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**Poblamiento de la Patagonia: una aproximación genética en poblaciones
indígenas actuales de Chile y Argentina**



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RESUMEN

La región del extremo sur del continente, en especial el sur de Chile y la Patagonia, puede jugar un rol clave en la comprensión del poblamiento de América. Además de encontrarse en esta zona el sitio con fechado radiocarbónico más antiguo de América, Monte verde, (Puerto Mont, 14.500 AP), otros sitios arqueológicos como la Cueva Fell (11.000-10.000 años AP), y Tres Arroyos (11.800 años AP), Palli Aike (8.700 años AP sugieren que la Patagonia fue ocupada tempranamente. La principal hipótesis de poblamiento de esta región propone que fue poblada por dos olas migratorias diferentes, por una parte la migración original que habría dado origen a los pobladores de Monte Verde en el pleistoceno tardío, y una segunda migración posterior proveniente del norte de Argentina que durante el holoceno habría dado origen a las poblaciones patagónicas de la vertiente oriental de la Cordillera de los Andes. El objetivo de este proyecto es contrastar el modelo de poblamiento de la Patagonia por estas dos vías independientes, usando herramientas de la biología molecular como el análisis del ADN mitocondrial y cromosoma Y. Para esto se analizó muestras de ADN de poblaciones indígenas actuales de Chile (Aymara, Atacameño, Mapuche, Pehuenche, Huilliche, Kawésqar y Yámana) y Argentina (Tehuelche y Mapuche). Los resultados obtenidos mostraron que las poblaciones del sur de Chile y la Patagonia comparten tres sub-haplogrupos mitocondriales, denominados D1g, B2l y C1b13, los cuales están ausentes en poblaciones del norte de Chile (Aymara y Atacameño) así como en otras poblaciones indígenas de Sudamérica. Las edades de coalecencia para D1g y B2l muestran un origen temprano de estos linajes, probablemente ocurrido poco después de la llegada de los primeros pobladores a la Patagonia. De esta manera descartamos el poblamiento de esta región por dos vías independientes; en cambio mostramos que fue poblada por una oleada migratoria única que habría llegado al sur de

Chile a fines del Pleistoceno (área de Monte Verde), y desde ahí habría colonizado el resto de los territorios de la Patagonia. Además, las poblaciones que habitaron esta área habrían permanecido relativamente aisladas de la influencia genética de poblaciones del norte, permitiendo la diversificación de linajes propios que hoy encontramos en las poblaciones actuales de la Patagonia.

.SUMMARY

The southern part of South America, especially the south of Chile and Patagonia could have a key role in the understanding of the settlement of America. Beside the fact to found one of oldest archeological sites in America, Monte Verde (Puerto Mont, 14,500 BP), other sites like Fell Cave (11.000-10.000 years BP), y Tres Arroyos (11.800 years BP), Palli Aike (8.700 years BP) suggest that the Patagonia was settled early. The main hypothesis of the peopling of Patagonia propose that this area was populated by two different migration waves; first the original migration could have led to the people of Monte Verde in late Pleistocene, and later a second migration from northern Argentina during the Holocene, which could have originated Patagonian populations of the eastern area of the Andes Cordillera. For this thesis we wanted to test the model of Patagonia settlement by two independents routes, using Molecular Biology tools like mitochondrial DNA and Y chromosome analysis. To realize this we used blood samples of Chilean native (Aymara, Atacama, Mapuche, Pehuenche Huilliche, Kawésqar and Yámana) and Argentina (Tehuelche and Mapuche) populations. The results shown that south populations from Chile and Argentina share tree mitochondrial sub-haplogroups, named D1g, B2l and C1b13, which are absent in northern populations (Aymara and Atacameno) and the rest native populations of South America. The coalescence time for D1g and B2l shown an

early arise of these lineages, probably occurred not much time after the arrival of first migrants to Patagonia. So, we discard the two independent routes model, whereas we show that Patagonia was populated by a single migration wave, which would have arrived in southern Chile in the late Pleistocene (Monte Verde area), and from there would have colonized the rest of the areas of Patagonia. Also, the populations that inhabited this area have remained relatively isolated from the genetic influence of northern populations, allowing the diversification of their own lineages that today we can find inhabiting populations of Patagonia.

I. INTRODUCCION

I.1 Poblamiento de América

El poblamiento de América, último continente en ser ocupado por el *Homo sapiens*, ha sido una cuestión que ha sido arduamente discutida por los científicos modernos. Existe consenso sobre el hecho de que América se habría poblado desde Siberia (Asia) a través de Beringia en un momento en que se habría formado un corredor terrestre (Hoffecker et al., 1993). Más allá de ese consenso aún se discuten numerosos hechos relacionados con la entrada de los primeros paleoamericanos principalmente con respecto a 1) número de migraciones provenientes del oeste, 2) tierra ancestral de los colonizadores originales 3) duración de la colonización y 4) ruta de la colonización (Merriwether et al., 1995; Bonatto & Salzano, 1997, Tarazona-Santos & Santos, 2002)

I.1.1 Primeras hipótesis - *Origen mongoloide*

Las primeras observaciones acerca de que nativos americanos tenían sus raíces biológicas y culturales en Asia fueron realizadas en tiempos de la colonia por misioneros, el jesuita José de Acosta (1539-1600) y Fray Gregorio García (1556/1561 — 1627). Esta hipótesis fue adoptada luego por varios naturalistas del siglo XVIII, incluyendo George Louis LeClerc Conde de Buffon (1788) y Johannes Blumenbach (1775), sin embargo no fue hasta principios del siglo XX, gracias al trabajo del antropólogo Checo Ales Hrdlicka (1869–1943) que el origen asiático de los nativos americanos toma relevancia. Hrdlicka viajó por numerosos lugares de Norte y Sur América examinando y midiendo gran cantidad de cráneos de amerindios, junto con otros no amerindios de origen asiático, caucásico o africano. Las diferencias y similitudes morfológicas encontradas entre cráneos de ciertos grupos lo llevaron a proponer la colonización de América por grupos de paleo-mongoloides provenientes del noreste asiático (Mongolia y Siberia), los cuales habrían llegado a través de Beringia en varias oleadas migratorias. A pesar de no tener la evidencia

científica en aquel entonces, Hrdlicka supuso que en algún momento en el pasado una disminución en los niveles del océano Pacífico permitió la existencia de un puente de tierra que conectó Asia y América permitiendo el avance de los primeros pobladores (Powell, 2005)

I.1.2 Hipótesis Clovis/Folsom o de poblamiento tardío

Esta hipótesis, propuesta a partir del descubrimiento arqueológico del complejo Clovis, ha dominado las teorías de poblamiento en los últimos 40 años. Propone que los primeros americanos cruzaron hacia América, a través del estrecho de Bering, aproximadamente 12000 años atrás a través de un corredor terrestre entre las dos placas de hielo que en aquel entonces cubrían Norteamérica, llamadas Laurentida y Cordilleran. Estos primeros pobladores se habrían asentado en lo que hoy es Nuevo México, EEUU, para a partir de ahí poblar el resto de Norteamérica, siguiendo luego hacia centro y Sudamérica hacia el año 10.500 BP (figura 1). La cultura Clovis se caracterizó principalmente por herramientas líticas especializadas y de manufactura diferente a la encontrada en sitios fuera de América. Muchas de estas herramientas estaban relacionadas con la caza de megafauna, lo que indica una cultura especializada y no simples cazadores recolectores (Tankersley, 2004; Haynes, 1964). En los últimos 10 años la hipótesis de Clovis como los primeros americanos ha caído en descredito. La existencia de un corredor entre las dos placas de hielos a finales del pleistoceno, habitable por humanos, ha sido puesta en duda (Mandryk, 1992), además la aparición de sitios arqueológicos más tempranos tanto en Sudamérica como Norteamérica, con tecnología lítica más simple, han hecho pensar que la aparición de la cultura Clovis fue una especialización posterior de algunos grupos de paleoamericanos cazadores recolectores.

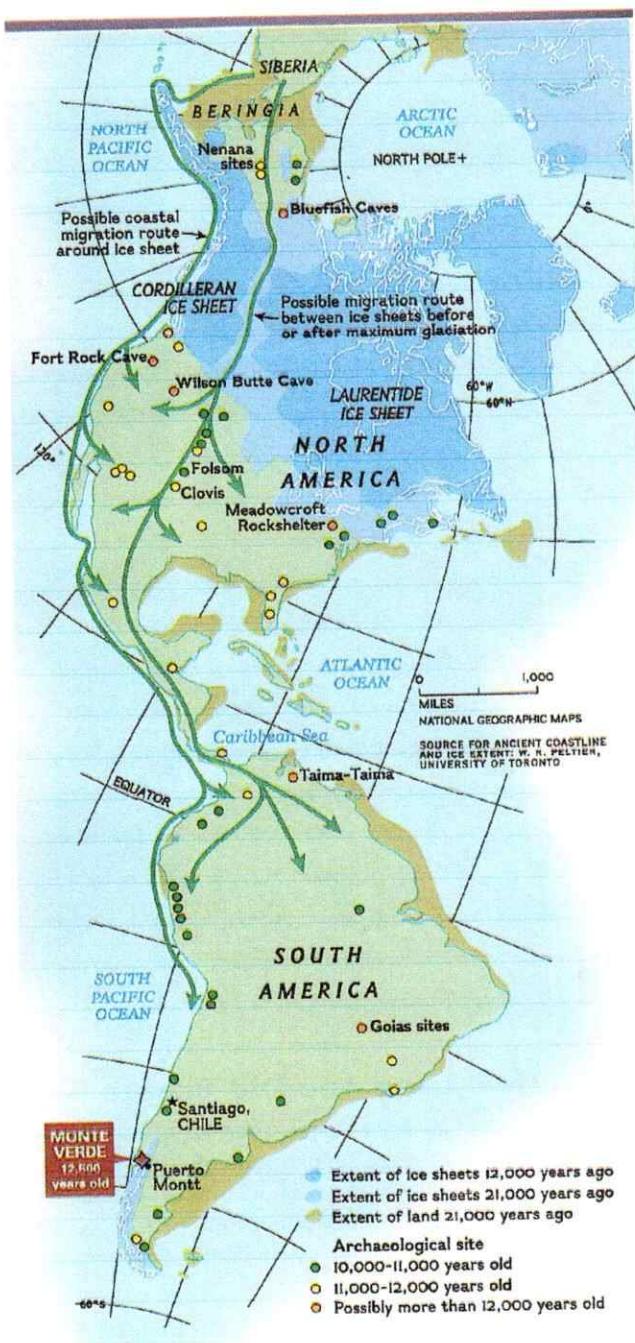


Figura 1. Hipótesis de poblamiento de América desde Beringia. Las flechas indican las posibles rutas migratorias. La primera hipótesis implica una ruta continental con la existencia de un corredor libre de hielo por donde habrían atravesado los primeros pobladores. La segunda hipótesis propone una ruta costera, desde donde se habría poblado el interior del continente (<http://sscl.berkeley.edu/~anth122migration.JPG>).

I.1.3 *Hipótesis de los Paleoamericanos o de poblamiento temprano*

Monte Verde (fig. 1), sitio arqueológico descubierto en Puerto Montt, Chile, por Tom Dillehay (Dillehay & Collins, 1989) fue la primera evidencia arqueológica sólida en cuestionar la hipótesis de Clovis. Las dataciones radiocarbónicas de 14.500 años AP obtenidas para este sitio no son compatibles con un poblamiento tardío como el propuesto en la hipótesis de Clovis (Dillehay et al., 2008). Las herramientas líticas encontradas presentan diferencias con las encontradas en Clovis, son de manufactura más simple, lo que sugiere además que los pobladores de Monte Verde tenían una subsistencia más generalista, basada en recolección de plantas, pesca y la caza de pequeños animales. A partir de Monte Verde, numerosos sitios arqueológicos tempranos y con características culturales diferentes a Clovis han sido encontrados en lugares de Sudamérica, como Toca do Boqueirao da Pedra Furada de 12.000 años AP (Delibrias & Guidon, 1986) y Lagoa Santa de 9.500 años AP (Neves et al., 2003) ambos en Brasil, y en Norteamérica, como Pendejo Cave de 12.000 años AP, en Nuevo México (Chrisman et al., 1996) y Meadowcroft Rockshelter de 16.000 años AP, en el oeste de Pennsylvania (Adovasio & Carlisle, 1988).

Dada la evidencia arqueológica que apoya una colonización más temprana y el hecho de que gran parte de Norteamérica estuviera cubierta de hielo a fines del pleistoceno, Fladmark (1979) propuso una ruta costera a través del Océano Pacífico para la entrada a América. Otros autores (Grun, 1988; Dixon, 2001) han desarrollado esta idea a pesar de la falta de evidencia arqueológica de sitios tempranos en Norteamérica; es posible que el cambio en la línea de costa producto del derretimiento de los glaciares haya dejado bajo el agua los sitios arqueológicos pertenecientes a los primeros Paleoamericanos. Por otra parte, hoy existe evidencia de áreas de la plataforma continental libres de hielo junto con islas cercanas a la costa no cubiertas por hielo; vastas áreas a lo largo de la costa se habrían deglaciado hacia el fin del LMG, permitiendo el

avance de los primeros pobladores por la línea costera (Dixon, 2001). Otras investigaciones apoyan la hipótesis de la ruta costera; Dillehay et al. (2008) encontró evidencia de utilización de algas marinas para el sitio de Monte Verde, comprobando la estrecha relación de los primeros pobladores con las costas del Pacífico. Wang et al. (2007) en un estudio con poblaciones nativas de toda América encontró evidencia genética de que una ruta costera habría sido importante en las primeras migraciones de paleoindios.

I.1.4 Hipótesis de los Amerindios o modelo tripartito

Propuesta por el lingüista Joseph Greenberg, la antropóloga dental Christy Turner y el genetista Steven Zegura, este modelo se basó en evidencia dental, genética y lingüística para proponer que toda la variación biológica y lingüística encontrada en los nativos americanos actuales es el resultado de una serie de olas migratoria provenientes del noreste de Asia. De acuerdo a este modelo, es posible dividir en tres grupos a los actuales nativos. Los Amerindios, que es el grupo compuesto por los hablantes de lengua “Amerindia” (una categoría que incluye a todas las tribus de América excepto Aleutianos, Eskimales y Na-Dene) son descendientes de la ola migratoria inicial proveniente de poblaciones de Siberia, las cuales entraron hace 15.000-12.000 años y en aproximadamente 2.000 años se dispersaron por el resto del continente. Migraciones subsecuentes dieron origen a los indígenas pertenecientes al tronco lingüístico Na-Dene (15.000-10.000 años atrás) y Aleutiano-Esquimo (6.000-5.000 años atrás), los cuales poblaron parte de la región norte del continente americano, principalmente lo que hoy día es Columbia Británica y Canadá (Greenberg et al., 1986; Powell, 2005). A pesar de la gran influencia que tuvo esta hipótesis en su momento, y que la clasificación hecha por Greenberg sea usada hasta hoy (fig. 2), estudios posteriores desacreditaron la evidencia tanto genética, dental y lingüística que daba soporte a esta hipótesis. Sin embargo, un estudio reciente de Reich et al. (2012) en el que se analizaron 364.470 SNPs genómicos encontró que todos los nativos

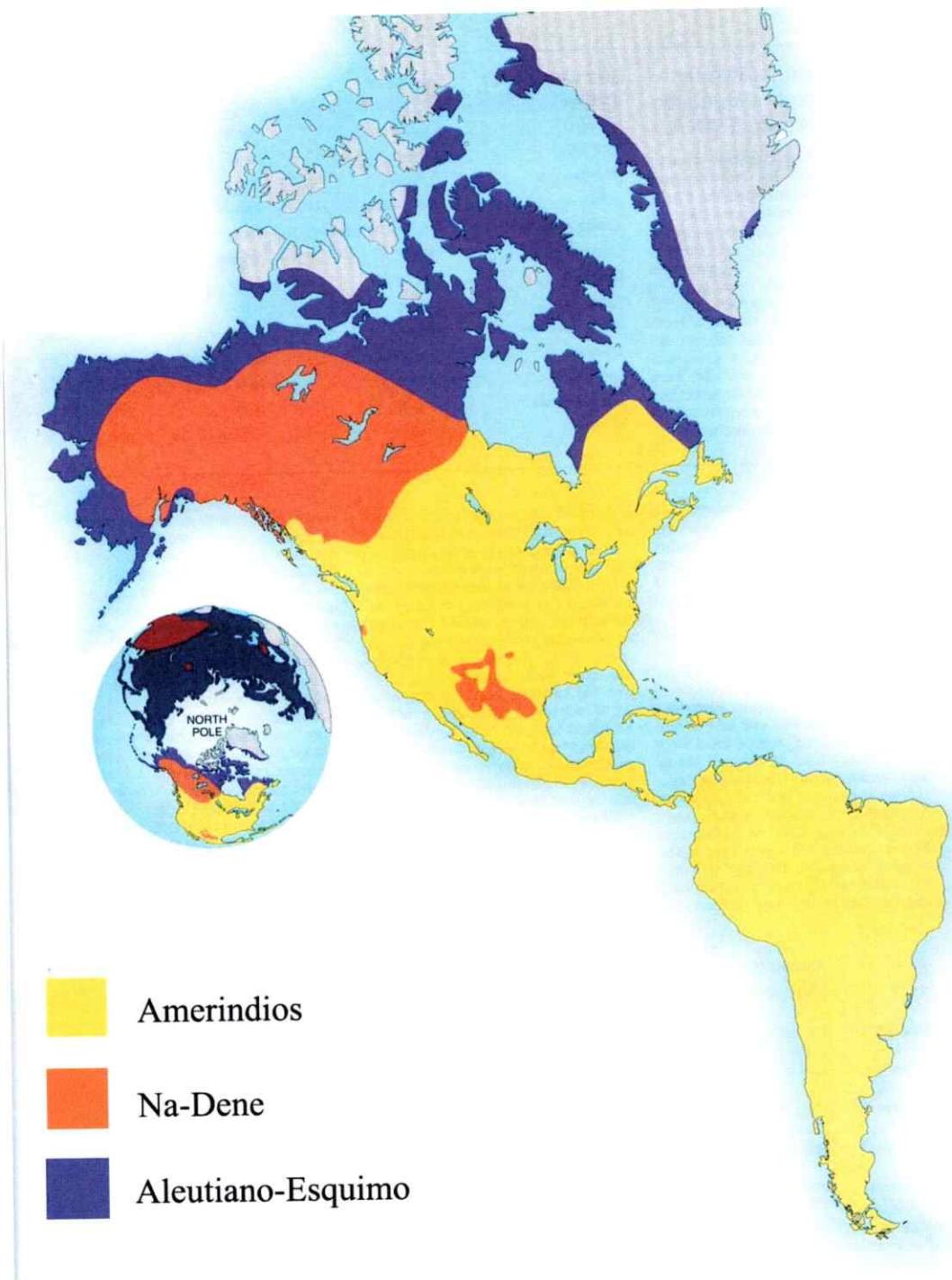


Figura 2. Clasificación lingüística realizada por Greenberg, en donde todas las lenguas habladas en América pueden ser clasificadas en tres grupos. (Greenberg & Ruhlen, 1992).

americanos descienden de al menos tres corrientes de flujo genético provenientes de Asia, retomando así la hipótesis propuesta por Greenberg.

I.1.5 *Hipótesis de las dos migraciones*

Esta hipótesis, basada en diferencias craneoíméticas de paleoamericanos con los nativos americanos actuales, fue propuesta por el antropólogo brasileño Walter Neves (Neves et al. 1999), propone que el poblamiento de América fue un evento migratorio doble, una primera migración de poblaciones provenientes del Sur de Asia y/o de la Cuenca del Pacífico sur hace 50.000-15.000 habría dado origen a los paleoindios o primeros americanos, y una segunda migración posterior proveniente del nordeste de Asia, o mongoloides, habrían remplazado las poblaciones provenientes de la primera migración, dando origen a los amerindios modernos. Según los autores, las diferencias craneométricas encontradas en cráneos de paleoamericanos tanto de Sudamérica como Norteamérica, con respecto a los cráneos de indígenas más recientes son el resultado de un origen diferente. A pesar de que ha podido comprobarse la diferencias entre americanos antiguos y recientes (González-José et al., 2003, 2005; Neves et al., 1999, 2003), no existe evidencia genética o de otra índole que pruebe que la diferencia observada sea el producto de un origen diferente y no parte de la variación natural producida en el tiempo.

En resumen, a pesar de las diferentes hipótesis de poblamiento, rutas, olas migratorias, existe consenso acerca de tres períodos principales: 1) Un período de “incubación”, donde poblaciones provenientes de Asia habrían colonizado Beringia entre 30.000-25.000 años, 2) La migración desde de la población fundadora Beringia al sur, en el momento que Norteamérica era cubierto por grandes placas de hielo continentales, a través de una ruta costera del pacífico 3) Una expansión poblacional hace 20.000-15.000 años AP y más extensiva en todo el continente (Fix, 2005; Fagundez et al., 2008).

I.2. Poblamiento de la Patagonia

I.2.1 Evidencia arqueológica

La Patagonia, el territorio más austral del continente en ser poblado por nativos americanos, cuenta con uno de los sitios arqueológicos de datación más temprana de toda América, Monte verde, (Puerto Mont, 14.500 AP) (Dillehay et al., 1988, 2008). Las excavaciones arqueológicas en Monte Verde, las cuales comenzaron en 1976 a cargo de antropólogo estadounidense Tom Dillehay, revelaron numerosos instrumentos líticos, óseos, una variada colección de madera y muchísimos restos de plantas. Entre los restos de madera había vestigios de la arquitectura más temprana descubierta en América. Las condiciones de conservación del sitio permitieron recuperar una vivienda de gran tamaño con forma de carpeta o toldo. Su estructura habría estado formada por ramas de árboles y cubierta con cueros de animales. Los instrumentos líticos recuperados, siendo de manufactura simple, mostraron gran diferencia con los líticos especializados hallados en Clovis, siendo la primera evidencia que contradecía a la cultura Clovis como representante de los primeros americanos (Dillehay & Collins, 1988).

Además de Monte Verde, en la Patagonia centro-sur existe numerosa evidencia arqueológica de ocupación temprana (fig. 3), entre los que podemos mencionar la Cueva Fell (11.000-10.000 años AP), Palli Aike (8.700 años AP) ambos cerca del estrecho de Magallanes (Orquera 1987). En Tierra del Fuego tenemos el sitio Tres Arroyos fechado en 11,800 AP (Mazzone, 1987) y en el canal del Beagle hay evidencia de ocupación hace 9.000 años AP (Piana et al., 1992; Borrero, 1999, Ocampo & Rivas, 2004).

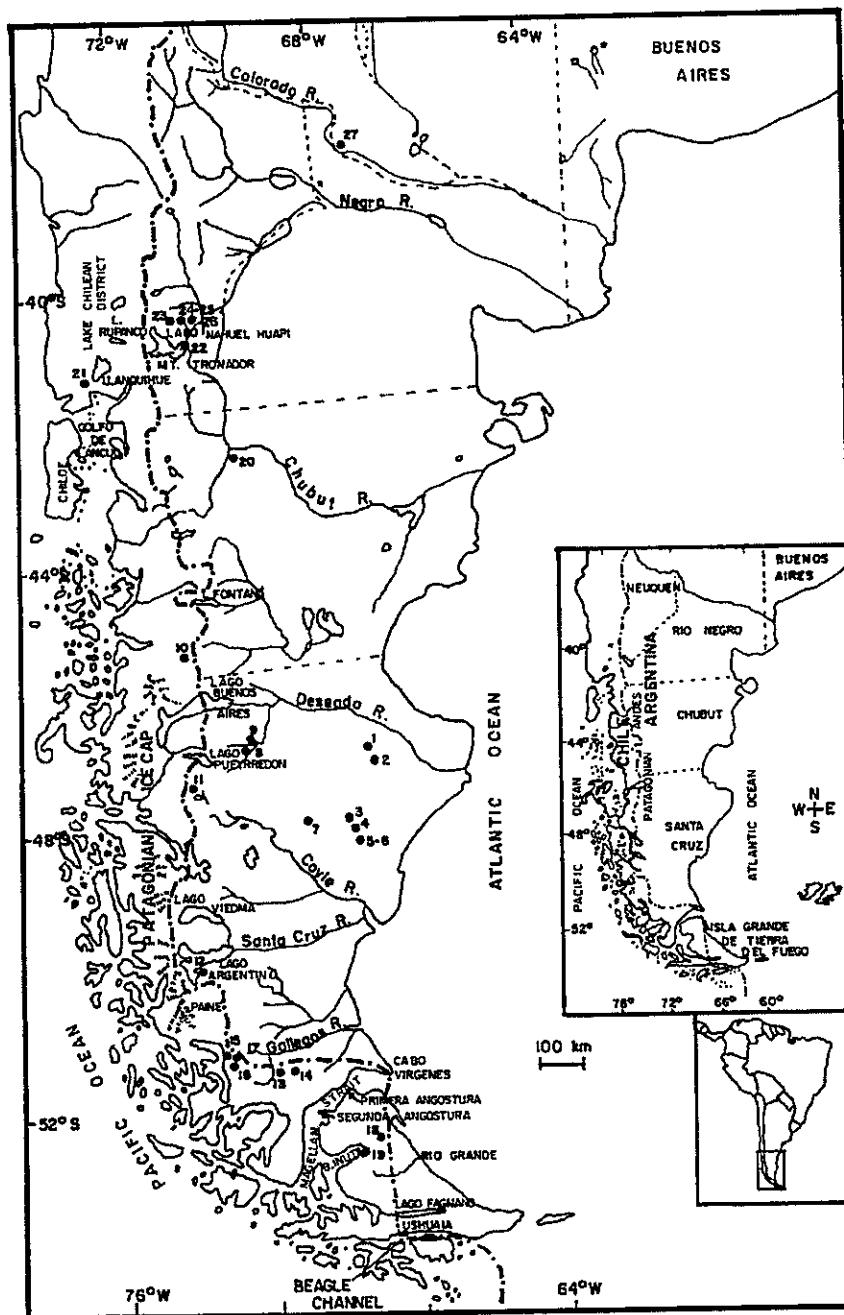


Figura 3. Mapa de la Patagonia con los principales sitios arqueológicos tempranos. Los Toldos, (2) Piedra Museo, (3) El Ceibo, (4) Cerro Tres Tetas, (5) and (6). Cueva LaMaría: Minero y La Mesada; (7). La Martita, (8) Cueva de la Manos Pintadas, (9) Arroyo Feo, (10) Baño Nuevo, (11) Casa de Piedra 7, (12) Chorrillo Malo, (13) Fell Cave, (14) Palli Aike Cave, (15) Cueva del Medio, (16) Lago Sofía 1, (17) Mylodon Cave, (18) Tres Arroyos, (19) Marazzi, (20) Piedra Parada: Campo Moncada 2, (21) Monte Verde, (22) El Trébol, (23) Arroyo Corral, Cueva del Manzano, (24) Cuyín Manzano, (25) Cueva Traful, (26) Epuyán Grande, (27) Casa de Piedra. Figura tomada de Miotti & Salemme, (2003).

I.2.2 Modelo de Poblamiento de la Patagonia

Sobre modelos de poblamiento, dos rutas principales han sido propuestas para el poblamiento de Sudamérica, las que a su vez desembocan en las regiones más australes del continente. Rothhammer & Dillehay, (2009), considerando varias líneas de evidencia, entre ellas el trabajo de Ardila, (1991), proponen dos rutas de entrada y dispersión para Sudamérica (fig.4). Los autores proponen que los cazadores-recolectores que migraron a Sudamérica a través del Istmo de Panamá podrían haber entrado a las tierras altas de la cordillera por medio de los valles ribereños del Cauca y Magdalena, los cuales fluyen desde sur al norte en Colombia. Una vez acclimatados al medio ambiente de alta montaña, los migrantes habrían seguido camino hacia al sur, donde no habrían encontrado grandes barreras geográficas que detuvieran su marcha, aunque algunas áreas altas estuvieran cubiertas por glaciares. Algunos grupos habrían seguido la ruta costera a lo largo del océano Pacífico, hasta llegar al sur de Chile, donde los hielos glaciares, que cubrían toda la costa pacífica a partir de los 42° de latitud Sur, les habrían impedido seguir moviéndose por la costa. Otros grupos habrían migrado hacia el este siguiendo la cuenca del Caribe Venezolano, las Guyanas y el noreste de Brasil, mientras que otros grupos se habrían movido al interior de Venezuela y posteriormente siguiendo el sur o noreste a lo largo de los grandes sistemas fluviales en la cuenca del Amazonas.

Por otra parte, desde la cuenca del amazonas y/o la región noreste de los Andes Argentinos, grupos humanos habrían entrado al campo abierto del este de Brasil, dispersándose a través de la Pampa para llegar finalmente hasta la Patagonia.



Figura 4. Rutas hipotéticas de migración en Sudamérica junto con los principales sitios arqueológicos de finales del Pleistoceno (figura tomada de Rothhammer & Dillehay, 2009).

I.2.1 Poblaciones indígenas de la zona sur-Patagonia

La región sur y Patagonia norte de Chile país ha estado ocupada por diferentes etnias con particularidades lingüísticas y culturales (fig. 5). Entre los 36- 42°S latitud encontramos a tres etnias relacionadas lingüísticamente entre si, Mapuche, Pehuenche y Huilliche. En la costa y valles centrales encontramos a los Mapuche, y más al sur, entre los 40-42°S, encontramos a los Huilliche. Estas poblaciones, antes de la llegada de los conquistadores españoles, compartían varios aspectos culturales, basando su subsistencia en la horticultura, especialmente de maíz (el producto principal), papas, porotos, y quínoa. Además complementaban su dieta con la caza de guanacos y pequeños animales, así como recolección de productos del mar y pesca. Poseían viviendas por grupos familiares llamadas rucas con un sistema de asentamiento patrilocal y patrilineal. Los Huilliches además se aventuraron a la isla de Chiloé, lo que sugiere una mayor relación con grupos de canoeros costeros como los Chonos. En la zona precordillerana y cordillerana entre Chillán y Temuco encontramos a los Pehuenche, cazadores recolectores que basaban su vida económica, política y social en la recolección del pehuén y en los bosques de *Araucaria araucana*. También cazaban guanacos y pequeños animales, transitando entre ambas vertientes de la cordillera; a veces bajaban a los valles centrales para intercambiar productos con las poblaciones residentes, sin embargo no se aventuraban más allá, siendo la Cordillera su territorio principal (Bengoa, 2008; Manríquez, 2004).

Más al sur, en la Patagonia occidental, entre el Archipiélago de los Chonos y la península de Taitao encontramos a un grupo del que se tienen pocos registros, llamados Chono. Estos indígenas canoeros basaban su supervivencia en la caza de aves y lobos marinos, así como en la pesca y recolección de mariscos. Se sabe además que practicaban cultivo de papas a pequeña escala en algunas islas lo que es evidencia de contacto con horticultores como los Huilliche. Una de sus particularidades era el tipo de embarcación que utilizaban para moverse entre las islas y

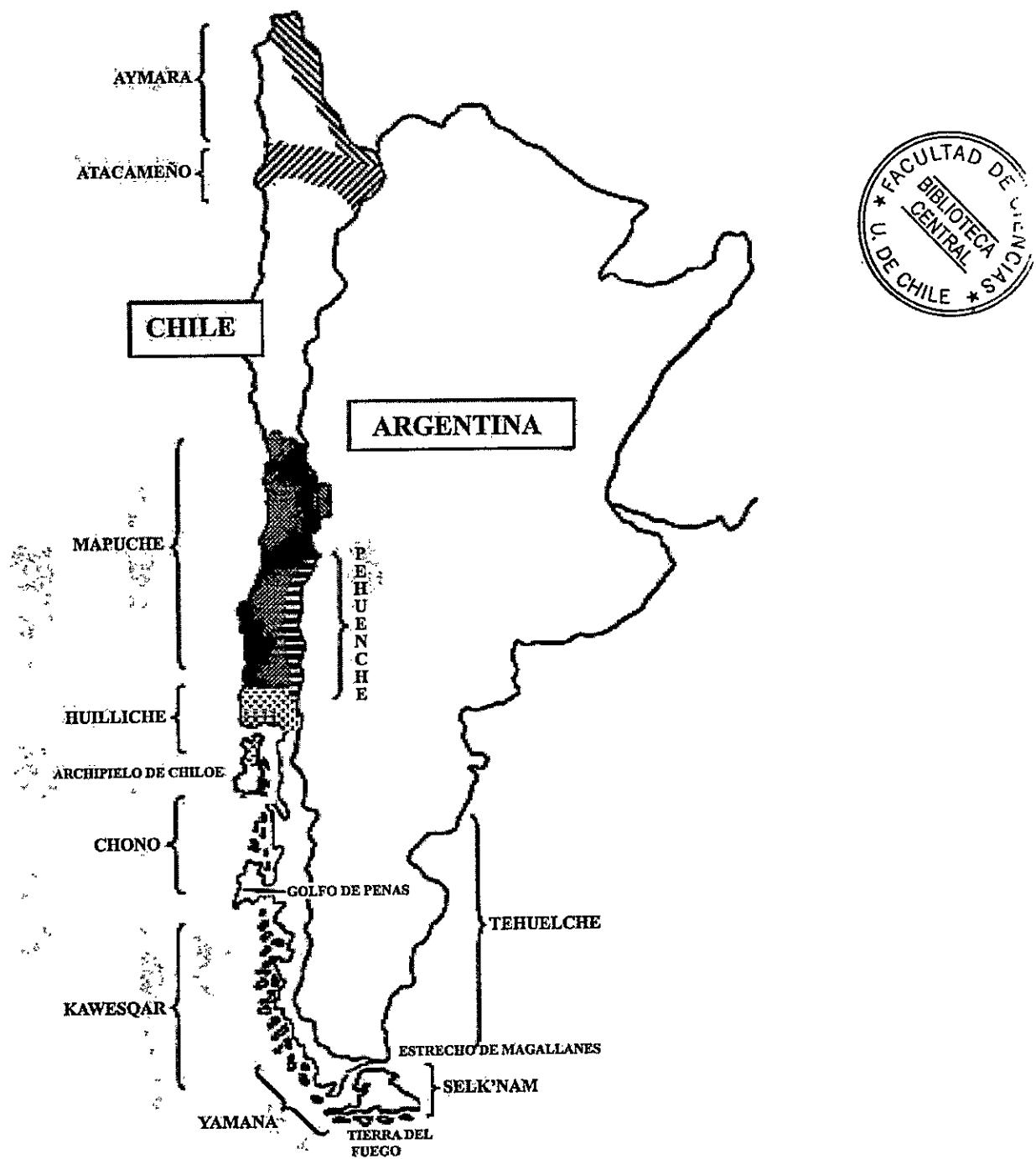


Figura 5. Ubicación geográfica de las poblaciones de Chile y la Patagonia (modificado de García et al., 2006).



fiordos, las cuales utilizaban también como vivienda. La Dalca, nombre que se le daba a este bote, constaba de 3 o más tablas moldeadas por fuego y cosidas entre sí, lo que le daba gran estabilidad a la hora de surcar los peligrosos mares de la zona. Los Chono sufrieron genocidio producto de la colonización española, considerándose extintos como etnia hacia fines del siglo XIX (Cooper, 1917). Los últimos registros que se tienen provienen de un grupo de cerca de 200 individuos que se fue a vivir en 1710 a misiones jesuitas, primero en la Isla de Huar y más tarde a la Isla de Chaulinec. Otro grupo se habría desplazado hacia sectores más meridionales, al sur del Golfo de Penas, asentándose en plena región Kawésqar, donde fueron encontrados por la expedición de Fitz Roy en 1835. (Ocampo et al., 2006). Al sur del territorio Chono, toda la costa pacífica hasta el fin del continente estaba poblada por dos etnias nómades de cazadores-recolectores marinos. Los Kawésqar (Alacalufes) tuvieron su territorio entre el Golfo de Penas y el Estrecho de Magallanes mientras que los Yámana (Yaghan), los habitantes más australes del continente, viajaban entre las islas al sur de Tierra del Fuego llegando hasta el Cabo de Hornos. Al igual que los Chono, los Kawésqar y Yámana basaban su supervivencia en la explotación intensiva de recursos marinos, entre ellos aves y lobos marinos, así como en la recolección de mariscos. Se movilizaban en canoas (de diferente manufactura que la Dalca de los Chono) las cuales utilizaban como viviendas aunque también construían chozas de tipo oval curvando varas y usando pieles de lobos marinos, corteza y ramas como revestimiento. La Patagonia continental, a ambos lados del Estrecho de Magallanes, estaba habitada por grupos cazadores-recolectores terrestres. En la isla grande de Tierra del Fuego vivieron los Selk’nam (Ona), los cuales eran hábiles cazadores de guanaco (*Lama guanaco*), que no solo proveía alimento sino material de vestimenta y construcción. Complementaban su dieta con la caza de córupo (*Spalacopus cyanus*) y aves. Los Aonikenk (Tehuelches), habitaron en la Patagonia continental, al norte del estrecho de Magallanes, basaban su supervivencia al igual que los Selk’nam en la casa del guanaco,

complementando su dieta con la recolección de bayas, hongos y moluscos. Vivían en grupos pequeños, montando campamentos y movilizándose con regularidad. Una característica de los Tehuelche eran sus viviendas, de tipo toldo, confeccionadas con madera y cubiertas con pieles de guanaco (Cooper, 1917; Manríquez, 2004).

El primer contacto de los colonizadores europeos con habitantes de la Patagonia ocurrió en 1520 con la expedición de Hernando de Magallanes, donde miembros de la tripulación avistaron campamentos Selk'nam desde los barcos. Seis años después, la expedición de Loaysa avistó por primera vez a Kawésqar, casi un siglo antes del primer descubrimiento de los primeros Yámana (Cooper, 1917). Dada la gran estatura de los indígenas observados (al menos en relación con el tamaño promedio del español), los exploradores les dieron el nombre genérico de Patagones, al que se agregó el de Fueguinos. Al comienzo del siglo XX las poblaciones de la Patagonia vieron diezmada su número a manos de los colonizadores europeos, al punto que en la actualidad unos pocos descendientes de Yámana viven en la isla Navarino, y dos pequeños grupo de Kawésqar habitan en Puerto Eden y Punta Arenas. Los Selk' nam vivieron uno de los procesos de exterminio más cruentos que se tenga recuerdo, debido al auge de la ganadería en Tierra del Fuego. Existen numerosos registros sobre las matanzas de Selk'nam llevadas a cabo por colonos, comandadas y organizadas por el explorador Rumano Julio Popper. El resultado fue una dramática disminución de su número, siendo considerados extintos en la década de los 1970. Los Tehuelche al igual que el resto de los Patagones vieron diezmada su población con la llegada de los colonizadores, en la actualidad existen grupos descendientes que viven en la región de Chubut, Argentina.

A nivel lingüístico, los Mapuches hablaban un lenguaje que ha sido clasificado en el stock lenguas andinas del sur, el mapudungun, el cual sigue siendo hablado por los Mapuche en la actualidad. Los Huilliche y Pehuenche, que en la actualidad hablan mapudungun, a la llegada

de los españoles, en cambio, habrían hablado dialectos de mapudungun con un 85% de homología, aunque los registros históricos sobre estos son escasos (Sanchez, 1993). En la Patagonia centro-sur en cambio se hablaban varias lenguas muy disímiles entre sí, las cuales no han podido ser catalogadas fácilmente dentro de los troncos de lenguas Amerindias. La lengua hablada por los Chono está extinta en la actualidad y solo persisten algunas palabras, lo que ha hecho poner en duda su existencia como lengua propiamente tal. Sin embargo, un análisis realizado por Viegas, (2005) reivindica el Chono como idioma diferente al hablado por sus vecinos, al norte el Mapudungun y al sur el Kawésqar. Los idiomas hablados por los Selk'nam y Tehuelches, diferentes entre sí, han sido catalogados dentro del mismo tronco, el grupo Chon, el cual sin embargo es aislado y no está relacionado con otras familias de lenguas amerindias. Los Kawésqar y Yámana por su parte tienen lenguas que no han podido relacionarse satisfactoriamente entre sí, ni con las lenguas del grupo Chon (Sanchez, 1993; Civallero, 2008).

I.2.3 Estudios craneométricos

A nivel regional los estudios craneométricos han mostrado que los Patagones tienen ciertas particularidades morfológicas, no compartidas con el resto de los amerindios y si con paleoindios de Norteamérica y Sudamérica. Muchos de estos caracteres están asociados a la robustez del cráneo y son un torus supraorbital prominente (uno de los más prominente en cráneos modernos) frontales bajos, constricción post-orbital marcada, occipitales prominentes y protuidos. En un sentido amplio, cuando se toma el promedio de todas las características craneales en análisis de correspondencia canónica los Patagones se agrupan con los mongoloides (Larh, 1995). Los Fueguinos representan una combinación de algunos rasgos típicamente mongoloides encontrados en la mayoría de las poblaciones americanas y algunos rasgos robustos. Esto podría ser interpretado como la consecuencia de aislamiento por largo tiempo con la posterior retención de caracteres ancestrales (Larh, 1995; González-José et al. 2001), y/o la

adaptación a climas riguroso con un fuerte componente biomecánico producto del tipo de dieta (Larh, 1995; Lalueza et al., 1997). Sin embargo, este punto es discutido. En un trabajo realizado por Bernal et al. (2006), se analizaron muestras de Patagones cazadores-recolectores y agricultores, los cuales se caracterizan por tener dietas duras y suaves respectivamente, del holoceno temprano y tardío, con el fin de testear las hipótesis de robustez. Los resultados muestran que no existe correlación entre el tipo de dieta y la robustez encontrada en los Patagones, desechando la hipótesis biomecánica. La correlación filogenética tampoco es clara, dado que las muestras provenientes del holoceno temprano muestran caracteres menos robustos y similares a los observados en el resto de los amerindios, en comparación a sus contrapartes del holoceno tardío. La mejor explicación según los autores estaría dada por la exposición a condiciones climáticas severas de estas poblaciones. Sardi et al. (2005), analizó muestras de nativos americanos de la región patagónica, pampa argentina (Mapuches) y región andina (Aymaras-Quechuas). Los resultados muestran una baja variabilidad morfológica en los Patagones en comparación al resto de los amerindios confirmando los análisis de Larh & Wright (1996). Sin embargo, en un contexto global, los patagones muestran la tercera más alta variabilidad morfológica, antecedido por polinésicos y americanos. Esto, según los autores sugeriría un origen único de las poblaciones patagónicas.

I.3. Marcadores moleculares en estudios de poblamiento

En los últimos 30 años, a partir del desarrollo de técnicas de biología molecular como el PCR y la secuenciación, el análisis del genoma se ha transformado en una herramienta útil en estudios de genética de poblaciones, permitiendo la caracterización de poblaciones humanas y el estudio de las interrelaciones evolutivas entre los diferentes grupos humanos.

I.3.1 Primeros marcadores

Previo al desarrollo de los análisis de ADN, numerosos marcadores bioquímicos y de serología fueron utilizados para evaluar movimientos poblacionales así como las afinidades genéticas de las poblaciones. Dentro de los marcadores sanguíneos séricos podemos mencionar los sistemas de histocompatibilidad HLA, Duffy y Diego, las inmunoglobulinas GMs y KMs, los sistemas sanguíneos ABO y Rhesus entre otros. Dentro de los marcadores electroforéticos se encuentran las proteínas Albúmina, Heptaglobina, Transferrina, Fosfatasa acida, entre otras (Crawford, 1992). El uso de estos marcadores permitió confirmar genéticamente la relación entre poblaciones Amerindias y Asiáticas. Cavalli-Sforza et al. (1988) llevaron a cabo un análisis multivariado (componentes principales) a partir de distancias genéticas de Nei, para construir un árbol genético basado en 120 alelos para distintos marcadores, en 42 poblaciones de todo el mundo. Este árbol mostró dos ramas principales, la africana y la no africana. Dentro de la rama no africana, la rama de Eurasia del norte se divide a su vez en las europeas (caucasianas) y las de Asia del noreste, la que incluye a los Amerindios.

La complejidad técnica y la menor variabilidad que tienen estos marcadores con respecto a los de ADN hizo que en la actualidad estos fueran obsoletos y cayeran en desuso en estudios de poblamiento. Su análisis hoy está principalmente relacionado a estudios epidemiológicos y clínicos.

I.3.2 ADN mitocondrial

El ADN mitocondrial tiene características únicas que lo hacen muy apropiado para estudios microevolutivos. Posee una alta frecuencia de mutaciones (5 a 10 veces mayor que el ADN nuclear), no sufre recombinación génica y tiene una transmisión unidireccional por vía materna a lo largo de las generaciones. Su secuencia es conocida completamente desde el año 1981 (Anderson et al., 1981) y consta de 16569 pares de bases. En ella se encuentran codificados los genes para los ARN ribosomales 12s y 16s, para 22 ARN de trasferencia y 13 secuencias que

codifican para proteínas implicadas en la maquinaria energética de la célula. El ADN mitocondrial tiene muy pocas regiones no codificantes, la principal es la denominada región D-loop, con 1.100 pares de bases, está dividida en 3 regiones llamadas Hipervariable (HV) 1, 2 y 3 (Moraga et al., 2004) (fig. 6). Los primeros análisis del ADN mitocondrial en poblaciones humanas fueron realizados en base a la caracterización de sitios de restricción (a través de la técnica RFLP) propios para cada población definiendo así los diferentes haplogrupos mitocondriales (fig. 7). Con la mejora de las técnicas de secuenciación, actualmente se cuenta con la caracterización completa del genoma mitocondrial para cada haplogrupo, lo que ha permitido aumentar la resolución del árbol filogenético mitocondrial (ver www.phylotree.com).

Respecto a América se observa que todos los linajes mitocondriales amerindios descienden de 4 haplogrupos fundadores, correspondiente a los haplogrupos A-D, los cuales tienen su origen en Asia (Torroni et al., 1993a, b). Un 5^{to} haplogrupo, denominado X, ha sido descrito posteriormente en algunas poblaciones de Norteamérica y siempre en baja frecuencia (Brown et al., 1998). En la actualidad, el aumento en la resolución del árbol filogenético mitocondrial ha permitido reclasificar, aumentando a diez los haplogrupos mitocondriales fundadores exclusivos de América; A2, B2, C1b, C1c, C1d, C4c, D1, D2a, D3, D4h3 y X2a. Mientras que A2, B2, C1b, C1c, C1d, D1 y D4h3 se distribuyen en frecuencias variables a lo largo de América, el resto de los haplogrupos fundadores tiene una distribución discreta (Tamm et al., 2007; Kemp et al., 2007; Achilli et al., 2008). C4c ha sido encontrado en nativos de Colombia (Malhi et al., 2010; Kashani et al., 2012) y Canadá, D2a y D3 están restringidos a hablantes Na-Dene y Aleutiano-Esquimo (Volodko et al., 2008), y X2a ha sido descrito solo en el norte de Norteamérica (Perego et al., 2009).

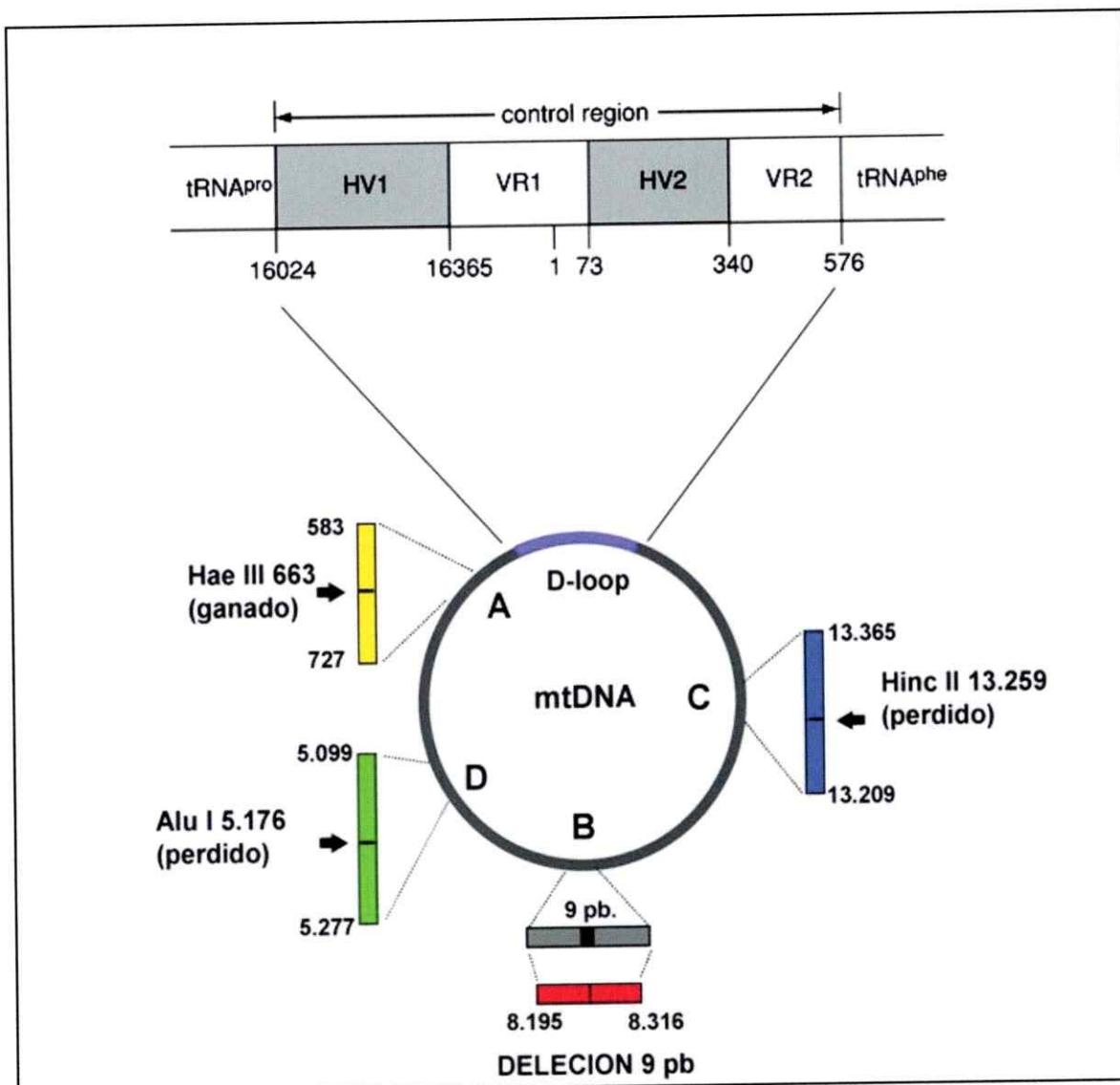


Figura 6. Esquema de la molécula de ADN mitocondrial, junto con los polimorfismos que definen los cuatro haplogrupos mitocondriales amerindios A-D. Además se observa una amplificación de la región control, también llamada Hipervariable (HV) o D-loop.

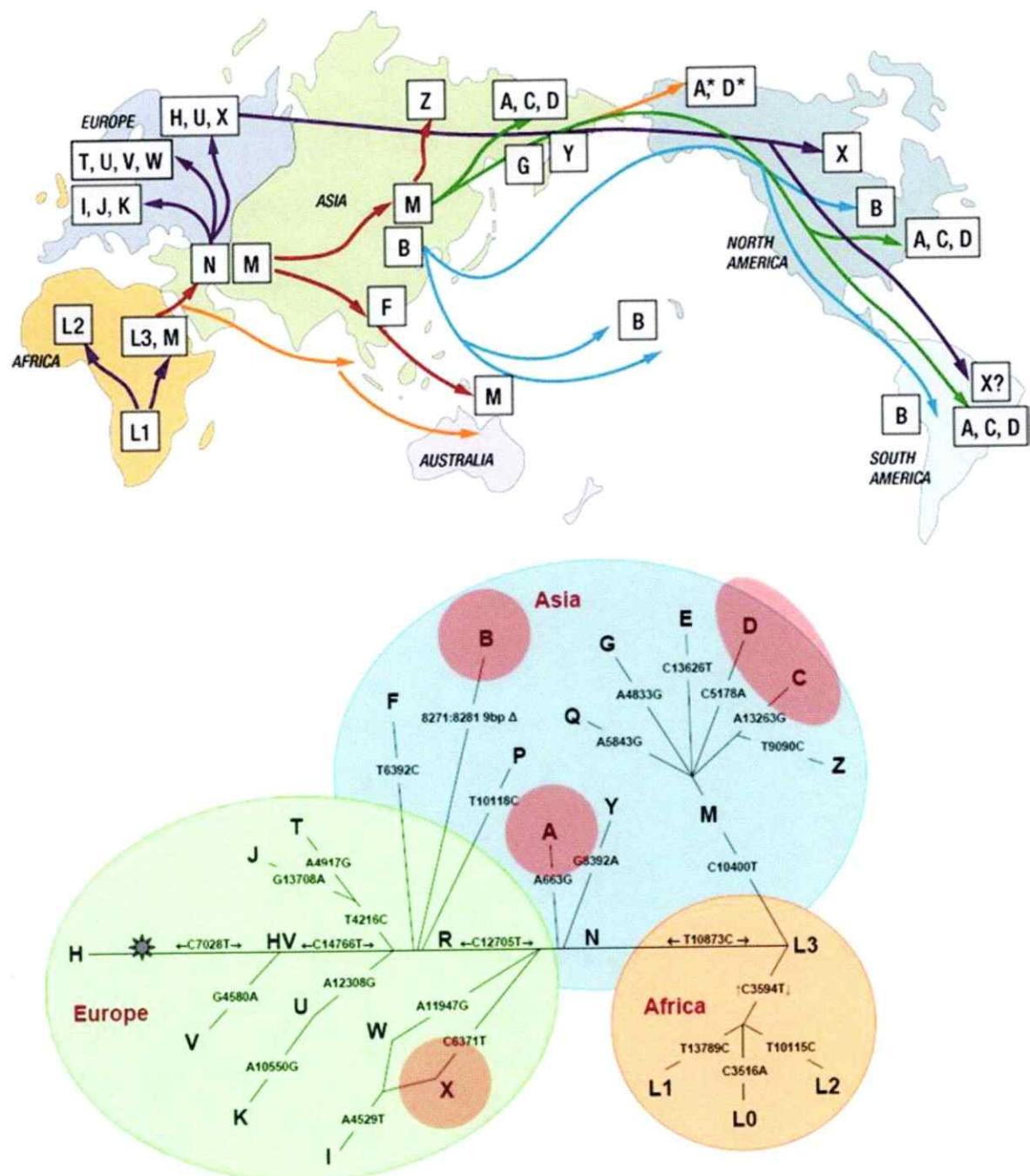


Figura 7. Mapa con la distribución de los diferentes haplogrupos de ADN mitocondrial, junto con los sitios polimórficos que los definen. Los círculos rojos muestran los haplogrupos amerindios (figuras tomadas de www.mitomap.org).

I.3.2 Cromosoma Y

Al igual que lo que ocurre con el ADN mitocondrial, la región no recombinante del cromosoma Y (fig. 8) tiene propiedades que lo hacen muy útil a la hora de análisis de poblamiento. A la ya mencionada ausencia de recombinación (excluyendo la región seudoautosomal), se transmite por vía parental y posee regiones con tasas mutacionales tanto rápidas como lentas. En humanos, el estudio de esta región del genoma se ha transformado en la contraparte masculina a los estudios de ADN mitocondrial, que dada su herencia por vía materna solo relatan la historia filogenética femenina.

Dos tipos de marcadores han sido estudiados en los 60 Mb de ADN, marcadores bialélicos y multialélicos (Jobling & Tyler-Smith, 2003). Los marcadores bialélicos o polimorfismos de nucleótidos únicos, son los llamados SNP por sus siglas en inglés (single nucleotide polymorphisms) y un elemento de inserción Alu, tienen una baja tasa de mutación y representan eventos evolutivos únicos. La combinación de diferentes SNPs en poblaciones humanas ha permitido generar un árbol haplotípico análogo al de los haplogrupos mitocondriales. En los últimos años, gran cantidad de SNPs han sido descritos complejizando a la vez que aumentando la resolución de los haplogrupos de cromosoma Y. Hasta la fecha existen 20 haplogrupos diferentes denominados con letras, desde la A hasta T (Karafet et al., 2008). En América las poblaciones nativas tanto de Norteamérica como de Sudamérica han mostrado tener solo al haplogrupo de cromosoma Y principal denominado Q1a3a1 (fig. 9). Otros dos linajes han sido descritos en poblaciones nativas, principalmente de Norteamérica, pero en baja proporción; el haplogrupo Q1, estado ancestral de Q1a3a1 y presente en Asia, y C3b, derivado del linaje asiático C (Bailliet et al., 2008).

El otro tipo de marcador, el multialélico, son repeticiones cortas en tandem (STR por sus siglas en inglés), tienen una alta tasa de mutación, lo que los hace útiles en análisis poblacionales

y a la hora de identificar individuos (Jobling & Tyler-Smith, 2001). Los STR han sido usados extensivamente en análisis forenses y de paternidad; en los últimos años se han desarrollado dos Kits comerciales de 12 o 17 STR, los cuales tiene a su vez entre 5-15 alelos diferentes. A pesar de su gran utilidad en análisis forenses, la utilización de STR en análisis microevolutivos y de poblamiento ha mostrado ser menos útil, al menos si no está asociado a la determinación de haplogrupos. Debido a la alta variabilidad que tienen los STR, los resultados extraídos de estos estudios son difíciles de interpretar agrupando algunas veces individuos no relacionados filogeográficamente, e impiden caracterizar debidamente la historia biodemográfica de dichas poblaciones.

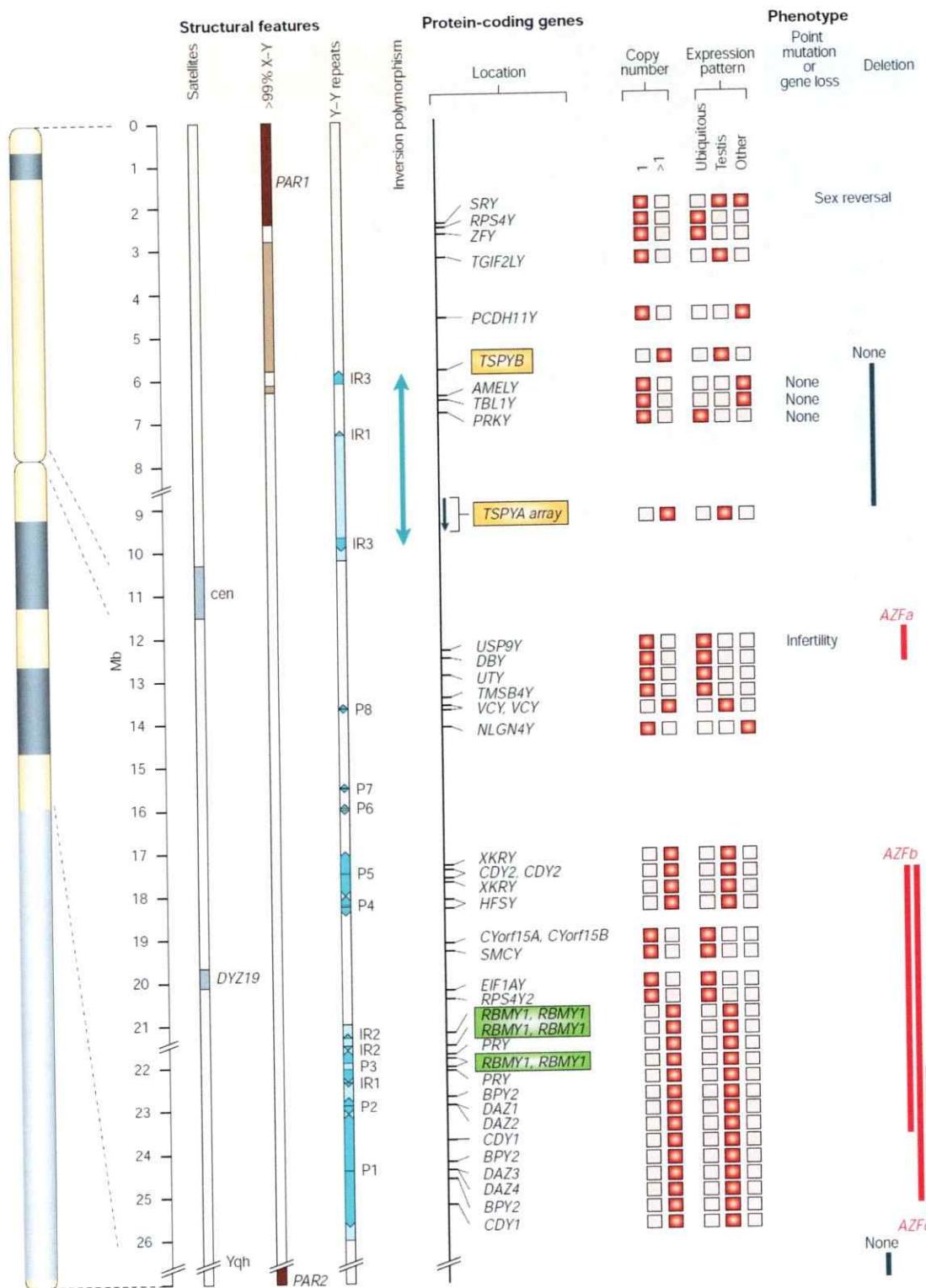


Figura 8. Esquema del cromosoma Y humano (tomada de Jobling & Tyler-Smith 2003).

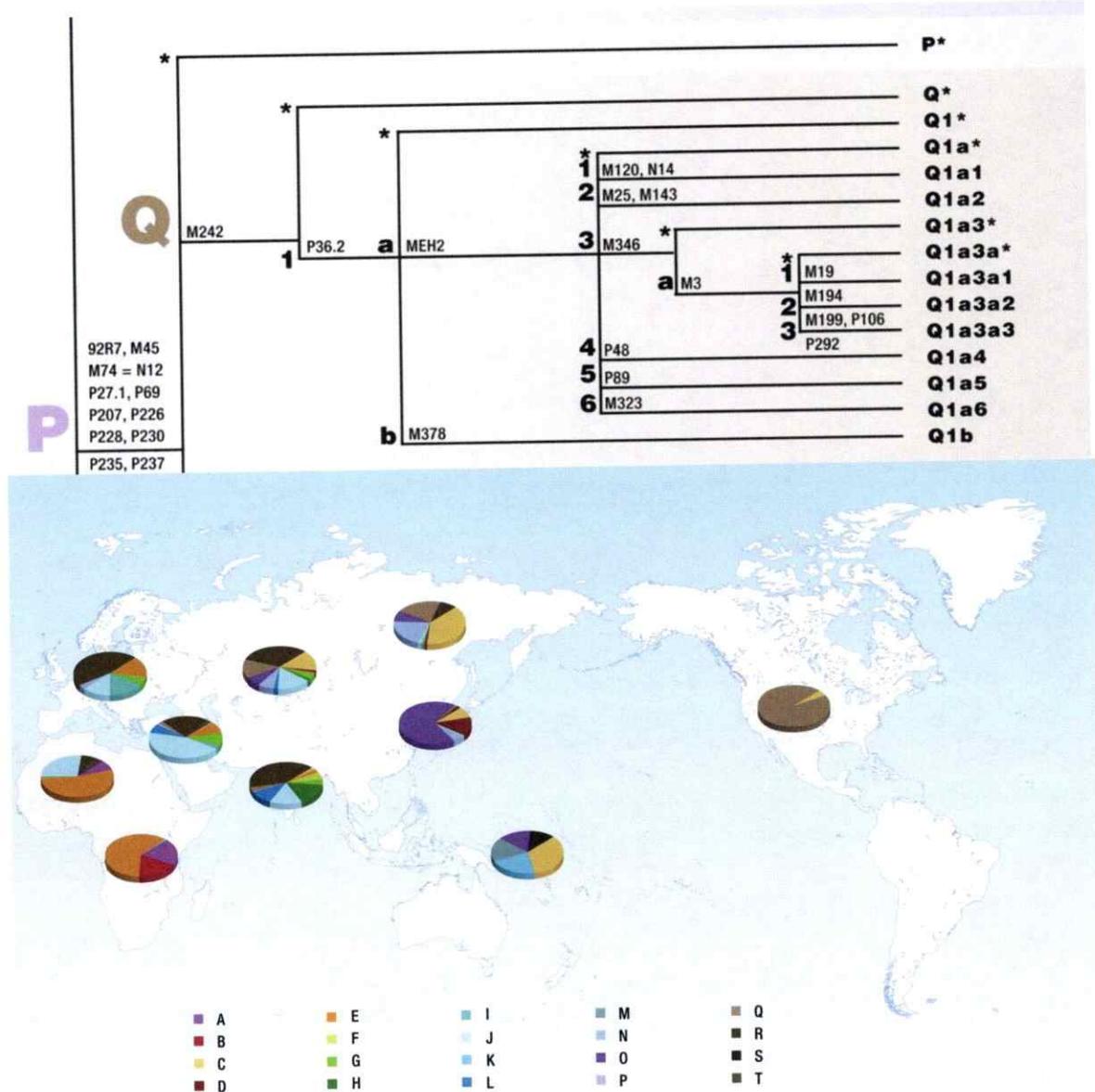


Figura 9. Detalle de la filogenia del haplogrupo Q y mapa mundial con la distribución de haplogrupos de cromosoma Y (Karafet et al., 2008).

I.4. Planteamiento del problema

Como ya hemos visto, a pesar de que en la Patagonia se encuentra uno de los registros arqueológicos más antiguos y completos de toda América, pocos estudios genéticos han sido realizados en las poblaciones indígenas que actualmente habitan dicha área; asimismo la mayoría de ellos fueron realizados hace más de 10 años, por lo que la información ahí disponible es limitada y en general difícil de comparar con los actuales estudios genéticos-poblacionales. Una revisión de dichos estudios, empero, nos da cuenta de algunas particularidades genéticas en las poblaciones indígenas que habitan la región. El análisis realizado por Moraga et al. (2000) con la región Hipervariable 1 del ADN mitocondrial en Mapuche, Pehuenche y Yámana muestra que varios individuos pertenecientes al haplogrupo D comparten el polimorfismo C16187T, lo que sugiere que podríamos estar frente a un nuevo linaje. Análisis realizados con anterioridad con poblaciones indígenas del área, como el de Horai et al. (1993) con Huilliche y Pehuenche, o el de Mapuche de Argentina de Ginther et al. (1993) confirman que este polimorfismo está presente en un porcentaje importante en esta área. Una revisión de otras poblaciones indígenas cercanas como Quechua de Perú (Fuselli et al., 2003) o Toba, Wichi y Pilaga del Chaco Argentino (Cabana et al., (2006) muestra que dicho polimorfismo se encuentra ausente en otras poblaciones, por lo que estaríamos frente a un polimorfismo propio de las poblaciones del sur de Chile y la Patagonia. Los análisis genéticos del ADN mitocondrial mencionados anteriormente revelan además la presencia del haplotipo fundador D4h3a (A16241G y T16342C) el cual es extremadamente escaso en América y que recientemente fue descrito en una momia de Alaska de 10.300 años AP (Kemp et al., 2007). La presencia de este linaje fundador en poblaciones australes nos permite vislumbrar ancestralidad de estas poblaciones.

La información genética disponible no parece relacionarse satisfactoriamente con el actual modelo de poblamiento de la Patagonia propuesto por Rothhammer & Dilehay, (2009), el

cual sugiere dos vías de poblamiento de la Patagonia, una siguiendo la ruta costera que daría origen a las poblaciones del sur de Chile. La Patagonia continental, por otra parte habría sido poblado por una segunda ruta, la que habría avanzado por la vertiente oriental de la cordillera de los andes. La presencia del polimorfismo 16187 en Yámana los relaciona con Mapuche y Pehuenche del sur de Chile. Estos, por su parte deberían estar más relacionados filogenéticamente con poblaciones indígenas del norte de Chile. Estudios preliminares con poblaciones de Aymara y Atacameño no muestran sin embargo cercanía con las poblaciones del sur de Chile, lo que ya había sido sugerido por un estudio de García et al. (2006) en base a frecuencias de haplogrupos mitocondriales. Respecto a la contraparte masculina del ADN mitocondrial, es decir la región no recombinante del cromosoma Y (NRY), la información disponible para las poblaciones mencionadas es escasa y no permite vislumbrar correlaciones filogenéticas.

A través del uso de herramientas genéticas (ADNmt y cromosoma Y) propongo evaluar un modelo de poblamiento alternativo de la Patagonia y sur de Chile al propuesto por Rothhammer y Dillahay, (2009). Para esto se cuenta con una muestra de poblaciones nativas de Chile, provenientes del norte (Aymara y Atacameño) y sur (Mapuche, Pehuenche y Huilliche), y de la Patagonia (Tehuelche, Kawésqar y Yámana), además de una muestra de Mapuche provenientes de Argentina

I.5 HIPOTESIS

“Las poblaciones actuales que habitan la Patagonia y el sur de Chile son los descendientes de la migración original que pobló la Patagonia centro-sur a fines del pleistoceno, y no producto de migraciones posteriores provenientes de los valles de más al norte”

Migraciones transandinas entre el sur de Chile y Argentina a lo largo del holoceno habrían mantenido el flujo genético entre ambos lados de la cordillera conformando a los habitantes de la Patagonia como una unidad filogeográfica diferente de las poblaciones indígenas del norte de Chile.

“La ancestría y aislamiento de las poblaciones del sur de Chile y la Patagonia habría permitido la aparición de linajes genéticos específicos, los cuales se habrían mantenido exclusivamente en dichas poblaciones”

Es esperable que estas poblaciones gracias a la retención de caracteres ancestrales presenten haplogrupos de ADN mitocondrial y/o cromosoma Y no observados en poblaciones indígenas de otras áreas geográficas.

I.6 OBJETIVOS

I.6.1 OBJETIVOS GENERALES

- Determinar la historia microevolutiva y demográfica de las poblaciones que habitan en la actualidad en sur de Chile y la Patagonia.
- Determinar la relación filogeográfica de Mapuches, Pehuenches y Huilliches con poblaciones de la Patagonia centro-sur y poblaciones del norte de Chile.
- Determinar si existen nuevos linajes mitocondriales y de cromosoma Y exclusivos a estas poblaciones.

I.6.2 OBJETIVOS ESPECIFICOS

I.6.2.1 Capítulo 1

- Determinar los polimorfismos de restricción del mtDNA a través de análisis de RFLP (Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms) para Huilliche, no determinado en estudios anteriores.
- Obtener amplificados para las regiones hipervariables (HV) I, II y III del D-loop mitocondrial, y las respectivas secuencias para Aymara, Atacameño, Huilliche y Mapuche Chi.
- Obtener amplificados y completar las secuencias de los extremos de la región HVIII no obtenidas por el estudio previo Moraga et al. (2000) de las poblaciones Pehuenche y Yámana incluidas en este estudio.
- Alinear las secuencias obtenidas para Aymara, Atacameño, Huilliche, Pehuenche Mapuche y Yámana, junto con las secuencias de Kawésqar obtenidas por Moraga et al. (2011) (ver anexo) y las de Tehuelche y Mapuche Argentino proporcionadas por el Dr. Claudio Bravi (IMBICE, La Plata, Argentina).

-Realizar análisis con las secuencias alineadas agrupándolas por población de pertenencia o haplotipos.

I.6.2.2 Capítulo 2

-Seleccionar aproximadamente 15 individuos, para cada uno de los sub-haplogrupos específicos de la región, B2l y C1b13, para la secuenciación del genoma mitocondrial completo.

-Obtener 11 amplificados de ~3kb, los cuales cubren todo el genoma mitocondrial. Secuenciar cada con tres partidores diferentes de tal forma cubrir todo el genoma mitocondrial con al menos dos secuencias independientes.

-Alinear y formar contigs de las secuencias obtenidas, realizar la filogenia de los linajes a través de las secuencias completas.

I.6.2.3 Capítulo 3

-Determinar haplogrupos del cromosoma Y mediante amplificación y digestión de los SNP para poblaciones indígenas estudiadas.

- Determinar haplogrupos del cromosoma Y mediante amplificación y digestión de los SNP para una muestra de poblaciones rurales de Chile.

-Analizar y comparar los resultados obtenidos en población indígena y población rural, de tal forma de determinar la existencia de algún linaje amerindio no descrito anteriormente.

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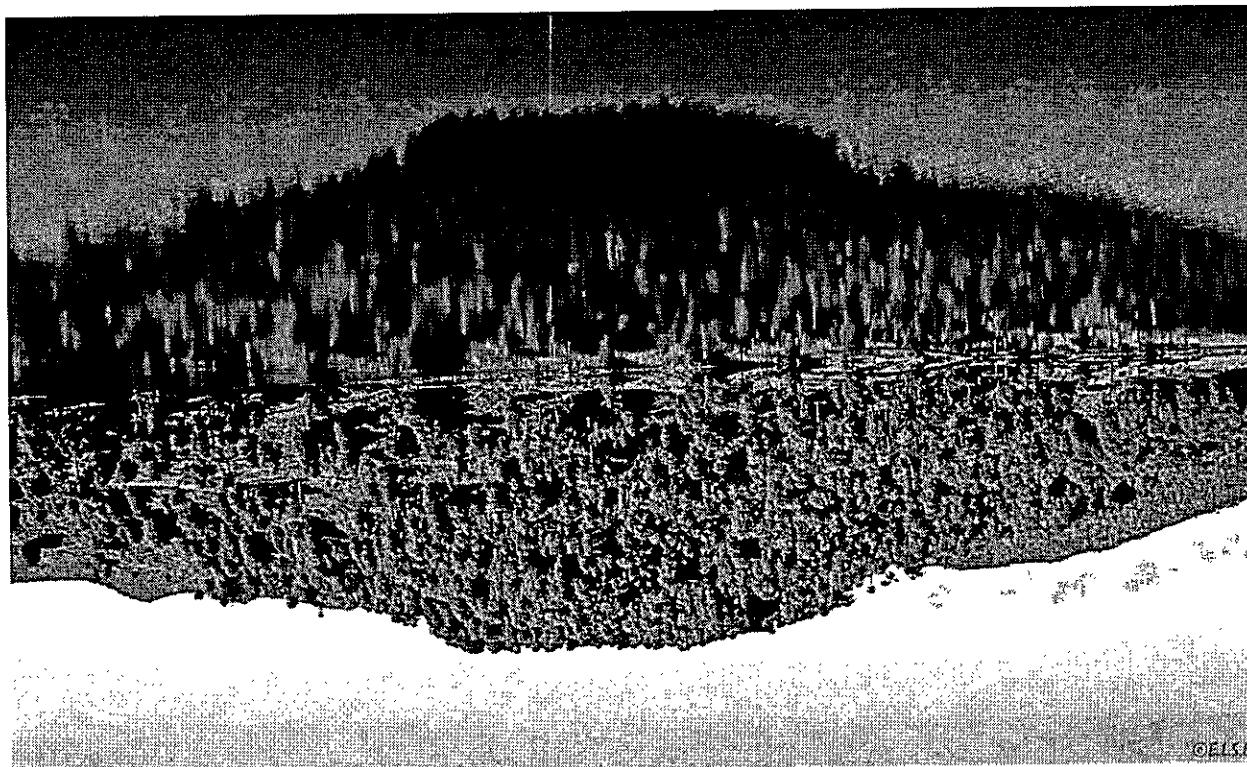
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II. CAPITULO 1

Un modelo de poblamiento temprano alternativo del cono sur de Sudamérica a partir del análisis de tres haplogrupos mitocondriales



II. An alternative model for the early peopling of southern South America revealed by analyses of three mitochondrial DNA haplogroups.

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II.1 ABSTRACT

After several years of research, there is now a consensus that America was populated from Asia through Beringia, probably at the end of the Pleistocene. But many details such as the timing, route(s), and origin of the first settlers remain uncertain. In the last decade genetic evidence has taken on a major role in elucidating the peopling of the Americas.

To study the early peopling of South America, we sequenced the control region of mitochondrial DNA from 300 individuals belonging to indigenous populations of Chile and Argentina, and also obtained seven complete mitochondrial DNA sequences.

We identified two novel mtDNA monophyletic clades, preliminarily designated B2l and C1b13, which together with the recently described D1g sub-haplogroup have locally high frequencies and are basically restricted to populations from the extreme south of South America. The estimated ages of D1g and B2l, about ~15,000 years BP, together with their similar population dynamics and the high haplotype diversity shown by the networks, suggests that they probably appeared soon after the arrival of the first settlers and agrees with the dating of the earliest archaeological sites in South America (Monte Verde, Chile, 14,500 BP). One further sub-haplogroup, D4h3a5, appears to be restricted to Fuegian-Patagonian populations and reinforces our hypothesis of the continuity of the current Patagonian populations with the initial founders.

Our results indicate that the extant native populations inhabiting South Chile and Argentina are a group which had a common origin, and suggest a population break between the extreme south of South America and the more northern part of the continent. Thus the early colonization process was not just an expansion from north to south, but also included movements across the Andes.

II.2 INTRODUCTION

Reconstruction of the biological history of aboriginal Amerindian populations has been widely debated in the literature for the last two decades. After several years of research, there is now a consensus that America was populated from Siberia (Asia) through the Bering Strait [1], sometime at the end of the Pleistocene. But many details, such as the timing, route, and origin of the first humans, remain uncertain [2].

The extreme south of South America, or Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego (P-TdF), has one of the oldest and most continuous archeological records of early human occupation in the Americas. Monte Verde, in Puerto Mont, Chile, dated at 14,500 years BP [3-4] was for a long period of time the oldest archaeological site in America, including North America, the gateway of the first settlers. The Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego region has also many archeological sites with undeniable proof of ancient human occupation. Localities like Cueva Fell (10,000–11,000 years BP), Pali Aike (8,700 BP) [5], Piedra Museo (12,800 BP) [6], and the Tres Arroyos site (11,800 BP) [7] provide evidence of human occupation since at least 12,000 years ago.

In the last decade, genetic evidence has taken on a major role in our knowledge of the peopling of the Americas. One of the markers most extensively used, mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), has allowed the maternal ancestry of Native Americans to be traced to four major pan-continental haplogroups A-D and one minor North American haplogroup X [8-12]. The classical allotment of Native American maternal lineages to haplogroups A-D began to gain better resolution with acknowledgment of the existence of different ethnically/geographically structured founder haplotypes within at least some of the haplogroups [13, 14]. Beginning with the pivotal work of Bandelt et al. (2003) [15], several studies have increased the amount of high-resolution data available, mostly in the form of complete mtDNA sequences and/or complete control region sequences and selected SNP typing. The present landscape of extant Native

American mtDNA phyletic diversity is composed of the same major five basal haplogroups A-D plus X, but we are now able to distinguish one to four founder sequences in each haplogroup, adding up to ten monophyletic sub-haplogroups; A2, B2, C1b, C1c, C1d, C4c, D1, D2a, D3 and D4h3a [15-21]

In spite of the importance of the P-TdF region, few studies of mitochondrial DNA have been performed with current or historical indigenous populations of the area like the Mapuche, Pehuenche, Huilliche, Yámana and Kawésqar [9-10, 22-27]. These studies show a cline north to south for the B2, C1b and D1 haplogroups, with B2 decreasing in frequency until it completely disappears in the extreme South in populations such as the Yámana and Kawésqar. C1d and D1 increase their frequencies as we move southward [23-27]. Regarding the D-loop sequences of mtDNA, these populations have shown a high frequency of a geographically-linked D1 haplogroup lineage characterized by the presence of the polymorphism (D1g, according to a report by Bodner et al., 2012 [28]), which was recognized early as specific to the region by Forster et al. (1996) [13]. Genetic studies of populations from the rest of South America appear to confirm this observation, since up until now this lineage has not been found in other Native populations from South America [29-51].

In this study, we sequenced the control region of mitochondrial DNA from 300 individuals belonging to indigenous populations of Chile and Argentina and obtained seven complete mitochondrial sequences, to allow a better understanding of the peopling of South America's Southern Cone. Our analyses confirm that sub-haplogroup D1g is a major lineage of the native Patagonians and Fuegians of Chile and Argentina, which would have appeared soon after the colonization of this area. We also found a high frequency of two other mitochondrial lineages characteristic of the region for the B2 and C1b haplogroups, identified by the transitions A470G and C258T, respectively, and preliminarily designated as B2l and C1b13. The haplotype

networks of D1g and B2I indicate a high diversity, concordant with the calculation of the Time of Most Recent Common Ancestor (TMRCA) for the two lineages, and suggesting that the current inhabitants are probably descendants of the first colonizers. One further sub-haplogroup, D4h3a5, also appears to be restricted to P-TdF populations. The fact that these lineages are restricted to a specific geographical area has allowed us to elaborate in greater detail the dynamics of the populations that carry them, and thus reconstruct the micro-evolutionary history of southern South America.

II.3 RESULTS

II.3.1 Mitochondrial lineages

We analyzed the sequences of the mtDNA control region (rCRS (revised Cambridge Reference Sequence) positions 16032–16544 and 051–555) of 301 individuals belonging to indigenous groups from Chile and Argentina: Aymara, Atacameño, Pehuenche, Mapuche of Chile and Argentina, Huilliche, Tehuelche, Kawésqar and Yámana (see Figure 1 and Table S1). All individuals analyzed were assigned to the American haplogroups A2, B2, C1b, C1c, C1d, D1 and D4h3a, except for one Huilliche assigned to L2a, who was excluded from the analyses (more information on Amerindian haplotypes in Table S5.). Overall, haplogroups B2, C1b and D1 were the most represented; meanwhile low frequencies of A2, C1c and C1d were found in most of the populations analyzed, except for 25% A2 in the Atacameño. B2 peaked in the Atacameño and Aymara, with frequencies >57%, in agreement with values reported for other southern Central Andean populations [22, 29-30, 32, 35, 38-39, 48]. Consistent with previous reports of both extant and ancient DNA studies in southern South America [9-10, 24, 25-26], B2 showed a latitudinal clinal variation with higher frequencies in northern Patagonia, intermediate values in Tehuelche and complete absence in the southernmost Yámana and Kawésqar [26].

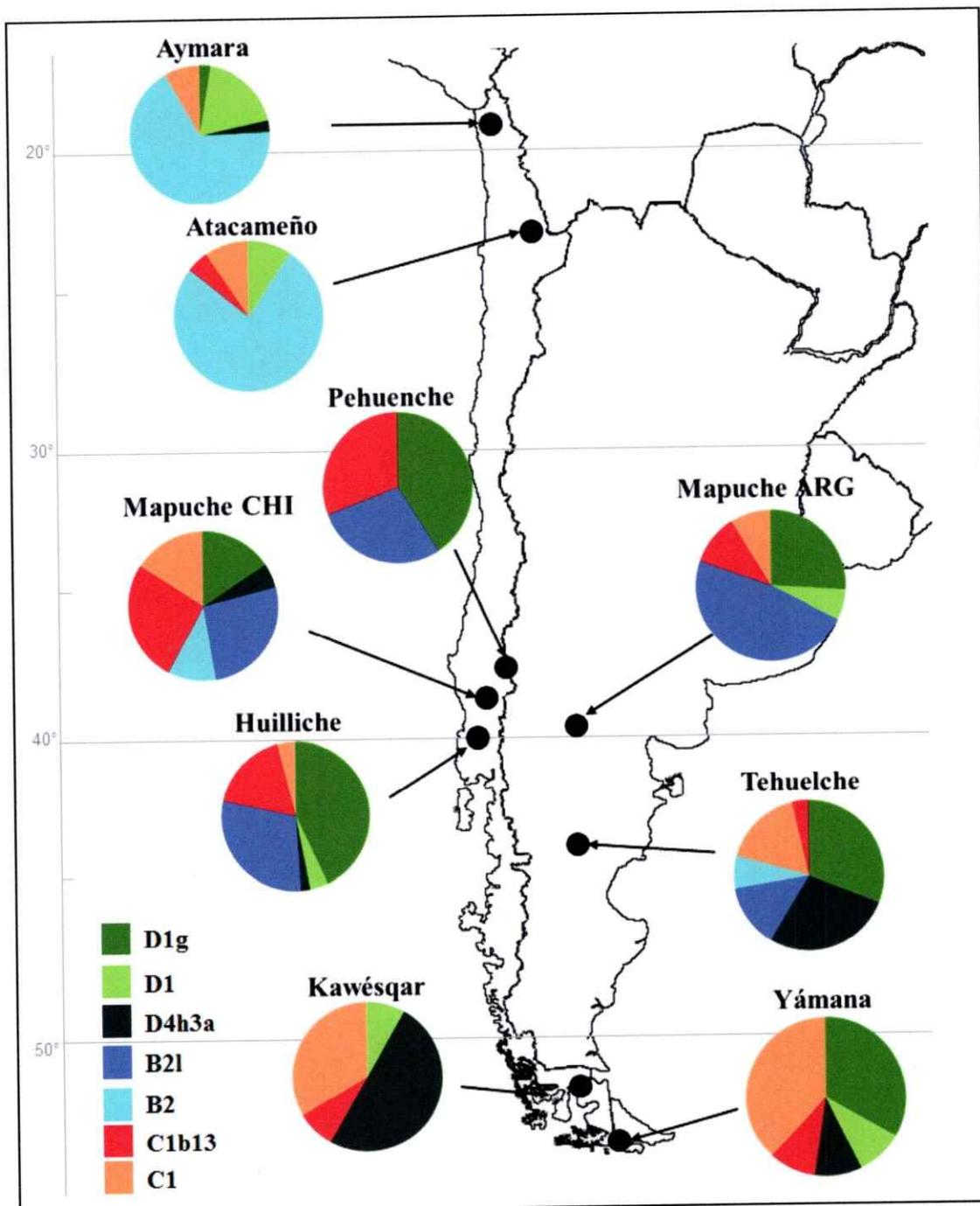


Figure 1. Haplogroup lineage map for each population studied. Haplogroup A2 was not represented due to its low representation in these populations. Note the large differences in frequency for D1g, B2l and C1b13 between northern and southern populations. The grey line represents the latitude.

Frequencies of C1b and D1 also showed a clinal variation, with minor values for the Aymara and Atacameño in the north with respect to southern populations. One Huilliche carried the single C1c lineage reported in this study, while one Kawésqar and one Argentinean Mapuche shared an almost identical C1d sequence attributable to the Patagonian-specific C1d1e branch [52]. The distribution of haplogroup D4h3a was also skewed, being present in only four out of 237 individuals in southern Central Andean and northern Patagonian populations, but accounting for 25% of the 63 southern Fuegian-Patagonian individuals, with values ranging between 10% and 46% in the Tehuelche, Yámana and Kawésqar. All P-TdF individuals belonged to haplogroup D4h3a5 as redefined by us (see nomenclature).

II.3.1.1 Haplogroup D1

D1 lineages accounted for 87 out of the 300 sequences in this study (29%), with 70 of them (80%) carrying C16187T, a diagnostic marker of D1g. Clade D1g had a structured pattern of geographic distribution, being found almost exclusively in the central-southern part of Chile and Argentina (Figure 1). In northern Chile only one Aymara had C16187T, sharing a haplotype with one Huilliche and two Argentinean Mapuche (Figure 2), a finding that may be explained by rather recent migratory events. The most southerly record of D1g is at 57° S, where six Yámana shared a haplotype absent in all other individuals analyzed here. Complete mitochondrial sequences were obtained for three D1g individuals (two Tehuelche and one Yámana); we constructed a revisited phylogeny adding our tree sequences to 23 already published by Bodner et al. (2012) [28] (see Figure S1). We confirm the Yámana is the single representative of a new sub-haplogroup called D1g2, not represented in Bodner's phylogeny; the other two samples belong to another sub-haplogroup, D1g1, defined by the coding polymorphism 8116. In order to explore the distribution of these two sub-haplogroups in our sample, we sequenced some additional samples for coding polymorphisms in D1g2 (10202, 10724 and 13020) and D1g1

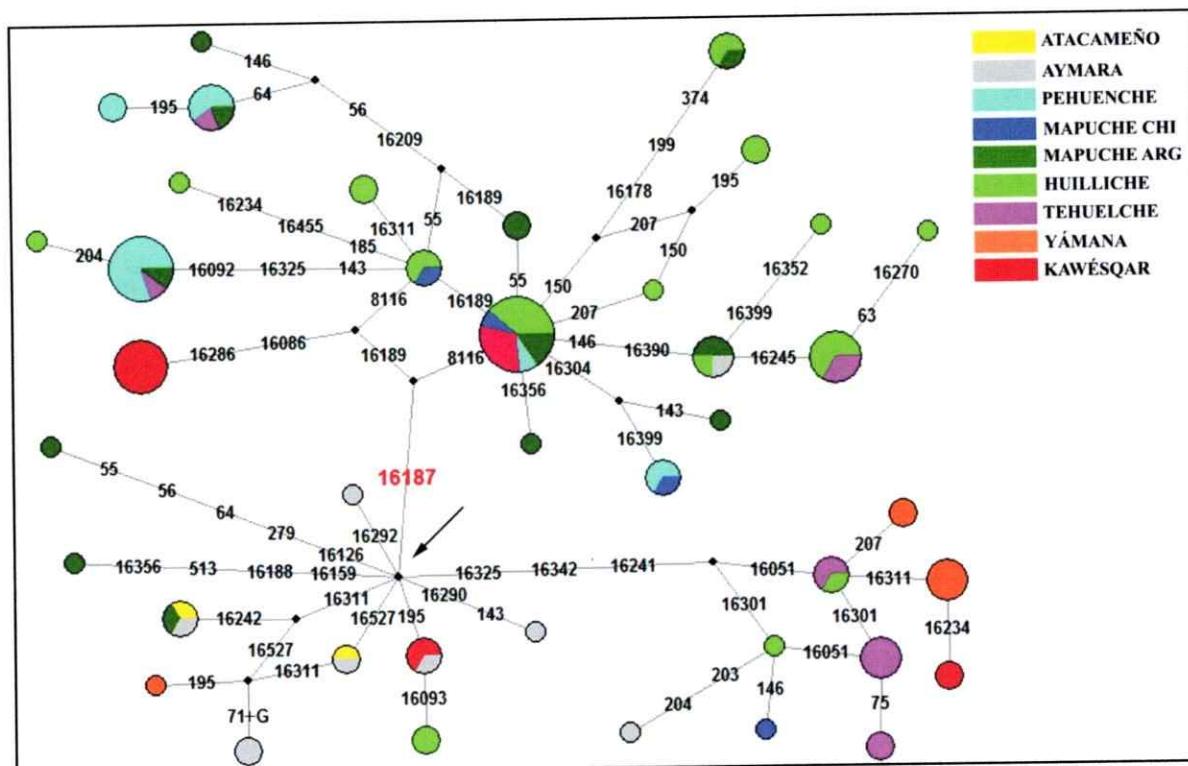


Figure 2. Network for D haplogroup. The arrow shows D1 nodal, characterized by rCRS differences at 16223-16325-16362-073-263-315+C-489. Besides the D1 haplotypes, here is represented the new lineage D1g, characterized by the mutation 16187T plus D1 core, and the D4h3a lineages, characterized by 16342 and 16241 polymorphisms.

(8116) (see supplemental material, Table S5). We didn't find any D1g2 polymorphism in any individual analyzed; all belonged to D1g1. We typed the 8116 mutation by PCR-RFLP for the samples not sequenced. Our results indicate that 8116 was absent in the rest of the Yámana, but was present in all remaining D1g samples analyzed.

None of the 13 Kawésqar analyzed here was assignable to D1g. However, the ancient DNA study of García-Bour et al. (2004) [26] described four Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego individuals as D1g, so the presence of this lineage in Kawésqar cannot be ruled out. Since the populations which inhabited the southern extreme of Patagonia have nearly or completely disappeared, it will be hard to determine the real extent of this lineage in southern Patagonia. These can explain the extreme differences in the two clades for D1g; D1g2 was found only in the Yámana and is probably a specific haplotype for the extreme south Patagonian populations, versus the highly diverse D1g1, with six different clusters and present in the remainder populations. Recently, a haplotype D1g1 defined by transitions at 16189, 16209, 55 and 56, and present in the Pehuenche, Argentine Mapuche and Tehuelche, was recovered in five out of seven D1g individuals from the Salitroso Basin ($47^{\circ} 25' S$, $71^{\circ} 29' W$), a low-altitude lacustrine basin situated between 100 and 300 m.a.s.l. in central Patagonia, in samples dated between 418 ± 40 and $1,142 \pm 42$ yr BP (Moraga, personal communication).

II.3.1.2 Haplogroup B2

B2 sequences were found in 34% of the 300 individuals studied. Network analysis showed the presence of three major sub-haplogroups with disjointed geographic distribution. Two of them, defined by mutations T146C-A215G-455+T and C16188T, accounted for two thirds of the B2 lineages in the Aymara and Atacameño. Sequences attributable to these groups have already been reported in both ancient and extant southern Central Andean populations [29-30, 32-33, 35, 39-40, 44, 48]. The third cluster, defined by the presence of A470G, which is completely absent

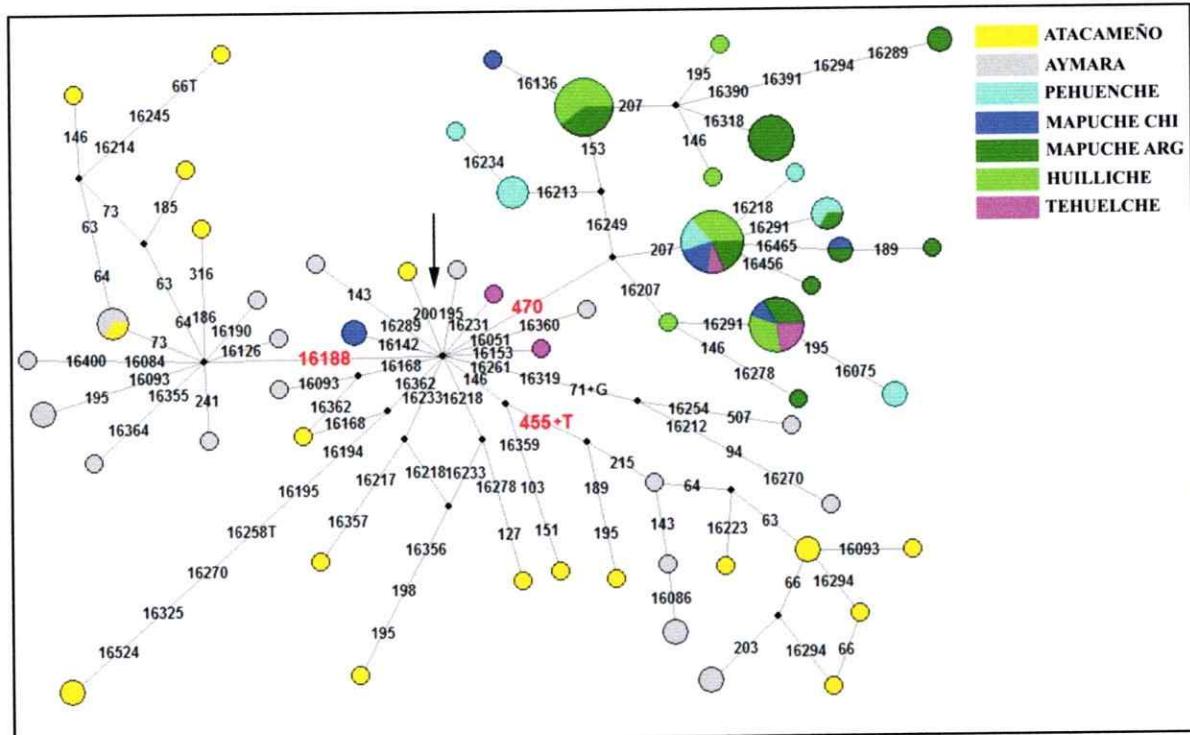


Figure 3. Network for B2 haplogroup. The arrow shows B2 nodal, characterized by rCRS differences at 16183C-16189-16217-073-263-315+C-499. We show also the new lineage B2l, characterized by the B2 core plus the 470 polymorphism. We noted also the north haplotypes characterized by the 16188 polymorphism and the 455+T insertion.

in northern Chile, grouped together 57 of the 61 B2 lineages from Patagonia. We provisionally designated this branch as B2l, but further complete mtDNA sequences are needed in order to describe the lineage properly. Close inspection of the network encompassing the B2l lineages (Figure 3) shows high variability, which is confirmed by the values of nucleotide diversity (Table S2). There is not a clear geographic structure within clade B2l, to which all individuals from southern Chile belong with the exception of two Mapuche and two Tehuelche. All the evidence suggests that lineage B2l arose early from the B2 haplogroups brought by the early colonizers in the Pleistocene-Holocene limit, and that they evolved independently of the B2 lineages highly represented in northern Chile and Argentina.

II.3.1.3 Haplogroup C1

Sixty-four out of 67 C1 individuals analyzed in this paper were assignable to C1b. Among these, 67% have the polymorphism C258T not previously recognized as a clade in native South Americans, which prompts us to provisionally define this branch as C1b13. Similarly for B2l, complete sequences will be required to confirm this assignment. This clade has greater haplotype but lesser nucleotide diversity than C1 (Table S2), which may be explained by a later appearance of C1b13. The haplotype networks (see Figure 4) of both C1b and C1b13 are star-like, a clear indication of population expansion in recent times, in contrast to the complexity of the networks of D1g and B2l. Branch C1b13 is found mainly between 38° and 42° S (Figure 1), with only a small representation in the Yámana and Kawésqar. The Tehuelche showed a haplotype distribution similar to that found in the Pehuenche, Mapuche and Huilliche. Outside Patagonia, C1b13 lineages were also present in one Atacameño and one Coya from NW Argentina [30].

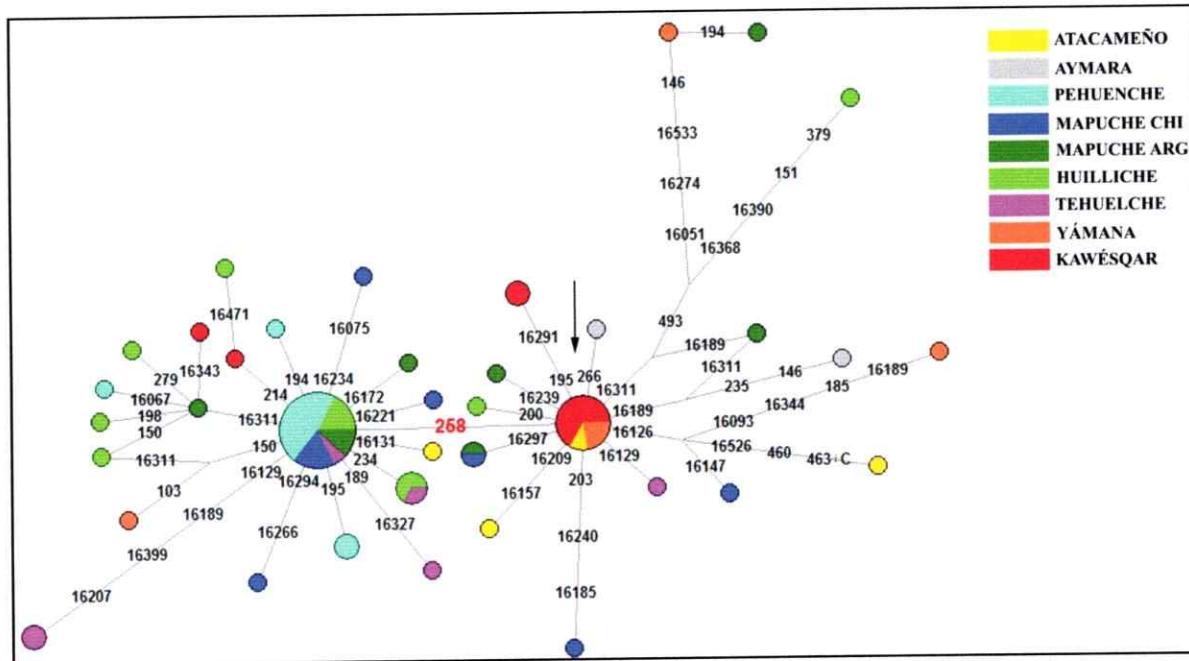


Figure 4. Network for C1 haplogroup. The arrow shows C1b nodal, characterized by rCRS differences at 16223-16298-16325-16327-073-249d-263-290d-291d-315+C-489-493-522d-523d. We also show the C1b13 lineage, characterized by the 258 polymorphism plus C1b core.

II. 3.2 Bayesian Analysis

In order to understand the peopling of the extreme south of South America and to date the appearance of the specific lineages mentioned above, we performed analyses with Bayesian statistics using the program BEAST v1.53v. The sequences were grouped using two different criteria, by ethnic affiliation and by phylogenetic affiliation (haplogroups D1g, B2l and C1b13, see Materials and Methods for additional information). For both the construction of Bayesian Skyline Plots and for calculating TMRCA, we used a mutation rate of 30.2% per site per million years from Endicott & Ho, (2008) [53] (see supplementary discussion for the mutational rate choice, Supplemental Discussion S1).

III.3.2.1 Time of the Most Recent Common Ancestor (TMRCA)

To date the appearance of the Patagonian lineages, we combined our sequences with published data of 106 A2, D1, C1 and B2 sequences from South America [30, 54-59], generating a data matrix of 406 sequences. The objective was to produce a more complete map of the diversity in South America for the process of dating the specific haplotypes, and thus avoid a possible overestimation of the TMRCA. In Table 1 we show the age of divergence of the lineages D1g, B2l, C1b13 and D4h3a5. Because the discussion about the use of a particular rate is far from resolved, for the TMRCA we decided to compare the ages obtained with different mutation rates, from one considered fast (45%, Howell et al. 2003 [60]) to a slower one (24%, Santos et al. 2005 [61]) and two rates in the mid-range [19-53]. We also calculated the rho statistic from the networks for each clade, and used the Soares mutation rate to convert the rho into ages [62]. Besides differences between the ages obtained due to the mutation rates, we found major differences between C1b13 vs. D1g and B2l. Taking the mutation rate from Endicott & Ho, (2008) [53] (see supplemental discussion S1 and Table S3) we obtained older ages for D1g and B2l ($15,175 \pm 233$ and $14,172 \pm 179$ years, respectively) than for C1b13;

Table 1. Comparison of the coalescence ages calculated with different mutation rates.

| Mutational rates/ Groups | 0.45 m/s/mya ^a years BP | 0.34 m/s/mya ^b years BP | 0.302 m/s/mya ^c years BP | 0.24 m/s/mya ^d years BP | Soares clock ^e years BP |
|-----------------------------|--|--|---|--|--|
| D1g | 10,184 | 13,479 | 15,175 | 19,096 | 27,174 |
| B2I | 9,511 | 12,588 | 14,172 | 17,833 | 22,645 |
| C1b13 | 7,773 | 10,288 | 11,583 | 14,575 | 14,040 |
| D4h3a5 | 6,867 | 9,088 | 10,232 | 12,875 | 9,964 |

m/s/mya = mutation/site/million years ago.

a, b, c & d are calculated based on Bayesian analysis. e is calculated based on ρ calculation according to Saillard et al., 2000.

a = Howell et al., 2000; b = Kemp et al., 2007; c = Endicott & Ho, 2008; d = Santos et al., 2005; e = Soares et al. (2009).

C1b13 was ~2.5-3 Kyr younger. These ages suggest that at least D1g and B2l originated at the time that the first populations reached the zone, which was at least 14,500 years ago according to the archeological record [3-4]. The Howell mutation rate, considered too fast for some authors for settlement studies, gave us a minimum age of ~10 Kyr for D1g. The C1b13 clade, on the other hand, would have originated somewhat later. The D4h3a5 sub-haplogroup, also mentioned by Perego et al. (2009) [21] but redefined here, has an age of 10,232 yr BP, later than the ages obtained for D1g and B2l, and similar to the one obtained for C1b13. However, because D4h3a5 is found in southern Patagonian populations, principally in the Tehuelche and Kawésqar (Figure 2), it is probable that the rise of D4h3a5 was a local and later event produced in some of the early populations that settled Patagonia.

II.3.2.2 Bayesian Skyline Plots (BSP)

Figure 5a shows the growth curves (Bayesian Skyline Plots, or BSPs) for the specific lineages D1g, B2l and C1b13. The main difference in growth over time is the explosive lineage expansion of C1b13, of an order of magnitude, beginning about 5,000 years BP. For D1g there was constant growth beginning 9,000 years BP, at a slower rate; in contrast the B2l population size remained constant over time, with a slight growth about 3,500 years BP. The great difference in the BSP curve of C1b13 compared to D1g and B2l, added to the differences observed in the haplotype networks and the coalescence age, suggest different events for the emergence of C1b13.

We also performed BSP with the sequences grouped by populations (see Figure 5b). The pattern of growth over time varied among the populations studied, in accordance with their different histories and subsistence strategies. In northern Chile the Aymara showed a large growth, the greatest of the studied populations, beginning around 8,000 BP and reaching its maximum about ~5,000 years BP, corresponding to the beginning of plant and animal

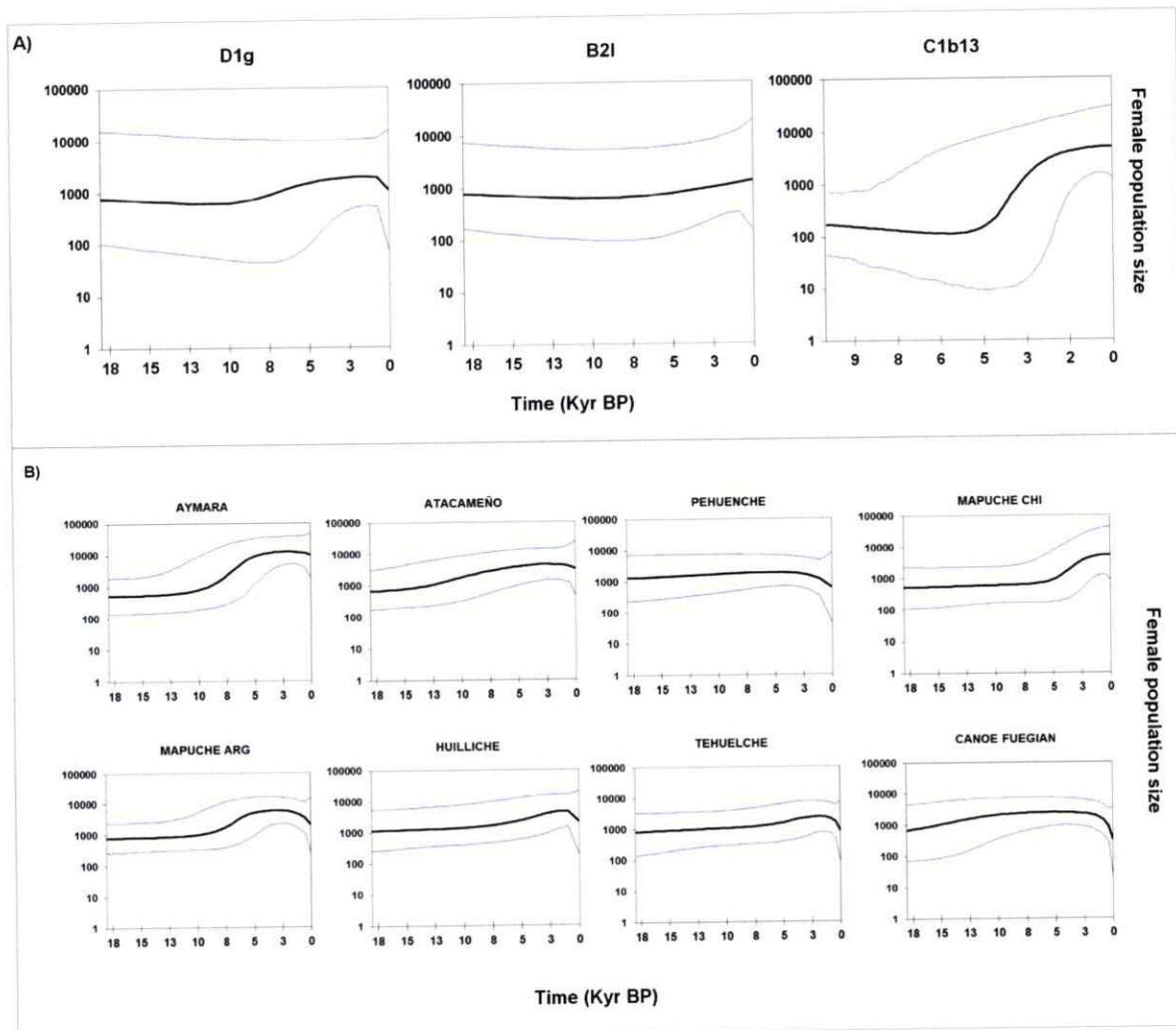


Figure 5. Bayesian Skyline Plot (BSP) showing effective population size through time derived from mtDNA D-loop sequences. A) Southern Cone specific haplotypes. B) By ethnic group.

domestication which was the basis of the later development of agriculture [63], and then became stable except for a slight decrease ~500 years ago, attributable to the catastrophic disruption produced by European colonizers. Despite not having found direct evidence of old agriculture in north Chilean populations, discoveries in Peru shown that the adoption of agricultural techniques by native populations is older than previous estimations. There is evidence of irrigation canals associated with architectural structures dated between 7,600 and 4,500 ^{14}C yr BP [64], and also an early adoption of peanut, squash, cotton and quinoa, whose archeological remains have been dated between 9,240 and 5,500 ^{14}C yr BP [65]. The curve for the Atacameño, on the other hand, shows a much lower rate of expansion than the Aymara, which may be explained by a greater influence of Andean populations and access to Altiplano's resources for the Aymara than for the Atacameño [54].

In the south, between 38° and 42° S, we analyzed four populations: the Pehuenche, Mapuche (Chile and Argentina) and Huilliche. The BSP graphs show some differences in the population dynamics of these groups. The Mapuche of Argentina and Chile had a similar pattern, with less population expansion than that observed in the Aymara. The Huilliche also showed growth, but less than that of the Mapuche. By contrast, the Pehuenche showed almost no population expansion, clearly different than the Mapuche and Huilliche. It should be noted that the Pehuenche are the only group in which all of the B, C and D lineages belong to clades B2l, C1b13 and D1g (Figure 1). Thus, the differences in the history of their demographic growth may be related to different subsistence strategies, hunter-gatherers in the case of the Pehuenche and agriculture in the case of the Mapuche and Huilliche [66]. Finally, the groups analyzed from southern Tierra del Fuego-Patagonia, the Tehuelche and the “canoe people”, the Yámana and Kawésqar, showed similar historical dynamics with little population growth, which is consistent

with their ways of life as terrestrial (Tehuelche) and marine (Yámana and Kawésqar) hunter-gatherers [67]. There was a slight increase in the population size of the Tehuelche in the last 2000 years, which may be due to the movement of the Mapuche to the south, mixing with the inhabitants of southern Patagonia. Complex patterns of interaction between the native inhabitants on both sides of the southern Andes have been recorded in a plethora of archaeological, historical and ethnohistorical studies [68-69]. The intensity of contact, with important eastward migrations, increased notably from the 17th century onwards as a strategy to cope with colonial pressure on southern Chilean populations. This process resulted in what is known as the araucanization of Pampa-Patagonia, i.e. the important cultural and biological influence of trans-Andean populations. Further biological admixture occurred as a consequence of the military conquest of Patagonia by the Argentinean Army in the 1870s that resulted in the forced southward relocation of native populations from Northern Patagonia. With regard to the Tehuelche population analyzed in this paper, the available historical and genealogical information both record the recent introgression of both Mapuche and admixed Chileans [70].

II.3.3 Genetic diversity analyses

We used Wright's F_{ST} pairwise measure of population differentiation to evaluate the genetic differences among ethnic groups (Table S4), which indicated the existence of two main groups: the populations from northern Chile (the Aymara and Atacameño) and the populations of southern Chile and Argentina, the Huilliche, Pehuenche, Argentine Mapuche and Chilean Mapuche. The Tehuelche, Yámana and Kawésqar were closer to the southern than the northern group; however, they also have high F_{ST} values with respect to the rest of the southern populations, which indicate that the extreme southern populations remained more isolated yet. A dendrogram constructed from the matrix of F_{ST} values using neighbor-joining illustrates this situation graphically (Figure S2).

II.4 DISCUSSION

This study analyzed aboriginal populations of Chile and Argentina, some of which are carriers of clades D1g, B2l and C1b13, a set of lineages that so far have been described only in the southernmost part of South America. Their geographic location, diversity and presence in populations confirm that these are three new clades in the Amerindian mitochondrial tree not previously characterized. The estimated ages of D1g and B2l, about ~15,000 yr BP, together with their similar population dynamics, suggest that they probably appeared soon after the arrival of the first settlers. By contrast, the results for C1b13 show a somewhat later appearance, in a group that underwent a lineage expansion. The differences apparent according to several analyses (network topologies, descriptive statistics, Bayesian Skyline Plot) in C1b13 vs. B2l and D1g also support a different temporal and geographic scenario to explain the origin of D1g and B2l compared to C1b13. A possible scenario to explain the appearance of clades D1g and B2l is that these lineages arose in populations of hunter-gatherers in the extreme south with population sizes that were stable for a long period, thus having the time necessary to accumulate mutations and develop more complex patterns, while clade C1b13 originated ~3–4 Kyr later than D1g and B2l, in a population with increased growth and possibly farther north, where ecological conditions allowed population expansion. The Spanish chronicles of the colonization period for south-central Chile show an extensively populated region, with calculations of over one million inhabitants [71]. This contrasts with the southern region (south of 42° S), where the ecological resources constrained population growth over time, with a calculated population of around 10,000 people for Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego [67].

This analysis also suggests a different microevolutionary history for the north and south. In the north, haplogroup B2 was in greater proportion, 70% in the Aymara and 60% in the Atacameño, and the haplotype diversity was close to 1, the highest found. This, along with the

star formation of the networks, the absence of a node and the large number of unique haplotypes both in the Aymara and Atacameño, suggests an important ancient population expansion, estimated to have occurred at least 6,000 years ago by Bayesian analysis. The distribution of the major clades in the Southern Cone did not show large differences among the populations; we did not find clusters linked to a specific population. The principal difference encountered was the high proportion of clade D4h3a5 in southern Patagonia. This clade was originally defined by Perego et al. (2009) [21] but is redefined here (see nomenclature), and is signposted by the presence of 16051 in the control region. D4h3a5 was found exclusively in southern Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego, with the sole exception of one Huilliche. The limited distribution of this lineage reinforces our hypothesis of the continuity of the current Patagonian populations with the initial founders. Additionally, for a specific lineage restricted to the end of the Southern Cone of South America, the dates for D1g and B2l are old and allow us to support a scenario for the settlement of America with dates of the first entry between 18–20 Kyr [17, 54], the first settlers having taken ~3–5 Kyr to cross the continents and reach Patagonia.

II.4.1 Origin of the indigenous populations of Patagonia

The majority of the genetic studies in the last few years have focused on the study of mitochondrial lineages, the Y chromosome or autosomes rather than on the phylogeographic relations among Native Americans, which has produced a gap in information on the microevolutionary processes that occurred in South America before the Spanish and Portuguese colonization. Unfortunately, except for the study of the Coya from Argentina [30], none of the available published sequences from indigenous populations of South America has included the complete D-loop; thus there is no information on the SNPs which define C1b13 and/or B2l, making it difficult to compare our results with those of other studies with native populations: the Guarani, Kaingang [72], Arara [73], Yanomama [74], Zoro, Gaviao and Xavante [51] of Brazil,

the Toba, Wichi, Mataco and Pilaga [34] from Argentina, the Ayoreo [36] and Aché [75] of Paraguay, and from the Andean region, the Quechua [32, 35, 39-40] and Aymara [29, 32-33, 35, 40]. In addition, other studies published in the last three years with complete sequences or at least the D-loop of the mtDNA have been principally focused on the description of Amerindian mitochondrial lineages [17, 21, 52, 54] or in the description of urban South American populations [59, 76-81]. From our results and those from the publications mentioned above, it may be inferred there is a complete absence of D1g, C1b13 and B2l in indigenous populations outside of Chile and Argentina. These three lineages, together with the exclusive variants of haplogroup D4h3a, which had a frequency of 87.6% in Patagonia, all suggest strong isolation of the southern populations. We also detected a variant of haplotype B2 in the Aymara (44%) and Atacameño (18.8%) characterized by the polymorphism C16188T; it also has a geographic restriction between 14° and 23° S [29-30, 32-33, 39], which firms up the north-south disconnection in these two countries. The evident impact the colonization process had, including decimation of entire populations and loss of diversity to different degrees in the remainder, along with relocation, admixture, acculturation, etc. [71,82], have imposed an extra degree of difficulty on the study of phylogeographic relations, possible colonization routes and demographic processes undergone by Native Americans. Due to lack of data, hypotheses on the peopling, migration routes and origins of Southern Cone of South America populations are scarce.

Recently Rothhammer & Dillehay, (2009) [83], in a revision based on different lines of evidence, proposed two main routes for the peopling of the different areas of South America. From one side, the oldest migration route moved south along the Pacific coast through Chile, following favorable fishing localities and using watercraft, with Monte Verde likely the most southern evidence of this route. The other route could have followed the Andean highlands by way of the river valleys from south to north in Colombia; from there people moved toward the

west side of Cordillera, crossing the Altiplano to enter the open parkland country of eastern Brazil and settle the Amazon basin on one side and the Andes of northwest Argentina on the other; from there they spread throughout the Pampas and Patagonia. Therefore, the populations of the two sides of Cordillera in Chile and Argentina should have a closer relationship than those at the same latitude; the populations of Patagonia should be more closely related to those of the Andes of north-west Argentina than with those of southern Chile. Our results indicate, by contrast, the native populations south of 40° S in both Chile and Argentina share a common origin and belong to the same population substrate. We also found no genetic evidence that the migratory route on the oriental side of Andes Cordillera proposed by Rothhammer & Dillehay (2009) would have reached Patagonia. So, Patagonia would have been settled by at least about 15 Kyr ago by migrants that followed the Pacific coast route. Once they arrived in the Monte Verde area, the migrants could not have advanced further along the Pacific coast due to the extension of the glaciers, which covered most of the coast of Patagonia; they crossed the Andes and continued their southern advance on the eastern side. The Andes are low south of 39° S, which would have allowed movement of individuals across them. The whole region would remain isolated afterwards, and the migratory flow would have occurred more in the east-west direction than north-south. Thus the present-day indigenous populations that live south of 38°S are probably descendants of the first settlers, and subsequent migrations from northern regions have had only minor impact on them. They also appear to have remained isolated most of the time, with a minimum migratory flow, probably until the beginning of the Spanish colonization.

II.5 MATERIALS AND METHODS

II.5.1 Population Samples

We collected samples from five native populations from Chile and two from Argentina. From northern Chile: (1) Aymara (n=38), from individuals inhabiting small villages in the Chilean

Puna (Putre, Codpa, Esquiña and Illapata, all in the Arica and Parinacota Regions); (2) Atacameño (n=29), from individuals inhabiting indigenous communities from San Pedro de Atacama, Antofagasta Region. From southern Chile: (3) Mapuche (n=19) from the city of Temuco, Araucania Region; (4) Huilliche (n=59), inhabitants of the coastal zone of San Juan, Los Lagos Region; (5) Pehuenche (n=42) from Trapa-Trapa, (6) Kawésqar (n=13) from the last descendants of this group, currently inhabiting Punta Arenas, Mallaganes Region, and (8) Yámana (n=21) from Ukika, Puerto Williams and Isla Navarino. From Argentina: (9) Mapuche (n=51), from Cerro Policía and Aguada Guzmán, Rio Negro Province, and (10) Tehuelche (n=29), from Loma Redonda and El Chalía, Chubut Province (see Figure 1 and Table S1 for exact geographic locations).

All samples were from healthy donors from whom informed consent was obtained according to the standards at the time of sampling. Samples were taken at a time when grant institutions for Chile (FONDECYT) did not seek written consent. Oral informed consent was required in all cases. The three projects in which samples were collected, including the oral informed consent protocols, were approved by the ethics committee of the Faculty of Medicine, University of Chile. All data were analyzed anonymously, and only the geographic location and ethnic affiliation of the populations were considered. This study was approved by the Bioethics Committee for Human Research, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Chile.

II.5.1 Molecular analysis

II.5.1.1 Control region sequences

We amplified and sequenced 1016 bp corresponding to the mtDNA control region (rCRS positions 16032–16544 and 051–555) in all the Chilean populations (except for 13 Huilliche, see below). The amplification conditions used were as described elsewhere [26]. The sequencing and purification of the PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) products were performed by

Macrogen, of South Korea. Sequences were aligned and edited with Alignment Explorer in MEGA 4.0 [84]. Polymorphisms were confirmed directly using Sequencher 4.9 vDemo. Samples from the Tehuelches and Mapuches of Argentina and a fraction of the Huilliches (N=13) were also PCR-amplified, sequenced and analyzed for the complete control region between positions 16024–576 and the adjacent 5' portion between positions 15878–16023 in rCRS, following [85-86]. An additional quality control check was performed by EMPOP (<http://www.empop.org>).

II.5.2.2 Analysis of coding region SNPs.

Fragments around transitions at 8116, 10202–10724 and 13020 were amplified and sequenced employing primer pairs F7955 (5'-CCCCCATTATTCTAGAACCA-3') and B8785 (5'-TCCGAGGAGGTTAGTTGTGG-3'), F10084 (5'-TCAACACCCTCCTAGCCTTA-3') and B10931 (5'-AGGAAAAGGTTGGGAACAG-3'), and F12879 (5'-TTTCATCCTCGCCTTAGCAT-3') and B13590 (5'-CAGGGAGGTAGCGATGAGAG-3'), respectively. Amplicons were sequenced in a set of samples derived from admixed populations in Argentina carrying matches or near matches for the D1g sequences described in this paper and covering all the major subclades recognizable in the network, plus several individuals carrying the nodal haplotype.

All the Chilean D1g samples were analyzed for the presence of 8116 by means of PCR-RFLP analysis. The samples were amplified using the primer pair 8116F (5'-TGAAGCCCCATTCTGTATAA-3') and 8116R (5'-GTGGGCTCTAGAGGGGGTAG-3'). The 275 bp amplicons produced were digested O.N. at 37°C with the SmaI restriction enzyme. The digestion products were visualized on a 2% Agarose gel.

II.5.2.3 Complete mtDNA sequences

Complete mitochondrial DNA sequences - Korn06, Korn08, Teh14, and Teh50 - were

obtained as in Tanaka et al. (2004) [87], while lineages Teh26, Hui28, and YA2D were sequenced following procedures described elsewhere [88]. A phylogenetic tree for haplogroup D was constructed by hand from the complete sequences (Figure S1).

II.5.2.4 Nomenclature

Bodner et al. (2012) defined D1g by the shared presence of transitions at rCRS positions 8116 and 16187. Our findings of Yámana D1 lineages with 16187 but without 8116 led us to propose a revised definition of clade D1g, which is now identified by 16187, while 8116 is restricted to its major nested clade D1g1. A new sister branch that lacks 8116, D1g2, is erected for the Yámana lineages. For the time being, D1g2 remains poorly defined because only one complete mtDNA is available.

In the absence of complete mtDNA sequences that would allow us to establish their deep phylogenetic affinities, we propose to provisionally assign B2l to our Patagonian cluster defined by a control region transition at 470, and assign C1b13 to the clade that includes those lineages carrying 258.

We also propose a revised definition of D4h3a5 (Figure S3). This clade was originally defined by the presence of a back mutation at 16301, a change that is even recurrent for Chilean lineages in the small dataset of 45 complete D4h3a mtDNAs provided by the authors [21]. In our opinion, such a weak definition artificially joined one Patagonian-exclusive cluster with one Peruvian lineage, resulting in a non-monophyletic clade. Further evidence for the artifactual nature of D4h3a5 as defined in [21] stems from the fact that its estimated coalescence age of 25.3–30.6 ky is well beyond the range of ages estimated using similar methods for the other Native American clades by the same authors [21,51].

II.5.3 Statistical analysis

II.5.3.1 Summary Statistics.

Summary statistics of genetic diversity were calculated using the program Arlequin 3.1 [89] using Tamura-Nei distances [90] and a gamma parameter value of 0.26 [91]. The following summary statistics were computed: total and per population number of segregating sites (S), nucleotide diversity (π), Haplotype diversity (Hd) and mean number of pairwise differences (K). For each analysis, the sequences were grouped by population and haplotype (see Tables S1 and S2). In order to test the demographic structure, we performed Fst analyses in Arlequin ver. 3.1. Sites 309+C and 309+CC were eliminated from all analyses.

II.5.3.3 Haplotype networks

Sequences were grouped by mitochondrial haplogroup (D, B and C) and analyses were performed separately. Sites 16519 and 152 were eliminated due to their homoplasy; the rest of the homoplastic sites were given a low weight in order to avoid non-phylogenetic reticulations. Calculations were made using the Network 4.5.0 program (www.fluxus-engineering.com/sharenet_rn.htm); median joining and maximum parsimony were used as post-processing options.

Supplement networks (A2, B2, C1b and D) were constructed by hand (see supplemental network S1).

II.5.3.3 Demographic reconstruction and age estimation

Bayesian analyses were performed in the BEASTv1.53 program [92]. To study population dynamics over time we generated BSPs, built with the software Tracer v1.5. Sequences were grouped by population and by lineage and analyzed separately, with at least two runs per grouping. Runs used both strict and relaxed log normal molecular clock models; the resulting BSPs were compared. The BSPs were equivalent for all runs with both models except for lineages C1b13 and D1g. For C1b13 it was impossible to construct a BSP with the strict clock; thus we used the relaxed log exponential model. The rate of nucleotide substitution in the runs

was 1, which was later corrected using the lower rate of Endicott & Ho, (2008) [53], of 30.2% mutations per million years (see supplemental discussion S1 for mutational rate choice). Analyses were run for 100 million iterations, discounting the first 10% as burn-in. Genealogies and model parameters were sampled every 2500 iterations. For the final construction of the BSP, the output from Tracer was corrected for a mutation rate of 3.02E-7 for time and effective population size (Nef). We used the median to calculate the Nef, with a generation time of 25 years. Graphs were constructed in Excel, transforming to \log_{10} .

To date the appearance of the Patagonian lineages, we added to the studied 107 D-loop sequences other published sequences of A2, D1, C1 and B2 from South America [30, 54-59], generating a final data matrix with 406 sequences. The objective was to produce a more complete map of the diversity in South America and thus avoid a possible overestimation of the TMRCA. In the same run we grouped the sequences by lineages, in order to estimate the divergence of each lineage in the same analysis. In order to improve the estimated ages of coalescent ancestors of specific lineages, we calculated rho (ρ) (according to [93]) from the networks (Figure 2, 3 and 4). The ρ values were 3 for D1g, 2.5 for B2l, 1.55 for C1b13 and 1.1 for D4h3a5; these values were transformed to ages with the rho calculator for the control region provided by Soares et al. (2009) (<http://www.ajhg.com>) [62]. See Table S5 for the dates obtained for each lineage.

II.6 List of Abbreviations

LGM - Last Glacial Maximum, Kyr - Thousand Years Ago, yr - year, mtDNA mtDNA - Mitochondrial DNA, P-TdF - Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego, aDNA - ancient DNA, TMRCA - Time of Most Recent Common Ancestor, , PCR - Polymerase Chain Reaction, rCRS - revised Cambridge Reference Sequence, BSP - Bayesian Skyline Plot, MCMC - Markov Chain Monte Carlo.

II.7 Data access

The GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank>) accession numbers for the 287 new D-loop sequences reported in this paper are JQ067699-JQ06794; JQ280314- JQ280336; (pending), and for the seven novel complete mtDNA sequences are (pending).

II.8 Author's contributions

MSP performed the control region mtDNA sequencing, sequence alignments, molecular statistical analysis and the phylogenetic tree with complete sequences. MSP and SLB performed the Bayesian analysis. CMB performed the database Excel file, the networks made by hand and the phylogeny of complete haplogroup D. MSP made the figure for the phylogeny of complete haplogroup D. CMB and JMBM sequenced the coding region SNPs. MSP, MM and CMB wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

II.9 Acknowledgments

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II.10 Supporting Information

Table S1. Geographic location and molecular basic indices of studied populations

Table S2. Molecular basic indices for haplogroup/haplotype lineage.

Table S3. Comparison of ages of TMRCA (years BP) calculated with different mutation rates.

Table S4. Fst values between populations.

Table S5. Sequences of the D-loop of populations analyzed.

Supplemental discussion S1. Discussion about mutational rate used.

Figure S1. D1g complete mtDNA sequences tree

Figure S2. Neighbor Joining dendrogram for populations studied

Figure S3. D4h3a and D1 complete mtDNA sequences tree

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II.12 Supplemental material

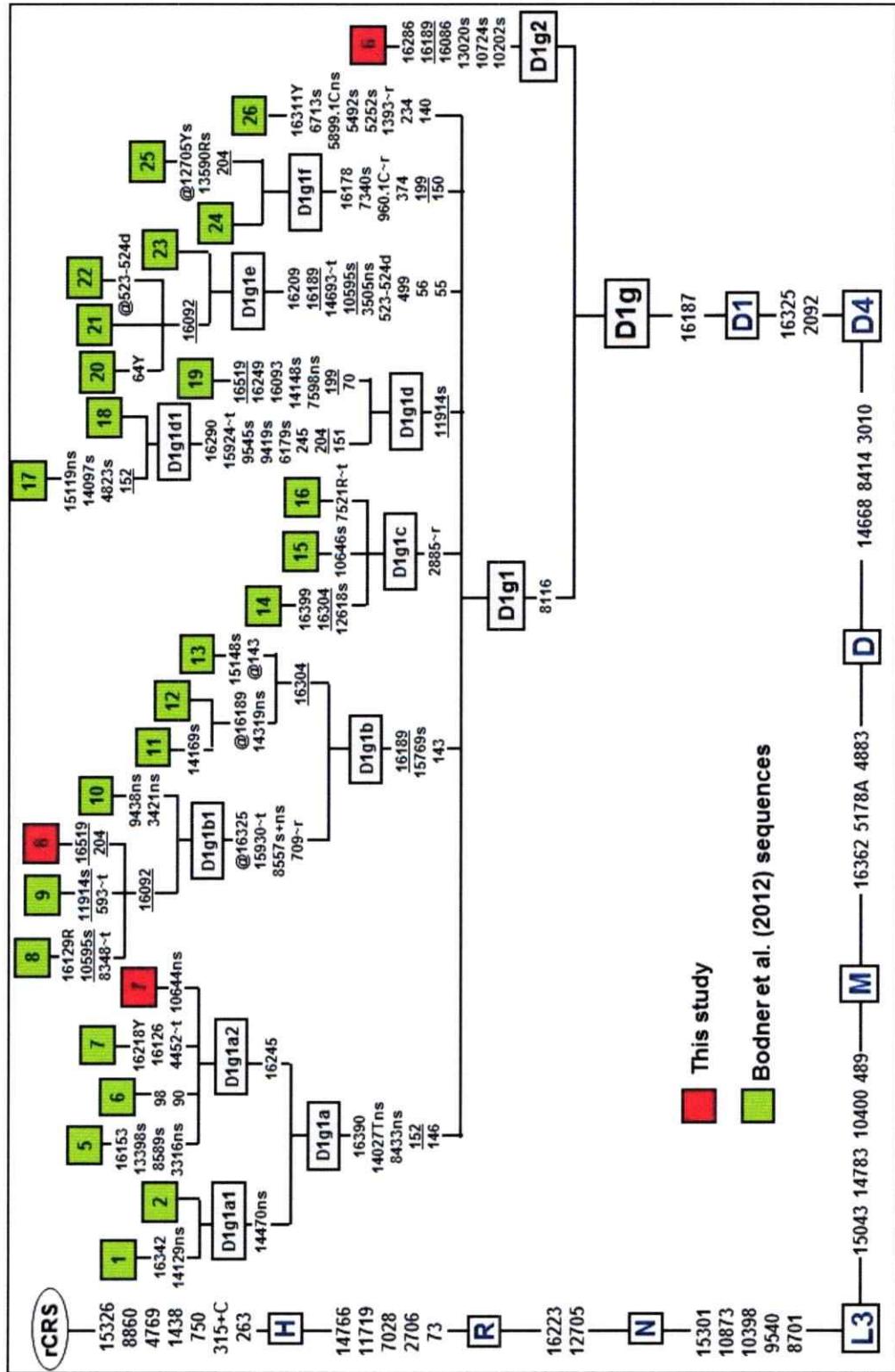


Figure S1. D1g revisited phylogeny. Phylogenetic tree of southern South American haplogroups D1g. This tree includes 23 sequences reported by Bodner et al. (2012) and 3 new complete mtDNA sequences, and illustrates subhaplogroup affiliations. The position of the revised Cambridge Reference Sequence (rCRS) (Andrews et al. 1999) is indicated for reading off sequence motifs. All SNPs and indels are shown on the branches except for cytosine insertions at np 309. In the case of transversions, insertions, or heteroplasmic mutations, the base is indicated according to the IUPAC nucleotide code. The prefix@ indicates the reversion of a mutation occurring earlier in the phylogeny. The suffixes “s” and “ns” indicate synonymous and nonsynonymous substitutions, respectively, while “;t” and “;r” indicate affected positions in tRNA and rRNA loci, respectively. Recurrent mutations within the phylogeny are underlined. The green numbers on this figure are the same numbers used in Bodner’s D1g phylogeny figure (Bodner et al., 2012). The red numbers correspond to numbers of the table below.

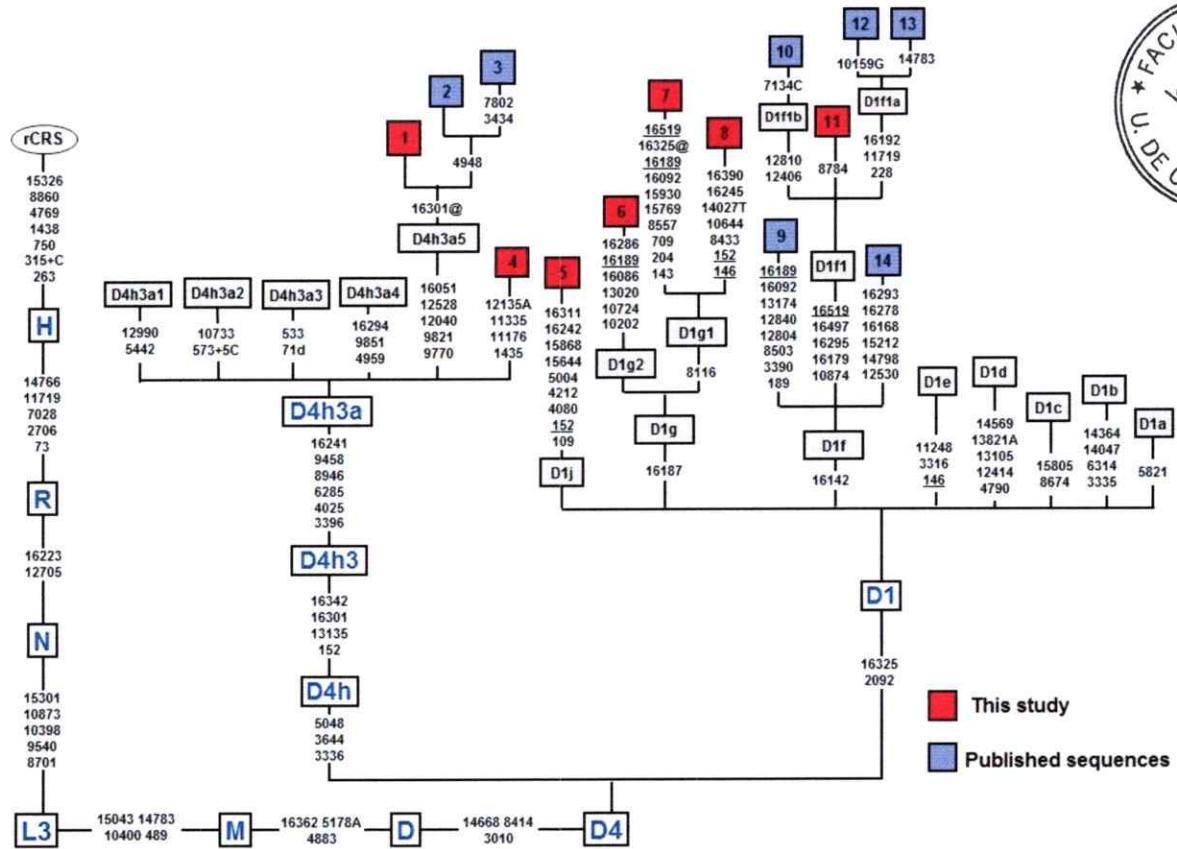


Figure S2. Phylogenetic tree for D4h3a and D1g. Samples used in table S5

Table S1. Geographic location of studied populations and molecular basic indices.

| | Location | n | h | S | H_d | K | π |
|--------------------|--------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|---------------|--------------|
| Aymara | 17° 22' S 68° 90' W | 39 | 34 | 77 | 0.993 | 12.110 | 0.012 |
| Atacameño | 23° 45' S 68° 17' W | 28 | 22 | 64 | 0.976 | 14.574 | 0.014 |
| Pehuenche | 37° 43' S 71° 16' W | 42 | 17 | 49 | 0.923 | 13.165 | 0.013 |
| Mapuche CHI | 38° 43' S 73° 36' W | 19 | 16 | 46 | 0.983 | 12.573 | 0.012 |
| Mapuche ARG | 39° 42' S 68° 35' W | 51 | 32 | 72 | 0.973 | 13.999 | 0.014 |
| Huilliche | 40° 50' S 73° 35' W | 58 | 32 | 66 | 0.969 | 13.203 | 0.013 |
| Tehuelche | 42° 21' S 66° 36' W | 29 | 18 | 50 | 0.961 | 12.217 | 0.012 |
| Yámana | 55° 04' S 67° 40' W | 21 | 7 | 26 | 0.814 | 9.438 | 0.009 |
| Kawésqar | 53° 08' S 70° 55' W | 13 | 8 | 38 | 0.897 | 12.077 | 0.012 |

n: sample.

h: number of haplotypes.

S: number of polymorphic sites.

H_d: haplotype diversity.

K: mean number of pairwise differences.

π: nucleotide diversity.

Table S2. Molecular basic indices for haplogroup/haplotype lineage.

| | n | H | S | H_d | K | π |
|------------------------|------------|------------|------------|----------------------|---------------|--------------|
| D total | 107 | 44 | 54 | 0.972 | 6.644 | 0.007 |
| D1g | 70 | 24 | 34 | 0.944 | 5.118 | 0.005 |
| D1 | 17 | 11 | 20 | 0.949 | 4.344 | 0.004 |
| D4h3a5 | 17 | 6 | 6 | 0.868 | 1.885 | 0.002 |
| C total | 67 | 40 | 60 | 0.937 | 3.677 | 0.004 |
| C1b13 | 40 | 22 | 28 | 0.859 | 2.201 | 0.002 |
| C1b | 24 | 15 | 28 | 0.891 | 3.358 | 0.003 |
| B total | 102 | 57 | 84 | 0.971 | 6.126 | 0.006 |
| B2l | 57 | 20 | 25 | 0.913 | 3.895 | 0.004 |
| B2 | 45 | 37 | 69 | 0.991 | 6.394 | 0.006 |
| A total | 24 | 12 | 22 | 0.917 | 4.214 | 0.004 |
| Total sequences | 300 | 153 | 161 | 0.999 | 12.882 | 0.013 |

n: sample.

h: number of haplotypes.

S: number of polymorphic sites.

H_d: haplotype diversity.

K: mean number of pairwise differences.

π: nucleotide diversity.

Table S3. Comparison of age of TMRCA (years BP) calculated with different mutation rates.

| Mutational rates/ Groups | 0.45 m/s/mya ^a years BP | 0.34 m/s/mya ^b years BP | 0.302 m/s/mya ^c years BP | 0.24 m/s/mya ^d years BP | Soares clock ^e years BP |
|---|--|--|---|--|--|
| A2, B2, C1 & D haplogroups | 28,000 {18.0;38.9} | 37,059 {23.9;51.5} | 41,722 {26.9;57.9} | 52,500 {33.8;72.9} | |
| D1 South America | 11,800 {7.7;16.5} | 15,618 {10.2;21.9} | 17,583 {11.5;24.7} | 22,125 {14.4;31.0} | |
| D1g | 10,184 {6.3;14.8} | 13,479 {8.4;19.6} | 15,175 {9.4; 22.1} | 19,096 {11.8;27.8} | 27,174 |
| D4h3a5 | 6,867 {4.0;10.0} | 9,088 {5.4;13.3} | 10,232 {6.0;14.9} | 12,875 {7.6;18.8} | 9,964 |
| B2 South America | 12,367 {8.5;16.7} | 16,368 {11.2;22.1} | 18,427 {12.6;24.9} | 23,188 {15.9;31.3} | |
| B2I | 9,511 {6.5;12.9} | 12,588 {8.6;17.0} | 14,172 {9.7; 19.2} | 17,833 {12.2;24.2} | 22,645 |
| C1 South America | 11,798 {7.9;16.3} | 15,615 {10.4;21.6} | 17,579 {11.7;24.3} | 22,121 {14.7;30.6} | |
| C1b | 11,040 {7.6;14.8} | 14,612 {10.1;19.6} | 16,450 {11.4;22.1} | 20,700 {14.3;27.8} | |
| C1b13 | 7,773 {5.3;10.6} | 10,288 {7.0;14.0} | 11,583 {7.9;15.8} | 14,575 {9.9;19.9} | 14,040 |

{X;Y} 95% CI (ky), a=Howell et al. (2003), b= Kemp et al. (2007), c= Endicott & Ho, (2008), d= Santos et al. (2005), e= Soares et al. (2009), rho calculation according to Saillard et al. (2000).

Table S4. Pairwise Fst values between populations. In bold values with statistical significance p<0.05, in blue the p-values.

| | Huilliche | Pehuenche | Mapuche CHI | Mapuche ARG | Yámana | Tehuelche | Kawésqar | Aymara | Atacameño |
|--------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Huilliche | | 0.048 | 0.094 | 0.068 | 0.001 | 0.028 | 0.003 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Pehuenche | 0.023 | | 0.208 | 0.033 | 0.002 | 0.025 | 0.001 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Mapuche CHI | 0.029 | 0.014 | | 0.119 | 0.010 | 0.052 | 0.005 | 0.004 | 0.000 |
| Mapuche ARG | 0.018 | 0.033 | 0.025 | | 0.000 | 0.003 | 0.000 | 0.003 | 0.003 |
| Yámana | 0.093 | 0.097 | 0.108 | 0.169 | | 0.002 | 0.019 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Tehuelche | 0.041 | 0.044 | 0.053 | 0.079 | 0.094 | | 0.062 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Kawésqar | 0.106 | 0.140 | 0.138 | 0.163 | 0.112 | 0.052 | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Aymara | 0.116 | 0.127 | 0.111 | 0.067 | 0.292 | 0.167 | 0.268 | | 0.070 |
| Atacameño | 0.110 | 0.139 | 0.137 | 0.075 | 0.294 | 0.186 | 0.251 | 0.027 | |

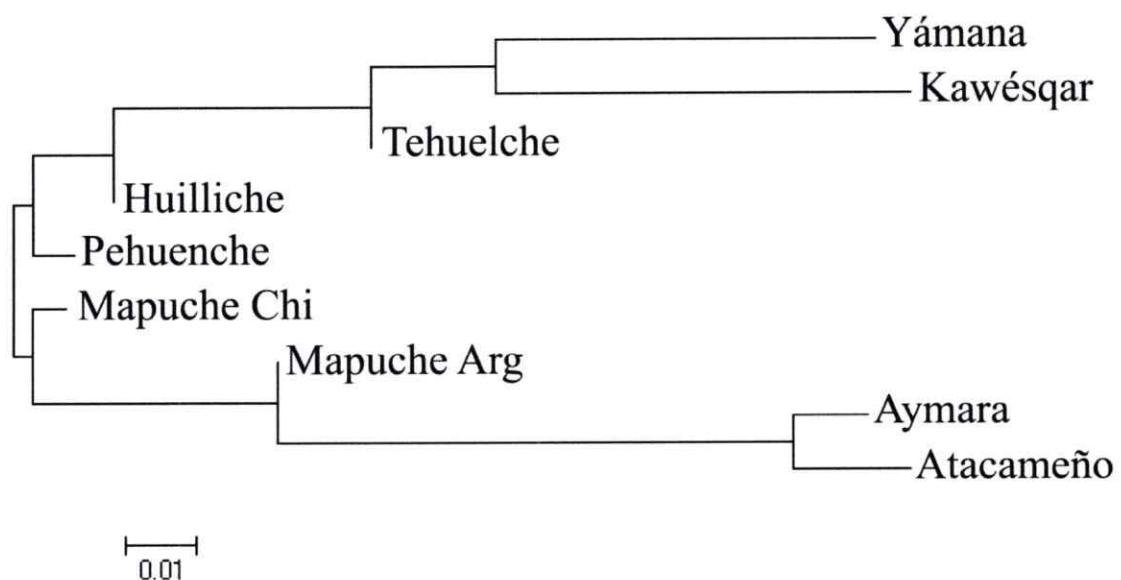


Figure S3. Dendrogram Neighbor Joining built from genetic distances obtained from the pairwise Fst analysis.

Table S5. Samples of phylogenetic tree for D4h3a & D1

| ID # tree | Sample ID | GenBank ID | Reference |
|-----------|----------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | Tehuel 14 | pending | This study |
| 2 | S-973354 | FJ168741 | Perego et al., 2009 |
| 3 | S-686678 | FJ168740 | Perego et al., 2009 |
| 4 | Huilli 28 | pending | This study |
| 5 | Korn08 | pending | This study |
| 6 | YA2D | pending | This study |
| 7 | Teh 50 | pending | This study |
| 8 | Teh 26 | pending | This study |
| 9 | Tor25 | EU431089 | Achilli et al., 2008 |
| 10 | TYR16 | EU095241 | Fagundes et al., 2008 |
| 11 | Korn06 | pending | This study |
| 12 | Waiwai05 | EU095235 | Fagundes et al., 2008 |
| 13 | KTN18 | EU095238 | Fagundes et al., 2008 |
| 14 | Coreguaje 1-31 | EU095536 | Tamm et al., 2007 |

II.12.1 Supplemental discussion

Election of the mutation rate

The choice of the mutation rate to be used in evolutionary studies has been a very controversial topic, mainly due to the difference in dates obtained with different rates. Due to the lack of archeological material in North America from the end of the Pleistocene, the mutation rate utilized in genetic data to date the entry of Paleoindians to America and other population events is a very important matter of discussion.

According to the study of Ho et al. (2005) based on mitochondrial sequences, the mutation rate is variable over time, that is the relation between mutation rate (pedigree) and substitution rate (fixation) may be described by an exponential curve, which would thus produce an overestimation of divergence time for recent events. Based on this study other authors, such as Ho & Larsson, (2006), Endicott et al., (2009), Henn et al., (2009) and Soares et al., (2009) have questioned, among other things, the dates which have usually been given for the populating of America, 20,000 – 30,000 years BP (Forster et al., 2004; Achilli et al., 2008; Fagundez et al., 2008). According to these authors, the variability found in Native Americans is not consistent with the pre-Clovis hypothesis, and the arrival in America would have been around 13,000 years BP. However, Emerson, (2007) used the same data as Ho et al., (2005) and did not find support for the model used, shedding doubt on the differences between short-term mutation rates and long-term mutation found by Ho. In another study, Kemp et al., (2007), studying ancient DNA of an Alaskan esqueleto dated at 10,300 years BP, found that the estimated mean evolutionary rate for HVRI was between 34% and 44%/site per myr, a rate which is closer to the pedigree values than to the phylogenetic rates and also provides evidence against Ho's hypothesis.

Due to the high difference on the mutational rates between studies, we performed calculations for TMRCA with four different rates, covering lower and higher rates; 24% mutation per site per myr (Santos et al., 2005), 30.2 % (Endicott & Ho, 2008), 34% (Kemp et al., 2007) and 45% (Howell et al., 2003), and we also use the rho calculator for the control region provided by Soares et al. (2009) to transform the networks rho on ages. The results (see table S3) showed

important differences between the estimated dates. For example, for our D1g the date ranged from 10 kya with Howell's rate, to almost 27 kya with Soares' rate. Since the most ancient archeological record for Patagonia is 14,500 years BP, a date of 20 kya for the origin of D1g is hard to support. Howell's rate gave a plausible date for the appearance of D1g, however, his 45% mutational rate is often considered too high for demographic process date estimation. The dates from Kemp and Endicott are similar, with almost 1,500 years difference and both are agreeing with archeological register. Since Endicott's rate was obtained for complete D-loop, we used this rate for Bayesian Skyline Plot analysis and TMRCA principal date for our model analysis. In relation to the Soares' rate, it should be the most suitable rate since it was calculated for all control region (16024-576), and compensates for the effects of purifying selection on mtDNA sequence evolution. However, with this rate we obtained an extremely high age (27 kyr), out of range of the founder Amerindian lineages origins. Soares et al. (2009), reported a rate of 9.883×10^{-8} mutation per nucleotide per year or 1 mutation each 9058 years for whole control region, which is closer to phylogenetic-rates than pedigree-rates, and also lower than the rates used in this study. So, if we take the Soares mutational rate the raising of the D1g should be placed in Beringia (or even Asia), which is highly improbable, since no other related lineage to D1g has been found in America.

Our analyses were performed with the hypervariable regions of mtDNA, which has been used in the majority of the phylogeographic studies due to its high rate of change (Pakendorf & Stoneking, 2005) We are well aware that the use of this region has some drawbacks, such as having a greater quantity of hotspots than other regions of mtDNA (Soares et al., 2009). This produces substitutions without a phylogenetic relation, altering the phylogenies and overestimating divergence times, because of which some authors have suggested that this region should not be used. However, since the divergence times for the founding lineages in America are much less than those of Africa, Europe, Asia and Oceania (Hill et al., 2006; Richards et al., 2000; Derenko et al., 2007; Friedlaender et al., 2007; Atkinson et al., 2009); eliminating the hypervariable sites might have the undesirable effect of underestimating the variability and thus

the processes of divergence. Due to the short mutational time which has occurred since the initial colonization (which in the case of Patagonia, using Monte Verde as reference, would be a maximum of 15,000 years), it is arguable whether the time since the origin of the lineages has been sufficient to fix variability specific to populations as has occurred in others parts, like Africa or Europe. For this reason we decided not to eliminate homoplastic, unique or non-informative sites from the analyses, but keeping in mind that this could produce overestimations of separation times, so to use a mutation rate concordant with the evolutionary process, in this case mutation rates closer to those of pedigrees than phylogenies, like Endicott & Ho, (2008) rate.

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II.12.2 Supplemental references

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III CAPITULO 2

**Análisis de haplogrupos de mtDNA específicos del cono sur
confirman la temprana y rápida difusión de los Paleo-Americanos**



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III. Arrival of Paleo-Indians to the Southern Cone of South America: New Clues from Mitogenomes

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Running title: Human Arrival and Spread in South America

Key words: mitochondrial genome, origin of Native Americans, mtDNA haplogroups, Paleo-Indian migrations, South America.

The complete sequences have been deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers ...

III.1 ABSTRACT

Studies of Native American mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) variation have entered the final phase of the phylogenetic refinement: the molecular dissection of the founding haplogroups into clades of younger age and more restricted geographic distributions. As for the Southern Cone of South America, this approach has recently allowed the identification of two autochthonous clades whose age estimates agree with the dating of the earliest archaeological sites in South America, indicating that Paleo-Indians might have reached that region from Beringia in less than 2000 years. The present study is a further example of the "magnifying glass" approach applied to Native American mtDNAs of South America: by sequencing 46 mitogenomes, we identified two novel clades, termed B2l and C1b13, whose geographical distributions appear to be restricted to Chile and Argentina. This finding supports the scenario that the mutational motifs characterizing these sub-haplogroups arose in the Southern Cone region. However, the age estimate for B2l (~11,000 years) appears to be younger than those previously reported for the other local clades. The difference could reflect the different evolutionary origins of the distinct South American-specific sub-haplogroups, with some being already present at the very front of the expansion wave along the Pacific coast prior to its arrival in what is now Chile and others originating later *in situ*, when the tribalization process had already begun. A few thousand years delayed origin in one of the locally derived populations, possibly in the central part of Chile, would have limited the geographical and ethnic diffusion of B2l and explain the present-day occurrence that appears to be mainly confined to the Tehuelche and the Araucanian-speaking groups.

III.2 INTRODUCTION

The study of the first peopling of the Americas represents one of the most significant examples of fruitful interaction between archeology and genetics, two disciplines distant at a first glance. Archeologists were first to hypothesize an initial entry of Native American ancestors from Siberia across Beringia, a land bridge made available by a substantial lowering of the sea-level toward the end of the last Ice Age (Goebel et al. 2008). In the last two decades, genetics has brought novel data and technologies to shed light on America's first colonizers, particularly regarding the timing of their arrival and the routes they took. The combined "archeogenetic" approach has provided further clues on the colonization process, with novel data provided by one discipline reinforcing or dismissing the scenarios proposed by the other. Archeology has recently witnessed the downfall of the "Clovis-first" theory – envisioning an entry time of not earlier than 13 thousand years ago (kya) in agreement with the dating of the Clovis culture in North America – and the staggering discovery of pre-Clovis sites in Monteverde (Chile) (Dillehay et al. 2008; Erlandson et al. 2008) and Texas (Waters et al. 2011), both dated as early as 15.5-14.5 kya (Curry, 2012). On the other hand, major genetic contributions have come from mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) studies, mainly carried out in modern populations, but also with a non-negligible and steadily increasing input from ancient human remains (Kemp et al. 2007; Gilbert et al. 2008a, 2008b; Raff et al. 2010). Increasing data support the scenario that the ancestors of Paleo-Indians settled in Beringia before the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), which may have later forced them into distinct enclaves when climatic conditions worsened. This initial and fragmented Beringian gene pool, despite the probably narrow time window of about 5 kya (Fagundes et al. 2008a) was dynamic, with novel mtDNA mutations arising *in situ* and a continuous reshaping not only due to drift, but also to bidirectional gene flow with northeastern Asia (Tamm et al. 2007; Ray et al. 2010). This shaped

the mutational motifs of Native American mitochondrial lineages and created lineage composition differences in the distinct enclaves. Starting from about 15-18 kya, a rapid southward expansion took Paleo-Indians from Beringia all the way to the extreme southern tip of South America, covering a latitude gap of more than 100° (from about 65° North to 54° South) and a distance of more than 15,000 km, possibly in a time span of less than 2000 years (Kumar et al. 2011; Bodner et al. 2012). These initial migrations likely occurred following two entry ways: the Pacific coastal route, probably playing the major role in the peopling of the double continent, and the ice-free corridor passage between the Laurentide and Cordilleran ice sheets, that also had a significant impact, at least on the colonization of northern North America (Fix 2005; Fagundes et al. 2008b; Kemp et al. 2010; Perego et al. 2009, 2010; Hooshiar Kashani et al. 2012).

In very recent years, in parallel with the refinement of the worldwide mtDNA phylogeny (see Behar et al. 2012a), also the resolution of Native American-specific haplogroups has improved. Due to the sequencing of entire mitogenomes, the overall number of recognized maternal founding lineages has gone from just four - initially named A, B, C and D (Schurr et al. 1990; Torroni et al. 1992, 1993) - to a current count of 16 (Perego et al. 2010; Kumar et al. 2011). Among these, eight haplogroups – A2, B2, C1b, C1c, C1d (including C1d1), D1 and D4h3a - are pan-American, as they are distributed across the double continent (Bandelt et al. 2003; Schurr and Sherry 2004; Tamm et al. 2007; Fagundes et al. 2008b; Perego et al. 2009), while the remaining are less frequent, and generally with a distribution restricted to North America (A2a, A2b, C4c, D2a, D3, D4e1, X2a and X2g) (Brown et al. 1998; Malhi et al. 2003; Schurr and Sherry 2004; Helgason et al. 2006; Achilli et al. 2008; Fagundes et al. 2008b; Perego et al. 2009; Malhi et al. 2010; Kumar et al. 2011; Hooshiar Kashani et al. 2012).

It is widely accepted that, when all Native American lineages, not only the Asian and

Beringian founders but also those that originated *in situ* during the colonization process, are analyzed at the level of mitogenomes over their entire (past and present) distribution range, more comprehensive conclusions on migration and timing will become feasible (Bodner et al. 2012). Therefore, current and future studies should also focus on geographically restricted, sometimes rare, mtDNA clades, which can contribute further details to the overall and/or local picture of the peopling of the Americas. Examples have come from some very recent studies: Hooshiar Kashani et al. (2012) focused on C4c, a rare founding haplogroup possibly marking an ice-free Corridor entry, Perego et al. (2012) defined an ancient lower Central American branch, termed A2af, within the pan-American A2, whereas Gómez-Carballa et al. (2012) began to identify extremely young local clades such as the Venezuelan B2j and B2k. As for the southern part of South America, Bodner et al. (2012) identified two novel sub-clades within the pan-American haplogroup D1, named D1g and D1j, which are restricted to populations of the Southern Cone and most likely marked the first human arrival in the region about 15 kya.

The South American Southern Cone is of extreme interest for genetic investigations: it (i) is the most distant area from the Beringian source, thus likely was reached during the final phases of the peopling of the Americas, (ii) houses one of the most ancient known archeological sites of the entire continent (Monteverde, ~14.5 ky)(Goebel et al. 2008), and (iii) is crossed in length by the Andes Mountains, a potential major barrier to latitudinal migratory events. Great effort has been employed to assess the mtDNA variation in populations from the Southern Cone (Chile and Argentina) (Ginther et al. 1993; Horai et al. 1993; Moraga et al. 2000; Cabana et al. 2006; Álvarez-Iglesias et al. 2007; Bobillo et al. 2010; de Saint Pierre et al. 2012). However, analyses have generally focused solely on the sequence information of a portion of the mtDNA control region (often only hypervariable segment I - HVS-I). The recent work of Bodner et al. (2012) was the first attempt to analyze the Southern Cone mtDNA variation at the level of complete

sequences by focusing on two specific clades within the pan-American founder haplogroup D1.

In a very recent study, the mtDNA control-region sequence variation of 300 native people from Chile and Argentina was analyzed by de Saint Pierre et al. (2012) and two additional subsets of mtDNAs were identified, which could not be assigned to any known Native American sub-haplogroup (Behar et al. 2012a; van Oven and Kayser 2009 – phylotree build 14). In particular, one subset harbored a transition at nucleotide position (np) 470 in the context of haplogroup B2, while the other group, in addition to the mutational motif for haplogroup C1b, shared the transition at np 258. These two new potential Southern Cone-specific sub-haplogroups were provisionally named B2l and C1b13 (de Saint Pierre et al. 2012), thereby expanding the current mtDNA lineage nomenclature (van Oven and Kayser 2009). In the present study, to clarify whether these control-region motifs defined novel sub-haplogroups and further investigate their origin, 25 putative B2l and 21 putative C1b13 mitogenomes were sequenced. The phylogeographic data of the two novel haplogroups were evaluated in comparison with those of the previously described Southern Cone-specific sub-haplogroups D1g and D1j (Bodner et al. 2012).

III.3 RESULTS

III.3.1 Phylogeny reconstruction and age estimates of the two novel Southern Cone mtDNA haplogroups B2l and C1b13

The phylogenetic relationships of the 46 candidate B2l and C1b13 mitochondrial genomes are depicted in Figure 1. Additional information concerning the geographic and ethnic origin of each mtDNA is provided in Table 1.

Haplogroup B2l, represented by 25 full mtDNA genomes, is defined by the mutational motif 470-6272-11611-15077 from the root of haplogroup B2. Among these mutations, 6272 is shared between B2l and B2i, a sub-clade previously identified by Fagundes et al. (2008b) and

represented solely by the complete genomes of two Kayapo individuals from Brazilian Amazonia. A search of the Sorenson Molecular Genealogy Foundation (SMGF, <http://www.smgf.org>) control-region mtDNA database for the control-region mutational motif of B2i identified only two additional subjects, with Brazilian and Venezuelan maternal origins, respectively, thus preliminarily suggesting a geographic distribution of B2i limited to the eastern (i.e. continental) side of South America.

The node B2i'1, ancestral to both haplogroups B2i and B2l, has been defined following a parsimonious approach. However, two independent occurrences of the mutation at np 6272 cannot be ruled out. All B2l haplotypes, with the exception of one sequence (#25), cluster into two sub-clades, termed B2l1 and B2l2, both defined by a single control-region transition at np 16207 and np 207, respectively.

Haplogroup C1b13 encompasses 21 mitogenomes and radiates from the root of C1b with the mutational motif 258-7091. This haplogroup exhibits ample diversity with at least five major basal branches (C1b13a–C1b13e) (Figure 1), each defined by at least one coding-region mutation.

The Maximum Likelihood (ML) divergences for haplogroups B2l and C1b13 are very similar (4.07 ± 0.70 and 4.50 ± 0.60 , respectively) (Table 2) and correspond to coalescence times of 10.8 ± 3.8 and 12.0 ± 3.3 ky, respectively (Figure 1). These ages were overall confirmed when the average distances of the haplotypes from the root of haplogroups B2l and C1b13 (ρ -statistics) were computed (Table 2) (rho and sigma values of 5.04 ± 1.03 and 4.24 ± 0.64), corresponding to an age of 13.5 ± 5.6 ky for B2l and 11.3 ± 3.5 ky for C1b13.

Table 1. List of mtDNA haplogroup B2l and C1b13 complete sequences included in Figure 1.

| ID # ^a | Sample ID | Haplogroup | Geographic Origin | Ethnic Affiliation | GenBank ID | Ref |
|-------------------|---------------------|------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-----|
| 1 | ARN083 ^b | B2l1 | Rio Negro, Argentina | Argentinian (unknown) | | 1 |
| 2 | Mco32 | B2l1 | Neuquén, Argentina | Mapuche | | 1 |
| 3 | Mco34 | B2l1 | Neuquén, Argentina | Mapuche | | 1 |
| 4 | D04 | B2l1 | Detif, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 5 | CA007 | B2l1 | Carelmapu, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 6 | CA012 | B2l1 | Carelmapu, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 7 | XL060 | B2l1 | San Felipe, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 8 | 686289 | B2l1 | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 9 | ARN086 ^b | B2l1 | Rio Negro, Argentina | Argentinian (unknown) | | 1 |
| 10 | 686571 | B2l1 | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 11 | XL119 | B2l1 | San Felipe, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 12 | 933177 | B2l1 | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 13 | XL144 | B2l1 | Llay-Llay, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 14 | XL058 | B2l2 | Los Andes, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 15 | XL030 | B2l2 | San Felipe, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 16 | CA028 | B2l2 | Carelmapu, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 17 | XL050 | B2l2 | Valparaiso, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 18 | 686246 | B2l2 | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 19 | XL156 | B2l2 | San Felipe, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 20 | CA046 | B2l2 | Carelmapu, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 21 | ARN109 ^b | B2l2 | Rio Negro, Argentina | Argentinian (unknown) | | 1 |
| 22 | XL061 | B2l2 | Los Andes, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 23 | XL012 | B2l2 | Llay-Llay, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 24 | H05 | B2l2 | San Juan de la Costa, Chile | Huilliche | | 1 |
| 25 | MSP | B2l | Santiago, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 26 | KBK39 | B2l | Amazonia, Brazil | Kayapo | EU095217 | 2 |
| 27 | KKT01 | B2l | Amazonia, Brazil | Kayapo | EU095218 | 2 |
| 28 | H19 | C1b13a | San Juan de la Costa, Chile | Huilliche | | 1 |
| 29 | XL193 | C1b13a | Los Andes, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 30 | XL036 | C1b13a | San Felipe, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 31 | 686331 | C1b13a | Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 32 | XL028 | C1b13a | Los Andes, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 33 | H08 | C1b13b | San Juan de la Costa, Chile | Huilliche | | 1 |
| 34 | QUE009 | C1b13b | Quetalmahue, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 35 | 686537 | C1b13b | Spain ^c | / | | 1 |
| 36 | Mco13 | C1b13c | Neuquén, Argentina | Mapuche | | 1 |
| 37 | L016 | C1b13c | Laitec, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 38 | 686478 | C1b13c | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 39 | 686156 | C1b13c | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 40 | T38 | C1b13c | Trapa Trapa, Chile | Pehuenche | | 1 |
| 41 | XL003 | C1b13d | San Felipe, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 42 | 686285 | C1b13d | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 43 | QUE0012 | C1b13e | Quetalmahue, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 44 | 686497 | C1b13e | Chile | Chilean (unknown) | | 1 |
| 45 | L006 | C1b13e | Laitec, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |
| 46 | XL187 | C1b13e | Los Andes, Aconcagua, Chile | Chilean (urban) | | 1 |
| 47 | SA18 ^d | C1b13 | Salta, Argentina | Kolla | | 1 |
| 48 | CA045 | C1b13 | Carelmapu, Chiloe Island, Chile | Chilean (rural) | | 1 |

^a ID numbers correspond to the numbers in Figure 1.

^b The control-region sequence of this mtDNA was previously published by Bobillo et al. (2010).

^c The maternal grandmother of subject n. 35 was born in Talagante, Chile.

^d The HVS-I sequence of this mtDNA was previously published by Álvarez-Iglesias et al. (2007).

1 this study; 2 Fagundes et al. (2008b)

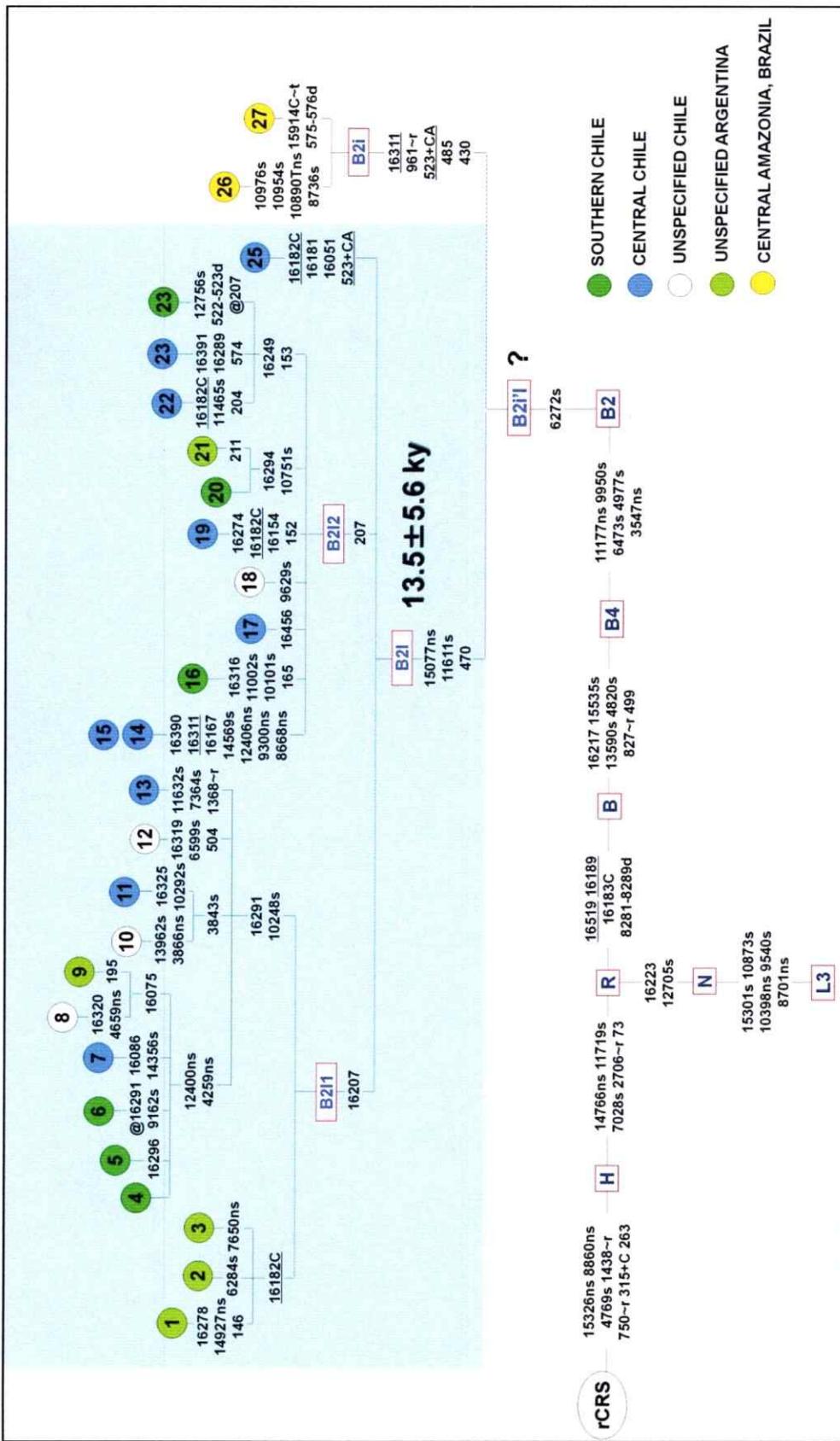


Figure 1. Detailed maximum parsimony tree of 25 novel complete Native American mtDNA sequences belonging to the novel haplogroup B2l. This tree also includes 2 previously published sequences and illustrates sub-haplogroup affiliations. The dashed line indicates the possible phylogenetic link between B2l and B2i previously reported in the Kayapo of Brazil (Fagundes et al., 2008b). Mutations relative to the rCRS node are shown on the branches; they are transitions unless a base is explicitly indicated. The prefix @ indicates reversions while suffixes indicate: transversions (to A, G, C, or T), indels (+, d), gene locus (~r, rRNA; ~t, tRNA), synonymous or non-synonymous changes (s or ns), and non-coding sites outside the control region (nc). Recurrent mutations within the phylogeny are underlined. The variation in number of cytosines at nps 309 and 16193 was not included in the phylogeny. Additional information regarding each mtDNA is available in Table 1. Coalescence times shown for B2l are rho estimates, and have been obtained by including all sequence changes (except 16182C, 16183C, and 16519) from the respective root according to Soares et al., (2009).

Table 2. Molecular divergence and age estimates (Maximum Likelihood and rho statistics) for Southern Cone-specific mtDNA haplogroups.

| Haplogroup | <i>N</i> ^a | ML | | | | ρ statistics | | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|-----|------|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|-----|-----------------------|--------------|
| | | ML | S.E. | Age (ky) ^b | 95% CI (ky) | ρ | σ | Age (ky) ^b | 95% CI (ky) |
| B2i'1 | 27 | 7.0 | 1.3 | 19.3 | {12.2; 26.6} | 7.9 | 1.9 | 21.7 | {11.3; 32.5} |
| > B2l | 25 | 4.1 | 0.7 | 10.8 | {7.1; 14.6} | 5.0 | 1.0 | 13.5 | {8.0; 19.2} |
| C1b13 | 21 | 4.5 | 0.6 | 12.0 | {8.8; 15.3} | 4.2 | 0.6 | 11.3 | {7.85; 14.8} |
| D1g ^c | 26 | 6.7 | 0.8 | 18.3 | {15.9; 20.7} | 7.2 | 1.0 | 19.7 | {16.7; 22.7} |

^a Number of mtDNA sequences.

^b Using the corrected molecular clock proposed by Soares et al., (2009).

^c Haplogroups D1g are included for comparison. Data are from Bodner et al., (2012).

III.3.2 Phylogeography of haplogroups B2l and C1b13

All mitogenomes sequenced in this study derived from Chile and Argentina, with the exception of one C1b13 mtDNA sample from Spain (sample #35 in Figure 1), whose maternal origin could be traced back to Chile (Table 1). To further evaluate the geographical distribution of the two haplogroups, we extended our search of B2l and C1b13 control-region mutational motifs to published datasets from both Native American groups and national populations of North, Central and South America. By searching the Sorenson Molecular Genealogy Foundation (SMGF, <http://www.smgf.org>) control-region mtDNA database, the European DNA Profiling Group Mitochondrial Population Database (EMPOP, <http://www.empop.org>), and a database of more than 7000 Native American mtDNA control-region sequences (in house database, A. Salas), we confirmed that all subjects bearing the B2l and C1b13 mutational motifs shared the same common origin in the southern part of South America. The results of this survey support the scenario that, similar to haplogroups D1g and D1j (Bodner et al. 2012), both B2l and C1b13 are virtually restricted to the Southern Cone of South America (Table 3).

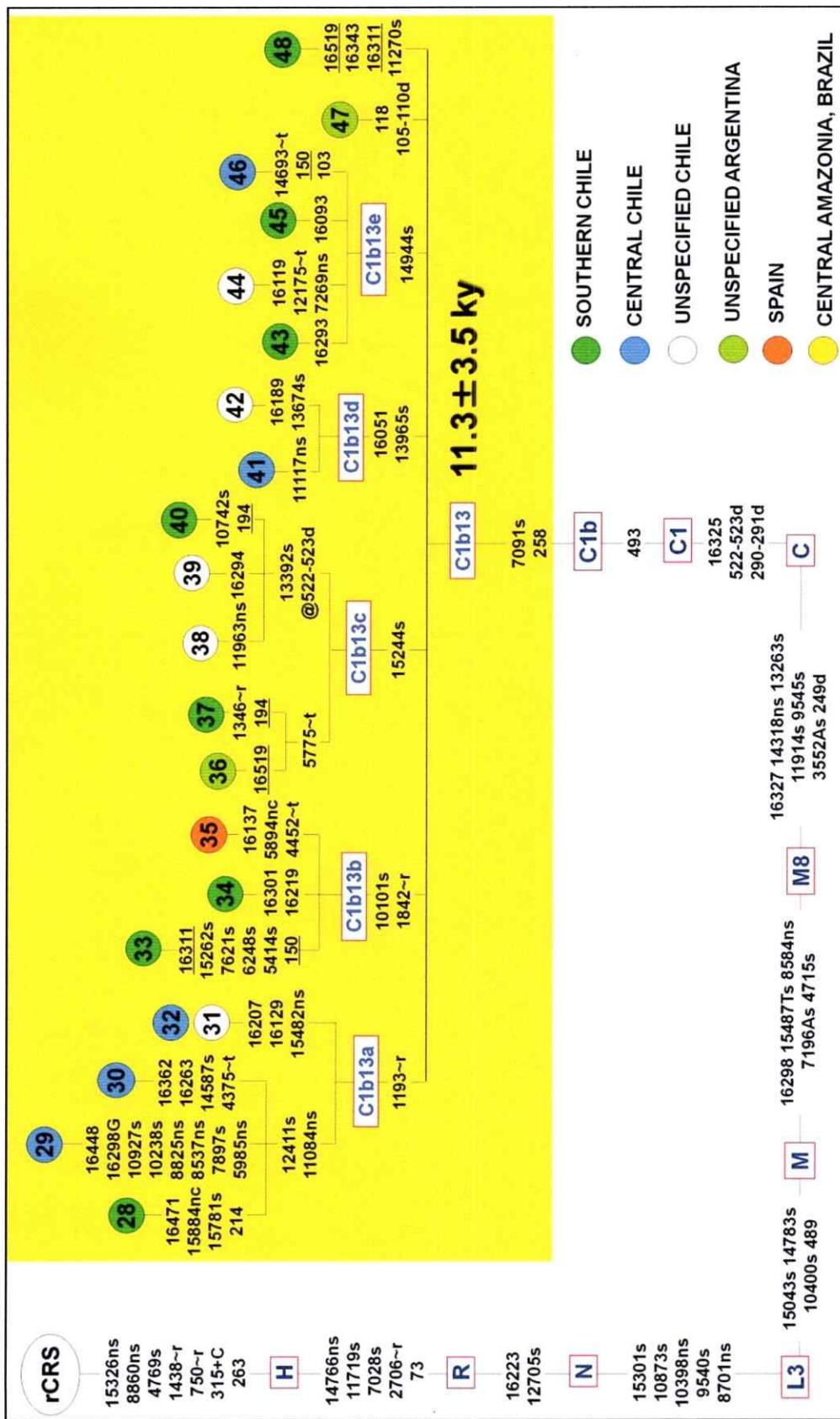


Figure 2. Detailed maximum parsimony tree of 21 novel complete Native American mtDNA sequences belonging to the novel haplogroup C1b13. The dashed line indicates the possible phylogenetic link between B2l and B2i previously reported in the Kayapo of Brazil (Fagundes et al., 2008b). Mutations relative to the rCRS node are shown on the branches; they are transitions unless a base is explicitly indicated. The prefix @ indicates reversions while suffixes indicate: transversions (to A, G, C, or T), indels (+, d), gene locus (~r, rRNA; ~t, tRNA), synonymous or non-synonymous changes (s or ns), and non-coding sites outside the control region (nc). Recurrent mutations within the phylogeny are underlined. The variation in number of cytosines at nps 309 and 16193 was not included in the phylogeny. Additional information regarding each mtDNA is available in Table 1. Coalescence times shown for C1b13 are rho estimates, and have been obtained by including all sequence changes (except 16182C, 16183C, and 16519) from the respective root according to Soares et al., (2009).

III.4 DISCUSSION

The first peopling of the Americas has fascinated scholars of several disciplines for centuries. A major milestone was reached in the '20s with the discovery of the so-called Clovis culture when Aleš Hrdlička published his theories of a Siberian origin of Native American populations, coming into North America by crossing the current Beringian Strait (Hrdlička, 1925). However, only in the early '90s did archeological, linguistic and genetic evidence begin to provide scenarios congruent enough and able to answer to the long-standing questions in Native American studies - when and from where did the first Americans arrive, and what migratory routes did they follow? The mtDNA genome, despite its small size, played a pivotal role due to its abundance in the cell, stability and inheritance mode. The initial mtDNA studies identified the major founding maternal lineages of the first settlers (Wallace et al. 1985; Schurr et al. 1990; Wallace and Torroni 1992). In the last decade, this approach, with the advent of complete mitochondrial sequencing, allowed an impressive increase in the level of phylogenetic resolution, bringing the identified founding mtDNA sequences from Beringia/Asia to the current number of 16, including both widespread (pan-American) and geographically-restricted haplogroups. In very recent years, studies of Native American mtDNA variation entered the final phase of the phylogenetic refinement process: the molecular dissection of the founding haplogroups into sub-clades of younger age and more restricted geographic distributions (Achilli et al. 2008; Bodner et al. 2012; Perego et al. 2012). A paradigmatic example of the power of this approach in a different continental context (Western Eurasia) is represented by haplogroup H. The pivotal work by Achilli and collaborators (2004) identified the first 15 clades within H, which in just eight years have reached 87 in number (Behar et al. 2012a), with countless internal branches. This fine dissection revealed informative spatial patterns attributable to a number of distinct dispersal and migration events (Torroni et al. 2006; Pala et al. 2009, 2012; Behar et al.

2012b).

The present study is a further example of the "magnifying glass" approach applied to Native American-specific haplogroups. The dissection of the major pan-American haplogroups, which began in 2008 (Achilli et al. 2008; Fagundes et al. 2008b), is further extended here allowing the identification of two novel clades, termed B2l and C1b13, whose geographical distributions appear to be restricted to Chile and Argentina. This feature supports the scenario that the mutational motifs characterizing these sub-haplogroups arose in South America, probably in the Southern Cone region.

While both sub-haplogroups B2l and C1b13 are restricted to the Southern Cone, their spatial distributions are not identical. Haplogroup B2l is found at high frequencies in the Mapuche of Chile (26.3%) and Argentina (38.9%), Pehuenche (26.2%), Huilliche (25.9%) and Tehuelche (14.0%) (Table 3), all populations living in central-southern part of Chile and Argentina and belonging to the Araucanian language family, except the Tehuelche, who belong to the Chon language family. B2l mtDNAs appear to be instead absent in more northern (Atacameño and Aymara) and southern (Kawésqar and Yámana) native groups. The absence of B2l mtDNAs in Tierra del Fuego/southern Patagonian populations is also supported by the overall absence of B2 mtDNAs in pre-Columbian human remains of that area (Lalueza et al. 1997; García-Bour et al. 2004). In contrast, the geographic and ethnic distribution of C1b13 appears to be wider both towards the North and the South. It encompasses not only Native American groups of the central-southern part of the Southern Cone, but also the Kawésqar and Yámana of the extreme South and the Atacameno of northern Chile.

Table 3. Percentage frequencies of Southern Cone-specific mtDNA haplogroups in local Native American groups and national populations.

| Country, Population or Region | n | Haplogroups | | | Reference |
|-----------------------------------|------|------------------|--------------------|------|-----------|
| | | B2l ^a | C1b13 ^b | D1g | |
| <i>Chile</i> | | | | | |
| Atacameño | 28 | 0 | 3.6 | 0 | 3.6 |
| Aymara | 39 | 0 | 0 | 2.6 | 2.6 |
| Huilliche | 58 | 25.9 | 15.5 | 37.9 | 0 |
| Kawésqar | 13 | 0 | 7.7 | 0 | 0 |
| Mapuche | 34 | ND | 23.5 | 26.5 | 0 |
| Mapuche | 19 | 26.3 | 26.3 | 15.8 | 0 |
| Pehuenche | 42 | 26.2 | 28.6 | 38.1 | 0 |
| Pehuenche | 24 | ND | 33.3 | 25.0 | 0 |
| Yámana | 36 | 0 | 11.1 | 33.3 | 0 |
| Chileans | 729 | 14.5 | 19.1 | 13.9 | 0.4 |
| <i>Argentina</i> | | | | | |
| Catamarca Province | 25 | ND | 4.0 | 20.0 | 28.0 |
| Colla | 60 | 0 | 1.7 | 0 | 1.7 |
| Mapuche | 39 | ND | 17.9 | 15.4 | 10.5 |
| Mapuche | 90 | 38.9 | 11.1 | 20.0 | 2.2 |
| Pilagá | 38 | ND | ND | 0 | 2.6 |
| Wichí | 99 | ND | ND | 0 | 2.0 |
| Mocovi | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 20.0 |
| Tehuelche | 57 | 14.0 | 21.1 | 29.8 | 0 |
| Argentinians | 497 | 4.6 | 5.8 | 7.2 | 2.8 |
| Argentinians | 179 | ND | 1.1 | 1.7 | 3.9 |
| Argentinians | 384 | ND | 0.3 | 1.3 | 5.5 |
| Argentinians (Center) | 102 | ND | ND | 2.9 | 6.9 |
| Fuegian-Patagonians (ancient DNA) | 24 | 0 | ND | 8.3 | 0 |
| Fuegian-Patagonians (ancient DNA) | 60 | 0 | ND | ND | ND |
| <i>Neighboring countries</i> | | | | | |
| Bolivians | 187 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Brazilians | 1362 | 0 | 0 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| Paraguayans | 32 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Peruvians | 2005 | 0 | 0.1 | 0 | 0 |
| Uruguayans | 116 | 0 | 0 | 0.9 | 0 |

^a The frequency of B2l is often not determined (ND) because its diagnostic control-region mutation at np 470 is outside HVS-I and was generally not covered by mtDNA studies on Native Americans.

^b The frequency of C1b13 is often not determined (ND) because its diagnostic control-region mutation at np 258 is outside HVS-I and was generally not covered by mtDNA studies on Native Americans.

From the data currently available, the geographic distributions of both B21 and C1b13 appear to be a similar distribution of D1g (Table 3). Taken together, haplogroups B21, C1b13, D1g, despite their rare occurrences within the overall Native American context, can locally reach extremely high frequencies, even up to 80-90% as observed in the Huilliche and Pehuenche of Chile and the Mapuche of Chile and Argentina (Table 3). Their largely overlapping distributions strongly support the scenario that they might have been characterized by parallel evolutionary histories. Most likely, the molecular ancestors of the four founding haplotypes arrived in the Southern Cone were carried by the pioneer human groups following the southward route along the Pacific coast, as proposed by Bodner et al. (2012). This is in agreement with the observation that the eastern populations of South America exhibit lower levels of heterozygosity for different genetic systems, and suggests an initial colonization of the western part of South America and a subsequent peopling of the eastern area by western subgroups (Cavalli-Sforza et al. 1994; Tarazona-Santos et al. 2001; Wang et al. 2007; Rothhammer and Dillehay, 2009; Yang et al. 2010). The recent study by Reich et al. (2012) adds further support to the Pacific Coast as a facilitator for migrations during the initial settlement of the double continent. However, the three sub-haplogroups, each characterized by well-defined mutational motifs, could have originated at different times and different locations during the process of human expansion along the Pacific Coast. If the mutational motif arose at the very front of the expansion wave and just prior to its arrival in what is now Chile, the age estimate of the corresponding haplogroup would tend to correspond with that of the human colonization of the Southern Cone. In such a scenario, it is also likely that the sub-haplogroup would have been present in all, or at least many (taking into account genetic drift) of the derived populations along the Pacific coast of the Southern Cone – and in the continental inland taking into account the following trans-Andean migrations (Bodner et al. 2012). Alternatively, the mutational motif could have originated later,

in one of the (probably numerous) derived population groups that arose locally along the trail of the colonization wave across the Pacific coastal areas of the Southern Cone. In this latter scenario, the age estimate of the sub-haplogroup would be younger than the time of the first arrival in the area and its spatial distribution more restricted, encompassing only a portion of the Southern Cone region.

From the dispersal patterns and ages of the four known South Cone-specific clades, B2l and C1b13 described here and D1g (Bodner et al. 2012), it is likely that both envisioned scenarios apply to the process of human colonization of the Southern Cone. Indeed, the four sub-haplogroups do not always show overlapping coalescence ages. In the present study, we obtained ML ages that are rather similar to each other (10.8 ± 3.8 and 12.0 ± 3.3 ky, respectively) for the two novel Southern Cone-specific sub-haplogroups B2l and C1b13 (Table 2), but younger than those of D1g, whose ML ages were estimated at 18.3 ± 2.4 by Bodner et al. (2012) (Table 2). The difference might be due to a sampling bias similar to the one that initially affected the age estimate of C1d (Perego et al. 2010), but could also reflect truly different evolutionary origins of the sub-haplogroups, with D1g being already present in the pioneer settlers who first colonized the Pacific coastal regions of the Southern Cone (i.e. the first scenario described above), whereas B2l could have originated later, after the initial colonization of the extreme South, when the tribalization process had already begun, from an intermediate mtDNA haplotype placed between the B2i'1 and B2l nodes (Figure 1; Table 2) already present in the pioneering wave (i.e. the second scenario described above). A few thousand years delayed origin in one of the locally derived populations, possibly in the central part of what is now Chile, would have limited the geographical and ethnic diffusion of B2l and explain the present-day occurrence that appears to be mainly confined to the Tehuelche and the Araucanian-speakers groups.

In conclusion, our data support the previously proposed scenario of a rapid colonization of South America through the Pacific coastal route. This North to South expansion was marked by the occurrence of novel sub-haplogroups, such as D1g, which probably arose at the front of the colonization wave, just prior to its entry in the northern regions of Chile and later spread along the entire coastal line (Bodner et al. 2012). In contrast, other sub-haplogroups, such as B2l, probably arose later in specific populations of the Pacific regions of the Southern Cone, when the process of linguistic differentiation and tribalization had already begun. These mtDNA clades which differentiated *in situ* within a few thousand years after human arrival could represent excellent markers to investigate the early trans-Andean movements (Bodner et al. 2012) which, after the initial expansion along the Pacific coastal regions, probably led to the colonization of the entire Southern Cone of South America.

III.5 MATERIALS AND METHODS

III.5.1 Analysis of mtDNA sequence variation

Candidate B2l and C1b13 mtDNAs were identified and selected by screening the mtDNA control region of subjects from native and general populations of Chile and Argentina. As for B2l, potential members were identified based on the presence of the B2 control-region motif 146-152-195-247-315+C-499-16129-16183C-16187-16217-16223-16230-16278-16311 relative to the Revised Sapiens Reference Sequence (RSRS, Behar et al. 2012a), which corresponds to the motif 73-263-315+C-499-16183C-16189-16217-16519 relative to rCRS (Andrews et al. 1999), plus the B2l diagnostic transition at np 470 (de Saint Pierre et al. 2012). MtDNAs with the C1b control-region motif 146-152-195-247-249del-290del-291del-315+C-489-493-523del-524del-16129-16187-16189-16230-16278-16298-16311-16325-16327-16519 relative to RSRS

(73-249del-263-290del-291del-315+C-489-16223-16298-16325-16327 relative to rCRS) plus the C1b13 diagnostic transition at np 258 (de Saint Pierre al. 2012) were considered possible members of C1b13. A total of 46 candidate mtDNAs were then completely sequenced. Of these, 25 (20 from Chile and five from Argentina) and 21 (18 from Chile, two from Argentina and one from Spain, whose maternal grandmother was born in Chile) harbored the B2l and C1b13 motifs, respectively. The geographic and ethnic affiliations of the 46 mtDNAs are listed in table 1, together with the GenBank accession number of the corresponding sequence. For all subjects, an appropriate informed consent was obtained, and institutional review boards at the various organizations involved with the current study approved all procedures. Sequencing of entire mitochondrial genomes was performed as previously described (Torroni et al. 2001). In brief, a set of 11 overlapping PCR fragments covering the entire mtDNA genome was produced and sequenced by standard chain termination sequencing with 32 nested oligonucleotides. Complete sequences were aligned, assembled, and compared using Sequencher 4.9 (Gene Codes). Phylogeny construction was performed by hand following a maximum parsimony approach.

III.5.2 Age estimates

To obtain the maximum likelihood (ML) molecular divergences of haplogroups B2l and C1b13, we used PAML 4.4 (Yang 2007), assuming the HKY85 mutation model (with indels ignored, as usual) with gamma-distributed rates (approximated by a discrete distribution with 32 categories) and three partitions: HVS-I (positions 16051 to 16400), HVS-II (positions 68 to 263), and the remainder. The ML estimates were then compared with those directly obtained from the averaged distance (ρ) of the haplotypes of a clade to the respective root haplotype accompanied by a heuristic estimate of the standard error (σ) calculated from an estimate of the genealogy. This calculation was performed on entire mtDNA haplotypes (excluding variants

16182C, 16183C, and 16519). Mutational distances were converted into years using the corrected molecular clock proposed by Soares et al. (2009).

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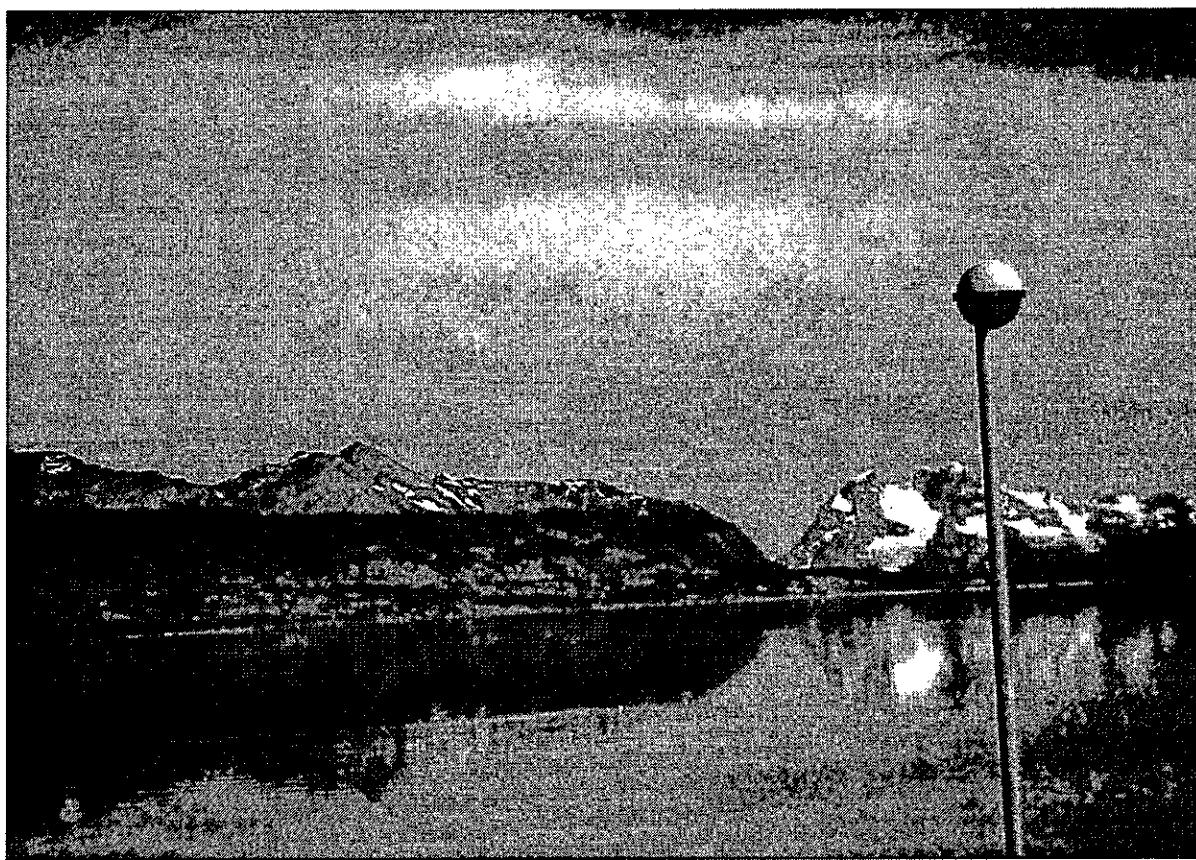
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IV. CAPITULO 3

Análisis de haplogrupos de cromosoma Y en población Chilena



IV. Analysis of chromosome Y haplogroups in Chilean population reveal the presence of P haplogroup in native population

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Running title: Y chromosome haplogroups analysis in Chilean population

Key words: Y chromosome, SNP, Haplogroup P, Amerindian lineage, Chile, South America

IV.1 ABSTRACT

In South America most of the Y chromosome analyses in indigenous or mestizo populations were made with STR (Short Tandem Repeat) without the characterization of haplotypes. Due to the high variability of the STR the results extracted from these studies are difficult to interpret and prevent an adequately characterization of the history of these populations. Because of this it is essential haplotype characterization of male native people to have a more complete map of Y chromosome haplogroups distribution. Also, in Chilean population no haplotype study of Y chromosome has been done with native or mixed populations so far, producing important gap information.

In this work we analyzed 169 individuals belonging both native and rural populations of north and south Chile, for 16 different SNP and one Alu insertion, trying to cover a wide range of haplogroups both Amerindian and non-Amerindian. The results show important differences between native and rural populations. For all native populations the haplogroup Q1a3a1 have high frequencies, over 70%, meanwhile for rural populations these values are between 25-57%. Besides the decrease of Amerindian Q1a3a1 frequencies, the rural populations also show higher values for non-Amerindian haplogroups, the haplogroup R, of European origin had an average for rural populations of 25%; meanwhile it was 11% for native. The rare haplogroup Q1a was found in very low percentage in some populations, and none C haplogroup was found neither rural nor native populations, which confirms previous results for South American populations for these two haplogroup. Also, we found P haplogroup in northern Chilean native populations, with frequencies similar to those found to ancestral Q1 lineage. This haplogroup is often not considered in analysis of Amerindian populations; however, our results suggest that P should be considered in the Amerindian category, probably with a similar behavior of other rare haplogrupos.

IV.2 INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, in genetics population analysis, Y chromosome arose like the male counterpart to maternally inherited mitochondrial DNA studies. The peculiar characteristics of the Y-chromosome markers, such as paternal inheritance and haploidy, make it possible to infer about population histories of paternal lineages and the contribution of these lineages to the gene pool of the extant populations (Jobling & Tyler-Smith, 2003). Two types of Y chromosome markers from non-recombinant region (NRY) have been used to fill the male migration analysis, Short Tandem Repeats (STRs) and the single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), both with different characteristics in terms of mutational rates and population resolution level. The STR, the most utilized of the two in genetic populations studies and also very used forensic, are multiallelic markers that mutate rapidly, so is very useful to trace the history of populations and to assign individuals within populations (Jobling, 2001; Thomas et al., 2000), but fails into define the population source of individuals and groups, because of a high mutation rate and the occurrence of homoplasy (Leite et al., 2008). The single nucleotide polymorphisms, by other hand, are binary markers with a low mutation rate, and mostly represent unique events in human evolution. So they are used in combination to define monophyletic haplotypes ('haplogroups'), which are arranged into a maximum parsimony tree containing major clades labeled A–T, which is analog to mitochondrial haplogroups (Figure 1) (King & Jobling, 2009; Karafet et al., 2008; Y Chromosome Consortium, 2002).

A large amount of data on Y-chromosome SNPs has become available from different regions of the world, helping to increase the resolution of the haplotype tree (Karafet et al., 2008).

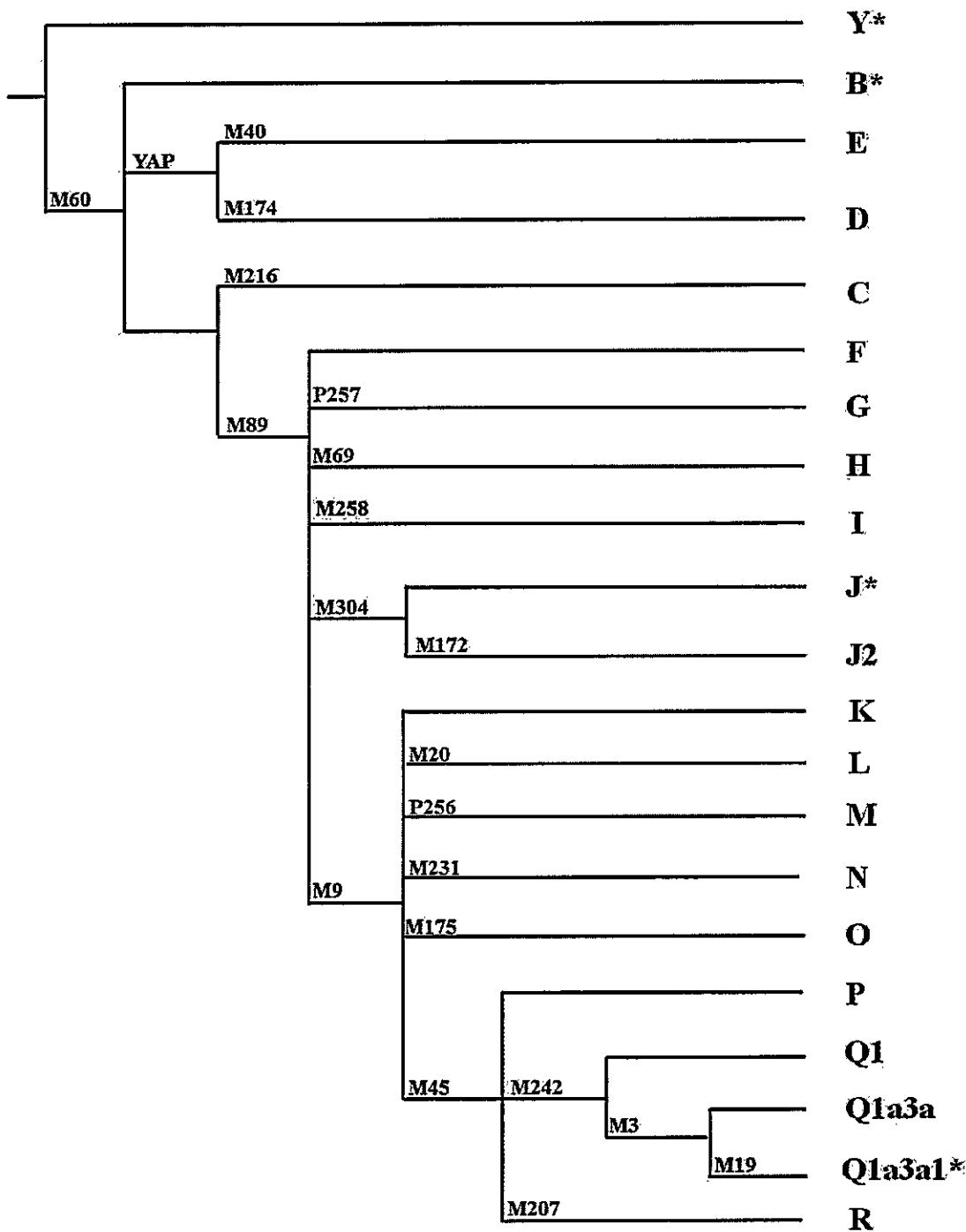


Figure 1. Y-chromosome phylogenetic tree according to Karafet et al. (2008). Polymorphism names are indicated above/below the lines and lineage names are shown aside the lines. * Shows the SNPs not tested.

In America, studies in native population show that only one main Amerindian haplogroup called Q1a3a1, defined by the SNP DYS199/M3, is shared in high percentages (about 70- 90%) for different groups of native populations from North and South America (Pena et al., 1995; Santos et al., 1996; Underhill et al., 1996; Lell et al., 1997; Bortolini et al., 2003; Schurr & Sherry, 2004). Only others two haplogroups has been described in America, Q1 and C3b. Q1 is defined by the SNP M242 and correspond to an ancestral state of the main haplogroup Q1a3a1 (Seielstad et al., 2003). It has been found in North America they were up to 47% (13.9% average) (Zegura et al., 2004; Bolnick et al., 2006) while in most South American populations where Q1 is poorly represented (<6%) (Bortolini et al., 2003; Bailliet et al., 2009). This haplogroup is also found in Asia, confirming the Asian origin for the Amerindian chromosome Y, with frequencies lower than 17% (5% average) for Asian populations (Seielstad et al., 2003) and 18.8% for Siberia (Karafet et al., 2002). The other haplogroup found in natives Americans C3b, correspond to a branch of the Asiatic haplogroup C, and defined for the SNP P-39 (Karafet et al., 2008). Cb3 has been found principally in North America populations (Zegura et al., 2004), but also in a 2 Wayuu individuals from Colombia (Malhi et al., 2008), no others reports for the C haplogroup existence in others South America natives populations. Other haplogroup of Asian origin called P, defined by M45 SNP (Shen et al., 2000; Seielstad et al., 2003) and put for some authors in the Amerindian pertinence category, has had a confuse definition like a proper haplogroup. In their article from 2003, Jobling & Tyler-Smith mention it like a paragroup, ascribing its pertinence to an incompletely haplotype characterization of individuals. Karafet et al. (2008), by other side, in the main article of Y chromosome haplogroups definition, described P like the ancestral state for the haplogroups Q (found in Asiatic populations) and R (found in European populations), and not like a haplogroup itself. Respect to Amerindian-non Amerindian classification, in early stages of chromosome Y investigations P haplogroup was put in the Amerindian category (Lell

et al., 2002; Bortolini et al., 2003) but in more recent work with Amerindian populations, M45 polymorphism has been considered like non-Amerindian (Blanco-Verea et al., 2010; Bedoya et al., 2006) or it was not considered in haplotypification analysis (Bailliet et al., 2008; Jota et al., 2011).

The low number of Y chromosome Amerindian haplogroups found in extant male native populations could be explained by natural factors like the genetic derive, bottleneck or a particular social arrangement, but also the conquest process could be a major influence for natives males more than that observed for the female population, which could explain the higher diversity of founder mitochondrial haplogroups respect to Y chromosome. In addition to the severe decrease of the native population during the colonization time product of war, disease, excessive work, relocation of indigenous individuals, etc. (Spicer, 1962), we have also the biased patterns of admixture, because mating between European males and Native women was more frequent than the reverse (Mendizabal et al., 2008; Salas et al., 2008; Sandoval et al., 2009; Guerra et al., 2011). It is probable that all these effects together caused a more severe genetic bottleneck for male than female being the cause of low level of diversity seeing today. However, besides the historic effects, also few studies on native Central-South America population have been focused on chromosome Y haplotype determination (Bortolini et al., 2003; Bailliet et al., 2008; Blanco-Verea et al., 2010; Gepper et al., 2011), others have been focused principally on haplogroup Q1 and Q1a3a1 haplotypes determination (Bailliet et al., 2009; Bisso-Machado et al., 2011; Gaya-Vidal et al., 2011; Jota et al., 2011) and the most are these focused on STR analysis (Bianchi et al., 1997, 1998; Ruiz-Linares et al., 1999; Meza et al., 2000; Tarazona-Santos et al., 2001; Demarchi & Mitchel, 2004; Ruiz-Narvaez et al., 2005; Altuna et al., 2006; Ascunce et al., 2008; Toscanini et al., 2008; Gonzales-Andrade et al., 2009; Palha et al., 2010; Sala et al., 2010; Mazieres et al., 2011). Here we study 5 native and 4 rural Chilean populations for 17 haplogroup

markers, trying to cover almost all Y chromosome haplogroup phylogenetic tree (Karafet et al., 2008). The aim of this study is determine a possible under typification on Amerindian chromosome Y haplotypes, but also described the Chilean male population, since only two studies about Y chromosome in Chilean population has been reported (Cifuentes et al., 2004; Bailliet et al., 2008). For that, we analyzed 121 individuals belonging to native Chilean population from north (Aymara, Atacameno), south (Pehuenche, Mapuche, Huilliche, Yámana and Kawésqar), and also 48 individuals belongings to a four different rural localities of Chiloe Island.

IV.3 METHODS

IV.3.1 Samples

We used blood male samples previously obtained from five native populations from Chile (Figure 2). Northern Chile: Aymara (n=18), from individuals inhabiting small villages in the Chilean Puna (Putre, Codpa, Esquiña and Illapata, all in the Arica and Parinacota Regions); Atacameno (n=24), from individuals inhabiting indigenous communities from San Pedro de Atacama, Antofagasta Region. Southern Chile: Pehuenche (n=29) from Trapa-Trapa, Mapuche (n=15) from the city of Temuco, both Araucanía Region; Huilliche (n=25), inhabitants of the coastal zone of San Juan, Los Lagos Region; Kawésqar (n=5) from the last descendants of this group, currently inhabiting Punta Arenas, Magallanes Region, and Yámana (n=5) from Ushuaia, Puerto Williams and Isla Navarino. We use also samples from rural populations from Chiloe Island, Los Lagos Region, from the localities of: Carelmapu (n=16), Quetalmahue (n=11), Detif (n=7) and Laitec (n=14).

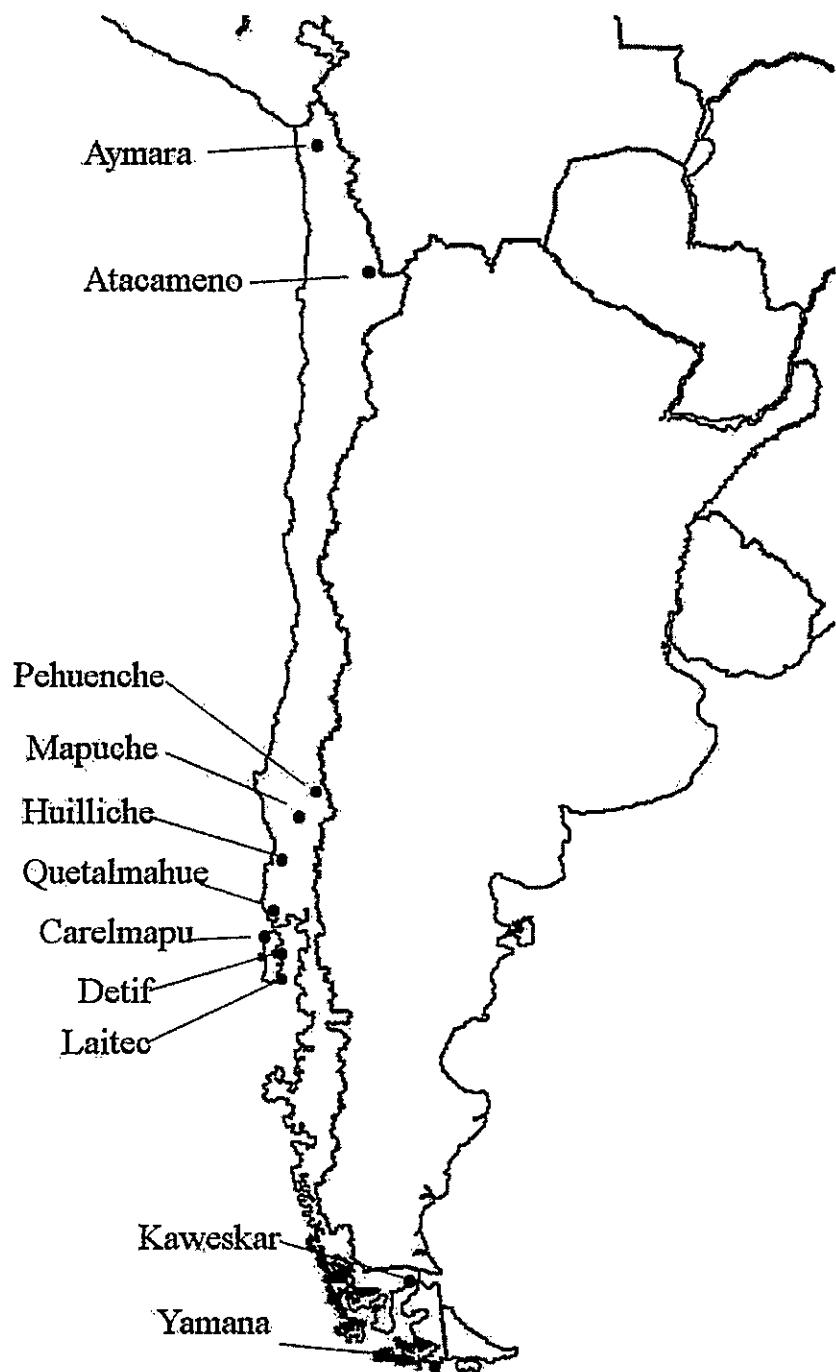


Figure 2. Map of Chilean sampling localities.

All samples were from healthy donors from whom informed consent was obtained according to the standards at the time of sampling. Samples were taken at a time when grant institutions for Chile (FONDECYT) did not seek written consent. Oral informed consent was required in all the cases. The three projects, in which samples were collected, including the oral informed consent protocols, were approved by the ethics committee of the Faculty of Medicine, University of Chile. All data were analyzed anonymously, and we just consider the geographic location and the ethnic affiliation of the populations. This study was approved by Bioethics Committee for Human Research, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Chile.

IV.3.2 Haplotype determination

We use 16 binary markers and 1 Alu insertion (Figure 1) from the non-recombining region of the Y chromosome previously described (Karafet et al., 2008); M3, M242, M207, DE, M9, M89, P45, M231, M175, P256, M20, M172, M258, M69, P257, M174 and E40. They were typed by RFLP or Allele specific analysis (see table 1 for conditions and primers used). The haplogroup (Hg) analyses was made in a hierarchical way taking into account the probability of appearance on the population, which means starting with M3-Q1a3a1, the main haplotype described to South Amerindian population (Bailliet et al., 2009). The Data were analyzed based on haplotype frequencies at the populations.

IV.3.3 Amplification and sequenciation

A Carelmapu sample, negative for all Hg tested, was analyzed for the presence of M216 by means of PCR-sequencing. The sample was amplified using primer pairs M216F (5' CTCAACCAGTTTTATGAAGCTAG 3') and M216R (5' GTTCTTGACCACCAAGATATGCA 3') and the PCR product was sequenced by Macrogen, Korea. We also sequence of two Atacameno M45 positives samples by RFLP, to confirm the correct haplotype assignation. For the amplification we used the M45 primers listed on the table

1, and for sequencing we used the M45 reverse primer.

Table 1. Primers and enzyme used in RFLP analysis and Allele specific analysis.

| Hg/SNP | Forward primer Reverse primer (5'-3') | PCR size (bp) | T°/T | Enzyme | Reference |
|-----------|---|---------------------|---------|---------|------------------------|
| DE- YAP | caggggaagataaagaaaata actgtctaaaaggggatggat | 450 | 51°/1' | | Hammer & Horai,1995 |
| E-M40 | acaatctcagatcggttttgtt tagaagggtcctggagatgc | 218 | 62°/15" | BfaI | This study |
| D-M174 | gtataataggctgggtctg catgaggtaaaatgatctt | 325 | 58°/1' | Mbil | This study |
| F-M89 | acagaaggatgctgctagett gcaactcaggcaaagtgagacat | 88 | 56°/40" | NlaIII | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| G-P257 | tctcactctgtataatatgttc aacccccatctggccac aacccccatctggccat | 289 | 58°/1' | | This study |
| H-M69 | ggtatcatagcccactatac ctttgcttgctgaaatataatttt ctttgcttgctgaaatataattttg | 246 | 60°/40" | | This study |
| I-M258 | cacagccctgaggtaatct cctgagaacaaggatcgatgt | 361 | 60°/1' | BsrI | This study |
| J2-M172 | cccattatactcattcacc aaataataattgaagactttaagt | 114 | 58°/40" | DrdI | This study |
| K-M9 | gcagcatataaaaacttcagg aaaacctctaacttgcctaagc | 340 | 53°/1' | Hinf I | Underhill et al., 1997 |
| L-M20 | gattgggtgcattcagtgc atttgcacataacccatcacac | 293 | 58°/1' | SspI | This study |
| M-P256 | cagacctctgagaagg tctgtgccttctactcaacc tctgtgccttctactcaact | 263 | 58°/1' | | This study |
| N-M231 | cctattatcctggaaaatgtgg atcccgattcctagtcaattgg | 331 | 58°/1' | TaqI | This study |
| O-M175 | tgagcaagaaaaatagtacca ttatgatagacattgaaaggct | 335 | 58°/1' | EarI | This study |
| P-M45 | atggcagtggaaaaattatacgta tgccttgcataacttccta | 162 | 56°/40" | BfaI | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Q-M242 | tcagatggcaagattttaagtaca ttcatgccttctatactgatg | 305 | 58°/1' | BsiHKAI | This study |
| Q1a3a1-M3 | taatcagtctcccccagca taggtaccagcttcccaatt | 201 | 61°/40" | MfeI | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| R-M207 | ggggcaaaatgtaaatcgac tttcttagctgttgcgtgt | 164 | 54°/40" | DraI | Bailliet et al., 2008 |

T°/t= temperature/time polymerase extension.

IV.4 RESULTS

IV.4.1 Amerindian haplotypes distribution in native and rural populations

A resume of the haplotype analyses for the American lineages Q1a3a1, Q and C3b are listed in the table 2 for native, and table 3 for rural population. Some differences between the indigenous versus rural population can be observed in the proportion of the main Amerindian haplogroup Q1a3a1-M3, but we find no differences for native populations between north and south. We find high percentages for this haplogroup (62-94%), with the exception of Patagonia populations Kawésqar and Yámana, where the values for Q1a3a1 fall to 20%. Besides the low number of individuals analyzed, this difference can be explained by more severe colonization process suffered by Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego populations in the last two centuries, which lead to extreme decrease of these populations going from ~3000 to 100 individuals in less of a century. The individuals analyzed here represent the last members of tribes virtually extinct, so it is expected a very different haplogroups values respect to other natives populations. In general terms, ours results for Q1a3a1-M3 are consistent with values obtained for other native populations from South America (Bailliet et al., 2008). The percentage frequencies for Q1a3a for all native populations (except for Kawésqar and Yámana which were not taken into account for the calculus) was 76.6%, against 33% for rural populations (table 3), which is expected as the urban centers are associated with a high level of mixing with foreign population.

Rare haplogroup Q-M242 was found only in tree individuals, one Atacameño, one Detif and one Carelmapu, which have not mayor influence in general terms for haplogroups values, but increase the value of Amerindian haplogroups, ex for Atacameno up to 67%. None C haplogroup was found, dismissing the presence of C3b in the populations studied (Tables 3 & 4). These results are according with previous reports for native population from southern cone of South America.

Table 2. Haplogroups frequencies for native population.

| Hg/pop | Aymara (n=18) | Atacameno (n=24) | Mapuche (n=15) | Pehuenche (n=29) | Huilliche (n=25) | Yámana (n=5) | Kawésqar (n=5) |
|--------|------------------|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| AB | | | | | | | |
| C | | | | | | | |
| DE | | | | | | | |
| D | | | | | | | |
| E | | | 1(0.067) | 1(0.034) | | | |
| F (J) | | 1(0.042) | | | 4(0.160) | | 1(0.200) |
| G | | | | | | | |
| H | | | | | | | |
| I | | | | | | 1(0.200) | |
| J2 | | | | 1(0.034) | | 1(0.200) | |
| K | | 1(0.042) | | | | | |
| L | | | | | | | |
| M | | | | | | | |
| N | | | | | | | |
| O | | | | | | | |
| P | 1(0.056) | 3(0.125) | | | | | |
| Q | | 1(0.042) | | | | | |
| Q1a3a1 | 17(0.944) | 15(0.624) | 11(0.733) | 24(0.828) | 18(0.720) | 1(0.200) | 1(0.200) |
| R | | 3(0.125) | 3(0.200) | 3(0.104) | 3(0.120) | 3(0.600) | 2(0.400) |

Table 3. Haplogroups frequencies for rural population from Chiloe Island and percentages average for both groups.

| Hg | Carelmapu (n=16) | Quetalmahue (n=11) | Detif (n=7) | Laitec (n=14) | % Average Native* | % Average rural |
|--------|---------------------|-----------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| AB | 1(0.063) | | | | 0 | 2.8 |
| C | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| DE | | | | | 0.9 | 0 |
| D | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| E | | | | 5(0.357) | 0.9 | 10.4 |
| F (J) | 1(0.063) | | | | 4.5 | 2.8 |
| G | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| H | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| I | 2(0.125) | | | | 0 | 4.1 |
| J2 | 3(0.187) | 3(0.273) | 1(0.143) | | 0.9 | 14.7 |
| K | 1(0.063) | | | | 0.9 | 2.8 |
| L | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| M | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| N | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| O | | | | | 0 | 0 |
| P | | | | | 3.6 | 0 |
| Q | 1(0.063) | | 1(0.143) | | 0.9 | 4.1 |
| Q1a3a1 | 4(0.250) | 3 (0.273) | 3(0.571) | 6(0.429) | 76.6 | 33.3 |
| R | 3(0.187) | 5(0.454) | 1(0.143) | 3(0.214) | 10.8 | 25.0 |

*for this calculus, Yámana and Kawésqar were not taken into account

IV.4.2 No Amerindian haplotypes distribution in native and rural populations

The haplogroup R, of European origin, was the most frequent for both native and rural populations (table 2 & 3). This marker can be used like mixture indication. It is already known that the mix between natives and foreigners was biased to male foreign/native women (-Bolnick et al., 2006; Mendizabal et al., 2008). In rural populations the average of R was 25% more than against 11% for native population, except for Kawésqar and Yámana where R was the major haplotype with 40% and 60% respectively. In native populations Aymara was the only with no R haplogroup found, and Mapuche had the highest proportion, with 20% of total. For rest of allochthonous haplogroups (except for P, which will be discussed separately) there are some differences between native and rural, principally in terms of Hg frequencies. To the populations from the Chiloé Island (table 3), J2 was the second non Amerindian haplogroup with 15% of average, against X% for native population. Carelmapu was the most diverse population respects the number of different haplogroups, being present haplogroups K, J2, I, F, R and one individual assigned AB, which resulted negative for all markers tested here. Interestingly, Laitec, a very isolated community localized in the south of the island has a different proportion of non-Amerindian haplogroup respect the other localities, they have 36% of E haplogroup, which is not found in another population in Chiloé Island and found again only in one Pehuenche and one Mapuche. The E haplogroup gives rise to both African and European, but owing to the colonization history of the region, it's more probably having European ancestry.

IV.4.3 P haplogroup

Like it was mentioned in the introduction, P has a confusing classification like haplogroup itself, complicating the analysis of this marker. To be sure about the presence of P, we tested first the SNP that defines the two haplogroups derived from P; M242 for Q and M207 for R. So, for the negative samples for Q and R we tested M45, which is one of several SNPs that define P

haplogroup (Karafet et al., 2008). In ours results, we obtained a 3.6% average of P for northern native population, and we find no P haplogroup rural populations, which is very interesting since the rural population has a highest level of no Amerindian haplogroups comparing native populations. Both populations with P positive had levels of Amerindian Hg superior to 65%, and Aymara, the only population with no haplogroup R, it had only one sample not Q1a3a1 which is P positive. However, like it was mention before, P is considered only like the ancestry for Q and R haplogroups and not like a proper haplogroup (Karafet et al., 2008). So the question is if P is a legitimate haplogroup, and it can be considered like Amerindian or non-Amerindian. Since P haplogroup has confuses status, we sequence two P positives samples in order to confirm the presence of M45 polymorphism (Figure 2).

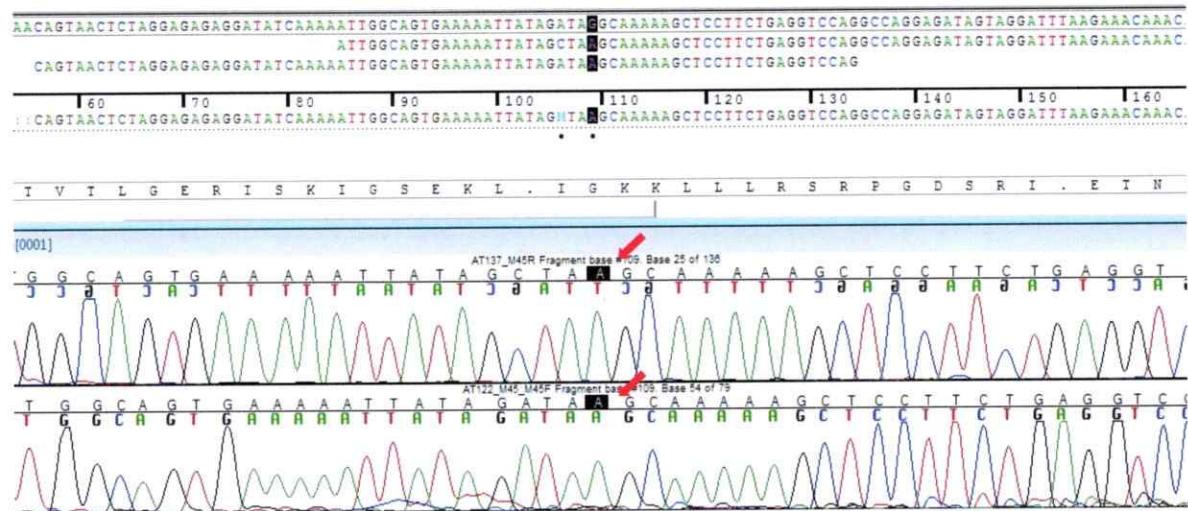


Figure 2. Chromatogram of two Atacameno M45 positive samples, showing the G-A change in 109 bp position of rs2032631 SNP marker

IV.5 DISCUSSION

IV.5.1 *Y chromosome haplogroups in native and rural populations*

We analyzed 17 different Hg markers in native population from north and south Chile and a rural population from Chiloe Island, which cover a wide range of haplogroups, both Amerindian and non-Amerindian. This is the first study focused on haplotypification of Y chromosome for Chilean men. The results show a different proportion of Amerindian/non Amerindian haplogroups for both groups with an important decrease in rural populations for Amerindian haplogroups. We also observed the biased pattern of mixture reported in other studies; for the same populations study here were analyzed to mitochondrial DNA, we found 100% of Amerindian mtDNA haplogroups for all indigenous population except for Huilliche (98%) (de Saint Pierre et al., 2012), versus ~80% Y chromosome. Only one population, Aymara in the north of Chile, has no foreign haplogroups. For the rural samples the difference was bigger, with a 42% average of Amerindian Y chromosome versus 95% of mtDNA (unpublished data).

Recently, other studies with native populations in the region shows different proportion on Amerindian/non-Amerindian haplogroups. The table 4 shows the percentages for Q1a3 and R haplogroups for populations of the southern cone of South America. We can see that populations analyzed here had low proportion of R haplogroup, and we obtain similar values for populations for Paraguay (Ayoreo, Lengua) and north Argentina (Wichi, Toba, Chorote). However, the Argentinian populations from central areas (Colla, Diaguita and Mocoví) show higher levels of admixture than observed for northern populations, with values closer to ours values for rural population. This is expected since a harder colonization process occurred for central areas both Chile and Argentina. For the southern area the differences between Chile and Argentinian population are lower, but we find a minor proportion of Q1a3 for Argentinian Mapuche and Tehuelche than for the Chilean Pehuenche, Mapuche and Huilliche (table 4).

Table 4. Percentages for Amerindian Q1a3 and non-Amerindian R haplogroup in southern cone of South America native populations.

| Population | Country | % Q1a3 * | %R* | Reference |
|------------|-----------|----------|------|---------------------------|
| Ayoreo | Paraguay | 77.8 | 11.1 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Lengua | Paraguay | 96.0 | 0 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Whichí | Argentina | 86.3 | 2.8 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Toba | Argentina | 89.9 | 4.1 | Toscanini et al., 2011 |
| Chorote | Argentina | 88.9 | 0 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Aymara | Chile | 94.4 | 0 | This study |
| Atacameño | Chile | 62.4 | 12.5 | This study |
| Colla | Argentina | 34.5 | 41.4 | Toscanini et al., 2011 |
| Colla | Argentina | 35.3 | 23.5 | Blanco-Verea et al., 2010 |
| Diaguita | Argentina | 37.5 | 29.1 | Blanco-Verea et al., 2010 |
| Mocoví | Argentina | 55.5 | 33.3 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Pehuenche | Chile | 83.3 | 6.0 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Pehuenche | Chile | 82.8 | 10.4 | This study |
| Mapuche | Chile | 73.3 | 20.0 | This study |
| Mapuche | Argentina | 57.6 | 23.1 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Mapuche | Argentina | 30.3 | 47.4 | Blanco-Verea et al., 2010 |
| Huilliche | Chile | 72.0 | 12.0 | This study |
| Huilliche | Chile | 50.0 | 15.4 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Tehuelche | Argentina | 65.0 | 15.0 | Bailliet et al., 2008 |
| Kawésqar | Chile | 20.0 | 40.0 | This study |
| Yámana | Chile | 20.0 | 60.0 | This study |

Bailliet et al. (2008) also analyzed two populations from Chile, Pehuenche and Huilliche, related to the population study here. These values reflexed a bigger admixture process in Argentinian natives populations respect the Chilean ones, which is also consistence with the different historical process suffered by these countries during the colonization time. It is important to mention that the differences related here are not questioning the ethnic identity of any particular groups, and they are simply a reflex of the particular history during the colonization process, which, by the way, had different impacts on native populations.

IV.5.2 P haplogroup: an Amerindian marker?

Besides the impact of colonization process could have had in native Y chromosome diversity, it is peculiar that the native populations of all America have one main Amerindian haplogroup, Q1a3a1, and only two rare haplogroups, Q1a and C3b, both represented mainly in North America populations and almost absent of South America ones. So the question is if the low diversity observed could be due to an undertypification of rare haplogroups, assign them erroneously in non-Amerindian category haplogroups. Since for most of Amerindian tribes have between a 5-25% of non-Amerindian haplogroups, it is not difficult to assign erroneously. In this work we show an average of 3.6% for the marker M45 in Amerindian samples both M242 and M207 negatives, which discards them belonging to the Q or R haplogroups and assigning them to P. The fact that we had not found the P marker in any of rural populations and only found the marker in natives populations with high level of Amerindian haplogroups, together with Asiatic provenance of P (Mitchell et al., 1997), allow us to put in the category Amerindian haplogroups. Since the confuse status of this haplogroup, not many information available can help us to clarify the presence of P in other Amerindian samples; only the work of Geppet et al. (2010), with Waorani communities from Ecuadorian Amazon, analyzed tree markers to resolve Q-R-P question, but they didn't find a P positive sample. The rest of analysis made in

Amerindian population lack at the same time any marker for Q-R-P, confounding a possible sample P positive with other haplogroup. Still, some studies could give us an approach about the presence of P in Amerindian populations. Bortolini et al. (2003) tested the SNPs M3, M242 and M45 in samples of indigenous population from Brazil, Colombia and Venezuela. They obtained variable percentage of P haplogroup in several populations, but like they didn't does the R marker, it is not possible discriminate between these two haplogroups. Bolnick et al. (2006) analyzed the markers Q-M242, P-M45 and R1-M173 (which define the mayor sub-haplogroup for R) in native North America populations. They found P positive samples in Cheyenne and Cherokee in percentages between 2-4%. Blanco-Verea et al. (2010) and Toscanini et al. (2010) analyzed a similar set of markers in Argentinian native population. Meanwhile Blanco-Verea et al. (2010) found P positive in Colla, Diaguita and Mapuche, Toscanini et al. (2010) not found any P in them Colla and Toba samples analyzed. Bailliet et al. (2008) found possible P (assign it within K haplogroup) in Ayoreo, Lengua, Wichi, Mocovi, Huilliche and Tehuelche.

The information showed here allows us to propose a revision of this lineage and its re-assignment like a proper haplogroup, analog to Q1a-M242 description by Seielstad et al. (2003). We show the presence of this haplogroup only in northern Chilean native samples with high levels of the other Amerindian haplotype, Q1a3a1. Like P marker is the ancestry of two lineages very common in Europe (R) and Asia (Q), a more carefully revision on P it is necessary to determine its real presence in both continents.

IV.6 List of Abbreviations

NRY - non-recombinant region, STRs - Short Tandem Repeats, SNP - single nucleotide polymorphism, Hg - Haplogroup, mtDNA - Mitochondrial DNA.

IV.7 Acknowledgments

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V. CONCLUSIONES

V.1 Capítulo 1

- Los análisis del D-loop del ADN mitocondrial de 300 individuos pertenecientes a etnias de Chile y Argentina demostraron la existencia de tres linajes geográficamente específicos de las poblaciones nativas del sur de Chile y Argentina, denominados D1g, B2l y C1b13. Estos linajes están prácticamente ausentes de las poblaciones del norte de Chile, a su vez son los linajes principales en las poblaciones del sur, exceptuando Yámana y Kawésqar.
- Los linajes D1g y B2l mostraron tener una alta diversidad y una red de haplotipos compleja, lo que concuerda con los tiempos de datación de los linajes obtenidos a través de los análisis bayesianos, de entre 15.000-14.000 años AP. Las graficas demográficas de los linajes muestran un crecimiento estable en el tiempo, con un leve aumento en D1g. Esto concuerda con un origen temprano en la Patagonia, donde las poblaciones se habrían mantenido relativamente estables en el tiempo.
- C1b13 demuestra tener una diversidad levemente menor, así como una red de haplotipos tipo estrella, característico de poblaciones en expansión, lo que concuerda con las grafica Bayesian Skyline, el que muestra una fuerte expansión del linaje hace 5.000 años aproximadamente. El tiempo de expansión del linaje alrededor de ~4.000 años menor que el obtenido para D1g y B2l, lo que junto con las diferencias en la red de haplotipos y BSP sugiere un origen diferente para C1b13, probablemente relacionado con poblaciones del centro-sur de Chile
- Se observan diferencias en los análisis demográficos realizados para las poblaciones. Mientras en el norte de Chile se observa una expansión poblacional mayor, sobre todo en Aymara, en cambio en el sur los crecimientos son de menor magnitud o en algunos casos

muy leves. Interesante es el caso de Mapuche, Huilliche y Pehuenche, estrechamente relacionados étnicamente, pero con diferencias substanciales en el modo de vida, Mientras los dos primeros son horticultores, Pehuenche se han mantenido como cazadores-recolectores. Estas diferencias pueden apreciarse en las graficas BSP, lo que muestra que estos análisis consiguen dar cuenta de dichas diferencias.

- El modelo de poblamiento de la Patagonia por ambas vertientes de la Cordillera de los Andes propuesto por Rotthammer & Dillehay, (2009) resultó no ser congruente con nuestros resultados. Estos muestran en cambio, que las poblaciones actuales del sur de Chile y la Patagonia son descendientes de los primeros migrantes que llegaron a la Patagonia, en Chile, hace 16.000-15.000 años atrás provenientes del norte y siguiendo una ruta costera por el océano Pacífico. Estos migrantes habrían cruzado la cordillera hacia la Patagonia Centro, donde se habrían dispersado hasta llegar a las zonas más australes del continente. Estas poblaciones habrían permanecido prácticamente aisladas durante todo el holoceno, dando origen a las etnias actuales del sur de Chile y la Patagonia.

V.2 Capítulo 2

- Se describieron los linajes B21 y C1b13 previamente analizados solo con la región hipervariable, construyendo las filogenias partir de la secuenciación de 44 genomas mitocondriales completos.
- B21 muestra una estructura filogenética acorde con un tiempo de expansión temprano. Las fechas obtenidas a partir del árbol filogenético, de 13.500 años AP concuerdan con los resultados obtenidos a través de análisis bayesianos. Para C1b13 se obtuvo un tiempo de expansión menor, de 12.000 años.

V.3 Capítulo 3

- Se haplotipificó 169 individuos hombres, tanto de población nativa como rural, para los principales haplogrupos de cromosoma Y.
- Los resultados obtenidos están dentro de los observados para poblaciones americanas. En población nativa, el haplogrupo principal fue Q1a3a1 encontrado entre 62-94%. En cambio en población rural este número baja a 25-57%. El haplogrupo Q1, encontrado en muy baja proporción en poblaciones nativas de Sudamérica, solo se encontró en un individuo atacameño y en dos individuos pertenecientes a población rural, confirmando que este linaje esta prácticamente ausente. El otro linaje amerindio, C3b, descrito solamente en Norteamérica no fue detectado en nuestras muestras.
- Respecto a los haplogrupos no amerindios, el principal correspondió al linaje europeo R1a, en frecuencias entre 0-20% en población nativa, y 20-45% en población rural. Se encontró solamente en población nativa del norte de Chile la presencia del haplogrupo P, el cual es el estado ancestral del haplogrupo Q1, en frecuencias promedio de 3,6%. Este linaje no está catalogado como Amerindio, sin embargo su presencia solo en población nativa, así como su ausencia en poblaciones europeas muestra que estamos posiblemente frente a un linaje amerindio fundador.

VI. DISCUSION

En esta tesis doctoral se estudió la relación filogeográfica de las poblaciones indígenas del sur de Chile y la Patagonia a través del análisis genético. Los análisis de los linajes mitocondriales D1g, B2l y C1b13 mostraron que las poblaciones nativas actuales tienen una historia profunda, anclada a la de los primeros migrantes que llegaron a la Patagonia al menos hace 15.000 años. Estos grupos de cazadores-recolectores provenientes del norte de Norte América siguieron una ruta a lo largo de la costa Pacífica desde su entrada al continente por

Beringia, hace 20.000-18.000 años. El sitio arqueológico de Monte Verde fue la primera prueba de ocupación temprana de la Patagonia. Nuestros análisis genéticos confirman no solo que las primeras poblaciones se establecieron tempranamente en el área, sino que además se mantuvieron en el tiempo en uno de los territorios más agrestes y difíciles del continente. Nuestros datos muestran que las poblaciones de la Patagonia y el sur de Chile y Argentina descienden de un mismo grupo migratorio, y no de dos como podría pensarse si las dos rutas migratorias, cada una avanzando por una vertiente de la cordillera hubieran alcanzado la Patagonia.

Los análisis de ADN mitocondrial mostraron que las poblaciones del sur de Chile, Argentina y la Patagonia comparten tres linajes mitocondriales D1g, B2l y C1b13, los cuales no han sido encontrados fuera de Chile y Argentina. Salvo dos casos de individuos D1g, uno de Uruguay y otro del sur de Brasil, no existen registros para ninguno de estos linajes fuera de estos dos países. Los casos D1g de Uruguay y Brasil, ambos provenientes de sitios urbanos además, pueden ser explicados en términos de movimientos migratorios recientes. Esta bien documentada la migración de población Argentina, hacia el norte, llegando incluso hasta Uruguay y el sur de Brasil, mezclándose con la población criolla residente.

De los linajes mitocondriales descritos en este trabajo, dos de ellos B2l y C1b13, fueron mencionados por primera vez como parte de este trabajo. D1g, que ya había sido mencionado en trabajos anteriores, fue descrito solo en base a secuencias del D-loop; la filogenia en base a secuencias completas correspondió a un trabajo paralelo realizado por Bodner et al. (2012) (mencionado en los capítulos 1 y 2). En dicho trabajo se analizaron dos linajes sudamericanos, el ya mencionado D1g, y un linaje encontrado en la región noroeste de Argentina, llamado D1j. A pesar de que los autores relacionan estos dos linajes como parte de un mismo proceso migratorio, un análisis más cuidadoso de la ubicación geográfica y edades de coalescencia de ambos linajes

muestra que es poco probable que haya sido así. D1j se encuentra casi exclusivamente en Argentina y está restringido principalmente al noroeste; la provincia de Catamarca y los indígenas Mocoví, de Provincia de Santa Fe (capítulo 2, tabla 3). Análisis no publicados de población urbana de la provincia de Córdoba han mostrado valores elevados de D1j, lo que reafirma una alta frecuencia del linaje D1j en el noroeste de Argentina. Respecto a Chile, los datos muestran que D1j está completamente ausente en población nativa araucana (Mapuche, Pehuenche y Huilliche) y además es marginal en la población urbana de Chile (estos valores podrían ser explicados en base a migración reciente entre ambos países). En su artículo, Bodner afirma que tanto D1g y D1j son linajes ancestrales Mapuche, sin embargo sólo una población Mapuche proveniente de Argentina y analizada por Ginther et al. (1993) tiene un porcentaje mayor de D1j, del 10%. El resto de poblaciones Mapuche de Argentina analizadas (capítulo 2, tabla 3) solo tienen porcentajes de D1j del 2%. Dado que D1j está presente en población araucana de Argentina en un muy bajo porcentaje, es probable que su presencia se deba a un proceso reciente de mezcla con población Argentina proveniente del noroeste, y que solo D1g sea un linaje ancestral Mapuche. Con respecto a las edades de coalescencia entregadas por Bodner, las diferencias entre D1g y D1j también sugieren que estos linajes no son parte de la misma ruta migratoria. Mientras el tiempo de coalescencia dado para D1g es entre 18.3-19.7 kyr, el de D1j es entre 13.9-14.9 kyr. La diferencia de 4.000 años en la aparición de ambos linajes, minimizada en el artículo por Bodner y cols, hace imposible que ellos fueran contemporáneos y por ende partes de la misma ruta migratoria. Es probable que mientras D1g haya sido parte de la ruta costera, tal como propone Bodner, D1j se haya originado en los migrantes que tomaron la ruta continental que siguió la vertiente oriental de la Cordillera de los Andes, la cual habría llegado a Argentina (Fig. 4, introducción). Curiosamente, Lalueza et al. (2001) describieron mediante ADN antiguo un individuo D1j Taino, proveniente de República Dominicana. Este

hallazgo confirma el origen de D1j en pobladores que siguieron una ruta migratoria diferente a la seguida por los que llevaban el linaje D1g.

Las inconsistencias entre las fechas obtenidas por distintos métodos y estudios no es algo nuevo. La causa podría estar relacionada principalmente a las diferentes tasas de mutación usadas en los distintos estudios. No obstante, el hecho de obtener fechas a partir de secuencias de distinta longitud (D-loop vs secuencias completas) podría ser sindicado también como causa de esta diferencia. En nuestro caso, sin embargo, eso no parece ser así, mientras la diferencia edad de D1g obtenido a partir secuencias completas (19.7 kyr) y de la región control (15.2 kyr) es ~3.000 años, para B21 y C1b13 las fechas obtenidas con los diferentes métodos son mucho más consistentes. Mientras para B21 esta diferencia es 700 años, para C1b13 es solo de 200 años. Por lo tanto, para este caso la inconsistencia entre las fechas parece estar más asociada con el linaje D1g que con la diferente metodología usada. ¿Cómo explicar estas diferencias? ¿Está la edad de D1g proveniente de secuencias completas sobreestimada? Es difícil aventurar una sola respuesta dadas las múltiples variables en juego, muchas de ellas desconocidas. Por ejemplo el real comportamiento del genoma mitocondrial respecto a las mutaciones, que se ha visto que tiene un comportamiento no homogéneo ni estable en el tiempo. Un análisis de las filogenias a partir del ADN mitocondrial completo puede entregarnos una respuesta. Mientras en la filogenia de D1g hay nueve homoplasias (152 199 204 10595 11914 16092 16189 16304 16519; fig. S1, capítulo 1) para B21 solo hay una (16182C; fig. 1, capítulo 2) y para C1b13 cuatro (150 194 16311 16519). Estas diferencias pueden dar cuenta, ciertamente de las diferentes edades de los linajes. D1g es 1000 años mayor que B21 en el análisis con la región control, sin embargo esta distancia aumenta a 6.000 años cuando se comparan con las edades provenientes del árbol filogenético. Es posible que en el análisis de la región control se haya minimizado la influencia de los sitios homoplásicos, lo que daría además una edad más consistente con el poblamiento de América.

Tomando en cuenta las fechas de entrada de la primera migración, una fecha de 19.7 kyr para D1g coloca la aparición de este linaje al inicio de esta, a más de 12.000 kms del lugar donde hoy D1g se encuentra presente, por otra parte, el hecho de no encontrar ningún linaje con el polimorfismo 16187 en toda América hace más improbable esta opción. Una fecha de 15.2 kyr es en cambio es más consistente con los datos arqueológicos y de distribución que disponemos para el linaje.

En resumen, las poblaciones de la Patagonia han mostrado ser descendientes de los primeros pobladores, manteniéndose relativamente aisladas en el tiempo, lo que les ha permitido que mantengan parte de la variación original. Sin embargo, estas poblaciones no solo han mostrado una variabilidad mayor a nivel de ADN mitocondrial. Nuestros análisis de cromosoma Y revelaron un nuevo haplogrupo de cromosoma Y, el cual no ha sido mencionado como nativo de las poblaciones Americanas; el haplogrupo P. ¿Existe alguna razón para que este haplogrupo no se haya pesquisado o estamos frente a un linaje propio de las poblaciones australes? Los datos publicados no permiten por el momento dar una respuesta precisa. La haplotipificación incompleta de los haplogrupos P, Q y R impide descartar o confirmar la presencia de P en otras poblaciones indígenas de Sudamérica o Norteamérica. El hecho de ser un haplogrupo en baja frecuencia (el promedio de P en poblaciones del norte es 3,6%), también hace posible que sea difícil de pesquisar, o que muchas poblaciones lo hayan perdido en el tiempo. Más estudios con el haplogrupo P son necesarios para determinar si estamos frente a una variable propia de las poblaciones Americanas, como ocurre con Q1a3a1, o frente a la retención de un linaje ancestral como lo observado para Q1a.

VII. ABREVIATURAS

AP= Antes del presente

ADN= Ácido desoxirribonucleico

ARN=Ácido ribonucleico

BP= Before present

BSP= Bayesian Skyline Plot

Hg= Haplogroup

HV= Hipervariable

Kyr= Thousand Years Ago

LMG=Last glacial maximum

mtDNA= Mitochondrial DNA

MCMC= Markov Chain Monte Carlo.

NRY= non-recombinant Y chromosome region

PCR= Polymerase Chain Reaction

P-TdF= Patagonia-Tierra del Fuego

rCRS= revised Cambridge Reference Sequence

RFLP= restriction fragment length polymorphism

SNP= Single nucleotide polymorphism

STR=Short tandem repeat

TMRCA= Time of Most Recent Common Ancestor

VIII. ANEXO

VIII. 1 Tabla con las secuencias del D-loop del ADN mitocondrial para las poblaciones en estudio

VIII 2 Artículo de Moraga et al., (2010) “Vínculos de parentesco por vía materna entre los últimos descendientes de la etnia Kawésqar y algunos entierros en los canales patagónicos: evidencia desde el estudio de linajes mitocondriales” Magallania, 38:103-114

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+160000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|----|---------|----|--|--|---------------------|-----------------|
| 1 | AT099 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067720 |
| 2 | AR011 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 362 | 060 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067765 |
| 3 | K06 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 362 | 073 146 150 153 212 235 263 309+CC 315+C 523-524d | Kawésqar | JQ042726* |
| 4 | T40 | A2 | 111 129 223 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 153 195 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Peñueche | JQ067805 |
| 5 | T69 | A2 | 111 129 223 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 153 195 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Peñueche | JQ067806 |
| 6 | T80 | A2 | 111 129 223 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 153 195 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Peñueche | JQ067807 |
| 7 | MARG13 | A2 | 111 129 223 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 153 195 235 263 309+CC 315+C 523-524d | Mapuche Aig pending | |
| 8 | MARG42 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 356 362 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 291+A 315+C 523-524d | Mapuche Aig pending | |
| 9 | MARG87 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 356 362 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 291+A 315+C 523-524d | Mapuche Aig pending | |
| 10 | MARG148 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 356 362 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 291+A 315+C 523-524d | Mapuche Aig pending | |
| 11 | AT058 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 362 519 | 064 073 146 153 155 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067721 |
| 12 | AT131 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 362 519 | 064 073 146 153 155 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067722 |
| 13 | H93 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Huillliche | JQ067849 |
| 14 | H112 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Huillliche | JQ067850 |
| 15 | H109 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Huillliche | JQ067851 |
| 16 | H113 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067852 |
| 17 | H49 | A2 | 111 156 209Y 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067853 |
| 18 | AT120 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067723 |
| 19 | AT165 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067724 |
| 20 | AT178 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067725 |
| 21 | AT179 | A2 | 111 156 223 263 290 319 362 438 519 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 315+C 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067726 |
| 22 | MARG33 | A2 | 111 192 223 227 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 152 153 235 263 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Mapuche Aig pending | |
| 23 | AR044 | A2 | 111 270 290 319 362 | 064 073 146 153 235 263 315+C 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067764 |
| 24 | H24 | A2 | 111 223 290 319 357 362 519 | 064 071 073 146 153 235 283 309+C 315+C 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067848 |
| 25 | AR066 | B2 | 182C 183C 189 217 519 | 073 146 215 263 315+C 455+T 499 | Aymara | JQ067761 |
| 26 | AR016 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 143 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Aymara | JQ067763 |
| 27 | AR079 | B2 | 086 183C 189 217 519 | 073 143 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Aymara | JQ067759 |
| 28 | AR033 | B2 | 086 183C 189 217 519 | 073 143 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Aymara | JQ067758 |
| 29 | AT173 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 063 073 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Atacameño | JQ067711 |
| 30 | AT094 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 063 064 073 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Atacameño | JQ067707 |
| 31 | AT113 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 063 064 073 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Atacameño | JQ067709 |
| 32 | AT123 | B2 | 093 183C 189 217 519 | 063 064 073 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Atacameño | JQ067714 |
| 33 | AT142 | B2 | 183C 189 217 294 519 | 063 064 073 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Atacameño | JQ067710 |
| 34 | AT176 | B2 | 183C 189 217 294 519 | 063 064 066 073 146 215 263 309+C 315+C 455+T 499 | Atacameño | JQ067712 |
| 35 | AR093 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 063 064 066 073 146 203 215 263 309+CC 315+C 455+T 499 | Aymara | JQ067751 |
| 36 | AR095 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 063 064 066 073 146 203 215 263 309+CC 315+C 455+T 499 | Aymara | JQ067752 |
| 37 | AR075 | B2 | 126 183C 188 189 217 519 | 073 263 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067748 |
| 38 | AR003 | B2 | 084 183C 188 189 217 400 519 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067749 |
| 39 | AR034 | B2 | 183C 188 189 190 217 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067743 |
| 40 | AR041 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 355 364+A 519 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067745 |
| 41 | AR024 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 073 241 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067739 |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+16000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|----|---------|-----|--|--|---------------|-----------------|
| 42 | AR035 | B2 | 183C 188 189 214 217 245 519 | 063 064 066T 263 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067744 |
| 43 | AR029 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 063 064 146 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067740 |
| 44 | AT013 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 063 064 073 185 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067704 |
| 45 | AR074 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067741 |
| 46 | AR082 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067742 |
| 47 | AT163 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067706 |
| 48 | AT053 | B2 | 183C 188 189 217 519 | 073 186 263 309+CC 315+C 316 499 | Atacameño | JQ067705 |
| 49 | AR090 | B2 | 093 183C 188 189 217 519 | 073 195 263 315+C 499 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067747 |
| 50 | AR059 | B2 | 093 183C 188 189 217 519 | 073 195 263 315+C 499 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067746 |
| 51 | MA19 | B2 | 142 183C 189 217 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067820 |
| 52 | MA20 | B2 | 142 183C 189 217 519 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067821 |
| 53 | LR01 | B2 | 153 183C 189 217 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Tehuelche | Pending |
| 54 | Teh18 | B2e | 183C 189 217 231 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 524+ACAC | Tehuelche | JQ280335 |
| 55 | AR027 | B2 | 183C 189 217 289 519 | 073 143 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067753 |
| 56 | AT051 | B2 | 182C 183C 189 217 519 | 073 200 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067715 |
| 57 | AT086 | B2 | 183C 189 194C 195 217 258T 270 325 362 519 524 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067718 |
| 58 | AT148 | B2 | 183C 189 194C 195 217 258T 270 325 362 519 524 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067719 |
| 59 | AR073 | B2 | 168 182C 183C 189 217 362 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067762 |
| 60 | AR055 | B2 | 093 168 183C 189 217 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067760 |
| 61 | AR007 | B2 | 183C 189 212 217 261 270 319 519 | 071+G 073 094 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067757 |
| 62 | AR048 | B2 | 183C 189 217 254 261 319 519 | 071+G 073 263 309+C 315+C 499 507 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067756 |
| 63 | AR039 | B2 | 183C 189 217 359 519 | 073 103 146 151 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067754 |
| 64 | AT103 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 146 152 189 195 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067708 |
| 65 | AR028 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 195 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Aymara | JQ067750 |
| 66 | AT182 | B2 | 183C 189 217 218 233 356 519 | 073 195 198 263 309+C 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067713 |
| 67 | AR046 | B2 | 051 183C 189 217 360 519 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 499 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067755 |
| 68 | AT045 | B2 | 182C 183C 189 217 218 278 519 | 073 127 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067717 |
| 69 | AT162 | B2 | 182C 183C 189 233 337 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 499 | Atacameño | JQ067716 |
| 70 | MARG03 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | Pending |
| 71 | MA23 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+C 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067822 |
| 72 | MA27 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+C 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067823 |
| 73 | MARG111 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | Pending |
| 74 | T21 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+C 315+C 470 499 | Peruhueche | JQ067794 |
| 75 | T46 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Peruhueche | JQ067795 |
| 76 | H70 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | JQ067884 |
| 77 | H10 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | JQ067886 |
| 78 | H116 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | JQ067885 |
| 79 | H122 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | Pending |
| 80 | Teh35 | B2 | 183C 189 217 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Tehuelche | JQ280336 |
| 81 | H114 | B2 | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067891 |
| 82 | H05 | B2 | 183 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067889 |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+16000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|-----|---------|-----|---|---|---------------|-----------------|
| 83 | H78 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067887 |
| 84 | H85 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067890 |
| 85 | H101 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Huilliche | pending |
| 86 | H119 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Huilliche | |
| 87 | MARG96 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 88 | MARG97 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | |
| 89 | MARG124 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 90 | MARG147 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | |
| 91 | MA13 | B2I | 186 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067824 |
| 92 | H53 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 195 207 263 309+CC 470 315+C 499 | Huilliche | JQ067888 |
| 93 | MARG48 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 94 | MARG69 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | |
| 95 | MARG70 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 96 | MARG106 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | |
| 97 | MARG114 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 98 | MARG120 | B2I | 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | |
| 99 | H75 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 146 153 207 263 470 499 | Huilliche | JQ067894 |
| 100 | MARG09 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 289 294 390 391 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 101 | MARG36 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 153 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | |
| 102 | T28 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | JQ067801 |
| 103 | T97 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | JQ067802 |
| 104 | T110 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | JQ067803 |
| 105 | T42 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 249 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | JQ067804 |
| 106 | MARG150 | B2I | 183C 189 217 291 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 107 | T34 | B2I | 183C 189 217 291 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | |
| 108 | T74 | B2I | 183C 189 217 291 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | JQ067797 |
| 109 | MARG159 | B2I | 183C 189 217 456 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 110 | MARG85 | B2I | 183C 189 217 465 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | |
| 111 | MA28 | B2I | 183C 189 217 465 519 | 073 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067825 |
| 112 | MARG80 | B2I | 183C 189 217 465 519 | 073 189 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 113 | T56 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 217 218 519 | 073 152 207 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Pehuenché | |
| 114 | H17 | B2I | 183C 189 207 217 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | JQ067883 |
| 115 | MARG46 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 207 217 278 519 | 073 146 263 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 116 | MA07 | B2I | 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Chile | |
| 117 | MARG02 | B2I | 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 118 | MARG32 | B2I | 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | |
| 119 | MARG119 | B2I | 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 120 | H72 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | |
| 121 | H97 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Huilliche | JQ067893 |
| 122 | Teh03 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Tehuelche | JQ280334 |
| 123 | Teh19 | B2I | 182C 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 470 499 | Tehuelche | pending |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+16000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|-----|---------|-------|--------------------------------------|---|---------------|-----------------|
| 124 | Teh101 | B2 | 182C 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 470 499 | Tehuelche | JQ280333 |
| 125 | T29 | B2 | 075 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 195 263 309+C 315+C 470 499 | Peñuenche | JQ067798 |
| 126 | T64 | B2 | 075 183C 189 207 217 291 519 | 073 195 263 309+C 315+C 470 499 | Peñuenche | JQ067799 |
| 127 | AT171 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067701 |
| 128 | K09 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Kawésqar | JQ042722* |
| 129 | K12 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Kawésqar | JQ042723* |
| 130 | YA17 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067838 |
| 131 | YA22 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067839 |
| 132 | YA26 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067840 |
| 133 | YA15 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067841 |
| 134 | YA16 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067842 |
| 135 | YA18 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067843 |
| 136 | AR009 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067736 |
| 137 | AR070 | C1b | 189 223 298 325 327 | 073 146 235 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067737 |
| 138 | MARG134 | C1b | 182C 183C 189 223 298 311 327 519 | 073 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 139 | K05 | C1b | 093 126 183C 189 223 298 325 327 344 | 073 185 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Kawésqar | JQ042721* |
| 140 | MARG56 | C1b | 223 239 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 141 | YA06 | C1b | 223 291 298 325 327 | 073 195 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067844 |
| 142 | YA11 | C1b | 223 291 298 325 327 | 073 195 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067845 |
| 143 | MA26 | C1b | 223 297 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067815 |
| 144 | MARG98 | C1b | 223 297 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | pending |
| 145 | H56 | C1b | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 152 200 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067877 |
| 146 | MA11 | C1b | 126 147 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067819 |
| 147 | AR054 | C1b | 126 223 298 325 526 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Aymara | JQ067738 |
| 148 | Teh17 | C1b | 129 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Tehuelche | JQ280331 |
| 149 | AT137 | C1b | 157 209 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067703 |
| 150 | MA15 | C1b | 185 223 240 298 325 327 | 073 203 249d 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067817 |
| 151 | H52 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 | Huilliche | JQ06774 |
| 152 | MA08 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067812 |
| 153 | MA10 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067818 |
| 154 | MARG55 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 155 | MARG149 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 156 | MARG145 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 157 | T41 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067788 |
| 158 | T47 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067789 |
| 159 | T08 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067783 |
| 160 | T17 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067785 |
| 161 | T31 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067786 |
| 162 | T52 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067789 |
| 163 | T77 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuenche | JQ067792 |
| 164 | T04 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 | Peñuenche | JQ067782 |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+160000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|-----|---------|-------|---------------------------------|---|---------------|-------------------------|
| 165 | H26 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | pending |
| 166 | Teh23 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Tehuelche | JQ280330 |
| 167 | H106 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | pending |
| 168 | K13 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 103 150 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Kawésqar | JQ042724* |
| 169 | T38 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 194 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 493 | Peñuhuénche | JQ067787 |
| 170 | T16 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 195 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuhuénche | JQ067784 |
| 171 | T67 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 195 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuhuénche | JQ067791 |
| 172 | H03 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 234 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067875 |
| 173 | H38 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 234 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067876 |
| 174 | LR05 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 | 073 234 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Tehuelche | pending |
| 175 | AT089 | C1b13 | 131 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Atacameño | JQ067702 |
| 176 | MARG81 | C1b13 | 172 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 177 | MA22 | C1b13 | 221 223 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067814 |
| 178 | H08 | C1b13 | 223 298 311 325 327 | 073 150 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067879 |
| 179 | H125 | C1b13 | 223 298 311 325 327 | 073 198 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067880 |
| 180 | T22 | C1b13 | 067 223 298 311 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Peñuhuénche | JQ067793 |
| 181 | MARG25 | C1b13 | 223 298 311 325 327 519 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 182 | H33 | C1b13 | 223 298 311 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067881 |
| 183 | YA21 | C1b13 | 223 298 311 325 327 343 519 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067846 |
| 184 | YA23 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 519 | 073 214 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ067847 |
| 185 | H19 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 327 471 | 073 214 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Huilliche | JQ067878 |
| 186 | MA09 | C1b13 | 075 223 234 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067813 |
| 187 | Teh37 | C1b13 | 129 189 207 223 298 325 327 399 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Tehuelche | pending |
| 188 | Teh51 | C1b13 | 129 189 207 223 298 325 327 399 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Mapuche Chile | JQ067816 |
| 189 | MA25 | C1b13 | 223 266 294 298 325 327 | 073 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Yámana | JQ280332 |
| 190 | Teh15 | C1b13 | 223 298 325 519 | 073 189 249d 258 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 493 523-524d | Tehuelche | JQ067882 |
| 191 | H95 | C1c | 223 298 311 325 327 368 380 | 073 151 152 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 379 489 | Huilliche | JQ067828 |
| 192 | K10 | C1d | 051 223 274 298 311 325 327 533 | 073 146 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 523-524d | Kawésqar | JQ042725* |
| 193 | MARG142 | C1d | 051 223 274 298 311 325 327 533 | 073 146 194 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 523-524d | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 194 | AR001 | D1 | 223 325 362 | 073 146 194 249d 263 290dd 309+C 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067727 |
| 195 | YA02 | D1 | 223 325 362 | 073 152 195 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067827 |
| 196 | YA20 | D1 | 223 325 362 | 073 152 195 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067828 |
| 197 | H80 | D1 | 093 223 325 362 | 073 195 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ067854 |
| 198 | H34 | D1 | 093 223 325 362 | 073 195 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ067855 |
| 199 | AR013 | D1 | 223 325 362 519 527 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067730 |
| 200 | AT121 | D1 | 223 325 362 519 527 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Atacameño | JQ067699 |
| 201 | AR063 | D1 | 223 311 325 362 519 527 | 071+G 073 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067732 |
| 202 | AR078 | D1 | 223 311 325 362 519 527 | 071+G 073 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067733 |
| 203 | K01 | D1 | 223 311 325 362 527 | 073 195 263 315+C 489 | Kawésqar | JQ042714* |
| 204 | MARG100 | D1 | 126 223 325 362 | 010 055 056 073 263 279 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 205 | AR085 | D1 | 223 290 325 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067729 |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+16000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|-----|---------|--------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 206 | AR017 | D1 | 223 292 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067728 |
| 207 | MARG127 | D1 | 159 188 223 325 356 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 513 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 208 | AT033 | D1j | 223 242 311 325 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Atacameño | JQ067700 |
| 209 | MARG71 | D1j | 223 242 311 325 362 | 073 152 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 210 | AR021 | D1j | 223 242 311 325 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315 +C 489 | Aymara | JQ067731 |
| 211 | MA18 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067808 |
| 212 | MARG83 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 213 | MARG151 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 214 | H92 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huillche | JQ067856 |
| 215 | H41 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huillche | JQ067857 |
| 216 | H123 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huillche | JQ067861 |
| 217 | H86 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huillche | pending |
| 218 | LR02 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280326 |
| 219 | T88 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 519 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ067774 |
| 220 | H02 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 519 | 073 263 315+C 489 573+CCCC | Huillche | pending |
| 221 | H115 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 207 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huillche | JQ067859 |
| 222 | H105 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 150 195 207 263 315+C 489 | Huillche | JQ067858 |
| 223 | H01 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 150 195 207 263 315+C 489 | Huillche | JQ067860 |
| 224 | LR06 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280324 |
| 225 | LR08 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280325 |
| 226 | LR04 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280323 |
| 227 | MARG137 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 150 199 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 228 | MARG113 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 150 199 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 229 | MARG152 | D191 | 187 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 230 | MARG102 | D191f | [15965]178 187 223 325 362 | 073 150 199 263 315+C 374 489 | Huillche | JQ067863 |
| 231 | H09 | D191f | 178 187 223 325 362 | 073 150 199 263 315+C 374 489 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067864 |
| 232 | H13 | D191f | 178 187 223 325 362 | 073 143 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg | pending |
| 233 | MARG133 | D191b? | 187 223 304 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067809 |
| 234 | MA24 | D191c | 187 223 304 325 362 399 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067775 |
| 235 | T19 | D191c | 187 223 304 325 362 399 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067776 |
| 236 | T83 | D191c | 187 223 304 325 362 399 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067810 |
| 237 | MA29 | D191 | 187 189 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Huillche | pending |
| 238 | H04 | D191 | 187 189 223 325 362 | 073 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huillche | pending |
| 239 | H27 | D191 | 187 189 223 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067829 |
| 240 | YA05 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067830 |
| 241 | YA08 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067831 |
| 242 | YA14 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067832 |
| 243 | YA19 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067833 |
| 244 | YA24 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067834 |
| 245 | YA25 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067835 |
| 246 | YA09 | D192 | 086 187 189 223 286 325 362 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Yámana | |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+160000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|-----|---------|--------|---------------------------------|--|---|-----------------|
| 247 | T24 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067766 |
| 248 | T27 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067767 |
| 249 | T44 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067768 |
| 250 | T48 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067769 |
| 251 | T58 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067770 |
| 252 | T78 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067771 |
| 253 | T81 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067772 |
| 254 | T99 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067773 |
| 255 | Teh56 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280329 |
| 256 | MARG90 | D191b | [15930] 092 187 189 223 362 | 073 143 263 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg pending | JQ280328 |
| 257 | Teh50 | D191b | 092 187 189 223 362 519 | 073 143 204 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280328 |
| 258 | MARG39 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 263 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg pending | JQ280328 |
| 259 | T09 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067777 |
| 260 | T63 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067779 |
| 261 | T94 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067781 |
| 262 | LR03 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 263 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280327 |
| 263 | T33 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 195 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067778 |
| 264 | T72 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 064 073 195 263 315+C 489 | Pehuenché | JQ067780 |
| 265 | MARG99 | D191e | 187 189 209 223 325 362 | 055 066 073 146 263 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg pending | JQ067785 |
| 266 | H07 | D191 | 187 189 223 234 325 362 445 | 073 185 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ067786 |
| 267 | H54 | D191 | 187 189 223 311 325 362 519 | 073 185 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ067786 |
| 268 | H32 | D191 | 187 189 223 311 325 362 519 | 073 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche pending | JQ067786 |
| 269 | AR094 | D191a | 187 223 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Aymara | JQ067734 |
| 270 | MARG110 | D191a | 187 223 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg pending | JQ0677862 |
| 271 | H68 | D191a | 187 223 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677868 |
| 272 | MARG44 | D191a | 187 223 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Mapuche Arg pending | JQ280321 |
| 273 | H98 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677867 |
| 274 | H11 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677870 |
| 275 | H15 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677869 |
| 276 | H61 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677868 |
| 277 | Teh13 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280321 |
| 278 | Teh26 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 325 362 390 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280322 |
| 279 | H73 | D191a2 | 187 223 245 270 325 362 390 519 | 063 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677871 |
| 280 | H37 | D1ga | 187 223 325 352 362 390 399 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ0677872 |
| 281 | H28 | D4h3a | 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huilliche pending | JQ067811 |
| 282 | MA14 | D4h3a | 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 146 152 263 315+C 489 | Mapuche Chile | JQ067735 |
| 283 | AR071 | D4h3a | 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 152 203 204 263 309+C 315+C 489 524+AC | Aymara | JQ067735 |
| 284 | Teh30 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280314 |
| 285 | Teh52 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280315 |
| 286 | Teh33 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche | JQ280316 |
| 287 | Teh105 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehuelche pending | JQ280316 |

| # | ID | Hg | Control Region 5' (+16000) | Control Region 3' | Population | Genbank # acces |
|-----|-------|--------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|------------|--------------------|
| 288 | Teh27 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 075 152 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Tehueiche | JQ280317 |
| 289 | Teh29 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 301 342 362 | 073 075 152 263 309+CC 315+C 489 | Tehueiche | JQ280318 |
| 290 | LR09 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehueiche | JQ280320 |
| 291 | H108 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Huilliche | JQ067873 |
| 292 | Teh14 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Tehueiche | JQ280319 |
| 293 | K08 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 342 362 519 | 073 152 207 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Kaweskar | JQ042719* |
| 294 | K11 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 342 362 519 | 073 152 207 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Kaweskar | JQ042720* |
| 295 | K02 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 311 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Kaweskar | JQ042715* |
| 296 | K03 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 311 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Kaweskar | JQ042716* |
| 297 | K04 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 311 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Kaweskar | JQ042717* |
| 298 | K07 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 241 311 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Kaweskar | JQ042718* |
| 299 | YA10 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 234 241 311 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067836 |
| 300 | YA13 | D4h3a5 | 051 223 234 241 311 342 362 | 073 152 263 309+C 315+C 489 | Yámana | JQ067837 |

*Secuencias publicadas originalmente por Moraga et al. (2010)

VÍNCULOS DE PARENTESCO POR VÍA MATERNA ENTRE LOS ÚLTIMOS DESCENDIENTES DE LA ETNIA KAWÉSQAR Y ALGUNOS ENTIERROS EN LOS CANALES PATAGÓNICOS: EVIDENCIA DESDE EL ESTUDIO DE LINAJES MITOCONDRIALES

MAURICIO MORAGA*, MICHELLE DE SAINT PIERRE**, FRANCISCO TORRES**, JUAN RÍOS***

RESUMEN

El presente trabajo presenta los resultados obtenidos del estudio de polimorfismos de ADN mitocondrial de muestras esqueletales de origen Kawésqar provenientes de los sitios isla Englefield, Cueva de la Cruz, isla Capitán Aracena y canal Maule; y de individuos vivos pertenecientes a la etnia Kawésqar. Los resultados obtenidos muestran una gran similitud entre las secuencias de ADN mitocondrial de los individuos vivos y las muestras antiguas. La comparación con otras secuencias publicadas para poblaciones aborígenes sudamericanas confirma los resultados y sugiere fuertemente que existe un vínculo de parentesco por vía materna entre las muestras y los Kawésqar actuales.

PALABRAS CLAVES: ADN antiguo, ADN mitocondrial, cazadores recolectores marinos, haplogrupos amerindios, Kawésqar.

**KINSHIP BY MATERNAL VIA BETWEEN THE LAST DESCENDANTS OF
KAWÉSKAR ETHNICITY AND BURIALS IN THE PATAGONIAN CHANNELS:
EVIDENCE FROM THE STUDY OF MITOCHONDRIAL LINEAGES**

ABSTRACT

This work presents the results obtained from mitochondrial DNA study of Kawésqar skeletal samples from Englefield island, Cueva de la Cruz, Captain Aracena island and Canal Maule-1; and living individuals of Kawésqar group. The results show a great similarity between the mitochondrial DNA sequences of both living individuals and the old samples. The comparison with other published sequences for south American aboriginal populations confirms the results and strongly suggests that there is a maternal kinship between the samples and the current Kawésqar.

KEYWORDS: ancient DNA, mitochondrial DNA, marine hunter-gatherer, amerindian haplogroups, Kawésqar.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

El estudio del ADN mitocondrial ha permitido en estos últimos años aproximarse con sorprendente detalle a las rutas migratorias que han seguido los humanos desde su salida de África; así como aquellas que siguieron los cazadores recolectores que a fines del pleistoceno viajaron más de dieciocho mil kilómetros desde Beringia hasta Tierra del Fuego. Las poblaciones que se desplazaron portaban un repertorio discreto de linajes la mayoría de ellos surgidos en Asia y los menos en las frías tierras de Beringia (O'Rourke y Raff 2010, Stoneking y Delfin, 2010). Muchos de ellos se perdieron probablemente durante los primeros milenios, mientras que otros llegaron a su casi desaparición tras la conquista, permaneciendo como relictos en regiones geográficas discretas asociados a poblaciones determinadas. En casos como estos los linajes mitocondriales pueden llegar a constituirse en marcadores de identidad, y por tanto podrían utilizarse para evaluar la relación entre las poblaciones actuales y sus antepasados.

ADN mitocondrial, generalidades.

El ADN mitocondrial (ADNmt) es una herramienta ideal para analizar la diferenciación de poblaciones e incluso caracterizar la individualidad humana (Budowle *et al.* 2003). Virtudes que derivan de su herencia uniparental materna, la ausencia aparente de recombinación, la elevada identidad de sus moléculas en un mismo individuo y la alta tasa de variación en su secuencia (5 a 10 veces mayor que el ADN nuclear) (Brown *et al.* 1979, Brown *et al.* 1982, Aquadro y Greenberg 1983). Adicionalmente el ADN mitocondrial presenta ventajas técnicas relevantes al momento de estudiarlo: el conocimiento de su secuencia completa, la que comprende 16.569 pares de bases (Anderson *et al.* 1981) y la gran cantidad de copias presentes por célula. Esta última característica es fundamental en lo que al análisis de muestras antiguas se refiere, ya que en la mayoría de los casos se cuenta con cantidades muy pequeñas de ADN altamente degradado.

La gran mayoría del ADNmt es codificante y sólo algo más de 1.000 pares de bases no codifican, éstas se concentran en la llamada región D-loop o control, constituida por dos regiones hipervariables principales ubicadas a ambos lados del origen de

replicación del ADNmt (HV1 y HV2). La región control ha sido usada ampliamente en los últimos años en estudios microevolutivos debido a su alto grado de polimorfismo, (Revisado en Pakendorf y Stoneking 2005).

ADN mitocondrial, poblaciones americanas nativas.

Los estudios iniciales por amplificación y corte con enzimas de restricción (PCR-RFLP) en poblaciones aborígenes americanas las agruparon en cuatro haplogrupos principales, A, B, C y D, que se reconocen por: Haplogrupo A: ganancia de un sitio para la enzima Hae III en la posición 663; haplogrupo B: delección 9 pb en la región intergénica COII/tRNALys; haplogrupo C: pérdida de un sitio para la enzima Hinc II en la posición 13259 y haplogrupo D: pérdida de un sitio para la enzima Alu I en las posiciones 5178 (Torroni *et al.* 1993). Se suma a ellos el haplogrupo X descrito en baja frecuencia en América del Norte (Brown *et al.* 1998). En base a la secuencia de las regiones HV1 y HV2 y de SNPs en región codificante se ha refinado la clasificación actual de los haplogrupos originarios en A2, B2, C1, D1 y X2a, los cuales tienen una distribución geográfica amplia a través de todo el continente, exceptuando el haplogrupo X2a, que está restringido sólo a indígenas de Norteamérica (Bandelt *et al.* 2003). Los haplogrupos A-D son frecuentes también en Asia, lo que apoya el origen noreste asiático de los linajes (Merriwether *et al.* 1995, Schurr y Wallace 2002). Estudios de los linajes amerindios han mostrado que además de los fundadores A2, B2, C1, D1 y X2a mencionados anteriormente, se encuentran también los haplogrupos D2a, D3, C4c y D4h3 dentro de los linajes fundadores, aumentando a 9 los reconocidos actualmente; existiendo además un gran número de subhaplotipos (Achilli *et al.* 2008).

En Chile las frecuencias de los haplogrupos mitocondriales muestran un evidente gradiente latitudinal, donde la frecuencia del haplogrupo B2 disminuye desde valores cercanos al 70% en el extremo norte hasta llegar aparentemente a desaparecer hacia el tercio distal de Chiloé, situación que puede ser interpretada tanto como una no llegada de este haplogrupo hasta esas latitudes, como su desaparición por efecto de la deriva génica (Moraga *et al.* 2000, Rocco *et al.* 2002). Paralelo a la desaparición

de los haplogrupos A2 y B2, los haplogrupos C y D se hacen más frecuentes hasta fijarse (García *et al.* 2006). En virtud de estos datos la posibilidad de una primera migración portadora de sólo dos haplogrupos (C y D) planteada entre otros por Lalueza *et al.* 1997, parece tentadora, pero nuestros estudios en restos antiguos de Patagonia (Moraga *et al.* 2009) muestran individuos del haplogupo B en el sitio Baño Nuevo 1, margen occidental de la estepa centropatagónica, 8.800 años AP (Mena *et al.* 2000, Mena *et al.* 2003), lo que sugiere que la ausencia de dicho haplogruopo probablemente se explique mejor por deriva genética.

ADN mitocondrial, análisis en muestras antiguas.

El estudio de ADN recuperado desde restos antiguos, particularmente de huesos humanos, se ha consolidado como una estrategia válida, conveniente y reproducible para estudiar la estructura genética de las poblaciones prehistóricas. Desde los primeros logros en la recuperación de ADN a partir de restos momificados (Pääbo *et al.* 1988, DeSalle y Grimaldi 1994, Höss *et al.* 1994), y desde restos óseos (Hagelberg *et al.* 1991a, Hagelberg *et al.* 1991b) se ha llegado en la actualidad a una etapa de madurez en que se han consolidado los protocolo básicos de extracción y amplificación, así como los diversos controles y validaciones que deben cumplir los resultados obtenidos, dado el riesgo de contaminación con ADNs recientes (revisado en O'Rourke *et al.* 2000, Pääbo *et al.* 2004).

En América por su parte se han realizado un número significativo de trabajos en los que se estudian restos humanos antiguos ya sea en contextos locales o desde el punto de vista poblacional (Stone y Stoneking 1993, 1998; Parr *et al.* 1996; Lalueza *et al.* 2001; Demarchi *et al.* 2001; Moraga *et al.* 2005; Gilbert *et al.* 2008). Para Patagonia y Tierra del Fuego estos se reducen a lo publicado por Lalueza y colaboradores para haplogrupos caracterizados por PCR-RFLP (Lalueza *et al.* 1993-94, Lalueza *et al.* 1995, Lalueza *et al.* 1997) y por García-Bour *et al.* 2004 para secuencias de la región HV1; todo esto sobre muestras Sélknam, Aónikenk, Yámana y Kawésqar del siglo XIX. Estos resultados muestran la presencia exclusiva de los haplogrupos C y D en estas poblaciones, así como la presencia del ancestral haplogruopo D4h3.

El presente trabajo busca evaluar la utilización de secuencias de ADNmt de haplotipos infrecuentes como un marcador de parentesco entre poblaciones indígenas actuales y sus posibles antepasados. En este entendido presentamos los resultados de la haplotipificación y secuenciación de la región control del ADN mitocondrial de 13 miembros de la comunidad Kawésqar de Punta Arenas y de cuatro enterratorios Kawésqar (isla Capitán Aracena, canal Maule, Englefield y cueva de la Cruz) y la comparación de todos ellos con las secuencias disponibles para el sur del subcontinente sudamericano.

MATERIALES Y MÉTODOS

Muestras antiguas.

Las muestras Arqueológicas corresponden a restos inhumados en 4 sitios de los canales australes y que han sido adscritos en base a sus características y situación geográfica a la cultura Kawésqar: dos muestras del sitio Cueva de La Cruz, Isla Madre de Dios, 50°19'958" S; 75°22'893" O (premolar y fragmento de costilla) (Legoupil 2001), una muestra del sitio Isla Englefield, en Bahía Colorada en la Isla Englefield, seno de Otway (fragmentos vértebras) (Legoupil 1987), una muestra sitio Canal Maule-1, 53°29' 57" S; 73°45' 28" O (fragmento costilla) (Constantinescu 2001, San Román y Morello 2001); pertenecientes todas a la colección del Instituto de la Patagonia de la Universidad de Magallanes. A este conjunto se suma dos muestras de tejido blando momificado (fragmento de músculo zona del tórax y de un antebrazo), como también un fragmento óseo de una falange de la extremidad superior derecha, del cuerpo encontrado en una gruta a orillas del mar en la isla Capitán Diego Aracena, ubicada a 62 millas náuticas al suroeste de la ciudad de Punta Arenas (Torres *et al.* 2009) (Fig.1). El acceso a este cuerpo parcialmente momificado fue gracias a la colaboración de la Policía de Investigaciones de Chile y la Armada de Chile. Las características de las muestras y las fechas asociadas se detallan en la tabla 1.

Muestras actuales.

Las muestras de población viva corresponden a 13 miembros de la comunidad Kawésqar de Punta



Fig. 1. Mapa del extremo sur de Sudamérica mostrando la posición geográfica aproximada de los sitios incluidos en este estudio.

Arenas, quienes accedieron a participar de manera libre e informada en el proyecto donando una muestra biológica, consistente en un hisopado bucal de cada uno de ellos. Las muestras fueron tomadas por personal del Laboratorio de Criminalística de la Policía de Investigaciones de Chile, con el debido consentimiento informado.

Extracción de ADN de muestras antiguas.

Las muestras fueron extraídas a partir de los fragmentos de hueso y raíces dentales. Los fragmentos de hueso o diente fueron sumergidos en hipoclorito de sodio al 4,8% por 20 minutos

para remover la contaminación superficial con ADN actual que pudiesen tener, debido a manipulaciones previas. El cloro fue removido y las muestras fueron lavadas repetidas veces con H₂O bidestilada estéril hasta la total remoción del hipoclorito (Kemp y Smith 2005). Las muestras fueron colocadas en tubos de 15 ml e incubadas en EDTA 0,5 M pH: 8,0 por 48 horas con agitación rotatoria permanente. Pasado este tiempo se agregó proteinasa K, continuando con la incubación por 16 a 24 horas más a 53°C. El ADN fue extraído utilizando Fenol/cloroformo/ alcohol isoamílico (25:24:1) dos veces, seguido de una extracción con cloroformo/alcohol isoamílico (24:1). (adaptada de Kemp *et al.* 2005, 2006). En

Tabla 1. Detalle de las muestras analizadas en este estudio.

| | SITIO (muestra) | EDAD | SEXO | MUESTRA | FECHADO | REFERENCIA* |
|------|-------------------------------|----------------|------|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| IP03 | ENGLEFIELD (54891) | 3 a 6 meses | I | Fragmentos vertebras | 1700 +/-120 AP. | Legoupil 1987. |
| IP04 | CUEVA DE LA CRUZ (MD2-335) | Adulto | | Fragmento costilla | 250 +/-30 AP | Legoupil 2001. |
| IP08 | CUEVA DE LA CRUZ (D379) | | | Premolar (pieza dental suelta) | | |
| IP10 | CANAL MAULE-1 (58272) | >45 años | F | Fragmento costilla | 920 +/-55 AP | Constantinescu 2001. San Roman y Morello 2001. |
| MK02 | ISLA CAPITAN ARACENA | Adulto | M | Fragmento músculo (antebrazo) | Sin fechado asociado, muy probablemente siglo XIX o XX | **Torres <i>et al.</i> 2009. |
| MK03 | ISLA CAPITAN ARACENA | | | Falange distal | | |
| MK04 | ISLA CAPITAN ARACENA | | | Fragmento músculo (torax) | | |

*Se consigna la referencia de la descripción de los sitios y/o restos óseos considerados en el estudio.

**El cuerpo de Isla Capitán Aracena no ha sido objeto de un estudio antropológico acabado ya que por solicitud de la comunidad no fue removido de su lugar de entierro.

el caso de las muestras de músculo, debido a la imposibilidad de utilizar hipoclorito, se optó por la remoción mecánica de la capa superficial de los fragmento seguida de irradiación con luz UV por 15 minutos por cada lado. Posteriormente se procedió de manera similar al protocolo para hueso prescindiendo de la incubación inicial en EDTA y prolongando el tiempo de incubación con proteinasa K. El ADN fue precipitado a temperatura ambiente por 16 horas desde la fase acuosa utilizando acetato de amonio e isopropanol. El ADN fue lavado con etanol, precipitado, secado y resuspendido en agua bidestilada estéril. De no ser absolutamente incolora la solución se procedió a purificar el extracto con sílica utilizando el kit "Wizard SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System" (Promega), según las indicaciones del proveedor (Kemp *et al.* 2006).

Todos los procedimientos que involucraron a las muestras antiguas fueron realizadas en un laboratorio exclusivamente destinado a este propósito, el cual se encuentra en un piso distinto del laboratorio principal y cuenta con un sistema de inyección de aire calidad HEPA. Todas las superficies fueron limpiadas con hipoclorito e irradiadas con luz UV. Todos los equipos son de uso exclusivo para la extracción de ADN antiguo y en los procedimientos se utilizó sólo material plástico desechable estéril. Los reactivos y muestras fueron siempre manipulados bajo campana de flujo laminar previamente irradiada con UV. En todas las extracciones se incluyó un

control blanco sin muestra. Las distintas muestras de un mismo individuo como es el caso de IP04 e IP08 para cueva de la Cruz, y MK02, MK03 y MK04 para isla Capitán Aracena fueron extraídas en ocasiones diferentes.

Análisis de haplogrupos mediante PCR-RFLP.

Las muestras fueron amplificadas para cuatro fragmentos de PCR de tamaños entre los 102 y 122 pb. El ADN fue amplificado mediante Hot Start PCR utilizando Go Taq Hot Start ADN polimerasa (Promega), utilizando el buffer 5x incluido con la enzima, dNTPs 200 μ M c/u, 25 pmoles de cada partidor y 100 μ g de BSA, con el fin de contrarrestar el efecto inhibidor sobre la taq-polimerasa de algunos contaminantes que copurifican con el ADN. El programa de PCR utilizado considera: denaturación inicial, 94°C por 5 min, 45 ciclos de: denaturación, 94°C por 45 seg; apareamiento, 45 seg. a una temperatura entre 50° y 58°C dependiendo de los partidores utilizados; elongación, 72° por 45 seg.; y elongación final a 72°C por 3 min. Los productos de PCR se separaron por electroforesis en gel de Agarosa al 3%. Los amplificados fueron analizados mediante la digestión por enzimas de restricción utilizando Hae III para el haplogrupo A, Hinc II para el haplogrupo C y Alu I para el haplogrupo D. Los productos de las digestiones se analizaron en geles de agarosa al 3%.

Análisis de las regiones HV1 y HV2 mediante secuenciación directa.

Para el análisis de las regiones hipervariables 1 y 2 se utilizaron dependiendo del estado de deterioro del ADN diferentes combinaciones de oligonucleótidos que amplifican fragmentos en el rango de 202 a 212 pb, para HV1 y 176 a 206 pb para HV2. En el caso de no tenerse buenos resultados con este set se recurrió a 8 pares de óligos que amplifican fragmentos entre los 124 y 135 pb para HV1 y 126 a 134 pb para HV2. Estos amplificados cubren un rango esperado entre las posiciones 16055 y 16382 para HV1 y entre las posiciones 57 y 330 para HV2. La amplificación de estos fragmentos se realizó mediante la técnica de PCR de manera similar a como se describe anteriormente para el análisis de haplogrupos, cambiando sólo las temperaturas de apareamiento (51° o 55° dependiendo de los partidores utilizados). Los amplificados obtenidos fueron secuenciados en Macrogen Inc. en ambas direcciones utilizando los mismos partidores utilizados en la amplificación.

Extracción de ADN muestras actuales.

Las muestras de mucosa bucal fueron extraídas mediante un protocolo modificado para hisopado bucal. Cada muestra fue recuperada desde el hisopo (cotonito) mediante incubación en agua bidestilada estéril (10 minutos), agitación energética (2 x 1 minuto) y centrifugación a 13.000 rpm por 2 min. El precipitado se resuspendió en buffer de extracción (50 mM Tris-HCl pH: 8.0; 50 mM EDTA pH: 8.0; 100 mM NaCl; 1% SDS; 0.2 mg/ml de proteinasa K) y se incubó 3 horas a 56°C con agitación suave. Se agregó NaCl 4,5 M, incubando en hielo por 5 minutos para precipitar las proteínas. El ADN fue precipitado con isopropanol a temperatura ambiente toda la noche, peleteado por centrifugación y lavado con etanol 75% y finalmente resuspendido en agua bidestilada estéril.

Análisis filogenético y estadístico.

Las secuencias obtenidas para la regiones hipervariable I y II del D-loop (HV1 y HV2), para los amplificados de restos óseos y población viva fueron alineadas utilizando el programa CLUSTAL-W

(Thompson *et al.* 1994). El análisis filogenético de los resultados se realizó mediante la utilización del programas MEGA versión 3.1 (Kumar *et al.* 2004). Se realizaron redes de haplotipos (Network) para las muestras antiguas y las pertenecientes a individuos Kawésqar de haplogrupos C y D. Para la construcción de cada red se incluyeron además secuencias de la región HV1 (16081-16381bp) de poblaciones del norte y sur de Chile; Pehuenche, Mapuche y Yámana (Moraga *et al.* 2000), Fueguinos (García-Bour *et al.* 2004), Huilliche, Aymara, Atacameño y 3 poblaciones rurales de la isla de Chiloé (de Saint Pierre *et al.* 2008). Los análisis se realizaron con el software Network 4.5.10 (<http://www.fluxus-engineering.com/>) y se utilizaron las opciones Median Joining como algoritmo de cálculo y Máxima Parsimonia como opción de post-procesamiento (Bandelt *et al.* 1999, Polzin *et al.* 2003).

RESULTADOS

Tanto los restos antiguos, como las muestras actuales de miembros de la comunidad Kawésqar de Punta Arenas fueron caracterizados para marcadores mitocondriales mediante haplotipificación por PCR-RFLP y secuenciación de las regiones hipervariables I y II (HV1 y HV2) tal como se describe en materiales y métodos.

Se obtuvo amplificados para la totalidad de las muestras antiguas para los fragmentos de PCR-RFLP, pudiéndose por tanto caracterizarlas respecto de los cuatro haplogrupos fundadores A, B, C y D de manera no ambigua. Los resultados muestran que tanto IP03 (sitio isla Englefield) como las muestras MK02, MK03 y MK04 (cuerpo isla Capitán Araucena) pertenecen al haplogrupo C, mientras que las muestras de Canal Maule 1 (IP10) y de cueva de la Cruz (IP04, IP08) pertenecen al haplogrupo D. Respecto de los 13 individuos actuales pertenecientes a la etnia Kawésqar; uno es de haplogrupo A, 5 de haplogrupo C y los restantes 7 pertenecen al haplogrupo D.

Respecto a las secuencias, se obtuvo lecturas completas para las regiones HV1 y HV2 para 6 de las 7 muestras, siendo imposible obtener amplificados secuenciables desde la muestra MK04 para todos los fragmentos, probablemente por la menor estabilidad del ADN en una muestra de tejido blando. Concordante con esto se requirió del set de partido-

Tabla 2. Polimorfismos en las regiones HV1 y HV2 del DNA mitocondrial en las muestras antiguas y población actual incluidas en este estudio.

| | Haplógrado | 16051 16093 16111 16126 16183 16189 16223 16241 16274 16290 16298 16311 16318 16319 16325 16327 16342 16344 16362 16519 16527 | 73 103 146 150 152 153 185 195 207 212 235 249 258 263 290 291 309.1 315.1 489 493 |
|------|---|---|---|
| rCRS | A T C T A T C A G C T T A G T C T C T T T | A G T C T A G T G T A A C A A A - - - T A | |
| K01 | D T . . . C . . C . . . C . . | G C G C C . | |
| K02 | D G T G . . . C . . . C . C . . | G . . . C G . . C . C C . | |
| K03 | D G T G . . . C . . . C . C . . | G . . . C G . . C . C C . | |
| K04 | D G T G . . . C . . . C . C . . | G . . . C G . . C . C C . | |
| K05 | C . C . C C C T . . . C . . . C T . T . . | G A . . . d . G d d C . C C G | |
| K06 | A . . T . . . T . . T . . A . . . C . . | G . C T . G . . C G . . G . . C C C . | |
| K07 | D G T G . . . C . . . C . C . . | G . . . C G . . C . C C . | |
| K08 | D G T G C . C C . . | G . . . C . . . A . . . G . . C . C C . | |
| K09 | C T . . . C . . . C T . . . C . . | G d . G d d . . C C G | |
| K10 | C G T . A . C C . . . C T . . . C . . | G . C . . . d . G d d C . C C . | |
| K11 | D G T G C . C C . . | G . . . C G . . C . C C . | |
| K12 | C T . . . C . . . C T . . . C . . | G d . G d d . . C C G | |
| K13 | C T . . . C . . . C T | G A . T d T G d d . . C C G | |
| IP03 | C ? T . . . C . . . C T . . . ? ? | G . . . C d . G d d C . C ? ? | |
| IP04 | D ? T G . . . C . . . C . C ? ? | G . . . C G . . C . C ? ? | |
| IP08 | D ? T G . . . C . . . C . C ? ? | G . . . C G . . C . C ? ? | |
| IP10 | D ? T G C . C ? ? | G . . . C G . . C . C ? ? | |
| MK02 | C ? T . . . C . G . C T . . . ? ? | G d . G d d C . C ? ? | |
| MK03 | C ? T . . . C . G . C T . . . ? ? | G d . G d d C . C ? ? | |

En la segunda columna se consignan los haplogrupos determinados por PCR-RFLP. En la fila superior los números corresponden a las posiciones nucleotídicas de las regiones HV1 y HV2 que presentaron variación en las muestras. La fila designada como rCRS (Revised Cambridge Reference Sequence) corresponde al nucleótido presente en esa posición en la secuencia de referencia NC_012920. Las posiciones iguales a la referencia se señalan con un punto en la tabla, una d indica la delección de ese nucleótido y un signo ? indica que esa posición no fue secuenciada.

res para amplificados de menor tamaño para lograr amplificados de MK02, la otra muestra de músculo. Este mismo set de partidores fue necesario para amplificar desde IP03, en este caso el deterioro del ADN puede deberse a la mayor edad de la muestra (1.700 +/-120 AP) o por tratarse de los restos de un neonato. Para las muestras que pertenecían a un mismo individuo como es el caso de IP04 e IP08 de cueva de la Cruz se obtuvo idénticas secuencias, lo mismo ocurrió con las muestras MK02 y MK03 de isla Capitán Aracena. Esto es muy importante porque reafirma la autenticidad de los resultados de secuencia. Para las muestras recientes se obtuvo secuencias completas para HV1 y HV2. La totalidad de las secuencias se muestran en la tabla 2. Como puede verse los seis individuos pertenecientes al haplogrupo C presentan los cambios característicos

de éste: 16298C, 16325C y 16327T, en la HV1 y las delecciones 249d y 290-291dd en la HV2. Siendo tres de las muestras actuales (K09, K12 y K13) y una antigua (IP03, Englefield) idénticas al nodal del haplogrupo (fig. 2); mientras que K10 presenta una mutación recurrente en 16311 y la muy infrecuente transición 16274A. Finalmente K05 acumula sobre los cambios propios del nodal cinco cambios extremadamente infrecuentes (16093C, 16126C, 16183C, 16189C y 16344T) constituyendo un haplotipo no descrito previamente para poblaciones sudamericanas en la literatura. Una búsqueda en la base de datos de ADNm de Sorenson muestra a una familia originaria de la región de los lagos con el mismo haplotipo. Las muestras del haplogrupo D por su parte pertenecen, con excepción de K01, poseedor de una variante 16311C del nodal, al infrecuente y aparentemente

ancestral haplogrupo D4h3 caracterizado por las posiciones 16241G y 16342C en HV1. Cuatro de las muestras de Kawésqar actuales (K02, K03, K04 y K07) comparten el mismo haplotipo que los restos

de Cueva de la cruz (IP04, IP08), mientras que los otros dos (K11 y K08) comparten el haplotipo con la muestra de Canal Maule-1 (IP10) a sólo un paso mutacional de las demás.

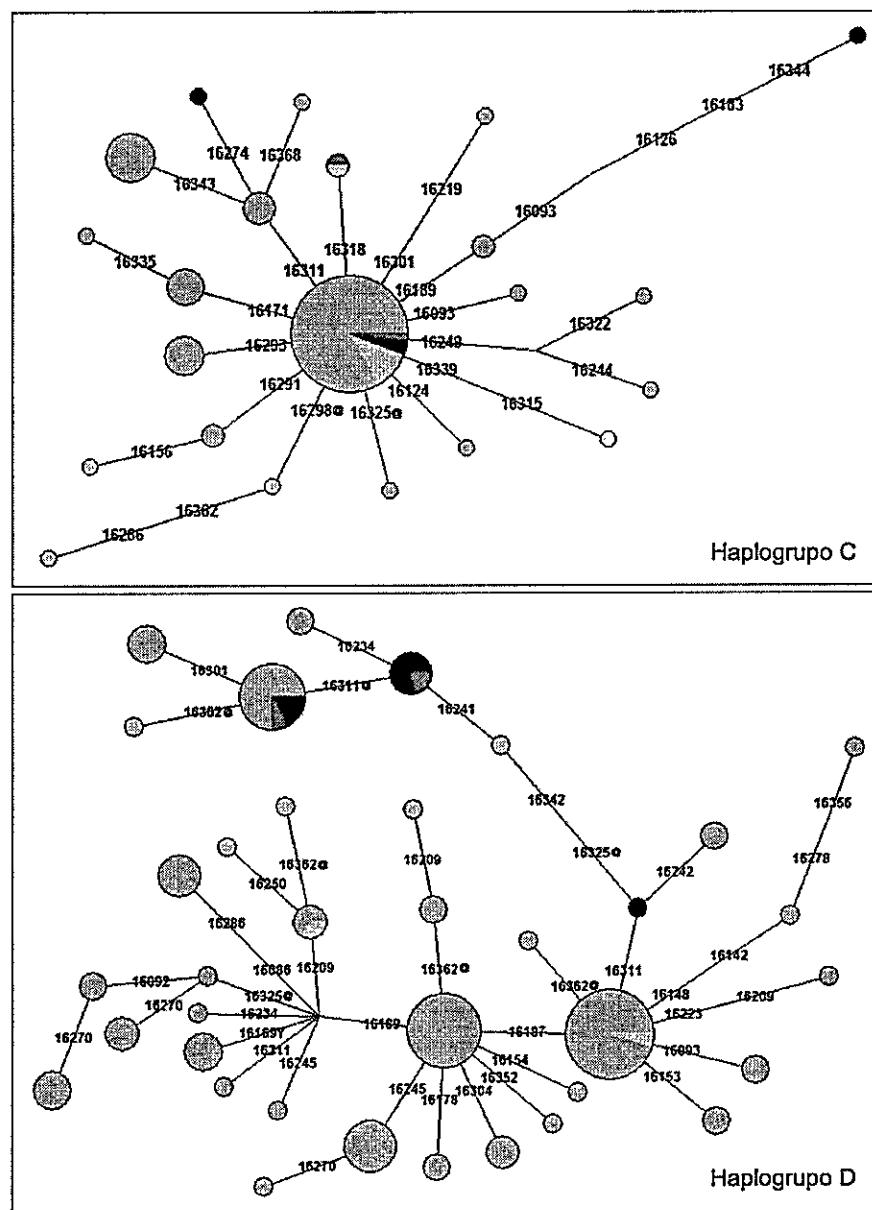


Fig. 2. Red de Haplótipos construida a partir de las secuencias de la región HV1 para diversas poblaciones nativas sudamericanas actuales (ver materiales y métodos para lista detallada) y antiguas. Se utilizó solo HV1 ya que los datos para HV2 no estaban disponibles para fueguinos en García-Bour *et al.* 2004. En gris, principales líneas encontrados en poblaciones nativas del sur de Sudamérica; en amarillo, resultados para fueguinos nativos del siglo XIX (García-Bour *et al.* 2004), en azul, individuos Kawésqar actuales (este estudio); en rojo, muestras antiguas consideradas en este estudio. Los números sobre las ramas corresponden a los pasos mutacionales (numerado según rCRS). El signo @ indica una reversión del cambio en esa rama.

DISCUSIÓN Y CONCLUSIONES

La presencia sólo de los haplogrupos C y D en las muestras de los cuatro sitios estudiados reafirma los hallazgos previos (Lalueza *et al.* 1997, Moraga *et al.* 2000, García-Bour *et al.* 2004) respecto a la ausencia de los haplogrupos A y B en proto-Kawésqar, proto-Yámana y Yámana, así como la aparente ausencia de estos haplogrupos al sur del estrecho de Magallanes desde fechas muy tempranas (Moraga *et al.* 2009). Respecto a las secuencias y tal como se aprecia en la figura 2, los individuos del haplogrupo C (muestras provenientes de isla Englefield e isla Capitán Aracena) presentan secuencias casi idénticas a las encontradas en Yámana (Moraga *et al.* 2000), en fueguinos antiguos (García-Bour *et al.* 2004) o en las propias muestras de Kawésqar secuenciadas en este estudio. Resulta interesante la identidad a nivel de HV1 de las muestras de isla Capitán Aracena con una muestra Aónikenk antiguo (García-Bour *et al.* 2004) con quien comparte una transición muy infrecuente (16318G) no descrita en otras poblaciones originarias de Chile y Sudamérica. En términos del análisis molecular, parece arriesgado proponer en base a sólo un par de muestras algún tipo de contacto entre poblaciones marítimas y terrestres, más aún con grupos continentales de Patagonia, siendo en principio más parsimonioso pensar que esta similitud radica en un ancestro común en las poblaciones de cazadores recolectores tempranos, que dieron origen a ambos grupos. De todas formas la información histórica respecto de contactos entre poblaciones terrestres y marítimas apoya dicho contacto, al menos en períodos tardíos (Martinic 1999). Como se aprecia en la red de haplotipos (fig. 2), la mayoría de las secuencias se encuentran a unos pocos pasos mutacionales del nodal.

Ambos individuos del haplogrupo D, cueva de la Cruz y canal Maule 1, por su parte pertenecen al haplotipo D4h3 descrito inicialmente en población Cayapa del Ecuador (Rickards *et al.* 1999) y encontrado recientemente en un cuerpo de cerca de 10.000 años en Alaska (Kemp *et al.* 2007). Este haplotipo se encuentra en frecuencias extremadamente bajas a lo largo de la costa pacífica de América del Norte y del Sur, siendo sorprendentemente frecuente en fuego-patagonia. Por lo mismo son varios los autores que lo consideran uno de los haplotipos que

debieron estar presentes en los primeros cazadores recolectores que entraron a América y un trazador de una ruta costera temprana de los primeros migrantes (Kemp *et al.* 2007).

Los resultados obtenidos para los miembros de la comunidad Kawésqar actual son absolutamente consistentes tanto con la información previa, así como con los resultados de las muestras antiguas; con una alta frecuencia de los haplogrupos C y D, y en este último una sobrerepresentación del haplotipo D4h3. Este punto es extraordinariamente interesante ya que en la red de haplotipos para el haplogrupo D (fig. 2), Kawésqar actuales, Yámana actuales y las muestras de cueva de La Cruz y canal Maule 1 constituyen la mayoría de los individuos D4h3, más aún, son pocos los individuos pertenecientes a grupos canoeros dentro del haplotipo D1 y aún menos los que agrupan en el haplotipo derivado D1 + 16187T. Este último está ausente en Norteamérica, en gran parte de Sudamérica y altamente representado en las poblaciones del sur de Chile y Argentina (Moraga *et al.* 2000, Ginther *et al.* 1993) y según nuestros últimos estudios habría tenido su origen en Patagonia norte hace al menos 9.000 años (de Saint Pierre *et al.* 2009). Aún cuando no es posible aventurar, con el debido soporte genético-estadístico, en base a estos resultados una distribución desigual de haplotipos entre las poblaciones canoeras y terrestres, parece existir un vínculo entre D4h3 y las primeras. Este punto debe manejarse con cuidado ya que Bravi (com pers.) ha descrito una alta frecuencia de D4h3 en Tehuelche, claro que las muestras del lado argentino tienen un cambio en 16301 y no poseen el de 16311. No contamos, desde el punto de vista genético, con la información suficiente para aventurar un posible flujo génico, ni menos un origen común reciente para estos dos grupos poblacionales, pero resulta inquietante la concordancia con lo descrito para el cuerpo de isla Capitán Aracena (haplogrupo C) que como dijimos anteriormente comparte una transición muy infrecuente (16318G) con un Aónikenk antiguo. Por otra parte, desde el punto de vista de la evidencia arqueológica y más poderosamente del registro histórico, existen pruebas sólidas de contactos de Kawésqar tanto con poblaciones Aónikenk como Sélknam, las que en algunos casos podrían haber resultado incluso en eventos de mestizaje, como se sugiere para los restos de isla Karukinka (Aspíllaga & Ocampo 1996, Martinic 1984, 1999).

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