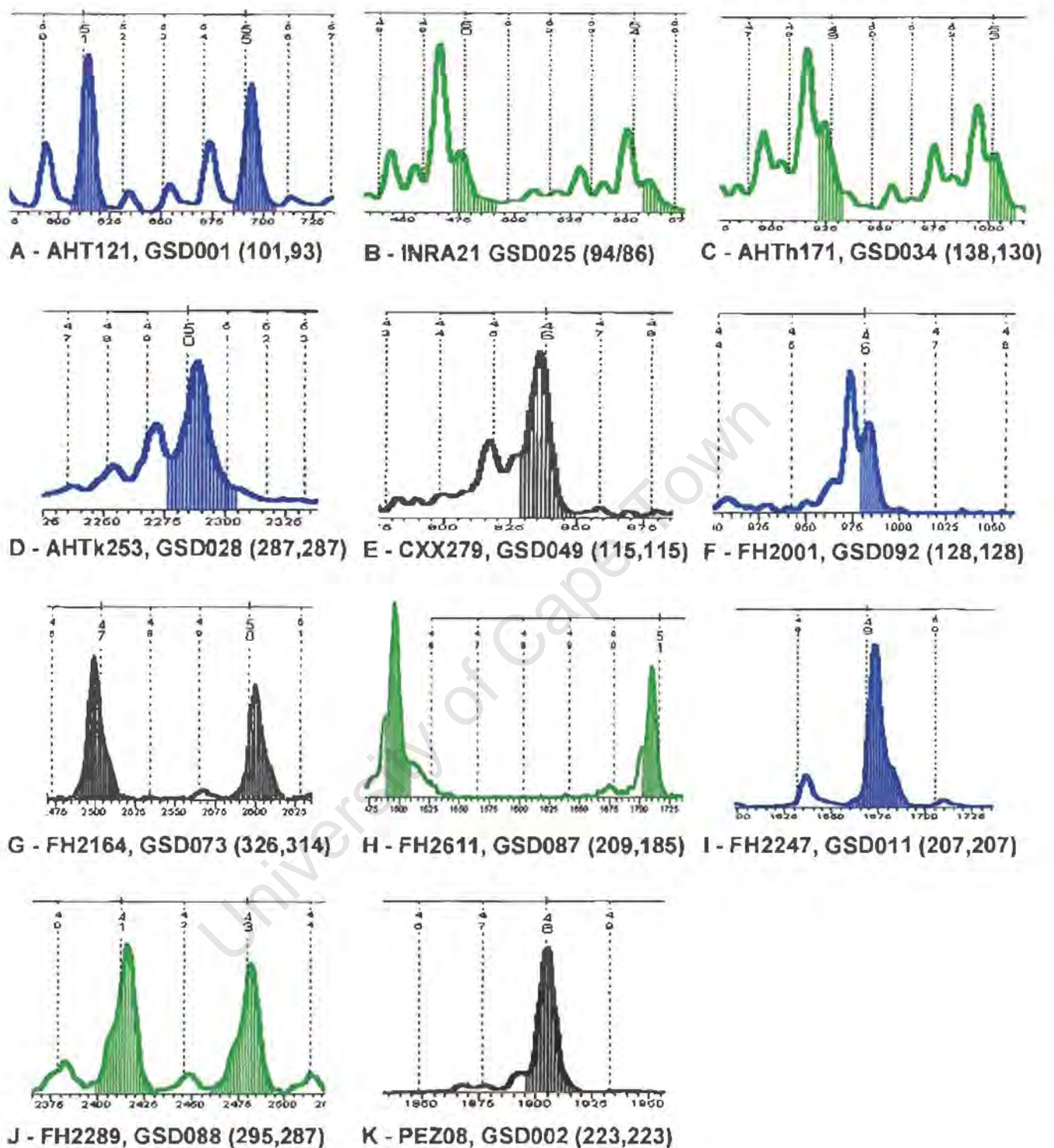
**Figure 4.10.** The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of each regional OBD subpopulation (A to D) being assigned to its own source population as compared with the other OBD subpopulations (AGARst).

## 4.2. The German Shepherd Dog

A total of 101 German Shepherd Dogs (GSDs), 56 South African show dogs, eight South African KUSA-bred show dogs, nine South African crossbred show and sport dogs, ten German show dogs, and 18 German sport dogs, were analysed at 15 polymorphic canine microsatellite markers (Appendix I). Four of the microsatellite loci were labelled with radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Figure 4.11.) and 11 with fluorescence (Figure 4.12.).



**Figure 4.11.** Polyacrylamide gel electropherograms of some representative GSDs at radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite loci, FH2140 (A) and FH2328 (B), visualised autoradiographically. Alleles were sized vertically by comparison with a standard A-T ladder (L), and included a negative control (NC).



**Figure 4.12.** Electropherograms representing fluorescent-labelled microsatellite alleles (shaded peaks) in some representative GSDs, sized from left to right according to an internal size standard (STRand). Microsatellite marker name, individual sample number, and allele sizes (bp) are indicated.

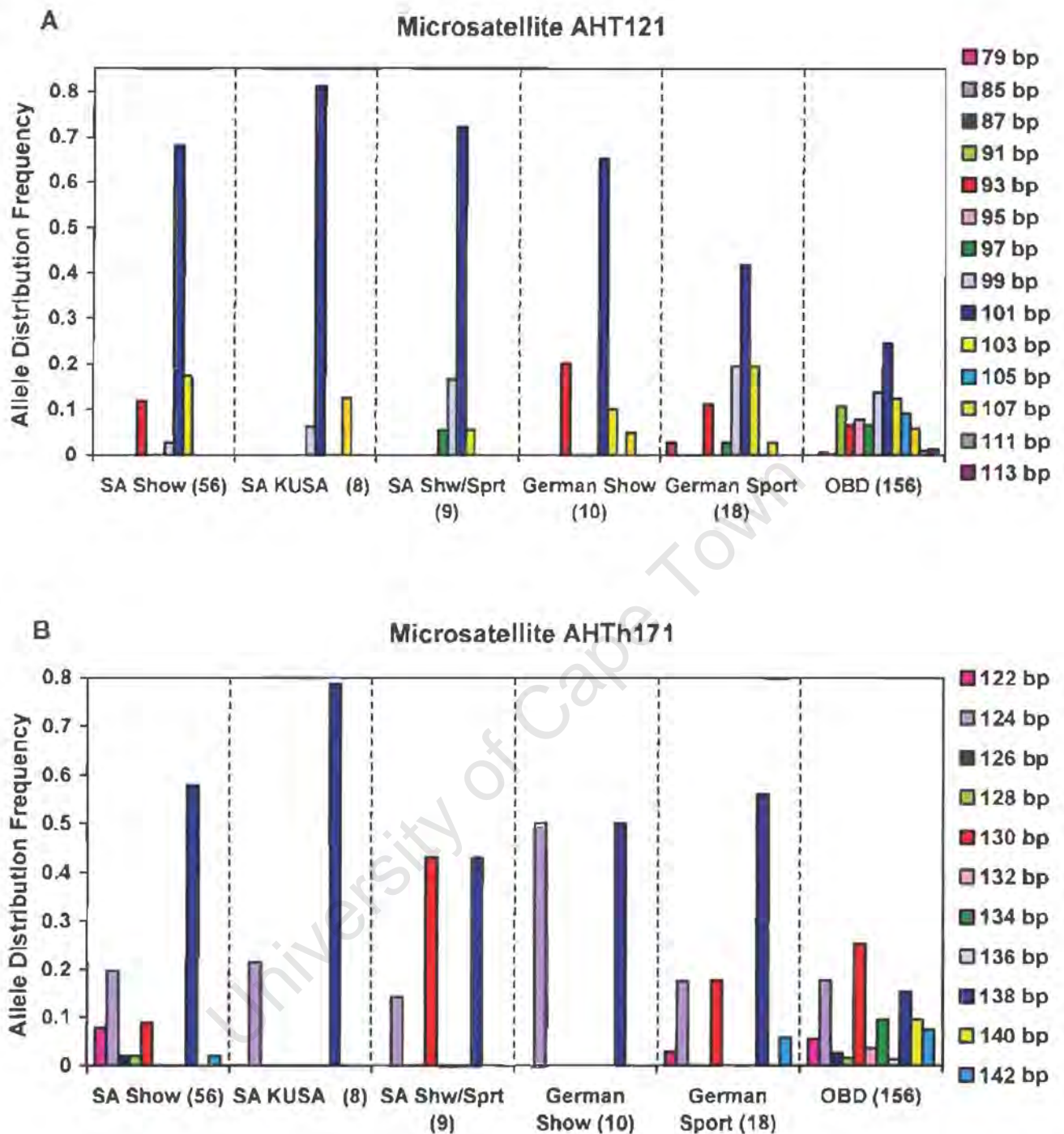
#### 4.2.1. According to country of origin and breed type

Pedigree analysis revealed that it was impossible to classify South African bred GSDs according to region of origin due to the breeding strategy commonly employed. Breeders regularly transport dogs across the country for matings, usually maintaining their own bitch-lines and using imported stud dogs. Dogs with at least one locally bred parent were designated as part of the South African subpopulation and all the imported dogs and those with imported parents as part of the German subpopulation.

However, pedigree analysis permitted the unambiguous classification of breed lines for distinct types, namely show-lines, KUSA-bred show-lines, sport-lines and crossbred show and sport dogs. The show-lines included both locally bred and imported dogs, all the KUSA show dogs have been locally bred for several generations, and all the sport dogs were imported from Germany.

The genetic diversity or polymorphism expressed by a population can be estimated by measuring allele distribution frequencies across a number of loci (Appendix II). Examples of two such loci (Figure 4.13.) graphically illustrated the differing allele distribution frequencies, with lower allele numbers indicating loss of diversity in the GSD subpopulations and significant differentiation between these and the OBD population. At the AHT121 microsatellite locus, the same allele (101bp) was most common in all populations, but with a very high frequency in the GSD subpopulations, and the German sport dog subpopulation expressed a private allele (79bp allele found otherwise only in the CB group). At the AHTh171 microsatellite locus, a single common allele (138bp) was expressed by all GSD subpopulations and interestingly, the most common allele (130bp) in the crossbred show and sport dogs was fairly infrequent in both the show and sport subpopulations.

Table 4.14. represents the average relative genetic diversity of the GSD subpopulations as compared with the OBD population across all 15 microsatellite loci. These data include the population sample size, total number of alleles, mean number of alleles per locus corrected for differing sample size by 1 000 pseudoreplications with both the bootstrap and jackknife methods, the observed and expected heterozygosity values, and mean PIC values (AGARst, PIC Calculator).



**Figure 4.13.** Graphic representations of the allele distribution frequencies for the South African show, KUSA-bred show and crossbred subpopulations, and the German show and sport subpopulations, as compared with the OBD population at the AHT121 (A) and AHTh171 (B) microsatellite loci. Sample sizes are indicated in parentheses.

The relative loss of genetic diversity in the GSD population was effectively illustrated by the corrected number of alleles per locus, with the subpopulations expressing approximately half (between 3.45 and 3.72) that of the OBD population (6.71 and 6.80). The average observed and expected heterozygosities for the combined GSD population (57.5% and 57.1%) were approximately three quarters that of the OBD population (74.8% and 83.1%). However, the genetic diversity in the GSD population was sufficiently extensive that no identical genotypes were detected (Microsatellite Toolkit).

The corrected number of alleles per locus effectively illustrated the loss of genetic diversity in all GSD subpopulations relative to the OBD population. However, the sport dogs consistently expressed the highest corrected number of alleles per locus, observed and expected heterozygosities, and PIC values in comparison with the other subpopulations. The South African show dogs were more genetically diverse than the imported German show dogs, in terms of corrected numbers of alleles, heterozygosities, and PIC values. The crossbred dogs, despite their hybrid status, and the KUSA-bred show dogs expressed the least genetic diversity.

Population	Sample Size	Allele Number	Alleles / Locus (Bootstrap)	Alleles / Locus (Jackknife)	Heterozygosity		PIC
					Obs	Exp	
SA Show	56	92	3.86	3.93	0.589	0.610	0.569
KUSA Show	8	52	3.08	3.47	0.597	0.536	0.474
SA Shw/Sprt	9	54	3.23	3.53	0.549	0.557	0.502
German Show	10	53	3.11	3.38	0.548	0.537	0.481
German Sport	18	80	3.98	4.28	0.621	0.615	0.575
OBD	156	185	6.71	6.80	0.748	0.831	0.811

**Table 4.14.** The genetic diversity expressed by the South African show, KUSA-bred show and crossbred dogs and German show and sport subpopulations, relative to the OBD population, as illustrated by comparative allele counts, degrees of heterozygosity, and PIC values (AGARst, PIC Calculator).

Table 4.15. summarises the results of both the “sign test” and Wilcoxon sign-rank test” (BOTTLENECK). The South African show and KUSA-bred show subpopulations did not exhibit statistically significant excess  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$ , and had normal L-shaped allele distributions. The crossbred and German show subpopulations indicated a modal-shift in allele frequencies. The German sport subpopulation, while having 9.0 alleles ( $p = 0.010$ ) exhibiting statistically significant excess  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$ , still had a normal L-shaped allele distribution.

Table 4.16. summarises the Garza and Williamson’s “M” values (calculated using AGARst). The ratios calculated for the South African show and crossbred GSD subpopulations exceeded the critical value, indicating no detectable recent bottleneck event. The KUSA-bred show and both imported German subpopulations had ratios less than 0.680, indicating recent reductions in effective population size.

Except for the South African show dog subpopulation, there was evidence of recent bottleneck events in the histories of all the other GSD subpopulations.

Population	“Sign Test” TPM		“Wilcoxon Test” TPM		Modal Shift
	$H_E > H_{EQ}$	p-value	P of $H_{EXC}$	P of $H_{DEF}$	
SA Show	8.9	0.109	0.924	0.084	L-shaped
KUSA Show	8.8	0.560	0.230	0.719	L-shaped
SA Shw/Sprt	8.2	0.560	0.179	0.837	Shifted
German Show	8.8	0.245	0.598	0.423	Shifted
German Sport	9.0	0.010	0.976	0.028	L-shaped

**Table 4.15.** A summary of the results of the “sign test” and “Wilcoxon sign-rank test” that detect bottleneck events in the recent histories of the South African show, KUSA-bred show and crossbred dogs and the German show and sport subpopulations (BOTTLENECK).

Population	Garza & Williamson's "M"	Variance	Monomorphic Loci
SA Show	0.774	0.046	0
KUSA Show	0.630	0.056	0
SA Shw/Sprt	0.736	0.052	1
German Show	0.629	0.063	0
German Sport	0.657	0.063	0

**Table 4.16.** Garza & Williamson's "M" ratios for the detection of bottleneck events in the South African show, KUSA-bred show and crossbred dogs and the German show and sport subpopulations, the variance and number of monomorphic loci are also indicated (calculated using AGARst).

The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the combined GSD population and OBD population were  $F_{IS} = 0.054$  and  $0.104$ , respectively (FSTAT). There was an average global heterozygote deficit of 8.7% ( $F_{IS} = 0.087$ ) across all 15 microsatellite loci for each population, with a heterozygote deficit of 18.1% ( $F_{IT} = 0.181$ ) in the combined population. There was significant average differentiation between the two populations ( $G_{ST} = 0.103$ ,  $R_{ST} = 0.058$ ; FSTAT, GENEPOP).

The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the South African show, KUSA-bred show, crossbred, and German show and sport GSD subpopulations were  $F_{IS} = 0.046$ ,  $-0.040$ ,  $0.081$ ,  $0.046$ , and  $0.020$ , respectively (FSTAT). There was an average global heterozygote deficit of 3.8% ( $F_{IS} = 0.038$ ) across all 15 microsatellite loci for each subpopulation, and the heterozygote deficit in the combined population was 6.3% ( $F_{IT} = 0.063$ ). There was non-significant differentiation between the GSD subpopulations ( $G_{ST} = 0.026$ ,  $R_{ST} = 0.026$ ; FSTAT, GENEPOP).

Table 4.17. represents the pairwise comparisons of  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values between the GSD subpopulations and OBD population (GENEPOP). These data indicated varying levels of differentiation between the GSD subpopulations and significant differentiation between each GSD subpopulation and the OBD population. There was relatively significant differentiation between the isolated KUSA-bred show dogs and all other GSD subpopulations, with mean  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values of 0.046 and 0.063. There was non-significant differentiation between the South African and German show subpopulations, with  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values of 0.007 and 0.021, and relatively significant differentiation between the German show and sport subpopulations, with  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values of 0.054 and 0.069.

Population	SA Show	KUSA Show	SA Shw/Sprt	German Show	German Sport	OBD
SA Show	-	0.024	0.021	0.007	0.025	0.104
KUSA Show	0.028	-	0.037	0.065	0.059	0.109
SA Shw/Sprt	0.002	0.083	-	0.040	0.025	0.098
German Show	0.021	0.137	0.002	-	0.054	0.110
German Sport	0.023	0.002	0.027	0.069	-	0.080
OBD	0.053	0.032	0.048	0.083	0.042	-

**Table 4.17.** The mean pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  estimates between GSD subpopulations and the OBD population across all 15 microsatellite loci ( $G_{ST}$  values above the diagonal and  $R_{ST}$  below; GENEPOP).

Table 4.18. indicates that the deviations from H-W equilibrium across all 15 loci remained highly significant for the South African show subpopulation ( $p < 0.001$ ) and that H-W disequilibrium was statistically supported. However, the deviations were not significant for the remaining GSD subpopulations and these were in equilibrium (BOTTLENECK).

Population	$\chi^2$	Df	p-value	H-W Equilibrium
SA Show	infinity	30	<0.001	disequilibrium
KUSA Show	20.1	30	0.914	equilibrium
SA Shw/Sprt	24.3	28	0.668	equilibrium
German Show	38.1	30	0.146	equilibrium
German Sport	34.1	30	0.279	equilibrium

**Table 4.18.** Probability tests verified whether the South African show, KUSA-bred show and crossbred dogs and the German show and sport subpopulations deviated significantly from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium;  $\chi^2$ , degrees of freedom (Df) and p-values are indicated (GENEPOP).

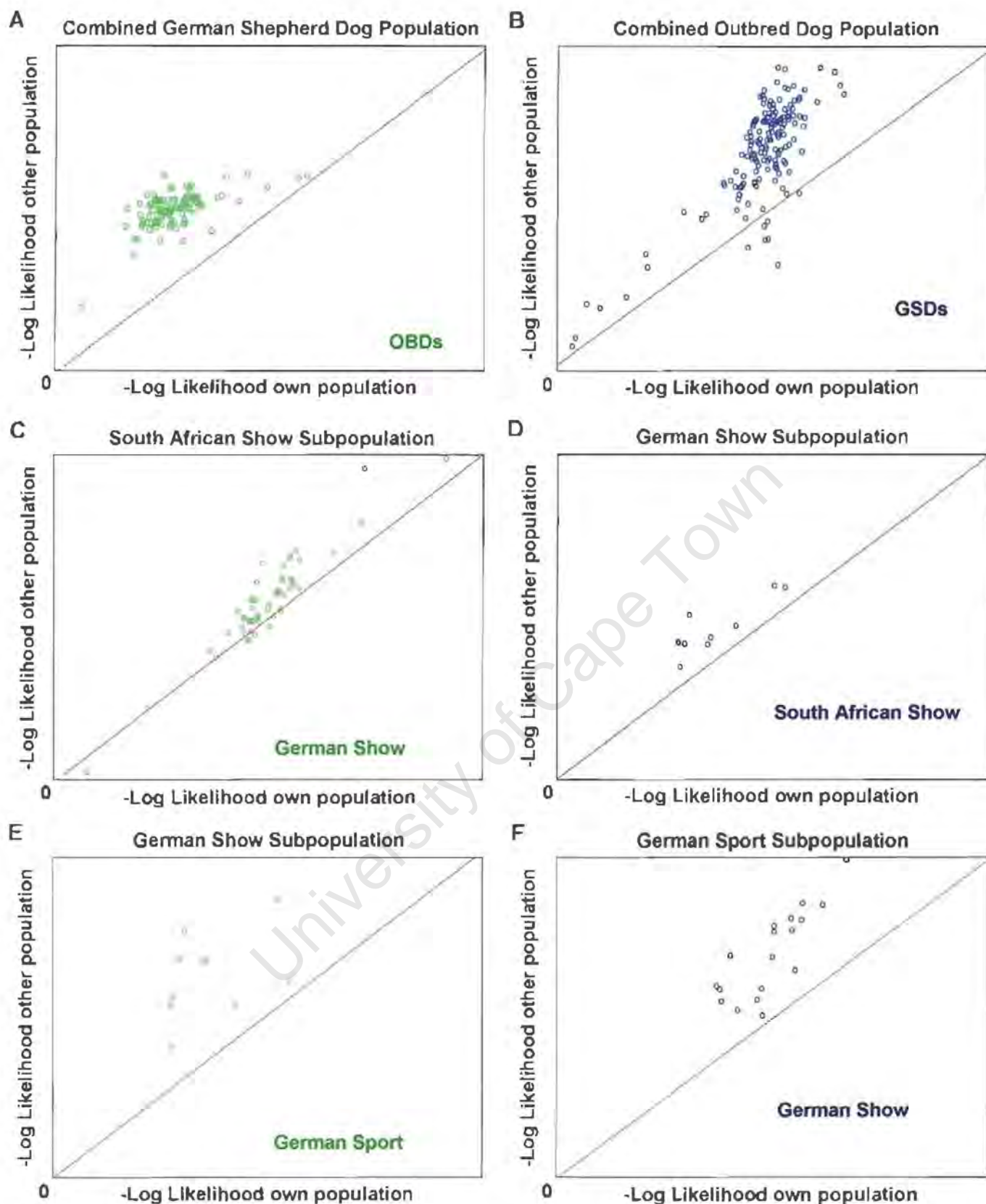
Assignment tests correctly grouped 100% of the individuals in the combined GSD population (mean likelihood ratio of  $8.89 \times 10^7$ ), whereas only 96% of the OBDs (mean likelihood ratio of  $8.14 \times 10^8$ ) were correctly assigned (AGARst). This indicated that gene flow was unidirectional, only from the purebred dog population to the mongrel population because of the “breed barrier” rule; a proportion of OBD individuals would have GSD ancestry.

Analysis of each GSD subpopulation correctly assigned between 70% and 94% of individuals to their own source subpopulation, indicating non-significant to moderate levels of differentiation (Table 4.19.). The imported German sport subpopulation was most differentiated from the remaining show dog subpopulations (AGARst).

Population	Correctly Assigned	Median Value Likelihood Ratios	Range of Values Likelihood Ratios
SA Show	70%	$1.16 \times 10^1$	$1.17 \times 10^0$ to $3.25 \times 10^3$
KUSA Show	88%	$3.09 \times 10^4$	$1.63 \times 10^1$ to $6.51 \times 10^5$
SA Shw/Sprt	89%	$4.33 \times 10^4$	$1.2 \times 10^1$ to $2.36 \times 10^5$
German Show	90%	$1.26 \times 10^2$	$1.33 \times 10^1$ to $2.72 \times 10^4$
German Sport	94%	$6.66 \times 10^2$	$2.17 \times 10^0$ to $3.38 \times 10^5$

**Table 4.19.** The results of assignment tests indicating the percentage and likelihood ratios of individuals correctly assigned to the South African show, KUSA-bred show, and crossbred subpopulations, and the German show and sport subpopulations (AGARst).

The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of individuals in a subpopulation being assigned to its own source population were graphic representations of the assignment test results (AGARst). The diagonal represents the probability that an individual was equally likely to be assigned to its own or to the other population. These results indicated significant differentiation between the GSD and OBD populations (Figure 4.20. A and B), a number of OBDs had a greater likelihood of being assigned to the GSD population, suggesting that these dogs had GSD ancestry. In addition, minimal differentiation between the South African and German-bred show dogs (Figure 4.20. C and D), and moderate differentiation between the show and sport dog subpopulations (Figure 4.20. E and F), was suggested by this data.



**Figure 4.20.** The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of the GSD population (A and B) being assigned to its own source population as compared with the OBD population, the South African show subpopulation (C and D) compared with German show dogs, and the German show subpopulation (E and F) compared with German sport dogs (AGARst).

Morphological measurements (Appendix II) were taken of dogs representative of each breed type in order to quantify a phenotypic trait that differentiated the morphology of typical show dogs and sport dogs. These morphological measurements were averaged across each breed type, and the gradient ( $\Delta y/x$ ) of the slope of the back, the ratio of body length to height and the ratio of head to body length were calculated (Table 4.21.). The GSD Breed Standard states that the height at the wither should be between 60 and 65cm, the body should be slightly long in comparison to the height, approximately 110 to 117% of the height, and the head length should be approximately 40% of the height (Willis 1977).

Population	Sample Size	Head length	Shoulder height	Pelvic height	Body length	Length: height	Head: body	Topline gradient
Show	30	27.8	64.1	43.7	74.0	115.6	37.5	0.28
Sport	20	27.1	62.8	53.4	72.9	116.2	37.2	0.13
Show/Sport	7	28.0	65.9	51.4	71.8	109.2	39.0	0.20

**Table 4.21.** A summary of the average morphological measurements (cm) and ratios (%) calculated for show, sport and crossbred GSDs.

PCA is a method of ordination that extracts factors from correlations or covariances between variates in order to discern inherent patterns, and involves the eigenanalysis of a symmetric matrix of similarities to calculate eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors (Fry 1993). The first two PCA factors (Figure 4.22.) accounted for 86.37% of the variance in the data (eigenvalues: F1 = 2.476, F2 = 0.979, F3 = 0.369, and F4 = 0.176). Pelvic height had a high factor score on the F2 axis; the other three variables had low factor scores, therefore pelvic height was responsible for most of the variation in this data. The graphical plot of the eigenvectors of the first two factors demonstrated the relationship between them, with mean component scores for each breed type separating primarily along the y-axis (Figure 4.23.). The show and sport dogs were most separate, with the crossbred dogs situated between the other two groups.

ANOVA confirmed the existence of different morphological breed types. Univariate tests of significance produced probability values for pelvic height ( $p < 0.001$ ), shoulder height ( $p = 0.212$ ), and body length ( $p = 0.342$ ). Shoulder height and body length were similar in all breed types, but significant differences in pelvic height result in variation of the gradient of the topline in the GSD breed types.

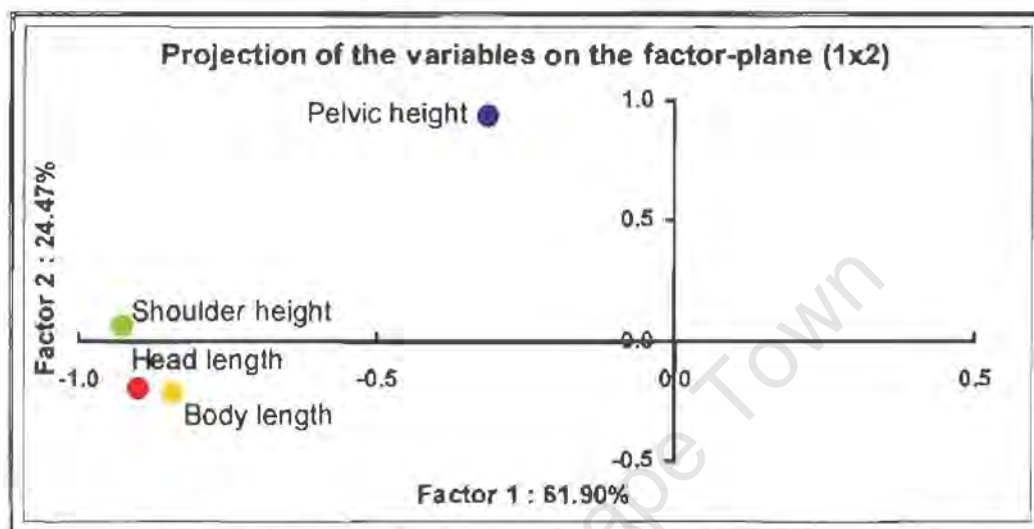


Figure 4.22. PCA of the GSD breed type differentiation, the first two factors plotted accounted for 86.37% of the variance in the morphological data (STATISTICA).

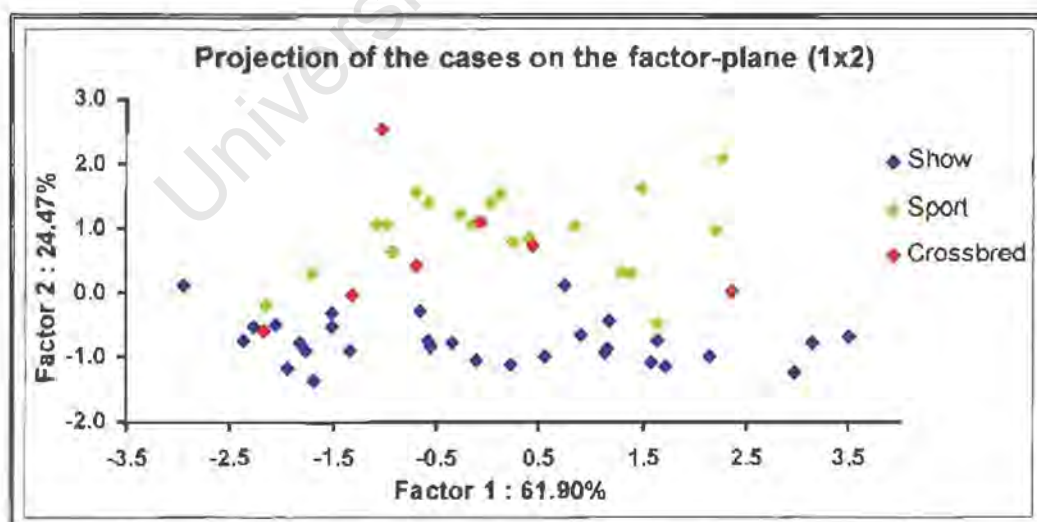
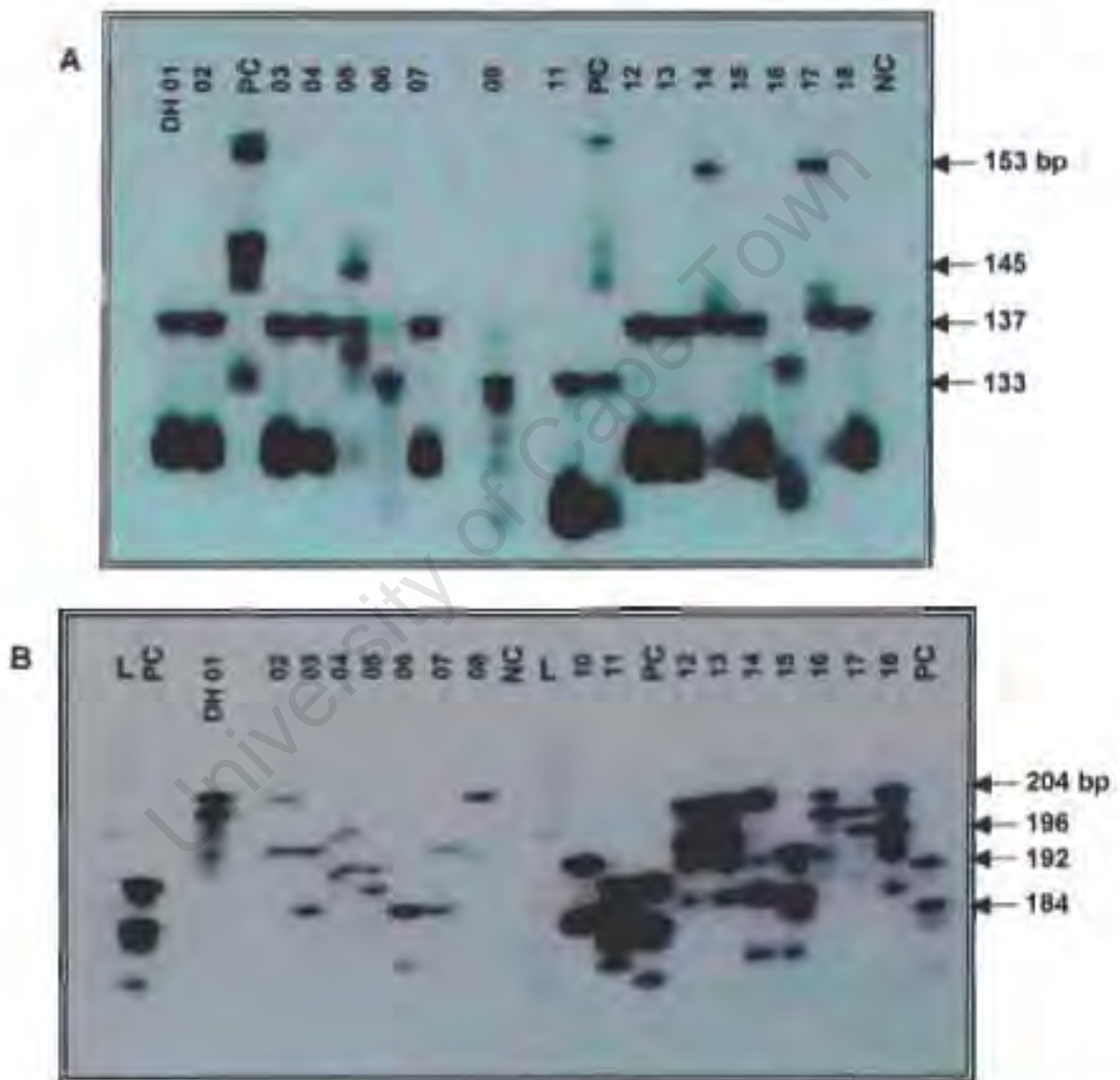


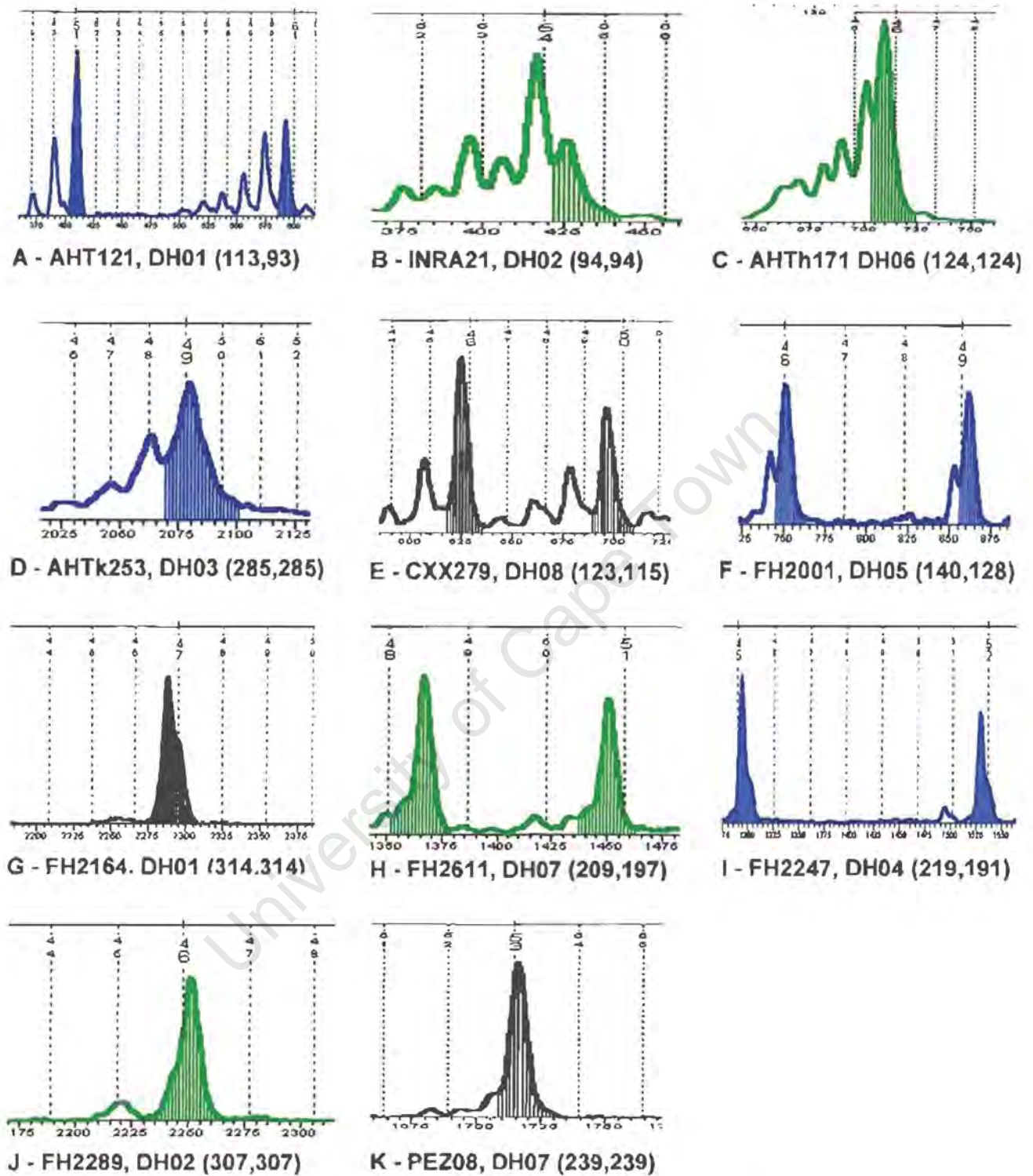
Figure 4.23. PCA mean component scores separated breed types primarily along the y-axis (F2), indicating that morphological variation was predominantly due to differences in shape rather than size (STATISTICA).

#### 4.2.2. Comparisons with DHs, SBTs, and other purebred dogs

A total of 26 Dachshunds (DHs), eight standard short-coat, 13 miniature short-coat and five miniature long-coat (Appendix I), were analysed at four polymorphic canine microsatellite markers labelled with radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Figure 4.24.). Of these, only three standard short-coat, three miniature short-coat and two miniature long-coat DHs were analysed at the 11 microsatellite markers labelled with fluorescence (Figure 4.25.).

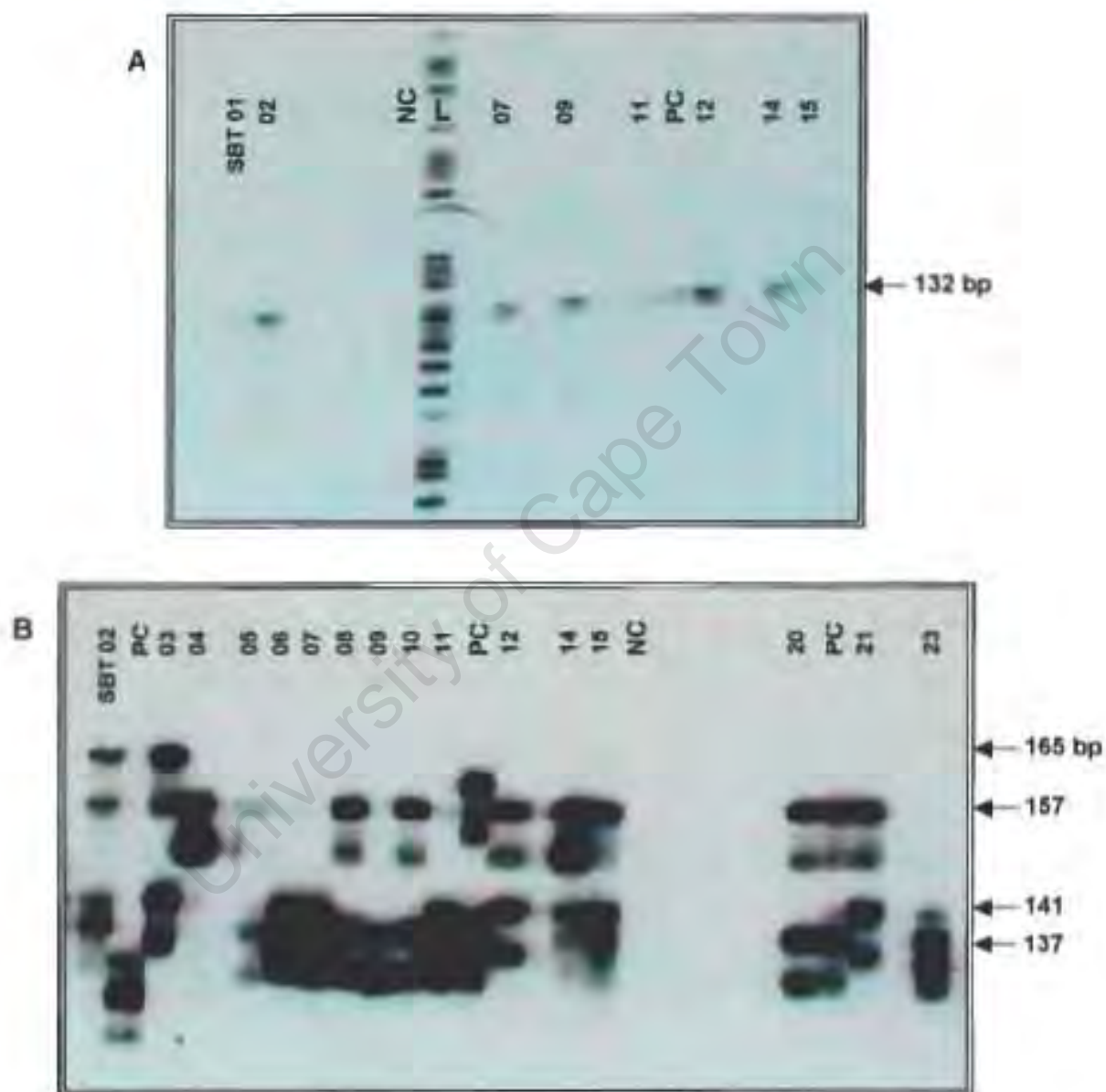


**Figure 4.24.** Polyacrylamide gel electropherograms of some representative DHs at radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite loci, FH2140 (A) and FH2328 (B), visualised autoradiographically. Alleles were sized vertically by comparison with both standard A-T ladders (L) and positive controls (PC), and included a negative control (NC).

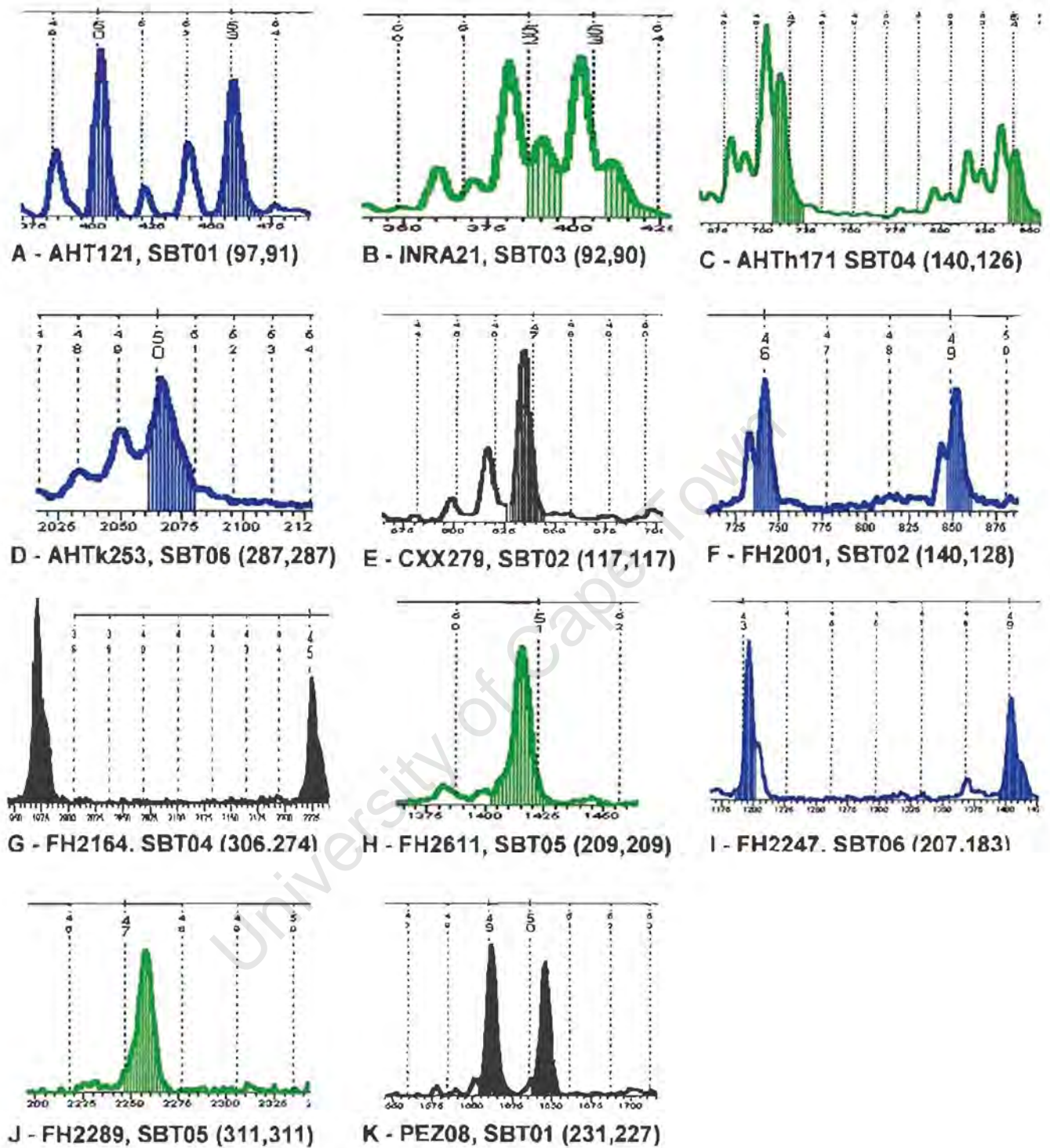


**Figure 4.25.** Electropherograms representing fluorescently-labelled microsatellite alleles (shaded peaks) in some representative DHs, sized from left to right according to an internal size standard (STRand). Microsatellite marker name, individual sample number, and allele sizes (bp) are indicated.

A total of 18 Staffordshire Bull Terriers (SBTs) were analysed at four polymorphic canine microsatellite markers (Appendix I) labelled with radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Figure 4.26.). Of these, only six individuals were analysed at the 11 microsatellite markers labelled with fluorescence (Figure 4.27.).

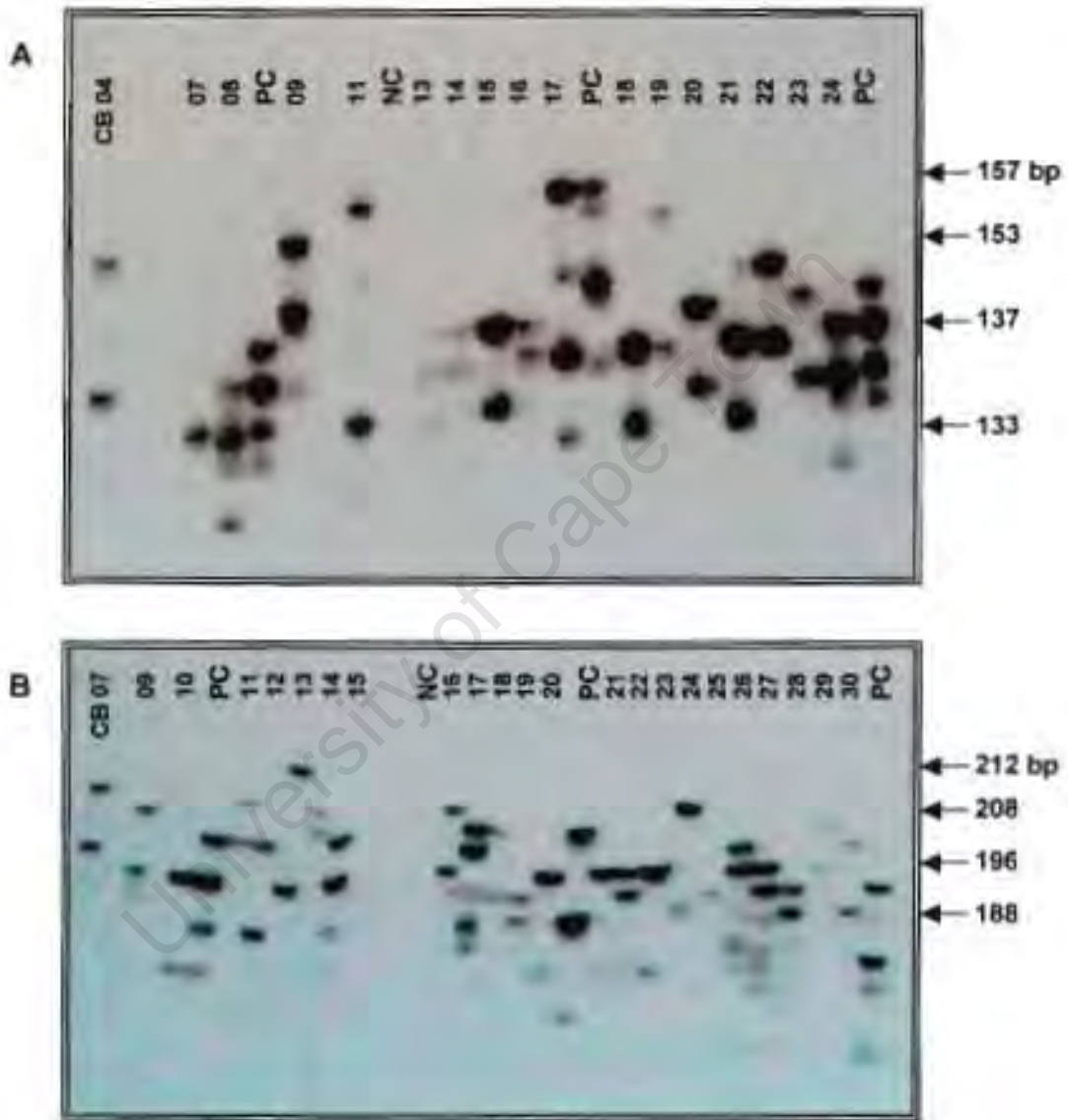


**Figure 4.26.** Polyacrylamide gel electropherograms of some representative SBTs at radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite loci, DTRCN1 (A) and FH2140 (B), visualised autoradiographically. Alleles were sized vertically by comparison with standard A-T ladders (L) and positive controls (PC), and included a negative control (NC).

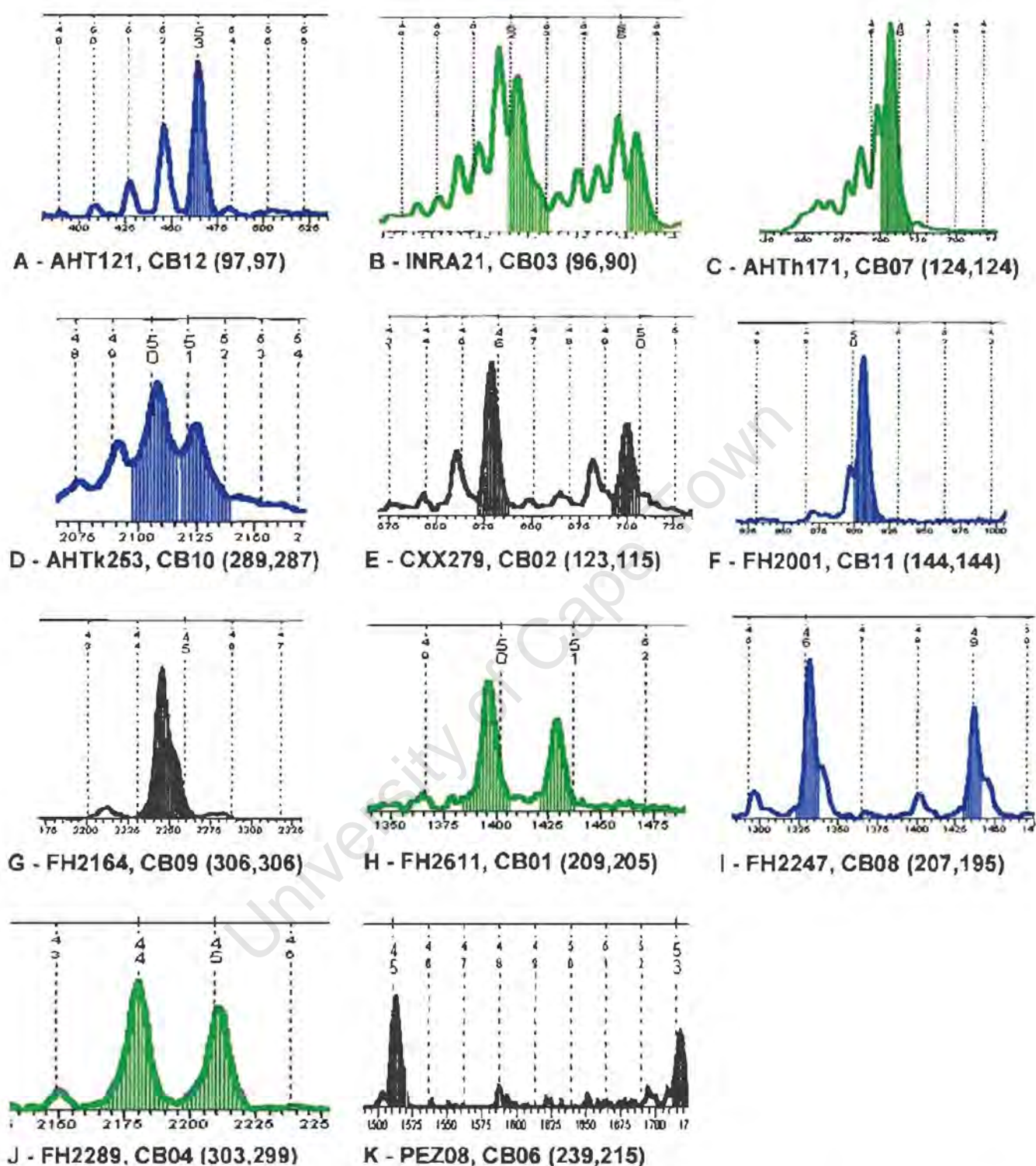


**Figure 4.27.** Electropherograms representing fluorescently-labelled microsatellite alleles (shaded peaks) in some representative SBTs, sized from left to right according to an internal size standard (STRand). Microsatellite marker name, individual sample number, and allele sizes (bp) are indicated.

A total of 37 purebred dogs, forming a composite breed (CB) group representing 30 officially recognised breeds, were analysed at four polymorphic canine microsatellite markers (Appendix I) labelled with radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP (Figure 4.28.). Of these, only 12 individuals representing 11 of the breeds were analysed at the 11 microsatellite markers labelled with fluorescence (Figure 4.29.).

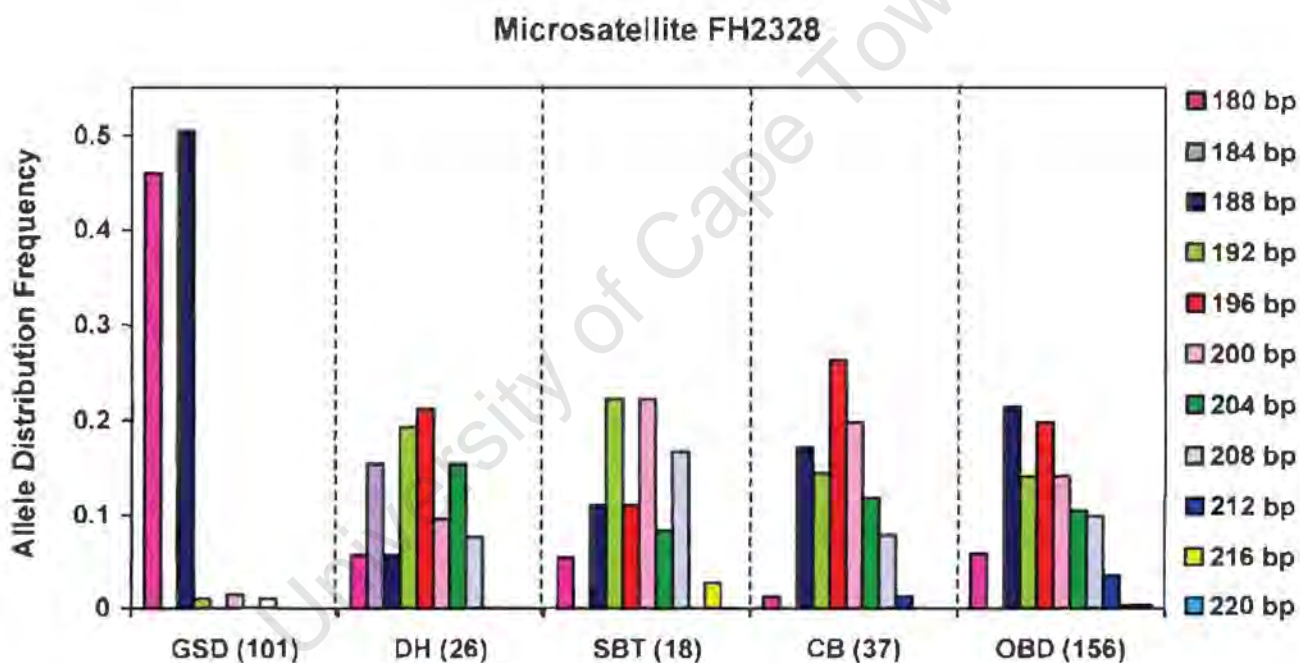


**Figure 4.28.** Polyacrylamide gel electropherograms of some representative dogs of the composite breed group at radioactive [ $\gamma^{32}\text{P}$ ] dATP-labelled microsatellite loci, FH2140 (A) and FH2328 (B), visualised autoradiographically. Alleles were sized vertically by comparison with standard A-T ladders (L) and positive controls (PC), and included a negative control (NC).



**Figure 4.29.** Electropherograms representing fluorescently-labelled microsatellite alleles (shaded peaks) in some representative dogs of the composite breed group, sized from left to right according to an internal size standard (STRand). Microsatellite marker name, individual sample number, and allele sizes (bp) are indicated.

The genetic diversity or polymorphism expressed by a population can be estimated by measuring allele frequency and distribution across a number of loci (Appendix II). An example of one such a locus (Figure 4.30.) graphically illustrated the allele distribution frequencies of GSDs relative to DHs, SBTs, and the CB group, as compared with the OBD population. At the FH2328 microsatellite locus, the GSD population had two common alleles (180bp and 188bp) with frequencies of 46.05 and 50.50, and the DH population expressed a private allele (184bp). Whereas the allele size range was similar for the DH, SBT, and CB populations, the heterozygosity and allele frequency distributions within the 15 microsatellite loci varied considerably, indicative of diverse genetic variation.



**Figure 4.30.** A graphic representation of the allele distribution frequencies for each purebred dog population, as compared with a population of OBDs, at the FH2328 microsatellite locus. Sample sizes are indicated in parentheses.

Table 4.31. represents the average genetic diversity of the combined GSD population relative to two other purebred dog populations and the CB group across all 15 microsatellite loci. These data include the population sample size, total number of alleles, mean number of alleles per locus corrected for differing sample size by 1 000 pseudoreplications with both the bootstrap and jackknife methods, the observed and expected heterozygosity values, and mean PIC values (AGARst, PIC Calculator).

In comparison with the other purebred dogs and the OBD population, the GSD population consistently expressed the least genetic diversity in terms of corrected number of alleles per locus, heterozygosities, and PIC values. The DH population had both the highest corrected number of alleles and PIC, although the observed and expected heterozygosity values suggested evidence of homozygous excess. While the SBT population expressed both fewer corrected number of alleles and PIC, it did have high levels of heterozygosity. The CB group expressed the highest levels of genetic diversity, and if this can be estimated as the total diversity in all dog breeds and representative of the ancestral or average population composition, then it suggests extensive variation within different breeds.

Population	Sample Size	Allele Number	Alleles / Locus (Bootstrap)	Alleles / Locus (Jackknife)	Heterozygosity		PIC
					Obs	Exp	
<b>GSD</b>	101	106	3.89	3.94	0.588	0.616	0.570
<b>DH</b>	26	87	4.62	5.14	0.589	0.718	0.676
<b>SBT</b>	18	72	4.10	4.80	0.725	0.669	0.620
<b>CB</b>	37	115	5.55	6.05	0.625	0.795	0.764
<b>OBD</b>	156	185	6.35	6.42	0.748	0.831	0.811

**Table 4.31.** The genetic diversity expressed by each purebred dog population relative to the OBD population, as illustrated by comparative allele counts, degrees of heterozygosity, and PIC values (AGARst, PIC Calculator).

Table 4.32. summarises the results of both the “sign test” and Wilcoxon sign-rank test” (BOTTLENECK). The GSD, DH, and CB populations exhibited statistically significant excess  $H_E$  over  $H_{EQ}$ , and there was no indication of a modal-shift in allele frequencies with a normal L-shaped allele distribution. The SBT population had a modal-shift in allele frequencies indicating a recent bottleneck event.

Table 4.33. summarises the Garza and Williamson’s “M” values (calculated using AGARst). The ratios calculated for the GSD, DH, and CB populations exceeded the critical value, indicating no detectable recent bottleneck event. However, the SBT population had a ratio less than 0.680, indicating recent reductions in effective population size.

Bottlenecks in the recent histories of the GSD, DH and CB populations were not statistically supported, but there was evidence of reduced effective population size in the SBT population.

Population	“Sign Test” TPM		“Wilcoxon Test” TPM		Modal Shift
	$H_E > H_{EQ}$	p-value	P of $H_{EXC}$	P of $H_{DEF}$	
GSD	8.85	0.012	0.011	0.991	L-shaped
DH	9.07	0.375	0.681	0.339	L-shaped
SBT	8.57	0.315	0.906	0.104	shifted
CB	8.94	0.390	0.906	0.104	L-shaped

**Table 4.32.** A summary of the results of the “sign test” and “ Wilcoxon sign-rank test” that detect bottleneck events in the recent history of each purebred dog population (BOTTLENECK).

Population	Garza & Williamson's "M"	Variance	Monomorphic Loci
GSD	0.756	0.051	0
DH	0.750	0.066	0
SBT	0.668	0.062	0
CB	0.796	0.042	0

**Table 4.33.** Garza & Williamson's "M" ratios for the detection of bottleneck events in each purebred dog population, the variance and number of monomorphic loci are also indicated (calculated using AGARst).

The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the GSD, DH, SBT, and CB populations were  $F_{IS} = 0.054, 0.248, 0.053,$  and  $0.252,$  respectively (FSTAT). There was a global average heterozygote deficit of 9.5% ( $F_{IS} = 0.095$ ) across all 15 microsatellite loci for each population, and a heterozygote deficit of 23.8% ( $F_{IT} = 0.238$ ) in the combined purebred dog population. There was a significant differentiation between the populations ( $G_{ST} = 0.158,$   $R_{ST} = 0.160$ ), however these estimates were less when the purebred dog populations were compared with the OBD population ( $G_{ST} = 0.092,$   $R_{ST} = 0.069$ ; FSTAT, GENEPOP).

Table 4.34. represents the pairwise comparisons of  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values between the GSD, DH, SBT, CB, and OBD populations (GENEPOP). These data consistently indicated significant differentiation between the purebred dog populations and between these populations and the CB group and the OBD population. There was non-significant differentiation between the CB group and the OBD population ( $G_{ST} = 0.010,$   $R_{ST} = 0.005$ ).

Population	GSD	DH	SBT	CB	OBD
GSD	-	0.215	0.177	0.145	0.103
DH	0.196	-	0.143	0.060	0.043
SBT	0.228	0.112	-	0.061	0.063
CB	0.126	0.051	0.052	-	0.010
OBD	0.068	0.080	0.028	0.005	-

**Table 4.34.** The mean pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  estimates between purebred dog populations and the OBD population across all 15 microsatellite loci ( $G_{ST}$  values above the diagonal and  $R_{ST}$  below; GENEPOP).

Table 4.35. indicates that the deviations from H-W equilibrium were significant for the GSD, DH, and CB populations ( $p < 0.001$ ) and that disequilibrium was statistically supported. However, the deviation was not significant ( $p = 0.465$ ) for the SBT population and was thus in H-W equilibrium.

Population	$\chi^2$	Df	p-value	H-W Equilibrium
GSD	infinity	30	<0.001	disequilibrium
DH	77.4	30	<0.001	disequilibrium
SBT	30.0	30	0.465	equilibrium
CB	infinity	30	<0.001	disequilibrium

**Table 4.35.** Probability tests verified whether the purebred dog populations deviated significantly from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium;  $\chi^2$ , degrees of freedom (Df) and p-values are indicated (GENEPOP).

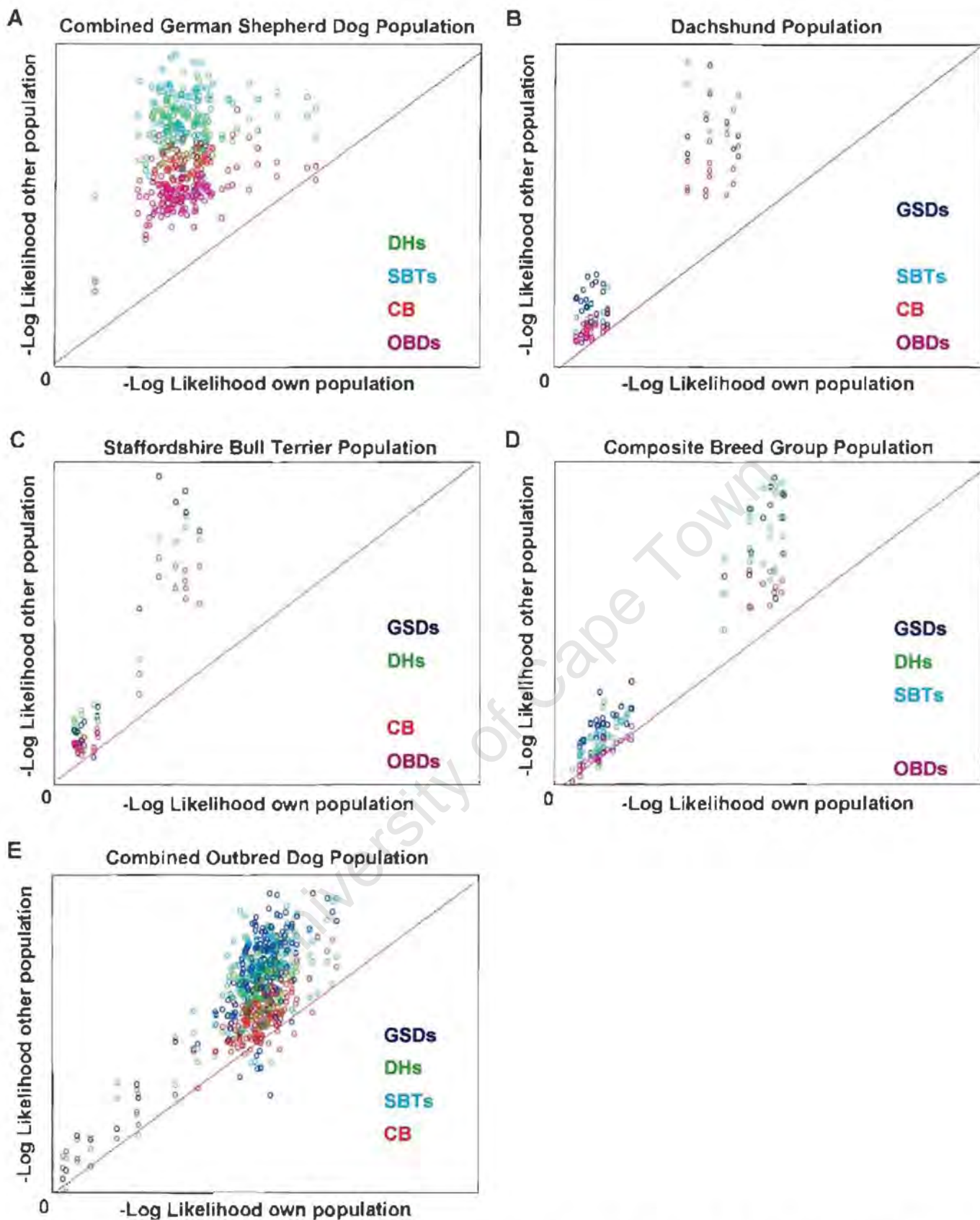
Assignment tests correctly grouped almost all individuals in the GSD, DH, and SBT populations, indicating significant differentiation among these breeds (Table 4.36.). However, only 81% of the individuals in the CB group were correctly assigned, indicating a certain degree of homogeneity within the founding individuals of the various breed populations (AGARst).

<b>Population</b>	<b>Correctly Assigned</b>	<b>Median Value Likelihood Ratios</b>	<b>Range of Values Likelihood Ratios</b>
<b>GSD</b>	99%	$9.20 \times 10^7$	$2.02 \times 10^1$ to $1.95 \times 10^{12}$
<b>DH</b>	100%	$1.41 \times 10^2$	$2.17 \times 10^0$ to $2.81 \times 10^{10}$
<b>SBT</b>	94%	$3.67 \times 10^2$	$6.26 \times 10^0$ to $5.96 \times 10^{14}$
<b>CB</b>	81%	$1.18 \times 10^1$	$1.07 \times 10^0$ to $5.68 \times 10^8$
<b>OBD</b>	84%	$4.56 \times 10^2$	$1.05 \times 10^0$ to $2.35 \times 10^7$

**Table 4.36.** The results of assignment tests indicating the percentage and likelihood ratios of individuals correctly assigned to each purebred dog population or to the OBD population (AGARst).

The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of individuals in each purebred dog population being assigned to its own source population was graphic representations of the assignment test results (AGARst). These results suggested significant differentiation between the GSD, DH, SBT, CB, and OBD populations (Figure 4.37. A to E).

Table 4.38. summarises the average number of alleles per locus, expected heterozygosity and PIC value across all 15 microsatellite loci for each of the breeds of dogs and OBDs examined in this study. These values were averaged across the entire domestic dog population to reveal seven alleles per locus, an expected heterozygosity of 0.726, and PIC value of 0.688.



**Figure 4.37.** The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of the combined GSD population being assigned to its own source population as compared with the other purebred dog populations (AGARst).

Locus	GSD			DH			SBT			CB			OBD			Mean		
	n	H <sub>E</sub>	PIC	n	H <sub>E</sub>	PIC	n	H <sub>E</sub>	PIC	n	H <sub>E</sub>	PIC	n	H <sub>E</sub>	PIC	n	H <sub>E</sub>	PIC
<b>DTRCN1</b>	8	0.230	0.226	8	0.820	0.797	4	0.250	0.238	8	0.762	0.729	13	0.839	0.820	<b>8</b>	<b>0.580</b>	<b>0.562</b>
<b>FH2137</b>	9	0.727	0.689	5	0.680	0.625	7	0.750	0.719	10	0.865	0.850	10	0.857	0.840	<b>8</b>	<b>0.776</b>	<b>0.745</b>
<b>FH2140</b>	8	0.763	0.728	6	0.490	0.460	5	0.714	0.660	8	0.774	0.745	11	0.783	0.764	<b>7</b>	<b>0.705</b>	<b>0.671</b>
<b>FH2328</b>	5	0.533	0.425	8	0.849	0.831	8	0.838	0.818	8	0.825	0.802	10	0.850	0.832	<b>8</b>	<b>0.779</b>	<b>0.742</b>
<b>AHT121</b>	7	0.546	0.515	8	0.851	0.833	4	0.680	0.622	9	0.802	0.778	13	0.869	0.856	<b>8</b>	<b>0.750</b>	<b>0.721</b>
<b>INRA21</b>	7	0.736	0.696	6	0.734	0.693	4	0.680	0.622	5	0.719	0.623	8	0.813	0.790	<b>6</b>	<b>0.736</b>	<b>0.685</b>
<b>AHTh171</b>	7	0.609	0.565	4	0.601	0.525	5	0.750	0.708	7	0.816	0.791	11	0.850	0.835	<b>7</b>	<b>0.725</b>	<b>0.685</b>
<b>AHTk253</b>	6	0.355	0.327	4	0.656	0.605	2	0.480	0.365	5	0.764	0.726	9	0.723	0.686	<b>5</b>	<b>0.596</b>	<b>0.542</b>
<b>CXX279</b>	3	0.609	0.529	5	0.695	0.642	3	0.625	0.555	5	0.722	0.674	11	0.800	0.772	<b>5</b>	<b>0.690</b>	<b>0.634</b>
<b>FH2001</b>	5	0.677	0.607	6	0.672	0.630	4	0.580	0.535	5	0.729	0.683	11	0.772	0.737	<b>6</b>	<b>0.686</b>	<b>0.638</b>
<b>FH2164</b>	8	0.602	0.543	3	0.656	0.582	7	0.840	0.820	8	0.835	0.815	15	0.848	0.831	<b>8</b>	<b>0.756</b>	<b>0.718</b>
<b>FH2611</b>	6	0.674	0.622	6	0.781	0.748	4	0.700	0.645	7	0.729	0.701	10	0.821	0.798	<b>7</b>	<b>0.741</b>	<b>0.703</b>
<b>FH2247</b>	14	0.825	0.804	7	0.773	0.740	7	0.820	0.798	11	0.858	0.845	22	0.928	0.923	<b>12</b>	<b>0.841</b>	<b>0.822</b>
<b>FH2289</b>	5	0.604	0.553	7	0.788	0.758	4	0.660	0.596	12	0.896	0.887	22	0.894	0.886	<b>10</b>	<b>0.768</b>	<b>0.736</b>
<b>PEZ08</b>	8	0.755	0.718	4	0.726	0.677	4	0.660	0.596	7	0.833	0.812	9	0.821	0.797	<b>6</b>	<b>0.759</b>	<b>0.720</b>
<b>Mean</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0.616</b>	<b>0.570</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0.718</b>	<b>0.676</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>0.668</b>	<b>0.620</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>0.795</b>	<b>0.764</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>0.831</b>	<b>0.811</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0.726</b>	<b>0.688</b>

**Table 4.38.** The number of alleles (n), expected heterozygosity (H<sub>E</sub>), and polymorphism information content (PIC) for 15 microsatellite loci.

# Chapter 5

## Discussion

### 5.1. Introduction

*"The breeding of fine dogs has not advanced as rapidly as it should have, due to a lack of knowledge of many breeders of the hidden faults in the available breeding stock. Perhaps we breeders will soon outgrow our adolescence - perhaps the time is near when we will be able to discuss the faults of our dogs and the reasons for them. We acknowledge that all dogs have faults, but it is 'bad form' to speak openly about them. Let us hope that the near future will bring an end to such a childish attitude so that we may progress towards the ideal in sureness and light, whereas now we creep in semi-darkness".* Goldbecker and Hart "This is the German Shepherd" (Elliott 1968).

A breed is defined as an intraspecies group of individuals with uniformly similar physical characteristics developed and directed by human control (Irion *et al.* 2003). Artificial selection has generated an array of phenotypically distinct breeds of dogs; this diversity cannot be equalled by any other animal species (Richman *et al.* 2001). The breeding strategies used to develop these breeds is associated with the inherent risk of losing genetic diversity, although certain breeds would have potentially lost more than others. The mtDNA genomes of the domestic dog and grey wolf differ by just 0.2%, and a limited number of generations have elapsed since the origin of many breeds, implying that uniformity is probably limited to only a small number of genes affecting breed-specific physiological or behavioural characteristics (Aguirre *et al.* 1999, Irion *et al.* 2003).

The explosion in breed variety began in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century as a result of public demand for unique and unusual dogs, whereby breeds became fashionable for their novelty value rather than the ability to fulfil a particular function. Even traditionally functional breeds are now bred primarily for exhibition. Such breeding programmes are controlled by the demands of the show ring with specific physical traits tending to be most important, rather than sound behaviour and temperament. Breed registries and kennel clubs became commonplace towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century for the regulation of breeding and exhibition. Breed integrity was ensured by the practice of only including progeny in breed databases if both parents had been registered and conformed to certain minimum criteria.

Levels of inbreeding were previously calculated according to pedigree analysis, but these estimations were frequently incorrect. Only a few generations are represented and earlier matings between related individuals are not included, and before the use of molecular genetic techniques to verify parentage, pedigrees were frequently incorrect (Koskinen and Bredbacka 2000).

Molecular genetic techniques have been used to investigate numerous breeds of dogs, with most reportedly expressing moderate to high levels of genetic diversity, with the degree of population differentiation indicated being primarily the result of differing allele distribution frequencies (Fredholm and Winterø 1995, Pihkanen 1996, Zajc *et al.* 1997, Morera *et al.* 1999, Koskinen and Bredbacka 2000, Altet *et al.* 2001, Irion *et al.* 2003 and Parker *et al.* 2004). These data were indicative of diverse founding populations with much interbreeding prior to the relatively recent origin of many modern breeds of dogs.

Dogs registered with the German Shepherd Dog Federation of South Africa are only eligible for breeding if certain minimum criteria are met. Every dog and bitch must conform to the Breed Standard and receive a grading of at least "good" at a breed show under an accredited judge, they must be x-rayed and passed free of hip dysplasia, they must have had their parentage verified, and all parents must have been registered with the Federation. As of February 2003, preliminary pedigree analysis revealed that only about 200 of the 1 130 parentage verified dogs were not first-degree relatives. This breeding stock included large numbers of individuals either sired or grand-sired by one of three dogs; the German-bred imported show dogs, Lasso von Descharo, Quando vom Bohawald, and Harto von Sendling. According to their pedigrees (Figure 5.1.), these dogs shared seven common ancestors and four sets of littermates in the four generations examined. Any recessive genetic disorder carried by one of these dogs could have been passed to their progeny to result in future widespread disease conditions. These three dogs have been retired from stud but a large proportion of the population now carries their bloodlines. This cycle is perpetuated; breed politics and success at the annual national breed show will result in a couple of dogs assuming the role of "popular sire". Further analysis of 250 dogs that were not first-degree relatives revealed only eight individuals that did not share any common ancestors for the four generations examined, this being representative of the levels of inbreeding and relatedness in the GSD breeding stock.

Breeders of show dogs tend to focus on the importance of bloodlines, with high levels of inbreeding existing in these lineages (Figure 5.1.). These breeders often maintain their own bitch-lines for breeding with the best available stud dogs, usually imported dogs. Current breed regulations allow for progeny to have multiple common ancestors, although the closest inbreeding allowed is for any particular individual to be the parent of the potential stud dog and grandparent of the bitch, or vice versa. However, it is possible to obtain special permission for mating combinations of father/daughter, mother/son or full-siblings. This permission is usually only granted when the dogs concerned have been graded VA (excellent select) at the national breed show, for it is a commonly held belief that close inbreeding, the ultimate mating of “like to like”, will produce an exceptional dog.

Pedigree analysis of sport dogs revealed much lower levels of inbreeding, with three of the most popular stud dogs, the German imports, Ari vom Eckgrund and Canto von Neumis Flucht, and the Belgian import, Vasco van Salenshof, sharing no common ancestors in the four generations examined. Bloodlines are still important, but breeders tend to focus on the performances of the potential stud dog and bitch, and that of the bitch sire. Both bitches and stud dogs are usually imported; possibly because this breed type has only been in South Africa for about ten years and no local bloodlines have been established.

Kennel Union of South Africa registered show dogs have been bred in almost complete isolation for nearly twenty years, with little regulation regarding levels of inbreeding and minimum breeding criteria. Crossbred show and sport dogs would have no ancestors common to both sides of their pedigrees, although it is generally inexperienced amateur breeders that experiment with mating such “unlike” dogs. Only a small number of these crossbred dogs are produced because they usually do not inherit the best of each parent, but are rather a mixture of the characteristic physical and mental traits, and are not typically suited to either breed type.

With the advent of more specialised requirements, it would appear as though two distinct types of dogs are required to completely fulfil the demands of the breed standard. It would be the ultimate aspiration of any breed enthusiast to produce the “perfect” GSD, having the physical conformation of a show dog and mental abilities of a sport dog, unfortunately this seems unlikely to be achieved with the existing politics and breeding strategies.

Name of Dog	1 <sup>st</sup> Generation	2 <sup>nd</sup> Generation	3 <sup>rd</sup> Generation	4 <sup>th</sup> Generation			
<b>Lasso von Descharo</b>	Cim vom Ecknachtal	<b>Cello von der Römerau</b>	Natz vom Hasenbom	Dax von der Wienerau			
			Quana von Arminius	Yanka vom Hühnegrab			
		Tigrise vom Wildsteiger Land	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	Ingo vom Haus Vögele	Xaver von Arminius		
				Warro vom Asterplatz	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>		
	Joga von Descharo	Fanto vom Hirschel	Tell vom Großen Sand	Eve vom Haus Vögele	Warro vom Asterplatz		
				Nick von der Wienerau	Jenny vom Großen Sand		
		<b>Fina von Arminius</b>	Ica vom Haus Reiterland	<b>Lasso vom Wiederbrücker Land</b>	Reza vom Haus Beck	Sonny vom Badener-Land	
					Afra vom Haus Reiterland	Reza vom Haus Beck	
			<b>Fee vom Weihertürchen</b>	<b>Zorro vom Haus Beck</b>	<b>Ora vom Wiederbrücker Land</b>	Afra vom Haus Reiterland	Jenny vom Großen Sand
						Xando von Arminius	Reza vom Haus Beck
<b>Quando vom Bohawald</b>	Darius aus Wattenscheid	<b>Rony von Arminius</b>	<b>Fedor von Arminius</b>	Zorro vom Haus Beck			
			Nati vom Grafenhain	<b>Fee vom Weihertürchen</b>			
		Xena aus Wattenscheid	<b>Uran vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	<b>Quino von Arminius</b>	<b>Lasso vom Wiederbrücker Land</b>		
				Ira vom Weihertürchen	<b>Fee vom Weihertürchen</b>		
	Milli vom Bohawald	Zasko vom Klostermoor	<b>Uran vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	<b>Uran vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>		
				Ilja vom Maggenheim	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>		
		Indy vom Bohawald	Dando aus Nordrheinland	Ery vom Bohawald	Harko von der Bayernwaldperk.	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	
					Rinda aus Wattenscheid	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	
			<b>Pass di ca San Marco</b>	<b>Neike van Noort</b>	<b>Dingo vom Haus Gero</b>	Aida vom Roruper Waldschlöbchen	<b>Palme vom Wildsteiger Land</b>
						<b>Amanda aus Nordrheinland</b>	<b>Kim vom Wildpferdbruch</b>
<b>Harto von Sendling</b>	Vitus vom Haus-Farrenkopf	Visum von Arminius	Jeck vom Nonicum	<b>Odin von Tannenmeise</b>			
			<b>Ratta von Arminius</b>	Anett vom Nonicum			
		Yanka aus Agrigento	Asswan von Altkircher Wild	Pütz von Anakjo	<b>Fedor von Arminius</b>		
				Liane von der Bargefenne	Nati vom Grafenhain		
	Cina von der Wienerau	Jello von der Wienerau	<b>Fedor von Arminius</b>	Bonnie vom Hühnegrab	<b>Quando von Arminius</b>		
				Moni vom Hühnegrab	<b>Lasso vom Wiederbrücker Land</b>		
		Venja von der Wienerau	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Xinte von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Fee vom Weihertürchen</b>	
					<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Uran vom Wildsteiger Land</b>	
			<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>
						<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>	<b>Ussi von der Wienerau</b>

Figure 5.1. The four generational pedigrees of the "popular sires" Lasso von Descharo, Quando vom Bohawald, and Harto von Sendling, common ancestors and sets of littermates are indicated by corresponding colours (German Shepherd Dog Federation of South Africa and [www.pedigreedatabase.com/gsd/search.html](http://www.pedigreedatabase.com/gsd/search.html)).

## 5.2. The Outbred Dog according to region of origin

The comparison of outbred mongrel dogs from Cape Town in the Western Cape, Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape, Johannesburg in southwestern Gauteng and Pretoria in northeastern Gauteng, indicated comparable levels of extensive genetic diversity as well as non-significant population differentiation. This was clearly illustrated by the allele frequency distribution at locus FH2611, two subpopulations expressed the same ten alleles and the other two expressed nine of these alleles. All subpopulations had the same four most common alleles, with the highest individual allele frequency of 0.324. The corrected numbers of alleles per locus (between 8.66 and 9.80), the observed heterozygosity values (between 72% and 77.6%), expected heterozygosity values (between 81.8% and 82.5%), and PIC values (between 0.796 and 0.802) further demonstrated the comparable levels of genetic diversity. The discrepancy in the values of the observed and expected heterozygosities was indicative of slight homozygous excess.

Microsatellite marker data have been successfully tested for heterozygosity excess, modal shifts in allele size distributions, and ratios of allele number to range in allele size, for the detection of recent bottleneck events in an array of natural populations (Luikart and Cornuet 1998, Luikart et al. 1998a, Garza and Williamson 2001). These tests indicated that there was no statistical support for significant bottleneck events in the history of any of the OBD subpopulations, indicating that no recent reductions in effective population size have occurred.

F-statistic and Rho-statistic estimates were used to measure genetic differentiation within and between the OBD subpopulations. The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Johannesburg, and Pretoria OBD subpopulations were all positive ( $F_{IS} = 0.068, 0.095, 0.136, \text{ and } 0.128$ , respectively), with an average global heterozygote deficit for each subpopulation of 10.3%, indicating the existence of significant levels of homozygous excess. There was no indication of non-amplifying or silent alleles in the parentage verification analyses and is unlikely to be affecting these statistical estimates, thus the homozygous excess indicated in all four OBD subpopulations could be the result of internal substructuring due to local inbreeding.

The pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  estimates of between 0.001 and 0.011 and an average global differentiation of 0.2% among the OBD subpopulations was indicative of non-significant levels of population differentiation. Substantial migration and gene flow across the country during past generations has resulted in genetic homogeneity within the subpopulations.

The combined OBD population was not congruent with H-W proportions, most likely due to the substructuring caused by the geographic isolation of the subpopulations. H-W disequilibrium was also statistically supported for each of the subpopulations; these deviations could have resulted from any infringement of the assumptions made for populations in equilibrium. As there was no evidence of allele non-amplification, and the mongrel population is extremely large, these deviations are most probably due to the occurrence of non-random mating and extensive gene flow. In addition, these deviations from H-W equilibrium occurred consistently with positive  $F_{IS}$  values, indicating that homozygous excess influenced this state of disequilibrium.

The proportion of individuals in a population correctly assigned to its own source population was another useful measure of differentiation. Assignment tests determined the ratio of the likelihood of the genotype of each dog in a population being actually drawn from that population. Between 8% and 20% of the individuals in each OBD subpopulation could be statistically assigned to another of the subpopulations, indicating the occurrence of substantial gene flow resulting in minimal differentiation in the mongrel populations.

The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of individuals being assigned to either their own or another of the OBD subpopulations were graphic representations of the assignment test results. Each pairwise comparison revealed that many individuals were clustered across the diagonal; suggesting an equal likelihood of being assigned to another subpopulation, further indication of the minimal differentiation between the OBD subpopulations.

There was a significant degree of genetic homogeneity between the OBD regional subpopulations, such that the combined South African population was representative of a genetically diverse control population, used in this study for comparative analyses with purebred dog populations.

### **5.3. The German Shepherd Dog**

#### **5.3.1. According to country of origin and breed type**

Comparative analyses between the GSD subpopulations indicated a moderate loss of genetic diversity relative to the OBD population, comparable levels of genetic diversity in the various breed types, non-significant differentiation between the South African and German-bred show dog subpopulations, and moderate differentiation between the German show and sport dog subpopulations.

At the AHT121 microsatellite marker, the South African show, KUSA show, crossbred, German show and sport subpopulations expressed different combinations of four, three, four, four, and seven alleles, respectively, in comparison with the 13 alleles of the OBD population. The German sport dogs had a private allele (79bp) at this locus, with the 101bp allele being most common in all subpopulations and reaching a highest frequency of 0.813 in the KUSA show subpopulation. At the AHT171 microsatellite marker, the South African show, KUSA show, crossbred, German show and sport subpopulations expressed seven, two, three, two, and five alleles, respectively, in comparison with the 11 alleles of the OBD population. The 138bp allele was most common in all GSD subpopulations, reaching a highest frequency of 0.786 in the KUSA show subpopulation. Interestingly, the most common allele (130bp) in the crossbred dog subpopulation was fairly infrequent in both the show and sport subpopulations.

The combined GSD population showed a moderate loss of genetic diversity relative to the OBD population. The average number of alleles per locus is a more sensitive measure of genetic diversity, with the GSD population expressing almost half that of the OBDs (6.48 and 7.07 compared with 11.48 and 11.90 according to the bootstrap and jackknife methods, respectively). The average observed and expected heterozygosities and PIC values were both approximately three quarters that of the OBDs (58.8% and 60.6% compared with 74.8% and 83.1%, respectively, and 0.570 compared with 0.811).

The German sport dog subpopulation consistently expressed the highest levels of genetic diversity, with the most corrected alleles per locus (3.96 and 4.02 according to the bootstrap and jackknife methods), observed and expected heterozygosities (62.1% and 61.5%), and PIC value (0.575). All but one of the private alleles detected in the GSD

subpopulations were restricted to these German-bred sport dogs (alleles 79bp at AHT121, 88bp at INRA21 and 354bp at FH2164). The South African show dog subpopulation expressed the second highest levels of genetic diversity, with respect to the corrected alleles per locus (3.86 and 3.93 according to the bootstrap and jackknife methods), observed and expected heterozygosities (61.0% and 56.9%), and PIC value (0.569). This subpopulation had a single private allele (185bp) at locus FH2611. The German-bred show, crossbred and KUSA show subpopulations expressed the least genetic diversity with the lowest numbers of corrected alleles per locus, observed and expected heterozygosities, and PIC values. The crossbred show and sport dog subpopulation was monomorphic at a single microsatellite marker, the DTRCN1 locus.

Greater genetic diversity would have been expected in the ancestral (German) population in comparison with a derived (South African) population. However, even those show dogs classified as locally bred have imported ancestors only one or two generations back in their pedigrees, especially on the sire-line. Importation (migration and gene flow) over a number of decades has resulted in the continuous accumulation of genetic diversity in the South African show dog subpopulation. However, the effective population size of the breeding stock is much smaller than that of the household pet population and includes many closely related individuals. As a result, the show dogs expressed less genetic diversity than that of the much smaller sport dog subpopulation, representative of the large and diverse population of sport dogs in Germany. The first sport dogs arrived in South Africa approximately ten years ago and the subpopulation size has remained much smaller in comparison with the show dog subpopulation as this breed type is usually only sold to a small community of dog-sport enthusiasts and not generally as household pets. It was surprising that despite a "hybrid" status, the crossbred show and sport dog subpopulation, along with the KUSA show dogs, expressed the least genetic diversity. The crossbred subpopulation had a small sample size, but is also a very small population, resulting in limited genetic diversity. KUSA-bred show dogs have been bred in near isolation for many generations and inbreeding and restricted levels of migration and gene flow have resulted in depleted genetic diversity.

There was no evidence of a bottleneck event in the recent history of the South African show dog subpopulation, however there was some statistical support for reductions in effective population size in the other GSD subpopulations. Heterozygosity excess in post-bottleneck populations is temporary and lasts only a few generations, whereas the ratio of allele number to range in allele size range ( $M$ ) usually remains for many generations (Luikart and Cornuet 1998, Garza and Williamson 2001).

The GSD breed has remained popular both as show stock and household pets since first arriving in this country many decades ago, with the large population size frequently further expanded by the importation of additional breeding stock. This immigration from Germany could have expanded the number of rare alleles in the South African show dog subpopulation without influencing the levels of heterozygosity, thereby concealing any heterozygosity excess that may have existed in the population (Cornuet and Luikart 1996). The KUSA-bred show dog subpopulation would have experienced a reduction in population size when the German Shepherd Dog Federation of South Africa was established in 1984. Prior to that date, all GSDs were registered and bred under the auspices of KUSA, but nearly all breed enthusiasts transferred their membership to the Federation. The crossbred show and sport dogs have had a constantly small effective population size, for only a small number of this type is produced. The bottleneck events detected in the two German-bred subpopulations would be reflecting founder effects resulting from the migration of a limited number of individuals from a much larger population, due to the continuous importation of both breed types for exhibition and breeding purposes.

The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the combined GSD population and the OBD population ( $F_{IS} = 0.054$  and  $0.104$ , respectively) revealed that homozygous excess in the OBD population was nearly twice that of the GSDs. The significant level of homozygous excess in the OBD population was purportedly due to internal substructuring, as there was no indication of non-amplifying or silent alleles in the parentage verification analyses. It could therefore be reasoned that this factor had less effect on the GSDs as a result of the greater degree of movement of dogs across the country. There was significant average differentiation between these two populations ( $G_{ST} = 0.103$ ,  $R_{ST} = 0.058$ ).

Statistical pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  comparisons between each GSD subpopulation and the OBD population (mean  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values of 0.060 and 0.084) reflected significant levels of population differentiation. These data illustrated the effects of genetic drift since the GSD breed was established just over 100 years ago.

F-statistic and Rho-statistic estimates were used to measure genetic differentiation within and between the GSD subpopulations. The homozygote-heterozygote proportions of the South African show, KUSA-bred show, crossbred, and German show and sport subpopulations ( $F_{IS} = 0.046, -0.040, 0.081, 0.046,$  and  $0.020$ , respectively) revealed that only the KUSA show dogs had no evidence of homozygous excess. There was non-significant average differentiation between the subpopulations ( $G_{ST} = 0.026, R_{ST} = 0.026$ ), although pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  comparisons between the subpopulations revealed varying levels of differentiation. There was non-significant differentiation between the South African and German show dogs ( $G_{ST} = 0.007, R_{ST} = 0.021$ ), as sufficient migration has occurred during past generations to provide gene flow resulting in genetic homogeneity. There was significant differentiation between the KUSA-bred show dogs and the two German imported subpopulations (mean  $G_{ST} = 0.062, R_{ST} = 0.070$ ), as the relatively small population has been bred in near isolation for 20 years, accelerating the effects of random genetic drift. There was significant differentiation between the German-bred imported show and sport dogs ( $G_{ST} = 0.054, R_{ST} = 0.069$ ), as distinct show and sport dogs have evolved from separate breeding programmes since the 1960s, although both subpopulations have experienced extensive levels of migration and gene flow.

The number of loci in H-W equilibrium was another method of detecting population differentiation. H-W disequilibrium was statistically supported for the combined GSD population, indicating intrabreed substructuring. Deviations from H-W equilibrium across all 15 loci were significant for the South African show subpopulation ( $p < 0.001$ ), statistically supporting disequilibrium. Deviations from H-W equilibrium were not significant for the other subpopulations and were thus in equilibrium. There was no evidence of allele non-amplification and the GSD population is relatively large in size, therefore these deviations were probably due to non-random mating, inbreeding and extensive gene flow.

Assignment tests correctly grouped 100% of the individuals in the combined GSD population, whereas only 96% of the OBDs were correctly assigned. This indicated that gene flow was unidirectional, from the purebred dog population to the mongrel population. The “breed barrier” rule prevents the inclusion of dogs in the breed database unless both parents were registered members, although a proportion of the individuals in the OBD population would have GSD ancestry. Only 70% of the South African show subpopulation was correctly assigned, indicating minimal levels of differentiation due to substantial migration and gene flow from Germany to South Africa. The German sport subpopulation had 94% of its individuals correctly assigned, indicating a moderate degree of differentiation during the 40 years since the breed types separated.

The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of individuals in a subpopulation correctly assigned to its own source population were graphic representations of the assignment test results. The diagonal represented the probability that an individual was equally likely to be assigned to its own or another population. Significant differentiation was indicated between the GSD and OBD populations, although a number of OBDs had a greater likelihood of being assigned to the GSD population, suggestive of GSD ancestry. These data also suggested minimal differentiation between the South African and German-bred show dogs, and moderate levels of differentiation between the show and sport dog subpopulations.

Morphological measurements were taken of 30 representative GSD show dogs, 20 sport dogs and seven crossbred dogs, from which the average gradient of the slope of the back of each breed type was calculated. These data indicated that show dogs conformed best to the Breed Standard in all respects, with sport dogs tending to be smaller at the shoulder but with flatter topline gradients due to higher pelvic height measurements. Crossbred dogs were tallest at the shoulder coupled with the shortest body length and an average topline gradient halfway between the show and sport dog types. Principle component analysis (PCA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the morphological data were used to determine the significance of the differentiation between the GSD breed types.

The total variance in the data set was effectively summarised by the first two PCA components (86.37%). The pelvic height measurements had a high factor score on the y-axis (F2); with the other three variables having low factor scores on this axis. This

indicated that pelvic height was responsible for most of the variation between the breed types. The graphical plot of the mean component scores for each type separated primarily along the y-axis (F2), indicating that morphological variation was predominantly due to differences in shape rather than size. The show and sport dogs were most separate, with the crossbred dogs situated between the other breed types.

ANOVA tested the significance of differences between means in the data set of each breed type, with probability values calculated for shoulder height ( $p = 0.212$ ), body length ( $p = 0.342$ ), and pelvic height ( $p < 0.001$ ) measurements. These results indicated that shoulder height and body length were similar in all breed types, but significant variation existed in pelvic height measurements.

The gradient of the topline ( $\Delta y/x$ ) of each GSD breed type was calculated according to the average change in y-axis (difference between shoulder height and pelvic height) in relation to the average change in x-axis (body length). Thus, significant differences in pelvic height resulted in significantly different topline gradients. Show dogs had the lowest average pelvic height resulting in the steepest topline gradient (0.28) and sport dogs had the highest average pelvic height resulting in the flattest topline gradient (0.13). The crossbred dogs had an average pelvic height between the show and sport dogs resulting in a topline gradient (0.20) halfway between that of the two main breed types.

PCA and ANOVA confirmed the existence of GSD breed types, thus morphological analysis revealed significant differentiation between show dogs and sport dogs with regards to the phenotypic trait characterised as the gradient of the slope of the back. However, molecular genetic techniques indicated only moderate levels of differentiation between these breed types. This discrepancy could be influenced by the microsatellite markers used not being linked to the genes responsible for the morphology and/or temperament characteristic of each breed type. In addition, it is possible that the 40 years since the demand for specialised dogs initiated the division in the breed has not been sufficient for significant divergence in allele frequency distributions or for the accumulation of private alleles in these neutral markers. Alternatively, the observed morphological differences could be merely the result of founder effects and random genetic drift influencing these phenotypic determinants.

### 5.3.2. Comparisons with DHs, SBTs, and other purebred dogs

Comparative analyses indicated a moderate loss of genetic diversity in the GSD population relative to other purebred dog populations. Significant differentiation between these breeds of dogs was indicative of genetic isolation and resultant random drift since the establishment of each breed.

At the FH2328 microsatellite marker, lower number of alleles indicated loss of diversity in the GSD population, with five alleles compared with eight alleles in the DH, SBT, and CB populations, and ten in the OBD population. Two of the GSD alleles were very common, with frequencies of 0.460 and 0.505, and the remaining three alleles were quite rare.

In comparison with other purebred dog populations, the GSD population consistently expressed the least genetic diversity in terms of corrected number of alleles per locus, heterozygosities, and PIC values. The DH population had both the highest corrected number of alleles and PIC value, although the large discrepancy in observed and expected heterozygosity suggested homozygous excess. This population consisted of three distinct breed types, the standard short-coat, miniature short-coat and miniature long-coat DHs. The miniature DH and other coat types were derived from the original standard short-coat DH by outcrosses with other breeds in the last 100 years to obtain the desired phenotypic traits, introducing much genetic diversity into the DH population. In addition, Koskinen and Bredbacka (2000) reported that wire-haired DHs had the highest level of genetic diversity compared with four other breeds of dogs examined. While the SBT population had both fewer corrected number of alleles and PIC value, it did express high levels of heterozygosity.

The alleles expressed by the purebred dog populations across all 15 microsatellite loci were effectively a subset of those in the OBD population, with 36 alleles unique to the OBDs. All the private alleles detected in purebred dog populations were found in those breeds that originated in Germany. Two of the GSD subpopulations, the German sport dogs (alleles 88bp at INRA21 and 354bp at FH2164) and South African show dogs (alleles 297bp at AHTk253 and 185bp at FH2611), and the DH population (alleles 150bp at FH2137, 184bp at FH2328, and 109bp at AHT121) expressed unique alleles that would probably be more common in the German OBD population.

These results indicated no significant correlation between levels of genetic diversity and either population size or length of time since official breed recognition. This contradicted the data reported by Irion *et al.* (2003), whereby the oldest and smallest breeds of dogs tended to express the least amount of genetic diversity. The GSD breed received official recognition with the establishment of the S.V. in 1899, with a population size of 7 990 individuals registered with KUSA and 7 415 registered with the GSD Federation of South Africa for the period 1993 to 2003 (the German population would be much larger). The standard short-coat DH was recognised in 1840, and the other breed types between 1886 and 1898, with a population size of 655 standard and 6 070 miniature DHs registered with KUSA for the same period. The SBT breed was recognised in the mid 1930's, and has a population size of 20 472 individuals registered with KUSA for the same period. In terms of corrected numbers of alleles and PIC values, the DH population expressed the highest levels of genetic diversity despite being both the oldest and smallest breed. The SBT population expressed the second highest levels of genetic diversity, even though it was both the youngest and largest breed. The GSD population, intermediate in terms of population size and time since breed recognition, consistently expressed the least genetic diversity.

With the exception of the OBD population, the CB group expressed the highest levels of genetic diversity. If this can be estimated as the total diversity in all purebred dog breeds and representative of the ancestral or average population composition, then it suggested extensive variation within different breeds. Despite relatively high levels of inbreeding and intense selection for phenotypic uniformity, genetic diversity within the GSD, DH, SBT, and CB populations was not considerably less than that of the OBD population, indicating only moderate loss of genetic diversity in purebred dogs.

A mean PIC value of 0.69 (Table 5.39.), across all 15 microsatellite markers for the five domestic dog populations, was revealed by this study. This value was greater than the 0.52 reported by Ostrander *et al.* (1993) or the 0.50 reported by Zajc *et al.* (1997). It was possible that the microsatellite markers used for this research were unusually polymorphic in nature, as 11 were chosen specifically for parentage verification. It must be taken into consideration that microsatellite marker data can be confounded by high mutation rates (Irion *et al.* 2003).

There was statistical support for a bottleneck event in the recent history of the SBT population, however there was no evidence of reductions in effective population size in the other purebred dog populations. The GSD breed has remained widespread throughout the world since gaining popularity after World War I, and it could be deduced that the breed has had little or no reduction in population size. The DH breed was presumed to experience bottleneck events after each World War, although these may not have been detected because a new equilibrium would be attained after a number of generations. In addition, if the population numbers increased rapidly after the event, then surprisingly little diversity can have been lost. The modern SBT only developed as a companion dog after receiving official recognition in the 1930's, and becoming extremely popular in the latter half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. This popularity has ensured a consistently large effective population size to date.

The homozygote-heterozygote proportions in the GSD, DH, SBT, and CB populations ( $F_{IS} = 0.054, 0.248, 0.053, \text{ and } 0.252$ , respectively) indicated homozygous excess in all purebred dogs, most especially the DHs and CB group. There was a significant average differentiation between these populations ( $G_{ST} = 0.158, R_{ST} = 0.160$ ); however, the estimates were less when the purebred dogs were compared with the OBD population ( $G_{ST} = 0.092, R_{ST} = 0.069$ ). This would be indicative of the outbred heterogeneous nature of the founding individuals of many breeds of dogs. The pairwise  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  values consistently indicated significant differentiation (mean  $G_{ST} = 0.178, R_{ST} = 0.179$ ) between the GSD, DH, and SBT populations, and between these populations and the OBDs (mean  $G_{ST} = 0.070, R_{ST} = 0.059$ ). However, non-significant differentiation between the CB group and the OBD population ( $G_{ST} = 0.010, R_{ST} = 0.005$ ) was indicative of the diverse nature of the founding populations with much interbreeding prior to the relatively recent origin of many modern breeds of dogs. The degree of population differentiation ( $G_{ST} = 0.092$ ) among the purebred and mongrel dog populations reported in this study was similar to that detected ( $G_{ST} = 0.088$ ) among the three main races of man, the Negroid, Mongoloid, and Caucasoid (Jordana *et al.* 1992). These high values of  $G_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  are indicative of the occurrence of rapid genetic drift due to small population sizes.

The number of loci in H-W equilibrium was another method of detecting population differentiation. Deviations from H-W equilibrium were statistically supported ( $p < 0.001$ ) for the GSD, DH, and CB populations. This disequilibrium was indicative of intrabreed substructuring possibly due to the effects of inbreeding, the genetic isolation of individual breed types in the GSD and DH populations, and non-random mating associated with the breeding strategies used by dog breeders, and limited sample sizes. The deviations from equilibrium were not significant for the SBT population, and the breed was thus in H-W equilibrium. Therefore, despite moderately low levels of genetic diversity, there has been negligible inbreeding over recent generations and the breeding strategy used has been optimal. The SBT breed has a very large population size in South Africa, and originated relatively recently from diverse founding individuals bred primarily for performance.

Assignment tests correctly grouped almost all individuals in the GSD, DH, and SBT populations, indicating significant differentiation among these breeds. However, only 81% of the individuals in the CB group were correctly assigned, indicating a certain degree of homogeneity within the founding individuals of the various breed populations. The “breed barrier” rule ensures that gene flow is unidirectional, from the purebred dog populations to the mongrel population, with a proportion of OBD individuals having GSD, DH, or SBT ancestry, as indicated by the fact that only 84% of the OBD population was correctly assigned to its own source population.

The pairwise plots of the negative log likelihood of individuals in each purebred dog population being assigned to its own source population were graphic representations of these assignment test results, and indicated moderate to significant levels of differentiation between the GSD, DH, SBT, CB, and OBD populations.

#### **5.4. Conclusions**

The GSD breed could not be described as highly inbred, and does not appear to be in imminent danger of inbreeding depression or drastic loss of variation. Although, care must be taken in the future not to further decrease the current levels of genetic diversity.

Dog breeders would obviously intend mating their bitches with the best available stud dogs, however it must be taken into consideration that overusing a single dog could be detrimental to the breed as a whole. More effective levels of communication would perhaps result in the imported dogs being as unrelated as possible, many different bloodlines being brought into the country would provide a broader base from which breeders could choose a stud dog. It is a considerable financial investment to import good quality breeding stock and, considering the exchange rate, the purchase of a single dog could run to several hundred thousand rands. To receive a return on this investment, stud dog owners tend to accept as many matings as possible and are not likely to turn down enquiries for the use of their dog.

It must therefore be the responsibility of the breeder to take levels of genetic diversity into consideration when choosing a stud dog. One possible approach for the management of the genetic health of the breed would be to make use of the already available molecular data, with 12 microsatellite markers being routinely analysed for parentage verification. That is to say, if the breeder were to choose a selection of potential stud dogs according to the mental and physical traits that would best complement their bitch, but then permitted the final deciding factor to be the dog that contributed the most genetic diversity to the offspring as determined by these neutral markers. This would facilitate the preservation of genetic diversity in the breed.

The results of this study demonstrated that purebred dog populations are complex in nature. Many factors contribute to the observed genetic diversity, for although breeds of dogs are strictly selected for phenotypic traits, the breeds investigated were more heterogeneous than would have been expected from the analysis of their pedigrees.

# Chapter 6

## References

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# Appendix I

## DNA Samples and Raw Data

A summarised table of the DNA samples included in this study, and the tabulated raw molecular data obtained from microsatellite marker analysis of 15 polymorphic loci.

Population	Sample Size	Region of Origin (South Africa)	
Outbred Dogs	46	Cape Town, Western Cape	
	42	Port Elizabeth, Eastern Cape	
	30	Johannesburg, south-west Gauteng	
	38	Pretoria, north-east Gauteng	

Population	Sample Size	Country of Origin	Breed Type
German Shepherd Dogs	56	South Africa	Show
	8	South Africa	KUSA
	9	South Africa	Show / Sport (Shw/Sp)
	10	Germany	Show
	18	Germany	Sport
Dachshunds	8	South Africa	Standard short-coat
	13	South Africa	Miniature short-coat
	5	South Africa	Miniature long-coat
Staffordshire Bull Terriers	18	South Africa	-
Composite Breed Group	8	South Africa	Gundogs
	3	South Africa	Herding
	5	South Africa	Hounds
	5	South Africa	Terriers
	6	South Africa	Utility
	10	South Africa	Working

Sample	Origin	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHT171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PE208
OBD001	Cape Town	140 106	174 162	137 137	196 188	99 99	102 98	138 138	293 287	127 115	136 128	322 318	201 201	203 203	295 283	235 219
OBD002	Cape Town	144 94	186 174	141 137	188 180	101 93	98 98	138 130	287 287	125 117	144 128	346 314	209 209	207 187	295 287	231 223
OBD003	Cape Town	144 98	182 182	149 145	200 196	103 101	100 94	130 124	291 285	123 117	144 128	322 298	209 205	243 207	347 275	235 231
OBD004	Cape Town	140 136	178 170	145 141	204 188	107 95	98 98	138 130	289 287	119 117	128 128	326 314	213 209	251 243	303 295	235 231
OBD005	Cape Town	140 110	178 174	137 137	196 192	103 103	100 96	130 124	291 287	123 117	144 140	322 314	217 197	227 203	295 271	227 227
OBD006	Cape Town	140 132	162 158	145 137	200 188	101 93	90 90	136 130	291 291	125 115	156 140	326 322	209 209	243 207	319 295	231 227
OBD007	Cape Town	136 102	182 174	141 137	192 188	101 95	92 90	138 130	289 287	125 115	144 128	322 306	209 201	231 203	331 295	227 223
OBD008	Cape Town	144 102	182 170	137 133	188 188	101 97	98 98	132 122	291 287	117 115	148 128	322 322	205 201	207 207	299 283	235 227
OBD009	Cape Town	140 132	162 162	137 137	192 188	105 97	90 90	126 124	287 283	117 115	144 128	328 314	229 201	223 191	295 275	239 223
OBD010	Cape Town	136 132	188 162	165 137	208 196	101 99	94 94	130 124	287 287	125 113	144 128	322 322	201 201	223 223	291 287	231 231
OBD011	Cape Town	144 144	182 182	137 137	208 188	103 91	96 90	140 128	289 287	129 117	140 136	322 314	209 209	243 207	295 291	231 231
OBD012	Cape Town	136 98	178 162	137 137	192 180	107 91	96 96	138 124	291 287	129 115	152 144	314 274	205 201	243 199	331 295	231 231
OBD013	Cape Town	144 110	182 166	137 137	196 192	107 95	92 90	142 132	287 287	117 117	144 136	334 314	205 201	207 203	303 291	239 231
OBD014	Cape Town	144 136	174 166	141 137	196 188	105 101	92 90	132 130	287 285	125 125	144 128	318 318	213 197	243 211	291 291	235 227
OBD015	Cape Town	132 106	170 166	157 129	204 200	107 103	96 92	134 134	289 287	127 121	144 144	322 318	201 197	203 199	295 283	239 235
OBD016	Cape Town	144 94	182 162	157 137	196 188	101 101	96 96	140 130	291 283	123 123	144 144	318 310	221 197	235 203	295 287	227 223
OBD017	Cape Town	140 98	188 182	137 137	188 188	105 101	96 90	142 142	291 291	117 117	136 128	322 314	201 197	243 231	291 287	223 223
OBD018	Cape Town	106 106	182 166	165 133	204 196	105 91	94 92	138 134	289 287	117 117	144 140	322 314	209 197	231 183	343 283	235 227
OBD019	Cape Town	98 98	186 166	137 137	208 208	107 91	96 94	134 134	289 287	123 117	140 140	322 314	209 201	239 227	299 295	235 219
OBD020	Cape Town	132 106	170 170	137 133	212 180	101 97	90 86	134 132	287 287	117 115	144 128	322 318	209 209	251 215	295 283	235 223
OBD021	Cape Town	140 140	178 170	141 137	208 192	105 101	94 86	124 124	291 287	117 115	148 128	330 314	209 201	203 199	295 295	223 223
OBD022	Cape Town	144 106	188 178	165 137	192 188	103 101	92 92	0 0	0 0	117 115	0 0	318 318	197 197	215 215	291 283	239 239
OBD023	Cape Town	136 132	170 162	133 133	196 196	101 91	102 96	134 130	289 289	117 115	144 144	318 310	209 197	203 203	343 291	243 235
OBD024	Cape Town	132 132	178 166	161 129	208 188	99 97	96 90	140 124	287 287	125 115	140 128	322 322	213 213	251 227	307 299	227 223
OBD025	Cape Town	132 132	186 186	137 137	208 196	105 105	100 92	140 130	291 287	123 117	144 128	346 322	205 201	207 203	335 283	235 231
OBD026	Cape Town	140 132	186 170	149 141	204 200	99 97	94 90	134 130	287 287	123 123	140 140	318 298	213 201	235 203	303 291	231 227
OBD027	Cape Town	108 106	186 166	165 137	208 196	103 95	96 92	142 130	291 291	123 119	140 140	342 314	209 197	231 227	335 299	243 235
OBD028	Cape Town	136 132	186 166	157 133	196 192	103 97	102 88	122 122	291 287	123 115	144 128	314 302	201 193	231 187	347 283	227 223
OBD029	Cape Town	136 102	194 188	137 137	208 200	99 99	90 90	130 124	291 289	123 117	144 140	318 274	209 205	247 195	279 279	235 227
OBD030	Cape Town	136 106	186 166	141 137	200 188	107 99	100 90	130 124	289 289	131 117	152 144	314 314	209 201	207 203	351 295	235 223
OBD031	Cape Town	144 144	170 158	157 133	208 200	101 95	90 88	140 132	291 287	123 123	140 128	318 318	201 201	239 231	299 299	235 223
OBD032	Cape Town	144 136	178 162	145 137	208 188	97 93	100 94	138 124	291 283	117 113	140 132	326 318	213 197	247 215	291 279	235 235

Sample	Origin	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHTH171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PEZ08
OBD071	Port Elizabeth	132 102	170 162	161 137	188 188	99 91	98 90	142 130	287 285	123 115	140 128	330 314	201 197	231 215	315 287	235 223
OBD072	Port Elizabeth	140 94	182 166	133 133	192 192	103 99	98 86	130 124	291 289	123 119	140 120	338 314	209 197	235 223	307 299	247 235
OBD073	Port Elizabeth	140 140	178 162	145 133	196 192	105 103	98 92	140 140	293 289	123 117	140 128	322 314	209 205	231 211	299 291	235 231
OBD074	Port Elizabeth	140 140	186 166	137 137	200 188	103 95	98 90	138 138	287 287	115 115	152 148	318 306	213 193	199 183	343 315	231 227
OBD075	Port Elizabeth	144 136	170 166	141 129	200 200	97 93	92 90	130 122	291 287	123 115	140 128	322 306	201 197	243 239	339 331	235 223
OBD076	Port Elizabeth	136 132	186 182	137 133	204 188	103 91	98 92	138 134	291 291	123 119	140 140	322 274	221 217	207 191	315 299	231 227
OBD077	Port Elizabeth	136 102	182 182	137 137	188 188	103 97	98 98	134 134	289 287	117 115	0 0	322 322	205 201	207 195	275 275	231 215
OBD078	Port Elizabeth	132 132	132 170	166 153	137 188	188 101	99 92	90 138	134 287	287 123	123 128	128 338	322 213	205 231	223 295	283 239
OBD079	Port Elizabeth	140 136	182 178	149 145	208 200	103 95	94 90	136 128	289 287	123 117	140 132	334 322	201 197	243 219	291 275	235 235
OBD080	Port Elizabeth	140 140	182 182	149 137	208 204	107 103	94 90	136 132	287 287	123 117	140 128	342 334	201 197	243 219	287 275	235 219
OBD081	Port Elizabeth	144 136	182 166	149 137	204 200	99 97	98 98	142 142	287 287	129 115	140 140	326 298	205 205	227 215	295 291	231 231
OBD082	Port Elizabeth	132 132	182 170	141 133	188 180	101 87	96 94	138 124	287 287	115 115	144 144	326 318	209 213	219 207	295 295	239 219
OBD083	Port Elizabeth	140 110	178 162	165 133	200 188	99 95	90 90	140 134	287 287	119 117	144 132	322 318	205 197	203 191	331 319	231 231
OBD084	Port Elizabeth	132 132	182 174	157 133	220 208	113 105	98 90	138 122	287 287	123 123	128 128	322 314	213 197	195 191	295 291	223 223
OBD085	Port Elizabeth	132 128	166 162	141 137	200 188	95 91	96 90	130 124	289 287	117 115	144 140	322 306	197 197	247 191	291 279	243 223
OBD086	Port Elizabeth	136 132	178 170	141 137	212 200	99 99	94 90	126 122	291 287	123 117	140 140	326 326	197 189	195 187	303 291	231 219
OBD087	Port Elizabeth	136 136	182 162	157 141	204 200	101 101	92 90	130 130	291 283	125 117	128 128	322 322	213 209	243 199	343 295	227 223
OBD088	Port Elizabeth	136 94	182 166	141 141	196 196	107 101	98 90	134 130	291 287	123 117	140 132	346 318	217 197	231 195	295 291	235 231
OBD089	Port Elizabeth	132 102	162 162	157 137	196 196	105 101	90 90	130 130	289 287	119 119	144 140	318 306	209 197	231 207	311 279	227 223
OBD090	Port Elizabeth	136 136	174 162	149 149	204 196	103 95	98 90	140 140	287 287	119 115	144 144	318 318	209 201	223 215	287 287	223 223
OBD091	Port Elizabeth	144 132	166 162	145 137	192 188	101 101	98 90	138 124	287 285	121 115	144 140	322 318	213 205	227 223	299 295	235 227
OBD092	Port Elizabeth	132 94	182 178	165 161	188 180	101 101	90 86	142 138	287 287	123 115	140 128	314 314	201 197	231 203	331 295	227 223
OBD093	Port Elizabeth	132 132	174 174	145 137	192 192	101 101	102 98	138 138	291 285	123 119	148 140	326 322	205 197	195 195	279 279	235 223
OBD094	Port Elizabeth	140 140	182 162	157 145	200 200	103 99	98 90	140 130	291 291	123 117	140 128	302 302	197 197	223 203	295 295	227 227
OBD101	Johannesburg	136 98	170 170	153 137	200 196	99 97	90 90	124 124	291 287	125 119	144 132	338 318	209 205	247 187	311 279	235 227
OBD102	Johannesburg	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	99 95	92 90	130 124	0 0	125 115	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
OBD103	Johannesburg	132 132	178 162	137 137	204 204	105 91	92 90	134 134	291 287	125 117	140 136	314 274	213 201	223 195	335 279	231 227
OBD104	Johannesburg	144 98	178 170	157 137	208 192	101 99	98 94	140 130	291 281	117 115	132 128	322 314	221 197	191 191	347 279	235 219
OBD105	Johannesburg	140 98	182 182	157 133	180 180	105 101	94 90	142 142	287 287	119 117	140 128	326 314	201 193	255 251	295 283	231 227
OBD106	Johannesburg	106 106	174 166	157 133	188 188	101 101	90 90	138 130	295 287	117 117	140 140	314 314	208 209	195 195	295 283	235 223
OBD107	Johannesburg	132 132	174 166	153 137	196 192	101 101	96 90	124 124	285 285	125 119	144 144	322 322	205 205	211 203	339 279	223 223

Sample	Origin	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHT171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PEZ08
OBD108	Johannesburg	140 128	170 162	157 137	204 180	97 93	96 92	130 124	291 287	127 123	144 144	314 302	201 197	231 207	299 271	235 223
OBD109	Johannesburg	136 108	182 162	153 137	212 200	101 97	96 90	134 124	289 287	123 119	140 136	322 302	209 201	255 203	295 291	231 223
OBD110	Johannesburg	140 136	166 162	137 133	204 188	101 101	94 90	138 138	0 0	119 117	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
OBD111	Johannesburg	140 102	102 162	158 169	161 196	196 103	103 94	90 130	124 289	287 119	117 140	140 326	318 209	205 199	195 311	291 235
OBD112	Johannesburg	140 140	162 162	133 129	196 192	107 93	96 90	138 124	291 289	123 119	152 144	314 314	201 197	207 195	291 279	235 231
OBD113	Johannesburg	144 144	182 166	153 153	212 192	91 91	96 90	130 130	291 291	117 117	138 136	326 318	217 217	227 187	319 299	227 227
OBD114	Johannesburg	136 132	182 182	153 141	188 188	107 101	96 96	130 124	287 287	117 115	140 128	318 318	213 209	239 239	295 283	235 223
OBD115	Johannesburg	132 102	166 158	137 137	196 196	101 99	96 90	124 124	289 287	129 117	140 128	330 318	197 193	231 199	295 287	239 223
OBD116	Johannesburg	132 132	166 166	153 137	196 196	101 101	96 90	124 124	287 285	125 119	144 144	322 322	221 209	227 203	299 275	227 223
OBD117	Johannesburg	108 106	166 162	137 133	192 192	97 97	96 96	124 124	289 287	117 117	140 140	346 322	209 197	191 191	299 287	231 223
OBD118	Johannesburg	140 140	182 170	137 129	212 192	101 95	100 90	134 130	287 285	125 115	140 128	322 302	213 201	235 227	327 311	239 219
OBD119	Johannesburg	140 140	186 186	145 137	208 196	105 101	98 98	130 130	287 283	123 117	140 128	318 314	213 197	227 223	315 307	231 231
OBD120	Johannesburg	136 98	178 178	137 137	192 192	103 93	96 90	130 122	285 285	123 123	148 128	318 310	209 197	243 198	307 287	235 223
OBD121	Johannesburg	132 132	166 162	137 137	200 200	95 91	96 96	124 122	291 283	123 123	140 128	322 322	217 201	203 203	279 279	227 227
OBD122	Johannesburg	140 110	166 166	137 133	208 196	103 91	94 92	140 138	291 287	123 117	136 128	346 318	205 197	223 203	295 279	239 231
OBD123	Johannesburg	136 110	166 162	153 133	212 188	101 97	96 90	134 124	291 289	123 119	140 132	322 322	201 189	255 227	315 291	227 223
OBD124	Johannesburg	144 140	182 166	145 141	196 188	105 103	92 92	124 124	289 285	125 123	128 128	334 330	209 197	243 243	295 279	235 219
OBD125	Johannesburg	98 98	178 170	157 137	196 196	111 99	96 92	0 0	291 291	125 117	144 144	326 318	209 197	239 191	335 311	231 231
OBD126	Johannesburg	110 98	186 188	137 137	208 188	99 93	102 92	138 138	291 287	123 123	144 128	0 0	213 209	199 191	0 0	227 227
OBD127	Johannesburg	136 110	166 162	153 137	208 196	99 91	98 90	138 138	287 285	123 123	136 128	346 334	205 197	227 203	295 279	239 231
OBD128	Johannesburg	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	99 91	92 90	142 130	0 0	125 115	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
OBD129	Johannesburg	136 136	166 162	137 137	204 200	105 99	98 92	130 130	291 285	125 117	140 140	322 322	201 197	239 179	339 307	243 239
OBD130	Johannesburg	148 136	186 182	149 137	192 192	107 93	92 86	132 132	0 0	131 117	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
OBD131	Pretoria	144 140	178 174	149 137	188 180	103 93	96 90	140 138	287 287	123 117	144 144	322 302	209 189	227 191	319 283	227 227
OBD132	Pretoria	140 98	178 170	137 133	196 196	95 93	94 90	124 124	287 287	123 117	148 128	326 318	209 197	203 195	335 295	235 223
OBD133	Pretoria	140 140	170 170	157 137	204 196	99 95	94 90	142 142	0 0	123 117	152 152	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	215 215
OBD134	Pretoria	132 132	166 162	157 145	204 200	99 95	100 96	134 130	285 285	123 117	144 132	314 314	205 197	231 183	343 275	239 223
OBD135	Pretoria	136 102	182 162	157 141	208 208	99 99	96 96	140 140	291 291	119 119	140 136	302 274	213 197	203 199	307 307	235 223
OBD136	Pretoria	132 132	162 158	153 137	208 188	105 93	92 90	140 130	287 287	123 115	144 128	0 0	201 197	199 199	0 0	219 219
OBD137	Pretoria	136 136	190 188	137 133	192 188	111 91	100 96	142 130	291 289	127 123	144 140	322 314	205 201	219 191	347 291	235 227
OBD138	Pretoria	136 136	190 162	137 137	200 192	91 91	96 96	136 130	287 285	125 115	132 128	322 310	201 197	239 187	319 299	231 223

Sample	Origin	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHT171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PEZ08
OBD139	Pretoria	132 132	166 166	153 141	208 196	101 91	102 92	138 130	291 285	117 117	128 128	322 318	209 197	203 203	291 291	227 223
OBD140	Pretoria	136 98	186 178	137 137	204 200	99 95	92 92	138 122	295 287	123 117	148 128	322 306	189 189	263 187	285 295	235 231
OBD141	Pretoria	144 136	186 178	153 145	192 188	101 93	96 92	130 124	291 283	123 123	144 128	322 322	197 189	251 243	335 283	227 227
OBD142	Pretoria	144 132	190 162	141 137	196 188	103 101	96 96	140 124	291 287	117 115	140 140	318 314	205 197	203 171	351 283	238 227
OBD143	Pretoria	136 136	162 158	145 137	204 188	91 91	100 98	130 124	289 285	127 117	144 128	334 318	209 201	247 227	283 283	231 231
OBD144	Pretoria	132 132	170 166	165 133	188 188	101 101	102 92	124 124	287 287	125 117	128 128	314 306	213 213	227 191	303 283	243 223
OBD145	Pretoria	132 132	186 166	141 137	204 196	105 103	96 94	142 134	289 285	129 125	148 128	326 326	209 197	223 223	307 299	231 227
OBD146	Pretoria	136 136	178 162	157 141	200 196	103 95	98 98	138 130	287 283	123 115	140 140	326 322	229 197	247 203	238 291	239 231
OBD147	Pretoria	140 140	178 162	169 145	204 196	101 97	102 90	142 134	289 287	123 115	128 124	322 314	217 205	231 215	327 275	235 215
OBD148	Pretoria	132 132	186 182	133 133	188 180	103 101	94 90	138 130	289 285	125 123	140 128	318 306	201 197	247 195	295 295	223 223
OBD149	Pretoria	140 136	186 166	145 141	196 180	103 97	100 98	134 130	289 287	123 117	148 148	334 330	213 197	235 203	295 283	231 227
OBD150	Pretoria	136 136	178 178	157 133	212 192	103 101	92 92	138 130	291 287	125 113	128 128	322 314	205 197	231 203	343 287	243 231
OBD151	Pretoria	114 102	182 162	149 145	188 188	105 99	90 90	130 130	289 287	128 223	148 144	246 246	209 201	191 191	343 295	239 219
OBD152	Pretoria	136 98	174 166	141 137	196 188	103 91	98 90	142 138	287 285	121 117	140 128	322 318	213 197	227 195	291 291	231 231
OBD153	Pretoria	98 98	178 162	137 137	204 204	93 93	100 98	138 138	287 285	123 123	140 140	326 326	205 205	215 203	323 291	239 235
OBD154	Pretoria	140 102	190 162	137 133	192 192	105 91	96 90	130 126	291 287	117 115	140 140	318 306	213 209	203 198	295 291	235 231
OBD155	Pretoria	132 132	166 162	137 137	200 188	99 91	100 98	130 124	289 285	129 117	144 128	334 318	209 201	247 227	283 283	231 231
OBD156	Pretoria	132 102	182 182	137 133	188 180	105 101	90 90	140 140	289 287	125 123	144 128	326 318	205 197	239 207	295 283	235 231
OBD157	Pretoria	132 102	182 162	137 133	192 180	99 91	98 98	142 130	289 289	123 123	148 144	322 318	205 197	223 191	295 287	223 223
OBD158	Pretoria	132 102	182 162	137 133	204 180	101 101	90 90	140 124	289 287	125 125	160 144	318 318	209 209	207 207	295 295	235 235
OBD159	Pretoria	140 136	170 166	137 137	216 212	103 101	92 92	130 124	289 287	125 123	144 128	314 314	201 197	247 203	343 307	243 231
OBD160	Pretoria	136 102	178 178	145 137	196 196	101 87	94 92	130 130	287 287	123 119	140 140	338 298	197 197	207 195	291 283	239 227
OBD161	Pretoria	140 136	186 170	141 137	200 200	99 95	96 96	138 130	287 285	123 115	140 140	318 298	217 197	223 215	295 283	223 223
OBD162	Pretoria	144 144	186 162	137 133	200 196	103 101	92 90	124 124	291 285	125 115	152 152	322 318	217 197	203 199	319 291	231 231
OBD163	Pretoria	136 132	162 162	157 153	208 206	101 99	98 90	130 130	291 287	123 119	144 140	314 274	217 205	207 195	307 295	239 231
OBD164	Pretoria	110 110	182 170	141 137	200 196	107 91	92 92	130 130	287 285	115 115	140 124	314 306	209 189	231 227	291 291	235 231
OBD165	Pretoria	132 132	190 166	145 141	204 180	107 101	90 92	134 132	295 287	115 115	144 144	322 322	209 197	231 199	307 299	235 231
OBD166	Pretoria	140 132	170 162	165 153	204 200	105 101	90 96	138 138	291 285	123 123	144 140	314 306	221 205	239 207	311 283	235 227
OBD167	Pretoria	132 102	182 158	141 141	200 188	113 85	90 90	138 134	287 287	117 115	140 140	342 306	209 193	207 203	283 279	227 227
OBD168	Pretoria	140 136	182 166	141 137	200 200	99 95	96 90	138 130	293 293	123 123	140 128	318 318	197 197	223 215	295 295	235 223

Sample	Origin	Type	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHT171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PEZ08
GSD001	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	133 133	180 180	101 93	98 94	138 138	283 287	125 115	140 140	318 314	209 201	199 195	295 295	243 243
GSD002	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	182 170	133 129	180 180	101 101	94 92	0 0	287 287	115 115	140 140	318 314	201 197	211 207	299 295	223 223
GSD003	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	182 162	133 129	180 180	101 101	92 90	138 130	287 287	125 115	140 128	318 314	201 197	203 199	299 295	223 223
GSD004	South Africa	KUSA	132 132	182 170	141 137	188 180	101 101	98 94	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 128	318 314	209 209	203 199	299 291	239 223
GSD005	Germany	Sport	132 94	182 170	137 137	200 188	101 99	90 90	138 124	287 287	115 115	128 128	314 314	209 201	207 203	295 295	239 223
GSD006	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	157 157	188 180	101 101	94 90	138 130	293 287	125 115	140 140	326 314	205 205	207 207	295 291	227 223
GSD007	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	170 170	141 137	180 180	99 99	98 90	138 130	293 287	115 115	144 140	314 314	209 205	207 207	299 291	239 231
GSD008	Germany	Show	132 132	170 166	137 133	188 180	101 93	94 90	124 124	287 287	125 115	144 140	326 314	209 209	195 195	295 291	227 223
GSD009	South Africa	KUSA	132 132	182 170	157 157	188 180	101 101	94 94	138 138	293 287	117 115	144 140	318 318	209 201	243 243	299 299	239 235
GSD010	Germany	Sport	132 132	186 186	157 145	180 180	101 99	90 90	142 130	287 287	125 115	140 128	314 314	201 201	243 207	295 291	235 235
GSD011	Germany	Sport	132 132	186 182	137 137	188 188	103 101	94 90	138 130	287 287	117 115	144 128	326 318	209 197	207 207	295 283	235 223
GSD012	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	157 133	180 180	101 101	94 94	124 124	287 287	125 125	144 140	318 314	209 201	243 203	299 291	239 235
GSD013	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	157 133	200 188	103 101	94 90	130 130	293 293	125 115	144 140	318 314	209 205	243 207	295 291	235 223
GSD014	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	133 133	180 180	101 101	94 92	138 138	287 287	125 115	140 140	318 318	205 197	211 199	299 295	235 223
GSD015	South Africa	KUSA	132 102	190 182	157 137	188 188	107 101	98 90	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 128	314 314	209 209	243 199	299 291	235 235
GSD016	South Africa	KUSA	132 132	182 170	157 137	180 180	101 101	94 94	138 124	293 287	125 115	144 128	318 314	209 201	243 199	299 299	239 235
GSD017	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 166	141 133	188 180	101 101	96 94	0 0	287 287	125 115	140 128	318 318	201 197	211 199	299 295	235 235
GSD018	Germany	Sport	132 94	182 170	133 133	188 180	99 99	90 90	124 124	287 287	115 115	144 128	314 314	209 201	207 203	295 295	235 235
GSD019	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	182 162	133 129	180 180	101 101	94 94	0 0	287 287	125 117	140 128	318 314	205 201	211 207	299 295	239 223
GSD020	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	133 133	188 188	101 101	92 90	138 138	287 287	115 115	140 128	318 314	205 205	211 207	295 295	235 227
GSD021	Germany	Sport	132 132	182 166	157 133	188 180	101 101	94 92	138 122	287 287	125 115	144 140	318 314	209 201	207 203	299 295	235 223
GSD022	Germany	Sport	132 132	178 170	133 129	188 180	103 103	92 88	138 138	293 285	125 115	140 128	326 314	209 201	243 243	295 295	239 223
GSD023	Germany	Sport	140 132	178 170	133 129	188 186	101 101	96 90	0 0	287 287	125 125	140 140	314 314	209 205	243 199	299 295	247 239
GSD024	Germany	Show	132 132	170 166	157 133	180 180	101 93	90 90	138 138	293 287	125 115	144 140	318 314	205 201	235 195	285 291	235 223
GSD025	Germany	Show	132 132	170 170	141 137	188 180	107 101	94 86	124 124	293 287	125 125	140 128	322 318	205 201	199 195	295 295	239 227
GSD026	Germany	Show	132 132	182 170	133 133	180 180	103 101	90 86	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 140	326 318	205 201	199 195	285 291	235 223
GSD027	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	141 137	180 180	99 99	96 90	138 130	293 287	115 115	144 140	314 314	209 205	207 207	299 291	239 231
GSD028	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	141 137	188 180	103 101	94 90	128 122	287 287	117 115	144 128	322 314	209 209	207 207	299 299	243 235
GSD029	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	141 133	180 180	101 93	90 90	138 138	293 287	125 115	128 128	326 314	209 209	207 207	295 295	239 223
GSD030	Germany	Sport	132 132	186 178	141 133	188 180	107 97	94 90	142 138	287 287	117 115	144 128	354 314	209 201	207 207	295 295	243 235
GSD031	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 166	161 133	188 188	101 101	96 90	138 138	287 287	117 115	144 128	326 314	209 201	203 195	295 295	235 235

Sample	Origin	Type	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHT171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PEZ08
GSD032	Germany	Sport	132 102	194 170	161 137	200 188	101 99	96 90	138 138	287 287	117 117	128 128	322 314	213 205	211 207	289 295	247 223
GSD033	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	182 170	141 137	188 180	101 99	94 90	138 138	287 287	125 117	144 140	314 314	209 205	203 199	295 295	223 223
GSD034	Germany	Sport	132 132	182 170	137 133	188 188	99 93	96 94	138 130	293 285	125 125	140 128	326 314	209 197	207 207	295 287	227 223
GSD035	Germany	Sport	140 132	186 182	157 141	188 188	101 101	96 96	138 138	293 287	115 115	144 140	314 314	209 209	247 207	295 295	243 231
GSD036	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 166	141 133	180 180	101 99	96 90	138 124	0 0	125 117	144 128	314 314	209 205	243 207	299 299	239 223
GSD037	South Africa	Show	132 132	178 170	133 133	188 188	101 101	98 86	138 138	0 0	125 115	144 140	326 318	209 209	199 195	295 295	239 235
GSD038	Germany	Sport	132 132	182 170	157 133	188 180	103 101	98 90	138 124	287 287	117 115	140 128	314 314	205 205	211 207	295 291	223 219
GSD039	Germany	Sport	132 110	182 162	141 137	180 180	99 79	98 90	138 130	283 287	125 115	140 128	314 314	208 205	247 207	295 295	235 223
GSD040	South Africa	Show	132 132	178 170	141 137	188 180	103 101	94 94	138 138	287 287	115 115	144 140	330 314	209 201	199 195	299 291	227 223
GSD041	Germany	Show	132 132	182 170	137 133	180 180	101 101	80 90	0 0	287 287	117 117	144 144	318 314	209 205	243 195	295 291	235 223
GSD042	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	157 141	188 188	101 93	98 86	124 124	295 287	115 115	144 140	314 314	209 209	195 195	299 291	235 235
GSD043	South Africa	Show	132 132	166 166	137 133	180 180	101 101	98 90	130 130	293 287	125 115	140 128	314 314	213 201	247 195	295 291	235 235
GSD044	Germany	Show	132 132	186 170	133 133	180 180	103 101	94 90	0 0	287 285	125 115	144 144	314 314	209 205	207 207	299 299	235 227
GSD045	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 166	141 141	188 186	101 101	90 90	138 124	0 0	0 0	0 0	314 314	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
GSD046	Germany	Show	132 132	182 170	133 133	188 180	101 93	94 90	138 138	287 287	115 115	144 140	314 314	209 209	195 195	295 295	235 235
GSD047	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	157 141	188 180	101 93	90 88	138 124	293 287	115 115	144 140	326 314	209 205	247 195	295 291	239 223
GSD048	South Africa	KUSA	132 132	182 170	141 137	188 188	101 101	90 90	138 138	293 287	125 117	128 128	314 314	209 205	195 195	295 295	235 223
GSD049	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	133 133	188 180	101 101	96 94	138 138	287 287	115 115	144 128	314 314	205 201	243 211	291 291	239 223
GSD050	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 182	141 133	188 180	103 103	90 88	0 0	287 287	115 115	140 128	318 318	209 205	207 195	295 291	235 235
GSD051	South Africa	KUSA	136 132	170 166	141 133	188 180	101 99	96 94	0 0	287 287	125 115	140 128	318 314	209 205	223 207	299 295	235 223
GSD052	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 166	133 133	188 180	101 101	94 90	122 122	293 287	115 115	140 128	314 314	209 201	207 195	285 295	235 223
GSD053	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	157 145	188 180	103 101	94 86	124 124	287 287	115 115	128 128	314 314	209 201	203 195	295 291	243 235
GSD054	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	157 141	180 180	103 101	90 90	138 124	297 287	125 117	144 140	314 314	205 201	243 207	299 295	239 227
GSD055	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	157 157	188 180	101 101	98 90	122 122	287 285	117 115	144 128	322 314	209 201	199 195	299 295	235 227
GSD056	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	157 141	188 180	103 101	96 86	124 124	287 287	117 115	140 128	314 314	209 209	203 195	299 291	243 235
GSD057	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	137 137	188 180	101 93	94 90	138 124	287 287	125 115	140 128	318 314	209 201	203 199	291 291	239 223
GSD058	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	133 133	188 180	101 101	98 94	138 138	293 287	125 115	128 128	318 314	209 205	199 195	295 291	239 223
GSD059	South Africa	Show	140 136	182 170	141 133	188 180	101 101	98 90	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 140	318 318	201 201	195 195	289 295	239 223
GSD060	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 178	157 133	188 180	103 93	94 86	138 124	287 287	125 115	144 140	318 314	209 209	203 195	295 295	235 223
GSD061	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 182	157 157	188 180	103 101	96 96	0 0	287 285	125 115	144 128	326 318	209 209	195 195	295 295	235 235
GSD062	South Africa	Show	132 132	166 166	157 133	188 186	103 101	96 96	138 138	293 287	125 115	144 132	326 314	209 201	195 191	295 295	235 235
GSD063	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	157 133	188 186	103 103	96 90	138 124	287 287	125 115	132 128	314 310	209 201	195 195	299 295	235 223

Sample	Origin	Type	DTRCN1	FH2137	FH2140	FH2328	AHT121	INRA21	AHT171	AHTk253	CXX279	FH2001	FH2164	FH2611	FH2247	FH2289	PEZ08
GSD064	South Africa	Show	132 102	170 170	137 133	188 180	103 101	98 90	138 138	293 287	115 115	140 140	322 314	209 205	199 199	295 291	243 223
GSD065	Germany	Show	132 102	170 170	137 133	188 180	101 101	90 90	124 124	287 287	125 125	0 0	314 314	0 0	207 203	295 295	239 235
GSD066	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 166	133 133	188 188	101 93	90 90	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 128	314 314	213 201	203 203	295 295	239 235
GSD067	Germany	Show	132 132	170 166	137 133	180 180	101 93	96 90	124 124	287 287	125 117	144 140	314 314	209 205	195 195	291 287	235 227
GSD068	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	137 133	188 188	101 101	94 94	138 138	287 287	125 115	140 140	318 314	209 205	207 203	295 295	235 223
GSD069	South Africa	Show	132 94	170 170	137 137	188 188	101 93	94 94	0 0	287 287	125 115	0 0	314 314	213 209	227 203	295 291	243 239
GSD070	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	186 170	137 133	180 180	101 97	94 86	124 124	293 287	117 115	144 128	314 314	209 205	211 207	299 299	235 223
GSD071	Germany	Sport	132 132	186 170	161 137	188 188	93 93	94 90	138 138	293 287	125 117	128 128	318 314	209 197	207 203	291 287	235 227
GSD072	South Africa	Show	136 132	162 170	141 133	188 188	101 101	96 90	138 138	287 287	125 125	144 140	318 318	201 201	207 195	295 295	235 223
GSD073	South Africa	Show	132 106	186 166	157 133	188 180	103 93	96 94	138 138	287 287	125 117	140 140	326 314	209 201	195 195	295 295	239 235
GSD074	South Africa	Show	132 132	162 166	133 133	188 180	103 101	94 92	138 138	287 287	125 125	140 140	326 314	209 209	199 195	295 291	235 227
GSD075	South Africa	KUSA	132 132	182 170	161 137	188 180	101 101	94 94	124 124	287 287	115 115	140 128	318 318	209 209	243 239	295 291	243 239
GSD076	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	170 166	137 137	188 188	101 101	94 94	130 130	287 287	125 115	144 128	318 318	209 201	243 207	295 291	243 227
GSD077	Germany	Sport	106 94	182 170	137 133	186 188	101 93	90 90	124 124	287 287	125 115	140 128	318 314	201 197	207 203	299 295	235 223
GSD078	South Africa	KUSA	132 106	182 170	157 141	180 180	107 101	96 86	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 128	318 318	209 209	203 199	299 295	223 223
GSD079	Germany	Sport	132 132	186 166	137 133	188 188	103 101	90 90	138 138	287 287	125 117	128 128	326 326	209 209	207 203	295 291	235 227
GSD080	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 166	157 157	188 180	103 101	94 90	130 122	287 287	125 115	144 140	314 314	205 201	243 207	295 285	227 227
GSD081	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 170	137 137	188 188	101 93	96 90	138 138	287 287	125 115	128 128	326 318	209 205	251 207	299 295	227 223
GSD082	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 166	141 133	188 180	101 93	94 86	138 138	287 287	125 125	144 128	318 314	209 209	243 199	295 295	239 223
GSD083	Germany	Show	132 94	182 166	141 133	188 180	101 101	96 96	138 138	287 287	117 117	128 128	318 314	209 209	207 203	295 295	239 239
GSD084	South Africa	Show	132 132	182 170	157 157	188 180	101 101	98 94	138 138	293 287	115 115	144 140	326 314	209 205	247 185	299 291	243 227
GSD085	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 170	141 133	180 180	101 101	94 90	124 124	287 287	115 115	148 140	322 314	209 209	207 207	295 295	235 223
GSD086	South Africa	Show	136 132	174 170	157 129	188 180	103 101	98 90	122 122	287 287	115 115	144 128	318 318	213 209	243 239	295 295	235 223
GSD087	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 170	157 157	188 180	103 101	90 90	142 142	297 287	125 115	144 140	318 306	209 185	195 195	295 287	235 227
GSD088	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	157 157	188 180	101 93	94 90	138 138	287 287	125 115	144 144	318 314	205 201	247 243	295 287	235 227
GSD089	South Africa	Show	140 132	182 166	141 137	188 180	101 101	90 86	130 130	287 287	125 125	144 128	318 314	209 205	243 207	295 295	235 223
GSD090	South Africa	Show	132 132	186 170	157 133	188 180	101 93	90 90	138 138	287 287	125 117	144 140	326 314	205 201	247 207	295 287	235 227
GSD091	South Africa	Show	132 132	170 170	133 133	188 188	101 101	94 94	138 128	291 287	125 115	144 128	318 318	209 201	247 207	295 295	243 223
GSD092	South Africa	Show	132 106	186 166	133 133	188 180	101 101	94 94	138 138	295 287	125 125	128 128	318 314	209 205	203 195	299 295	227 227
GSD093	South Africa	Show	148 132	186 186	161 137	208 192	101 101	98 90	126 124	293 287	125 117	144 140	322 318	205 205	219 203	295 287	223 223
GSD094	South Africa	Show	148 132	182 174	161 137	208 192	101 101	96 90	126 124	293 287	125 117	144 140	322 318	205 205	219 203	295 287	243 223
GSD095	South Africa	Shw/Sp	132 132	170 170	153 129	188 180	101 101	94 90	130 130	287 285	125 115	144 144	314 314	205 197	207 203	295 295	235 235







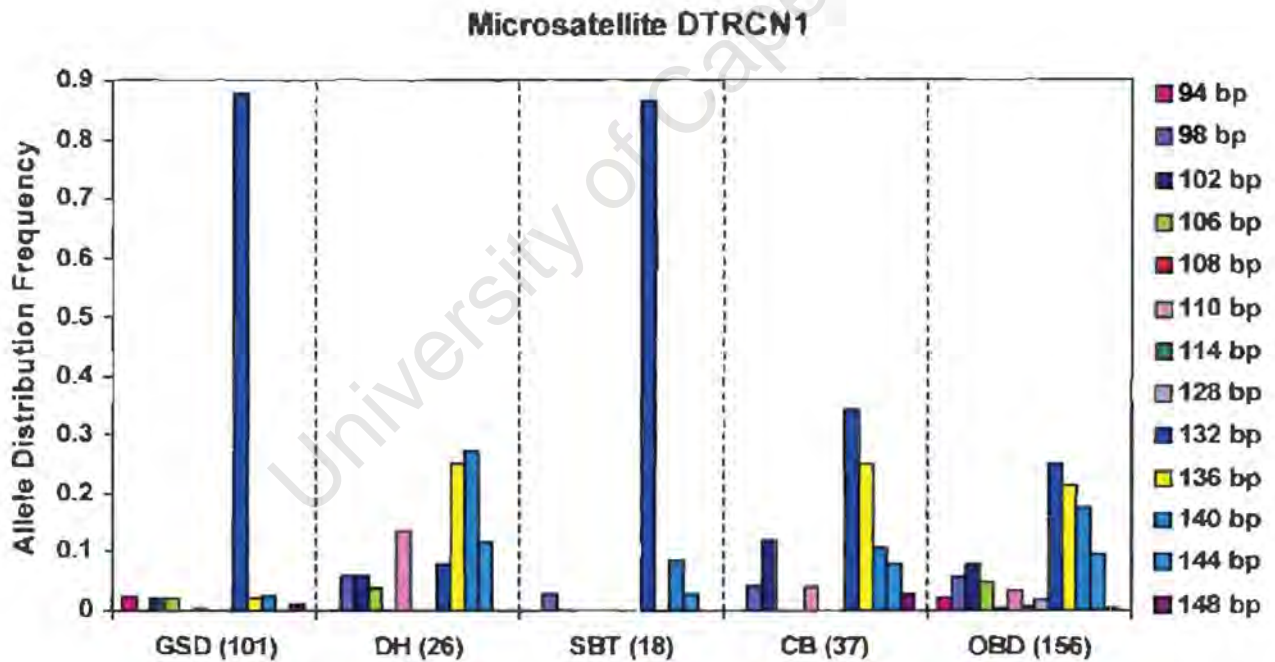
Sample	Breed	DTRCN1		FH2137		FH2140		FH2328		AHT121		INRA21		AHTh171		AHTk253		CXX279		FH2001		FH2164		FH2611		FH2247		FH2289		PEZ08			
CB33	Weimaraner	136	132	178	162	149	137	196	186	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CB34	Rough Collie	136	132	178	166	145	133	208	204	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CB35	Siberian Husky	0	0	170	166	141	137	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CB36	Short-haired Pointer	140	140	162	162	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CB37	Elkhound	144	140	166	158	133	129	200	200	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CB38	Irish Setter	136	136	162	162	153	137	200	196	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

University of Cape Town

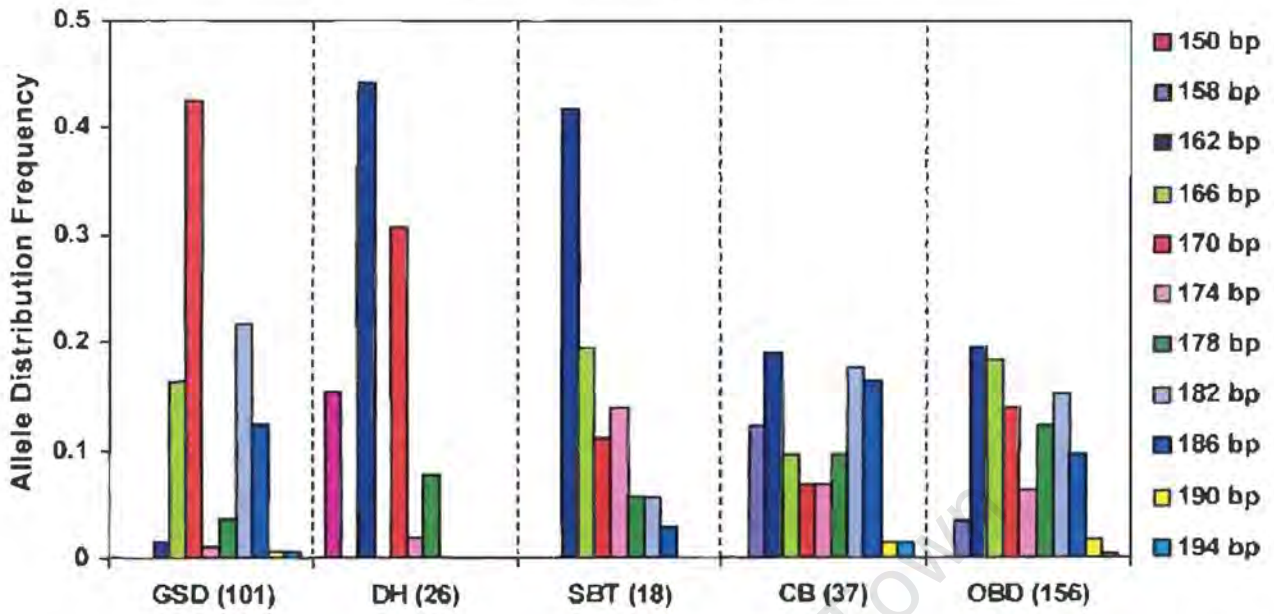
# Appendix II

## Supplementary Results

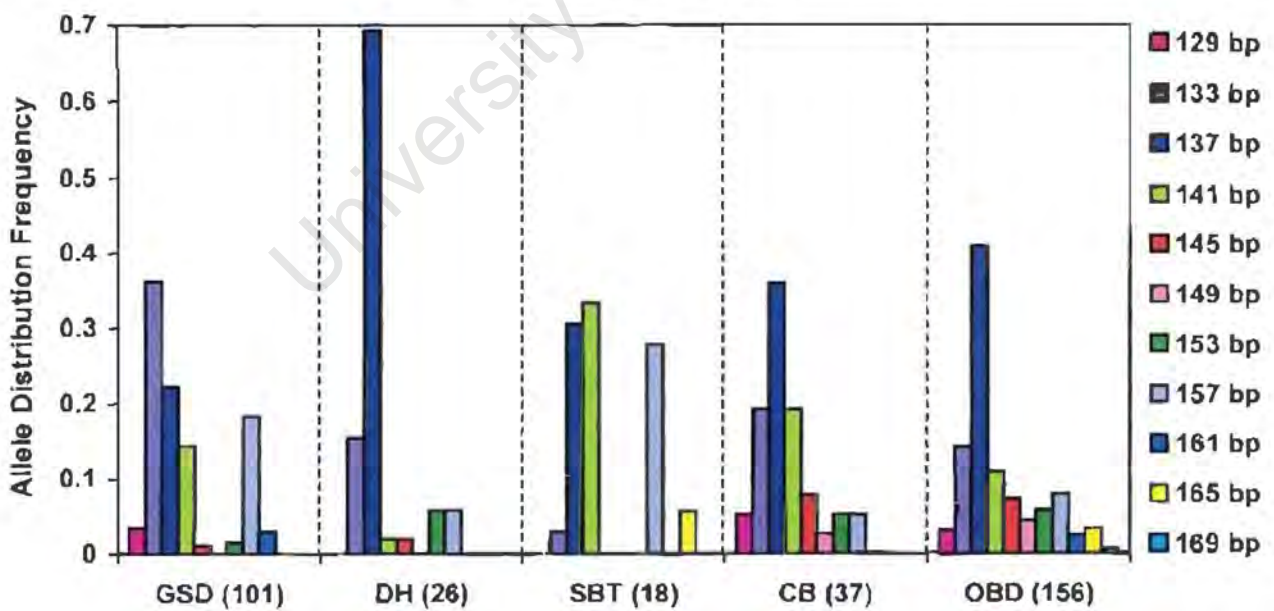
Graphic representations of the allele frequency and distribution of each of the 15 microsatellite markers for the German Shepherd Dog (GSD), Dachshund (DH), Staffordshire Bull Terrier (SBT), composite breed group (CB), and outbred dogs (OBD).



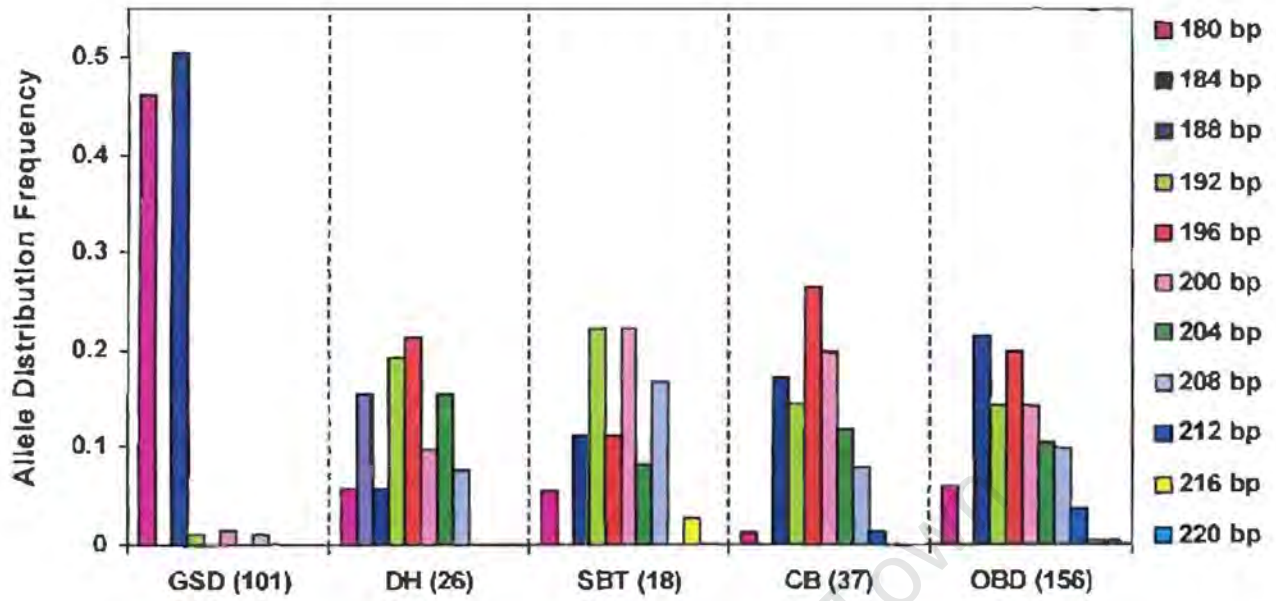
### Microsatellite FH2137



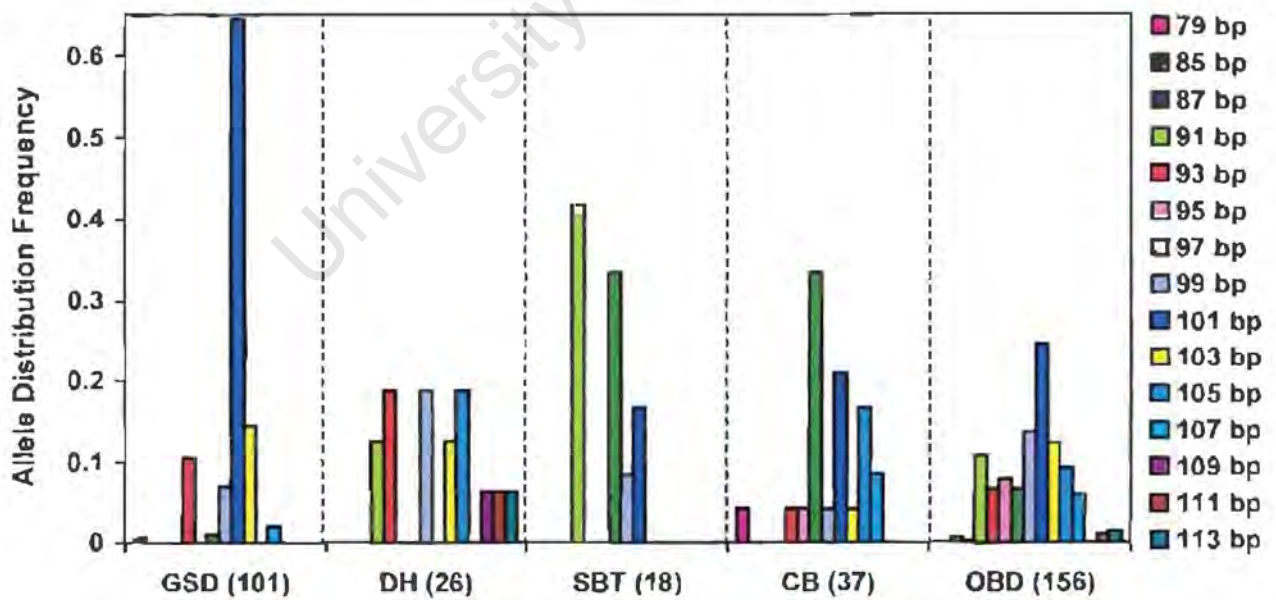
### Microsatellite FH2140



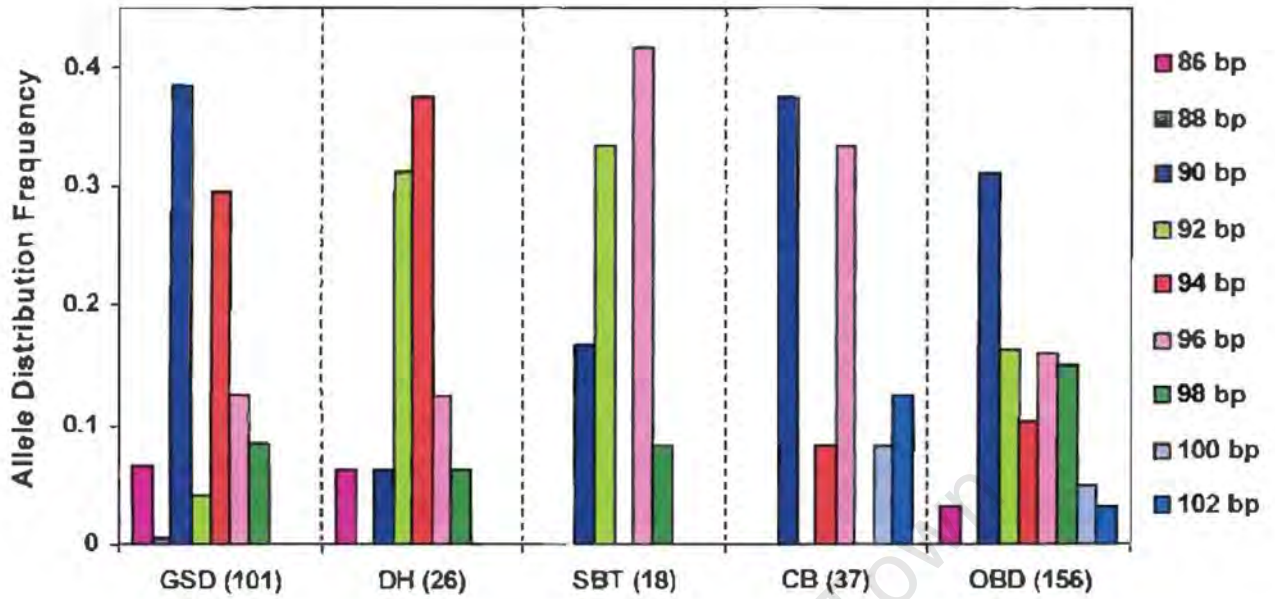
### Microsatellite FH2328



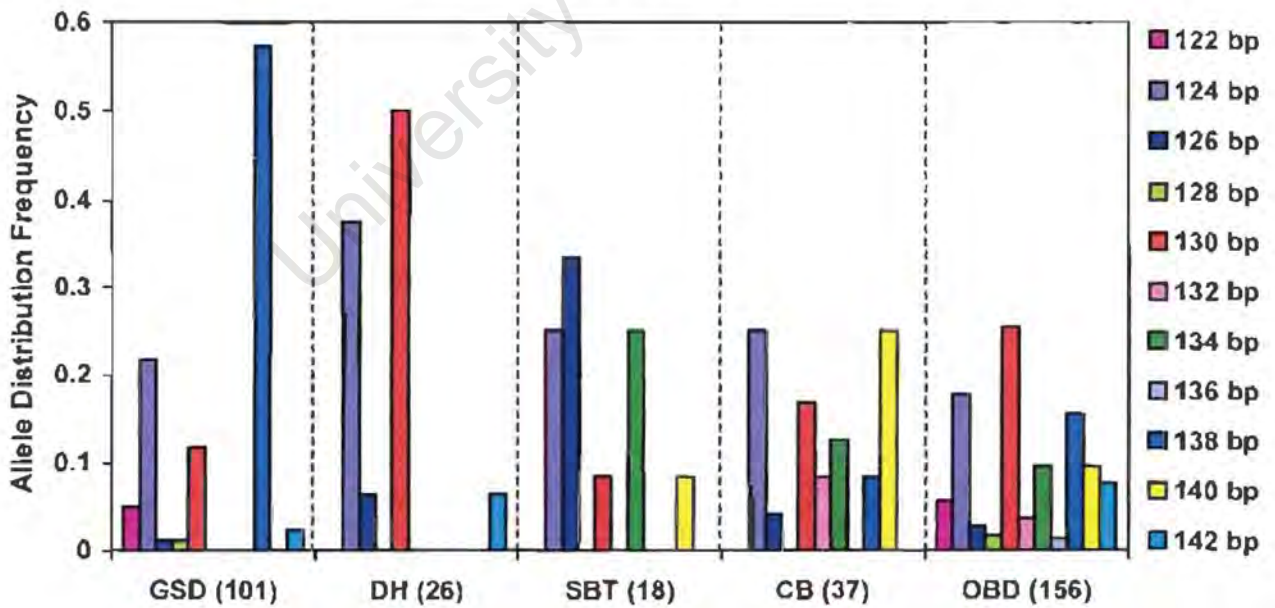
### Microsatellite AHT121



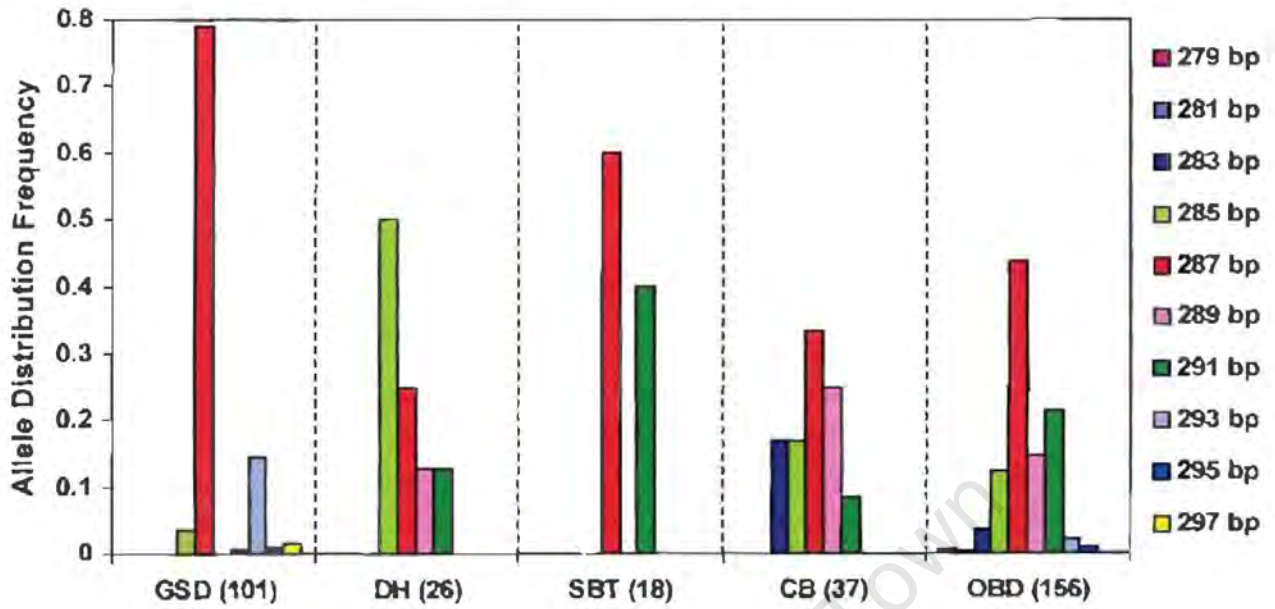
### Microsatellite INRA21



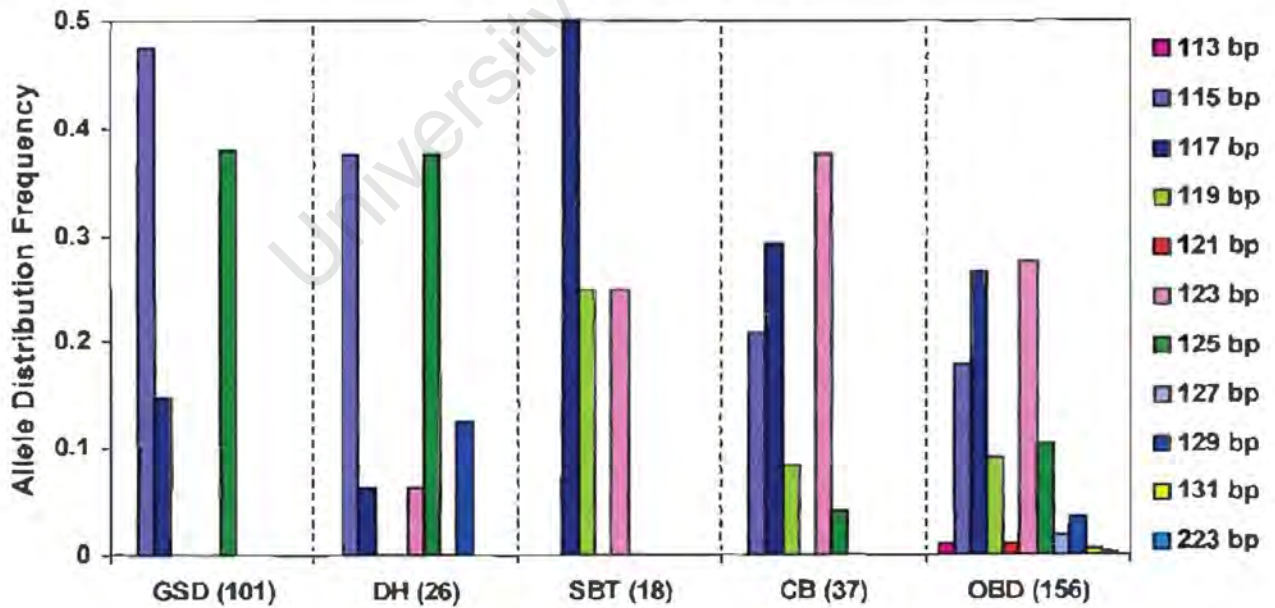
### Microsatellite AHT171



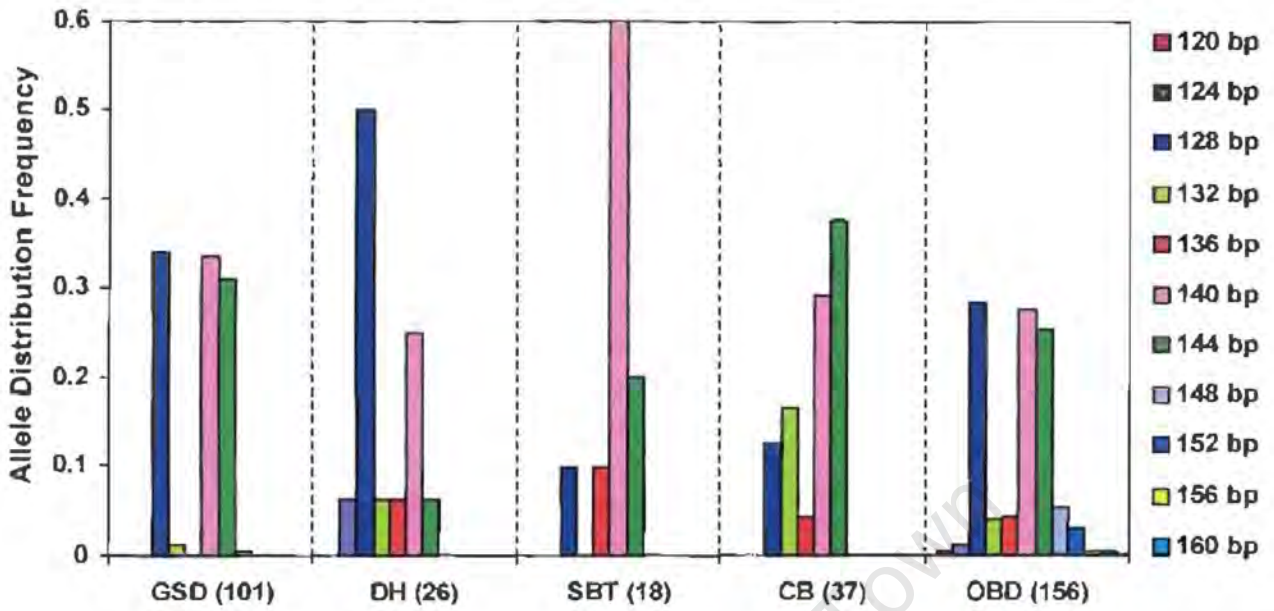
### Microsatellite AHk253



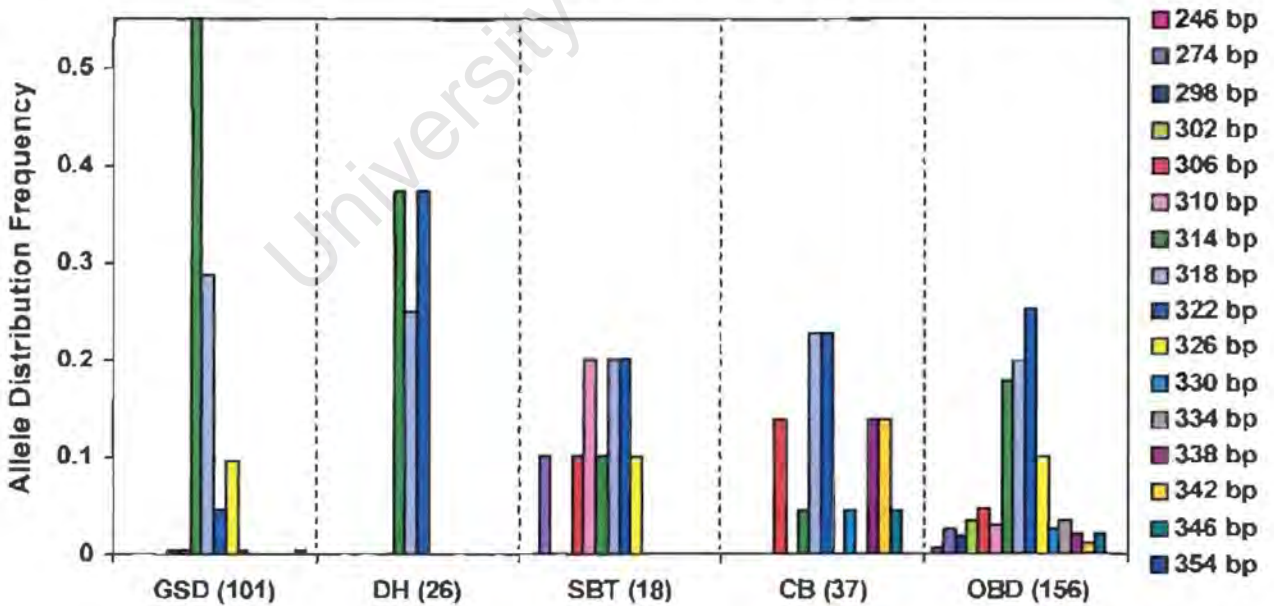
### Microsatellite CXX279



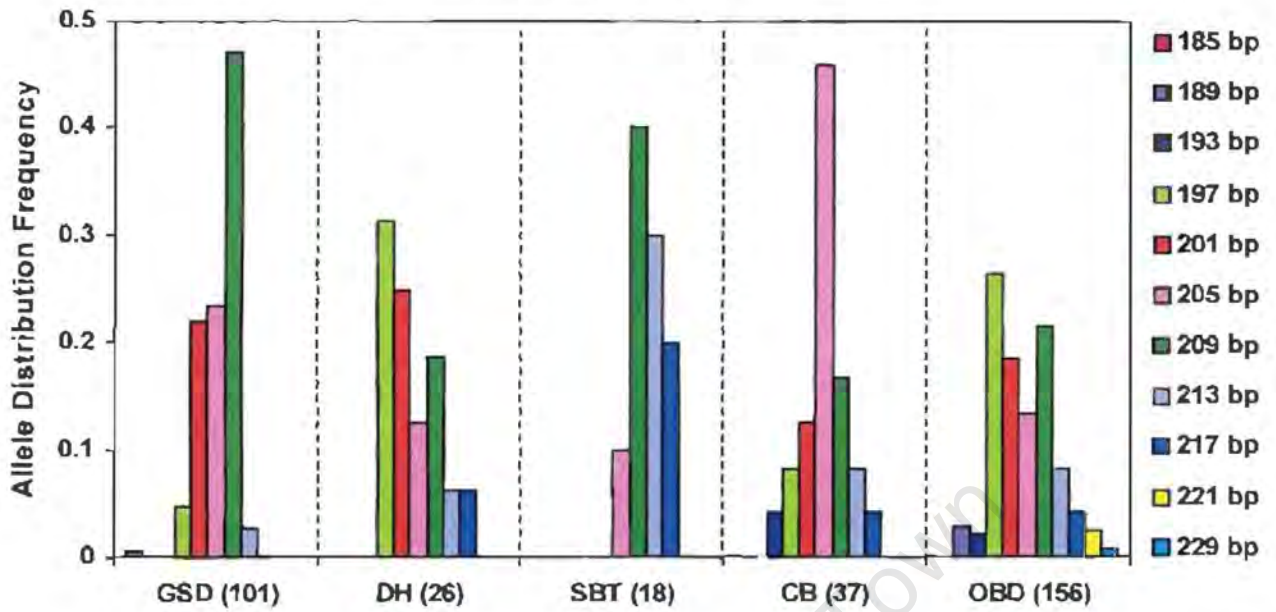
### Microsatellite FH2001



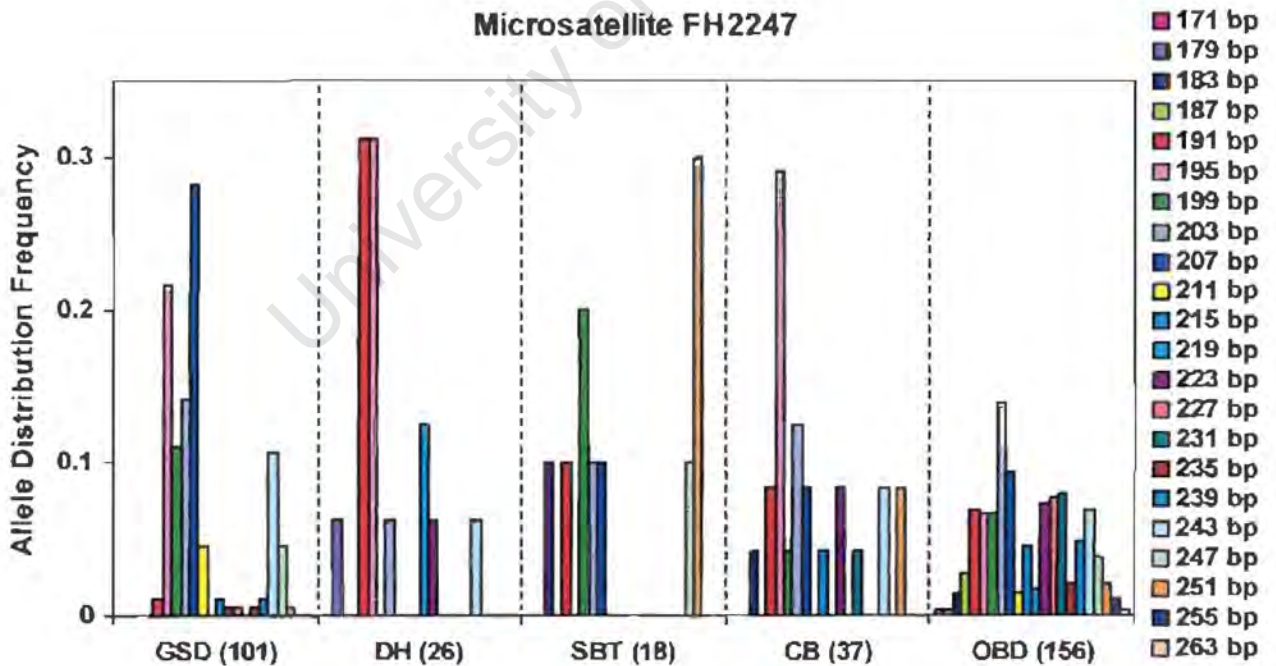
### Microsatellite FH2164



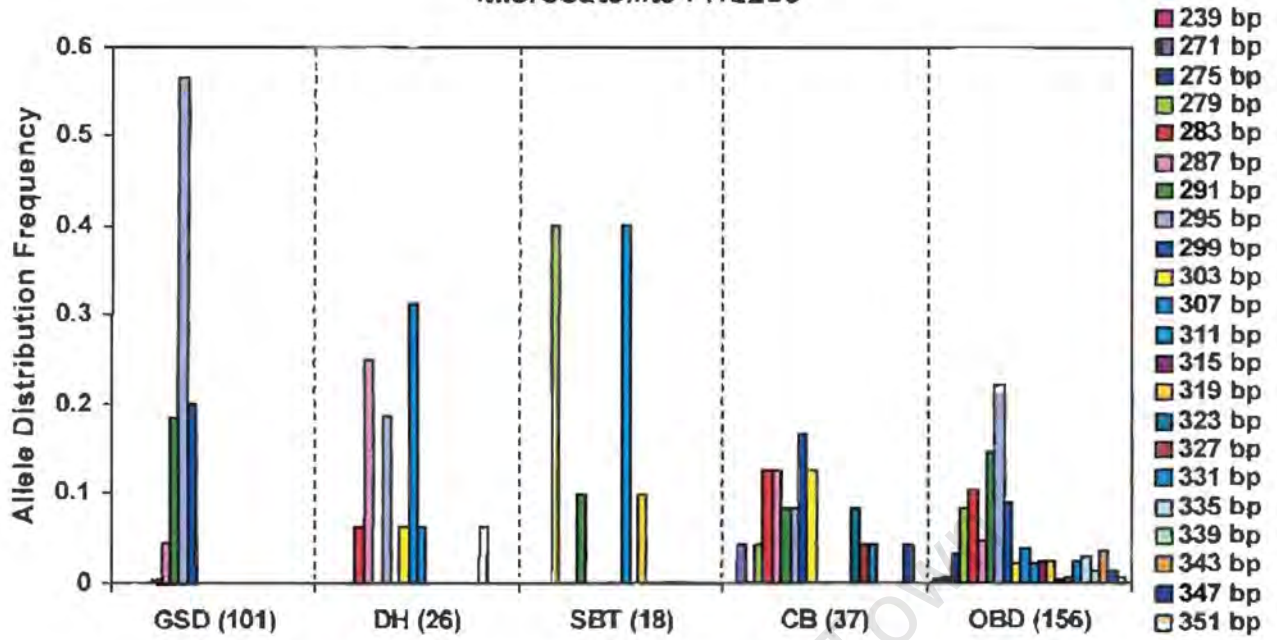
### Microsatellite FH2611



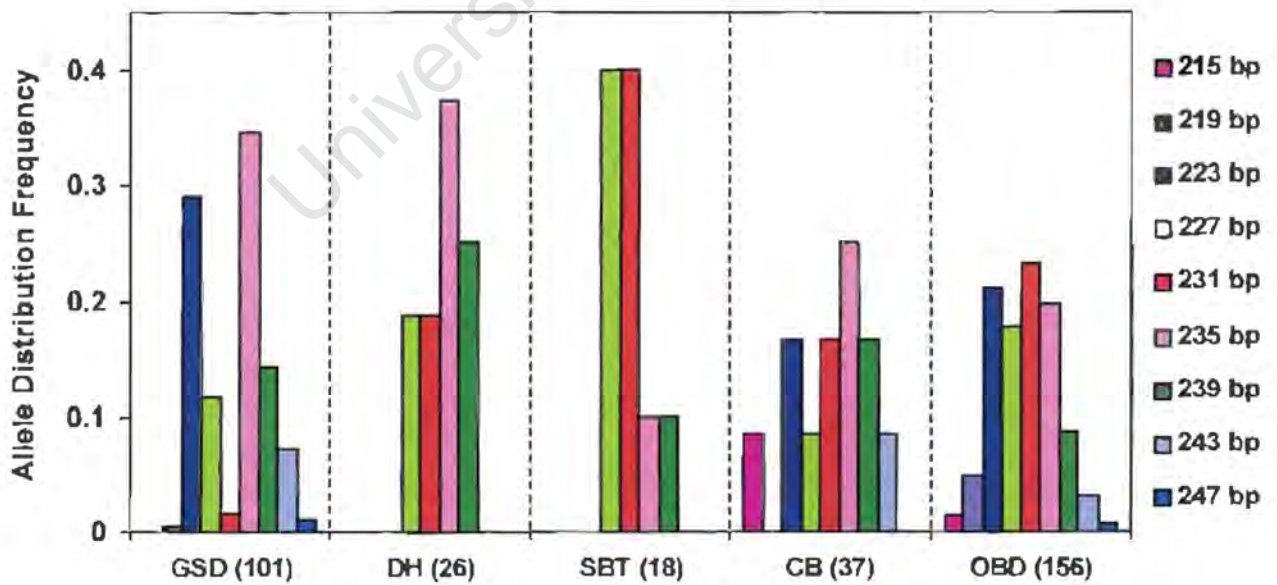
### Microsatellite FH2247



### Microsatellite FH2289



### Microsatellite PEZ08



Tabulated morphological measurements of German Shepherd Dogs representing sport dogs, crossbred show and sport dogs (Shw/Sp), and show dogs. The length of head from nose to sagittal crest, height at the shoulder, height at the pelvic bone and body length from chest to pelvis are indicated. The ratio of body length to shoulder height and the ratio of head to body length are calculated from these measurements. The gradient of the slope of the back (topline) is calculated according to the change in the y- and x-axes ( $\Delta y/x$ ).

Sample	Type	Nose to Sagittal crest (cm)	Shoulder height (cm)	Pelvis height (cm)	Body length (cm)	Ratio Length to Height (%)	Ratio Head to Body (%)	Topline Gradient ( $\Delta y/x$ )
GSD005	Sport	27.0	66.0	53	79.0	119.70	34.18	0.16
GSD010	Sport	27.0	65.0	56	80.0	123.08	33.75	0.11
GSD011	Sport	27.0	65.0	56	70.0	107.69	38.57	0.13
GSD021	Sport	27.0	64.0	52	70.0	109.38	38.57	0.17
GSD022	Sport	24.0	59.0	57	66.0	111.86	36.36	0.03
GSD023	Sport	24.5	59.0	56	72.0	122.03	34.03	0.04
GSD034	Sport	31.0	65.0	51	81.0	124.62	38.27	0.17
GSD035	Sport	26.0	58.0	49	72.0	124.14	36.11	0.13
GSD071	Sport	26.0	56.0	45	73.5	131.25	35.37	0.15
GSD072	Sport	30.0	65.0	53	79.0	121.54	37.97	0.15
GSD077	Sport	27.0	65.0	57	76.0	116.92	35.53	0.11
GSD079	Sport	27.5	64.0	52	64.5	100.78	42.64	0.19
GSD086	Sport	27.0	59.0	49	69.0	116.95	39.13	0.14
GSD201	Sport	28.0	65.0	58	74.0	113.85	37.84	0.09
GSD414	Sport	26.0	64.0	56	74.0	115.63	35.14	0.12
GSD415	Sport	27.0	65.0	51	73.0	112.31	36.99	0.11
GSD416	Sport	28.0	65.0	55	78.0	120.00	35.90	0.14
GSD417	Sport	26.0	58.0	56	64.0	110.34	40.63	0.11
GSD418	Sport	28.0	65.0	52	71.0	109.23	39.44	0.16
GSD419	Sport	27.0	64.0	54	72.0	112.50	37.50	0.15
Average	Sport	27.1	62.8	53.4	72.9	116.19	37.2	0.13

Sample	Type	Nose to Sagittal crest (cm)	Shoulder height (cm)	Pelvis height (cm)	Body length (cm)	Ratio Length to Height (%)	Ratio Head to Body (%)	Topline Gradient ( $\Delta y/x$ )
GSD 002	Shw/Sp	27.0	71.0	62.0	71.0	100.00	38.03	0.13
GSD 003	Shw/Sp	28.0	65.0	54.0	69.5	106.92	40.29	0.16
GSD 019	Shw/Sp	30.0	68.0	49.0	73.0	107.35	41.10	0.26
GSD 070	Shw/Sp	30.0	70.0	47.0	79.0	112.86	37.97	0.29
GSD 075	Shw/Sp	25.0	59.0	45.0	66.0	111.86	37.88	0.21
GSD 076	Shw/Sp	29.0	66.0	51.0	72.0	109.09	40.28	0.21
GSD 095	Shw/Sp	27.0	62.0	52.0	72.0	116.13	37.50	0.14
Average	Shw/Sp	28.0	65.9	51.4	71.8	109.17	39.01	0.20

Sample	Type	Nose to Sagittal crest (cm)	Shoulder height (cm)	Pelvis height (cm)	Body length (cm)	Ratio Length to Height (%)	Ratio Head to Body (%)	Topline Gradient ( $\Delta y/x$ )
GSD001	Show	30.0	72.0	52.0	82.0	113.89	36.59	0.24
GSD008	Show	30.0	68.0	48.0	80.0	117.65	37.50	0.25
GSD020	Show	31.0	68.0	44.0	75.0	110.29	41.33	0.32
GSD040	Show	24.0	58.0	37.0	67.0	115.52	35.82	0.31
GSD042	Show	26.0	64.0	47.0	71.0	110.94	36.62	0.24
GSD043	Show	31.0	68.0	45.0	75.5	111.03	41.06	0.30
GSD044	Show	30.0	70.0	47.0	73.0	104.29	41.10	0.32
GSD048	Show	26.0	58.0	40.0	68.0	117.24	38.24	0.26
GSD049	Show	30.5	70.0	46.5	79.5	113.57	38.36	0.30
GSD050	Show	29.5	67.0	47.0	78.0	116.42	37.82	0.26
GSD051	Show	28.0	65.0	44.0	75.0	115.38	37.33	0.28
GSD052	Show	28.0	62.0	43.0	77.0	124.19	36.36	0.25
GSD053	Show	27.0	58.0	40.0	69.0	118.97	39.13	0.26
GSD055	Show	29.5	68.0	46.0	80.0	117.65	36.88	0.28
GSD056	Show	27.0	60.0	42.0	71.0	118.33	38.03	0.25
GSD057	Show	27.0	62.0	42.0	74.0	119.35	36.49	0.27
GSD058	Show	27.0	62.0	42.0	77.0	124.19	35.06	0.26
GSD059	Show	27.0	62.0	41.0	69.0	111.29	39.13	0.30
GSD060	Show	28.0	65.0	44.0	77.0	118.46	36.36	0.27
GSD061	Show	29.0	67.0	42.0	80.0	119.40	36.25	0.31
GSD062	Show	25.0	62.0	41.0	70.0	112.90	35.71	0.30
GSD063	Show	24.0	56.0	40.0	67.0	119.64	35.82	0.24
GSD064	Show	24.0	55.0	40.0	65.0	118.18	36.92	0.23
GSD065	Show	29.0	68.0	44.0	83.0	122.06	34.94	0.29
GSD066	Show	29.0	70.0	46.0	78.0	111.43	37.18	0.31
GSD067	Show	25.5	60.0	40.0	72.0	120.00	35.42	0.28
GSD069	Show	28.0	64.0	45.0	78.0	121.88	35.90	0.24
GSD080	Show	29.0	66.0	47.0	73.0	110.61	39.73	0.26
GSD098	Show	27.0	62.0	43.0	70.5	113.71	38.30	0.27
GSD413	Show	27.0	61.0	44.0	69.0	113.11	39.13	0.25
Average	Show	27.8	64.1	43.7	74.0	115.59	37.45	0.28

## Appendix III

### Reagents and Solutions

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#### Red Blood Cell Lysis Buffer

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109.5g	Sucrose (B & M Scientific)
10ml	1M Tris-Hydrochloric acid solution pH 7.6 (B & M Scientific)
10ml	Triton X-100 (BDH Laboratory Supplies)
5ml	1M Magnesium Chloride solution (Saarchem)

Make solution up to 1L with dH<sub>2</sub>O

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#### Saline EDTA Solution pH 8.0

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9.3g	Ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid (SMM Chemicals)
58.4g	Sodium chloride (Saarchem-Holpro Analytic)

Adjust pH until 8.0 (Beckman  $\phi$ 32pH Meter) with 5M Sodium hydroxide solution (RPE Analyticals) and make solution up to 250ml with dH<sub>2</sub>O

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#### 1x TE Buffer

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1.211g	Trishydroxymethylaminomethane (Promega)
0.372g	Ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid (SMM Chemicals)

Make solution up to 1L with dH<sub>2</sub>O

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### 6% Acrylamide Solution

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12ml                      40% Acrylamide/Bis solution (Bio-Rad Laboratories)

48g                        Urea (Riedel-deHaën)

10ml                     10× TBE buffer

~42ml                    dH<sub>2</sub>O

Polymerise with 280µl 20% Ammonium persulphate (BDH), 60µl TEMED (Promega)

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### 10× TBE Running Buffer

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108g                      Trishydroxymethylaminomethane (Promega)

55g                        Boric acid (B&M Scientific)

7.4g                       Ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid (SMM Chemicals)

Make solution up to 1L with dH<sub>2</sub>O and autoclave (Lasec)

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### Loading Buffer

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20g (40%w/v)            Sucrose (B&M Scientific)

0.125g                    Bromophenyl Blue (Merck)

Make solution up to 50ml with dH<sub>2</sub>O

pH corrected with half a Sodium chloride pellet (Saarchem-Holpro Analytic)

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**Molecular Weight Marker (A-T Ladder) using the Sequenase Kit (Amersham)**

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**Hot primer**0.6µl sdH<sub>2</sub>O

6.67µl -40 (17mer) universal primer

1.0µl 10× PNK buffer (BioLabs)

1.0µl γ<sup>32</sup>P ATP (20µCi/µl) (Amersham)

0.67µl T4 PNK (BioLabs)

37°C for 30min, 90°C for 3min (Hybaid),  
centrifuge (Beckman) at store at -20°C .**Add to annealed template**5.2µl H<sub>2</sub>O

2.0µl MDTT

1.0µl Multi-pol sequenase

Mix by pipetting gently and centrifuge (Beckman). Transfer 8µl to each of the four tubes of termination mix, pipetting gently and incubate at 37°C for 3min, followed by 70°C for 7min. To each tube add 7µl stop solution and 3µl H<sub>2</sub>O, collect all reactions in one tube, mix by pipetting gently and centrifuge. Store at -20°C, and denature at 90°C for 3min before use, load 2.5µl per well.

**Annealing Reaction**5.2µl sdH<sub>2</sub>O

10µl ssM13 DNA

4µl Annealing buffer

4.8µl End-labelled primer

37°C for 10min and 25°C for 10min  
(Hybaid).**Termination Tubes**

2µl × 2 tubes ddATP

2µl × 2 tubes ddTTP