

Original Research Article

A Revertant of the Major Founder Native American Haplogroup C Common in Populations From Northern South America

MARIA M. TORRES,¹ CLAUDIO M. BRAVI,² MARIA-CÁTIRA BORTOLINI,³ CONSTANZA DUQUE,⁴ SIDIA CALLEGARI-JACQUES,⁵ DANIEL ORTIZ,⁴ GABRIEL BEDOYA,⁴ HELENA GROOT DE RESTREPO,¹¹ AND ANDRÉS RUIZ-LINARES^{4,6*}

¹Laboratorio de Genética Humana, Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá, Colombia

²Laboratorio de Genética Molecular Poblacional, Instituto Multidisciplinario de Biología Celular (IMBICE), La Plata, Argentina

³Departamento de Genética, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, Brazil

⁴Laboratorio de Genética Molecular, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia

⁵Departamento de Estatística, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, Brazil

⁶The Galton Laboratory, University College, London, United Kingdom

ABSTRACT We examined the mtDNA RFLP diversity of 17 Native American populations from Colombia. Five of the populations studied were found to have variable frequencies of a mtDNA type lacking the characteristic changes of haplogroups A–D. Sequencing of mtDNA HVS-I and II showed that this “null” RFLP type carries all the substitutions characteristic of Native American founder lineage C. A back mutation has therefore recreated the +13,259 *HincII*–13,262 *AluI* restriction sites that typify RFLP haplogroup C. This revertant C lineage is further characterized by three changes in HVS-II sequence: C/T transitions at positions 115 and 152, and the deletion of an A residue at position 116. This lineage is observed at high frequency mostly in populations from Greenberg’s Equatorial–Tucano linguistic family. Genetic structure analyses are consistent with the reversion mutation occurring at an early stage during the tribalization process. *Am. J. Hum. Biol.* 18:59–65, 2006. © 2005 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) analyses are being used extensively to examine the diversification of human populations, including the timing and pattern of initial peopling of the American continent, and the relationship of genetic data to archaeological and linguistic information (Cavalli-Sforza and Feldman, 2003; Cavalli-Sforza et al., 1994; Crawford, 1998). Several continent-wide surveys of Native American mtDNA variation, both at the restriction enzyme and DNA sequence levels have shown that the great majority of mtDNAs in the Americas can be assigned to one of four major lineages (A–D) (Ginther et al., 1993; Horai et al., 1993; Torroni et al., 1992, 1993a). At the restriction level, lineage A is characterized by a *HaeIII* site gain at position 663; lineage B by a 9-bp *COII*/*tRNA^{Lys}* intergenic deletion; lineage C by a *HincII* site loss and a *AluI* site gain at positions 13,259 and 13,262, respectively, and lineage D by an *AluI* site loss at position 5,176. At the sequence level, lineages A–D have been defined by specific nucleotide changes in the hypervariable segments of

the mtDNA D-loop (Bandelt et al., 2003; Forster et al., 1996; Horai et al., 1993; Torroni et al., 1993a). These four lineages are also present in Asian populations, consistent with their introduction in the Americas by the first migrants from Asia (Ballinger et al., 1992; Kolman et al., 1996; Torroni et al., 1993b, 1994).

To date, surveys of Native American mtDNA diversity using RFLPs have examined a considerably larger number of individuals and populations than those based on DNA sequencing. Interestingly, RFLP surveys have not infrequently reported

Contract grant sponsor: Colciencias; Contract grant number: 1115-05-132-94; Contract grant sponsor: Universidad de Antioquia; Contract grant number: CODI 3772.

*Correspondence to: Dr. Andrés Ruiz-Linares, The Galton Laboratory, University College, London, 4 Stephenson Way, London NW1 2HE, United Kingdom. E-mail: a.ruizlin@ucl.ac.uk

Received 26 April 2005; Revision received 15 August 2005; Accepted 1 September 2005

Published online in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com). DOI: 10.1002/ajhb.20461

mtDNA haplotypes lacking the changes characteristic of haplogroups A–D, particularly in South America (Bailliet et al., 1994; Easton et al., 1996; Keyeux et al., 2002; Merriwether and Ferrell, 1996; Merriwether et al., 2000; Torroni et al., 1993a). Other than resulting from experimental problems (contamination and/or mistyping), these “null” haplotypes (sometimes denoted E, N, or X) could represent unrecognized founder lineages, recent non-Amerindian admixture or reversion mutations affecting the RFLP changes characteristic of lineages A–D. Unfortunately, these various explanations have not been systematically tested, usually because most RFLP surveys lack mtDNA sequence information.

Here we examined the mtDNA diversity of 17 Native Colombian populations by typing the RFLP changes characteristic of haplogroups A–D. Several populations from Eastern Colombia showed mtDNA type lacking the mutations characteristic of haplogroups A–D. Sequencing of mtDNA hypervariable segments I and II identified this “null” haplogroup as a revertant of founder lineage C.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

Populations studied

The linguistic affiliation and approximate geographic location of the 17 popula-

tions studied are shown in Table 1 and Fig. 1, respectively. Additional anthropological information about these populations can be obtained in Moreno et al. (1993). Samples of Embera, Wayuu, and Zenu were available in the laboratory of A.R.L. as anonymous DNA samples. For the other populations, samples had been collected from consenting individuals by H.G. de R. in 1987/1988, anonymized, and stored as frozen whole blood, red blood cells, white blood cells, or plasma. Genomic DNA was extracted from these last samples using Chelex 100 (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) according to the protocol of the supplier. This research was approved by the ethics committees of Universidad de Antioquia and Universidad de Los Andes.

RFLP analysis

Four regions of human mtDNA were amplified by PCR using the primers reported by Bailliet et al. (1994), except for primer MiH13437 which was modified based on a difference with the Andrews et al. (1999) revised Reference Sequence (5'-AGGTATGGTTTTGAGTAGTCCT-3'). Each amplification reaction was carried out using 5–10 ng of total DNA, 10 pmol of each primer, 200 μ M dNTPs (Promega), 250 μ g/ml BSA, 2 mM MgCl₂, and 1.5 U of *Taq* polymerase (Gibco-BRL) in a final volume of 25 μ l. Thirty cycles of 94°C (1

TABLE 1. Frequency of the mtDNA haplogroups in the 17 Native Colombian populations examined and two proposed linguistic classifications for these populations

Population	n	A	B	C	D	Null	Campbell	Greenberg	
								Family	Subfamily
1 Cubeo	22	0.27	0.18	0.5	0.05	0	Tucanoan	Equatorial-Tucano	Macro-tucano
2 Curripaco	5	0	0	1	0	0	Maipurean	Equatorial-Tucano	Equatorial
3 Desano	2	0.5	0	0	0.5	0	Tucanoan	Equatorial-Tucano	Macro-tucano
4 Embera	22	0.76	0.24	0	0	0	Chocoan	Chibcha-Paez	Paezan
5 Guahibo	9	0.44	0	0.11	0	0.45	Guahiboan	Equatorial-Tucano	Equatorial
6 Huitoto	13	0.15	0	0.31	0.46	0.08	Huitotan	Ge-Pano-Carib	Macrocarib
7 Ingano	43	0.12	0.46	0.42	0	0	Quechuan	Andino	Quechuan
8 Jebero	1	0	0	1	0	0	Cahuapapanan	Andino	Cahuapapanan
9 Ocaina	2	0	0	1	0	0	Huitoan	Ge-Pano-Carib	Macrocarib
10 Paez	20	0.6	0.2	0.15	0.05	0	Paezan	Chibcha-Paez	Paezan
11 Piapoco	39	0.18	0.03	0.15	0.05	0.59	Maipurean	Equatorial-Tucano	Equatorial
12 Puinave	19	0.05	0.16	0.58	0.16	0.05	Puinavean	Equatorial-Tucano	Macro-tucano
13 Saliva	13	0.15	0	0.54	0.15	0.15	Salivan	Equatorial-Tucano	Equatorial
14 Ticuna	74	0.15	0.23	0.38	0.24	0	Yuri-Ticunan	Equatorial-Tucano	Macro-tucano
15 Wayuu	40	0.25	0.36	0.39	0	0	Maipurean	Equatorial-Tucano	Equatorial
16 Yagua	12	0.25	0	0.67	0.08	0	Yaguan	Ge-Pano-Carib	Macrocarib
17 Zenu*	36	0.22	0.41	0.31	0.06	0	?	?	?

Note: The Zenu currently speak Spanish, and the affiliation of the language originally spoken by this population is uncertain.

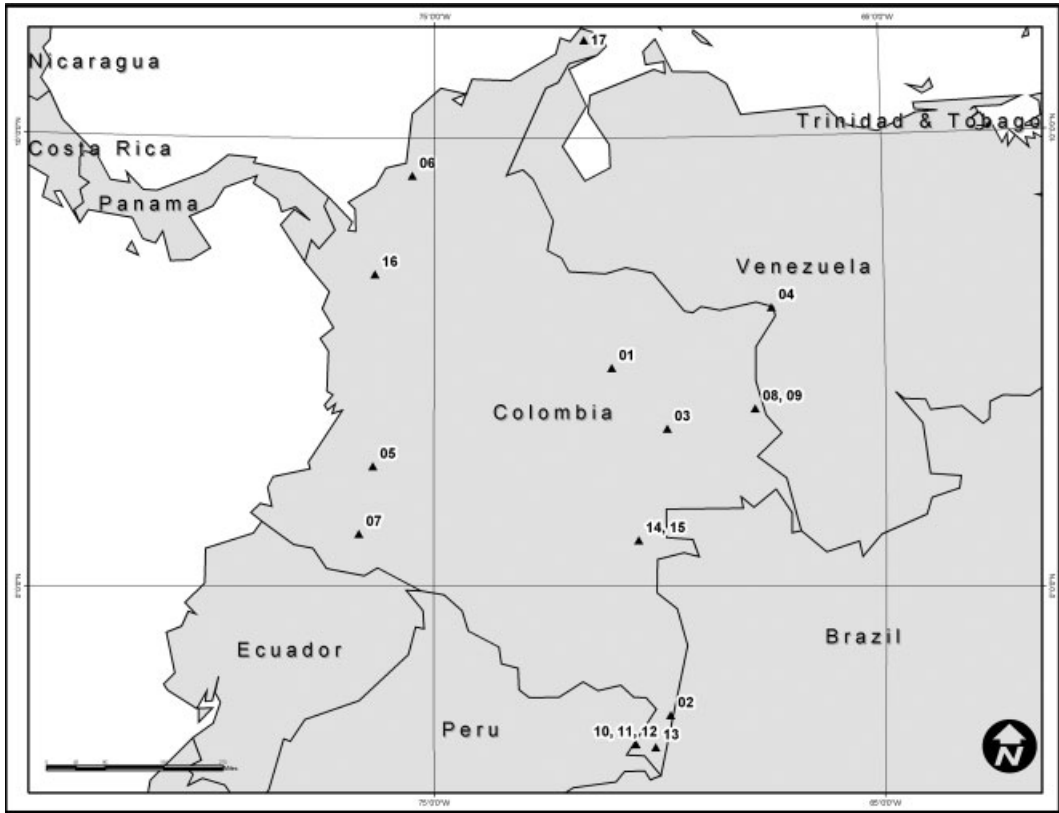


Fig. 1. Map of Colombia showing the approximate geographic location of the 17 Native American populations studied: 1, Cubeo; 2, Currupaco; 3, Desano; 4, Embera; 5, Guahibo; 6, Huitoto; 7, Inghano; 8, Jebero; 9, Ocaina; 10, Paez; 11, Piapoco; 12, Puinave; 13, Saliva; 14, Ticuna; 15, Wayuu; 16, Yagua; 17, Zenu.

min), 53°C (1 min), and 72°C (1 min) were followed by a final 5 min at 72°C. The four DNA fragments containing polymorphic sites diagnostic of haplogroups A, C, and D were digested using 13.3 μ l of PCR product, 2 units of enzyme and 1.5 μ l of buffer (10 \times) for 12 h at 37°C. Digested products were resolved in a 2.5% agarose gel, stained with ethidium bromide, and visualized by UV. The 9-bp COII-tRNA intergenic deletion polymorphisms characteristic of haplogroup B was typed by running the PCR products on a 12% polyacrylamide gel followed by ethidium bromide staining and UV visualization.

Sequencing

The hypervariable regions 1 and 2 (HV1 and HV2) of the D-loop were sequenced

between nucleotides 16024–16394 (HV1) and 66–408 (HV2). Briefly, 10 ng of DNA was amplified with the primers HV1 (reported by Ward et al., 1991) and HV2 (reported by Kolman et al., 1995), respectively. The PCR product was purified by standard protocols and subjected to either fluorescent or radioactive sequencing.

Data analysis

Sequences were aligned manually. Diversity analyses were performed using the Arlequin program v. 2.0. A median-joining network analysis of the DNA sequences was carried out with the NETWORK 3.1 program (Bandelt et al., 1999).

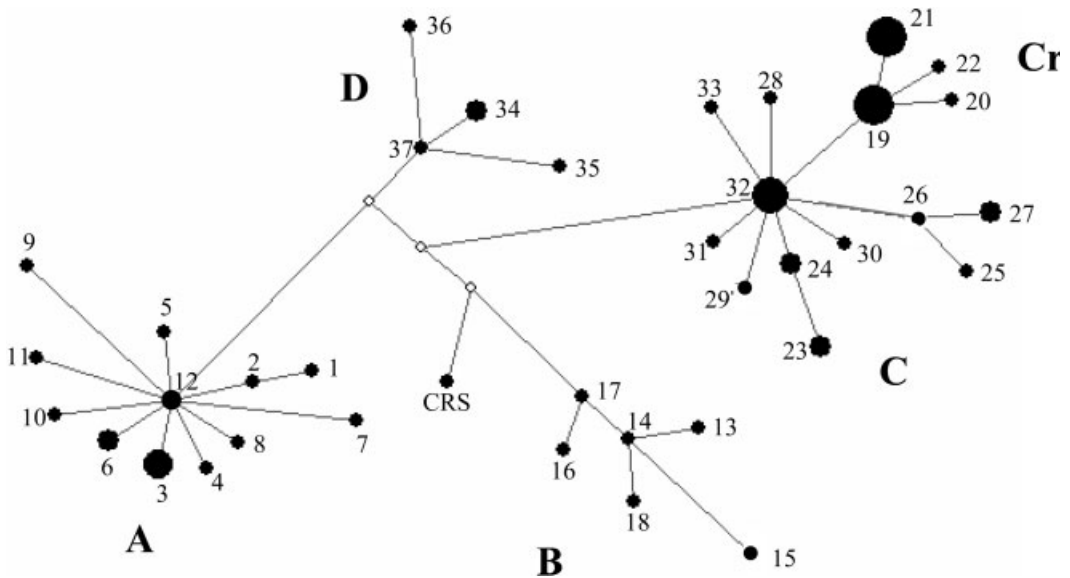


Fig. 3. Phylogenetic relationship of the 37 mtDNA HVS-I/II sequences shown in Fig. 2. Circle size is proportional to sequence frequency in the sample (CRS, Cambridge Reference Sequence).

lations examined (and corresponding to the founder C_1 sequence seen across the Americas). The other three revertant sequences represent one-step derivatives of sequence 19, with two of these (20 and 22) being restricted to one population (Piapoco, Guahibo) and one (21) being shared by three populations (Piapoco, Saliva, and Guahibo). The nucleotide diversity of the null RFLP haplotypes identified in the Colombian populations is 0.001, corresponding to about $\frac{1}{4}$ of the overall nucleotide diversity of haplogroup C in the Americas, consistent with the relatively recent origin of the reversion mutation.

Similar levels of population structure were observed in populations with or without the revertant C lineage as indicated by F_{st} values of $\sim 8\%$ (based on data for 7 classical markers; data not shown) and $\sim 15\%$ (using the mtDNA haplogroup frequencies of Table 1) for both population groups.

DISCUSSION

There is evidence in the literature that other populations from Northern South America could also carry the revertant C lineage identified here. A haplotype (AM83) identified in the Makiritare was reported by Torroni et al. (1993a) as lacking the hap-

logroup C-specific 13,259 *HincII* site loss and 13,262 *AluI* site gain, but presenting the 10,397 *AluI* site gain that characterizes super-haplogroup M (which includes haplogroup C and D, among others). Because haplotype AM83 also carries a 16049 *RsaI* change that is shared by several haplogroup C haplotypes present in the Makiritare (and other Native populations), Torroni et al. (1993a) concluded that AM83 represented a revertant of haplogroup C. Unpublished sequence results cited in Schurr et al. (1999) appear to confirm this inference. Other mtDNA haplotypes with the 10,397 *AluI* site gain but without the C or D-specific changes have been observed in both native populations from Eastern Colombia (Coreguaje, Sikuani, Murui, and Guayabero) and in admixed individuals from Colombia and Brasil (Keyeux et al., 2002; Rodas et al., 2003; Santos et al., 1999), suggesting that these populations are also likely to carry the C sublineage characterized here.

The identification of a revertant of the major founder haplogroup C in South America has implications for studies on the evolution of human populations in the region. Previous surveys of Native American mtDNA diversity have shown that most variation is population-specific, an observation

that has been interpreted as the result of population isolation soon after the initial settlement of the New World (Torrioni et al., 1993a). Classical marker and Y-chromosome data also point to an ancient origin for many Native American populations (Bortolini et al., 2003; Thompson and Neel, 1996). The occurrence of genetic variants that are shared by several populations could therefore indicate that these mutations occurred at an early stage of the tribalization process or that they have been spread between populations by migration. The similar level of genetic structure observed with mtDNA and classical markers in populations with and without the revertant C lineage does not suggest a marked difference in migration rates between these population groups. Although a low level of migration contributing to the geographic dispersal of the C revertant lineage cannot be discounted, the genetic structure results are consistent with the C reversion mutation occurring early in the differentiation of the populations examined, followed by strong drift associated with population isolation. A more extensive analysis of the geographic distribution and molecular diversity of this revertant lineage should be highly informative for examining the microevolution of native populations in South America.

It has recently been suggested (Hunley and Long, 2005) that there is a weak relationship between Greenberg's linguistic classification (Greenberg, 1987; Ruhlen, 1991) and the genetic structure of North American Natives. More generally, it has been argued (Bolnick et al., 2004) that the linguistic classification for the Americas proposed by Greenberg should be abandoned in favor of the classification proposed by Campbell (1997). Criticism of Greenberg's classification includes a questioning of his multilateral comparison approach as a means of identifying a shared ancestry amongst languages. We note that of the five populations shown here to carry the revertant C lineage, four are included in Greenberg's Equatorial-Tucano linguistic family (Table 1), the Huitoto representing the only exception (this population being classified amongst the Ge-Pano-Carib). Furthermore, of the five other Native populations mentioned above as potentially carrying the revertant C lineage, three (Coreguaje, Sikuaní, and Guayabero) are included in Greenberg's Equatorial-Tucano and two (Murui and Makiritare) among the Ge-Pano-Carib. Interestingly, the populations with

highest frequency of the revertant C lineage are all in the Equatorial subfamily. These three populations (Guahibo, Saliva, and Piapoco) also share the derived revertant C sequence 21 (Fig. 2). By contrast, there is no apparent correlation between Campbell's linguistic classification and the population distribution of the revertant C lineage (Table 1). For example, Campbell's classification does not indicate a relationship between the languages spoken by the Guahibo, Saliva, and Piapoco, which show the highest frequency of the revertant C lineage (including the derived sequence 21). Thus, Greenberg's classification agrees with the data obtained here in pointing to similar ancestral connections between specific populations, despite an apparent high degree of genetic and linguistic differentiation between them. These results emphasize the need to collect larger genetic datasets in order to perform a more definite assessment of the relationship between linguistic classifications and patterns of genetic structure in the Americas.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was partially funded by Colciencias (1115-05-132-94), grants from and to A.R.-L. Universidad de Antioquia (CODI 3772). We thank Merritt Ruhlen for discussions. D.O. was supported in part by the Northwick Park Institute for Medical Research (London, U.K.).

LITERATURE CITED

- Andrews RM, Kubacka I, Chinnery PF, Lightowlers RN, Turnbull DM, Howell N. 1999. Reanalysis and revision of the Cambridge reference sequence for human mitochondrial DNA. *Nat Genet* 23(2):147
- Bailliet G, Rothhammer F, Carnese FR, Bravi CM, Bianchi NO. 1994. Founder mitochondrial haplotypes in Amerindian populations. *Am J Hum Genet* 55(1):27-33.
- Ballinger SW, Schurr TG, Torrioni A, Gan YY, Hodge JA, Hassan K, Chen KH, Wallace DC. 1992. Southeast Asian mitochondrial DNA analysis reveals genetic continuity of ancient mongoloid migrations. *Genetics* 130:139-152.
- Bandelt HJ, Forster P, Röhl A. 1999. Median-joining networks for inferring intraspecific phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol* 16(1):37-48.
- Bandelt HJ, Herrnstadt C, Yao YG, Kong QP, Kivisild T, Rengo C, Scozzari R, Richards M, Villems R, Macaulay V, Howell N, Torrioni A, Zhang YP. 2003. Identification of Native American founder mtDNAs through the analysis of complete mtDNA sequences: some caveats. *Ann Hum Genet* 67(6):512-524.
- Bolnick DA, Shook BA, Campbell L, Goddard I. 2004. Problematic use of Greenberg's linguistic classifica-

- tion of the Americas in studies of Native American genetic variation. *Am J Hum Genet* 75(3):519–522.
- Bortolini MC, Salzano FM, Thomas MG, Stuart S, Nasanen SP, Bau CH, Hutz MH, Layrisse Z, Petzl-Erler ML, Tsuneto LT, Hill K, Hurtado AM, Castro-de-Guerra D, Torres MM, Groot H, Michalski R, Nymadawa P, Bedoya G, Bradman N, Labuda D, Ruiz-Linares A. 2003. Y-chromosome evidence for differing ancient demographic histories in the Americas. *Am J Hum Genet* 73(3):524–539.
- Campbell L. 1997. *American Indian languages: the historical linguistics of Native America*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Cavalli-Sforza LL, Feldman MW. 2003. The application of molecular genetic approaches to the study of human evolution. *Nat Genet* 33(Suppl):266–275.
- Cavalli-Sforza LL, Menozzi P, Piazza A. 1994. *The history and geography of human genes*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Crawford MH. 1998. *The origins of Native Americans*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Easton RD, Merriwether DA, Crews DE, Ferrell RE. 1996. mtDNA variation in the Yanomami: evidence for additional New World founding lineages. *Am J Hum Genet* 59(1):213–225.
- Forster P, Harding R, Torroni A, Bandelt HJ. 1996. Origin and evolution of Native American mtDNA variation: a reappraisal. *Am J Hum Genet* 59(4): 935–945.
- Ginther C, Corach D, Penacino GA, Rey JA, Carnese FR, Hutz MH, Anderson A, Just J, Salzano FM, King MC. 1993. Genetic variation among the Mapuche Indians from the Patagonian region of Argentina: mitochondrial DNA sequence variation and allele frequencies of several nuclear genes. In: Pena SDJ, Chakraborty R, Epplen J, Jeffreys A, editors. *DNA fingerprinting: the state of the science*. Basel: Birkhauser. p 211–219.
- Greenberg JH. 1987. *Language in the Americas*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Horai S, Kondo R, Nakagawa-Hattori Y, Hayashi S, Sonoda S, Tajima K. 1993. Peopling of the Americas, founded by four major lineages of mitochondrial DNA. *Mol Biol Evol* 10:23–47.
- Hunley K, Long JC. 2005. Gene flow across linguistic boundaries in Native North American populations. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 102:1312–1317.
- Keyeux G, Rodas C, Gelvez N, Carter D. 2002. Possible migration routes into South America deduced from mitochondrial DNA studies in Colombian Amerindian populations. *Hum Biol* 74(2):211–233.
- Kolman CJ, Bermingham E, Cooke R, Ward RH, Arias TD, Guionneau-Sinclair F. 1995. Reduced mtDNA diversity in the Ngobe Amerinds of Panama. *Genetics* 140(1):275–283.
- Kolman CJ, Sambuughin N, Bermingham E. 1996. Mitochondrial DNA analysis of Mongolian populations and implications for the origin of New World founders. *Genetics* 142(4):1321–1334.
- Merriwether DA, Ferrell RE. 1996. The four founding lineage hypothesis for the New World: a critical reevaluation. *Mol Phylogenet Evol* 5(1):241–246.
- Merriwether DA, Kemp BM, Crews DE, Neel JV. 2000. Gene flow and genetic variation in the Yanomama as revealed by mtDNA. In: Renfrew C, editor. *America past, America present: genes and languages in the Americas and beyond*. Cambridge, England: McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research.
- Moreno MER, Agudelo LMC, Aguablanca E. 1993. *Geografica humana de Colombia: region de Orinoquia*. Tomo III. Vol 2. Primera edicion. Bogota: Instituto Colombiano de Cultura Hispanica.
- Rodas C, Gelvez N, Keyeux G. 2003. Mitochondrial DNA studies show asymmetrical Amerindian admixture in Afro-Colombian and Mestizo populations. *Hum Biol* 75(1):13–30.
- Ruhlen M. 1991. *A guide to the world's languages*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Schurr TG, Sukernik RI, Starikovskaya YB, Wallace DC. 1999. Mitochondrial DNA variation in Koryaks and Itel'men: population replacement in the Okhotsk Sea–Bering Sea region during the Neolithic. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 108:1–39.
- Santos SE, Rodrigues JD, Ribeiro-dos-Santos AK, Zago MA. 1999. Differential contribution of indigenous men and women to the formation of an urban population in the Amazon region as revealed by mtDNA and Y-DNA. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 109(2):175–180.
- Thompson EA, Neel JV. 1996. Private polymorphisms: How many? How old? How useful for genetic taxonomies? *Mol Phylogenet Evol* 5(1):220–231.
- Torroni A, Miller JA, Moore LG, Zamudio S, Zhuang J, Droma T, Wallace DC. 1994. Mitochondrial DNA analysis in Tibet: implications for the origin of the Tibetan population and its adaptation to high altitude. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 93:189–199.
- Torroni A, Schurr TG, Cabell MF, Brown MD, Neel JV, Larsen M, Smith DG, Vullo CM, Wallace DC. 1993a. Asian affinities and continental radiation of the four founding Native American mtDNAs. *Am J Hum Genet* 53:563–590.
- Torroni A, Sukernik RI, Schurr TG, Starikovskaya YB, Cabell MF, Crawford MH, Comuzzie AG, Wallace DC. 1993b. mtDNA variation of aboriginal Siberians reveals distinct genetic affinities with Native Americans. *Am J Hum Genet* 53:591–608.
- Torroni A, Schurr TG, Yang CC, Szathmary EJ, Williams RC, Schanfield MS, Troup GA, Knowler WC, Lawrence DN, Weiss KM. 1992. Native American mitochondrial DNA analysis indicates that the Amerind and the Nadene populations were founded by two independent migrations. *Genetics* 130(1):153–162.
- Ward RH, Frazier BL, Dew-Jager K, Pääbo S. 1991. Extensive mitochondrial diversity within a single Amerindian tribe. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 88: 8720–8724.