

Population genetics of the bearded vulture

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ABSTRACT1
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The bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*) is a large, long-lived bird which inhabits high-altitude mountains across Africa, Europe and Asia. Low breeding rates and heightened persecution over the last two centuries have left many populations severely diminished or extinct. The species is globally at risk and is thus listed as 'Near Threatened' by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN). This global conservation status may under-represent the threats faced by local populations. The southern African population, which is the most geographically isolated, is estimated at 100 breeding pairs, and is classified regionally as Critically Endangered.

This thesis aims to describe the genetic status of *G. barbatus* populations using a panel of 14 microsatellite loci. In the first chapter, the phylogeographic structure and genetic connectivity among *G. barbatus* populations across Africa and Europe will be assessed. In particular, this chapter focusses on determining if the geographically isolated southern Africa population is genetically unique. In the second chapter, the genetic diversity of the southern African *G. barbatus* population is compared to that of the Cape Vulture (*Gyps coprotheres*), Hooded Vulture (*Necrosyrtes monachus*) and the African White-backed Vulture (*Gyps africanus*). These vulture species are ecologically similar and also occur in southern Africa. In the third data chapter, the genetic data is combined with ecological and behavioural data to determine the southern African population's future in a population viability analysis.

My results show that the presence of spatial genetic differentiation and the low level of gene flow into the southern African population supports the management of this population as a separate entity. The genetic assessment of the global and southern African *G. barbatus* populations is useful in revising and updating the current conservation management for this species. Although the southern African population harbours more homozygosity in comparison to two other vulture species occurring in southern Africa and beyond, these bearded vultures had comparatively high allelic richness. The expected high inbreeding found in the southern African *G. barbatus* population highlights the need for conservation programmes to effectively manage and maintain the extant genetic diversity.

29 Recommendations reported in this thesis will contribute significantly towards conservation
30 efforts to ensure the sustainability of this emblematic species.

31

PREFACE

32 The data described in this thesis were processed in Pietermaritzburg, Republic of South Africa
33 from March 2016 to October 2017. Laboratory work was carried out while registered at the
34 School of Life Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, under the supervision
35 of Dr Sandi Willows-Munro and Dr Sonja Krüger.

36

37 This thesis, submitted for the degree of Master of Science in the College of Agriculture,
38 Engineering and Science, University of KwaZulu-Natal, School of Life Sciences,
39 Pietermaritzburg campus, represents original work by the author and has not otherwise been
40 submitted in any form for any degree or diploma to any University. Where use has been made
41 of the work of others, it is duly acknowledged in the text.

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45 Melanie Burke

46 March 2018

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48 I certify that the above statement is correct and as the candidate's supervisor I have
49 approved this thesis for submission.

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52 Doctor Sandi Willows-Munro and Dr Sonja Krüger

53 Supervisor

54 March 2018

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DECLARATION 1 - PLAGIARISM

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60 I, Melanie Burke, declare that

61

62 1. The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my
63 original research.

64

65 2. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other
66 university.

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68 3. This thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other
69 information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other
70 persons.

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72 4. This thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically
73 acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written
74 sources have been quoted, then:

75 a. Their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to
76 them has been referenced

77 b. Where their exact words have been used, then their writing has been placed
78 in italics and inside quotation marks, and referenced.

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81 Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the
82 thesis and in the References sections.

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DECLARATION 2 - PUBLICATIONS**

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DETAILS OF CONTRIBUTION TO PUBLICATIONS that form part and/or include research presented in this thesis.

Publication 1- in prep.

MB Burke, S Krüger and S Willows-Munro

Genetic structuring in the endangered bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*, L.) as revealed by microsatellite DNA: Placing the South African population in a global context. In review

Author contributions:

MBB conceived paper with SK and SWM. MBB collected and analysed data, and wrote the paper. SWM contributed valuable comments to the manuscript.

Publication 2- in prep.

MB Burke, S Krüger and Willows-Munro

Genetic diversity in the endangered bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*, L.) as revealed by microsatellite DNA: Placing the isolated southern African population in context of the African Vulture Crisis. In review

Author contributions:

MBB conceived paper with SK and SWM. MBB collected and analysed data, and wrote the paper. SWM contributed valuable comments to the manuscript.

Publication 3- in prep.

MB Burke, S Krüger and Willows-Munro

A genetically informed population viability analysis of the southern African bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus* population. In review

Author contributions:

MBB conceived paper with SK and SWM. MBB collected and analysed data, and wrote the paper. SWM contributed valuable comments to the manuscript.

Signed: 

Melanie Burke March 2018

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124 of this project. I extend gratitude to those institutes which loaned samples from their valuable
125 specimens, and to all who gave of their time in assisting me.

126 1 Corinthians 2v5 “that your faith should not be in the wisdom of men but in the power of
127 God.”



128 A near-adult bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus*, KwaZulu-Natal Midlands South Africa
129 (Photo credit JP Streicher).

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CHAPTER 1: Literature review and aims of the study

Introduction

1 There is now no doubt that the recent acceleration in anthropogenic activity has impacted natural
2 systems, and it is widely believed that a geological epoch named the “Anthropocene” has been
3 entered into (Barnosky et al. 2011; Ripple et al. 2017; Steffen et al. 2015). The Anthropocene is
4 marked by a sixth mass extinction which has been predicted to culminate in the loss of half the
5 world’s biodiversity (Barnosky et al. 2011; Koh et al. 2004). Rapid population and species’ declines
6 logically follow the destruction of natural habitats. However, where the loss of a species which is
7 integral to its habitat occurs, it has the potential to elicit a cascading effect of ‘secondary extinctions’
8 either directly (eg. obligate mutualism) or indirectly (eg. Loss of ecosystem engineers whose presence
9 significantly modifies an ecosystem, loss of a service) (Groom 2006).

10 Recent declines in vultures are an example of this. The rapid extirpation of vultures in India as a
11 consequence of using the veterinary drug diclofenac (Paudel et al. 2016; Prakash et al. 2012) had a
12 dramatic effect on the rate of rabies incidents between 1992-2006. The epidemic was attributed to
13 the increase in decaying carcasses which supported an unprecedented surge in the population of
14 feral dogs (Markandya et al. 2008). The “Asian Vulture Crisis” is comparable to the “Pan-African
15 Vulture Crisis”. African vulture population declines reported as well as the associated ecological,
16 economic and human costs are concomitant with the loss of vultures (Ogada et al. 2016). Six of
17 Africa's 11 vulture species are now on the edge of extinction. On a global scale, “the vulture crisis”
18 describes the concomitant extinction of local vulture populations. The reasons behind vulture
19 declines are varied. Species in natural habitats are subjected to factors such as pollution, over-
20 exploitation (Ogada and Buij 2011), invasive species and the influx of infectious diseases

21 (Cunningham et al. 2003) and to a lesser extent habitat loss (Pain et al. 2003; Thewlis et al. 1998).
22 Poisoning, collisions, electrocutions and habitats loss account for the primary factors which have led
23 to the African vulture crisis (Ogada et al. 2016). Ecological conservation efforts primarily focus their
24 efforts on improving these factors. However, while improving those external deterministic factors-
25 which have historically driven vulture species to critical population numbers- may help initially,
26 threatened populations are subject to genetic stochastic factors (such as inbreeding, heightened
27 genetic drift) which are unavoidable in small, isolated populations. As both the deterministic and
28 stochastic factors are inextricably linked, it is the interaction between them which will determine the
29 success of any conservation scheme. The current project will be examining the genetic stochastic
30 factors, using the bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus* as its subject.

31 **The study species: *Gypaetus barbatus***

32 The bearded vulture, *Gypaetus barbatus*, is a large, osteophagous old-world species, which
33 belongs to the family Accipitridae (Donázar et al. 1993; Hiraldo et al. 1979; Margalida and Bertran
34 2000). This species has a long lifespan (20 years in the wild and up to 40 years in captivity) but
35 breeding rates are extremely low (Brown 1997; Brown 1977). Both the abundance and breeding rate
36 of the species have diminished in the last century owing to direct (Hernández and Margalida 2009)
37 and indirect anthropogenic causes (Hernández and Margalida 2008). Similar to other vulture species,
38 the bearded vultures' persistence is threatened and the species is thus of considerable conservational
39 concern. They are integral to ecosystem health by, amongst others, controlling pests, aiding nutrient
40 recycling and feeding off carrion and thereby reducing the potential of disease spread (DeVault et al.
41 2016). Vultures are also ecologically sensitive predators and are thus valuable indicators of habitat
42 quality (Lerner and Mindell 2005).

43 The use of population genetics to determine the spatial distribution of genetic variation and
44 gene flow among fragmented populations is a vital component of conservation planning (Frankham
45 et al. 2002). Endangered species are characterized by a low number of individuals distributed across
46 a few populations. Fragmented populations may have limited contact, which would accelerate
47 genetic drift and inbreeding (Méndez et al. 2011; Willi et al. 2007). Consequently, this leads to a
48 reduction in genetic variation present in small, isolated populations. Even if the number of individuals
49 in a population were to increase owing to ecological conservation (thereby improving life span), the
50 level of genetic variation will not necessarily increase as drastically as mature individuals may
51 continue to dominate the breeding pool. Thus the maintenance of genetic variation in natural
52 populations is a key component of any conservation strategy. Genetic variation is also a direct
53 prediction of population fitness. Without genetic variation, a population cannot respond accordingly
54 (evolve) in response to a change in their external environment (climate and emerging disease) (Hartl
55 and Clark 1997). This study aims to provide a better understanding of the population structure and
56 connectivity between the contemporary isolated populations of the bearded vulture.

57 **Distribution and habitat**

58 The bearded vulture is sparsely distributed across a wide geographic range across the
59 Palearctic, Afrotropic and Indomalay regions (Margalida et al. 2003). Historically the populations
60 were abundant, but have become locally extinct or survive in highly habitat-specific isolated refuges
61 across their former range (Brown 1997; Gautschi et al. 2000). The Pyrenees, the southern Balkans,
62 the islands of Corsica and Crete, and a re-established population in the Alps currently comprise the
63 European populations; while the Maloti-Drakensberg (Lesotho boarder), Ethiopia and Morocco are
64 the refuges for the African bearded vulture populations (Brown 1997; Godoy et al. 2004).

65 Nests are situated preferentially on large, rocky outcrops and cliff ledges. Home range size
66 differs between the age classes with the highest being recorded for nonbreeding adults (Margalida
67 et al. 2008). Territory size is primarily dependent on food supply and available nesting sites, rather
68 than on a dominant patriarchal hierarchy system as this species is typically monogamous. Usually,
69 successful reproduction requires the significant contribution of both sexes as food can be scarce and
70 unpredictable, and this precludes the raising of two chicks (Margalida et al. 2003). In areas with
71 artificial feeding sites however, the increased food abundance has permitted polyandry where
72 reproductive output is maximised by an additional individual assisting with parenting the chick
73 (Heredia and Donázar 1990; Margalida et al. 2003). A polyandrous trio usually consists of a breeding
74 female and two males; one subordinate and one dominant. Studies by Bertran and Margalida (2004)
75 suggest that these are unrelated individuals, where females have the potential to maximise the males'
76 help (nest building, territory defence, food) via copulation. The precise niche requirements and spatial
77 distribution of sub-adults, who don't require nesting sites, differs slightly from mature individuals as
78 they exhibit a nomadic-style existence dependent on food supply (Brown 1997; Milanese et al. 2016).
79 Unlike other vultures, bearded vultures' diet consists almost exclusively of carrion bone (Brown and
80 Plug 1990; Roberts et al. 2005). Only in the early fledgling stages will breeding pairs sustain their
81 offspring with a soft tissue diet (Thibault et al. 1993).

82 **Population genetics**

83 *Genetic diversity*

84 Understanding the genetic variation present within a species is crucial. The need to conserve
85 genetic diversity is one of the top conservation priorities recognised by the International Union for
86 Conservation of Nature (IUCN). It is assumed that large populations harbour a healthy level of genetic

87 variation, one that would support the species' existence sustainably. Loss of genetic variation through
88 bottlenecks, founder effects and subsequent inbreeding are consequences that small populations
89 inevitably have to bear (Alcaide et al. 2010). Usually, the loss of genetic variation correlates to a
90 decrease in adaptive potential, which could jeopardise the species long-term survival. Threatened
91 species are intrinsically more prone to extinction and should therefore come under different
92 management strategies in comparison to larger, panmictic populations. As such, monitoring effective
93 population size is a pervasive issue in conservation genetics, not only due to the immediate effects
94 of limited genetic diversity, but more so because evolutionary processes are fundamentally different
95 between small and large populations (Frankham et al. 2002). Stochastic effects (genetic drift, fixation
96 of advantageous/disadvantageous alleles) rather than natural selection prevails in small populations.
97 These stochastic effects reduce polymorphism and hastens the loss of genetic variation.
98 Reintroducing and re-establishing populations of bearded vultures with limited founder individuals,
99 such as is occurring in the Alps and Andalucía (southern Spain) (Negro and Torres 1999), emphasizes
100 the need not only to have a thorough understanding of the genetics of the species (Bretagnolle et al.
101 2004), but to incorporate genetic information (with the biology and ecology of the species) in
102 population viability analyses.

103 The genetic processes referred to above are termed "extinction vortices" where mutual
104 reinforcement occurs between demographic and genetics processes. The interaction between these
105 processes could drive populations to extinction. Conservation of small populations should attempt
106 to disrupt the vortex by using population genetics to predict and potentially reverse the extinction
107 process. Although this has not been documented in the wild, wild species studied under natural
108 conditions frequently display moderate to high levels of inbreeding depression in fitness traits which
109 reduces reproductive output and ultimately impacts the population's dynamics.

110 *Inbreeding*

111 An immediate ramification of small populations is inbreeding, as the number of reproductive
112 individuals to choose from is reduced. Inbreeding is marked by the accrual of disadvantageous traits:
113 a reduction in offspring number, reduced juvenile survival, poor sperm quantity and quality among
114 others (Keller 1998; Keller and Waller 2002). Inbreeding depression is syndrome marked by an accrual
115 of these traits. This has been documented in numerous studies examining populations of captive and
116 bottle-necked populations (Keller and Waller 2002; Laikre and Ryman 1991). This grouping of
117 deleterious effects in small populations is again, a cause for concern when implementing
118 conservation strategies on endangered species with declining populations. The inbreeding coefficient
119 is the unit, which is used to measure the probability that both alleles at a locus are identical by
120 descent (autozygous). Inbreeding increases over time in a close, finite population and decreases
121 population viability (Frankham 2005).

122 *Migration*

123 Fragmentation, and its effects on small populations, depends on time since 'isolation' and
124 migration rates between fragmented populations. This in turn depends on how isolated populations
125 are, as well as meta-population structure. Isolation in an already threatened population further
126 diminishes its viability and accentuates the evolutionary processes (genetic drift, divergence rates)
127 at work in it. Population differentiation is measured by F-statistics (F_{it} , F_{is} and F_{st}). Gene flow
128 between sub-populations lessens the adverse effects of isolation by introducing new genes into the
129 breeding population. Ideally, the effects of inbreeding and extinction risk can be alleviated in
130 fragmented populations if they are genetically connected by migration. Migration rates can depend
131 on the species biology and the distance between isolated populations and are therefore often

132 difficult to quantify. Gene flow, then, is used as an indication of migration. In the case of the Bearded
133 vulture, it would be erroneous to believe that birds actively flew between the populations, and this
134 thesis does not intend to claim that active migration is presently occurring between the populations.
135 However, migration rates perhaps present the closest proxy of past levels of genetic mixing.

136 **Molecular markers used in conservation genetics**

137 Despite their conservation status, vultures have been the subject of only a few phylogenetic
138 studies (Arshad et al. 2009; Lerner and Mindell 2005). Studies examining genetic diversity below the
139 species level are also limited, but have used mitochondrial DNA (Seibold and Helbig 1995), nuclear
140 sequence markers (Lerner and Mindell 2005) and allozymes (van Wyk et al. 1992) to examine
141 population level processes. Conclusions drawn from these few studies are alike - low genetic variation
142 with minimal hope of adaptability, all predicting a dire future for the species studied. Several genetic
143 studies have been conducted on the bearded vulture (Gautschi 2001; Gautschi et al. 2003b; Godoy
144 et al. 2004). Most of these studies have focused on the captive and European populations (Gautschi
145 et al. 2003a; Negro and Torres 1999). Those studies that have included African, Asian and European
146 samples (Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015) analysed mitochondrial DNA markers only and thus
147 the conclusions drawn are limited to the maternal inheritance pattern. Godoy et al. (2004) examined
148 the phylogeographic structure of bearded vultures using mitochondrial control region sequences. By
149 using museum specimens, they were able to include many historic populations, which are now
150 extinct. Despite this, the sampling used in the study was biased towards European and Asian
151 populations with only a few samples from Ethiopia, one sample from Yemen, one sample from Algeria
152 and two samples from South Africa. The study noted especially low levels of genetic diversity in
153 Ethiopian bearded vulture population when compared to samples gathered from other regions

154 across the species range. Unfortunately, the limited sample size of the South African population
155 precluded any accurate genetic assessment. This study also revealed significant genetic structuring
156 across the distribution of the species, which is unexpected in a species that travels distances that
157 should permit gene transfer. The authors found Spanish and Sardinian bearded vultures to be
158 significantly different from all other populations, but the remaining populations were not significantly
159 differentiated. Their median joining network reinforced this result; the eastern samples grouped
160 strongly together, while western populations formed their own cluster. Central Asian and roughly
161 grouped eastern European samples did not differ considerably and may therefore have come from
162 the peripheral habitat of the same broad population. In addition to this, they found low levels of gene
163 flow and thus haplotype differentiation between even geographically close populations. A study by
164 Krüger et al. 2015, also used two mitochondrial markers (control region and cytochrome *b*) to
165 examine the genetic diversity and connectivity present within the Sub-Saharan population. Here
166 again, the analyses detected reduced genetic variation and no significant differentiation between the
167 southern African and Ethiopian population. The study confirmed Godoy et al. (2004) assertion that
168 the global population should be managed as a single entity as the African samples clustered with
169 those from Europe, Asia and the Middle East. Moreover, the absence of vast differences in life history
170 traits, morphology, habitat and behaviour support this conclusion.

171 Mitochondrial DNA provides a good first assessment of phylogeographic patterns (Godoy et
172 al. 2004; Seibold and Helbig 1995). The use of a single locus system may, however, not be able to
173 answer evolutionary questions that require genome-wide information, or that require molecular
174 markers of a higher mutation rate that detect diversity below the species level. Revealing recent
175 (contemporary) genetic trends necessitates fast-evolving sections of the genome that are not
176 evolutionarily constrained. Population-level questions are amenable to applications of

177 microsatellites or SNPs (single nucleotide polymorphisms). Microsatellites are sensitive to genetic
178 changes such as those in effective population size fluctuations and low rates of migration.
179 Microsatellites may reveal crucial demographic information that other markers (e.g. mitochondrial
180 analyses- containing less genetic resolution and reduced sensitivity) may not detect.

181 Microsatellites are typically located ubiquitously throughout the non-coding regions of a
182 genome, and less so in coding segments (Chistiakov et al. 2006; Primmer et al. 1997). Microsatellites
183 are small (short tandem repeats- STRs) codominant markers which exhibit high levels of allelic
184 polymorphism (Callen et al. 1993), and undergo polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for amplification
185 with relative ease (Chistiakov et al. 2006). A prominent feature of microsatellites as molecular
186 markers is their high mutational rate and consequent high variability within populations and species
187 (Chistiakov et al. 2006). The mutational rate of microsatellites is approximately 10^{-2} to 10^{-6} per locus
188 per generation (Ellegren 2000) whilst non repetitive DNA is approximately 10^{-9} per locus per
189 generation.

190 Microsatellites have proven to be an exceptional tool in the field of molecular ecology (Arshad
191 et al. 2009; Chistiakov et al. 2006). They are widely used in population and conservation genetics
192 (Arshad et al. 2009) and have been used to quantify genetic variation within a species as well as
193 deduce evolutionary origins within and among species (Chistiakov et al. 2006; Coetzer et al. 2015;
194 Ellegren 2000). Due to their versatility to monitor and direct conservation efforts, and to inform
195 reintroduction programmes of threatened species, microsatellites have been a prized breakthrough
196 in biological studies (Mira et al. 2002). Not only can they be implemented to predict future population
197 structure, but because they can be amplified from historic tissue one can also use them to study the
198 past genetic structure of a population in the study of extinct species, or comparing genetic diversity

199 over a wide temporal scale. The short length of microsatellites allows them to be readily amplified in
200 archival museum tissues (Chistiakov et al. 2006; Seutin et al. 1991).

201 Accordingly, microsatellites are regularly used in population biology (Primmer et al. 2005) and
202 are recommended for conservation efforts to assess the relatedness between individuals (Arshad et
203 al. 2009; Coetzer et al. 2017), as well as to address questions of effective population size, population
204 structure, reproductive systems, migration and colonization rates (Gautschi et al. 2003; Banhos et al.
205 2008). For this type of study to be relevant for contemporary conservation practises, a reference point
206 is needed to add context and to make practical conclusions. Ideally, we would like to compare current
207 levels of diversity to that of the same species a generation or two ago. These are unfortunately
208 unavailable. The closest comparison we can achieve, is to compare amongst species which have
209 suffered like declines and are expected to respond similarly. In this way, we can gauge to what extent
210 a species has suffered, and how intensively and urgently conservation would need to act.

211 Gautschi et al. 2003 developed and used a suite of 14 microsatellites to compare between the
212 variation present in captive and natural European populations (Pyrenees, Sardinia, Alps) of bearded
213 vulture. Here the authors found the observed heterozygosity (~ 0.56) to be slightly lower than should
214 be expected (~ 0.60) if the population conformed to expectation of Hardy-Weinberg (Gautschi et al.
215 2003a). The captive population studied maintained an high level of diversity ($H_o = 0.68$; No. of alleles
216 = 8.5) in comparison to wild populations.

217 **Main aims of study**

218 This study aims to provide a better understanding of the genetic structure among
219 contemporary populations of bearded vulture across Africa, Europe and Asia, but will also focus on
220 the southern African population. This study extends the work of Godoy et al. (2004) and Krüger et

221 al. (2015) by increasing the number of bearded vulture individuals included and loci analysed, and
222 by using microsatellite loci as compliment to mitochondrial data.

223 In chapter 2, microsatellite data will be used to establish whether genetic structuring has
224 resulted from prolonged isolation of small populations following the global collapse of bearded
225 vulture populations. Several indices of genetic diversity will be estimated to provide information on
226 the extent of genetic drift and inbreeding in isolated populations across the range of the species.
227 Migration rates among African and European populations will also be estimated. Estimating
228 population structure and genetic status of disjunct populations will provide conservation
229 authorities with the necessary information needed to make, and implement the appropriate
230 conservation measures to protect the bearded vulture. In particular, the information from this
231 chapter will be used to determine if global bearded vulture populations should be managed as a
232 single unit or if isolated population should be regarded as different management units.

233 In chapter 3, I will focus on the southern African bearded vulture population. In this chapter,
234 the genetic diversity of the southern African population will be compared to that of three
235 ecologically similar sub-Saharan vulture species.

236 In chapter 4, a population viability analysis will be conducted by combing the specie's
237 biology and life history traits with genetic data (allelic frequencies). There should not be a vast
238 difference in the population trajectories if the bearded vulture's genetics are still diverse and stable
239 enough. However, if the population's genetics are severely reduced, the probabilistic trajectory for
240 this species will be negatively altered.

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CHAPTER 2

Evidence of genetic structure across African and European populations of the bearded vulture

(Gypaetus barbatus, L.): Placing the southern African population in a global context

Abstract

387 The bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus* has a wide and intermittent distribution across the
388 Palearctic, Afrotropical and Indomalay regions. Despite this wide distribution, some local populations
389 have undergone collapses because of several compounding anthropogenic threats. Continued
390 persecution and prolonged isolation has resulted in a decline in the species. Genetic depauperation
391 and geographic isolation are known to adversely affect the evolutionary potential of a species in the
392 long term and this is the impetus behind conducting research on isolated and dwindling populations
393 of threatened species. Here, the genetic structure of the bearded vulture population on a global scale
394 is investigated. Specifically, this chapter seeks to determine whether the southern African population
395 is disjunct and genetically separate from the other African and European populations. Analyses
396 reveals that the global Beaded vulture population is genetically structured. The southern Africa
397 population is genetically different from European/Asian populations, and to a lesser extent is also
398 different from eastern and western Africa population of bearded vultures. Population differentiation
399 statistics confirm that the genetic structuring is geographically correlated, with low levels of
400 migration detected between some populations. The northern African population seems to be the
401 meeting point between African and European/Asian populations. The southern and eastern African
402 populations are considerably isolated and analysis suggests very limited genetic exchange has
403 occurred between these populations in the recent past. Continued geographical isolation,
404 particularly in the southern African population, may in coming generations exacerbate the population
405 differentiation. As the populations can be considered management units, I argue for a revised

406 assessment of the current management of the bearded vulture species as separate populations, and
407 not as a single, panmictic global population.

Introduction

408 Historically bearded vulture, *Gypaetus barbatus*, populations were considerably more
409 abundant, albeit sparsely distributed across a wide geography ranging from Palearctic, through
410 Neotopic and into Indomalay regions (Godoy et al. 2004). In the past century however, they have
411 become locally extinct, or survive in highly habitat-specific isolated refuges across their former range
412 (Brown 1997; Gautschi et al. 2000). The Pyrenees, the southern Balkans, the islands of Corsica and
413 Crete, and a re-established population in the Alps currently comprise the European populations;
414 while southern Africa, Ethiopia and Morocco are the remaining habitats for the African bearded
415 vulture population (Brown 1997; Godoy et al. 2004).

416

417 In the southern hemisphere, electrocution and unintentional poisoning through veterinary
418 drug-use are the primary culprits for population decline in vultures (Ledger and Annegarn 1981;
419 Ogada 2014). Other factors such as intentional poisoning for the use of vulture body parts in the
420 illegal wildlife and Muthi trade are also having an impact on the population (Ogada et al. 2016). The
421 Northern hemisphere populations also suffered collapses through ingestion of heavy metals
422 (Hernández and Margalida 2009; Margalida et al. 2008). In addition, as a consequence of the EU
423 sanitary legislation of 2000 which progressively limited the unauthorised disposal of carcasses, the
424 vulture populations also suffer from lack of food (Donázar et al. 2010) and the European populations
425 now require supplemental feeding (Hille et al. 2016; Oro et al. 2008; Piper 2005).

426 Reduced population numbers have led to the rapid demise and extinction of local populations
427 across the distribution of bearded vulture (Mingozzi and Estève 1997). African populations of the
428 species have been particularly hard hit (Figure 2.1). This has led to the fragmentation of the African
429 population into several isolated regions. Ethiopia is believed to hold a few hundred pairs, however
430 reliable data are not available and these values are therefore thought to be considerably
431 overestimated (Ash and Atkins 2010; Brown 1977). A 2011-survey identified only three nest-sites in
432 Kenya and roughly double that in Tanzania (Krueger et al. 2014). Morocco is home to fewer than 20
433 individuals and the species is considered extinct in Tunisia (Godino et al. 2003). The entire southern
434 hemisphere population is isolated to the south eastern regions of South Africa, where they roost and
435 breed on high altitude cliffs of the Maloti-Drakensberg mountains which form the border between
436 KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa and Lesotho (Brown 1997). Current estimates suggest that this
437 population consists of between 368-408 individuals (109 - 221 breeding pairs) and occupies a
438 breeding range of 28 125 km² (Krueger et al. 2014).

439

440 Small, disjunct populations- such as the southern African one- are of conservation concern for
441 several reasons. Due to the reduced effective population size, small populations experience amplified
442 genetic drift, inbreeding and a greater loss of genetic diversity (Allendorf 1986; Frankham 1995; Lacy
443 1987). Although the inherent effect of low genetic diversity on species persistence was long
444 underestimated (Lande and Barrowclough 1987) there is now no doubt that genetic variation
445 correlates to individual fitness and population stability (Reed and Frankham 2003).

446

447 Following severe population collapses, studies on bearded vultures have found a reduced
448 level of genetic diversity in the wild populations of Europe and southern Africa (Gautschi et al. 2003;
449 Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). Past studies based on mitochondrial data found evidence for

450 two distinct lineages: one occurring predominantly in western Europe, and the other extending over
451 Africa, eastern Europe and central Asia. This latter study detected high levels of inter-population
452 differentiation, with the maximum admixture between the two lineages occurring in Greece and the
453 Alps (Godoy et al. 2004). Godoy et al. (2004) found the populations to be genetically structured as a
454 consequence of the extinction of the central European population. The authors suggest that the
455 lineages underwent allopatric differentiation (Mediterranean vs. Africa/Asian), and range expansion
456 in the African/Asian cohort which resulted in secondary contact zones in central Europe and northern
457 Africa (Godoy et al. 2004). However, these remnant populations were found to be ecologically
458 interchangeable, even between vastly segregated populations. Additional studies have confirmed
459 reduced genetic diversity in bearded vulture populations using both mitochondrial (Krüger et al.
460 2015) and microsatellite loci (Godoy et al. 2004). However, the overriding conclusion is that the global
461 population essentially behaves as a panmictic species (genetic admixture) and all stocks are therefore
462 interchangeable for the purposes of conservation (Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). These
463 studies however have focussed their analyses either primarily on the European population (with low
464 representation from southern Africa), or on slow-evolving parts of the genome. In this chapter, I use
465 microsatellite-derived data to confirm and to test for resultant structuring of the global population
466 as a consequence of fragmented populations. Microsatellite markers evolve at a faster rate than the
467 mitochondrial genome, and should therefore provide greater resolution of potential fine-scale
468 genetic structuring (Froeschke and von der Heyden 2014). This should elucidate contemporary
469 factors rather than deep-wrought evolutionary events. This study also expands on previous research
470 by increasing the sample size used in analyses, particularly the southern African population's
471 representation in the data set is increased to adequately and accurately place it in a global context.

472 The broad aim of the research presented here is to test for the presence of genetic structuring
 473 in the global bearded vulture population using microsatellites. I test specifically whether the
 474 geographically isolated population in southern Africa has resulted in genetic isolation from other
 475 bearded vulture populations. This was done by testing for the presence of migration across Africa
 476 and by examining the migratory links between African and European populations. Understanding the
 477 genetic structure across a species with such a wide distribution is essential in establishing proper
 478 conservation management programs.

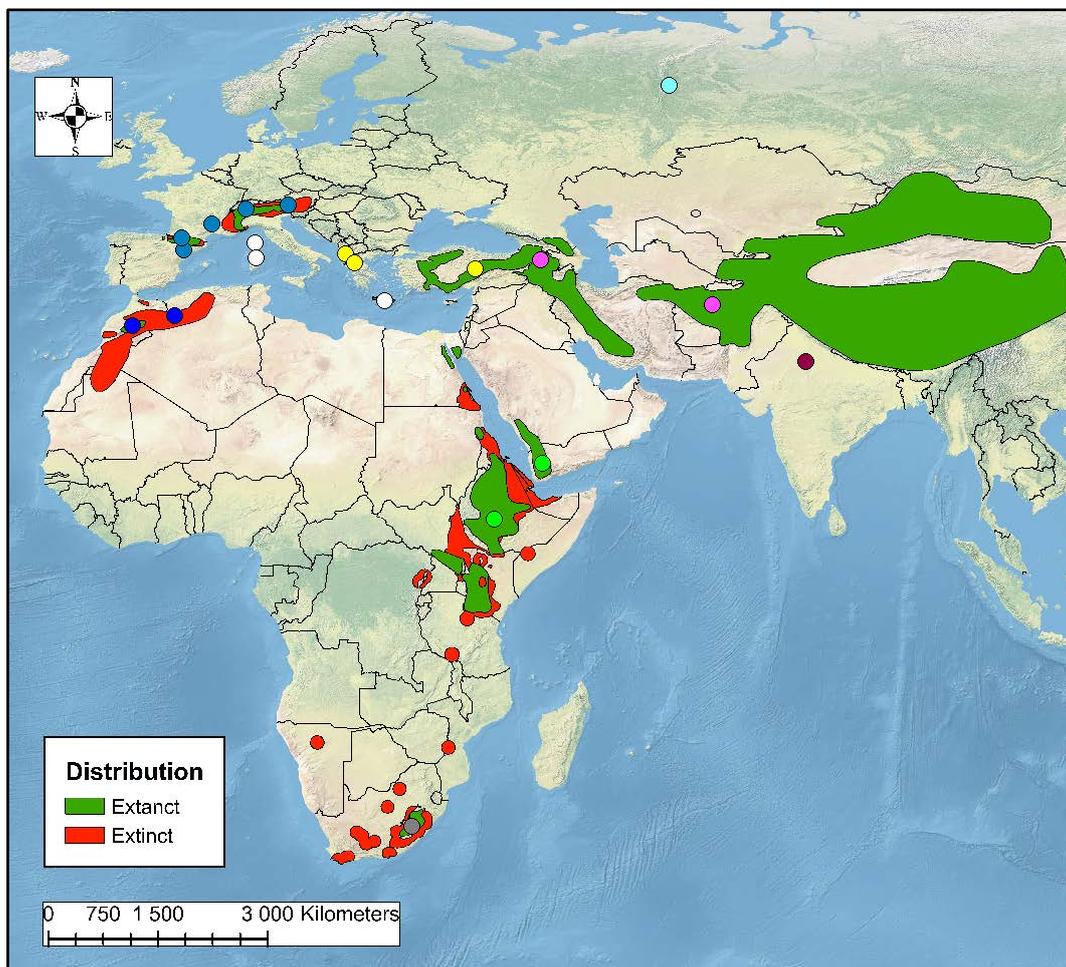


Figure 2.1: The bearded vulture's *Gypaetus barbatus* global distribution across the Palearctic, Afrotropical and Indomalay regions. Green shading indicates the extant range and red shading where populations have become locally extinct. Nine coloured circles indicate the locality of samples included in this study (see Appendix Table 2.1.).

Materials and methods

479 *Samples*

480 A total of 217 samples of bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*) comprise the sample set for
481 this chapter. The countries from which these samples were gathered include: southern Africa (n= 52),
482 Ethiopia (n= 16), Yemen (n= 2), Morocco (n= 1), Algeria (n= 5), Albania (n= 1), Greece (n= 14), Turkey
483 (n= 1), Caucasus (n= 7), central Asia (n= 4), Turkestan (n= 5), Kyrgyzstan (n= 2), central Russia (n= 11),
484 India (n= 5), Crete (n= 1), Corsica (n= 3), Sardinia (n= 30), Switzerland (n= 35), Austria (n= 1), the
485 Pyrenees (n= 9), France (n= 2), Spain (n= 10). To avoid grouping bias, samples were grouped rigidly
486 by the locality information attached to the samples, which in cases was very broad. Sample details
487 are given in Appendix Table 2.2. These samples came in various tissue forms: blood, feather, and
488 archival tissue (toepad and dried skin). The use of toepad tissue and feathers is known to be a reliable
489 source for retrieving genetic information from deceased individuals and extinct populations (Horváth
490 et al. 2005). Archival samples were received from the Durban Natural Science Museum, the American
491 Museum of Natural History, the Naturalis Biodiversity Centre in Leiden, and from the Zoology
492 Museum at the University of Zurich. Contemporary samples came from the work of Dr. Sonja Krüger.
493 Samples varied in age. The earliest sample was gathered in 1793 and the most recent samples came
494 from feathers collected in 2012.

495 *DNA extraction*

496 The NucleoSpin® Tissue kit (Macherey-Nagel, Nucleic acid and protein purification, South
497 Africa) was used for all DNA extractions for this study. The standard protocol for extracting genetic
498 material from blood was followed for blood samples. The protocol was modified as coagulation had
499 occurred during transportation in some samples, and liquid blood could not be pipetted. Whatman®

500 FTA® Elute cards were immersed in the coagulated blood mass until some had transferred to the
501 card. Drying of the FTA cards took ~2 days after which the standard protocol for blood extractions
502 was followed. The feather extractions were done using the standard protocol for muscle tissue with
503 the following modifications: incubation of the ~5mm feather tip and proteinase K for 48 hours, lysate
504 was then incubated in B3 (buffer) for 45 minutes (70°C), the final volume of pre-warmed Buffer BE
505 was decreased to 80µl, incubation at 70°C for 20 minutes followed by centrifuging and then
506 reapplication of the solution onto the membrane and a final incubation at 70°C for an additional 5
507 minutes. This was followed by a final centrifugation step. Extractions from archival toepad or dried
508 skin were performed using the standard protocol for muscle tissue modified to optimize DNA
509 extraction. In this case, the final volume of pre-warmed Buffer BE was decreased to 80µl and included
510 an incubation step at 70°C for 10 minutes followed by centrifuging and then reapplication of the
511 solution onto the membrane and a final incubation at 70°C for an additional 10 minutes followed by
512 a final centrifuging step to obtain the DNA extract. DNA concentrations were determined using the
513 ThermoScientific NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Inqaba Biotec, South Africa). All DNA extracts
514 were stored at -20°C. Dr Willows-Munro laboratory has a long and successful history of working with
515 archival samples. Contamination was avoided by following all the necessary and standard laboratory
516 procedures when processing contemporary and historic samples. In addition, exceptionally old
517 samples were processed twice for confirmation.

518 *Microsatellite amplification*

519 Fourteen microsatellite loci (Table 2.1) were chosen from a potential suite of 18 markers used
520 in previous studies. These microsatellite primers were developed specifically for European
521 populations of *Gypaetus barbatus* (Gautschi et al., 2000) and for *Gyps* species (Mira et al., 2002). The

522 vulture genera *Gyps* and *Gypaetus* both belong to the Accipitridae family. Each microsatellite locus
523 was amplified independently after which loci were combined to form multiplexes. Four of the primers
524 were problematic in amplifying (BV 1, BV13, BV 16 and BV 20). The remaining primers were amplified
525 in four multiplex reactions, and one (BV 17) was run in isolation (Multiplex 1 through 4, Table 2.1)
526 using KAPA2G Fast multiplex PCR Kit. The KAPA2GT Fast Multiplex PCR Kit (KAPA Biosystems, Cape
527 Town, South Africa) contains KAPA2G Fast HotStart DNA Polymerase, reaction buffer, dNTPs and
528 MgCl₂. The multiplex PCR reactions consisted of 5µl KAPA2G Fast Multiplex mix, 0.1- 0.2 µM of each
529 primer, 0.5-2.0µl of template DNA (muscle tissue or blood) or 3.5µl of template DNA (dried skin or
530 feather), purified water was added to each reaction to make up a final reaction volume of 10µl. The
531 following thermocycler cycle parameters were used for PCR of Multiplex 2 and 3: 95°C for 3 minutes
532 as the initial denaturation step, 30 cycles at 95°C for 15 seconds, 60°C for 30 seconds, 72°C for 1
533 minute, with a final elongation step at 72°C for 10 minutes. The samples were held at 4°C once the
534 cycle had completed running. Multiplex 1 and 4 PCR cycling parameters remained the same as above,
535 but the annealing temperature was decreased to 58°C. The amplified products were sent to the
536 Central Analytical Facilities (Stellenbosch University, South Africa) for fragment analysis. To ensure
537 correct genotype scoring, roughly 20% of samples were reamplified and negative controls were also
538 sent for genotyping to confirm no contamination occurred. Chromatograms of each microsatellite-
539 genotyped individual were analysed using the software package GeneMarker® v2.4.0 (Soft Genetics).
540 Genotype scores were documented on Microsoft Excel.

Table 2.1: Microsatellite marker multiplex combinations, and associated information for the selected primers.

Multiplex	Loci	Expected product size	Dye Used	Annealing temperature	Amplified (Yes/No)	Citation
1	BV 9*	212	Hex	58°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	BV14	162-164	Fam	58°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	Gf11a	130-147	Hex	58°C	Yes	Mira et al. 2002
2	BV2*	115-120	Hex	60°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	Gf8G	274	Fam	60°C	Yes	Mira et al. 2002
	Gf3f3	177-179	Tet	60°C	Yes	Mira et al. 2002
3	BV6*	106-119	Hex	60°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	Gf3h3	137-141	Fam	60°C	Yes	Mira et al. 2002
	Gf9C	262-268	Hex	60°C	Yes	Mira et al. 2002
4	BV5*	178	Tet	58°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	BV8*	105	Fam	58°Cs	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	BV11	160-162	Hex	58°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
	BV12	256-269	Fam	58°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000
**	BV17	186	Hex	62°C	Yes	Gautschi et al. 2000

*species-specific loci, the remaining are family specific

**BV17 was run in isolation

541 *Microsatellite analysis*

542 A prevalent problem with using microsatellites designed for different species is the potential
543 for allelic drop out, strand-mispairing and null alleles. This is caused by inefficient amplification due
544 to mutations in the primer binding site (Kalinowski and Taper, 2006) or low quality DNA (Sefc et al.
545 2003). Both of these factors may be an issue in this study, particularly as some microsatellite loci
546 were designed for other species of vulture and many of the samples included in the data set come
547 from considerably old, archival material where the DNA may be degraded. Different methods of
548 taxidermy preparation and preservation are also known to influence the quality of the DNA, and this
549 may also be a limiting factor in the quality of the final extracted nucleic acids (Burrell et al. 2015).

550 The presence of null alleles can lead to an excess of homozygotes in a data set, which could
551 potentially cause deviations from Hardy-Weinberg (HWE) predictions. Deviations from HWE reduce
552 the similarity between populations (greater F_{st} values) and therefore erroneously overestimate the
553 level of differentiation between populations (Chapuis and Estoup, 2006). Subsequent population
554 analyses, which rely on HWE as a baseline comparison, are therefore compromised when high
555 frequencies of null alleles are included in the data. The effect that null alleles have on biasing, and
556 over predicting population differentiation is well understood and methods have been developed to
557 correct for these (Carlsson, 2008; Chapuis and Estoup, 2006; Kalinowski and Taper, 2006).

558 The effect of over predicting homozygosity on downstream assignment tests was examined
559 by Carlsson (2008) across a number of programmes, including the programmes I have used in this
560 chapter. He found that null alleles, slightly increased the percentage of incorrectly assigned
561 individuals, but overall population structure estimation was unaffected (Carlsson, 2008). The
562 presence of null alleles in microsatellite data generated in this study was tested for in ML-Null Freq
563 (Kalinowski and Taper 2006) and FreeNA (Chapuis and Estoup 2006). Both programmes detected
564 significant levels of null alleles at multiple loci (Table 2.5). Population differentiation (F_{st}) values

565 reported are thus those calculated in FreeNA using the ENA-corrected method, which accounts for
566 null alleles. Pairwise F_{st} values were calculated using two grouping schemes. Individuals were
567 grouped by country of origin, and then because some countries have very low sample sizes,
568 individuals were also grouped by region ($n = 9$; Appendix Table 2.1).

569

570 *Population structure and migration analysis*

571 Population structure across the global distribution of the bearded vulture was performed
572 using a Bayesian clustering method implemented in the software program STRUCTURE version 2.3.4
573 (Falush et al. 2003; Pritchard et al. 2000a). For this analysis, the model with correlated allele
574 frequencies was used (Pritchard et al. 2000b). The analysis was performed using sampling localities
575 as prior information to direct and confirm the clustering. I selected the LOCPRIOR option in Structure
576 for this. This is useful for data sets where the signal of structure is relatively weak, or where there is
577 true population structure (e.g. significant F_{st} between sampling locations), but standard structure
578 models are unable to detect this. This may occur for data sets with few markers, few individuals, or
579 generally weak structure.

580 Analyses were run using both the *Admixture* and *No Admixture* model parameters. If there is
581 reason to consider each population as completely discrete, the *No Admixture* model is appropriate.
582 In contrast, the *Admixture* model allows for a large proportion of sampled individuals to have recent
583 ancestors from multiple populations. The wide geographic distribution of the bearded vulture
584 favours the *No Admixture* model (suggesting that each regional population is discrete), but previous
585 molecular work (Godoy et al. 2004) suggests that the Africa, European and Asian populations are
586 closely genetically linked. For this reason, both models were implemented.

587 All analyses were performed with 100 000 Markov-Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) replicates with
588 a burnin of 10 000. The number of iterations for all assignments was 25 with K ranging from 1 to 10.

589 Once all the simulations were completed, STRUCTURE Selector (Li and Liu 2017) was used to
590 determine the optimum ΔK value for each assignment using the Puechmaille method (Puechmaille
591 2016). Detecting the optimal number of genetic clusters were also run through STRUCTURE Harvester
592 (Earl 2012) using the Evanno method (Evanno et al. 2005) to estimate optimal K, although the
593 inherent bias of the Evanno model has recently come under scrutiny (Puechmaille 2016). I ran both
594 STRUCTURE Selector and STRUCTURE Harvester to check for concordance. The online software
595 package Pophelper (Francis 2016) was used to compile bar plots of the optimum K- value (ΔK).

596 Genetic distances were computed and subjected to a Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) in
597 GenALEx version 6.1 software (Peakall and Smouse 2006). The patterns of clustering from the PCoA
598 were compared to clustering output from EDENetworks v2.18 (Kivelä et al. 2015). EDENetworks when
599 run without prior assumptions of population identity or sampling location, plots nodes (individuals
600 or populations) in a network graph with edges (genetic distance) which are weighted by pairwise
601 genetic distance. EDENetworks uses percolation theory to establish the most suitable network by
602 removing links until the 'super structure' eventually disappears. The point where this occurs is called
603 the 'percolation threshold'. For analysis in EDENetworks, I used the Fst distance measure and
604 automatic thresholding option that allows the programme to detect the optimal threshold. The final
605 clustering pattern was recalculated 10 times to test for alternate placement of nodes or connections.

758 An Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) was performed to ascertain whether the genetic
759 variation was arising from between or within populations, or primarily from within individuals. For
760 this, the sample set (n=217) was divided into nine different populations based on geographic
761 proximity (Appendix Table 2.1).

762 Testing for potential migration among geographically segregated population was performed
763 using BayesAss 3.0 which implements a Bayesian, assignment test-based method (Wilson and

764 Rannala 2003). This programme uses the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) procedure to estimate
 765 the probability of an individual belonging to the local population, being an immigrant, or whether the
 766 individual is of immigrant ancestry. A migration rate is calculated based on the proportion of
 767 immigrants in the present and previous generations. I used the recommended settings of 60 000 000
 768 MCMC iterations with a burnin of 20 000 steps (Wilson and Rannala 2003). Migration was tested by
 769 dividing populations into regional groups.

Results

770 Null alleles were present in all loci with frequencies ranging from 0.02 to 0.12, but for nine
 771 loci out of fourteen, the frequency of null alleles was particularly high (>0.14). FreeNA and MN-Null
 772 Freq confirmed this (Table 2.2), though ML-Null Freq predicted consistently higher levels of null
 773 alleles than FreeNA. Simulation studies suggest that null alleles with frequencies between 5% and 8%
 774 should have only minor effects on standard estimates of population differentiation, but that higher
 775 frequencies would bias such parameters (Chapuis and Estoup 2006).

776 I tested for deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium at each locus, across all samples.
 777 Significant departures ($p < 0.05$) from HW equilibrium were obtained for all loci. This was not
 778 unexpected as the populations naturally deviate from the assumptions of HWE. These samples were
 779 derived from small populations which have presumably been isolated for several generations.

Table 2.2: Null allele frequencies detected across 14 loci.

	Locus													
	BV9	Gf11a4	BV14	BV2	Gf3f3	Gf8g	BV6	Gf3h3	Gf9c	BV5	BV8	BV11	BV12	BV17
ML-Null Freq	0.03	0.11	0.02	0.23	0.45	0.35	0.14	0.14	0.40	0.23	0.19	0.16	0.02	0.12

FreeNA 0.03 0.06 0.01 0.17 0.28 0.13 0.11 0.10 0.23 0.18 0.09 0.13 0.02 0.09

780 *Population structure*

781 The analysis using the *Admixture* parameter detected seven genetic clusters ($\Delta K = 7$, Figure
 782 2.2 and 2.3). The Bayesian STRUCTURE cluster plot revealed some genetic admixture between the
 783 populations from different countries. The lowest admixture was evident in the southern African
 784 population ($Q=0.83$), followed by the central Russian and Ethiopian populations ($Q= 0.80$ and 0.78 ,
 785 respectively). The highest admixture was detected in the Kyrgyzstan, Corsican and Spanish
 786 populations ($Q = 0.30, 0.30,$ and 0.31 respectively, Table 2.4). The genetic clustering was closely
 787 linked to geography (Figure 2. 2.3). In particular, the isolated southern African and central Russian
 788 bearded populations are genetically distinct from the other bearded vulture populations, with
 789 genotypes collected from these regions belonging to unique genetic clusters. The genetic
 790 composition of the remaining geographic regions is predominantly a combination of four genetic
 791 clusters (dark blue, light blue, red and orange cluster in Figure 2.3).

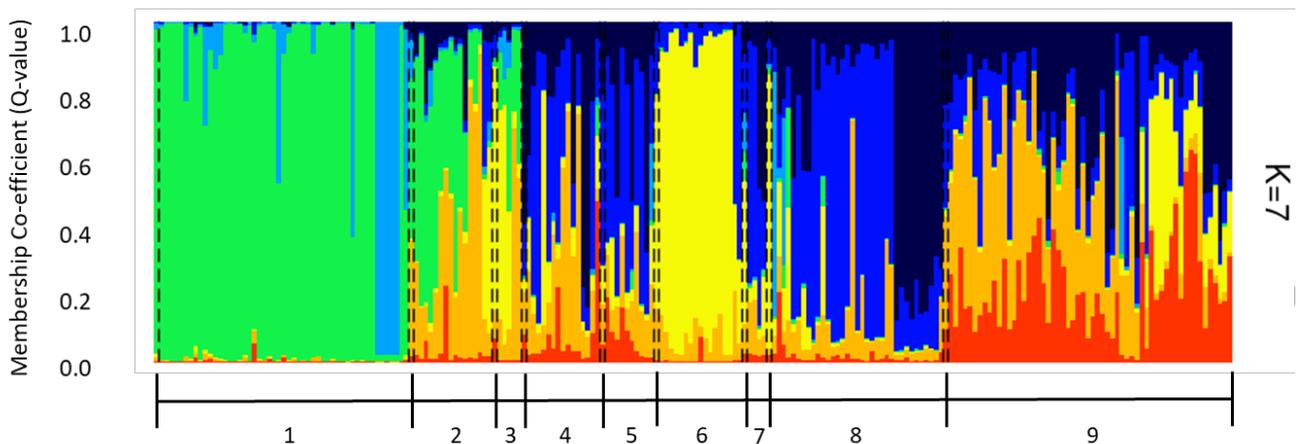


Figure 2.2: Probabilistic Admixed population structure given for 217 *Gypaetus barbatus* collected from across the distribution of the species. Individual vultures have been grouped into broad geographically delineated regions (1- southern Africa; 2- eastern Africa; 3- western Africa; 4- south-east Europe; 5- central Asia; 6- central Russia; 7- northern India, 8- Mediterranean islands; 9-

European countries) and are represented by vertical lines which is partitioned into ($K = 7$) coloured segments that represent the estimated membership coefficients (Q-value).

792 When running the programme using the *No Admixture* parameter, the model detected either
 793 seven genetic clusters (Figure 2.4) when run on the Puechmaille clustering method, or two (Evanno)
 794 genetic clusters (not presented here). Given the tendency of the Evanno model to bias toward $K = 2$
 795 (Puechmaille 2016), and in view of the *Admixture* model detecting 7 genetic clusters, the $K = 2$ result
 796 is not presented here. The results from the *No Admixture* parameter setting differ only slightly from
 797 those returned from the *Admixture* model (Table 2.3). The *No Admixture* model more frequently
 798 assigned individuals to a specific genetic cluster (with chiefly higher or similar Q-values, Table 2.4)
 799 whereas the *Admixture* model predicted an individual to have ancestry from several genetic clusters.
 800 Understandably, in comparison to the *Admixture* model, less mixing of genetic clusters is apparent.
 801 Nevertheless, there is a clear distinction between the southern African population and the remaining
 802 populations. Individuals collected from southern Africa also belong to three different genetic clusters.
 803 Two of these clusters were only present in the southern African population.

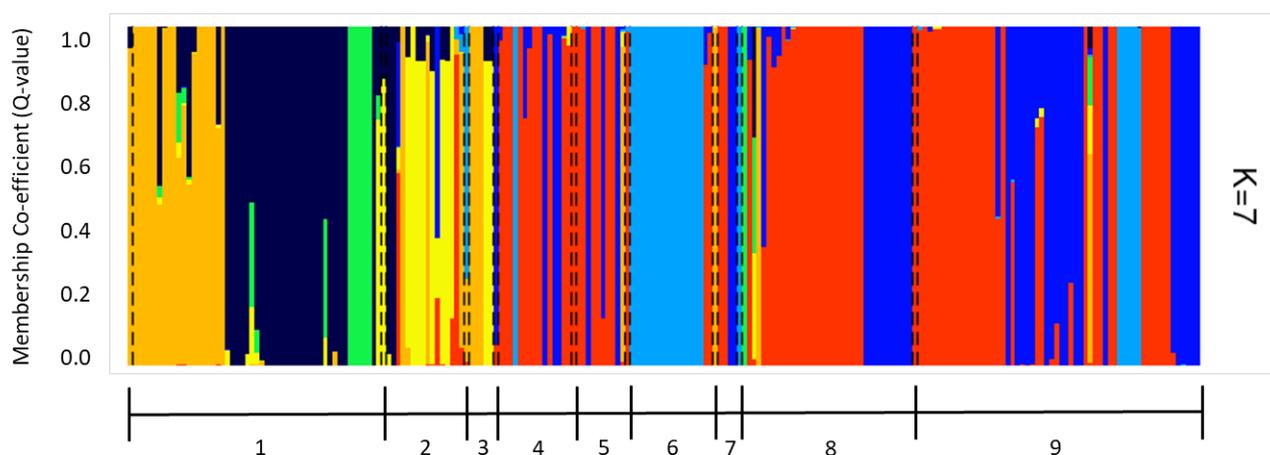


Figure 2.3: Probabilistic population structure under the No Admixture model given for 217 *Gypaetus barbatus* samples collected from across the global distribution of the species. Individual vultures have been grouped into broad geographically delineated regions (1- southern Africa; 2- eastern Africa; 3-

western Africa; 4- south-east Europe; 5- central Asia; 6- central Russia; 7- northern India, 8- Mediterranean islands; 9- European countries) and are represented by vertical lines which are partitioned into (max $K = 7$) coloured segments which represent the estimated membership coefficients (Q-value) of each cluster represented in their genetics.

Table 2.3: Comparison of membership coefficients (Q-values) for both *Admixture* and *No Admixture* models; summary statistics provided

Region	Country		Admixture K = 7	No Admixture K = 7	N_A	H_o	H_E
South Africa	South Africa	1	0.83	0.75	6.57	0.49	0.60
Eastern Africa	Ethiopia	2	0.43	0.14	4.21	0.39	0.48
	Abyssinia	3	0.78	0.25			
	Yemen	4	0.41	0.61			
Western Africa	Morocco	5	0.62	0.75	2.86	0.56	0.44
	Algeria	6	0.44	0.78			
South-east Europe	Albania	7	0.61	0.85	4.0	0.46	0.48
	Greece	8	0.35	0.62			
	Turkey	9	0.48	0.98			
Central Asia	Caucasus	10	0.56	0.79	3.93	0.38	0.49
	Central Asia	11	0.44	0.96			
	Kazakhstan	12	0.47	0.61			
	Kyrgyzstan	13	0.30	0.57			
Central Russia	Central Russia	14	0.80	0.84	3.45	0.36	0.44
India	India	15	0.41	0.40	2.50	0.44	0.40
Mediterranean Islands	Crete	16	0.76	1.00	4.21	0.45	0.43
	Corsica	17	0.31	0.49			
	Sardinia	18	0.51	0.60			
Europe	Switzerland	19	0.42	0.57	5.57	0.47	0.53
	Austria	20	0.74	1.00			
	Pyrenees	21	0.35	0.45			
	France	22	0.61	0.94			
	Spain	23	0.31	0.36			

804 *Genetic differentiation and connectivity*

805 Genetic differentiation of bearded vulture populations was detected using the ENA-corrected
806 F_{st} values. Levels of genetic differentiation as delineated by Hartl and Clark (1998), and Frankham et
807 al. (2002) were followed for interpretation of results. Evidence for genetic differentiation was found
808 between populations from different countries ($F_{st} > 0$, Table 2.2). Pairwise comparisons revealed that
809 the South African population of bearded vultures is moderately different from populations in
810 Ethiopia, Algeria and Crete ($F_{st} \leq 0.05 - 0.15$, Table 2.2) and was found to be genetically different
811 from all other populations ($F_{st} > 0.15$). The Abyssinian population was also found to have moderate-
812 to great genetic differentiation from all other populations ($F_{st} 0.14 - 0.59$, Table 2.2).

813 Given the limited sample sizes available in some countries, samples were also grouped
814 according to region ($n=9$). In this analysis pairwise F_{st} values support moderate genetic
815 differentiation of southern African populations from eastern and western Africa ($F_{st} = 0.10, 0.11$
816 respectively, Table 2.3b). The southern African populations was found to be strongly differentiated
817 from all populations outside of Africa ($F_{st} > 0.15$). Interestingly, there is little genetic differentiation
818 between populations of bearded vultures in eastern and western Africa ($F_{st} = 0.01$).

819 AMOVA results conducted when grouping individuals into the nine regions, showed that 50%
820 ($p < 0.001$) of variation was attributed to within individual differences, while differences among
821 individuals and among populations explained only 33% ($p < 0.001$) and 17% ($p < 0.001$) of the
822 diversity, respectively.

Table 2.4: Estimates of pairwise F_{st} using first uncorrected frequencies (Table 2.4a) and ENA-corrected allelic frequencies (Table 2.4.b). Country numbers derived from Table 2.3. Values < 0.05 indicate little genetic differentiation, 0.05-0.15 = moderate differentiation, 0.15-0.25 = great differentiation, and >0.25 = very great differentiation (given in bold).

Table 2.4a. F_{st} without ENA

Pop	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
2	0.06																					
3	0.22	0.06																				
4	0.15	0.15	0.58																			
5	0.12	0.05	0.52	0.27																		
6	0.10	-0.02	0.11	0.09	-0.02																	
7	0.21	0.23	0.53	0.46	-	0.21																
8	0.22	0.14	0.19	0.17	0.07	0.14	-0.05															
9	0.24	0.19	0.41	0.58	-	0.20	-	0.15														
10	0.23	0.15	0.19	0.26	0.24	0.17	0.21	0.04	0.23													
11	0.10	-0.03	0.56	0.26	-	0.01	-	0.09	-	0.31												
12	0.24	0.18	0.26	0.31	0.33	0.20	0.09	0.00	0.24	0.07	0.17											
13	0.26	0.30	0.53	0.25	-	0.33	-	0.13	-	0.24	-	0.12										
14	0.22	0.17	0.34	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.40	0.16	0.31	0.19	0.33	0.25	0.39									
15	0.19	0.11	0.23	0.06	0.13	0.10	0.32	0.11	0.21	0.06	-0.01	0.05	0.37	0.18								
16	0.06	-0.05	0.46	0.27	-	-0.03	-	0.04	-	0.14	-	0.22	-	-0.14	0.03							
17	0.19	0.20	0.27	0.06	-0.15	0.19	-0.13	0.13	0.03	0.26	-0.14	0.13	-0.32	0.33	0.17	-0.13						
18	0.19	0.13	0.19	0.15	0.17	0.13	0.08	0.03	0.21	0.04	0.10	0.00	0.25	0.15	0.08	0.07	0.18					
19	0.24	0.14	0.14	0.24	0.20	0.16	0.12	0.02	0.22	0.06	0.12	0.04	0.27	0.20	0.11	0.16	0.23	0.04				
20	0.18	0.02	0.22	0.41	-	0.05	-	0.00	-	-0.01	-	0.10	-	0.21	0.08	-	-0.11	0.03	-0.05			
21	0.21	0.13	0.21	0.41	0.44	0.17	0.38	0.02	0.28	0.06	0.17	0.02	0.41	0.25	0.08	0.30	0.18	0.00	0.01	0.06		
22	0.19	0.08	0.20	0.31	0.27	0.09	0.23	-0.02	0.14	0.03	0.12	0.04	0.09	0.19	0.00	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.08	0.00	
23	0.20	0.12	0.21	0.10	0.00	0.12	0.08	0.03	0.17	0.08	0.12	0.07	0.17	0.10	0.09	-0.05	0.15	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.10	0.00

Table 2.4b. *Fst* with ENA

Pop	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
2	0.07																					
3	0.24	0.10																				
4	0.19	0.21	0.59																			
5	0.18	0.13	0.54	0.27																		
6	0.10	0.00	0.14	0.17	0.09																	
7	0.26	0.31	0.55	0.46	-	0.30																
8	0.20	0.14	0.20	0.21	0.13	0.15	0.03															
9	0.29	0.26	0.43	0.58	-	0.25	-	0.21														
10	0.22	0.16	0.20	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.24	0.04	0.25													
11	0.19	0.10	0.59	0.26	-	0.13	-	0.17	-	0.36												
12	0.25	0.20	0.26	0.32	0.33	0.22	0.10	0.03	0.25	0.08	0.19											
13	0.30	0.32	0.56	0.25	-	0.37	-	0.19	-	0.24	-	0.14										
14	0.20	0.15	0.32	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.39	0.14	0.31	0.17	0.34	0.23	0.38									
15	0.19	0.13	0.27	0.11	0.20	0.13	0.37	0.13	0.26	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.38	0.16								
16	0.13	0.05	0.47	0.27	-	0.06	-	0.09	-	0.18	-	0.22	-	-0.09	0.09							
17	0.18	0.21	0.29	0.10	-0.04	0.20	0.02	0.13	0.10	0.25	-0.01	0.14	-0.17	0.29	0.17	-0.05						
18	0.18	0.13	0.20	0.17	0.19	0.14	0.11	0.03	0.21	0.05	0.14	0.02	0.25	0.13	0.09	0.09	0.17					
19	0.22	0.12	0.15	0.24	0.21	0.16	0.15	0.03	0.24	0.06	0.15	0.05	0.28	0.16	0.12	0.16	0.21	0.04				
20	0.24	0.12	0.25	0.41	-	0.13	-	0.05	-	0.04	-	0.10	-	0.21	0.16	-	-0.01	0.07	-0.01			
21	0.23	0.16	0.23	0.43	0.46	0.19	0.38	0.06	0.30	0.09	0.21	0.04	0.41	0.24	0.12	0.32	0.20	0.03	0.04	0.09		
22	0.21	0.12	0.21	0.31	0.26	0.13	0.23	0.01	0.14	0.06	0.12	0.05	0.09	0.17	0.05	0.14	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.08	0.02	
23	0.18	0.12	0.23	0.14	0.07	0.13	0.14	0.03	0.22	0.08	0.20	0.09	0.21	0.09	0.10	0.03	0.16	0.05	0.06	0.11	0.13	0.04

Table 2.5: Estimates of pairwise F_{st} using first uncorrected frequencies (Table 2.5a) and ENA-corrected allelic frequencies (Table 2.5.b). Country numbers derived from Table 2.4. Values < 0.05 indicate little genetic differentiation, 0.05-0.15 = moderate differentiation, 0.15-0.25 = great differentiation, and >0.25 = very great differentiation (given in bold).

Table 2.5a. F_{st} without ENA

	SAfrica	EAfrica	WAfrica	SEEurope	CAsia	CRussia	India	MIslands
EAfrica	0.09							
WAfrica	0.12	0.00						
SEEurope	0.22	0.13	0.14					
CAsia	0.20	0.09	0.12	0.03				
CRussia	0.21	0.15	0.14	0.18	0.12			
India	0.19	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.03	0.17		
MIslands	0.18	0.11	0.13	0.03	0.01	0.14	0.07	
Europe	0.22	0.10	0.13	0.01	0.02	0.16	0.09	0.03

Table 2.5b. F_{st} with ENA

	SAfrica	EAfrica	WAfrica	SEEurope	CAsia	CRussia	India	MIslands
EAfrica	0.10							
WAfrica	0.11	0.01						
SEEurope	0.20	0.14	0.14					
CAsia	0.18	0.10	0.12	0.03				
CRussia	0.19	0.15	0.13	0.16	0.10			
India	0.19	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.05	0.16		
MIslands	0.16	0.12	0.13	0.03	0.02	0.13	0.08	
Europe	0.20	0.09	0.12	0.02	0.02	0.14	0.09	0.03

Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of F_{st} pairwise values generally clustered individuals by geography. The first and second dimensions explain 19.73% (Axis 1) and 8.98% (Axis 2) of variation. Together they account for 28.22% of the variation present in the microsatellite data. The analysis revealed tight clustering of individuals from the Mediterranean Island (MIsland) populations, and to a lesser extent, the European grouping (Figure 2.4).

820 Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of F_{st} pairwise values generally clustered
 821 individuals by geography. The first and second dimensions explain 19.73% (Axis 1) and 8.98%
 822 (Axis 2) of variation. Together they account for 28.22% of the variation present in the
 823 microsatellite data. The analysis revealed tight clustering of individuals from the
 824 Mediterranean Island (MIsland) populations, and to a lesser extent, the European grouping
 825 (Figure 2.4). The PCoA clustered all African samples together, with almost no overlap with
 826 other European or Asian populations. The southern African cluster overlapped with both the
 827 eastern and western African clusters (Figure 2.4). There is a slight overlap between the
 828 western African population and the south-east Europe (SEEurope) cluster (35 shared alleles,
 829 Figure 2.4 & 2.5). There was a high degree of overlap between the central Asian (CAsia) and
 830 European clusters, the majority of the Asian samples fell within the European cluster (Figure
 831 2.4). No distinct clusters were detected in the central Russian (CRussia) samples. The Indian
 832 samples clustered tightly together, but overlap with the MIslands and Europe clusters (Figure
 833 2.4). Interestingly, there was no overlap between samples from India and those from central
 834 Asia, as would have been expected given geographic proximity.

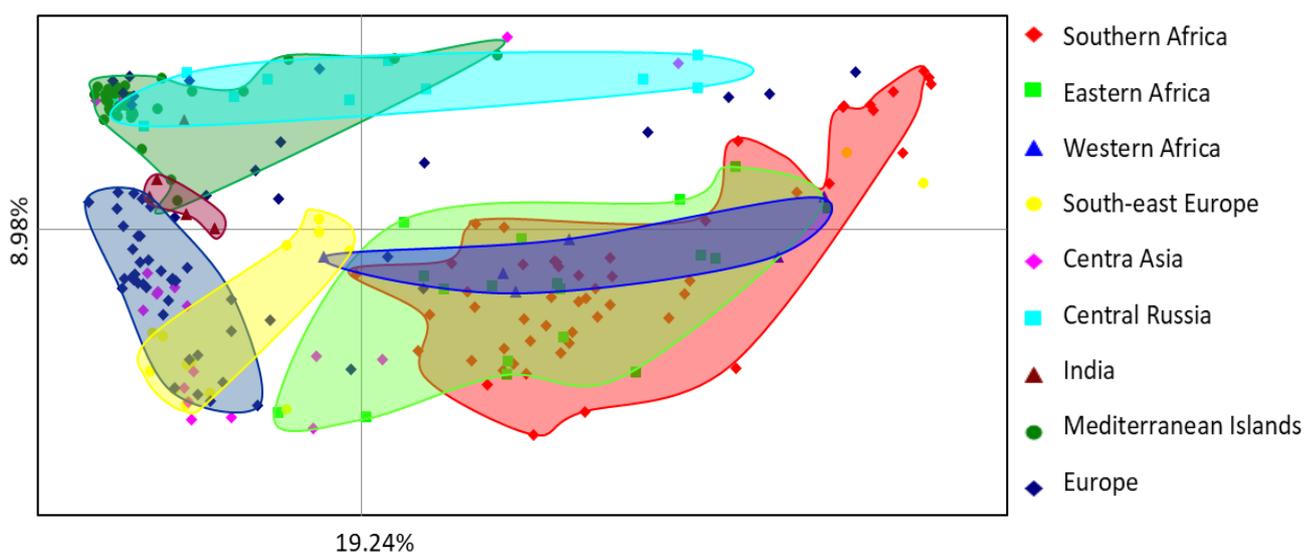


Figure 2.4: Principal coordinate analysis based on 14 microsatellite markers showing affinity between the populations. Each dimension explains 19.24% (Axis 1) and 8.98% (Axis 2) of variation. The axes together explained 28.22% of total variation present in the data set.

835 The clustering patterns which emerge from the EDENetworks output concur with the
836 PCoA analysis. EDENetwork analysis revealed two major clusters which are clearly segregated
837 and share only a weak genetic linkage. In the network, the thickness of the connecting lines
838 indicate levels of genetic connectivity. Populations from Southern Africa, Ethiopia and Algeria
839 are clustered together in the network, while all European and Asian populations clustered
840 together in a separate lineage (Figure 2.5). Genetic connectivity is much stronger with more
841 genetic exchange predicted between the European and Asian populations (as seen by the
842 thicker links). The connections among the African populations were less pronounced in the
843 EDENetwork output than in the PCoA.
844

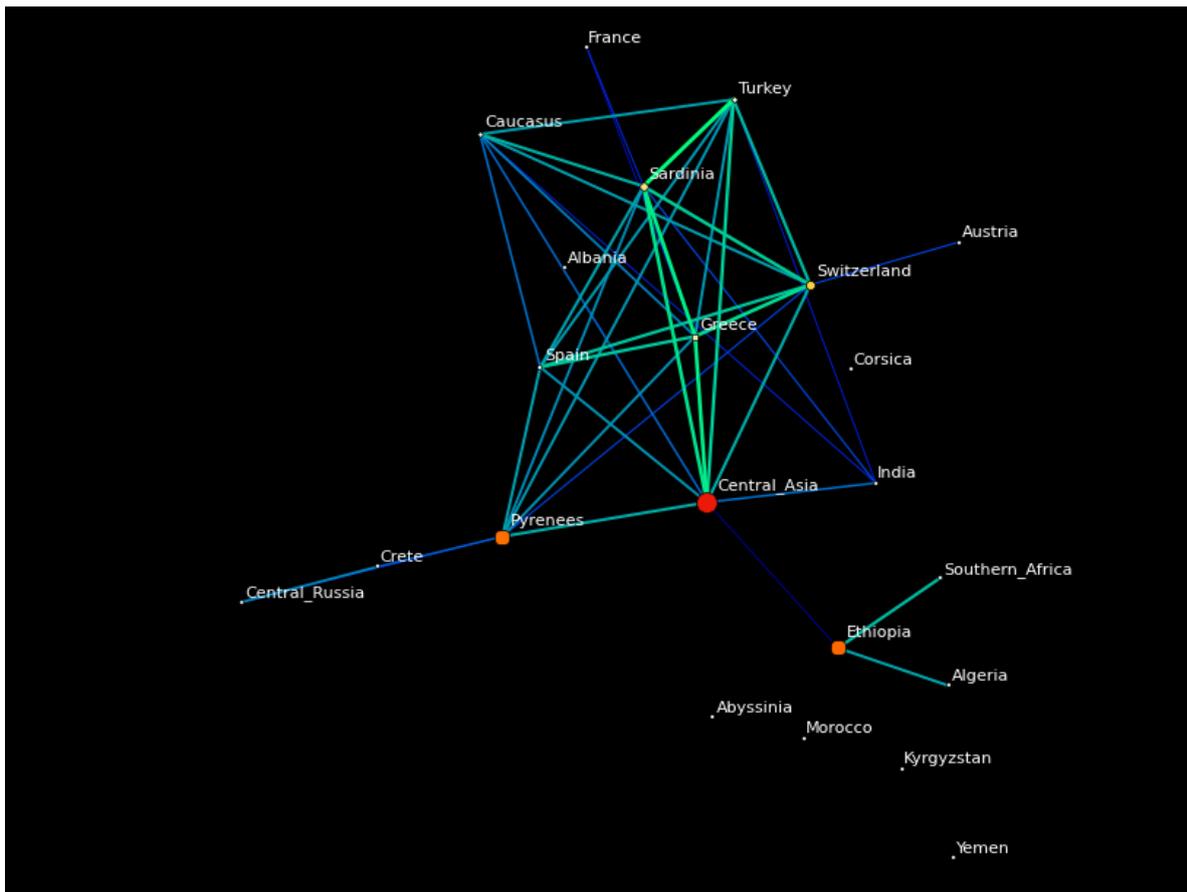


Figure 2.5: Network constructed of all samples ($n = 217$, grouped by regional population) in EDENetworks. Populations (nodes) are named based on their region of origin and are linked by edges which are weighted in proportion to the strength of the genetic linkage.

845 When individuals are used as nodes (Appendix Figure 2.1), one cluster is comprised
 846 almost entirely of the South African samples, whereas the second cluster contains all samples
 847 collected from outside of Africa (Appendix Figure 2.1). The Ethiopian individuals overlap
 848 slightly with South African and Algerian samples. The predominant cluster in Appendix Figure
 849 2.1 is a clustering together of all non-African samples. The individuals belonging to this cluster
 850 are highly interconnected although the strength of the linkages is not as strong as those
 851 existing between the nodes of the African cluster. A sub-cluster consisting mostly of Russian

852 samples emerges from the larger European cluster. The remainder of this large cluster
853 contains the European and Mediterranean country samples.

854 Although there is disparity between the PCoA and EDENetwork clustering output, both
855 predict a distinct segregation of the southern African, and to a lesser extent- African, samples
856 from all other bearded vulture populations. Statistical outliers are inevitable (missing
857 microsatellite data, limited samples, and vague specimen information may well explain
858 incongruence between analyses). Appendix figure 2.1 shows the vastly connectedness
859 between samples and here one could argue again for 4 clusters. Despite this, southern African
860 samples again, cluster predominantly apart from other genetic clusters.

861 *Migration analysis*

862 The BayesAss 3.0 analysis indicates that bearded vulture populations in India and the
863 Mediterranean (countries and islands) appear to be closed systems which do not send off any
864 emigrants (Figure 2.6 and 2.7). They do, however receive small proportions of immigrants
865 from Europe, central Asia and central Russia. Interestingly, all populations contain between
866 3% and 8% genetic signature of the eastern African population. This would point toward the
867 eastern African population being an important source population for migrants. On the
868 contrary, western Africa is a sink population as it receives migrants from southern and eastern
869 Africa, Europe and central Russia, but no migrants leave this population (Figure 2.7). The
870 strongest flow of migration occurs between central Asian to European populations (11%; 41
871 shared alleles), and between Europe to the populations on the Mediterranean Islands (12%;
872 48 shared alleles). This is also substantiated by the high number of shared alleles along these
873 migration routes (Figure 2.6). Considering their geographical proximity, and despite sharing
874 many alleles (45), analysis did not detect any migration between south-east Europe and

875 Mediterranean Islands (Figure 2.7). While movement between central Asia to Europe might
876 be indicative of past migration of individuals. In contrast, migration from south-east Europe
877 to the islands might possibly reflect human-mediated movement caused by conservation
878 efforts in reintroducing individuals to previously extinct populations. These reintroduced
879 populations are also relatively small and possibly inbred, which would bias the results of this
880 migration analysis (Biebach and Keller 2010).

881 The southern and eastern African populations are entirely genetically isolated from
882 the European and Asian populations. The southern African and western African populations
883 share equal rates of migration per year (4%; Figure 2.7). Eastern Africa appears to be an
884 important sink population (92% non-migrants, <10% private alleles) for individuals from both
885 southern and western Africa. There is greater migration to eastern Africa (1% migration, 100%
886 shared alleles) than what is emigrated in return (1%). Eastern Africa (~10% locally common
887 alleles) could potentially act as a 'stepping stone' population for the transfer of genetic
888 material between western and southern Africa. Emigration rates are low between the African
889 populations, in particular the southern African population is crucial in preserving genetic
890 diversity within the species as it contains the greatest percentage of private alleles (Figure
891 2.6).

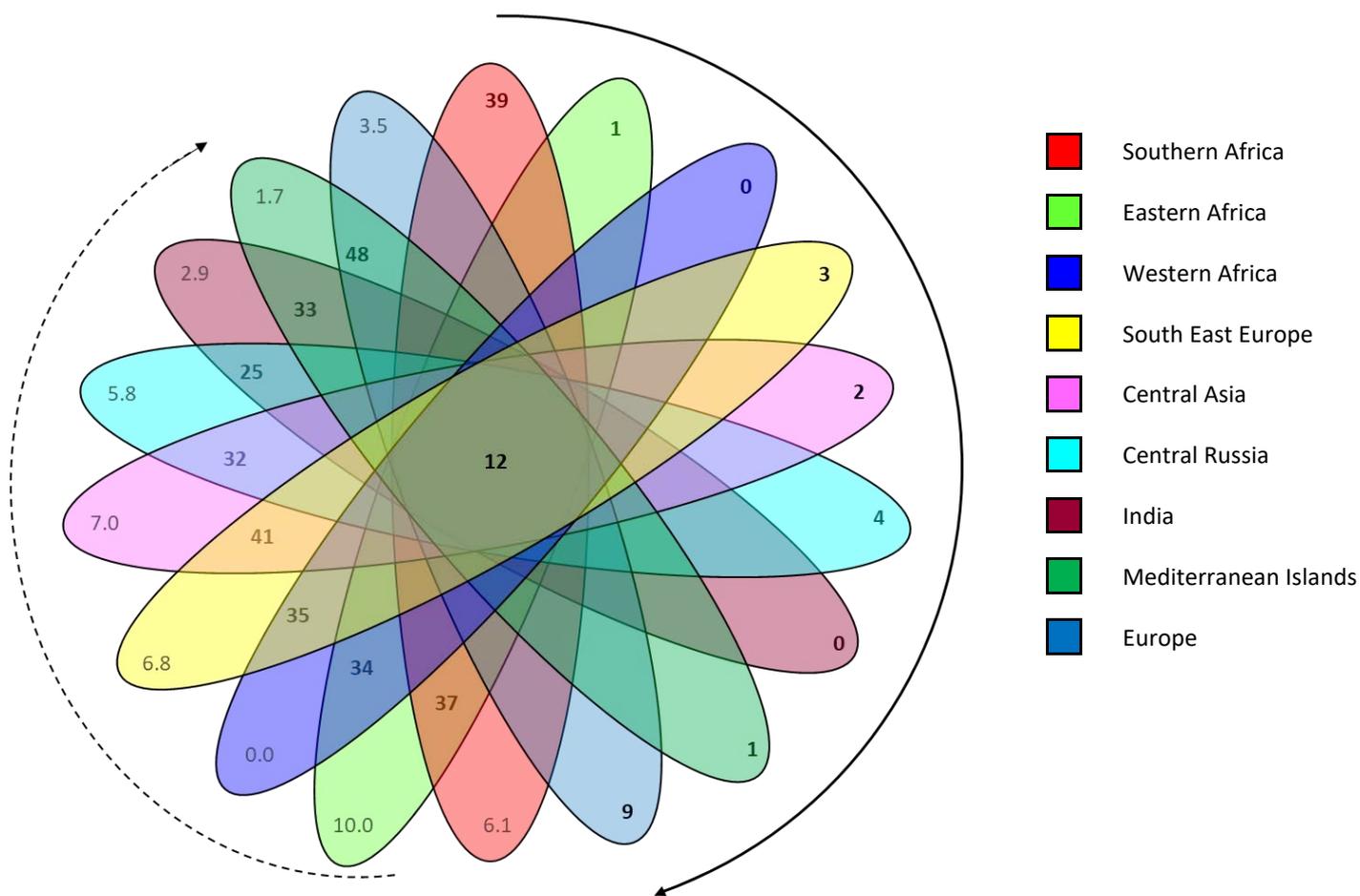


Figure 2.6: Depicting private alleles (solid arrow), and common (dashed arrow) and locally shared alleles (outer value). Locally common alleles (present in <25% of the population) given as a percentage of total alleles in population.

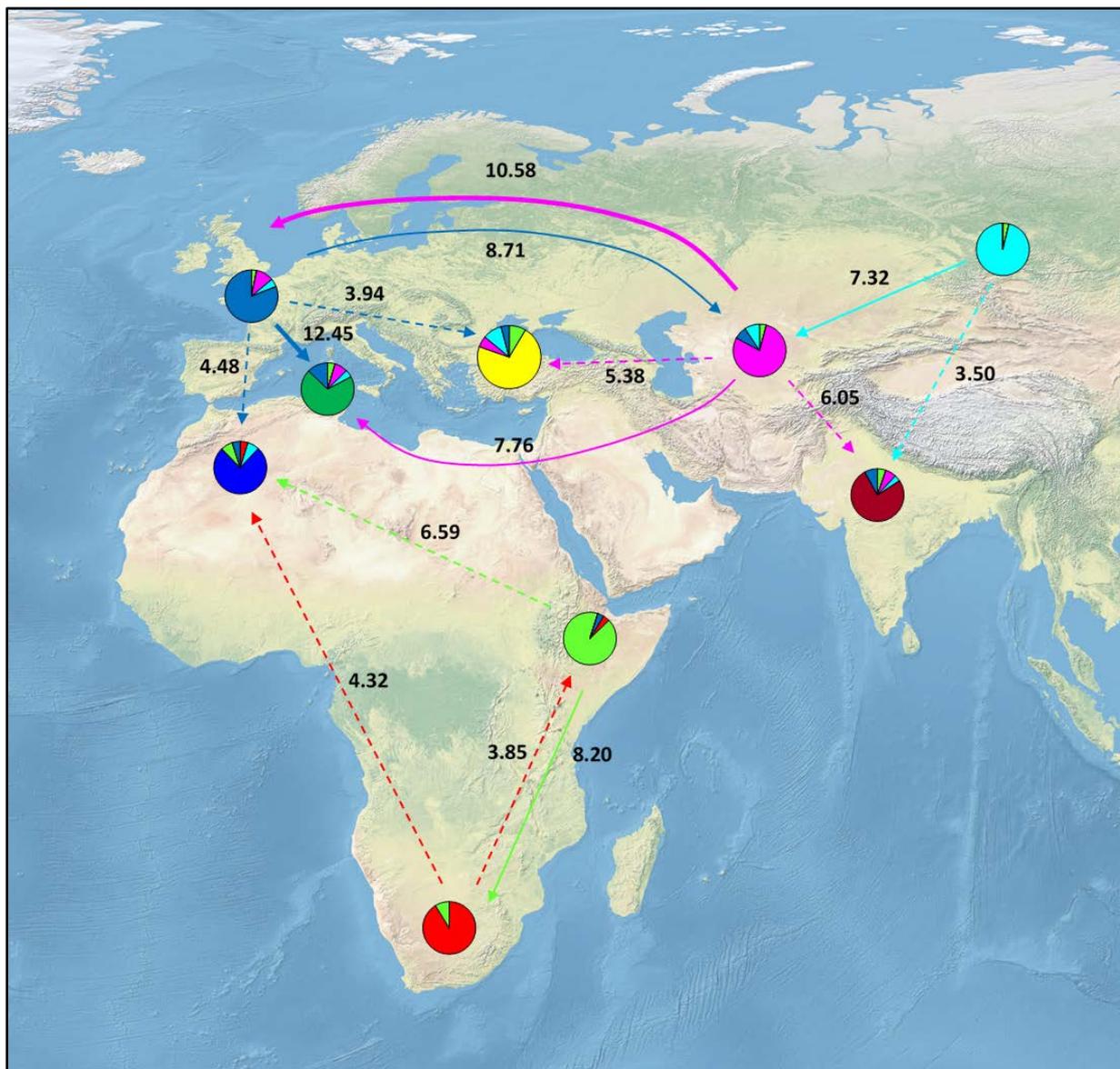


Figure 2.7: Global migration analysis showing routes of past transferral of alleles. Migration is given in the percentage of 'migrants' in the population and is segregated into high (10-15%; bold arrows), medium (thin arrows, 6-9%) and low (3-5%; stippled arrows). Migration calculated as a percentage of the population per generation that are 'immigrants'. Pie charts show proportion of migrants to non-migrants, while arrows show the direction of gene flow between populations. Only immediate 'neighbour' migration routes, and not presumed 'stepping stone' routes, indicated.

Discussion

892 Population structure can be the result of population collapses, bottlenecking events
893 and isolation of populations in endangered species (Lande and Barrowclough 1987; Vucetich
894 and Waite 1999; Wilcox and Murphy 1985). Genetic variability is generally a good indicator of
895 species' evolutionary persistence, as it is expected that a healthy level of variation will always
896 allow for a proportion of the population to respond to natural selection (Frankham et al. 2014;
897 Gilpin 1996; Shaffer 1987). The associated loss of genetic variability in small isolated
898 populations through genetic drift and inbreeding is believed to adversely affect the remnant
899 species adaptive potential and their evolutionary persistence (Bretagnolle et al. 2004; Soulé
900 1986; Vucetich and Waite 1999). This is particularly true if remaining populations are
901 segregated with little immigration and poor dispersal ability.

902 This present study adds to the body of research on genetics of the endangered
903 bearded vulture. Past studies have focussed primarily on mitochondrial markers (Godoy et al.
904 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). These papers suggest that there is a lack of mitochondrial genetic
905 diversity within the species. Based on the lack of adequate mitochondrial differentiation
906 between the geographically disjunct populations in these studies and apparent ecological and
907 genetic interchangeability, both research papers recommended that the southern
908 hemispheric and northern hemispheric populations of bearded vultures be managed as one
909 (Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). In the research presented here, I investigated
910 population structuring by using microsatellite fragment data. These markers are distributed
911 on different chromosome of the nuclear genome and are typically noncoding and as such are
912 subject to higher mutation rates which should therefore render them considerably more
913 informative than coding regions which are evolutionarily constrained, and as such should give

914 an improved resolution of fine-scale structuring of the species (Ellegren 2000; Primmer et al.
915 1997).

916 *Population structure*

917 A key consideration when using microsatellite data, however, is allelic drop out,
918 strand-mispairing and null alleles which are caused by inefficient amplification due to
919 mutations in the primer binding site (Kalinowski and Taper 2006) or degraded DNA. Excess
920 homozygotes, and thus deviations from HWE predictions, can result in the misidentification,
921 and overestimation, of false null alleles. This is particularly relevant in this study where some
922 bearded vulture populations have very small population size and would be expected to
923 experience high levels of inbreeding leading to increased homozygosity. Deviations from
924 HWE necessarily reduce the similarity between populations (greater F_{st} values), but the
925 inclusion of null alleles over predicts the level of differentiation (Chapuis and Estoup 2006).
926 Population analyses which rely on HWE as a baseline comparison are therefore compromised
927 when high frequencies of null alleles are detected. Where data sets have few loci or missing
928 data, several programmes (FSTAT, FreeNA, and ML-Null Freq) which differ in their level of
929 statistical rigor have been developed to specifically deal with these problems. The effect that
930 null alleles have on biasing, and over predicting population differentiation is well understood
931 and methods have been developed to correct for these (Carlsson 2008; Chapuis and Estoup
932 2006; Kalinowski and Taper 2006). Testing for genetic structuring and assigning individuals to
933 source populations is a well-used application of microsatellites, especially when concerning
934 conservation of a threatened species. Statistically correcting for increased null allele
935 frequency and population differentiation is simple (Carlsson 2008; Van Oosterhout et al.
936 2004). There may not be associated species-threatening ramifications to over-predicting

937 population differentiation. Rather, one anticipates the conservation steps taken (e.g.
938 translocation, restocking) to remedy the population structuring to be an unnecessary
939 spending of available funds. However, from a scientific point of view, over predicting
940 population diversity and differentiation leads to biased, compromised results and
941 conclusions. Carlsson (2008) found that null alleles slightly increases the percentage of
942 incorrectly assigned individuals in programs such as STRUCTURE. This conclusion held true for
943 null allele frequencies of up to 0.913, which is well beyond those encountered in this study. I
944 believe that the population structure presented in this chapter has not been biased by the
945 inclusion null alleles.

946 Genetic structuring is often prevalent in populations which are widely distributed and
947 display strong natal philopatric behaviour (Gautschi et al. 2003; Haig et al. 1997; Wenink et
948 al. 1993). Given that the bearded vulture populations are isolated by vast geographic
949 distances, and philopatric behaviour has been documented in the species, it would be
950 reasonable to expect genetic structuring (Gautschi et al. 2003; López-López et al. 2013).

951 Segregating an ideally panmictic population into several isolated populations should
952 result in less heterozygosity than if the population interbred freely and randomly. In such ideal
953 panmictic populations, one expects that variation would arise chiefly from within the samples
954 and not between individual populations. Here, AMOVA revealed that the genetic variation
955 was greatest between individuals, rather than between populations. This is evidence against
956 strong population structuring, which is in contrast to clustering pattern observed in
957 STRUCTURE and PCA. This could be a result of unbalanced sample size of populations
958 examined or linked to the unusually long generation time of the bearded vultures and time
959 since the bottleneck event. Alleles can take many generations to become fixed in populations.
960 This takes longer if individuals have extended generation time. The time since the collapse of

961 bearded vulture populations and subsequent isolation of populations has occurred within the
962 last 100 years, which has not allowed sufficient time for complete allele fixation to occur.
963 Incomplete lineage sorting or “deep coalescence” can be invoked to explain the lack of among
964 population differences (Maddison 1997). Given enough time and continued isolation I expect
965 the genetic differentiation of the southern African population to be more pronounced.

966 Low to moderate genetic differentiation was detected in the global population of
967 bearded vultures. European population differed only slightly from populations in Asia. Vast
968 topographical features such as the Pyrenees and Alps mountain ranges are used to explain
969 expansion limitations in terrestrial mammals (Munguía et al. 2008). However for long,
970 distance flighted species which specifically inhabits high altitude mountains, this should not
971 be a hindrance to gene flow (Godoy et al. 2004). The pattern of pronounced genetic
972 differentiation among African populations, and much shallower differentiation found in the
973 Eurasian population (Europe and Asia) is concordant with this knowledge. The pattern of
974 population differentiation found here corroborate previous work (Godoy et al. 2004). They
975 describe the dispersal and separate diversification of two lineages of bearded vultures,
976 *Gypaetus barbatus barbatus*, and *Gypaetus barbatus meridionalis*. *Gypaetus barbatus*
977 *barbatus* dominates Eurasia and northern Africa, while *Gypaetus barbatus meridionalis* is
978 found in eastern and southern Africa. The diversification of these two lineages was
979 hypothesised to be linked with the expanding Sahara Desert which acted as a physical barrier
980 during the last glacial maximum (Coetzee 1993; Godoy et al. 2004). When the Sahara receded,
981 bearded vultures were able to disperse back into eastern Africa and this formed a ‘stepping
982 stone’ allowing for admixture between the two subspecies. The highest levels of admixture in
983 this study were found in the eastern and western African populations, and this could be

984 reflective of these past dispersal events, and the subsequent isolation that followed in the
985 recent past.

986 *Migration*

987 Based on the species philopatric dispersal behaviour and population differentiation,
988 genetic differentiation between regional populations is expected to increase with geographic
989 distance following an isolation-by-distance model (Hartl and Clark 1998; Slatkin 1987),
990 especially in the absence of translocations or supplementations to the population. Here
991 analyses found little migration between the populations, with higher movement rates
992 between the European and Asian populations, and little to no migration to the more southern
993 African populations. This supports the hypothesis that the southern African population is
994 indeed isolated, both geographically and genetically.

995 *Further considerations*

996 The research presented here adds to past studies by providing an extensive evaluation
997 of the genetic status of the southern African bearded vulture population. Further, it supports
998 the conclusion of these studies that there is reduced genetic variation and inbreeding in
999 natural populations of bearded vultures. This research detected significant structuring in the
1000 bearded vulture population. Management would indeed have to consider this in their actions.
1001 In this case, analysis found that the southern African population is distinct in its genetic
1002 makeup. Considering that no active migration is occurring between the subpopulations, it
1003 seems intuitive to manage them as separate units. Additionally, the threats faced by these
1004 populations (Europe, northern Africa, southern Africa) may be vastly different and as such, a
1005 blanket management strategy, which governs all populations, would appear

1006 counterproductive to conservation. Given the isolation and genetic uniqueness of the
1007 southern African population, giving this population conservation priority could lead to a
1008 reassessment of the funds allocated to its conservation. Genetic diversity will continue to be
1009 lost, and population sub-structuring can be expected to become more pronounced, with
1010 geographic isolation of regional populations in the absence of active conservation.

1011 Conservation efforts in the form of captive breeding and release programmes have
1012 been successful (Antor et al. 2007; Gautschi et al. 2003; Schaub et al. 2009) in restocking
1013 diminishing and extirpated populations (Krüger et al. 2005; Tewes et al. 2004). The genotypes
1014 of founder individuals needs to be monitored to ensure the founders are adequately
1015 representative of the population's genetic variability. Given that the southern African
1016 population appears to be the least inbred and most diverse of the African populations
1017 supplementation should be done such that the maximum genetic variation is introduced. This
1018 should be managed on a case-by-case basis, as required. However, caution and timely
1019 research should be exercised before supplementing with individuals from the Eurasian
1020 population, lest these separate lineages be already too locally adapted and outbreeding
1021 depression be a concern (Frankham et al. 2011). That being said the diverged lineages
1022 proposed by Godoy et al. (2004) would have merged naturally and without adverse effects
1023 following the glacial maximum (Godoy et al. 2004).

1024 Further research should be aimed to increase sample sizes from central Asia, eastern
1025 and western Africa to confirm whether these populations are truly genetically isolated, or
1026 whether this is merely an artefact of sampling effort. Should these populations already be
1027 genetically distinct as a result of their past isolation due to population collapse, as well as
1028 continued persecution and decline, the potential a significant proportion of the global species
1029 genetic diversity being lost through the process of genetic erosion, is increased.

1030 The several bearded vulture populations are clearly subject to different environmental
1031 and legal forces. Drawing comparisons between these then may not present an honest
1032 reflection of the health of the species. This research confirmed the isolation of the southern
1033 African bearded vulture population as well as the presence of clear genetic structuring in the
1034 global population.

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CHAPTER 3

Genetic diversity in the endangered South African bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*, L.) population as revealed by microsatellite DNA

Abstract

1204 The southernmost remnant bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus* population exists in the
1205 isolated mountainous regions of South Africa and Lesotho. A decline in population numbers
1206 and territory occupancy of this population is well documented, with breeding productivity
1207 and survival rate also known to be diminishing. Severe population collapse is acknowledged
1208 to accelerate genetic deterioration, which is known to impact on species' vital survival rates
1209 and directly impact its evolutionary persistence. Given that the southern African population
1210 is isolated and shows limited genetic connectivity with other bearded vulture populations
1211 (chapter 2), in this study I aim to assess the diversity present in the southern African
1212 population at the microsatellite-level and compare these values to that observed in other
1213 isolated bearded vulture populations. I will then also use the diversity found in other southern
1214 African vulture species (Cape vultures *Gyps coprotheres*, Hooded vultures *Necrosyrtes*
1215 *monachus*, and African White-backed vultures *Gyps africanus*) as a comparison. These three
1216 vulture species fulfil a similar ecological role. Results established that the southern African
1217 bearded vulture population harbours less diversity than would be expected under Hardy-
1218 Weinberg predictions ($H_o < H_E$). Results indicate that the mean genetic diversity of the South
1219 African populations to be similar to that seen in the East African and West African populations.
1220 The southern African population, however, contained the greatest allelic richness. Despite
1221 this, inbreeding seemed to be greatest within the southern African population. In comparison
1222 to other southern African vulture species, the southern African bearded vulture population
1223 appears to have higher levels of genetic variation, particularly in comparison to the Cape

1224 vulture. This is surprising given low population numbers, diminished range and limited
1225 breeding dispersal (natal philopatry), and it was expected that the bearded vultures should
1226 be more inbred and have higher levels of homozygosity than the other Africa vulture species.

Introduction

1227 Vultures are synonymous with the iconic ‘African Experience’. Folk law, traditional
1228 stories and the museum artefacts are all testimony to this. However, of Africa’s 11 vulture
1229 species, six are now classified as Threatened on the IUCN red data list (IUCN Species Survival
1230 Commission 2001; Ogada and Buij 2011; Ogada et al. 2016). Sudden reduction in numbers,
1231 diminishing habitat quality and low breeding rates are distinguishing red-flag features of
1232 species, which are deemed as ‘threatened’ (Brown 1997; Donázar et al. 1993; IUCN Species
1233 Survival Commission 2001; Krüger et al. 2014).

1234 Chief causes in vulture population declines are known to be a reduction in habitat
1235 quality and available breeding ground, due to anthropogenic sprawl. Electrocutation and
1236 unintentional poisoning through veterinary drug-use, and intentional poisoning for the use of
1237 vulture body parts in the illegal wildlife trade has worsened the situation (Ogada et al. 2012;
1238 Rushworth and Krüger 2014). This targeted persecution, compounded by several other
1239 ecological and seemingly benign anthropogenic factors, has led to the rapid demise of most
1240 of Africa’s vultures (Ogada et al. 2016). The Cape Griffon *Gyps coprotheres* (Boshoff and
1241 Anderson 2007), the Hooded vulture *Necrosyrtes monachus* (Ogada and Buij 2011), the
1242 White-headed vulture *Trigonoceps occipitalis*, the Rüppell’s vulture *Gyps rueppelli* and
1243 Egyptian vulture *Neophron percnopterus* are species which have suffered a decline of 4.6 %
1244 per annum, which equates to 41- 50 % decline per decade (Ogada et al. 2016).

1245 Historically bearded vulture populations were considerably more abundant, albeit
1246 distributed across a wide geographic range from Palearctic, through Afrotropical and to
1247 Indomalay regions (Figure 3.1) (Godoy et al. 2004). In the past century however, the species
1248 has become locally extinct, or survives in highly habitat-specific isolated refuges across their
1249 former range (Brown 1997; Gautschi et al. 2000). The Maloti-Drakensberg (Lesotho border)
1250 is home to the most southern population of African bearded vultures (Brown 1997). A recent
1251 estimate placed this breeding population at a meagre 109 pairs (Krüger et al. 2015). With
1252 foreboding statistics of diminishing territory occupancy, abandonment of suitable territories
1253 and ever decreasing breeding rates (Brown 1997; Krüger et al. 2014), the future of the South
1254 African bearded vultures is fragile.

1255 A prevalent and persistent concern in all species in which a population collapse has
1256 been documented, is the effect of a rapid genetic bottlenecking event. A drastic cut in the
1257 population numbers is often thought to be correlated to the depauperation and
1258 impoverishment of their genetic variability which directly impacts long-term persistence
1259 (Frankham 2005; Frankham et al. 2014; Tollington et al. 2013; Vucetich and Waite 1999).

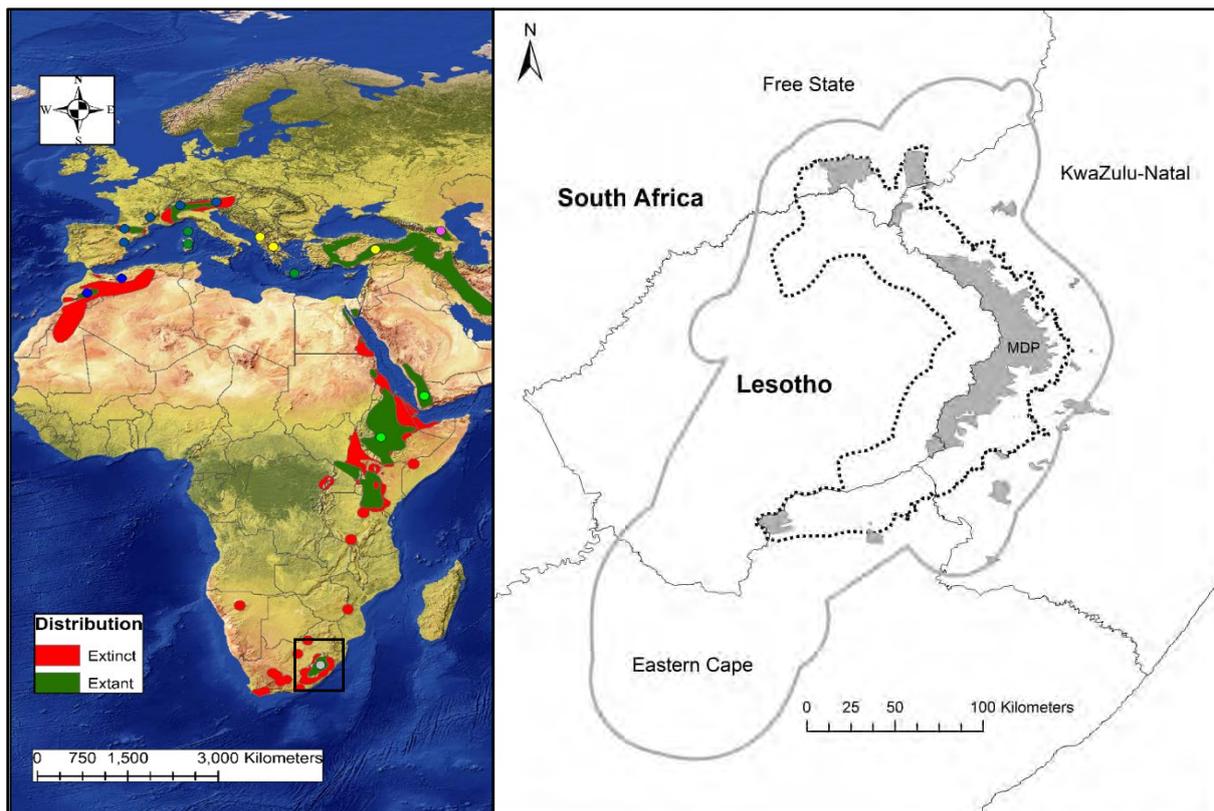


Figure 3.1: African distribution of bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus* (a), with samples assigned to three populations (South African, East African and West African) denoted by coloured circles. Boxed and enlarged (b) is the southern African range of the bearded vulture (stippled line) between 27°00'–30°00' E and 28°00'–31°40' S. Protected areas are shaded in grey with the Maloti Drakensberg Park being the largest protected area along the South Africa/Lesotho border (Krüger et al. 2014).

1260 Despite the belief that the genetic component does not contribute meaningfully to a
 1261 threatened species ultimate fate in the short term (Coulson et al. 2001; Lande 1999; Lande
 1262 and Barrowclough 1987), the concomitant loss of diversity in bottlenecked vulture
 1263 populations has been the impetus behind genetic studies for a number of species (Arshad et
 1264 al. 2009; Frankham et al. 2014; Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). Previous research on
 1265 the genetics of the bearded vulture has revealed low levels of genetic diversity based on

1266 multilocus DNA fingerprinting (Negro and Torres 1999) and microsatellite markers (Gautschi
1267 et al. 2003). Both these studies confirmed the suspected lack of genetic diversity in European
1268 populations. A further study specifically on the southern African population of bearded
1269 vultures detected little differentiation and reduced genetic diversity compared to northern
1270 hemisphere populations (Krüger et al. 2015). Krüger and co-workers used mitochondrial DNA
1271 fragment analyses to detect this lack of genetic variation, and concluded that there is little to
1272 no differentiation between the southern African populations and populations in North Africa
1273 and Europe. Data presented in chapter 2, supports the hypothesis that the southern African
1274 population of bearded vultures is isolated and has limited genetic contact with other
1275 populations. Migrants comprise fewer than 9% of the total population per generation.

1276 In the present study, I augmented the work done by Krüger et al. (2015) by using
1277 nuclear markers to scan for genetic diversity and potential genetic structuring in the isolated
1278 southern African population. The aim of the research presented here is to confirm the lack of
1279 genetic diversity in the southern African bearded vulture population using a suite of
1280 microsatellite markers. The results from the southern African population are compared to
1281 those found in western and eastern African populations of bearded vultures. The genetic
1282 diversity present in the southern African bearded vulture is then compared to diversity values
1283 estimated from other southern African vulture species (Cape vulture *Gyps coprotheres*,
1284 Hooded vulture *Necrosyrtes monachus*, and White-headed vulture *Trigonoceps occipitalis*)
1285 which are similar in ecology and have also suffered population collapses. Confirmation of
1286 reduced microsatellite diversity would necessitate drastic conservation measures for the
1287 management of the isolated southern African population.

Materials and methods

1288 *Southern African bearded vultures*

1289 A total of 52 samples of southern African bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*)
 1290 comprise the sample set for this chapter. The vast majority (51) of these are contemporary
 1291 samples (2001 – 2012) while one historic sample was from the Durban Museum of Natural
 1292 History (collected in 1961). Sample details given in Table 3.1. The individuals sampled belong
 1293 to the southern African bearded vulture population which inhabits the Drakensberg mountain
 1294 range between Lesotho and the KwaZulu-Natal province. The population is largely restricted
 1295 to the highlands of Lesotho and immediately adjacent areas of the Maloti-Drakensberg
 1296 mountains (Brown 1990).

Table 3.1: Details of the 52 bearded vulture samples derived from the southern African population.

Provided by	Sample Name	Catalogue No.	Country	Precise Locality if available	Collection Year
UKZN, Krüger Pet al. 2015	BV001	G22911	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2006
	BV002†	G27343	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007
	BV003	G27341	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007
	BV004†	G27307	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
	BV005†	G27313	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010
	BV006†	G27306	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
	BV007†	G27378	Lesotho	Lesotho	2012
	BV008	G27308	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
	BV009†	G27376	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2011
	BV010	G27314	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010
	BV011	BV14	South Africa	NE Free State	2004
	BV012	BV2002	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2002
	BV013†	G27302	Lesotho	Lesotho	2008
	BV014	BV2009	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2009
	BV015†	G27375	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2011
	BV016†	G27305	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
	BV017	G27303	Lesotho	Lesotho	2008

BV018	G27309	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
BV019	12	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2003
BV020	6	Lesotho	Lesotho	Not provided
BV021	25	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2011
BV022	13	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2008
BV023	19	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2009
BV024	27	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010
BV025	11	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2000
BV026	10	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007
BV027	31.1	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010
BV028	31.2	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010
BV029	30	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010
BV030	9	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
BV034	G27382	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012
BV035	02/08/2012	South Africa	Eastern Cape	2012
BV036	G27377	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2012
BV037 ⁺	G27379	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012
BV038	G27381	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2012
BV039	G27383	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012
BV040 ⁺	G27384	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012
	G27380	South Africa	Not provided	2011
	34	South Africa	Not provided	Not provided
	G27319	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010
	G27310	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2010
	G27311	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010
	G27315	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010
	G27316	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010
	G27342	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007
	BV6	South Africa	Lesotho	2009
	BV7	South Africa	Lesotho	2009
	BV8	South Africa	Lesotho	2009
	BV10	South Africa	Lesotho	2009
	BV12	South Africa	Lesotho	2009
	G	South Africa	Drakensberg	Not provided
DNSM	DNSM 2	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	1961

1297 *African bearded vultures*

1298 Samples grouped into the eastern (n = 18) and western (n = 6) African bearded vulture
 1299 populations were derived from specimens collected from these broad geographic areas. The
 1300 eastern grouping consists of samples collected from Ethiopia, Abyssinia (northern Ethiopia)
 1301 and Yemen; while samples collected from Algeria and Morocco formed the western grouping.
 1302 Details for these samples are provided in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Details of the 24 bearded vulture samples, broadly grouped into eastern and western African populations.

Sample Name	Catalogue No.	Origin	Precise Locality if available	Collection Date
A1	Skin 268806	Ethiopia	Kaka Mt., Arussi	1929
A13	SKIN 535830	Yemen	Sôk al Khamis	1913
A14	SKIN 535829	Yemen	Sôk al Khamis	1913
A17	SKIN 535836	Morocco	Djebel Tixa (Atlas)	1905
A18	SKIN 535837	Algeria	Djebel Taya, Meskoutine	1909
A19	SKIN 535839	Algeria	Kerrata	1904
A20	SKIN 535840	Algeria	El Kantara	1909
A21	SKIN 535848	Ethiopia	Yeka Hill, Addis Ababa	1926
A22	SKIN 535855	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	1914
A23	SKIN 535856	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	1914
A25	SKIN 535858	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	1914
BV031	Kolo	Ethiopia	Not provided	2001
BV032	Mutt	Ethiopia	Not provided	2001
BV033	Putin	Ethiopia	Not provided	2001
S1.14	14	Algeria	Algeria	Not provided
S1.16	16	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S1.17	17	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S1.50	50	Ethiopia	Ethiopia	1887
S1.60	60	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1900
S2.113	113	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1911
S3.19	19	Algeria	Algeria	2000
S3.27	27	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S3.29	29	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S3.49	49	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1990

1303 *Other Southern African vulture species*

1304 Cape vultures *Gyps coprotheres* (n= 547), Hooded vultures *Necrosyrtes monachus* (n=
 1305 54; Table 3.3), and African White-backed vultures *Gyps africanus* (n= 31), are used to draw
 1306 reasonable, context-dependent comparisons. With the exception of the African White-
 1307 backed vulture which can be found through much of Africa, these species occur in southern
 1308 Africa and belong to the Old-world bird of prey family, Accipitridae. As they exhibit similar
 1309 life-history traits and are subject to the same environmental and anthropogenic threats in
 1310 South Africa. All four vulture species are facing population declines and are currently classified
 1311 by the IUCN as Threatened to Critically Endangered. The statistical values for comparison
 1312 between species are taken chiefly from unpublished work on Cape (Kleinhans 2018) and
 1313 Hooded vultures (Willows-Munro *pers. coms.* 2017) that has been conducted in Dr. Willows-
 1314 Munro's laboratory, and from Arshad et al. 2009 (African White-backed vulture).

Table 3.3: Details of the 54 Hooded vulture samples derived from the southern African population.

Sample Name	Country	Province	Precise Locality	Collection Year
HV2	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland	2015
HV3	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland	2015
HV4	South Africa	Limpopo	Tulloh Farm	2015
HV5	South Africa	Limpopo	Ndlovumzi Nature Reserve	2015
HV6	South Africa	Limpopo	Ndlovumzi Nature Reserve	2015
HV7	South Africa	Limpopo	Ndlovumzi Nature Reserve	2015
HV8	South Africa	Limpopo	Ndlovumzi Nature Reserve	2015
HV9	South Africa	Limpopo	Kruger Ntional Park	2015
HV10	South Africa	Limpopo	Kruger Ntional Park	2015
HV11	South Africa	Limpopo	Kruger Ntional Park	2015
HV12	South Africa	Limpopo	Pidwa Game Reserve	2017
HV13	South Africa	Limpopo	Ndlovumzi Nature Reserve	2015
HV14	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015
HV15	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015

HV16	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015
HV17	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015
HV18	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015
HV19	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015
HV20	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland	2015
HV21	South Africa	Limpopo	Damian's, Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV22	South Africa	Limpopo	Tulloh Farm	2015
HV23	South Africa	Limpopo	Wild Rivers Nature Reserve	2015
HV24	South Africa	Limpopo	Mfubu Lodge, Grietjie Nature Reserve	2017
HV25	South Africa	Limpopo	Mfubu Lodge, Grietjie Nature Reserve	2015
HV26	South Africa	Limpopo	Damian's, Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV27	South Africa	Limpopo	Ukhozi Nature Reserve	2017
HV28	South Africa	Limpopo	Damian's, Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV29	South Africa	Limpopo	Baluleni Lodge	2015
HV30	South Africa	Limpopo	Ukhozi Nature Reserve	2017
HV31	South Africa	Limpopo	Wild Rivers Nature Reserve	2015
HV32	South Africa	Limpopo	Mfubu Lodge, Grietjie Nature Reserve	2015
HV33	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland Island	2015
HV34	South Africa	Limpopo	Grietjie Nature Reserve	2015
HV36	South Africa	Limpopo	Uni-Fattoria Farm	2015
HV38	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland, Phalaborwa	2015
HV39	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland, Phalaborwa	2015
HV40	South Africa	Limpopo	Ukhozi Nature Reserve	2015
HV41	South Africa	Limpopo	Ukhozi Nature Reserve	2015
HV42	South Africa	Limpopo	Kruger National Park	2015
HV43	South Africa	Limpopo	Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV44	South Africa	Limpopo	Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV45	South Africa	Limpopo	Ndlovumzi Nature Reserve	2015
HV46	South Africa	Limpopo	Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV47	South Africa	Limpopo	Grietjie Game Reserve	2015
HV48	South Africa	Limpopo	Grietjie Nature Reserve	2015
HV49	South Africa	Limpopo	Wild Rivers Nature Reserve	2015
HV50	South Africa	Limpopo	Timbavati	2016
HV51	South Africa	Limpopo	Uni-Fattoria Farm	2016
HV52	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland	2015
HV53	South Africa	Limpopo	Blyde River	2015
HV54	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland	2015
HV55	South Africa	Limpopo	Wild Rivers Nature Reserve	2016
HV56	South Africa	Limpopo	Cleveland	2015
HVF103	South Africa	Limpopo	Hoedspruit	2015

1315 *DNA extraction and microsatellite amplification*

1316 DNA extraction and purification was performed followed the same protocol described
1317 in chapter 2. The microsatellite loci chosen are the same as for chapter 2. The details of
1318 primers used can be found in chapter 2 Table 2.1. All products were run at the Central
1319 Analytical Facility (CAF) at Stellenbosch University. Just as in the previous chapter, 20% of
1320 specimens were re-genotyped to ensure accuracy of genotype scoring.

1321 *Microsatellite analysis*

1322 The presence of null alleles was tested for in ML-Null Freq (Kalinowski and Taper 2006)
1323 and FreeNA (Chapuis and Estoup 2006). Both programmes detected significant levels of null
1324 alleles in multiple loci. Null alleles may bias towards low-levels of heterozygosity and
1325 increased population differentiation. The presence of scoring errors, such as incorrect
1326 assigning of genotypes and fractions in genotypes, was accessed using GenAlex v6.5 (Peakall
1327 and Smouse 2006) and FSTAT (Goudet 1995). These were also used to calculate summary
1328 statistics (average number of alleles at each locus (N_A), allelic richness (A_R), inbreeding
1329 coefficient (F_{is}) and gene diversity) for South African bearded vulture population as well as
1330 the three other species. Effective alleles at each locus (N_E) and observed (H_o) and expected
1331 (H_e) heterozygosity were calculated in GenAlex. FSTAT was used to determine allelic richness
1332 (A_R) and gene diversity. The fixation indices (inbreeding coefficient, F_{is} and population
1333 differentiation, F_{st}) (Saitou and Nei 1987; Weir 1996) were calculated in FSTAT (Raymond and
1334 Rousset 1995). F_{is} and F_{st} explain the deviations seen from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium
1335 (HWE). Positive F_{is} values suggest higher inbreeding values (due to higher observed
1336 homozygosity) than would be expected under Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, and vice versa.
1337 F_{st} shows the genetic differentiation between two populations which no longer conform to

1338 the HWE assumptions. This analysis was conducted by comparing the eastern, western and
1339 southern African bearded vulture populations.

Results

1340 FSTAT detected high (> 8%) null allele frequencies across 11 loci (GF11a4, Gf8g, Gf3f3,
1341 Gf3h3, Gf9c, BV2, BV6, BV5, BV8, BV11, BV17). FreeNA and ML-Null Freq confirmed this,
1342 though ML-Null Freq predicted higher frequencies of null alleles (up to 22%). The age of the
1343 sample was found to negatively affect the efficiency of amplification, and this could have
1344 biased the proportion of null alleles detected. This could have been because of low DNA
1345 concentration or highly fragmented DNA typical of dated and degraded museum samples.
1346 The spurious scoring of null alleles as homozygous individuals is known to exaggerate
1347 population differentiation (Chapuis and Estoup 2006) without radically influencing
1348 assignment test interpretation (Carlsson 2008). For this reason, null-allele frequencies
1349 reported and used here are the corrected values.

1350 *Southern African bearded vultures*

1351 All bearded vulture samples (52) were genotyped using 14 microsatellite loci.
1352 Complete amplification across all primers was problematic; missing data was encountered
1353 (11% - 37%) across all loci. The average number of alleles across all loci was 6.57 although
1354 effective alleles were lower ($N_E = 2.77$) (Table 3.4). Bearded vultures in South Africa show
1355 moderate levels of genetic diversity ($H_O = 0.49$) when compared to other southern African
1356 vulture species (Table 3.2) but have a comparatively high allelic richness (= 6.57, Table 3.4).

1357 Table 3.4: Estimates of genetic diversity across 14 amplified loci in the southern African
 1358 population of bearded vultures *Gypaetus barbatus*.

Locus	Observed allele size	N_A	N_E	H_O	H_E	Gene Diversity	F_{IS}
<i>Gypaetus barbatus</i>							
BV2	114 - 136	6	2.88	0.57	0.65	0.66	0.14
BV5	153 - 187	3	1.61	0.00	0.38	0.41	1.00
BV6	105 - 201	10	5.37	0.52	0.81	0.84	0.43
BV8	103 - 117	5	2.49	0.45	0.60	0.61	0.25
BV9	209 - 219	5	2.65	0.68	0.62	0.63	-0.05
BV11	143 - 187	5	1.73	0.13	0.42	0.44	0.71
BV12	231 - 257	5	2.89	0.87	0.65	0.66	-0.32
BV14	157 - 189	9	3.86	0.90	0.74	0.75	-0.21
BV17	183 - 193	5	2.10	0.40	0.52	0.53	0.25
Gf3f3	138 - 180	8	2.34	0.45	0.57	0.58	0.28
Gf3h3	111 - 139	8	2.64	0.49	0.62	0.63	0.23
Gf8g	164 - 280	7	2.23	0.37	0.55	0.56	0.34
Gf9c	220 - 264	10	3.96	0.46	0.75	0.76	0.39
Gf11a4	125 - 160	6	2.01	0.52	0.50	0.51	-0.01
Total		6.57	2.77	0.49	0.60	0.61	0.22

Key: N_A, average number of alleles; H_O, observed heterozygosity; H_E, expected heterozygosity;
 A_R, Allelic richness; F_{IS}, inbreeding coefficient.

1359 *African populations of bearded vultures*

1360 This data set (n=70) includes the populations of bearded vultures which are located in
 1361 southern Africa (n=52), eastern Africa (chiefly Ethiopia) (n=7) and western Africa (Algeria,
 1362 Morocco, Tunisia) (n=11). The mean genetic diversity was similar for all three populations
 1363 (0.51-0.61), and expected heterozygosities ranging from 0.45-0.60 (Table 3.2). All populations
 1364 reveal a lower than expected level of heterozygosity ($H_o < H_e$, Table 3.2). The southern African
 1365 population harbours the greatest allelic richness, with western Africa showing less than half
 1366 this (Table 3.2). Quite possibly this could be attributed to the difference in sample size. All
 1367 three populations show slight to intermediate inbreeding levels. The southern African
 1368 population appears to be the least inbred ($F_{is} = 0.22$), followed by eastern ($F_{is} = 0.29$) and
 1369 then western populations ($F_{is} = 0.30$, Table 3.2).

1370 Table 3.5: Estimates of genetic diversity across 14 amplified loci in the African population of
 1371 bearded vultures *Gypaetus barbatus*.

Locus	N_E	A_R	H_O	H_E	Gene Diversity	F_{IS}	% PML
<i>Gypaetus barbatus</i>							
S. Africa	2.77	6.57	0.49	0.60	0.61	0.22	100.00
E. Africa	2.72	3.57	0.41	0.51	0.56	0.29	92.86
W. Africa	2.32	3.07	0.36	0.45	0.51	0.30	85.71

Key: N_E, expected no. alleles; A_R, Allelic richness; H_O, observed heterozygosity; H_E, expected heterozygosity; F_{is}, inbreeding coefficient; %PML: percentage polymorphic loci

1372 *Other southern African vulture species*

1373 The bearded vulture population reveals high allelic richness in the suite of
 1374 microsatellites chosen for this research ($A_R = 6.57$, Table 3.6). The Hooded and African White-
 1375 backed vulture populations contain a proportion of heterozygous individuals, which is
 1376 expected under Hardy-Weinberg, whereas the bearded vulture population has higher
 1377 proportions of homozygosity (Table 3.6). The Cape vultures, despite the large sample size and
 1378 loci tested, have little allelic richness ($A_R = 4.49$, Table 3.3) and low observed heterozygosity
 1379 ($H_o = 0.31$, Table 3.6).

1380 Table 3.6: Estimates of genetic diversity across 8 to 14 amplified loci in populations of four
 1381 African vulture species.

Species	Sample Size	No. of loci	H_o	H_E	A_R	Reference
Bearded	52	14	0.49	0.60	6.57	Current study
Hooded	54	12	0.74	0.69	4.82	Willows-Munro <i>pers. coms</i>
Cape	547	13	0.31	0.41	4.49	Kleinhans 2018
White-backed	31	8	0.67	0.69	5.00	Arshad <i>et. al</i> , 2009

Key: A_R , Allelic richness; H_o , observed heterozygosity; H_E , expected heterozygosity; F_{is} ,
 inbreeding coefficient

Discussion

1382 *Diversity*

1383 A significant loss of genetic diversity is expected to occur following population collapse
1384 and bottlenecking events (Lande and Barrowclough 1987; Vucetich and Waite 1999; Wilcox
1385 and Murphy 1985). The associated loss of genetic variability is believed to adversely affect the
1386 adaptive potential and evolutionary persistence (Bretagnolle et al. 2004; Soulé 1986; Vucetich
1387 and Waite 1999). The southern African bearded vulture population is geographically and
1388 genetically isolated (chapter 2). Isolated populations are at risk of increased genetic drift,
1389 inbreeding and loss of genetic diversity. Despite the smaller population and sample size in
1390 comparison to Cape vultures, the southern African bearded vultures appear to maintain
1391 greater genetic variation as regards allelic richness and heterozygosity levels.

1392 *Southern African bearded vulture population*

1393 Apart from past persecution, the southern African population of bearded vultures
1394 continues to suffer threats from several sources, adding to their continued decline (Krüger et
1395 al. 2006; Krüger et al. 2014). Past studies on the global and local bearded vulture populations
1396 have raised concern for their management based on the reduced genetic variability
1397 (mitochondrial, microsatellite and multilocus DNA fingerprinting) found (Gautschi et al. 2003;
1398 Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2006; Negro and Torres 1999). Given that the southern African
1399 bearded vulture population is geographically and genetically isolated (chapter 2), it was
1400 expected that this population should be genetically at risk.

1401 The analysis presented in this chapter found the southern African population of
1402 bearded vultures to harbour less genetic diversity than would be expected, with observed

1403 heterozygosity values lower than expected under Hardy-Weinberg. The drastic population
1404 decline and reduced genetic status of the bearded vulture places the southern African
1405 population alongside other ecologically and behaviourally similar vulture species. The
1406 bearded vultures however, seem to be maintaining their genetic diversity as seen by a rich
1407 allele count despite having lower levels of observed heterozygosity than either Hooded or
1408 African White-backed vultures. When compared to Cape vultures however, which have
1409 overlapping ranges and similar roosting requirements, bearded vultures appear to be more
1410 genetically diverse. The severe genetic loss that the Cape vultures have experienced in
1411 comparison to bearded vultures is alarming considering the difference in sample size (547 vs.
1412 52) for these studies, and breeding pair numbers in southern Africa (1450 vs. 109-221 pairs)
1413 (Brown 1997; Krüger 2014). That the bearded vultures have maintain more diversity may well
1414 be because Cape vultures are still recovering from a more pronounced bottleneck event
1415 (Ogada et al. 2016). Cape vultures may be experiencing greater genetic drift and this has lead
1416 to an accelerated loss of variation.

1417 *African bearded vulture populations*

1418 In comparison to the other African bearded vulture populations, analysis of the
1419 southern population returned the highest average number of effective alleles, highest
1420 observed heterozygosity and the highest allelic and genetic richness. Correspondingly, the
1421 inbreeding coefficient (F_{is}) was lowest within the southern African population when
1422 compared to the eastern and western populations.

1423 The bearded vultures have undergone a global population decline over a relatively
1424 short duration. This population collapse, coupled with the isolated nature of the southern

1425 African population, raises concern for the long-term population health and persistence of the
1426 species in the southern African region. However, the microsatellite data showed estimates of
1427 genetic variation greater than that recorded for the Cape vulture. This could be because
1428 bearded vultures are long-lived and as such can retain levels of genetic diversity in small
1429 populations over longer time periods than species with faster generation time (Johnson et al.
1430 2008; Kuo and Janzen 2004). Nonetheless, diversity levels will continue to decline if the
1431 population bottleneck is indefinitely sustained. The genetic variation seen in contemporary
1432 populations is a reflection of the diversity in the previous generations. Should conservation
1433 seek to preserve this gene-assemblage, active management would need to firstly minimise
1434 external threats, and mitigate factors leading to population structuring as this amplifies
1435 genetic drift. Specifically, this research found the southern African population to be
1436 genetically distinct from other populations of bearded vultures. For conservation, it would be
1437 senseless to divide a species into multiple management units if migration and breeding still
1438 actively occurred between the subspecies. However, in the absence of evident interbreeding
1439 between subpopulations, each separate population should be conserved as an entity. Given
1440 this fact, the southern African population should be managed as such and not be subject to a
1441 global 'blanket' management. It would not be wise to disrupt the unique genetic composition
1442 of the southern African population, which appears to contain diversity levels abnormal for
1443 such a small population.

1444 These results highlight the necessity to integrate genetic data into conservation
1445 strategies as it elucidates information that is not readily perceivable. Here, it suggests that
1446 the southern African population, being distinct from other such African populations, may
1447 represent a reservoir of genetic variation.

1448 The research presented contributes to past and ongoing bearded vulture studies by
1449 providing an overview of the genetic status of the southern African population. Further, it
1450 supports the caution of these studies that there is reduced genetic variation and inbreeding
1451 in naturally breeding populations of the bearded vulture. Genetic diversity will continue to be
1452 lost, and population sub-structuring can be expected to become more evident with
1453 geographic isolation of populations in the absence of active conservation.

1454 Further research, and continued sampling are needed to definitively confirm whether
1455 the southern African population is isolated, or whether this is merely an artefact of sampling
1456 effort. Should these populations already be structured as a result of their past population
1457 collapse, as well as continued persecution and decline, the potential for a significant
1458 proportion of the global species genetic diversity being lost through the process of genetic
1459 erosion, is increased.

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CHAPTER 4

A genetically informed population viability analysis of the southern African bearded vulture

Gypaetus barbatus population.

Abstract

1559 Population viability analysis (PVA) is an adaptable tool used to predict the probabilistic future of
1560 a species. PVAs have found particular popularity in informing the management of endangered
1561 species. Over the last century, vultures have been under severe persecution, and have suffered
1562 severe population declines. Six of Africa's 11 species are subsequently at risk of extinction. The
1563 southern African bearded vulture *Gypaetus barbatus* population has suffered major declines since
1564 1700-1970s, and continues to decline due to indiscriminate use of poison, electrocutions and
1565 harvesting. In this study, the PVA software VORTEX is used to predict the viability of the southern
1566 African *G. barbatus* population by combining life history data with genotypic information derived
1567 from 14 polymorphic microsatellite markers sampled from 52 individuals belonging to isolated
1568 southern African bearded vulture population. The simulations tracked a hypothetical population
1569 that had a high probability of extinction over the next 100 years. The probabilistic outcome of the
1570 population was not markedly different when the genetics data was included in the model. This
1571 points toward a species that, although characterised by a small census population size is still
1572 genetically variable enough to delay genetic erosion and the negative impacts this would have on
1573 demographic vital rates. However, this is not intended to lessen the urgency of actively conserving
1574 the species. To our knowledge this study, on the management of an endangered southern African
1575 vulture, is amongst one of the first where the genetic data is incorporated into the PVA model to
1576 predicted future trends in species survival.

Introduction

1577 Several decades of evidence refutes any doubt that indigenous plant and animal species'
1578 populations are not under threat (Ehrlich and Ehrlich 1981). Concomitant population declines,
1579 associated with ongoing habitat fragmentation (Wilcox and Murphy 1985), necessitates a means
1580 of estimating the persistence of populations under particular scenarios (Oostermeijer et al. 2003).
1581 Conservation biologists in the 1980s coined the term 'population viability' and developed
1582 theoretical, and statistical means of measuring a populations risk of extinction (Shaffer 1979;
1583 Soulé 1986; 1987; Soulé and Wilcox 1980). Population viability analyses (PVAs) predict the
1584 effective population number (individuals who contribute to the reproductive output of the
1585 species) required to maintain the species persistence over a given time. Or alternatively, PVA
1586 predicts the likelihood of extinction by incorporating potential threats to the population into the
1587 model (Baral et al. 2013; Veleviski et al. 2014).

1588 PVA came as an improvement to the rudimentary 50/500 rule which simplified species'
1589 conservation by providing basic threshold numbers of the number of individuals need for a
1590 species to survive (Baral et al. 2013; Gilpin 1996). The rule stated that a population of less than
1591 50 individuals would go extinct in the short-term due to inbreeding depression, and a size less
1592 than 500 would not contain enough genetic variability for adaptation, which would lead to
1593 extinction in the face of environmental change (Gilpin 1996).

1594 Since then, alternate means of approaching population conservation have emerged as it
1595 was recognised that prescribing a generalised number was overly simplistic as life history traits
1596 differ vastly between species which could influence population viability. The practical problems
1597 of conservation and wildlife management, however, require knowledge of statistical viability of a
1598 population and the risks affecting species. Because of the inherent variation and confounding
1599 factors associated with ecological data, PVAs implement a risk-based approach (Akçakaya and

1600 Sjögren-Gulve 2000). In this, the feasibility of survival is expressed as the likelihood of a
1601 population's extinction (or recovery) over a given time (Akçakaya and Sjögren-Gulve 2000; Brook
1602 et al. 2000). Habitat suitability, GAP analysis, reserve selection algorithms, landscape indices
1603 among others are alternative conservation strategies which are applicable under certain
1604 scenarios, but for several distinct advantages PVA is the chosen tool in conservation (Akçakaya
1605 and Sjögren-Gulve 2000).

1606 The predictive power of PVA is continuously under scrutiny. The intent of the PVA needs
1607 to be clearly defined for this concern to be resolved. As PVAs are used to select among several
1608 management options, the argument is that there need not be exact precision as long as the
1609 comparison is valid (McCarthy et al. 2003; Veleviski et al. 2014). However, Brook et al. (2000) argue
1610 for the qualitative reliability of a PVA, as the conservation costs entailed must be justified by the
1611 anticipated benefits. Legally, the 'fallibility' of PVAs has led to management decisions in favour of
1612 conservation being refuted in courts (Brook et al. 2000). The predicative power and accuracy of
1613 regularly used PVA programmes has been tested and published (McCarthy et al. 2003). Such
1614 studies tested between the various programmes which implement PVA across a variety of taxa
1615 and families. Where sufficient data was available from past extinction events, the simulated
1616 results were compared to the eventual (real) outcome. Research has also refined the conditions
1617 under which the programmes perform best. The results showed that the simulated results
1618 modelled the historical outcomes with surprising accuracy, although there was a tendency of
1619 predictions to be marginally pessimistic. The ultimate findings of the comparative studies
1620 contradict the belief that PVAs are poor predictors of a populations fate (Brook et al. 2000). PVAs
1621 have since been used in numerous studies used to inform conservation decisions (Baral et al.
1622 2013; Tollington et al. 2013; Veleviski et al. 2014).

1623 Populations that have undergone a severe, or continual decline, are considered at higher
1624 risk of extinction, especially if the decline prohibits movement between neighbouring populations
1625 (Gaston 1994). Further, large populations are known to buffer against random variation in
1626 demography, unpredictable environmental catastrophes, genetic effects (inbreeding and drift)
1627 and slow rates of adaptation (Brown 1995; Lande 1999; Lande and Barrowclough 1987).

1628 Populations of long-lived raptors are particularly susceptible to variability in birth and
1629 death rates (Smart et al. 2010). In species where the reproductive rate is notably low- such as in
1630 vultures- susceptibility to demographic stochasticity is heightened (Ogada et al. 2012). Most
1631 Southern African vulture species are thus listed as Endangered or Critically Endangered by IUCN.

1632 The bearded vulture population of the Maloti-Drakensberg in southern Africa is
1633 geographically and genetically isolated from other populations in Africa (Ethiopia and Algeria) and
1634 Europe (chapter 2). The population is under threat of extinction as a result of declines both in
1635 number of individuals and occupied territory, as well as its continued persecution (Krüger et al.
1636 2014).

1637 The contribution of a specie's genetics to its ultimate survival or extinction has been
1638 neglected in the past (Frankham et al. 2002). The belief was that small populations would be
1639 driven to extinction by environmental catastrophes and demographic stochasticity before genetic
1640 factors would have a chance to exert their effect (Lande and Barrowclough 1987; Shaffer 1987),
1641 and therefore including genetic data in PVA would have little impact on the predicted outcomes.
1642 Genetic effects however, are unavoidable and amplified in small populations. Factors such as
1643 inbreeding and loss of heterozygosity further reduces the population's reproductive output, even
1644 after the initial cause for decline has been mitigated. Even when the genetic component is
1645 acknowledged to impact a specie's extinction probability, it is still unclear how this probability
1646 relates to population size (Wittman et al. 2018). It is also unclear if the extinction probability

1647 increases in a linear function and if recovery is also linear. Extinction probability may instead
1648 follow a sigmoidal function where a sharp transition exists from which recovery could be more
1649 complicated. Not including genetic effects in PVA models may thus lead to biased predictions.

1650 In this paper, I aim to add to the bearded vulture population viability analyses of
1651 Rushworth and Krüger (2014) to compare the extent to which the incorporation of genetic data
1652 affects the model. I conducted a PVA in the modelling programme VORTEX using identical
1653 parameters (Rushworth and Krüger 2014b), but also include allele frequencies of the southern
1654 African population as an additional parameter.

Methods

1655 *Simulation model*

1656 I used the VORTEX 10 simulation software (Lacy 1993; 2000) to model the future
1657 population trend of the southern African bearded vulture population. VORTEX is an individual-
1658 based simulation model for PVA that models the effect of deterministic and stochastic processes
1659 on the population dynamics of species, both wild and captive (Miller and Lacy, 2005). This
1660 programme was developed for avian and mammalian species with typically low fecundity
1661 (Keedwell 2004; Lacy 1993). VORTEX is advantageous as it has the ability to model population
1662 trends with more acuity by taking into consideration the species biology (such as behaviour and
1663 mating systems) (Duca et al. 2009) as well as genetic data (Lacy 1993). Brook et al. (2000)
1664 performed a comprehensive analysis in which they evaluated both the strengths and failing of the
1665 various PVA programmes. VORTEX is best able to model a populations growth trend for long-lived
1666 species with low-fecundity, such as mammals, birds and reptiles (Lacy 1993). Thus, VORTEX is
1667 often the chosen PVA program used in conservation studies.

1668 *Simulation model parameters*

1669 The baseline scenario was modelled using the biological data given in Krüger et al. (2014).
1670 The number of lethal equivalents and recessive alleles was kept at the model's default values
1671 (3.14 and 50 respectively). Although, it has been suggested that the lethal equivalents can
1672 sometimes be quadruple (~12) this value in wild populations (Keller 1998; Spielman et al. 2004),
1673 I did not conduct analyses varying these values. Extinction was defined as the point at which the
1674 remnant population is comprised of only one sex.

1675 The parameters used in this study are given in Appendices 4.1 and 4.2. Several simulations
1676 were run to model the hypothetical future population trajectory. These are summarised in two
1677 broad scenarios. The scenarios always compare four situations: a- only life-history trait data, b-
1678 life-history trait data with inbreeding incorporated, c- life-history trait data with inbreeding and
1679 genetic data incorporated, d- life-history trait data with genetic data only.

1680 For incorporating genetic data into the PVA, I used allele frequencies derived from the
1681 empirical microsatellite data estimated directly from the southern African population. The details
1682 of these samples can be found in chapter 3, Table 3.1. Small populations are assumed to show
1683 evidence of inbreeding depression, thus I used a value of 6.29 lethal equivalents to simulate the
1684 adverse effect of inbreeding on the hypothetical population's persistence (Lacy and Pollak 2014).

1685 Scenario 1a-d makes use of species trait data from the Krüger 2014 paper. Scenario 2a-d
1686 tracks a similar trajectory, however in this case several of the biological settings are altered. The
1687 lifespan is decreased from 32 to 21 years, and the age at last reproductive output is reduced to
1688 19 years, accounting for variation seen in these traits (Brown 1997). For each scenario, 1000
1689 simulations were run and the time span was set to 250 years; extinction was defined as the

1690 absence of at least one sex. The initial population size was set at 408 individuals according to the
 1691 latest census data and this variable was set using stable-age distribution (Rushworth and Krüger
 1692 2014b).

Results

1693 Scenario 1 and 2 both predict hypothetical populations which initially increase in size
 1694 within the first decade, but then follow a steep decline for three decades after which they
 1695 continue to decrease until extinction is reached (Figure 4.1 a and b).

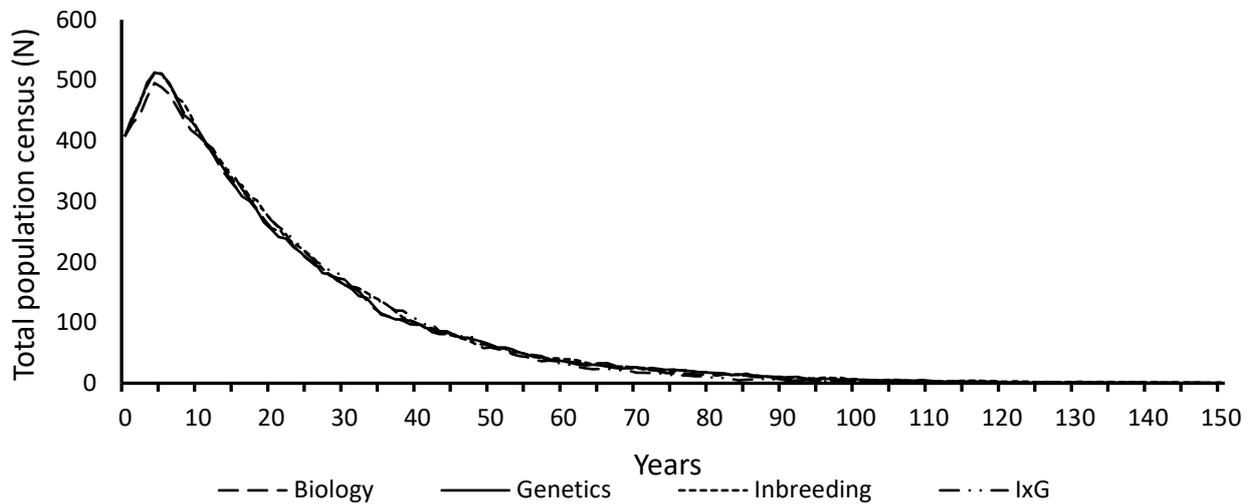


Figure 4.1.a: Bearded vulture population numbers contrasting the trajectories of different models run under scenario 1.

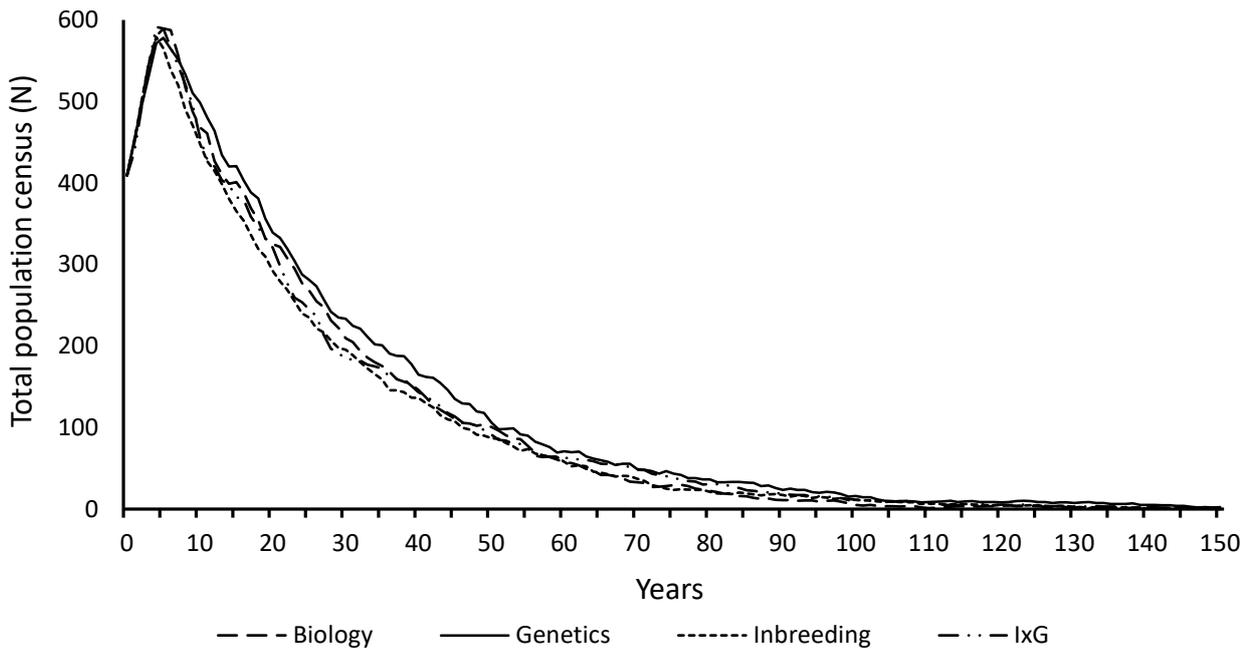


Figure 4.1.b: Bearded vulture population numbers contrasting the trajectories of different models run under scenario 2.

1696 Scenario 1 reports initial population size to be slightly higher than for scenario 2 (Table 4.1 and
 1697 2). For both scenarios, the population trend tracks the same path even after the incorporation of
 1698 additional genetic data into the simulation (Figure 4.1a and b; Tables 4.1 and 2). For scenario 1a,
 1699 in which only the population parameters are included, the southern African bearded vulture
 1700 population decreased to 101 individuals (100.56 +- 8.85) after 50 years. Adding genetic data to
 1701 the simulation results in the highest population census, which is expected to reach 106 individuals
 1702 (105.99 +- 9.06; Table 4.1). Lowest numbers (N = 87) are predicted by the model which includes
 1703 only the inbreeding depression parameter (Table 4.1). Although all models predict a collapsing
 1704 population, adding genetic data appears to improve the probabilistic population census slightly
 1705 in scenario 2 (Figure 4.1b). However, this distinction is obscured in scenario 1 (Figure 4.1a).
 1706 All genetic indicators show deterioration after 50, 100 and 150 years. The number of alleles
 1707 present and heterozygosity levels within the population are diminished, while inbreeding

1708 becomes more pronounced (Table 4.1). Although the number of alleles remains low, for both
 1709 scenarios, incorporating the allelic frequencies as a parameter (with or without inbreeding),
 1710 results in a controlled and linear decline in the number of alleles (Table 4.1).

1711 The population's growth rates (scenario 1 and 2) appear not to be largely altered by the addition
 1712 of genetic data. The deterministic growth rates of the population is decreased slightly when
 1713 modelled under scenario 2 (0.05 vs. 0.09). The stochastic growth rates increased minimally after
 1714 50 years when the baseline model parameters were changed from those of Krüger et al. (Table
 1715 4.1) to the modified parameters (Figures 4.2 a and b; Table 4.1). This suggests that the modelled
 1716 predictions of the PVA, in this case, is not biased by a particular data type (demographic versus
 1717 genetic). Both scenarios predict a consistently low, positive growth rate over the next 50 years,
 1718 after which the growth rates follow an unpredictable and irregular pattern (Figure 4.2 a and b).

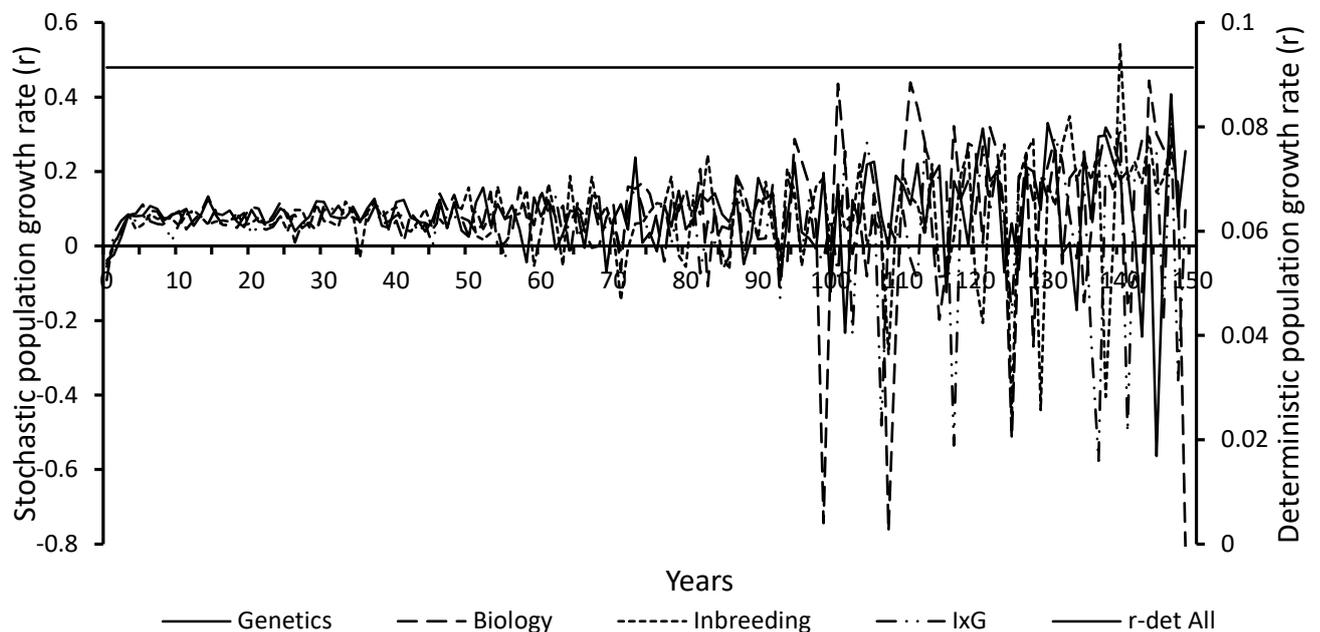


Figure 4.2.a: Bearded vulture projected (stochastic and deterministic) population growth rates contrasting the incorporation of life-history data (biology) against genetic data; simulated under default inbreeding levels (scenario 1).

1719 Scenario 1 predicts greater negative growth rates after ~95 years in the baseline model whereas
 1720 the lxG model only reaches highly negative growth rates after ~108 years (Figure 4.1a). Scenario
 1721 2, although predicting lower growth rates over the first 50 years, models a delay in the highly
 1722 negative growth rates, which are expected to manifest only after ~120 years.

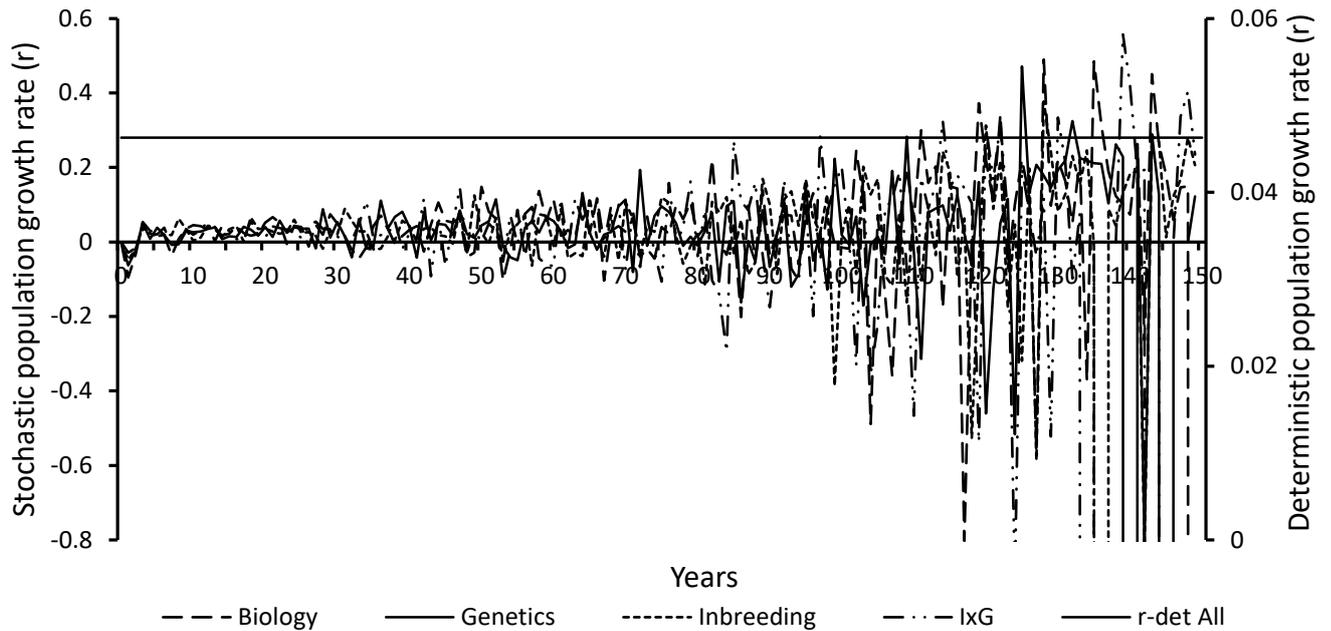


Figure 4.2. b: Bearded vulture projected (stochastic and deterministic) population growth rates contrasting the incorporation of life-history data (biology) against genetic data; simulated under default inbreeding levels (scenario 2).

1723 Table 4.1: Summary statistics of the modelled bearded vulture population trajectory under scenario 1 after 50, 100 and 150 years.

	After 50 yrs						After 100 yrs						After 150 yrs					
	N	stoch-r	F _{IS}	A _R	H ₀	MTE	N	stoch-r	F _{IS}	A _R	H ₀	MTE	N	stoch-r	F _{IS}	A _R	H ₀	MTE
Baseline	101	0.08	0.01	122	0.98	19	5	-0.74	0.01	76	0.97	25	0	-1.09	0.05	40	0.96	26
Inbreeding	87	0.10	0.01	120	0.98	18	11	0.18	0.03	66	0.97	23	0	0.00	0.05	33	0.96	25
IxG	91	0.07	0.37	15	0.63	19	11	-0.04	0.37	11	0.63	25	2	0.10	0.37	10	0.63	26
Genetic	106	0.04	0.37	14	0.63	20	16	0.20	0.37	11	0.63	26	2	0.25	0.39	11	0.61	28

1724 Table 4.2: Summary statistics of the modelled bearded vulture population trajectory under scenario 2 after 50, 100 and 150 years.

	After 50 yrs						After 100 yrs						After 150 yrs					
	N	stoch-r	F _{IS}	A _R	H ₀	MTE	N	stoch-r	F _{IS}	A _R	H ₀	MTE	N	stoch-r	F _{IS}	A _R	H ₀	MTE
Baseline	59	0.15	0.02	91	0.97	18	4	-0.02	0.06	40	0.93	23	0	0.62	0.06	29	0.94	24
Inbreeding	62	0.02	0.02	85	0.97	19	7	0.02	0.06	39	0.94	23	1	0.17	0.13	12	0.87	24
IxG	60	0.00	0.37	3	0.62	19	4	0.20	0.38	3	0.62	24	1	0.26	0.41	3	0.59	24
Genetic	63	0.04	0.37	13	0.62	19	6	0.02	0.38	9	0.61	23	0	0.72	0.37	8	0.63	24

Discussion

1725 A chief limitation to the versatility of PVA lies in obtaining reliable input parameters
1726 on the demography and life-history traits of species, especially if the species is IUCN-classified
1727 and prioritised (Boyce 1992). Despite this limitation and other many objections to PVA, it is a
1728 widely used tool to advise and direct the management of threatened species (Brook et al.
1729 2000; Olsen et al. 2014). In this study, I was able to draw on the extensive and thorough
1730 research of previous studies (Brown 1997; Krüger et al. 2014; Rushworth and Krüger 2014a)
1731 and include novel genetic data to provide a comprehensive PVA for the Southern African
1732 bearded vulture population.

1733 It is well known that small and threatened populations are subject to inbreeding
1734 depression and accordingly the loss of genetic variation, which is further exacerbated by
1735 genetic drift (Boyce 1992; Lande and Barrowclough 1987). In turn, this is known to reduce the
1736 populations viability and increase its risk of extinction (Boyce 1992; Lande and Barrowclough
1737 1987). However, it is often not known to what extent the incorporation of genetic data in a
1738 PVA will affect the population's future trajectory. Often, the contribution of a populations'
1739 genetics is thought to be insignificant when compared to the effects of the specie's life-history
1740 traits (Coulson et al. 2001). This could be true in cases where the species has a high level of
1741 genetic variation and where external factors place the greater pressure on survival. Several
1742 papers assert that either stochastic events (typically environmental catastrophes), or the
1743 species life-history traits will far outweigh the detrimental effects of a species impoverished
1744 genetics (Coulson et al. 2001; Lande 1999; Lande and Barrowclough 1987). Threatened
1745 species, whose extinction is purportedly imminent, fall under this school of thought.

1746 Nonetheless, including all available data, especially genetic data, can improve the predication
1747 made by PVA.

1748 In this study, I performed a genetically informed PVA for the bearded vulture
1749 population of southern Africa. This geographically and genetically distinct population is
1750 restricted to the high-altitude mountainous borders of Lesotho and KwaZulu-Natal, South
1751 Africa. The confirmation of the genetic uniqueness of this population (chapter 2) means that
1752 the population is best modelled and managed as a single entity. It is also important that the
1753 life history traits and genetic data used in the model are records from the southern African
1754 population as local adaptation may have an effect on population survival.

1755 In contrast to other genetically informed PVAs (Kirchhoff et al. 2016; Ogden et al.
1756 2005), the current PVA reveals no substantial additive effect of incorporating the specie's
1757 genetics on the ultimate fate of the population. The future population size modelled by
1758 VORTEX did not show a more exaggerated population decline when informed by the current
1759 level of genetic variation, as would be expected if the population suffered severely under the
1760 effects of a impoverished genetic status (high inbreeding, low heterozygosity). On the
1761 contrary, the stochastic growth showed less variation when the population's genetics were
1762 added as a parameter. That the incorporation of a population's genetics into the model did
1763 not alter the census outcome vastly even after 150 years simulation, indicates that, despite
1764 the isolated nature of this population, the population exhibits sufficient genetic variation to
1765 buffer against the negative effects of inbreeding depression. In this particular case then,
1766 including genetic data appears not to deteriorate the viability of this population. This result
1767 supports the finding of chapter 3 where I found that the southern African bearded vulture
1768 population has higher levels of heterozygosity and allelic richness, and lower levels of
1769 inbreeding in comparison to the ecologically similar Cape vulture (Kleinhans 2018).

1770 In the same way that our conservation efforts will be enjoyed by future generations,
1771 present day allele frequencies contained within the genome of extant populations can be
1772 viewed as the genetic ‘heritage’ of past generations, as they reflect the genetic status of their
1773 ancestors. Conservation plans that do not specifically address the preservation of genetic
1774 diversity may unintentionally underestimate the risk of extinction. This holds particularly true
1775 for the bearded vultures as the population is geographically and genetically isolated (chapter
1776 3) and the census population remains small. So over time this population may begin to suffer
1777 the consequences of inbreeding depression, and with no intervention genetic deterioration
1778 will be amplified in this isolated population. Especially in such populations, genetic erosion
1779 poses an unavoidable risk, which can only be compensated for through active genetic
1780 management (supplementations/translocations simulating immigration even when the
1781 immigrant gene pool is similar to the focus population; selective breeding where possible).

1782 From the results of the PVA, I can conclude that the southern African bearded vulture
1783 population is genetically stable. The probabilistic outcome of their future census numbers is
1784 in no way diminished by their current genetic health. This is corroborated by the population’s
1785 comparatively diverse genetics as seen by a higher than expected heterozygosity and low
1786 levels of inbreeding (chapter 3). This stands in contrast to the Cape vulture *Gyps coprotheres*,
1787 where the incorporation of genetic data in to the PVA undermined the population’s trajectory
1788 (Kleinhans 2018). The vastly different outcomes of the modelled future of these two species,
1789 despite being alike in life history traits and ecological requirements, reinforces the need for
1790 conservation to be species- and context-dependent, and more importantly not to disregard
1791 the genetic component of the population.

1792 The bearded vulture population of southern Africa does not appear to be genetically
1793 disadvantaged as a result of its isolation. Often populations with underlying genetic problems

1794 would appear to grow initially, but then tend to crash. The interaction between ecological and
1795 genetic allee effects should be taken into consideration when assessing a species viability, as
1796 well as when drawing conclusions between species. In the case of the current population of
1797 southern African bearded vultures, it is clear that the species will benefit more under
1798 management which is targeted at improving external factors which will increase the
1799 population size (improve fecundity and survival rates). Based on the findings of my research,
1800 I advise contemporary management to monitor genetic variation but chief focus and funding
1801 need not be invested in intense genetic management of the current population. Rather, it
1802 should be targeted at increasing the population size by improving external factors (which
1803 would improve the reproductive output) and eliminating direct threats from either
1804 environmental or anthropogenic origin.

1805 There is immense value in the use of genetic data in conservation efforts, and it should
1806 not be negated or neglected. It is true that to fully understand the effects of genetics and
1807 reproductive ecology on population viability, one needs to assess their relative impacts on
1808 demographic vital rates (Lande 1999). Yet, one should not then seek only to improve the
1809 demographic rates or ecological requirements without understanding the genetic factors that
1810 govern them. This is particularly true in the conservation of threatened and diminishing
1811 populations. More attention needs to be given to, and better communication is a necessity,
1812 understanding the interconnectedness of these three facets of conservation.

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CHAPTER 5

Summary and conclusion

1908 The vast acceleration in human population growth and the associated demands this
1909 places on the environment, have led to increased pressure on natural ecosystems (Barnosky
1910 et al. 2011; Ripple et al. 2017; Steffen et al. 2015). The multifaceted threats that are imposed
1911 on natural systems more often than not, compromise the efficient and healthy running of
1912 ecosystem function (Hansen et al. 2012). Avian scavengers, often because of their
1913 mythological associations, are the most threatened and persecuted group of birds (Ogada et
1914 al. 2016). Vultures are integral to the ecosystem within which they are found. They are vital
1915 in nutrient cycling and are involved indirectly in mitigating the spread of disease and potential
1916 pathogen transfer by removing decaying carcasses. The rapid extirpation of vultures in India
1917 as a consequence of using the veterinary drug diclofenac (Paudel et al. 2016; Prakash et al.
1918 2012) had a dramatic effect on the rate of rabies incidents between 1992 and 2006. The
1919 epidemic was attributed to the increase in decaying carcasses that supported an
1920 unprecedented surge in the population of feral dogs (Markandya et al. 2008). This also reveals
1921 the huge economic value of vultures as India ultimately spent \$34 billion on humanitarian
1922 related costs. Likewise revised sanitation laws in Europe subsequent to the outbreak of bovine
1923 spongiform encephalopathy resulted in huge environmental (77,344 metric tons of GHG
1924 released into the atmosphere per year) and economic costs (\$50 million to insurance
1925 companies) (Morales-Reyes et al. 2015). Vultures, and the ecosystem function they perform,
1926 are indispensable and it should thus be high-priority to curb the rate at which vultures are
1927 declining.

1928 The bearded vulture is widely distributed with remaining populations sparsely and
1929 disjunctly distributed across the Palearctic, Afrotropic and Indomalay regions (Margalida et
1930 al. 2003). Historically the populations were abundant, but have become locally extinct or
1931 survive in highly habitat-specific isolated refuges across their former range (Brown 1997;
1932 Gautschi et al. 2000). The Pyrenees, the southern Balkans, the islands of Corsica and Crete,
1933 and a re-established population in the Alps currently comprise the European populations;
1934 while the Maloti-Drakensberg (Lesotho boarder), Ethiopia and Morocco are the refuges for
1935 the African bearded vulture populations (Brown 1997; Godoy et al. 2004).

1936 It is common to believe that the genetic component does not contribute significantly
1937 to a threatened specie's ultimate outcome in the short term (Coulson et al. 2001; Lande 1999;
1938 Lande and Barrowclough 1987). However, the concomitant loss of diversity in a bottlenecked
1939 population is the impetus behind numerous genetic studies (Arshad et al. 2009; Frankham et
1940 al. 2014; Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). Small and dwindling populations are known
1941 to suffer genetic consequences through lack of diversity and a gradual increase in inbreeding
1942 (Alcaide et al. 2010). Opinions appear to be segregated into two general lines of thought. One
1943 advocating to increase reproductive output and demographic rates (Lande 1988) (perhaps by
1944 protection) irrespective of genetic consequences in the short term (inbreeding depression if
1945 mating between relative is inevitable), and the other which seeks to conserve the genetic
1946 diversity perhaps by captive and intentional breeding such that the maximum diversity is
1947 conserved (Frankham 2005). I tend to think that these should operate at different points in the
1948 species recovery. If the population number is low, I believe one should aim to eliminate
1949 repercussions of inbreeding which would lead to lower reproductive output and of poorer
1950 quality. At some point there should be a threshold where the population is genetically stable
1951 enough, at this point one can 'neglect' the genetic component and focus of boosting population

1952 numbers. At this point, population numbers will buffer against natural selection and one won't
1953 be at threat of losing a species due to natural selection/inbreeding depression. Previous research
1954 on the genetics of the bearded vulture has revealed low levels of genetic diversity based on
1955 multilocus DNA fingerprinting (Negro and Torres 1999), microsatellite markers (Gautschi et
1956 al. 2003) and mitochondrial data (Godoy et al. 2004; Krüger et al. 2015). These studies suggest
1957 a lack of genetic diversity post-population decline in European populations. A further study,
1958 specifically targeting the southern African population of bearded vultures detected little
1959 differentiation and reduced genetic diversity compared to northern hemisphere source'
1960 populations (Krüger et al. 2015).

1961 This MSc study aims to provide a better understanding of the population structure
1962 between the contemporary populations of bearded vultures across Africa, Europe and Asia.
1963 This study extends the work of Godoy et al. (2004) and Krueger et al. (2015) by increasing the
1964 number of bearded vultures and loci analysed, and by using microsatellite loci as a
1965 compliment to mitochondrial data. These non-coding markers provide a higher resolution
1966 assessment of the current diversity present as they evolve at a higher rate than mitochondrial
1967 markers previously used.

Research objectives

1968 Three objectives were set to address the genetic state of the bearded vulture species:

1969 The first objective was to use microsatellite data to establish whether genetic
1970 structuring has resulted from prolonged isolation of populations following the global collapse
1971 of bearded vulture numbers (chapter 2). Estimating population structure and genetic status
1972 of disjunct populations will provide conservation authorities with the necessary information

1973 needed to make, and implement the appropriate conservation measures to protect the
1974 bearded vulture. My research established that the southern African bearded vulture
1975 population is genetically isolated and subsequently holds a unique genetic assemblage as a
1976 consequence of being geographically isolated. This finding contradicts past work on
1977 mitochondrial data which concluded that the bearded vulture species should be managed as
1978 a global population due to insufficient genetic differentiation between the several
1979 populations.

1980 The second objective was to focus on the southern African bearded vulture population
1981 (chapter 3). Indices of genetic diversity derived from the microsatellite data were used to
1982 assess the genetic health of the southern African population following its decline and
1983 isolation. Small isolated populations are expected to have reduced genetic diversity, and
1984 higher levels of inbreeding. The genetic diversity of the southern African bearded vulture
1985 population was compared to that of eastern and western African bearded vulture population
1986 as well as to that of three sympatric, and ecologically similar species (Cape vultures *Gyps*
1987 *coprotheres*, Hooded vultures *Necrosyrtes monachus*, and African White-backed vultures
1988 *Gyps africanus*). Analysis revealed that, despite the 5-fold difference in population size
1989 between the eastern and southern African bearded vulture populations, and despite the
1990 connectivity that the western population holds with European populations, the southern
1991 African population contains the greatest amount of genetic variation and unique genetic
1992 identity.

1993 In comparison to ecologically similar species, the southern African bearded vulture
1994 population, here too, appears to have suffered less of a genetic impoverishment because of
1995 the African vulture persecution crisis. Comparing against the Cape vulture, which is
1996 ecologically and behaviourally most similar but has a far larger population size, we expected

1997 the bearded vulture to show relative lower genetic diversity, yet the analysis contradicted this
1998 prediction.

1999 In chapter 4, I tested for the effect of decreased genetic diversity on the bearded
2000 vulture's future persistence. Standard population viability analysis (PVA) was conducted, but
2001 supplemented the specie's biology and life history traits with genetic data (allelic frequencies)
2002 generated in chapter 2 and 3. Few PVA studies incorporate genetic data as some literature
2003 suggests that endangered species will likely go extinct due to threats such as habitat
2004 destruction and hunting before experiencing any detrimental effects of reduced genetic
2005 diversity. Previous work on another South African species, Cape vulture, has shown this
2006 assumption not to be true (Kleinhans 2018). When including genetic data as parameter in the
2007 Cape vulture PVA, Kleinhans (2018) illustrated that including genetic data in PVA models
2008 decreases the predicted time to extinction as well as decreases genetic diversity estimations.
2009 As seen in chapter 3, the Cape vulture population in South Africa has the lowest genetic
2010 diversity estimates. If the genetic diversity of southern African bearded vulture population is
2011 sufficient to buffer the population against the effects of genetic drift, despite low population
2012 numbers, then it is expected that there not be a vast difference in the population's trajectory
2013 when the genetic data is added to the PVA. However, if the population's genetics are severely
2014 reduced, the PVA including genetic data should have altered probabilistic population
2015 trajectory. Here the results show that the incorporation of the genetic data did not result in
2016 a lower estimation of population numbers.

Major findings and future work

2017 The first data chapter established that, based on microsatellite data, there is genetic
2018 structuring present in the global bearded vulture population. The African populations, and
2019 specifically the southern African population, are different from European and Asian
2020 populations and presents a unique genetic assemblage. Additionally, the detected migration
2021 rates between populations were low in the recent past. Outside of actively translocating
2022 individuals between populations, there is low connectivity between disjunct populations and
2023 the exchange of genetic material is limited. Is this impetus for a revision in the management
2024 of the species as a single population? Should each population be conserved individually? A
2025 first step would be to clarify the trends by increasing sample sizes where sub-populations
2026 consisted of only a few samples and thus were not accurately portrayed.

2027 The second data chapter confirmed that the southern African population has reduced
2028 genetic diversity when compared to other vulture species (Cape vultures, Hooded vultures,
2029 and African White-backed vultures) in southern Africa. However, the southern African
2030 bearded vulture population did not have the lowest genetic diversity estimate despite having
2031 the smallest population size. What are potential ecological reasons for this? Could this be an
2032 inherent biological capacity of the species, or has the conservation merely been more
2033 successful for the bearded vulture? Moreover, how can we learn from this to improve
2034 protection of these other sympatric species?

2035 The last chapter incorporated genetic data into PVA. This sought to determine what
2036 effect genetic variation may have on the evolutionary persistence of the species. This
2037 information can be used to direct conservation efforts as one can identify whether focus
2038 should be placed primarily on conserving external factors to rapidly increase population size,

2039 or whether one should focus on increasing the genetic health of the species first
2040 (translocations, managed breeding).

2041 I believe the research presented here would stand to benefit by being supplemented
2042 in two respects. One, to evaluate the non-neutral (functional) diversity within the species;
2043 and secondly by ascertaining stress levels of individuals. Examining functional genetic
2044 diversity would involve genotyping genes involved in traits closely linked to survival and
2045 fitness of individuals and populations. Understanding functional genetic diversity, and the
2046 significance that various evolutionary forces have had in modifying this, is central to
2047 conservation (Gonzalez-Quevedo et al. 2015). Particularly so as the variation present in the
2048 gene pool of a population represents the inherent capability to respond to a changing
2049 environment, a loss of which could undermine the adaptive potential of that population and
2050 ultimately the species as a whole (Martinez-Cruz 2011). The host-pathogen interaction
2051 exposes the susceptibility of a population to environmental change due to depauperate
2052 genetic variation (Martinez-Cruz 2011). The most well studied immunological system relates
2053 to the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) which is primarily responsible for encoding
2054 proteins that perform this vital task. The vast diversity exhibited in MHC genes conveys
2055 considerable importance due to their direct impact on the immune function and thus the
2056 viability of individuals and populations (Brownlie and Allan 2011). Immune genes are ideal for
2057 studying the evolutionary processes affecting functional genetic diversity of wild populations
2058 as they represent the most rapidly evolving genes within the genome. Especially so for
2059 vultures, due to their feeding habits and wide range they cover, are exposed to a plethora of
2060 noxious factors (Apanius et al. 1983), and the findings of immunological studies would
2061 contribute to our understanding of the selective pressures imposed by coevolving pathogens.

2062 As regards the second recommendation, the prevailing crisis of biodiversity loss has affected
2063 the old-world vultures to a devastating extent. Populations that thrived prior to their
2064 persecution in the early to mid-1900 over much of Asia and Africa are today close to
2065 extinction. Over the last three generations, populations have declined, and in several regions
2066 of their distribution, they have become locally extinct. One of the chief causes has been listed
2067 as intentional poisoning and unintentional poisoning through veterinary drug use in treating
2068 livestock, or by heavy metal poisoning used in hunters' bullets (Hernández and Margalida
2069 2009). The vultures are exposed to the poison when they feed on carcasses which had
2070 consumed the veterinary drug (Green et al. 2016), or they unintentionally consume metal
2071 fragments with which the animal had been shot. This is either fatal, or if consumed in low
2072 amounts, may have a chronic effect on the health of vulture. Conservation efforts need to be
2073 made aware of those threats which are not immediately perceptible, and which could render
2074 any other form of outward conservation (physical protection, habitat improvement, artificial
2075 food supply) futile. A good indicator of health would be to measure levels of certain stress
2076 hormones (in particular cortisol) and to examine general blood chemistry. Endocrinology is a
2077 useful tool for conservation biologists and animal managers, and measuring glucocorticoids
2078 can help understand biological mechanisms associated with species decline and animal
2079 welfare. Enzyme immunoassays for the non-invasive assessment of glucocorticoid
2080 metabolites have been developed and are known to work successfully over a range of
2081 taxonomic groupings. As few studies have researched this for the endangered bearded
2082 vulture, the aim of a preliminary investigation into this would be to establish some baseline
2083 biochemical and haematological parameters.

Concluding remarks

2084 The thesis presented here analysed and described the current genetic status of the
2085 global bearded vulture population, and focused specifically on placing the southern African
2086 population in context following global vulture decline. The results support the need for a
2087 revision in the conservation of the southern African bearded vultures as being managed as an
2088 isolated population rather than as an entire global population. Furthermore, it contributes to
2089 the genetic knowledge we have of this species, which is vital in guiding and directing any
2090 conservation efforts of the species (Alcaide et al. 2010).

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Appendix

2172 Appendix Table 2.1: Segregation, origin and number of samples used for STRUCTURE analysis;
 2173 groupings given for indication on figures.

Grouping	Pop	Country	Sample Count
1 SA	1	SA	52
2 Eastern Africa	2	Ethiopia	13
	3	Abyssinia	3
	4	Yemen	2
3 Western Africa	5	Morocco	1
	6	Algeria	5
4 South-east Europe	7	Albania	1
	8	Greece	14
	9	Turkey	1
5 Central Asia	10	Caucasus	7
	11	Central Asia	4
	12	Turkestan	5
	13	Kyrgyzstan	2
6 Central Russia	14	Central Russia	11
7 India	15	India	5
8 Mediterranean Islands	16	Crete	1
	17	Corsica	3
	18	Sardinia	30
9 Europe	19	Switzerland	35
	20	Austria	1
	21	Pyrenees	9
	22	France	2
	23	Spain	10

2174 Appendix Table 2.2: Details of 217 bearded vulture samples used in the study. Fix this table,
 2175 the field samples and PhD samples need to be put into same category.

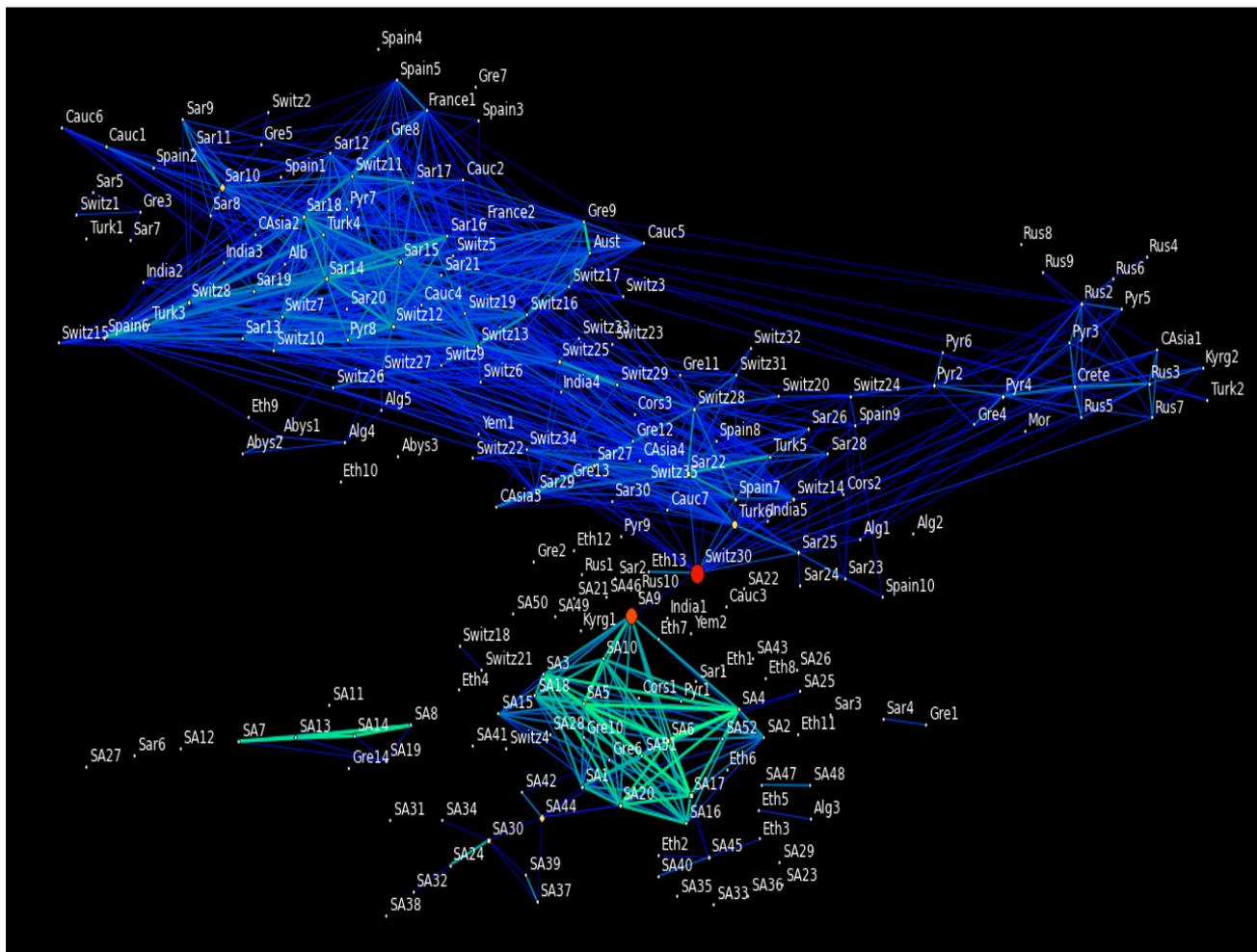
Provided by	Sample name	Catalogue no.	Sample Origin		Collection date	
			Broad Locality	Precise locality if available		
Historic Samples from American Museum of Natural History	A1	SKIN 268806	Ethiopia	Kaka Mt., Arussi	1929	
	A4	SKIN 535811	Sardinia	Urgulei, Ogliastra	1902	
	A5	SKIN 535812	Sardinia	Iglesias	1905	
	A6	SKIN 535813	Sardinia	Ascuentu (Guspini)	1903	
	A7	SKIN 535815	Sardinia	Aritzo	1903	
	A8	SKIN 535817	Greece	Parnes, Attica	1900	
	A9	SKIN 535821	Greece	Parnass, Velitza	1900	
	A11	SKIN 535824	Russia	Goudan, Transcaspian	1900	
	A12	SKIN 535826	Kyrgyzstan	Tian-Shan Mts.	1911	
	A13	SKIN 535830	Yemen	Sôk al Khamis	1913	
	A14	SKIN 535829	Yemen	Sôk al Khamis	1913	
	A16	SKIN 535832	India	Simla, N.W. Himilayas	1913	
	A17	SKIN 535836	Morocco	Djebel Tixa (Atlas)	1905	
	A18	SKIN 535837	Algeria	Djebel Taya, Meskoutine	1909	
	A19	SKIN 535839	Algeria	Kerrata	1904	
	A20	SKIN 535840	Algeria	El Kantara	1909	
	A21	SKIN 535848	Ethiopia	Yeka Hill, Addis Ababa	1926	
	A22	SKIN 535855	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	1914	
	A23	SKIN 535856	Ethiopia	ddis Ababa	1914	
	A25	SKIN 535858	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa	1914	
	S. Krüger	BV001	G22911	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2006
		BV002†	G27343	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007
		BV003	G27341	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007
		BV004†	G27307	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009
		BV005†	G27313	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010
BV006†		G27306	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009	
BV007†		G27378	Lesotho	Lesotho	2012	
BV008		G27308	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009	
BV009†		G27376	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2011	
BV010		G27314	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010	
BV011		BV14 inside	South Africa	NE Free State	2004	
SBV012		BV2002	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2002	
BV013†		G27302	Lesotho	Lesotho	2008	
BV014		BV2009	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2009	
BV015†		G27375	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2011	
BV016†		G27305	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009	
BV017		G27303	Lesotho	Lesotho	2008	
BV018		G27309	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009	

	BV019	12	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2003	
	BV020	6	Lesotho	Lesotho	Not provided	
	BV021	25	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2011	
	BV022	13	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2008	
	BV023	19	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2009	
	BV024	27	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010	
	BV025	11	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2000	
	BV026	10	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007	
	BV027	31.1	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010	
	BV028	31.2	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2010	
	BV029	30	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010	
	BV030	9	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2009	
	BV034	G27382	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012	
	BV035	2.8.12	South Africa	Eastern Cape	2012	
	BV036	G27377	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2012	
	BV037†	G27379	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012	
	BV038	G27381	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2012	
	BV039	G27383	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012	
	BV040†	G27384	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2012	
	BV031	Kolo	Ethiopia	Not provided	2001	
	BV032	Mutt	Ethiopia	Not provided	2001	
	BV033	Putin	Ethiopia	Not provided	2001	
		G27380	South Africa	Not provided	2011	
		34	South Africa	Not provided	Not provided	
		G27319	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010	
		G27310	South Africa	Central Drakensberg	2010	
		G27311	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010	
		G27315	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010	
		G27316	South Africa	Northern Drakensberg	2010	
		G27342	South Africa	Southern Drakensberg	2007	
		BV6	Lesotho	Lesotho	2009	
		BV7	Lesotho	Lesotho	2009	
		BV8	Lesotho	Lesotho	2009	
		BV10	Lesotho	Lesotho	2009	
		BV12	Lesotho	Lesotho	2009	
		g	South Africa	Drakensberg	Not provided	
	DNSM	DNSM 2	South Africa	KZN, Kamberg	1961	
	Naturalis Leiden	L1	L1	Switzerland	Switzerland	Not provided
		L2	L2	Sardinia	Sardinia	Not provided
		L3	L3	Sardinia	Sardinia	Not provided
		L4	L4	Sardinia	Sardinia	Not provided
		L5	L5	Pyrenees	Not provided	Not provided
		L6	L6	Turkey	Not provided	Not provided
		L7	L7	Greece	Not provided	Not provided
	Vulture Conservation	SB1	BG178	Greece	Greece	Not provided
		SB2	BG725	Pyrenees	Pyrenees	Not provided
		SB3	BG131	Russia	Former Soviet Union	Not provided

SB4	BG680	Pyrenees	Aragon Pyrenean	Not provided
SB5	BG065	Crete	Crete	Not provided
SB6	BG132	Russia	Former Soviet Union	Not provided
SB7	BG652	Pyrenees	Aragon Pyrenees	Not provided
SB8	BG551	Pyrenees	Spanish Pyrenees	Not provided
SB9	BG151	Russia	Former Soviet Union	Not provided
SB10	BG482	Kyrgyzstan	Kyrgyzstan	Not provided
SB13	BG022	Russia	Former Soviet Union	Not provided
SB16	BG201	Turkestan	Tadzhikistan	Not provided
SB18	BG003	Central Asia	West-middle Asia	Not provided
SB19	BG199	Russia	Former Soviet Union	Not provided
SB20	BG232	Pyrenees	Spanish Pyrenees	Not provided
SB21	BG014	Russia	Not Provided	Not provided
SB22	BG204	Russia	Not provided	Not provided
SB23	BG153	Russia	Not provided	Not provided
SB24	BG009	Russia	Not provided	Not provided
<hr/>				
S1.1	1	Spain	Sierra Magina	Not provided
S1.2	2	Spain	Sierra Magina	1930
S1.3	3	Switzerland	Glarus	1830
S1.4	4	Caucasus	Caucasus, North Side	1900
S1.6	6	Greece	Greece	1905
S1.7	7	Pyrenees	Pyrenees	1904
S1.9	9	Switzerland	Basel Zoo	1987
S1.10	10	Switzerland	Oberhasli	1805
S1.11	11	Switzerland	Brienzersee	1823
S1.12	12	Switzerland	Zuoz	1854
S1.14	14	Algeria	Algeria	Not provided
S1.15	15	Russia	Russia	1979
S1.16	16	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S1.17	17	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S1.18	18	Corsica	Asco, Haute Corse	1957
S1.19	19	Albania	Lamentite	1920
S1.20	20	Caucasus	Petrowsk	1900
S1.24	24	Greece	Parnio Chasia Ciocha	1899
S1.25	25	Greece	Parnis Chasia Ciocha	1899
S1.26	26	India	Khalatase Ladakh	1929
S1.27	27	India	Ladka	1930
S1.29	29	Caucasus	Nislam	1900
S1.30	30	Sardinia	Ogliastra	1902
S1.31	31	Sardinia	Sardinia	1905
S1.32	32	Sardinia	Sardinia	1901
S1.33	33	Sardinia	Uzzulei	1911
S1.36	36	Central Asia	Thian Shan	1900
S1.39	39	France	Bagnerre de bigore	Not provided
S1.43	43	Spain	South Spain "gaitanes"	1869
S1.44	44	Switzerland	Ftan, Val Tasua	1859
S1.50	50	Ethiopia	Ethiopia	1887

S1.51	51	Sardinia	Sardegna	Not provided
S1.52	52	Sardinia	Colle di Tena, Conoraza	1885
S1.54	54	Sardinia	Sardegna	1901
S1.56	56	Sardinia	Sardegna	1907
S1.57	57	Sardinia	Sardegna	1907
S1.60	60	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1900
S1.61	61	Greece	Greece	1899
S1.63	63	Spain	Sierra	1899
S1.66	66	Pyrenees	Tardet	1896
S1.71	71	Sardinia	Sardinia	1906
S1.73	73	France	Presles. Pont en Royans	Not provided
S1.74	74	Spain	Sierra Magina	1920
S1.77	77	Switzerland	Tessin	1903
S1.78	78	Switzerland	Zermatt, Wallis	1839
S1.79	79	Switzerland	Wallis	1886
S1.80	80	Sardinia	Not provided	1915
S1.81	81	Spain	Not provided	1940
S1.84	84	Switzerland	Oberland	1850
S1.85	85	Switzerland	Brig, Wallis	1833
S1.88	88	Caucasus	Caucasus	1905
S1.89	89	Turkestan	Naryn	1913
S1.90	90	Turkestan	Naryn	1910
S2.92	92	Switzerland	Switzerland	1881
S2.93	93	Switzerland	Switzerland	1891
S2.95	95	Switzerland	Not provided	1981
S2.98	98	Greece	Naundes, Tirol	1871
S2.99	99	Greece	Parnassus	1885
S2.101	101	Sardinia	Not provided	1917
S2.105	105	Caucasus	Caucasus	1904
S2.106	106	Austria	Vorarlberg	Not provided
S2.107	107	Sardinia	Not provided	Not provided
S2.109	109	Switzerland	Andeer	Not provided
S2.110	110	Switzerland	Wattensburg	1852
S2.111	111	Switzerland	Winterthur	1850
S2.113	113	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1911
S2.114	114	Sardinia	Sardinia	1911
S2.115	115	Corsica	Corsica	Not provided
S2.116	116	Switzerland	Not provided	Not provided
S3.2	2	Switzerland	Andeer	2000
S3.6	6	Switzerland	Wattensburg (GR)	1852
S3.7	7	Switzerland	Prättigau	1850 / 1851
S3.8	8	Switzerland	Not provided	2000 / 2001
S3.10	10	Switzerland	Glarus	1830
S3.15	15	Switzerland	Brienzersee	1823
S3.17	17	Switzerland	Zuoz	1854
S3.19	19	Algeria	Algeria	2000
S3.27	27	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959

S3.29	29	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1959
S3.30	30	Corsica	Asco, Haute Corse	1957
S3.32	32	Switzerland	Brig, Wallis	1833
S3.35	35	Switzerland	Oberland, GR	1850
S3.36	36	Switzerland	Switzerland	1881
S3.39	39	Switzerland	Switzerland	1891
S3.45	45	Spain	Sierra nevada	1879
S3.49	49	Ethiopia	Abyssinia	1990
S3.53	53	Spain	Sierra, Spain	1899
S3.55	55	Greece	Greece	1899
S3.58	58	Switzerland	Lausanne, Wallis	1886
S3.60	60	Switzerland	Zermatt, Wallis	1839
S3.62	62	Switzerland	Not provided	1886
S3.65	65	Spain	Benasque	1966
S3.69	69	Sardinia	Sardinia	1915
S3.72	72	Greece	Greece	1904
S3.74	74	Caucasus	Caucasus, North	1900
S3.77	77	Switzerland	Tessin	1903
S3.87	87	Spain	South Spain "gaitanes"	1869
S3.88	88	Greece	Greece	1904
S3.90	90	Pyrenees	Pyrenees	1904
S4.97	97	Switzerland	Ftan, Val Tasua	1859
S4.99	99	India	Kashmir, Ladakh	1929
S4.100	100	India	Kashmir, Ladka	1930
S4.101	101	Sardinia	Sardinia	1905
S4.105	105	Greece	Smolika	1921
S4.106	106	Sardinia	Sardegna	1901
S4.107	107	Sardinia	Sardegna	1907
S4.108	108	Turkestan	Naryn	1910
S4.109	109	Central Asia	Caucasus	1905
S4.120	120	Caucasus	Dagestan	1900
S4.122	122	Sardinia	Not provided	Not provided
S4.125	125	Sardinia	Uzulei	1911
S4.130	130	Central Asia	Not provided	Not provided
S4.133	133	Turkestan	Naryn	1913
S4.138	138	Sardinia	Ogliastra	1902
S4.145	145	Sardinia	Sardinia	1901
S4.147	147	Sardinia	Sardinia	1885



Appendix Figure 2.1: Network constructed of all individual samples ($n = 217$) in EDENetworks. Populations (nodes) are named based on region of origin and are linked by edges which are weighted in proportion to the strength of the genetic linkage.

2176 Appendix Table 4.1: Input parameters for the Vortex model for the southern African bearded
 2177 vulture population

Parameter	Value	Notes
Length of simulation	500	
Iterations	1000	
Extinction depression	One sex remains	
Inbreeding definition	None	
Age at first reproduction	7	Tracking data from one juvenile indicates that reproduction may be initiated at 7 years, but this may also be an indication of a declining population
Maximum breeding age	32 years	Assumed, no data for Maluti-Drakensberg population
Sex ratio at birth	50:50	Assumed
Breeding strategy	Long-term monogamy	
% of adult males in breeding pool	98%	A few nest sites observed with trios, assumed to be two males and one female
% of adult females in breeding pool	72% (Brown 1988; SK unpublished data)	Pairs do not breed every year
Distribution of number of separately sired broods produced by a female in a year	100% of females produce a single clutch; maximum of one chick produced per nesting attempt (Brown 1988)	
Initial population size	408	
Carrying capacity	1000, assumed to remain constant over time with 10% environmental variation	Although the original population was substantially larger, it is unlikely that given food and habitat constraints the population could ever recover to above 1000 birds; nest sites are not limiting; realistically the carrying capacity is likely to continue decreasing because of habitat change and livestock practices, but there will be an increased food provisioning to offset

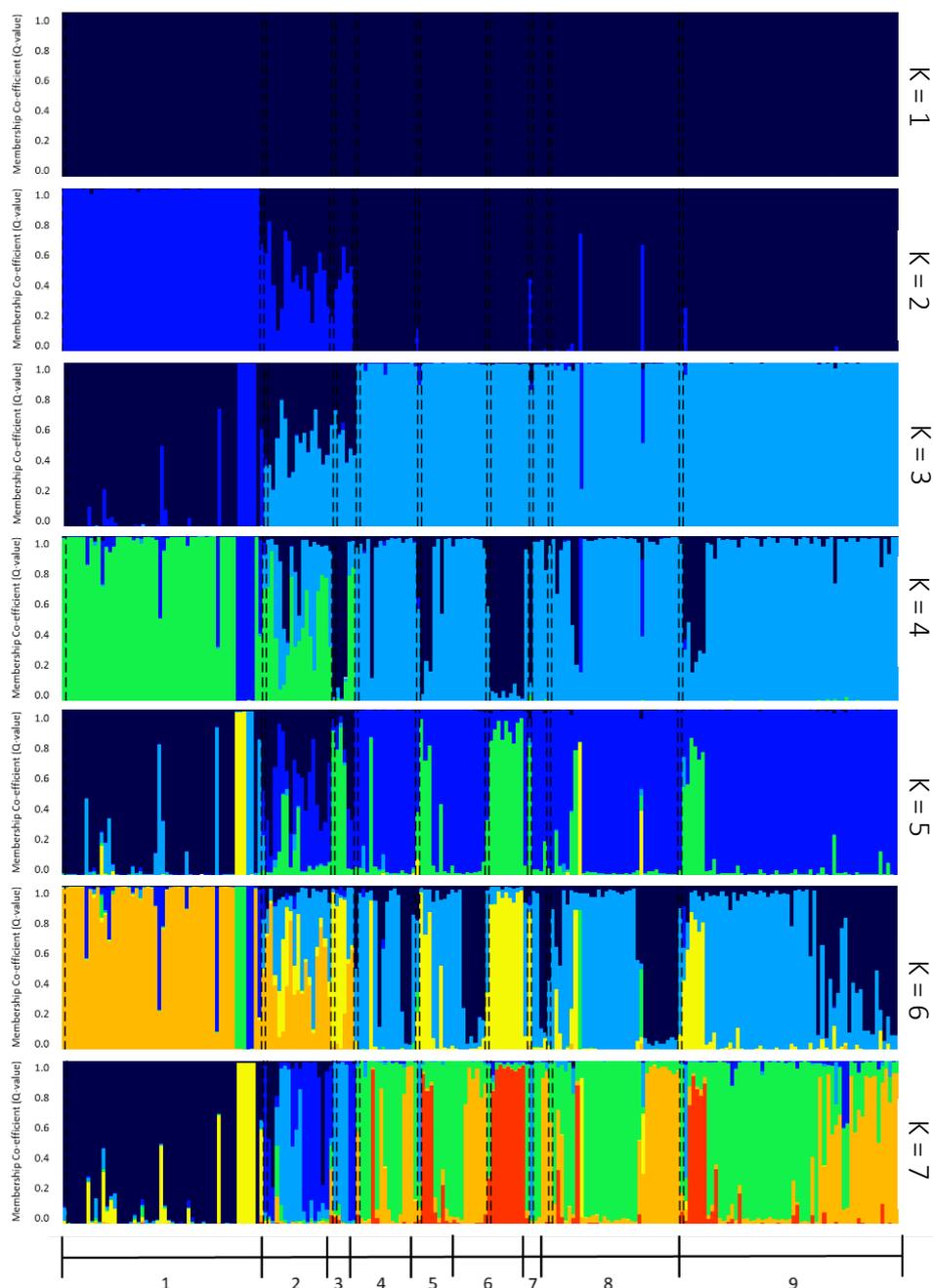
these reductions in food availability

Mortality	Age-specific mortality assumed equal in males and females; environmental variation in reproduction and mortality concordant	See Appendix 4.2 for mortality rates used in baseline and wind farm scenarios
Harvest	None	

2178 Appendix Table 4. 2: Age class mortality parameters used in the Vortex model for bearded

2179 Vulture

Age Class (years)	Mortality (%)	SD
0-1	25.80	38.18
1-2	5.40	37.48
2-3	15.00	42.14
3-4	25.20	47.05
4-5	22.80	41.57
5-6	0.00	0.00
6-7	8.40	30.70
7+	8.40	30.70



Appendix 4.3: A contrast of selected $K = 7$ against lower K -values from the probabilistic Admixed population structure given for 217 *Gypaetus barbatus* collected from across the distribution of the species. Individual vultures have been grouped into broad geographically delineated regions (1- southern Africa; 2- eastern Africa; 3- western Africa; 4- south-east Europe; 5- central Asia; 6- central Russia; 7- northern India, 8- Mediterranean islands; 9- European countries) and are represented by vertical lines which is partitioned into ($K = 7$) coloured segments that represent the estimated membership coefficients (Q-value).

10	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	133	135	117	117	226	226	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	
31.1	217	219	?	?	185	183	?	?	172	172	270	270	?	?	117	117	230	230	187	187	107	107	187	187	253	257	193	193
31.2	217	219	135	135	183	185	134	136	172	172	270	270	117	117	117	117	220	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	253	257	193	193
30	217	219	?	?	183	185	134	136	172	172	270	270	201	201	117	117	230	230	?	?	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
9	217	219	135	135	185	189	134	136	?	?	270	270	193	193	117	117	220	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
G27382	217	217	125	135	183	185	136	136	172	174	270	270	133	135	137	139	230	230	187	187	117	117	187	187	253	251	193	193
Dead_2/08/2012	217	219	135	135	183	185	134	136	172	172	270	270	107	107	117	121	230	230	?	?	107	107	187	187	251	257	193	193
G27377	217	217	135	135	185	183	?	?	?	?	?	?	199	201	117	121	220	220	187	187	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
G27379	217	217	135	160	185	185	136	136	172	172	270	270	?	?	117	117	220	228	187	187	107	107	185	187	253	253	193	193
G27381	217	219	?	?	183	185	136	136	172	174	270	270	117	117	117	117	228	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
G27383	217	219	135	135	185	189	136	134	?	?	270	270	?	?	117	117	228	228	187	187	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
G27384	217	217	?	?	183	185	134	136	172	172	270	270	117	117	117	117	228	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
G27319	217	219	160	160	185	189	134	136	168	172	260	270	121	121	117	117	220	220	187	187	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
G27310	217	217	135	135	185	187	?	?	?	?	?	?	121	121	137	139	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	187	187
G27311	217	217	135	160	183	185	134	136	172	172	270	270	?	?	117	117	228	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	253	253	193	193
G27315	217	217	?	?	183	189	136	136	172	172	270	270	?	?	117	117	228	228	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	193	193
G27316	217	219	135	160	183	185	136	136	168	172	270	270	?	?	117	117	228	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	253	255	193	193
G27342	217	217	135	160	187	189	134	136	166	172	260	270	133	135	117	121	220	220	187	187	107	107	185	187	251	253	193	193
BV6	213	213	135	135	157	157	114	114	170	170	280	280	109	109	129	129	260	260	153	153	109	109	159	159	255	257	191	191
BV7	213	213	130	135	157	157	114	114	170	170	280	280	105	109	123	129	230	230	?	?	109	109	143	143	231	231	191	191
BV8	213	213	135	135	157	157	114	114	170	170	280	280	105	109	129	129	230	230	?	?	109	109	143	143	231	231	191	191
BV10	209	209	125	140	163	165	120	120	180	180	274	276	121	121	139	139	262	262	179	179	105	105	159	161	?	?	187	187
BV12	213	213	130	155	163	165	120	120	178	178	274	274	121	121	139	139	262	264	179	179	105	105	161	161	?	?	187	187
g	?	?	?	?	?	?	134	136	166	172	270	270	?	?	117	117	222	222	187	187	107	117	187	187	251	253	?	?
DNSM 2	217	217	135	135	163	185	120	120	138	138	164	164	117	121	121	121	228	228	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
Kolo	217	217	125	135	181	183	134	136	180	180	?	?	?	?	117	121	230	230	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	193	193
Mutt	217	217	135	135	181	183	124	136	168	174	270	270	133	135	121	121	220	220	?	?	107	107	187	189	251	253	193	193
Putin	217	219	135	135	181	183	134	136	168	174	260	270	?	?	?	?	220	220	187	187	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
A1	?	?	125	135	185	187	128	132	?	?	?	?	117	119	117	117	228	228	?	?	?	?	?	?	251	251	?	?

A13	217	219	135	135	177	179	132	132	?	?	270	270	113	113	?	?	228	228	?	?	?	?	175	177	?	?	193	193
A14	219	219	135	135	177	179	130	132	172	172	270	270	111	113	117	121	228	228	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	191	193
A17	217	217	135	135	179	179	130	130	172	172	270	270	111	113	121	121	228	228	?	?	107	107	173	175	251	253	193	195
A18	217	219	135	135	183	185	128	130	172	172	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	228	179	179	107	107	173	175	253	255	193	193
A19	?	?	?	?	?	?	130	130	172	172	274	274	113	113	117	121	228	228	179	179	107	107	173	175	?	?	193	193
A20	?	?	?	?	?	?	130	136	172	172	270	270	111	111	?	?	228	228	179	179	107	107	181	183	251	253	193	193
A21	?	?	?	?	?	?	130	136	172	172	270	270	?	?	?	?	228	228	179	179	107	107	181	183	251	253	191	193
A22	?	?	?	?	?	?	134	136	172	172	270	270	123	123	117	121	228	228	?	?	107	107	179	181	251	253	193	193
A23	217	217	?	?	181	183	124	136	172	172	?	?	?	?	121	121	?	?	178	178	107	107	175	177	271	271	193	193
A25	?	?	?	?	179	183	134	136	172	172	?	?	111	113	121	121	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
A4	?	?	135	135	183	185	124	124	172	172	?	?	?	?	117	121	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	247	247	?	?
A5	?	?	135	135	177	179	128	132	?	?	?	?	115	115	117	117	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
A6	?	?	135	140	183	185	128	132	172	172	?	?	113	115	121	121	228	228	?	?	?	?	171	173	247	249	?	?
A7	217	217	135	135	183	185	130	132	?	?	?	?	113	115	117	121	228	228	?	?	?	?	171	173	247	247	?	?
A8	217	217	135	135	181	183	128	130	?	?	?	?	115	115	121	121	228	228	?	?	?	?	173	175	245	247	?	?
A9	217	219	?	?	185	187	130	132	?	?	270	270	115	115	115	115	?	?	?	?	?	?	171	175	249	257	193	195
A11	217	219	135	135	179	183	128	132	?	?	270	270	113	115	121	121	?	?	?	?	?	?	169	171	249	251	193	193
A12	?	?	?	?	183	185	132	132	?	?	?	?	111	113	121	121	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	191	191
A16	?	?	?	?	?	?	130	134	172	172	274	274	111	113	117	121	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	193	193
L1	217	217	?	?	177	181	130	132	?	?	270	270	113	115	117	121	228	230	182	188	107	107	175	179	249	249	?	?
L2	217	219	125	125	177	177	130	132	?	?	270	270	113	113	117	117	224	230	188	190	107	109	173	179	247	249	?	?
L3	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	115	117	117	121	?	?	?	?	107	109	?	?	?	?	?	?
L4	217	217	130	130	181	185	128	130	?	?	270	270	113	113	117	121	230	230	182	190	107	107	173	175	251	253	?	?
L5	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	274	274	?	?	117	121	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
L6	135	135	125	130	183	185	130	132	?	?	270	270	117	119	121	121	230	230	182	192	107	107	173	173	239	241	?	?
L7	217	219	?	?	185	191	128	132	?	?	270	270	113	117	117	117	230	230	182	190	107	107	173	175	247	249	?	?
SB1	217	219	135	135	179	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	115	121	121	228	228	182	188	107	107	171	173	257	257	195	195
SB2	217	219	135	135	179	187	107	109	172	172	270	270	115	117	121	121	226	228	182	182	107	107	173	175	241	249	195	197
SB3	215	217	135	135	179	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	117	228	230	182	182	107	107	175	175	253	255	193	193
SB4	217	219	135	135	179	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	121	228	230	182	182	107	107	173	173	249	249	193	193

SB5	217	219	135	135	183	187	109	109	172	172	270	270	111	113	117	121	226	228	182	190	107	107	171	173	249	251	193	193
SB6	217	219	135	135	179	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	121	121	230	230	182	188	107	107	171	173	257	257	193	193
SB7	217	219	135	135	179	183	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	119	121	121	228	228	182	190	107	107	173	175	249	257	193	195
SB8	217	219	135	135	185	191	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	121	121	230	230	182	184	107	107	173	175	249	263	193	197
SB9	217	219	135	135	183	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	121	228	228	188	188	107	107	171	173	249	251	193	193
SB10	217	219	135	135	179	183	109	109	172	172	270	270	111	113	117	121	228	228	188	188	?	?	173	175	249	251	193	193
SB13	215	217	135	135	181	183	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	117	228	228	?	?	107	107	?	?	?	?	193	195
SB16	217	219	135	135	183	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	115	115	117	121	230	230	188	188	107	107	173	173	249	249	193	193
SB18	217	219	135	135	183	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	121	121	228	228	188	188	107	107	175	177	245	251	193	195
SB19	217	219	135	135	181	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	169	171	249	251	193	193
SB20	217	219	135	135	179	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	117	117	121	121	226	228	182	182	107	107	175	175	263	265	195	195
SB21	215	217	135	135	179	181	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	230	?	?	107	107	?	?	249	257	193	193
SB22	215	217	135	135	183	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	121	228	228	188	188	107	107	175	175	243	249	193	195
SB23	159	159	130	135	181	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	228	?	?	107	107	175	175	245	249	193	193
SB24	159	159	135	135	179	185	109	109	172	172	270	270	113	113	117	117	228	228	188	194	107	107	173	175	251	257	193	193
S1	217	219	135	135	179	191	124	124	172	172	270	270	117	119	121	121	230	230	180	180	107	107	171	173	249	251	193	193
S2	215	217	135	135	183	187	128	132	172	172	270	270	115	115	117	121	230	230	180	182	107	107	173	173	249	251	193	193
S3	215	217	135	135	183	187	126	126	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	121	230	230	182	182	107	107	173	173	249	251	195	195
S4	217	221	135	135	181	187	130	132	172	172	270	270	115	115	117	121	230	230	188	190	107	107	171	173	245	249	193	193
S6	217	219	135	135	185	187	128	130	172	172	270	270	115	115	115	121	230	230	182	182	107	107	173	173	245	251	195	195
S7	217	219	135	135	185	191	128	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	182	194	107	107	173	177	247	249	193	193
S9	215	217	135	135	179	185	130	130	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	188	188	107	107	177	179	249	257	193	193
S10	?	?	135	135	183	185	?	?	?	?	?	?	117	119	?	?	230	230	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	193	195
S11	?	?	?	?	?	?	124	134	174	174	?	?	115	115	?	?	226	230	188	188	107	107	171	179	?	?	?	?
S12	215	217	135	135	179	181	128	128	174	174	270	270	111	117	?	?	230	230	188	188	107	107	?	?	251	257	193	195
S14	215	217	135	135	181	183	136	136	174	174	270	270	123	125	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	?	?	251	253	193	193
S15	?	?	?	?	?	?	132	132	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?											193	193
S16	215	217	135	135	181	183	130	136	174	174	?	?	123	125	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	177	179	253	255	193	193
S17	?	?	135	135	181	183	136	136	174	174	?	?	123	125	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	?	?	251	253	193	193
S18	?	?	?	?	157	157	116	116	170	170	?	?	113	115	?	?	230	230	?	?	109	109	?	?	?	?	191	191

S19	175	175	135	135	185	187	128	130	174	174	?	?	113	115	?	?	228	230			107	107	?	?	?	?	195	195
S20	215	217	135	135	179	185	132	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	182	188	107	107	171	171	241	249	193	193
S24	?	?	?	?	175	175	?	?	174	174	?	?	113	115	?	?	230	240			?	?			243	245	?	?
S25	?	?	135	135	179	185	132	132	174	174	270	270	113	119	?	?	?	?	182	182	107	107			?	?	193	193
S26	215	217	135	135	179	185	130	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	109	179	179	249	255	193	193
S27	217	219	135	135	179	181	132	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	?	?	107	107	175	177	247	249	193	193
S29	217	217	135	135	179	183	130	130	172	172	270	270	113	115	?	?	?	?	182	188	107	107	171	171	247	249	193	195
S30	215	217	135	135	185	191	132	132	172	172	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	188	190	107	107	171	177	247	249	193	195
S31	217	219	135	135	185	191	124	128	172	172	270	270	113	117	?	?	230	230	182	190	107	109	173	173	245	247	193	193
S32	217	219	135	135	185	191	128	132	172	172	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	180	182	107	107	173	175	247	249	193	195
S33	217	219	135	135	185	191	124	132	172	172	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	109	175	177	245	247	193	195
S36	217	219	135	135	?	?	132	132	174	174	?	?	113	115	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	107	?	?	249	249	193	193
S39	217	219	135	135	183	185	124	132	174	174	270	270	117	119	?	?	228	230	182	182	107	107	173	177	249	251	193	197
S43	217	219	135	135	179	185	130	130	174	174	270	270	113	119	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	107	173	177	239	241	?	?
S44	215	217	135	135	187	191	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	173	177	245	247	193	195
S50	217	217	135	135	179	183	136	136	174	174	?	?	?	?	?	?	230	230	184	184	107	107	?	?	?	?	193	193
S51	217	219	135	135	179	183	128	128	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	182	190	107	109	173	173	247	257	193	195
S52	215	217	135	135	173	187	128	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	188	194	107	107	175	177	243	251	193	195
S54	217	219	135	135	185	191	124	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	230	188	190	107	107	173	175	245	247	193	195
S56	217	219	135	135	183	185	124	132	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	230	188	190	107	107	177	179	255	247	193	195
S57	217	219	135	135	183	185	132	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	188	190	107	107	173	175	245	247	193	195
S60	217	217	135	135	181	183	124	124	174	174	270	270	?	?	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	?	?	251	251	193	193
S61	215	217	135	135	181	183	128	132	174	174	270	270	111	115	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	107	177	179	249	251	193	195
S63	217	217	135	135	177	179	124	124	174	174	270	270	117	117	?	?	230	238	182	182	107	107	171	171	249	251	195	195
S66	217	219	135	135	183	185	?	?	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	175	177	245	247	193	195
S71	217	219	135	135	179	191	132	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	107	171	173	245	247	193	195
S73	217	217	135	135	183	185	128	132	174	174	?	?	113	113	?	?	230	230	182	190	107	107	173	175	245	247	193	193
S74	217	219	135	135	179	183	124	124	174	174	270	270	117	119	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	107	173	175	251	253	193	195
S77	217	219	135	135	179	185	128	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	188	192	107	109	171	173	247	249	193	195
S78	217	217	135	135	181	189	128	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	182	188	107	107	173	177	241	243	193	193

S79	215	217	135	135	179	183	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	238	182	188	107	107	175	177	243	247	193	193	
S80	217	219	135	135	189	191	128	132	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	230	182	190	107	107	175	179	247	249	193	195	
S81	217	219	135	135	179	183	128	130	174	174	270	270	113	119	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	169	171	249	255	193	195	
S84	215	217	135	135	179	181	128	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	182	182	107	107	173	175	247	249	193	195	
S85	217	219	135	135	181	183	128	132	174	174	270	270	111	115	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	173	175	245	247	193	195	
S88	217	219	135	135	185	187	132	132	174	174	270	270	111	115	?	?	230	230	180	182	107	107	173	173	247	249	195	195	
S89	217	219	135	135	179	185	128	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	169	171	255	257	193	195	
S90	217	219	135	135	185	191	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	190	194	107	107	171	179	247	249	193	195	
S92	217	219	135	135	179	181	124	128	174	174	270	270	111	115	?	?	230	230	182	188	107	107	171	177	241	243	193	195	
S93	215	217	135	135	183	191	124	132	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	228	228	188	194	107	109	171	173	247	249	193	195	
S95	215	217	135	135	181	183	126	126	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	171	175	243	249	193	193	
S98	215	217	135	135	177	179	124	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	173	175	255	257	193	193	
S99	217	217	?	?	183	183	124	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230			?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	
S101	217	219	135	135	185	191	124	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	230	230	182	188	107	107	171	175	247	249	193	193	
S105	215	217	135	135	177	179	132	132	174	174	270	270	113	117	?	?	230	230	188	190	107	107	173	175	241	243	193	193	
S106	215	217	135	135	177	179	124	128	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	188	188	107	107	173	175	255	257	193	193	
S107	?	?	135	135	177	185	124	128	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	?	?	107	107	?	?	255	257	193	195	
S109	217	219	135	135	177	179	124	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	?	?	230	230	188	188	107	107	175	177	239	241	193	195	
S110	215	217	135	135	177	179	124	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	?	?	230	230	188	188	107	107	177	177	255	257	193	195	
S111	217	219	135	135	179	181	?	?	?	?	?	?															195	195	
S113	215	217	135	135	181	183	136	136	174	174	270	270	121	121	?	?	228	228	188	188	107	107	?	?	251	255	193	193	
S114	217	219	135	135	179	183	?	?	174	174	270	270	113	115	?	?	230	230	188	190	107	109	175	177	255	257	195	195	
S115	217	219	135	135	183	185	124	124	174	174	270	270	113	113	?	?	228	228	?	?	107	107	173	173	243	249	195	195	
S116	217	219	135	135	179	181	124	128	174	174	270	270	117	117	?	?	230	230	186	188	107	107	175	177	239	241	193	193	
S2	217	219	135	135	179	179	124	128	174	174	270	270	115	121	121	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	187	241	241	193	195	
S6	217	219	135	135	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	193	195
S7	217	219	135	135	179	181	128	134	172	174	270	270	115	115	117	121	228	228	170	174	?	?	185	187	245	247	195	195	
S8	217	219	135	135	?	?	124	128	174	174	270	270	117	117	117	121	230	230	174	176	?	?	185	187	239	241	193	193	
S10	217	219	135	135	173	179	124	128	172	172	270	270	113	115	121	121	228	228	182	184	105	107	181	183	241	241	193	195	
S15	217	219	135	135	179	181	124	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	117	121	230	230	182	184	107	107	181	187	241	247	193	193	

S17	215	217	135	135	179	181	128	128	174	174	270	270	111	111	117	121	230	230	186	188	107	107	187	187	251	257	193	195
S19	215	217	135	135	183	183	134	136	174	174	270	270	117	125	117	121	230	230	186	188	107	107	187	187	251	253	193	193
S27	217	219	135	135	?	?	?	?	?	?	270	270	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	103	105	?	?	?	?	193	193
S29	217	219	135	135	?	?	?	?	?	?	270	270	?	?	?	?	?	?	186	188	107	107	187	187	253	255	193	193
S30	217	219	135	135	?	?	130	136	172	174	272	276	105	111	119	119	228	228	182	182	109	109	181	187	?	?	191	191
S32	217	219	135	135	181	183	128	132	174	174	270	270	111	115	121	121	230	230	186	188	107	107	185	187	253	257	193	195
S35	217	219	135	135	179	181	128	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	117	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	187	245	247	193	195
S36	217	219	135	135	179	181	124	128	174	174	270	270	111	115	117	117	230	230	182	182	107	107	181	187	243	247	193	195
S39	215	217	135	135	183	191	124	132	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	121	226	228	186	188	107	107	187	187	247	249	193	195
S45	215	217	135	135	181	183	128	132	174	174	270	270	115	115	117	121	228	228	188	190	107	107	187	189	247	249	193	195
S49	217	217	135	135	183	183	122	124	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	121	?	?	186	188	107	107	187	187	247	249	193	193
S53	215	217	135	135	183	191	124	124	174	174	270	270	113	115	121	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	187	247	249	195	195
S55	215	217	135	135	183	183	128	132	174	174	270	270	111	115	121	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	181	249	251	193	195
S58	215	217	135	135	179	183	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	121	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	187	243	247	193	193
S60	217	219	135	135	?	?	128	128	174	174	270	270	115	115	121	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	187	241	243	193	193
S62	217	217	135	135	181	183	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	121	121	230	230	182	182	107	107	185	187	243	247	193	193
S65	215	217	135	135	179	185	128	132	172	172	270	270	113	117	121	121	228	228	182	182	107	107	181	181	249	251	193	195
S69	217	219	135	135	189	191	128	132	174	174	270	270	113	115	117	121	228	228	178	182	107	107	187	189	247	249	193	195
S72	215	217	135	135	181	187	130	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	117	117	228	228	172	172	107	107	181	187	245	249	193	195
S74	217	221	135	135	181	187	130	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	117	121	230	230	170	172	107	107	189	189	245	249	193	193
S77	217	219	135	135	179	185	128	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	228	170	172	?	?	181	189	247	249	193	195
S87	217	219	135	135	179	185	130	130	172	172	270	270	113	119	121	121	228	228	172	172	107	107	181	181	239	241	193	195
S88	217	217	135	135	185	187	128	130	174	174	270	270	115	115	121	121	228	228	170	172	107	107	181	181	245	249	195	195
S90	217	219	135	135	?	?	128	132	174	174	270	270	?	?	?	?	?	?	172	174	107	107	181	187	247	249	193	193
S97	215	217	135	135	187	191	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	121	121	228	230	172	176	107	107	187	187	245	247	193	195
S99	217	217	135	135	179	185	130	132	174	174	270	270	113	113	117	117	230	230	172	176	107	107	181	187	247	249	193	193
S100	217	219	135	135	179	181	132	132	172	172	270	270	113	113	121	121	228	228	?	?	107	107	187	187	247	249	193	193
S101	217	219	135	135	185	191	124	128	172	172	270	270	113	117	121	121	228	228	172	172	107	107	181	189	245	247	193	193
S105	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	107	109	?	?	?	?	195	195
S106	?	?	?	?	185	185	124	128	172	172	270	270	113	115	117	117	228	228	172	174	107	107	187	189	245	247	193	195

S107	217	219	135	135	185	185	130	132	172	172	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	230	172	174	107	107	187	189	245	247	193	195
S108	217	219	135	135	185	191	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	115	117	121	226	228	170	178	107	107	189	189	247	249	193	195
S109	217	219	135	135	185	187	132	132	174	174	270	270	111	115	117	121	228	230	172	172	107	107	181	181	247	249	195	195
S120	217	219	135	135	?	?	128	132	174	174	270	270	113	115	117	121	226	228	170	170	107	107	181	187	249	249	193	193
S122	217	219	135	135	179	183	128	128	172	174	270	270	115	115	117	121	226	268	172	172	107	107	181	189	245	247	193	195
S125	217	219	135	135	179	185	124	132	174	174	270	270	113	115	117	121	228	228	174	176	107	107	181	181	247	249	193	195
S130	?	?	?	?	?	?	128	128	174	174	270	270	113	117	117	117	228	228	180	182	107	107	187	187	?	?	193	193
S133	217	219	135	135	179	185	128	132	172	174	270	270	113	113	117	121	228	230	168	170	107	107	187	187	249	251	193	195
S138	215	217	135	135	185	191	130	132	172	174	270	270	115	115	117	117	228	230	170	170	107	107	189	189	247	249	193	195
S145	217	219	135	135	185	191	128	132	174	174	270	270	115	117	117	117	228	230	172	174	107	107	181	181	247	249	193	195
S147	215	217	135	135	187	187	128	128	172	174	270	270	115	115	117	117	228	230	174	176	107	107	187	187	241	243	193	195