

ESCOLA DE CIÊNCIAS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO
MESTRADO EM ZOOLOGIA

PAULO BOMFIM CHAVES

**IDENTIFICAÇÃO DE ESPÉCIES DE CARNÍVOROS (MAMMALIA, CARNIVORA)
UTILIZANDO SEQÜÊNCIAS DE DNA E SUA APLICAÇÃO EM
AMOSTRAS NÃO-INVASIVAS**

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PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO - *STRICTO SENSU*



Pontifícia Universidade Católica
do Rio Grande do Sul

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DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO

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Orientador: Pr. Dr. Eduardo Eizrik

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RESUMO

Seqüências de DNA usadas na identificação de material biológico têm alcançado considerável popularidade nos últimos anos, especialmente no contexto dos códigos de barras de DNA. Aferir a espécie de origem em amostras de pêlos, penas, peles e particularmente fezes é um passo fundamental para quem estuda a ecologia e evolução de diversos animais com este tipo de amostra. Este é o caso em carnívoros, cujos hábitos furtivos e baixas densidades populacionais de algumas espécies evidenciam a importância de estudos baseados em amostras não-invasivas. Entretanto a atual escassez de ensaios padronizados de identificação de carnívoros freqüentemente dificulta a aplicação dessas amostras em larga escala e comparações de resultados entre diferentes localidades. No presente estudo nós avaliamos dois segmentos curtos (<250 pb) de DNA mitochondrial (mtDNA) localizados nos genes *ATP sintase 6* e *citocromo oxidase I* com potencial de servirem como marcadores-padrão para identificação de carnívoros. Entre um e 11 indivíduos de 66 espécies de carnívoros foram seqüenciados para um ou ambos os segmentos do mtDNA e analisados usando três diferentes métodos (árvore de distância, distância genética e análise de caracteres). Em geral, indivíduos conspecíficos apresentaram menor distância genética entre si do que em relação a outras espécies, formando agrupamentos monofiléticos. Exceções foram algumas espécies que divergiram recentemente, algumas das quais ainda puderam ser identificadas pelo método de caracteres, haplótipos espécie-específicos, ou reduzindo a abrangência geográfica das comparações (restringindo a análise a uma região zoogeográfica). Análises *in silico*, usando um segmento curto do *citocromo b* freqüentemente empregado em carnívoros, também foram realizadas para comparar o desempenho deste segmento em relação aos outros dois propostos. Nós então testamos o desempenho destes segmentos na identificação de fezes de carnívoros por meio de três estudos de caso: (i) fezes de felinos de zoológico, objetivando-se verificar o potencial de contaminação das seqüências com DNA da presa (coelho); (ii) fezes coletadas no Cerrado brasileiro contendo restos de presas (pêlos, ossos, penas), supostamente proveniente de lobo-guará, objetivando-se investigar a eficiência de identificação do predador e ocorrência de interferência do DNA da presa na identificação; e (iii) fezes coletadas em uma reserva na Mata Atlântica, também com o objetivo de avaliar a eficiência de identificação. Apesar de diferenças em alguns aspectos de sua performance, nossos resultados indicam que os dois segmentos propostos têm um bom potencial de servir como marcadores moleculares eficientes para identificação acurada de amostras de carnívoros ao nível de espécie.

Palavras-chave: Código de barras de DNA, análise de caracteres, *COI*, *ATP6*, fezes, identificação de espécies.

ABSTRACT

DNA sequences for species-level identification of biological materials have achieved considerable popularity in the last few years, especially in the context of the DNA barcoding initiative. Species assignment of biological samples such as hairs, feathers, pelts and particularly faeces is a crucial step for those interested in studying ecology and evolution of many species with these samples. This is especially the case for carnivores, whose elusive habits and low densities highlight the importance of studies based on noninvasive samples. However, the current lack of standardized assays for carnivore identification often poses challenges to the large-scale application of this approach, as well as the cross-comparison of results among sites. Here we evaluate the potential of two short (<250 pb) mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) segments located within the genes *ATP synthase 6* and *cytochrome oxidase I* as standardized markers for carnivore identification. Between one and eleven individuals of 66 carnivore species were sequenced for one or both of these mtDNA segments and analyzed using three different approaches (tree-based, distance-based and character-based), in conjunction with sequences retrieved from public databases. In most cases, conspecific individuals had lower genetic distances from each other relative to other species, resulting in diagnosable monophyletic clusters. Notable exceptions were the more recently diverged species, some of which could still be identified using diagnostic character attributes, species-specific haplotypes, or by reducing the geographic scope of the comparison (restricting the analysis to a single zoogeographic region). Additional *in silico* analyses using a short *cytochrome b* segment frequently employed in carnivore identification were also performed aiming to compare performance to that of our two focal markers. We then tested the performance of these segments in the identification of carnivore faeces via three case studies: (i) felid faeces collected in a controlled zoo experiment, aimed at assessing whether DNA from rabbit prey would contaminate the resulting sequences; (ii) field-collected faeces from the Brazilian Cerrado presumed to be from maned wolves and containing prey remains (hairs, bones, feathers), aimed at investigating the efficiency of predator identification and occurrence of prey DNA interference; and (iii) field-collected scats from an Atlantic Forest study site, also addressing the issue of PCR success rate and identification efficiency. In spite of some relevant differences in some aspects of their performance, our results indicate that both of our focal segments have a good potential to serve as efficient molecular markers for accurate species-level identification of carnivore samples.

Key words: DNA barcoding, character-based, *COI*, *ATP6*, faeces, species identification.

APRESENTAÇÃO

A presente dissertação de mestrado, intitulada “Identificação de espécies de carnívoros (Mammalia, Carnivora) utilizando seqüências de DNA e sua aplicação em amostras não-invasivas” é apresentada como parte dos requisitos necessários para a obtenção do grau de Mestre junto ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Zoologia da Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul.

Este trabalho teve como principais objetivos gerar uma base padronizada de seqüências de DNA de carnívoros, avaliar sua eficiência na identificação das espécies incluídas e testar o desempenho destas seqüências em amostras de fezes em diferentes contextos. Com base nos resultados obtidos e em informações da literatura, procurou-se contribuir para a consolidação de metodologia confiável para a identificação de espécies de carnívoros e de amostras biológicas de origem desconhecida, contribuindo assim para o estabelecimento de medidas adequadas para conservação desta ordem de mamíferos.

Esta dissertação é apresentada no formato de um manuscrito científico a ser submetido ao periódico *Molecular Ecology Resources*.

**DNA barcoding meets molecular scatology: an evaluation of short
mtDNA sequences for standardized species assignment of carnivore
noninvasive samples**

PAULO B. CHAVES, VANESSA G. GRAEFF, MARÍLIA B. LION, LARISSA R. DE OLIVEIRA and
EDUARDO EIZIRIK

A ser submetido ao periódico 'Molecular Ecology Resources'

1 **DNA barcoding meets molecular scatology: an evaluation of short mtDNA**
2 **sequences for standardized species assignment of carnivore noninvasive**
3 **samples**

4
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14
15 Key words: DNA barcoding, character-based, *COI*, *ATP6*, faeces, species identification

16 Running title: DNA identification of Carnivores

17
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31 **Abstract**

32 DNA sequences for species-level identification of biological materials have achieved considerable
33 popularity in the last few years, especially in the context of the DNA barcoding initiative. Species
34 assignment of biological samples such as hairs, feathers, pelts and particularly faeces is a crucial step
35 for those interested in studying ecology and evolution of many species with these samples. This is
36 especially the case for carnivores, whose elusive habits and low densities highlight the importance of
37 studies based on noninvasive samples. However, the current lack of standardized assays for
38 carnivore identification often poses challenges to the large-scale application of this approach, as well
39 as the cross-comparison of results among sites. Here we evaluate the potential of two short (<250 pb)
40 mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) segments located within the genes *ATP synthase 6* and *cytochrome*
41 *oxidase I* as standardized markers for carnivore identification. Between one and eleven individuals of
42 66 carnivore species were sequenced for one or both of these mtDNA segments and analyzed using
43 three different approaches (tree-based, distance-based and character-based), in conjunction with
44 sequences retrieved from public databases. In most cases, conspecific individuals had lower genetic
45 distances from each other relative to other species, resulting in diagnosable monophyletic clusters.
46 Notable exceptions were the more recently diverged species, some of which could still be identified
47 using diagnostic character attributes, species-specific haplotypes, or by reducing the geographic
48 scope of the comparison (restricting the analysis to a single zoogeographic region). Additional *in silico*
49 analyses using a short *cytochrome b* segment frequently employed in carnivore identification were
50 also performed aiming to compare performance to that of our two focal markers. We then tested the
51 performance of these segments in the identification of carnivore faeces via three case studies: (i) felid
52 faeces collected in a controlled zoo experiment, aimed at assessing whether DNA from rabbit prey
53 would contaminate the resulting sequences; (ii) field-collected faeces from the Brazilian Cerrado
54 presumed to be from maned wolves and containing prey remains (hairs, bones, feathers), aimed at
55 investigating the efficiency of predator identification and occurrence of prey DNA interference; and (iii)
56 field-collected scats from an Atlantic Forest study site, also addressing the issue of PCR success rate
57 and identification efficiency. In spite of some relevant differences in some aspects of their
58 performance, our results indicate that both of our focal segments have a good potential to serve as
59 efficient molecular markers for accurate species-level identification of carnivore samples.

60

61 Introduction

62 Many of the currently recognized 287 carnivore species are sympatric, nocturnal and elusive
63 (Wozencraft 2005), making it sometimes difficult to investigate their habits or to obtain unmistakably
64 identified biological material for ecological and genetic studies (Davison *et al.* 2002, Palomares *et al.*
65 2002). Although some species are fairly abundant (*e.g.* coyotes, raccoons, and some foxes), many are
66 naturally rare (*e.g.* the pampas cat), or currently face threats that eventually make them scarce in
67 some localities (*e.g.* the jaguar). While many carnivores are remarkably hard to observe, their scats
68 (faeces) may be fairly common to encounter in the field. Faeces can provide information on diet,
69 physiology, geographic distribution, habitat use and parasite load, which are often problematic to
70 collect employing other means. In addition, since faeces contain cells that are sloughed off from the
71 gut wall (Albaugh *et al.* 1992), they are now a widely used source of DNA for studies employing
72 molecular markers. Advances in the efficacy and reliability of DNA extraction protocols in the last 15
73 years have allowed researchers to apply molecular techniques based on faecal DNA to carry out
74 comprehensive genetic and ecological analyses of free-ranging populations, addressing issues such
75 as phylogeography, demographic history, hybridization events, inbreeding effects, mating systems,
76 dispersal patterns and social structure (DeSalle & Amato 2004). Genetic surveys that rely on scat
77 samples as the source of DNA are commonly named molecular scatology studies (Reed *et al.* 1997,
78 Kohn & Wayne 1997). In a broader context, scats have proven to be a powerful, noninvasive source of
79 information on carnivore communities, not only because they are easier to collect and less disturbing
80 to the animals than other materials, but also because their international transport is exempt from
81 CITES (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora) control for
82 Appendix I species (Gerloff *et al.* 1995).

83 Identifying faeces at the species level has always been a key requirement for all further
84 analyses in which scats are the source of information, such as carnivore behavioral ecology and food
85 habits (Major *et al.* 1980, Johnson *et al.* 1984). Although faecal identification has been historically
86 performed using features such as size, shape, scent, or dietary content (Zuercher *et al.* 2003, Prugh &
87 Ritland 2005, Napolitano *et al.* 2008), these approaches have been found on several occasions to be
88 limited and/or error-prone for at least some groups of carnivores (Hansen & Jacobsen 1999, Bulinski &
89 McArthur 2000, Farrell *et al.* 2000, Davison *et al.* 2002, Reed *et al.* 2004, Onorato *et al.* 2006,
90 Fernandes *et al. in press*). Therefore, morphology-based identification approaches will probably not be

91 fully effective in areas where multiple carnivores co-occur (many of which have indistinguishable
92 scats), nor will they be amenable to comprehensive standardization across studies or field sites. An
93 alternative method is to use macro- and microscopic features of self-ingested predator guard hairs to
94 identify carnivore scats. Although this technique has been shown to be informative in several cases
95 (e.g. Onorato *et al.* 2006), at least two problems prevent it from being employed as a global standard
96 for a large number of species: (i) carnivore species vary extensively in the degree and pattern of self-
97 cleaning behavior, so that their faeces often do not contain predator hairs; and (ii) the number of
98 morphological characters currently surveyed in these hair-based approaches is limited, leading to the
99 observation that not all species can be distinguished using these features (Harrison 2002, V. Graeff *et*
100 *al.* unpublished data).

101 In this context, short diagnostic mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) sequences (<250 bp), recently
102 referred to as minimalist DNA barcodes or mini-barcodes (Hajibabaei *et al.* 2006), can be a powerful
103 tool for identifying carnivore scats at the species level (Farrell *et al.* 2000, Mills *et al.* 2000, Davison *et*
104 *al.* 2002). In addition to presenting higher amplification success than nuclear segments (since each
105 cell can contain hundreds or thousands of mtDNA copies) or long mtDNA fragments (since PCR
106 efficiency is higher with shorter products, especially using a template of degraded DNA), mini-
107 barcodes tend to have high inter-specific divergence and less homoplasy than microsatellite markers
108 (occasionally used for species identification – e.g. Pilot *et al.* 2007). They are therefore suitable
109 markers for species identification, even when DNA quality is low, such as in the case of noninvasive
110 samples (Hajibabaei *et al.* 2006, Broquet *et al.* 2007).

111 In addition to their application in noninvasive samples, mini-barcodes can be employed to
112 identify artifacts made of (or materials derived from) endangered species, and thus to aid in the
113 monitoring of market products (e.g. fur and souvenirs) and international trading that threaten these
114 organisms, by providing a fast and specialist-independent identification tool. The application of such
115 an approach can enhance our ability to curb illegal traffic operations, as well as contribute to other
116 relevant forensic and management issues, such as the identification of livestock predators (Bartlett &
117 Davidson 1992, Palumbi & Cipriano 1998, Farrell 2000, 2001, Breuer 2005). Short diagnostic
118 segments may also be useful in other research endeavors that rely on biological materials containing
119 DNA of poor quality and quantity, such as hairs, museum skins, bones, and palaeontological remains,

120 which are often employed in conservation genetics and molecular evolution investigations (Wayne *et*
121 *al.* 1999, Pääbo *et al.* 2004).

122 Although many studies have attempted to assign faeces to species using molecular
123 approaches, and to thus characterize local carnivore communities or to track some species in a given
124 habitat, none to date has focused on establishing a standardized method that can be used for this
125 mammalian group worldwide. Instead, several papers have addressed faecal species assignment in
126 carnivores employing different methods such as thin-layer chromatography (TLC) of faecal bile acids
127 (Fernandez *et al.* 1997, Khorozyan *et al.* 2007) and a diverse array of PCR primers, genomic
128 segments and molecular approaches, including PCR-RFLP (Paxinos *et al.* 1997, Hansen & Jacobsen
129 1999, Riddle *et al.* 2003, Gómez-Moliner *et al.* 2004, Vercillo *et al.* 2004, Colli *et al.* 2005, López-
130 Giráldez *et al.* 2005, Nagata *et al.* 2005, Bidlack *et al.* 2007, Lucentini *et al.* 2007), various mtDNA
131 sequences (Wasser *et al.* 1996, Farrell *et al.* 2000, Mills *et al.* 2000, Davison *et al.* 2002, Sugimoto *et*
132 *al.* 2006, Mukherjee *et al.* 2007), nuclear VNTRs (Reed *et al.* 1997, Domingo-Roura 2002, Wan *et al.*
133 2003, Pilot *et al.* 2007) and species-specific primers (Palomares *et al.* 2002, Dalén *et al.* 2004,
134 Fernandes *et al. in press*) (Figure 1). The current lack of standardized molecular assays can be seen
135 as an obstacle to the development of more rigorous and comparable strategies for species-level
136 identification. In particular, sequence-based identification approaches should become more efficient
137 and reliable if different studies employ the same genomic segments, so that multiple groups can
138 contribute to the growth of common data bases, which in turn should enhance the probability that all
139 extant variation in that region will be sampled, aiding in reliable identification and error-checking.
140 However, until now the trend has been for independent development of markers, with lack of overlap
141 among the various segments employed even in a single gene, such as the *cytochrome b* (Figure 2).

142 Standardization of universal segments and primers suitable for carnivore species identification
143 worldwide can clearly help save time spent in initial steps of molecular scatology studies. In addition,
144 standardized DNA sequences can be easily deposited and recovered from DNA data bases such as
145 GenBank and BOLD (Barcode of Life Data System) (Ratnasingham & Hebert 2007), enhancing the
146 link between ascertained voucher specimens, museum collections and molecular identification tools,
147 and thus improving the reliability and potential for cross-comparison of species assignments for field-
148 collected samples in different regions or studies. In spite of the clear potential for mutual benefit in the
149 integration between the DNA barcoding approach (species level identification through the use of

150 standardized DNA sequences) and the application of molecular scatology for improving our
151 understanding of wildlife biology, this interface has not yet been explored in a systematic manner, to
152 verify the feasibility of developing a comparable, reliable and rigorous strategy for the identification of
153 noninvasive samples.

154 Here we report an in-depth investigation of the performance of two short mtDNA sequences
155 for carnivore species assignment, employing a large data base that covered much of the family-level
156 diversity of the Carnivora, and included recently diverged sister-taxa and species with complex
157 evolutionary histories (e.g. deep phylogeographic partitions). Our study focused on two central
158 questions: (i) Do short mtDNA sequences have sufficient inter-specific divergence to discriminate
159 among carnivore species with high sensitivity and specificity?; and (ii) Are these segments effective for
160 carnivore species identification using faecal DNA (which is not only often degraded and present at low
161 concentrations, but also comprises a mixture derived from the predator, prey, parasites, and
162 endosymbiont microorganisms)? To address these questions, we initially assembled and analyzed
163 comprehensive DNA reference alignments for two segments, and then investigated their performance
164 for the species level identification of faeces collected from known captive animals, as well as
165 unidentified scat samples collected in the field.

166

167 **Materials and Methods**

168 *Background on the selected genomic segments*

169 Several studies involving the identification of carnivore species have focused on the use of
170 coding and non-coding mtDNA segments such as *cytochrome b* (*cytb*), control region and 16S rRNA
171 (Figure 1 and Table S1), mainly because mtDNA is a more abundant template than nuclear segments,
172 and it exhibits relatively high mutation rates. The latter property, along with its smaller effective
173 population size relative to the nuclear genome, leads to a higher probability of identifying species-
174 specific diagnostic sites even in short DNA segments (Hajibabaei *et al.* 2007a). Although no study to
175 date has used the *cytochrome c oxidase I* gene (*COI*) for this purpose, a specific 658 bp portion of
176 *COI*, currently referred to as the standardized metazoan DNA barcode, has been shown to be one of
177 the most variable coding sequences within the mtDNA, and thus diagnostic for many animal species
178 (Hebert *et al.* 2003, Mueller 2006, but see Rubinoff *et al.* 2006 for a critical viewpoint). Recently,
179 Hajibabaei *et al.* (2006, 2007b) have demonstrated that even short (< 200 bp) *COI* and *cytb* segments,

180 or mini-barcodes, can deliver species-level identification with high efficiency and can be useful in
181 samples whose DNA is degraded.

182 In a parallel effort, our laboratory has developed an assay which employs a short (ca. 130 bp)
183 segment of the *ATP synthase 6 (ATP6)* gene (including a portion that overlaps with *ATP8*) to identify
184 carnivore scats, which was initially applied in a study focusing on puma (*Puma concolor*) vs. jaguar
185 (*Panthera onca*) samples (Haag *et al.* in prep.). This segment was originally selected for being
186 variable among available carnivore species and also positioned outside the *Panthera* nuclear mtDNA
187 insertion (*numt*) of ~12.5 Kb, which encompasses both *COI* and *cytb* genes (Kim *et al.* 2006), and also
188 the *Felis catus numt*, which contains *COI* (Lopez *et al.* 1996). In the former case, amplification of the
189 nuclear copy in lieu of (paralogous sequence) or along with the mtDNA copy (chimeric sequence),
190 might hinder identification of jaguars, leopards, lions, tigers and snow leopards (see Figure 2).

191 We thus started from the premise that three mtDNA segments (*cytb*, *COI* and *ATP6*), or sub-
192 regions of them, could be used to develop standardized markers for carnivore identification. Each of
193 them presents a set of assets and limitations: (i) *cytb* has already been used in several studies for
194 carnivore identification, although no standardized segment has been fully established, nor has its
195 resolving power been assessed in a systematic manner; (ii) *COI* has not yet been employed for this
196 purpose, but its promise resides in the vast worldwide effort to accumulate reliable sequences of the
197 DNA barcode portion for all animal species (in many cases linked to voucher specimens), and its
198 resolving power shown for other taxa; and (iii) *ATP6* has been successfully used in our laboratory for
199 carnivore scat identification, but its resolving power has not been tested in a broader context. While
200 the *ATP6* segment employed in our assays is already quite short, an equivalent fragment should be
201 established for *COI* and *cytb*. We thus focused our empirical investigation on a comprehensive
202 comparison of the *ATP6* marker and a sub-segment of the *COI* barcode, and also performed an *in*
203 *silico* assessment of their informative power relative to a short segment of the *cytb* often used in
204 molecular scatology (Farrell *et al.* 2000).

205

206 *Database assembly and primer design*

207 For the *COI* segment, all 184 DNA sequences of the barcode-portion of this gene belonging to
208 a carnivore available in the BOLD data base were downloaded. The 658 bp alignment flanked by
209 Folmer *et al.*'s (1994) primers was screened for the most polymorphic 200 bp-long segment using

210 DnaSP 4.0 (Rozas *et al.* 2003) by moving a “sliding window” one 1 bp forward from the first 200 bp
211 segment until the last. This resulted in 459 segments of 200 bp analyzed for the number of variable
212 sites. The absolute number of variable sites was recorded and plotted on a graph (Figure 3a). In order
213 to eliminate a possible bias due to the excess of some over-represented species, the same analysis
214 was also performed using an alignment containing only one representative sequence of each one of
215 65 species included in the initial data set (Figure 3a). After detecting the most variable 200-bp
216 segment within the *COI* barcode segment, we searched for a conserved portion nearby to anchor the
217 primers. Since the best segments were found to be in the 3' portion of the alignment, and the
218 frequently used nearby reverse primer HCO2198 (Folmer *et al.* [1994]) displayed a good match with
219 available carnivore sequences, we decided to keep this primer, and to only design a new internal
220 forward primer. We then selected 13 sequences that were representative of carnivore evolutionary
221 diversity to use as an operational alignment for the design of a primer with a conserved 3' annealing
222 position (Figure S1).

223 To evaluate the informative power of the *ATP6* segment relative to that of *cytb* and *COI*, we
224 compared the variability of a longer fragment containing *ATP6+ATP8* (so as to go beyond the
225 boundaries of the marker applied by Haag *et al.* [in prep.] in both directions) to that of the latter two
226 regions. To accomplish this, we downloaded 50 complete carnivore mitochondrial genomes and
227 created an alignment of each one of these three segments, which was analyzed using a sliding
228 window approach as described above. The initial portion of the *ATP8-ATP6* segment was found to be
229 highly variable among species, and actually more so than any equivalent segment of *cytb* or *COI*
230 (Figure 3b). Since the *ATP6* marker described by Haag *et al.* (in prep.) to distinguish puma vs. jaguar
231 scats already lay in this variable region (see Figure 3b), we chose to keep the same segment, but
232 slightly changed the annealing position of the forward primer. This was done to increase the
233 probability of specific amplification in all carnivore families, since we observed that the primer ATP6-
234 DF2 (Haag *et al.* in prep.) did not have a perfect match near its 3' end when compared to the broad
235 sample of carnivore sequences evaluated here. Subsequently, empirical tests led us to also design a
236 new reverse primer for this segment (see Results), in a continuous attempt to achieve efficient
237 amplification across all carnivores.

238 New primers for the *COI* and *ATP6* markers were designed using Primer3 (Rozen & Skaletsky
239 2000) aiming to maximize amplification of carnivore DNA. This was attained by selecting annealing

240 targets with the maximum possible number of matches with all carnivores in the reference DNA
241 alignment. As it was impossible to find primer anchor sites with zero variability, a set of criteria was
242 applied to conduct primer design. For example, when a position in the alignment was variable among
243 carnivores, we preferred the bases to form G-T bonds, which are not as stable as A-T but are
244 considerably better than a C-A bond (Palumbi 1996). The frequency of the identified variants was also
245 taken into account, so that more attention was devoted to sites exhibiting extensive variation across
246 many carnivores relative to those in which variation was seen in few species. In addition, sites that
247 showed variation only in pinnipeds (marine carnivores or Pinnipedia) were not considered to be a
248 serious issue, as the focus of this effort were the more speciose terrestrial families of this order.
249 Finally, we also attempted to keep annealing temperatures as high as possible to increase PCR
250 specificity and to thus minimize the probability of amplification of prey DNA (King *et al.* in press).

251 In addition to *ATP6* and *COI*, we comparatively assessed the informative power of the 110 bp
252 *cytochrome b* segment described by Farrell *et al.* (2000) and used by other authors to identify
253 carnivore scats. The amplicon size of this segment is 170 bp, but the primers span a total of 60 bases,
254 so that the information content of the fragment is restricted to the central 110 bp. For this set of
255 analyses, we downloaded all 2,836 sequences found in a GenBank search with the terms “Carnivora”
256 and “*cytochrome b*”. In a first visual inspection, non-carnivore sequences, Pinniped sequences, and
257 the excess of sequences of some species (*e.g. Canis familiaris* and *Vulpes vulpes*) were removed,
258 resulting in a file containing 1,827 sequences. This file was partitioned into three subsets of 609
259 sequences each, prior to independent alignment which was performed in three separate PCs. Each
260 one of these three files contained the exact Farrell *et al.*'s segment in the first line to facilitate finding
261 the block in the alignment to be analyzed. Aligned files were then combined again and only the 110 bp
262 block was kept. In a final attempt to reduce redundancy, we searched for identical haplotypes within
263 each species and kept only one representative per haplotype in the alignment, resulting in a final file
264 containing 703 sequences of terrestrial carnivores.

265

266 *Laboratory procedures*

267 An extensive DNA sequencing effort was carried out to generate the *COI* and *ATP6* carnivore
268 data bases. A panel of 33 carnivore species belonging to seven families was selected to compose a
269 reference sequence alignment, which was complemented by data retrieved from public data bases.

270 For each of the focal 33 species, we sequenced one to eleven representatives of known geographic
271 origin (using tissue samples such as blood, liver, skin or muscle), making up a total of 206 analyzed
272 individuals. Whenever possible, we selected individuals that maximized the geographic representation
273 of each species, in order to account for the extant genetic diversity and possible phylogeographic
274 partitions occurring in these taxa, which could potentially hamper their accurate identification with
275 respect to close relatives. The primers were subsequently tested for PCR amplification and
276 sequencing in 35 other carnivore species (representing seven additional families) to assess their
277 performance in a broad phylogenetic spectrum within this mammalian order.

278 Total genomic DNA was extracted from tissues with standard proteinase K/phenol-chloroform
279 protocol (Sambrook *et al.* 1989). All PCR reagent cocktails, excluding DNA, were assembled in a
280 dedicated room physically isolated from DNA extracts and PCR products. This room was periodically
281 sterilized through 15 min overhead UV radiation. PCR reactions were performed in a PTC-100
282 thermocycler (MJ Research) with the following conditions: ATP6 – PCR reactions contained 1 to 5 μ l
283 of template DNA (empirically diluted), 1X PCR buffer, 100 μ M of each dNTP, 8.0 pmol of each primer,
284 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 1.0 U of Taq DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen) and dH₂O to complete a 20 μ l final volume.
285 Cycling temperatures were: initial denaturation at 94°C/3 minutes, followed by 94°C/45 seconds,
286 60°C/45 sec (touchdown - 1°C/10 cycles), 72°C/1 min 30 sec, and 30 cycles at 94°C/45 sec, 50°C/45
287 sec, 72°C/1 min 30 sec, and a final extension at 72°C/3 min. COI – reactions were set up with the
288 same amount of reagents with ATP6, except MgCl₂ (2.0 mM). Cycling conditions were: initial
289 denaturation at 96°C/1 min, followed by 40 cycles of 94°C/30 sec, a within-cycle decreasing annealing
290 step of 50°C/20 sec, 48°C/05 sec, 46°C/05 sec, 44°C/05 sec, 42°C/05 sec, 40°C/20 sec, extension at
291 72°C/1 min 30 sec, and a final extension step at 72°C/3 min. Blank PCR controls were used in all
292 reactions to monitor the occurrence of contamination.

293 Amplification products were run in 1% agarose/TBE gels stained with ethidium bromide or
294 GelRed (Biotium). PCR products showing a single band of the predicted size were purified using
295 Polyethylene glycol precipitation (20% PEG 8000, 2.5 M NaCl) followed by 70% ethanol washing and
296 water elution in a 10 μ l final volume (only for COI). We observed that most attempts of purifying the
297 ATP6 segment with PEG 8000 resulted in loss of PCR products in the process, probably because
298 PEG 8000 is inefficient at precipitating short DNA molecules (Paithankar & Prasad 1991). The ATP6
299 segment was thus sequenced without the need of purification by using 0.5 to 1.0 μ l of PCR for cycle-

300 sequencing reactions. Sequencing of both strands was performed in a MegaBACE1000 automatic
301 system using 5 pmol of primer, 2-5 µl for purified PCR, and the DYEnamic ET Dye Terminator Cycle
302 Sequencing Kit (Amersham Biosciences) to a final volume of 10 µl as recommended by the kit
303 manufacturer.

304

305 *Faecal DNA case studies*

306 We tested the suitability of the *COI* and *ATP6* segments in faecal DNA identification of
307 carnivores in order to evaluate their efficiency in low quality/quantity samples, as well as to verify the
308 occurrence of interference of prey DNA on predator identification. Scats were collected in various
309 settings (see below) and stored at – 20° C in 50 ml or 15 ml polypropylene vials containing either silica
310 beads or 94-100% ethanol. DNA was purified with the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen) following
311 the manufacturer's protocol in a separate laboratory area, within a UV-sterilized laminar flow hood
312 dedicated to noninvasive DNA extraction. We prioritized the surface of scat samples for DNA isolation
313 as it seems to contain more predator cells than the inner portion (Ball *et al.* 2007). From each faecal
314 sample, one or both mtDNA segments were PCR-amplified as previously described.

315

316 *Case study 1 – Identifying felid faeces in a controlled zoo experiment:* Nineteen felids belonging to six
317 different species (three servals [*Leptailurus serval*], two ocelots [*Leopardus pardalis*], four jaguars
318 [*Panthera onca*], two leopards [*Panthera pardus*], three tigers [*Panthera tigris*] and five pumas [*Puma*
319 *concolor*]), kept at a zoo in southern Brazil (Parque Zoológico de Sapucaia do Sul/FZB-RS, Rio
320 Grande do Sul state) were fed with rabbit one day prior to sample collection. Fresh scats were
321 collected the following morning during the routine clean-up procedure. These samples were used to
322 assess the interference of prey DNA, which is likely co-extracted with predator genomic material, in
323 downstream PCR amplification and DNA sequencing.

324

325 *Case study 2 – Field-collected maned wolf faeces:* In the course of a field study of maned wolves
326 (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*) in the Cerrado biome of central Brazil, 167 faeces suspected to be from this
327 canid were collected from January to August 2006 in three nature reserves near the Brazilian capital,
328 Brasília (Parque Nacional de Brasília 15° 40' 43" S/48° 11' 53" W, Estação Ecológica de Águas
329 Emendadas 15° 37' 28" S/47° 40' 15" W and Fazenda Águas Limpas 16° 1' 34" S/48° 3' 45"W). Of

330 these samples, we selected 82 scats in which prey remains (e.g. bones, feathers, claws, scales, and
331 hairs) could be visually identified. This indicated that these samples should contain a substantial
332 amount of DNA originating from vertebrate prey, thus providing an opportunity for co-amplification
333 along with the predator template. After DNA extraction from each of these faecal samples, their prey
334 content was visually analyzed to assess whether non-carnivore DNA-based identification matched the
335 observed dietary items. This was performed by washing the scats in water over a 0.1 mm sieve, sifting
336 away the bile powder, and separating the prey contents manually. Contents were then dried in an
337 oven at 60 °C, stored in paper envelopes and then broadly classified as bones, hairs, feathers, scales,
338 teeth or some specific body part (e.g. foot or beak). No detailed identification of the prey items was
339 attempted, as the primary goal of this exercise was to assess whether prey DNA was being picked up
340 by the PCR-based assay.

341

342 *Case study 3 – Field-collected faeces from an Atlantic Forest study site:* The Pró-Mata Research
343 Center (Pró-Mata RC, 29° 29' 27" S/50° 11' 15" W) is a natural reserve located in the northeastern
344 portion of Rio Grande do Sul state, southern Brazil. A diverse carnivore community, including felids
345 (*Puma concolor* and three smaller cat species), canids (*Cerdocyon thous* and *Lycalopex*
346 *gymnocercus*), two procyonids (*Nasua nasua* and *Procyon cancrivorus*) and at least one mustelid
347 (*Eira barbara*), is known to occur in this area. Given the results observed in Case study 2 (see above
348 and the “Results” section), we chose to further test the field performance of the *ATP6* marker using
349 faecal samples collected at this study site, with its different carnivoran fauna and weather conditions
350 (i.e. considerably more humid than the Cerrado). For that purpose, nineteen scats were collected
351 opportunistically along roads and trails in this area in the year of 2006, and analyzed using this
352 molecular assay to verify the precision of species assignment and the occurrence of potential prey
353 contamination.

354

355 *Data analyses*

356 Sequences were visually edited and aligned using the programs BIOEDIT (Hall 1999) and
357 CLUSTALW (Thompson *et al.* 1994). The degree of sequence similarity between species was
358 assessed using the neighbor-joining (NJ) algorithm (Saitou & Nei 1987) as implemented in MEGA 3.1
359 (Kumar *et al.* 2004) with the Kimura-2-parameter (K2P) model (Kimura 1980) for DNA sequence

360 evolution. The degree of information support for clusters (or clades) was assessed for each segment
361 separately and concatenated by bootstrap resampling of 1000 pseudoreplicates (Felsenstein 1985).
362 Sequences were considered to belong to the same species if all individuals *a priori* attributed to each
363 species formed monophyletic groups or when the maximum intraspecific K2P distances was lower
364 than the minimum interspecific distance calculated.

365 For sequences of known species which formed unresolved or weakly supported groups, we
366 alternatively used a character-based approach (DeSalle *et al.* 2005) slightly modified from Rach *et al.*
367 (2008), through which we searched for characteristic attributes (CAs) that distinguish closely-related
368 species or those with sympatric distributions that could be misidentified with other methods. More
369 specifically, we visually searched for diagnostic base pair mutations (or CAs) that were present in all
370 individuals of one species but not in its closest outgroups in the distance tree. For instance,
371 *Conepatus chinga* and *C. semistriatus* were not reciprocally monophyletic in any of the distance-based
372 trees (*ATP6*, *COI* analyzed separately or concatenated), but we were able to find four diagnostic
373 transitions in the *COI* segment that differentiate them unambiguously (see Results). This procedure
374 relies on the same assumption made for PCR-RFLP assays, in which a restriction site is not shared
375 between species but is present in all individuals of the same species. The advantage here is that a
376 combination of CAs can be observed even if they are spread along a short stretch of DNA, whilst a
377 restriction site must be a specific combination of characters in sequential order. Finally, sequences
378 that did not group into any carnivore clade in the neighbor-joining tree were submitted to a BLAST
379 search (Altschul *et al.* 1997) in order to identify the possible species or any closer relative. This
380 analysis was particularly necessary for the highly divergent *COI* sequences observed in some maned
381 wolf scats, likely derived from prey material (see Results).

382

383 **Results**

384 *Evaluation of candidate segments and primer design*

385 When the *ATP8-ATP6*, *cytb* and *COI* complete sequences were compared (Figure 3b), *ATP8-*
386 *ATP6* displayed a peak of variable sites within its initial portion (first 250 segments of 200 bp each)
387 while *cytb* was found to be more diverse in its intermediate region (between segments 515 and 570)
388 and the *COI* barcode showed more variation in its final section (the last 60 segments). One initial
389 observation emerging from this analysis was that the selected 110-bp segment of the *cytb* gene is not

390 located within the most variable portion of this locus (Figure 3b), suggesting that the identification
391 potential of *cytb* may not have been fully explored with this marker. The analysis of the *COI* barcode
392 fragment revealed a consistent pattern with all three alignments evaluated here (each of them
393 including a different species composition – see Figure 3), supporting the conclusion that the 3' end
394 presents more variable sites per 200 bp segment than any other portion of this segment (Hajibabaei *et*
395 *al.* [2006 and 2007b] have also identified such a trend in other animal groups). To compare the
396 variability in this selected *COI* region (absolute number of variable sites [V]=90) to that observed in the
397 110-bp *cytb* fragment evaluated here, we analyzed all 178 *cytb* segments of 200 bp that include this
398 shorter region. The resulting mean variability ($V=93.3$, $SD=2.1$) was comparable to that recorded in
399 the *COI* marker, indicating that the information content of both segments should be similar. In
400 contrast, the variability of the *ATP6* region was considerably higher (see Figure 3b), highlighting the
401 potential of this segment for discriminating recently diverged carnivore species.

402 The best primer pair found to amplify a short segment near the selected portion of *COI* was
403 BC-F2 and HCO2198 (Folmer *et al.* 1994) (Table 1), producing a 239-bp amplicon (187 bp with
404 primers excluded). Our focal *ATP6* segment was initially amplified and sequenced with primers ATP6-
405 DF3 and ATP6-DR1 (Table 1), producing a 172-bp fragment (126 bp with primers excluded). As the
406 analyses progressed, we empirically observed that *Procyon cancrivorus* samples were never amplified
407 with this *ATP6* pair. Aligning the primers with the available *Procyon lotor* mtDNA genome (GenBank
408 accession AB297804) we found mismatches in the first three bases at the 3' end of the primer ATP6-
409 DR1. Therefore we designed a new reverse primer (ATP6-DR2) eight bases downstream from the
410 previous oligonucleotide (see Table 1), with a 3' position that was invariable in a group of 49 different
411 carnivore sequences retrieved from GenBank, including representatives of 11 families. Although this
412 latter combination of primers produced an analyzable fragment of 134 bp (179 bp with primers), we
413 only considered the 126 bp core segment that had been previously produced with the ATP6-DF3/DR1
414 combination for the majority of the included species. This was done so as to have a consistent data
415 set for all species, minimizing the impact of missing information on the analyses.

416 The *Procyon cancrivorus* samples could be successfully amplified and sequenced with the
417 ATP6-DF3/DR2 pair, which was then also evaluated in a broader survey of carnivoran lineages. This
418 exercise consisted of sequencing one individual each of 35 additional carnivore species, representing
419 14 of the 15 currently recognized families in the Carnivora (Table S3). Eighteen of these samples

420 could be successfully amplified and sequenced with the pair ATP6-DF3/DR2, while 13 others worked
421 better using ATP6-DR1 as the reverse primer. This may indicate that the alternative use of both
422 reverse primers may be required to maximize the success rate when amplifying a diverse array of
423 carnivore species. Several faecal samples from case studies 2 and 3 were also evaluated using the
424 ATP6-DR2 reverse primer, leading to similar results as had been obtained using ATP6-DR1 (see
425 below).

426 In an equivalent effort to expand the reference database by adding this second panel of
427 carnivore species, the *COI* marker could be successfully sequenced for 24 out of 35 taxa (Table S3).
428 Only the representative of the family Nandiniidae (*Nandinia binotata*) and one felid species, *Profelis*
429 *aurata*, were not amplified for either the *ATP6* or *COI* segments. This probably does not rule out the
430 possibility of having success with these species in future attempts with these markers, since only one
431 DNA sample was available for each of them, in both cases having been stored for several years.

432

433 *Carnivore data sets*

434 Of a total of 206 tissue samples used to set up the initial reference data base containing 33
435 species of seven families, 180 were sequenced for the *ATP6* segment and 155 for the *COI* marker
436 (Table S2). All sequences generated here are retrievable from GenBank under accession numbers
437 XXXXXXXX-XXXXXXX. These data sets were then complemented by all sequences generated in
438 the second round of amplification characterizing the additional 35 species (Table S3), as well as data
439 derived from the scat samples analyzed in the three case studies, and also all pertinent GenBank
440 entries. This effort led to final data sets of 448 sequences (110 species) for the *ATP6* marker and 419
441 (105 species) for the *COI* segment (Figure 4).

442 The ability of these two segments to identify carnivore species was initially investigated using
443 a tree-based approach (neighbor-joining clustering based on a simple distance matrix), which showed
444 that both markers could correctly discriminate most of the included taxa (Figure 4). Seventy-six
445 species could be tested for monophyly (*i.e.* at least two individuals of it were represented in the data
446 set) with *ATP6*, of which 65 (86%) formed monophyletic groups (bootstrap support [BS]: 15-99%). If a
447 BS threshold of 50% was established as a measure of robustness, 63 species (83%) could be
448 considered to be unambiguously identified with *ATP6*. An equivalent assessment of the *COI* marker
449 included 73 species, of which 62 (85%) formed monophyletic clusters (BS: 53-100%), indicating a

450 similar potential for correctly identifying unknown carnivore samples using both mtDNA segments.
451 Sixty-one species could be assessed with both markers, revealing that they were congruent in 56
452 cases. In the five discordant species (monophyly observed with only one of the segments), one
453 favored *COI* (margay was monophyletic with *COI* but not with *ATP6*) while the other four favored *ATP6*
454 (South American gray fox, brown bear, domestic cat and lion) (see Figure 4 and Table 2).

455 We then performed a more detailed assessment of the performance of both segments
456 focusing on the cases of discordance between them, as well as groups of closely related carnivores
457 that were sampled in this study (Table 2). In most cases this involved Neotropical taxa, sometimes
458 also including close relatives from other regions (e.g. in the *Panthera* genus). For this in-depth
459 analysis, we compared the three methods commonly used to distinguish species in DNA barcoding
460 initiatives (tree-based, distance-based and character-based approaches). It was apparent that the
461 tree- and distance-based approaches tend to be congruent in all cases of success or failure, while the
462 character-based method was successful in all cases resolved by the former methods, but also offered
463 additional resolution for some species. This was particularly the cases of margay/ocelot, domestic
464 cat/sand cat, pantherine felids, South American and Australian fur seals, Neotropical skunks, and
465 some South American foxes (see Table 2). When the *ATP6* and *COI* segments were concatenated,
466 the general pattern obtained with each fragment segment separately was maintained, with an
467 improvement in bootstrap support (data not shown). Also, the ocelot (*Leopardus pardalis*) and margay
468 (*L. wiedii*) became reciprocally monophyletic groups in the concatenated analysis, while this pattern
469 was not obtained with either the *ATP6* or *COI* segments alone.

470 Comparing the tree-based to the character-based species identification method in four genera
471 that were particularly challenging (Figure 4), we observed the following patterns: *Lycalopex* – of the
472 five species analyzed, *L. vetulus* (hoary fox) was clearly distinguishable with both *ATP6* and *COI* using
473 both methods; *L. griseus* (chilla fox) was distinguished from all its congeners by one diagnostic
474 character in *ATP6*; one additional site in *ATP6* and two in *COI* distinguished *L. griseus* from *L. fulvipes*
475 (Darwin's fox) and *L. culpaeus* (culpeo); the challenging species whose identification remain
476 ambiguous is the trio culpeo, Darwin's fox and *L. gymnocercus* (pampas fox) as they could not be
477 distinguished by any analysis. *Conepatus* – the two sampled hog-nosed skunk species (*C. chinga* and
478 *C. semistriatus*) were not discernible in the tree as reciprocally monophyletic groups, but four
479 transitions in *COI* were diagnostic between them. *Leopardus* - in spite of the ocelot and the margay

480 not forming reciprocally monophyletic groups with either segment, we could observe seven diagnostic
481 characters between them (one in *ATP6* and six in *COI*). *Panthera* – jaguar (*P. onca*) samples did not
482 form a monophyletic group in the tree but they displayed one characteristic attribute (CA) in *ATP6*; a
483 group of six CAs in the *COI* segment distinguished leopard (*P. pardus*), lion (*P. leo*) and tiger (*P. tigris*)
484 samples.

485 For the *cytb* analysis, the alignment of 703 sequences contained representatives of 164
486 terrestrial carnivore species recognized by Wozencraft (2005). Most of these species (n=109) were
487 represented by more than one sequence each, and of those 76 (70%) formed monophyletic groups,
488 71 (65%) of which exhibited > 50% bootstrap support. However, we identified 37 species out of the
489 total data set (23%) in which at least one individual seemed to have been misidentified. The majority
490 of misidentified cases were found in very speciose genera such as *Genetta*, *Lycalopex*, *Martes* and
491 *Mustela* (data not shown).

492

493 *Case studies with faecal samples*

494 *Case study 1 - Zoo Carnivore faeces*

495 Of the 38 attempts to obtain sequences from felid scats that contained prey (rabbit) remains,
496 29 were positive (76%). PCR success was slightly higher (82%) because three samples resulted in an
497 amplicon but sequencing failed (Table S4). All successfully sequenced faecal samples (*ATP* = 16, *COI*
498 = 13) resulted in the expected felid species, with no interference of prey DNA, in spite of compelling
499 evidence of prey remains such as bones and hairs in those scats (data not shown). The *Panthera*
500 *tigris* *COI* sequence was shorter than expected (116 bp), most likely due to ordinary sequencing error
501 rather than interference of alien DNA.

502

503 *Case study 2 - Maned wolf faeces*

504 The 82 samples selected for this study were initially analyzed with the *ATP6* marker, resulting
505 in good sequences for 65 of these samples (79%). Three of these samples were identified as
506 originating from domestic dogs (see Figure 4) and thus excluded from the *COI* assessment and prey
507 content analysis. Out of the remaining 79 samples, only 44 (56%) could be successfully sequenced
508 with *COI*. If positive PCRs resulting in dissatisfactory sequences were also taken into account, the
509 success rate of the *COI* marker reached 70%, still lower than that observed for the *ATP6* segment.

510 Fifteen samples (19%) were negative for both *ATP6* and *COI* PCR amplifications, suggesting that
511 either there was no suitable DNA template or that extracts contained PCR inhibitors. In addition to the
512 three samples identified as produced by domestic dogs (PN145, PN150 and ES177), two others were
513 also found to have been deposited by a carnivore other than the presumed maned wolf (*Puma*
514 *concolor* for sample FAL25, and *Felis catus* for ES10) (see Figure 4), corroborating previous findings
515 that even experienced field researchers can misidentify scats on the basis of their appearance.

516 Seventy-four of the 79 faeces analyzed for dietary material contained prey remains of animal
517 origin. The most common items were feathers (41/79, 52%), bones (39/79, 49%) and hairs (33/79,
518 42%). We saw no evidence of amplification of prey DNA with the *ATP6* segment, but in 11 samples
519 (ten of which contained visually identifiable prey material), the *COI* sequences likely originated from
520 prey material, as inferred using a BLAST search (Table S5). This analysis indicated that the amplified
521 prey DNA likely belonged to marsupials, bats, rodents and fish, but it was impossible to identify them
522 to species level due to the low observed identity relative to GenBank sequences. Although feathers
523 were the most frequent evidence of animal prey consumption, no sequence closely related to birds
524 was obtained, indicating no interference of this prey group in the predator identification.

525

526 *Case study 3 - The Pró-Mata RC faeces*

527 All 19 samples could be positively identified using the *ATP6* segment, and no interference of
528 prey DNA was detected. Eight scats clustered in the crab-eating fox (*Cerdocyon thous*) group, ten
529 were placed in the oncilla (*Leopardus tigrinus*) cluster, and one in the domestic dog/gray wolf (*Canis*
530 *familiaris*) group. The identification of one sample as originating from a domestic dog is noteworthy,
531 and indicates that it was likely produced by one of the four dogs that were observed near the study
532 area during field work. Further analyses of these and other samples collected at this study site will be
533 published elsewhere (Graeff *et al.* in prep.).

534

535 **Discussion**

536 Short stretches of mtDNA sequences have been shown to be very useful to identify biological
537 samples derived from carnivore species (e.g. Palomares *et al.* 2002, Wetton *et al.* 2004, Zuercher *et*
538 *al.* 2003). Here we have performed an in-depth investigation of this potential applying a “DNA
539 barcoding” framework, and suggest that standardization of one or a few segments would be helpful to

540 accumulate comparable and reliable data, and to further evaluate the feasibility of accurate species-
541 specific diagnosis on a worldwide scale. This would be particularly relevant as a means to promote
542 rapid and accurate surveys of current geographic ranges of all carnivore species, as well as
543 monitoring their shifting habitat occupancy in the face of human disturbance.

544 Several molecular methods for carnivore species identification have been historically
545 suggested since the 1980s, especially those to distinguish faeces for further studies. Thin-layer
546 chromatography of faecal bile acids, although recently used for some distantly related species (Taber
547 *et al.* 1997, Ray & Sunquist 2001) has been shown to be unreliable due to intraspecific variation of bile
548 acids depending on individual diet (Quinn & Jackman 1994, Jiménez *et al.* 1996). One practical
549 shortcoming of implementing a large-scale TLC protocol for laboratories wherein DNA studies are
550 being employed is that setting up the structure with reagents and equipment necessary for TLC
551 assays may be less attractive than DNA-based methods. With respect to DNA-based protocols, it is
552 noteworthy that a diverse array of DNA segments and methods are currently in use for carnivore
553 species identification. One can find in the literature groups of species (*e.g. Martes, Mustela, Canis,*
554 *Panthera*) that present many different approaches to distinguish their faeces, suggesting that research
555 groups are often not employing protocols that have already been developed by others. This
556 observation illustrates the issue that cross-laboratory validation of methods and results is not taking
557 place on a regular basis, which limits the prospect of integration, comparisons among study sites and
558 improvements in reliability. Microsatellites, in particular, are less amenable to such integration since
559 they are prone to homoplasmy and often show overlapping allelic ranges among species (Nauta &
560 Weissing 1996). Moreover, for noninvasive DNA sampling, these markers tend to yield low
561 amplification success and would often result in the loss of roughly 50% of identifiable samples, against
562 30-10% with mtDNA sequences (Broquet *et al.* 2007). However microsatellites would remain an option
563 in the few cases where they can distinguish very closely related species that are not discernible using
564 mtDNA markers.

565 To date, the most extensive attempt to characterize a carnivore community through faecal
566 samples involved 16 species of six families (Fernandes *et al. in press*). Although this is a remarkable
567 advance, a primer-specificity based method designed for a local carnivore community (Kurose *et al.*
568 2005, Fernandes *et al. in press*) cannot be extended to all extant 287 carnivore species representing
569 15 different families (Wozencraft 2005). This is because an underlying requirement to design species-

570 specific primers is to gather sequences for all the species with exclusive mutations in each of them.
571 This also remains true for methods based on TLC, PCR-RFLP and microsatellites. In fact, even the
572 primers presented here may have to be modified to cover all species (see below). However, the
573 likelihood of them being simultaneously inserted in nuclear copies (*numts*) is lower than if they were
574 tandemly arranged, and that at least one of them will likely suit the vast majority of molecular
575 scatology studies to come.

576 The amplification success of the *ATP6* and *COI* segments was similar to that reported in
577 several papers reporting on noninvasive samples (Broquet *et al.* 2007 and references therein), and the
578 primer sets employed here were shown to perform well in a broad sample of carnivores. Better
579 amplification of shorter segments has been commonly reported (*e.g.* Broquet *et al.* 2007) and that is
580 one of the probable reasons why *ATP6* (172 bp) PCRs were more successful than those of *COI* (239
581 bp). The reported amplification success of the *cytb* fragment assessed here varied extensively among
582 published studies, from relatively low rates of 59-60% (20/34 samples in Farrell *et al.* [2000], 12/20 in
583 Miotto *et al.* [2007]) to higher standards of 83-89% (40/48 in Bhagavatula & Singh [2006], 55/62 in
584 Adams *et al.* [2007]). Such variation is likely due to a C-A mismatch in the second base near the 3' end
585 of forward primer in several carnivore species.

586 In addition to the success rate measured by the frequency of positive amplifications and
587 reliable sequences, another relevant aspect to be considered is the likelihood of identifying prey rather
588 than predator DNA. Onorato *et al.* (2006) reported DNA amplification of elk (*Cervus elaphus*) and
589 whitetail deer (*Odocoileus virginianus*) in 11 out of 88 (13%) putative carnivore faeces using the *cytb*
590 segment described by Farrell *et al.* (2000). Rabbits (Leporidae) and rodents (Muridae) were also
591 reported to amplify in 8% (5/62) putative carnivore scats with Farrell *et al.*'s primers (Adams *et al.*
592 2007). While no prey amplification was observed with *ATP6*, this issue did indeed arise with our *COI*
593 marker (see Case Study 2). The high rate of amplification of prey DNA with the *COI* segment may be
594 attributed to three factors: first, the reverse primer (HCO2198) has been used as a universal primer to
595 amplify DNA from marine invertebrates, insects, and vertebrates (Folmer *et al.* 1994, Hebert *et al.*
596 2003); second, the annealing step that produced the best PCR yields required low temperatures (50-
597 40 °C), increasing the probability of non-specific matches to take place; and third, although the 3' end
598 in the forward primer is conserved in the *Chrysocyon brachyurus* reference sequence used to design
599 the primer (see figure S1), six mismatches at other sites may be interfering negatively (Housley *et al.*

600 2006), particularly because there is likely “annealing competition” in a population of prey and predator
601 DNA molecules. The observation that both markers that present more liability to prey DNA
602 contamination (*cytb* and *COI*) employ conserved/universal reverse primers illustrates the expected
603 trade-off between the use of universal markers (usually implying relaxed PCR conditions) and
604 amplification of non-target DNA. Further primer design and empirical optimizations will thus likely be
605 required for standardized and reliable faecal DNA studies of carnivores employing these two
606 segments.

607 Another aspect to be considered is the informative content of the marker, as expressed by its
608 variability in the target group and discriminatory power as related to within- *versus* between-species
609 divergence. In fungi and salamanders, the *ATP8* and *ATP6* genes have been shown to evolve at a
610 slower pace when compared to *cytb* and *COI* (Min & Hickey 2007, Mueller 2007). Interestingly, our
611 results indicate that carnivores exhibit a seemingly opposite pattern, with the focal *ATP6* segment and
612 adjacent portions of this gene being considerably more variable than *COI* or *cytb* (Figure 3b). The
613 discriminatory power of this segment (as measured by species monophyly, bootstrap support and
614 diagnostic characters) was also quite promising, but as whole quite comparable to that of *COI* (see
615 Table 2).

616 In some cases in which unambiguous global species assignment employing these approaches
617 was not possible with one or both markers (*e.g.* *Panthera* felids and South American foxes), we note
618 that geographic information can be applied to restrict the scope of the comparison. For example, if a
619 scat collected in the Neotropical region clusters in the *Panthera* group, one can infer that it belongs to
620 *Panthera onca* since the jaguar is the only species of the genus that currently occurs in the area.
621 Likewise, *Lycalopex vetulus*, *Lycalopex gymnocercus* and *Cerdocyon thous* can be promptly identified
622 in large areas of South America since they form reciprocally monophyletic clades with respect to each
623 other, even though some other sympatric foxes of the genus *Lycalopex* seem not to be discernible
624 with these markers. This recently diverged clade of South American foxes indeed presented the
625 biggest challenge for species diagnosis among all the taxa analyzed in this study, and included the
626 only instances of inter-specific haplotype sharing observed in both of our datasets: one *ATP6*
627 haplotype was shared between individuals of *L. gymnocercus* and *L. culpaeus*, while the latter species
628 also shared one *COI* haplotype with *L. fulvipes*. In the case of such very recent radiations, the
629 character-based approach appears to be the most promising, as it seems to be able to differentiate at

630 least *L. griseus* from its other congeners. Further sampling of these species will be required to better
631 characterize their intra-specific diversity and to assess the reliability of diagnostic sites or haplotypes.

632 In a broader context, distance-based or phenetic methods used in DNA barcoding have been
633 documented to present limitations for species assignment (Witt *et al.* 2006), especially due to high
634 substitution rates in the mtDNA molecule, which often lead to overlaps between intra- and interspecific
635 distances (as observed in Table 2). However, in cases where there are several sequences to be
636 analyzed, a distance-based clustering method can be undertaken to first identify species that form
637 monophyletic groups and will probably need no further inspection for reliable identification of unknown
638 samples. Alternatively, for closely-related species in which monophyletic grouping cannot be achieved
639 or is weakly supported with short sequences, a character-based analysis may deliver unambiguous
640 identifications via species-specific character states. Character-based identification can be seen as a
641 refinement of PCR-RFLP methods. In PCR-RFLP, diagnosis depends on the presence or absence of
642 a combination of species-specific restriction sites that usually vary from four to six base pairs. The
643 probability of finding a set of restriction sites that is diagnostic for a group of species in one DNA
644 segment is negatively related to the number of taxa, and correlates positively with the size of the
645 fragment and the number of enzymes used. Hence, setting up a PCR-RFLP assay to identify a large
646 group of species, such as carnivores, would require extensive tests with several restriction
647 endonucleases and DNA segments, and is likely to be impossible due to the presence of
648 polymorphisms in restriction sites within species, and the need to use large DNA fragments,
649 hampering its application in noninvasive samples.

650 In recently diverged species potentially showing incomplete lineage sorting, it is possible that
651 any short sequence will fail to provide unambiguous identification. Even though we did not observe
652 monophyletic groups for all the investigated species, a standardized approach has the advantage that
653 accumulating sequences in databases from several research groups may eventually lead to an almost
654 complete representation of the molecular diversity of these segments in each species (*i.e.* all or most
655 of its haplotypes), especially those presenting low intraspecific diversity, small population size,
656 restricted distribution and also taxa that are more easily sampled for broad genetic studies. Therefore,
657 if haplotypes are not shared among species, any new sample collected will necessarily match a known
658 haplotype for a single species in the data base. In addition, the improvement of analytical tools and the
659 joint analysis of other characters (*e.g.* geography, morphology, ecology and reproduction) may in the

660 future increase our ability to use full-length and mini-barcodes to distinguish species and possibly to
661 describe new ones in an integrative framework (DeSalle *et al.* 2005, Will *et al.* 2005).

662

663 **Methodological guidelines**

664 For those interested in species identification using one of these three mtDNA segments, we
665 summarize below the advantages and limitations of each of them, and provide some guidelines for
666 their application:

667

668 **ATP6:** This segment delivered reliable identification in most cases where *COI* and *cytb* segments also
669 succeeded. At least in carnivores, the 126 bp *ATP6* segment used here seems to evolve at a higher
670 rate between species whereas low divergence rates are observed within species, which is essential to
671 avoid misidentifications due to homoplasy. Amplification of predator faecal DNA with primers ATP6-
672 DF3/DR2 or DR1 is achieved in high success rates with no evidence of prey DNA contamination. This
673 segment lies outside *Panthera* and *Felis* nuclear insertions, reducing the opportunities for amplification
674 of paralogous sequences. One disadvantage is that few carnivore sequences of this segment are
675 presently deposited in public databases, requiring generation of reference data prior to use in faecal
676 studies of most carnivore communities. Therefore, an important step in future studies with *ATP6* is to
677 set up reference sequences from tissue samples prior to identification of scats. To keep costs to a
678 minimum, identifications seem to remain robust even when either the first or the last 20 base pairs are
679 removed from the alignment. Hence, if only one DNA strand is to be sequenced, we recommend that
680 the light strand be selected, since the last 20 bp are recovered more reliably and this portion displays
681 more diagnostic characters than the first ones (data not shown). As we observed that the PCR
682 purification protocol using PEG 8000 presented low success for this segment, we recommend the use
683 of other protocols (*e.g.* ExoSAP, filter columns) or to use unpurified products for sequencing. High
684 quality sequences could be obtained for *ATP6* without PCR purification, in which case 0.5 to 1.0 µl of
685 a strong product should be used.

686 **COI:** The main advantage of using the *COI* segment is the existence of a systematized repository of
687 sequences – the Barcode of Life Data System – which is an increasing database largely constructed
688 with sequences tied to voucher specimens, allowing one to track and check dubious records. It will
689 also allow researchers to verify whether character-based identifications remain robust or not after

690 addition of new specimens. Hence it is advisable to prospective researchers on *COI* to include
691 reference sequences following the guidelines of BOLD/CBOL whenever possible. The unexpected
692 number of prey DNA amplification with the primer set developed in the present study points out the
693 need of further primer optimization for faecal DNA assessments. Similar to *ATP6*, sequencing the light
694 strand is recommended for single-strand sequencing attempts.

695 **Cytb:** For the 110 bp segment, at least one individual of 164 terrestrial carnivore species is readily
696 available on GenBank for comparison of faecal DNA. Although sparsely tested in few species, the set
697 of primers seems to reliably amplify the predator DNA but with some degree of prey DNA interference.
698 One shortcoming of this marker as presently applied is that 60 nucleotides out of the 170 bp amplified
699 segment correspond to primers, and are thus not informative. Also, we observed apparent
700 misidentifications in 37 out of 164 species (23%), highlighting the possibility that some sequences
701 deposited in public databases may not be reliably identified. This implies that, although more species
702 have already been sequenced for this segment relative to the other two markers, a similar amount of
703 work will likely be required to build a large database containing reliable sequences from all extant
704 carnivores.

705

706 **Final remarks**

707 Overall, our results indicate that short mtDNA segments are viable identification tools for most
708 carnivore species, and that standardization of primer sets and PCR conditions should be feasible
709 across the Carnivora. It is likely that a combination of two or more segments will be required for
710 reliable identification of all carnivore species, and that in some exceptional cases where divergence
711 has been extremely recent more complex genomic approaches will be required. However, we foresee
712 that even one of the segments characterized here alone could be standardized to perform reliable
713 identification of the vast majority of carnivore species, especially if further sampling affirms our
714 observation of virtually no haplotype sharing among species. Even if a combination of primers is
715 required for large scale amplification of this standardized segment across all species, we believe that
716 this is an advantageous approach to enhance the speed, reliability and geographic scope of carnivore
717 species identification, thus aiding in the enhanced acquisition of knowledge on this ecologically
718 important mammalian group.

719

720

721 **References**

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912 molecular analyses. *Wildlife Society Bulletin* **31**, 961-970.

913

914 **Acknowledgements**

915 We are especially thankful to Klaus-Peter Koepfli, Lisette Waits and Mehrdad Hajibabaei for
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919 in Table S2 for providing samples analyzed in this study, and Raquel Von Hohendorff (Parque
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921 sampling carnivores scats from the zoo. PBC, VGG and MBL were supported by fellowships from
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926 **Figure legends**

927 Figure 1: Graph depicting the number of scientific articles addressing the identification of carnivore
928 species using molecular methods. In a total of 112 articles, 69 used *cytb* (n=41) and/or D-loop (n=28)
929 segments of the mtDNA for sample identification. These segments were generally different among
930 studies (see figure 2 for some examples) or involved the design of a new set of primers (28 cases).
931 Polymerase Chain Reaction-Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (PCR-RFLP) and DNA
932 sequencing were the most used methods, being reported in 38 and 29 papers, respectively. In some
933 surveys, more than one method and/or marker was used. Eighty studies included faeces while 22
934 included hairs in their analyses. See Table S1 for a compilation of literature sources including the
935 investigated species, fragment size, primer references, types of samples and methods applied.

936

937 Figure 2: Schematic view of a linearized mitochondrial DNA molecule showing the relative positions of
938 most coding and non-coding portions (not drawn to scale) and large felid *numts*. Positions and lengths
939 (excluding primers) of some segments used for carnivore species identification are indicated in the
940 *cytb* scheme (A: Adams *et al.* 2000, B: Paxinos *et al.* 1997, C: Kocher *et al.* 1989, D: Farrell *et al.*
941 2000, E: Verma & Sing 2003, F: Foran *et al.* 1997 includes part of the adjacent control region). A
942 dashed box in the highlighted *ATP8-ATP6* segment illustrates the overlapping 42 bp portion shared by
943 these two genes. Short segments in black are those whose performances were evaluated in the
944 present study. Partially adapted from Kim *et al.* 2006.

945

946 Figure 3: **a** Sliding window graph of the *COI* barcode segment (658 bp), showing the distribution of
947 variable sites among carnivores across this mtDNA region. The graph indicates that the mean number
948 of variable sites in the standard barcode segment is higher on its 3' end. Each window size was 200
949 bp long, and was slid through the full segment 1 bp at a time. V_{184} shows the number of variable sites
950 in an alignment containing 184 carnivore sequences obtained from the BOLD Mammal database. V_{65}
951 shows the same analysis with only one individual per species (65 sequences) from the 184 alignment.
952 $V_{min}=80/ V_{max}=101$; **b** Sliding window graph comparing the number of variables sites among 50
953 carnivore species in the complete sequences of *ATP8-ATP6* (842 bp) and *cytb* (1140 bp), and the *COI*
954 barcode segment (658 bp). Arrows indicate the positions of the short segments analyzed here.

955 $V_{min}=75/ V_{max}=140$.

956 Figure 4: Neighbor-joining trees used for carnivore species identification, constructed on the basis of
957 the *ATP6* (left) and *COI* (right) datasets. Highlighted boxes in green, blue, gray and magenta at the
958 center of the figure present a more detailed view of the groups *Lycalopex*, *Conepatus*, *Leopardus*
959 *pardalis/L. wiedii* and *Panthera*, respectively, which were targets of more in-depth analysis and
960 discussion. These genera are illustrative examples where tree-based identification approaches can be
961 problematic and species-specific characteristic attributes (CAs) help to unambiguously identify them
962 (see text for details). Although in some cases both *ATP6* and *COI* segments have CAs (e.g. *L.*
963 *pardalis/L. wiedii*), there are some in which only one segment provided reliable identification (e.g.
964 *Conepatus chinga* was distinguished from *C. semistriatus* only with *COI*, while *Panthera onca* differed
965 from its congeners at one site within *ATP6*). Sequences derived from faecal samples are printed in
966 green font (those labeled with the species' common name [e.g. cougar, tiger] were sequenced within
967 case study 1; those with a prefix "PN", "FAL" or "ES" are derived from case study 2; and those with a
968 prefix "A" are part of case study 3) and a GenBank sequence printed in red in the *COI* tree ascribed to
969 *Hydrurga leptonyx* (AY377134) is likely from *Omatophoca rossi*. Three-letter codes for species
970 highlighted in boxes and CA tables are: *Lve*: *Lycalopex vetulus*, *Lgy*: *Lycalopex gymnocercus*, *Lcu*:
971 *Lycalopex culpaeus*, *Lfu*: *Lycalopex fulvipes*, *Lgr*: *Lycalopex griseus*, *Cch*: *Conepatus chinga*, *Cse*:
972 *Conepatus semistriatus*, *Lpa*: *Leopardus pardalis*, *Lwi*: *Leopardus wiedii*, *Pon*: *Panthera onca*, *Ple*:
973 *Panthera leo*, *Ppa*: *Panthera pardus*, *Pti*: *Panthera tigris*. On-screen zoom can be used to visualize
974 bootstrap support and other details in the complete trees.

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997 **Tables**

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Table 1: Primers used to amplify the short *ATP6* and *COI* segments analyzed in this study.

Name	3' Annealign position ^d	Sequence
ATP6-DF3 ^a	L7987	5'–AACGAAAATCTATTCGCCTCT–3'
ATP6-DR1 ^b	H8114	5'–CCAGTATTTGTTTTGATGTTAGTTG–3'
ATP6-DR2 ^a	H8122	5'–TGGATGGACAGTATTTGTTTTGAT–3'
BC-F2 ^a	L5867	5'–ATCACCACTATTGTTAATATAAAAACCC–3'
HCO2198 ^c	H6054	5'–TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA–3'

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a: newly designed for this study; b: from Haag *et al.* (in prep.); c: from Folmer *et al.* (1994)

d: referenced in the dog mtDNA genome (NC_002008)

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Table 2: Main descriptive statistics (bootstrap, characteristic attributes [CA], maximum intra-specific [Intra] and minimum inter-specific [Inter] K2P distances [shown as percentages]) indicating the discriminatory power of the *ATP6* and *COI* markers for the identification of selected carnivore species.

Species	ATP6				COI			
	Bootstrap ^a	CA	Intra	Inter ^b	Bootstrap ^a	CA	Intra	Inter ^b
Felidae								
<i>Leopardus pardalis</i>	NM	1	5.0	2.4* ^{Lwi}	NM	5	3.9	3.6* ^{Lwi}
<i>Leopardus wiedii</i>	NM	1	2.5	2.4* ^{Lpa}	79	5	3.6	3.6* ^{Lpa}
<i>Leopardus tigrinus</i>	97	10	0.0	8.6 ^{Lge}	85	9	1.7	5.6 ^{Lge}
<i>Leopardus geoffroyi</i>	97	5	0.0	8.6 ^{Lti-Lco}	100	9	1.1	5.6 ^{Lti}
<i>Leopardus colocolo</i>	93	10	2.4	8.6 ^{Lge}	96	11	2.2	6.3 ^{Lti}
<i>Felis catus</i>	59	3	2.4	2.4* ^{Fma}	NM ^{Fma}	2	7.4	1.6* ^{Fma}
<i>Panthera onca</i>	NM	1	18.1	3.3* ^{Ple}	NM ^{Ple}	0	4.5	1.1* ^{Ple}
<i>Panthera leo</i>	28	0	0.8	2.5 ^{Pti}	NM	0	1.6	1.1* ^{Pon}
<i>Panthera pardus</i>	83	4	3.3	5.9 ^{Ple}	99	7	1.1	4.5 ^{Ple}
<i>Panthera tigris</i>	15	0	7.7	2.5* ^{Ple}	85	5	2.7	5.5 ^{Ple}
<i>Puma concolor</i>	73	9	0.0	7.2 ^{Pya}	100	18	0.5	10.6 ^{Pya}
<i>Puma yagouaroundi</i>	89	9	1.6	7.2 ^{Pco}	99	18	0.5	10.6 ^{Pco}
Otariidae								
<i>Arctocephalus australis</i>	NM ^{Afo}	1	0.8	0.8* ^{Afo}	53	3	1.7	2.2 ^{Afo}
<i>Arctocephalus forsteri</i>	64	1	0.0	0.8 ^{Aau}	NC	3	NC	2.2 ^{Aau}
<i>Arctocephalus tropicalis</i>	99	5	0.0	4.1 ^{Apu}	NS	NS	NC	NC
<i>Arctocephalus gazella</i>	75	7	0.8	5.9 ^{Ato}	NS	NS	NC	NC
<i>Otaria flavescens</i>	89	8	1.6	6.8 ^{Aga}	NC	4	NC	4.4 ^{Ato-Nci}
Phocidae								
<i>Mirounga angustirostris</i>	99	7	0.0	5.9 ^{Mle}	99	7	0.5	3.9 ^{Mle}
<i>Mirounga leonina</i>	90	7	1.6	5.9 ^{Man}	98	7	0.0	3.9 ^{Man}
<i>Lobodon carcinophaga</i>	97	14	1.6	12.4 ^{Mmo}	99	12	2.2	7.4 ^{Hle}
Mephitidae								
<i>Conepatus chinga</i>	NM ^{Cse}	0	2.6	0.8* ^{Cse}	99	5	0.5	2.7 ^{Cse}
<i>Conepatus semistriatus</i>	NM	0	11.3	0.8* ^{Cch}	NM	5	1.6	2.7 ^{Cch}
Procyonidae								
<i>Nasua nasua</i>	99	27	0.8	25.5 ^{Bas}	100	29	3.9	20.3 ^{Bga}
<i>Procyon cancrivorus</i>	99	10	0.8	8.6 ^{Plo}	100	11	0.6	6.8 ^{Plo}
<i>Procyon lotor</i>	99	10	0.8	8.6 ^{Pca}	99	11	1.6	6.8 ^{Pca}
Mustelidae								
<i>Eira barbara</i>	99	18	2.4	17.3 ^{Mam-Mme}	99	17	6.3	12.5 ^{Ggu}
<i>Galictis cuja</i>	99	23	1.7	22.8 ^{Eba-Elu}	100	25	2.7	15.0 ^{Mml}
<i>Lontra longicaudis</i>	99	17	3.3	17.3 ^{Lcn}	100	22	1.1	13.3 ^{Lcn}
<i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i>	99	21	0.0	19.6 ^{Mvi}	100	32	0.0	19.9 ^{Mvi}
Canidae								
<i>Chrysocyon brachyurus</i>	99	30	0.0	30.3 ^{Sve}	78	26	1.1	17.5 ^{Sve}
<i>Speothos venaticus</i>	99	30	2.4	30.3 ^{Cbr}	NC	26	NC	17.5 ^{Cbr}
<i>Cerdocyon thous</i>	96	9	3.3	7.8 ^{Lgy}	99	8	2.2	5.9 ^{Lgy}
<i>Lycalopex vetulus</i>	69	3	1.6	3.3 ^{Lgy}	82	3	1.6	2.2 ^{Lfu-Lcu}
<i>Lycalopex gymnocercus</i>	NM	0	2.4	0.0* ^{Lcu}	NM	0	3.0	0.0* ^{Lgr}
<i>Lycalopex fulvipes</i>	NM ^{Lcu}	0	0.8	0.0* ^{Lcu}	NM ^{Lcu}	0	1.6	0.0* ^{Lcu}
<i>Lycalopex griseus</i>	78	1	0.0	1.6 ^{Lgy-Lcu}	NM	0	3.9	0.0* ^{Lgy}
<i>Lycalopex culpaeus</i>	NM	0	2.4	0.0* ^{Lgy-Lfu}	NM	0	2.8	0.0* ^{Lfu}
<i>Canis familiaris/C. lupus</i>	91	5	1.6	5.0 ^{Cla}	97	6	1.1	3.3 ^{Cla}

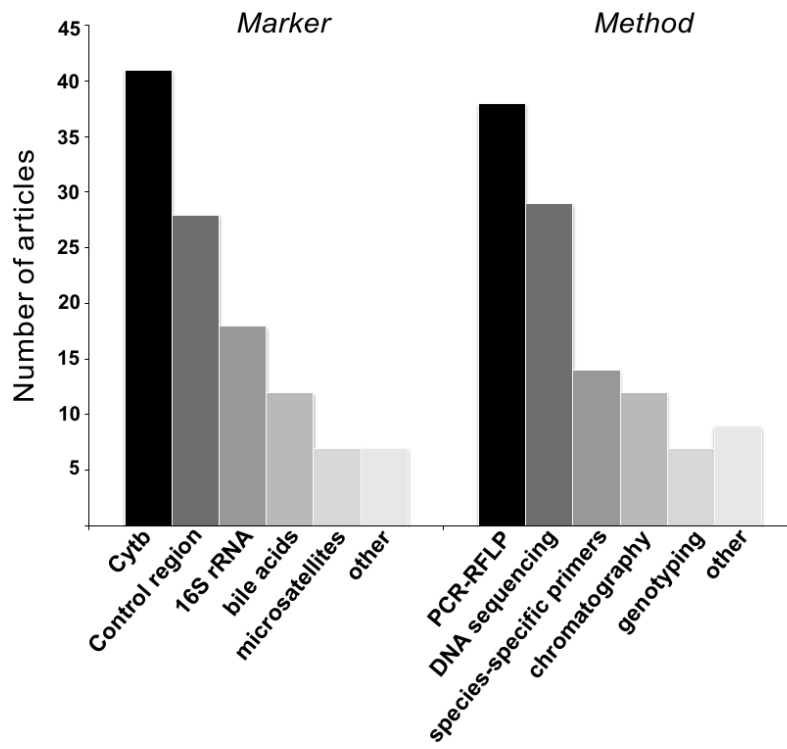
^a NM: non-monophyletic group; NC: not calculated; NS: no sequence available. A superscript three-letter code indicates that the species formed a monophyletic group that also contained one or more sequences belonging to a different taxon (identified by the three letters, see below); *i.e.* the species was paraphyletic with respect to that other taxon.

^b Three-letter codes indicate the species exhibiting the lowest sequence divergence relative to the focal taxon. This same species was used for the character-based analysis (CA column). * species whose interspecific distances were equal to or lower than the

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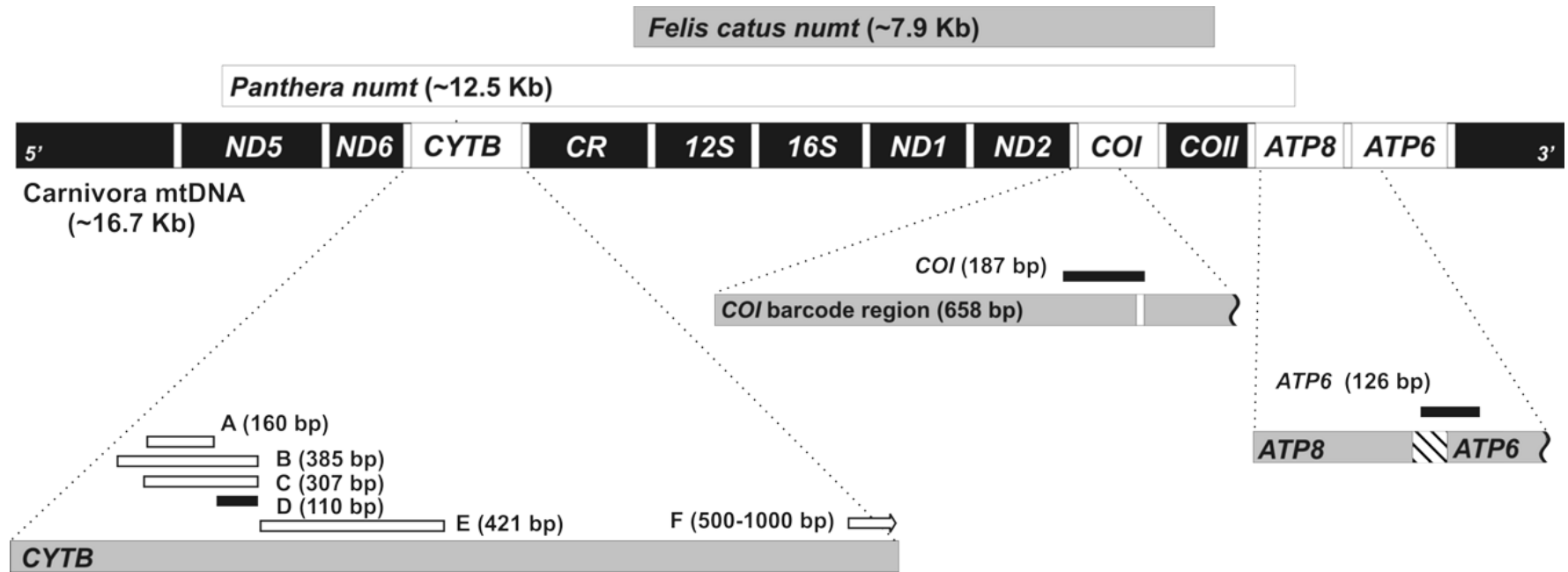
1013 Intra-specific diversity. **Species abbreviation code** – Aau: *Arctocephalus australis*, Afo: *Arctocephalus forsteri*, Aga:
1014 *Arctocephalus gazella*, Apu: *Arctocephalus pusillus*, Ato: *Arctocephalus towsendi*, Bas: *Bassariscus astutus*, Bga: *Bassaricyon*
1015 *gabbi*, Cla: *Canis latrans*, Cbr: *Chrysocyon brachyurus*, Cch: *Conepatus chinga*, Cse: *Conepatus semistriatus*, Eba: *Eira*
1016 *barbara*, Elu: *Enhydra lutris*, Fma: *Felis margarita*, Ggu: *Gulo gulo*, Hle: *Hydrurga leptonyx*, Lco: *Leopardus colocolo*, Lge:
1017 *Leopardus geoffroyi*, Lpa: *Leopardus pardalis*, Lti: *Leopardus tigrinus*, Lwi: *Leopardus tigrinus*, Lcn: *Lontra canadensis*, Lcu:
1018 *Lycalopex culpaeus*, Lfu: *Lycalopex fulvipes*, Lgr: *Lycalopex griseus*, Lgy: *Lycalopex gymnocercus*, Mam: *Martes americana*,
1019 Mme: *Martes melampus*, Mml: *Meles meles*, Man: *Mirounga angustirostris*, Mle: *Mirounga leonina*, Mmo: *Monachus monachus*,
1020 Mvi: *Mustela vison*, Nci: *Neophoca cinerea*, Ple: *Panthera leo*, Pon: *Panthera onca*, Pti: *Panthera tigris*, Pca: *Procyon*
1021 *cancrivorus*, Plo: *Procyon lotor*, Pco: *Puma concolor*, Pya: *Puma yagouarondi*, Sve: *Speothos venaticus*,
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1023 **Figures**
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1025 Figure 1
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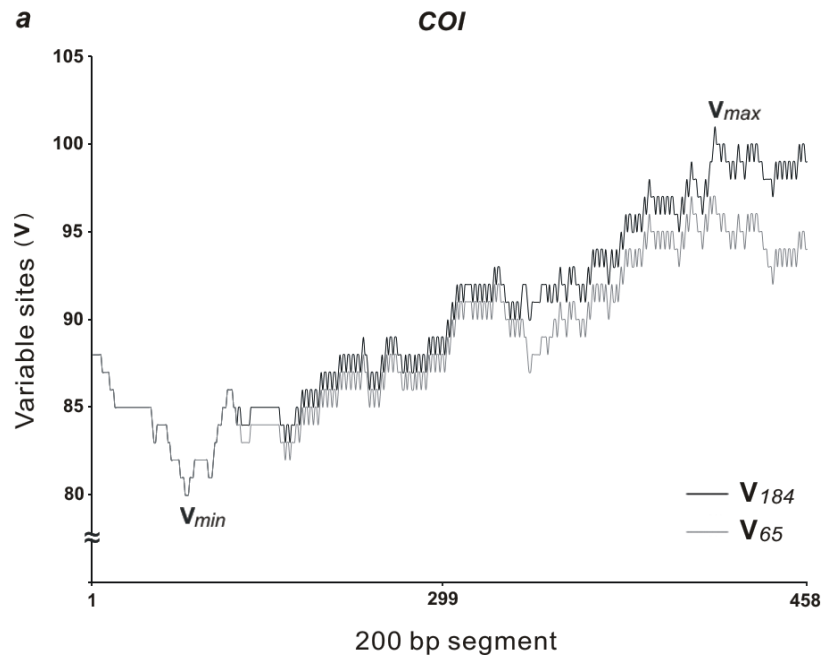
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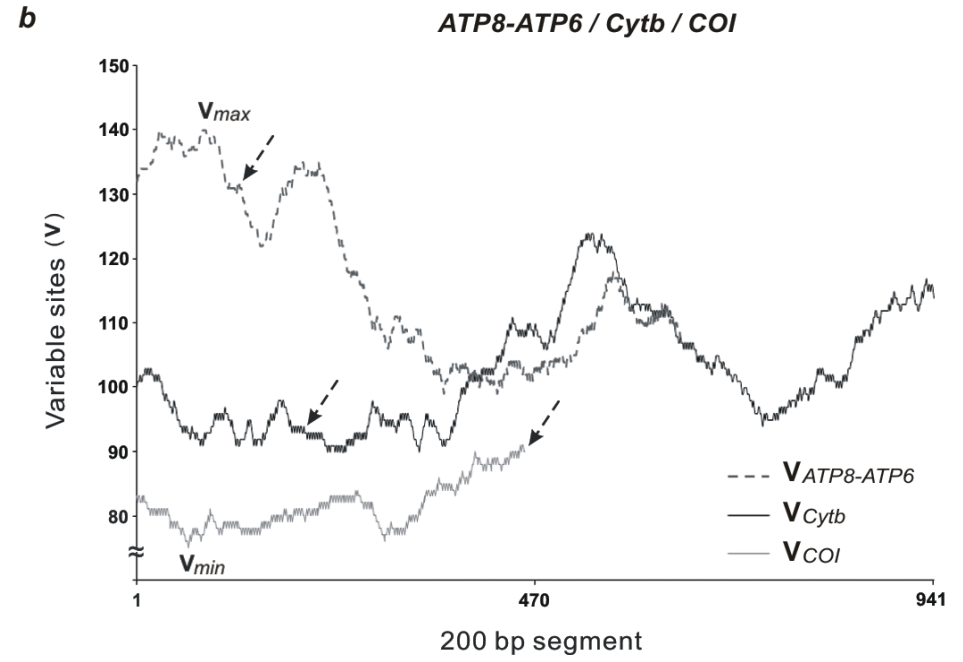


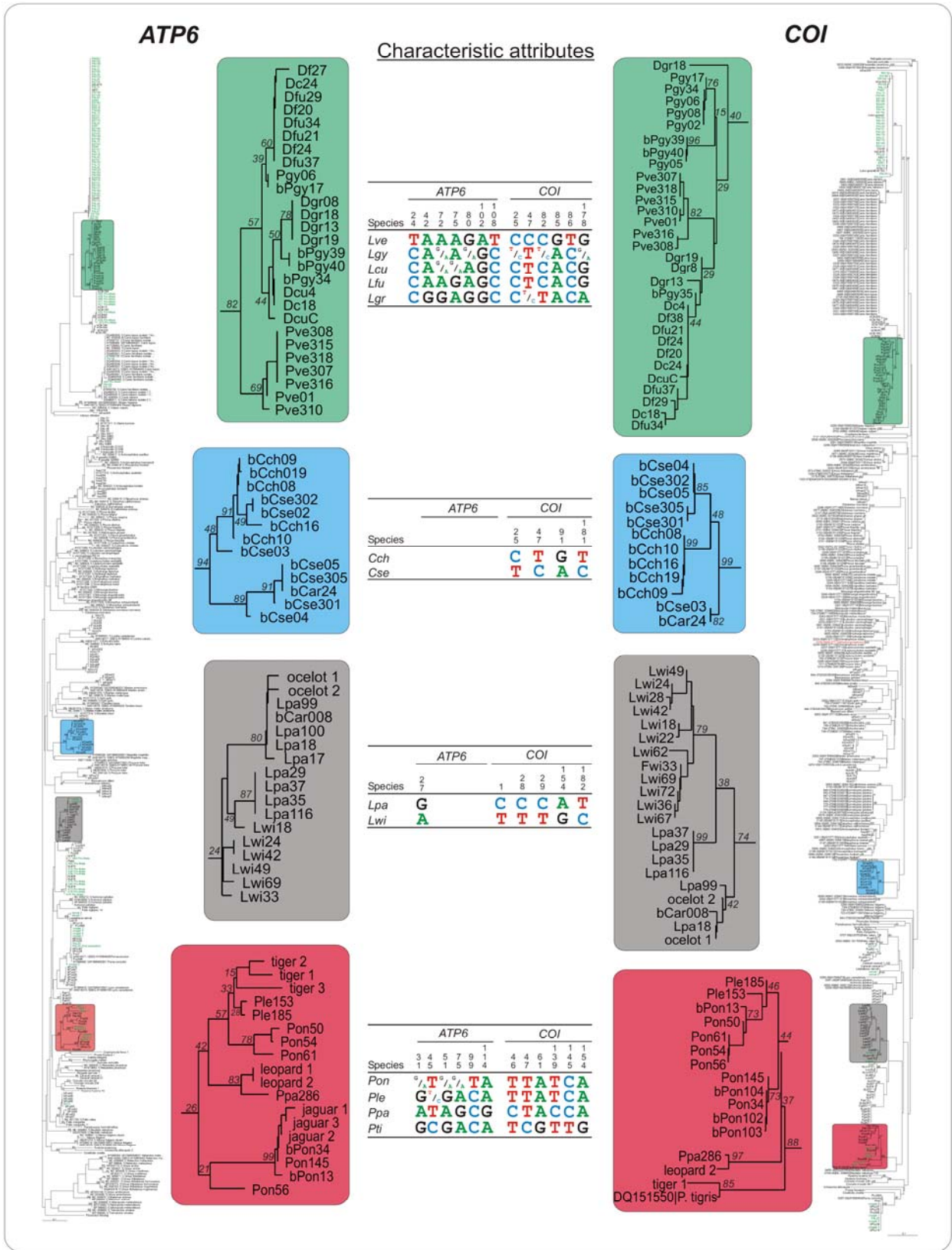
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1049 Figure 3
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1059 **Supplementary material**

1060 Figure S1: Reference sequences used to design the internal forward primer BC-F2 for the
1061 amplification of a 239 bp *COI* segment. Shaded position show mismatches with respective sequences.
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1063	primer BC-F2	ATCACC	ACTATT	TGTTA	TATAAAA	ACC
1064	<i>Felis catus</i>	ATTACT	ACTATT	TATTA	TATAAAA	ACC
1065	<i>Panthera tigris</i>	ATTACT	ACTATT	TATTA	TATAAAA	ACC
1066	<i>Puma concolor</i>	ATCACC	ACTATT	TATTA	TATAAAA	ACC
1067	<i>Alopex lagopus</i>	ATTACT	ACTATT	TATTA	TATAAAA	ACC
1068	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	ATCACT	ACTATT	TATCA	AACATA	AAAACC
1069	<i>Helarctos malayanus</i>	ATTACT	ACTAT	TCATTA	ATATG	AAAACC
1070	<i>Chrysocyon brachyurus</i>	ATTACT	ACTAT	TCATCA	AACATA	AAAACC
1071	<i>Phoca vitulina</i>	ATCACT	ACCAT	TCATTA	TATAAAA	ACC
1072	<i>Arctocephalus australis</i>	ATTACT	ACTATT	TATCA	ACATG	AAAACC
1073	<i>Odobenus rosmarus</i>	ATCACA	ACCATT	TGTCA	ATATA	AAAACC
1074	<i>Mephitis mephitis</i>	ATTACT	ACAAT	CATTA	ATATA	AAAACC
1075	<i>Lontra canadensis</i>	ATTACC	ACTATT	TATTA	ACATA	AAAACC
1076	<i>Procyon lotor</i>	ATCACC	ACTATT	TATTA	ACATG	AAAACC

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Table S1: Compilation of peer reviewed articles wherein identification of carnivore samples was undertaken via molecular methods. The search was started in Web of Science “topic” domain with terms “carnivores” or “carnivore” and “species identification”. The 26 and 14 respective publications retrieved were then used as reference for an extensive cross-citation search over several internet sources. Because there is probably not an appropriate combination of terms that will result in a complete search of papers that address carnivore species identification, we acknowledge that some references might have been overlooked.

Reference	Marker ^(Method)	Carnivore species	Sample	Fragment size
Adams <i>et al.</i> 2003	Cytb, Control region ^(a,b)	Cru, Cla, Cfa, Vvu, Uci, Uam, Lcn, Lru	F, B, OS	200 bp, 360 bp ^{np}
Adams & Waits 2007	Cytb, Control region ^(a,b)	Cru, Cla	F, B	method from Adams <i>et al.</i> 2003
Adams & Waits 2007	Cytb, Control region ^(a,b)	Cru, Cla, Cfa, Vvu, Uci, Uam, Lru	F	method from Adams <i>et al.</i> 2003 and 170 bp Farrell <i>et al.</i> 2000
Barja <i>et al.</i> 2007	? ^(a)	Mma, Mfo	F	S. Ruiz, personal communication
Berry & Sarre 2007	tRNA/12S rRNA ^(c,f)	Cfa, Vvu, Fca	F, OT ?	157-176 bp, ^{np}
Berry <i>et al.</i> 2007	Cytb ^(b,c)	Vvu	F, B, R	134 bp ^{np}
Bhagavatula & Singh 2006	Cytb ^(c)	Pti	F, B	124 bp ^{np} ; tested Farrell <i>et al.</i> 's primers
Bidlack <i>et al.</i> 2007	Cytb ^(a)	Cla, Lru, Uci, Vvu, Pco, Mmp, Plo	F, OS	196 bp, one new primer + Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997
Blejwas <i>et al.</i> 2006	Control region ^(a)	Cla	SV, OS	157 bp, primers from Pilgrim <i>et al.</i> 1998
Capurro <i>et al.</i> 1997	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Cth, Cfa, Lcu, Lgr, Lfu, Lgy, Lco, Lge, Cch	F	NA, method modified from Major <i>et al.</i> 1980
Colli <i>et al.</i> 2005	Cytb ^(a)	Mml, Mni, Mpu, Mfo, Mma	R	362 bp, primers from Kocher <i>et al.</i> 1989
Cossíos & Angers 2006	16S rRNA ^(a)	Lja, Lge, Lco, Pco, Fca, Lcu, Cfa	F, S, OS	257-263 bp ^{np}
Dalén <i>et al.</i> 2004a	Control region ^(c)	Ggu, Ala, Vvu	F, M	100, 242, 332 bp ^{np}
Dalén <i>et al.</i> 2004b	Control region ^(c)	Ala, Vvu	F	method from Dalén <i>et al.</i> 2004a
Davison <i>et al.</i> 2002	Control region ^(b)	Mma, Vvu	F	~ 200 bp ^{np}
Domingo-Roura 2001	nDNA microsatellite ^(d)	Mma, Mfo, Mml	B, M	128-232 bp ^{np}
Ernst <i>et al.</i> 2000	nDNA microsatellite ^(d)	Lru, Pco, Cfa, Cla	F, B, BS, H, M	105-209 bp, primers from Menotti-Raymond & O'Brien 1995, Menotti-Raymond <i>et al.</i> 1997
Farrell <i>et al.</i> 2000	Cytb ^(b)	Pon, Pco, Lpa, Cth	F, B	170 bp ^{np}
Fernandes <i>et al. in press</i>	Cytb ^(c)	Fsi, Hic, Gge, Clu, Vvu, Mml, Llu, Mfo, Mma, Mvi, Mer, Mni, Mpu, Mlu	F, M	< 250 bp ^{np}
Fernandez <i>et al.</i> 1997	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Pon, Pco	F	NA
Fernández <i>et al.</i> 2006	Control region ^(c)	Lpn	F	method from Palomares <i>et al.</i> 2002
Ferrando <i>et al.</i> 2008	Control region ^(b)	Mvi	F	265 bp, primers from Mucci <i>et al.</i> 1999
Foran <i>et al.</i> 1997a	Cytb/Control region ^(a)	Vvu, Uci, Clu, Cfa, Cla, Tta, Mam, Mpe, Fca, Lru, Lca, Pco, Plo, Bas	F, B, M	500-1000 bp, primers modified from Shields & Kocher 1991
Foran <i>et al.</i> 1997b	Cytb/Control region ^(a)	Ggu, Mam, Mpe, Lca	H	method from Foran <i>et al.</i> 1997a
Gómez-Moliner <i>et al.</i> 2004	Control region ^(a)	Mev, Mlu, Mvi, Mpu, Mma, Mfo, Llu	F, H	~240 bp, F primer from Davison <i>et al.</i> 1999 + new H primer
Gompper <i>et al.</i> 2006	mtDNA ^(b,d)	Cla, Vvu, Mam, Mvi, Mpe, Uci, Plo, Cfa	F, OS	J. E. Maldonado, unpublished data

1100 Table S1: *Continued (2/4)*

Reference	Marker ^(Method)	Carnivore species	Sample	Fragment size
Guerrero <i>et al.</i> 2006	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Gcu, Lgr, Lcu, Pco, Lgu	F	NA, method from Major <i>et al.</i> 1980
Hagey <i>et al.</i> 1993	bile acid ^(e)	Uam, Uar, Uma, Hma, Mur, Tor, Ame, Afu, Plo, Mfu, Mmp, Gti, Ssu, Hbr, Pcr, Ple, Pti, Npr, Ome	F, GB	NA, method from Rossi <i>et al.</i> 1987
Hansen & Jacobsen 1999	Cytb ^(a)	Llu, Mvi, Mpu	F, M	189 bp ^{np}
Harrison <i>et al.</i> 2002		Vve	F	
Harrison 2006	16S rRNA ^{(b)?}	Cla, Cfa, Uci, Vve, Lru	F, H	379 bp, primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992
Jiménez <i>et al.</i> 1996	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Lcu, Lgr		NA, method from Major <i>et al.</i> 1980
Johnson <i>et al.</i> 1984	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Pco, Lru	F	NA
Johnson <i>et al.</i> 1998	16S, ATP8, ND5 ^(b)	Lja, Lpa, Lwi, Lti, Lco, Lge, Lgu, Fca, Pya	B, S	119-376 bp ^{np} + primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992
Kalz <i>et al.</i> 2006	Control region ^(b)	Llu, Mvi, Mpu, Mlu	F	360 bp ^{np}
Khorozyan <i>et al.</i> 2007	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Ppa, Lly, Clu	F	NA, method from Narvaez & Suhring 1999
Kohn <i>et al.</i> 1995		Uar	F	
Kohn <i>et al.</i> 1999	Control region ^(a)	Cla, Cfa, Uci	F, B	method from Pilgrim <i>et al.</i> 1998
Krausman <i>et al.</i> 2006	Control region ^(a)	Cla, Cfa		200 bp ^{np}
Kurose <i>et al.</i> 2005	Cytb ^(c)	Fbe, Mme, Msi, Fca	F, M	112-347 bp ^{np}
Leberg <i>et al.</i> 2004	16S rRNA ^(a,b)	Pco, Cfa	F	360 bp, primers from Hoelzel & Green 1992; method from Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000
Long <i>et al.</i> 2007	16S rRNA ^{(b)?}	Uam, Mpe, Lru		379 bp, primers from Hoelzel & Green 1992, <u>amplified prey DNA</u>
López-Giráldez <i>et al.</i> 2005	microsatellite ^(a,g)	Mlu, Mvi, Mpu, Mni, Mal, Mer, Mma, Mfo, Llu	H, RK, M, L, OS	436, 221 bp, primers from Domingo-Roura 2002
Lucentini <i>et al.</i> 2006	Cytb ^(a)	Mma, Mfo, Mpu, Vvu		365 bp ^{np}
Major <i>et al.</i> 1980	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Fca, Lru, Plo, Cfa, Cla, Vvu	F	NA
McKelvey <i>et al.</i> 2006	16S rRNA ^(a)	Lca	F, H	method from Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000
Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000	Cytb/Control region, 16S rRNA ^(a)	Lca, Lru, Fca, Pco	H, OS	500-1000 bp, primers modified from Shields & Kocher 1991; 360 bp, primers from Hoelzel & Green 1992
Miotto <i>et al.</i> 2007	Cytb ^(b)	Pco, Lpa	F, B	170bp, method from Farrell <i>et al.</i> 2000
Mukherjee <i>et al.</i> 2007	Cytb, Control region, ND5 ^(c)	Pti	F, B	164, 210, 225, 250 bp, new and From Luo <i>et al.</i> 2004
Murakami 2002	Cytb/tRNA/Control region ^(b)	Mzi, Mme, Mvi, Mni, Mit	F, L	521-524 bp, primers from Foran <i>et al.</i> 1997 and Shields & Kocher 1991
Murphy <i>et al.</i> 2000	Control region ^(g)	Uar, Uam	F, B	146-164 bp ^{np} , <i>apud</i> Murphy <i>et al.</i> 2007
Nagata <i>et al.</i> 2005	Cytb ^(a)	Pti, Ppa	F, B, L	280, 374 bp ^{np}
Napolitano <i>et al.</i> 2008	16S rRNA, ATP8, ND5 ^(b)	Lja, Lco, Pco, Cfa, Lcu	F, BN	342, 147, 280 bp, primers from Johnson <i>et al.</i> 1998 + primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992

1102 Table S1: *Continued* (3/4)

Reference	Marker ^(Method)	Carnivore species	Sample	Fragment size
Narvaez & Sühling 1999	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Pon, Pco, Pya, Lge, Lwi, Lpa, Lco	F	NA
Novack <i>et al.</i> 2005	16S rRNA ^(b)	Pon, Pco	F	379 bp, primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992
Onorato <i>et al.</i> 2006	Control region, Cytb ^(b,g)	Pco, Cla, Clu, Mpe, Ggu, Uar, Uam	F, H	145-165 bp, primers from Murphy <i>et al.</i> 2000; ~770 bp primers from Shileds & Kocher 1991; 170 bp Farrell <i>et al.</i> 2000
O'Reilly <i>et al. in press</i>	Control region ^(f)	Mma, Vvu	F	60 bp ^{np}
Palomares <i>et al.</i> 2002	Control region ^(c)	Lpn	F, H, B, M, RK, FP, S, OS	< 130 bp ^{np}
Pandey <i>et al.</i> 2007	12S rRNA ^(b)	Ppa, Cfa	F	358 bp, primers from Kocher <i>et al.</i> 1989
Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997	Cytb ^(a)	Vma, Vvu, Uci, Cfa, Cla, Clu	F	412 bp, a new primer and one from Kocher <i>et al.</i> 1989
Perez <i>et al.</i> 2006	16S rRNA ^(b)	Ppa, Clu, Cca, Hhy	F	379 bp, primers from Hoelzel & Green 1992
Pilgrim <i>et al.</i> 1998	Control region ^{(a,g)?}	Cla, Clu		157 bp ^{np}
Pilot <i>et al.</i> 2007	nDNA microsatellite ^(d)	Mma, Mfo	F, H, M, S	128-200 bp, primers from Domingo-Roura (2002) + Davis & Strobeck 1998
Pires & Fernandes 2003	Control region/Cytb ^(c)	Lpn	F, M	130-161 bp, primers from Palomares <i>et al.</i> 2000
Polisar <i>et al.</i> 2003	Cytb ^(b)	Pco, Pon	F	170 bp, primers form Farrell <i>et al.</i> 2000
Posluszny <i>et al.</i> 2007	nDNA microsatellite ^(d)	Mma, Mfo, Mvi, Mpu	F	128-200 bp, primers from Domingo-Roura (2002) and Davis & Strobeck, 1998; method of Pilot <i>et al.</i> 2007
Quinn & Jackman 1994	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Cla	F	NA, method from Major <i>et al.</i> 1980
Prugh & Ritland 2005	Cytb ^(a)	Vvu, Cla, Cfa, Lru, Clu	F, BS, OS	~200 bp, method modified from Adams <i>et al.</i> 2003
Prugh <i>et al.</i> 2005	Cytb ^(a)	Vvu, Cla, Cfa, Lru, Clu	F	method from Prugh & Ritland 2005
Ray & Sunquist 2001	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Hna, Ppa, Apa, Gse, Cci, Bni, Pau, Nbi	F	NA, method from Major <i>et al.</i> 1980
Reed <i>et al.</i> 1997	nDNA microsatellite ^(d)	Hgr, Pvi, Man, Aau	F, B	85-350 bp
Reed <i>et al.</i> 2004	Control region (a)	Clu, Cla, Cfa	F, B, OS	method from Pilgrim <i>et al.</i> 1998
Riddle <i>et al.</i> 2003	Cytb ^(a)	Mpe, Ggu, Mam, Mvi, Mme, Uar, Uam, Clu, Plo, Lru, Mmp	H, OS	442 bp, primers from Kocher <i>et al.</i> 1989 and Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997
Ruell & Crooks 2007	16S rRNA, Cytb ^(a)	Lru, Pco, Fca, Cfa, Cla, Uci	F, H	methods from Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000 and Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997
Schwartz <i>et al.</i> 2004	nDNA microsatellite ^(d) 16S rRNA ^(a)	Lru, Lca	F, H, OS	primers from Carmichael <i>et al.</i> 2001/method of Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000
Schwartz <i>et al.</i> 2006	16S rRNA (a)	Uam, Uar	H	method from Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000
Smith <i>et al.</i> 2003	Cytb ^(a)	Vma, Cla, Uci, Cfa, Vvu	F	350 bp, a new primer + from Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997 + from Irwin <i>et al.</i> 1991
Smith <i>et al.</i> 2005	Cytb ^(a)	Vma	F	method from Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997
Smith <i>et al.</i> 2006	Cytb ^(a)	Vma, Vvu, Uci	F	350 bp, one primer from Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997 and one from Irwin <i>et al.</i> 1991/method modified from Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997

1103 Table S1: Continued (4/4)

Reference	Marker (Method)	Carnivore species	Sample	Fragment size
Sugimoto <i>et al.</i> 2006	Cytb ^(c)	Pti, Ppa	F, H	156, 271 bp ^{np}
Taber <i>et al.</i> 1997	faecal bile acid ^(e)	Pon, Pco	F	NA, method from Johnson <i>et al.</i> 1984 and Capurro <i>et al.</i> 1997
Thornton <i>et al.</i> 2004	16S rRNA ^(b)	Lru, Cla	F	379 bp, primers from Hoelzel & Green 1992
Ulizio <i>et al.</i> 2006	Cytb ^(a,b)	Ggu, Vvu, Cla, Mam	F, H	method from Riddle <i>et al.</i> 2003
Vercillo <i>et al.</i> 2004	Cytb ^(a)	Mma, Mfo	F, H, M	218 bp ^{np}
Verma & Singh 2003	Cytb ^(b)	221 animal species, empirically tested in Cfa	M	472 bp ^{np} may amplify preys in faeces; empirically tested in 23 species
Verma <i>et al.</i> 2003	Cytb ^(b)	Pti, Ppa, Ple, Pun, Nne	F	method from Verma & Singh 2003
Walker <i>et al.</i> 2007	16S rRNA ^(b)	Lcu, Lco, Lja	F	379 bp, primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992
Wan & Fang 2003	Cytb ^(c)	Pti	F, H, M, S	408 and 582 bp ^{np}
Wan <i>et al.</i> 2003	nDNA VNTR ^(h)	Pti, Ppa, Nne	F, H, S	0.6-21.2 Kb
Wasser <i>et al.</i> 2004	Control region ^(g)	Uam, Uar	F	246 bp, primers from Wasser <i>et al.</i> 1997
Weckel <i>et al.</i> 2006a	16S rRNA ^(b)	Pon, Pco	F	379 bp, primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992
Weckel <i>et al.</i> 2006b	16S rRNA ^(b)	Pon, Pco	F	379 bp, primers from Hoelzer & Green 1992
Wetton <i>et al.</i> 2004	Cytb ^(c,f)	Pti	F, H, BN, B, OS	165 bp ^{np}
Williams <i>et al.</i> 2003	Control region ^(a)	Cla, Cfa, Uci, Lru	SV, B, OS	method from Pilgrim <i>et al.</i> 1998
Wilson <i>et al.</i> 2003	Control region ^(b)	Cla	S	230 bp, a new primer and primer F from Pilgrim <i>et al.</i> 1998
Zielinski <i>et al.</i> 2006	16S rRNA/Cytb ^(a)	Mpe, Mam, Uci, Uam, Bas	H	500-1000 bp, methods from Mills <i>et al.</i> 2000, 412 bp, methods from Paxinos <i>et al.</i> 1997 and Riddle <i>et al.</i> 2003
Zuercher <i>et al.</i> 2003	Cytb ^(a)	Pon, Pco, Pya, Sve, Cbr, Cth, Lgy, Lco, Lge, Lwi, Lti, Lpa	F	341, 338 and 276 bp ^{np}
Zuercher <i>et al.</i> 2005	Cytb ^(a)	Sve	F	method from Zuercher <i>et al.</i> 2003

Method key – (a) PCR-RFLP, (b) DNA sequencing, (c) species-specific primer, (d) genotyping, (e) chromatography, (f) real-time PCR, (g) species-specific amplicon size (h) Southern blot.

Carnivore species key – Ame: *Ailuropoda melanoleuca*, Afu: *Ailurus fulgens*, Ala: *Alopex lagopus*, Aau: *Arctocephalus australis*, Apa: *Atilax paludinosus*, Bas: *Bassariscus astutus*, Bni: *Bdeogale nigripes*, Cfa: *Canis familiaris*, Clu: *Canis lupus*, Cru: *Canis rufus*, Cca: *Caracal caracal*, Cth: *Cerdocyon thous*, Cbr: *Chrysocyon brachyurus*, Cci: *Civettictis civetta*, Cch: *Conepatus chinga*, Fbe: *Felis bengalensis*, Fca: *Felis catus*, Fsi: *Felis silvestris*, Gcu: *Galictis cuja*, Gge: *Genetta genetta*, Gse: *Genetta servalina*, Gti: *Genetta tigrina*, Ggu: *Gulo gulo*, Hgr: *Halichoerus gripus*, Hma: *Helarctos malayanus*, Hic: *Herpestes ichneumon*, Hna: *Herpestes naso*, Hbr: *Hyaena brunnea*, Hhy: *Hyaena hyaena*, Lco: *Leopardus colocolo*, Lge: *Leopardus geoffroyi*, Lgu: *Leopardus guigna*, Lja: *Leopardus jacobitus*, Lti: *Leopardus tigrinus*, Lwi: *Leopardus wiedii*, Lcn: *Lontra canadensis*, Llo: *Lontra longicaudis*, Llu: *Lutra lutra*, Lcu: *Lycalopex culpaeus*, Lfu: *Lycalopex fulvipes*, Lgy: *Lycalopex gymnocercus*, Lgr: *Lycalopex griseus*, Lca: *Lynx canadensis*, Lly: *Lynx lynx*, Lpn: *Lynx pardinus*, Lru: *Lynx rufus*, Mam: *Martes americana*, Mfo: *Martes foina*, Mma: *Martes martes*, Mme: *Martes melampus*, Mpe: *Martes pennanti*, Mzi: *Martes zibellina*, Mml: *Meles meles*, Mur: *Melursus ursinus*, Mmp: *Mephitis mephitis*, Man: *Mirounga angustirostris*, Mal: *Mustela altaica*, Mer: *Mustela erminea*, Mev: *Mustela eversmanii*, Mfu: *Mustela furo*, Mit: *Mustela itatsi*, Mlu: *Mustela lutreola*, Mni: *Mustela nivalis*, Mpu: *Mustela putorius*, Msi: *Mustela sibirica*, Mvi: *Mustela vison*, Nbi: *Nandinia binotata*, Npr: *Nyctereutes procyonoides*, Ome: *Otocyon megalotis*, Ple: *Panthera leo*, Pon: *Panthera onca*, Ppa: *Panthera pardus*, Pti: *Panthera tigris*, Pun: *Panthera uncia*, Pvi: *Phoca vitulina*, Plo: *Procyon lotor*, Pau: *Profelis aurata*, Pcr: *Proteles cristata*, Pco: *Puma concolor*, Pya: *Puma yagouaroundi*, Sve: *Speothos venaticus*, Ssu: *Suricata suricatta*, Tta: *Taxidea taxus*, Tor: *Tremarctos ornatus*, Uci: *Urocyon cinereoargenteus*, Uam: *Ursus americanus*, Uar: *Ursus arctos*, Uma: *Ursus maritimus*, Vma: *Vulpes macrotis*, Vve: *Vulpes velox*, Vvu: *Vulpes vulpes*.

Sample key – B: blood, BN: bone, BS: buccal swab, F: faeces, FP: foot pad, GB: gallbladder bile, H: hair, M: Muscle, OS: other sources, RK: roadkill, S: skin, SV: saliva.

Fragment size key – np: new primers designed, NA: not applicable.

?: uncertain data (inferred whenever possible).

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1119 **References from Table S1**

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Table S2: Samples sequenced for assembling a reference database.

Family	Species	Sample ID	Locality	Voucher #	Institution/Person (when available)	
FELIDAE	<i>L. pardalis</i>	Lpa17 ^c	Panama		Summit Zoo	
		Lpa18	Panama		Summit Zoo	
		Lpa29	Guatemala		Autosafari Chapin	
		Lpa35	South Mexico		Parque Zool. De Leon	
		Lpa37	South Mexico			
		Lpa99	Bolivia		Santa Cruz Zoo	
		Lpa100 ^c	Bolivia		Santa Cruz Zoo	
		Lpa116	Central Mexico		Idaho State University/J. Landre	
		bLpa138	Santarém, PA		G. Pontes	
	<i>L. wiedii</i>	Lwi18	Amazonas, north of the Amazon			
		Lwi22 ^a	Costa Rica			
		Lwi24	Costa Rica			
		Lwi28 ^a				
		Lwi33				
		Lwi36 ^a	Guatemala		Autosafari Chapin	
		Lwi42	South Mexico			
		Lwi49	North Mexico		Sonoran Ecological Center	
		Lwi62 ^a	Pará, south of the Amazon			
		Lwi69	South Brazil			
	Lwi72 ^a					
	<i>L. tigrinus</i>	bLti04	South Brazil			Zoo Sapucaia
		Fti44	Curitibanos, SC	Fti #06		Zoo Curitiba
		bLti70	Sorocaba, SP			Zoo Sorocaba/Plano de Manejo Peq. Felinos Brasileiros
		bLti74	S. José do Rio Preto, SP			Plano de Manejo Peq. Felinos Brasileiros
		bLti75	probably from Bauru, SP			Plano de Manejo Peq. Felinos Brasileiros
		bLti76	Pedreira, SP			Plano de Manejo Peq. Felinos Brasileiros
		bLti85	probably from Goiânia, GO			Plano de Manejo Peq. Felinos Brasileiros
		bLti97 ^a	Domingos Martins, ES			Pró-Carnívoros/D. Sana
	<i>L. geoffroyi</i>	Fge12	Cachoeira do Sul, RS			E. Salomão
		Fge20	Uruguai	CA747		MCN/G. D'Elía
		Fge28 ^a	Tapes/Rambaré, RS			L. Veronese
		Fge29 ^a	Quaraí, RS			D. Sana, F. Michalski, C. Indrusiak, T. Trigo
		bLge31	Quaraí, RS			D. Sana, F. Michalski, C. Indrusiak, T. Trigo
bLge33		Rosário/Alegrete, RS			G. Pontes and M. Martins	
bLge36		Taim, RS			T. Trigo	
Oge38 ^a		Santa Maria/São Sepé, RS			L. Cabral	
Oge63 ^a	Santa Cruz, Bolivia			Santa Cruz Zoo		

Table S2: Continued (2/6)

Family	Species	Sample ID	Locality	Voucher #	Institution/Person (when available)
FELIDAE	<i>L. colocolo</i>	Lco4 ^c			
		Lco7 ^a	Argentina		Cordoba Zoological Park ?
		Lco8	Uruguay		
		Lco30 ^a	Chile		
		bLco303	Parque Nacional das Emas, GO		CENAP-IBAMA
		bLco315	Parque Nacional das Emas, GO		CENAP-IBAMA
	<i>F. catus</i>	bFca02	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca52	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca53	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca54	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca55	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca56 ^c	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca57	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca58 ^c	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		bFca59	Porto Alegre, RS		A. C. Escobar
		<i>P. onca</i>	bPon13	Amazonas, north of the Amazon	
	bPon34		French Guiana		B. de Thoisy
	Pon50		Chaco, Paraguay		Itaipu, Paraguay/W. Johnson
	Pon54		Amazonas State, Venezuela		Las Delicias
	Pon56		Falcon State, Venezuela		Las Delicias
	Pon61		unknown State, Venezuela		Barquisimeto
	Pon145		Costa Rica		
	<i>P. leo</i>	Ple153			
		Ple185			
	<i>P. pardus</i>	Ppa286			
	<i>P. yagouaroundi</i>	bPya07 ^a	Barão, RS		
		bPya16	Iguaçu, PR		
		bPya18 ^c	Sapiranga, RS		
bPya22 ^c		Rio Zoo, SP		Rio Zoo	
bPya26 ^c		Monte Alto, SP			
bPya28 ^c		Sorocaba, SP			
bPya31		Lajeado, RS			
bPya34 ^a		MS		Zoo Cesp	
bPya35 ^c		Restinga Seca, RS			
bPya47		CE			
bPya67 ^c	Vila Velha/Gurupari, ES		RODOSOL/A. Kiekebusch		

Family	Species	Sample ID	Locality	Voucher #	Institution/Person (when available)
FELIDAE	<i>P. concolor</i>	Pco07	Oregon, USA		
		bPco14	Cananéia, SP		F. Olmos
		bPco34	Parque Estadual Serra da Cantareira, RJ		Pró-Carnívoros/R. Morato
		bPco35	Jardim, MS		Pró-Carnívoros/R. Morato
		bPco37	Corumbá, MS		Pró-Carnívoros/R. Morato
		bPco42 ^c	Zoo Ilha Solteira, SP		Zoo Ilha Solteira-Pró-Carnívoros/D. Sana
		Pco544	Guanacaste, Costa Rica		
		Pco548	Costa Rica		
Pco560 ^c	Argentina				
OTARIIDAE	<i>A. australis</i>	Aau01H ^c	Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf
		Aau11H ^c	Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf
		Aau20H ^c	Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf
		Aau78G ^c	Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf
		Aau586 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil		GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		Aau587 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil		GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		Aau687	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil		GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		Aau694	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil		GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
	<i>A. tropicalis</i>	G1012 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS1012	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		G1018 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS1018	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		G1034 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS1034	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		<i>A. gazella</i>	G0862 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0862
	G0895 ^c		Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0895	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
	<i>O. flavescens</i>	G0517 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0517	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		G0822 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0822	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		G0868 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0868	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		G0967 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0967	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
		G0992 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0992	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
Peru3 ^c		Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf	
Peru1 ^c		Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf	
Peru4 ^c		Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf	
Peru5 ^c		Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf	
Peru6 ^c		Punta San Juan, Peru		CSA-UPCH/P. Majluf	
PHOCIDAE	<i>L. carcinophaga</i>	RS14 ^c	Tramandaí, RS		GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira
	<i>M. leonina</i>	G0885 ^c	Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	GEMARS0885	GEMARS/L. R. Oliveira

Family	Species	Sample ID	Locality	Voucher #	Institution/Person (when available)	
MEPHITIDAE	<i>C. chinga</i>	bCch08	São Francisco de Paula, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski	
		bCch09	Tainhas, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski	
		bCch10	BR285, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski	
		bCch16	BR153, near Cachoeira do Sul, RS		E. Eizirik	
		bCch19	BR 471/km 590, RS		P. Chaves	
	<i>C. semistriatus</i>	bCse02 ^c	Serra da Canastra, near Formiga, MG		J. May	
		bCse03	near Formiga/Piumhi, MG		F. Rodrigues	
		bCse04	Piumhi, MG		J. May	
		bCse05	near Três Marias, MG		F. Rodrigues	
		bCse13	BR452 near Juliana and Nova Ponte, MG	LPC389	Coleção de Tecidos e DNA da UFES/L. Costa	
		bCse301	Parque Nacional das Emas, GO		CENAP-IBAMA	
		bCse302	Valença, PI		CENAP-IBAMA	
		bCse305	Parque Nacional das Emas, GO		CENAP-IBAMA	
	PROCYONIDAE	<i>N. nasua</i>	bNna01 ^a	Serra da Mesa, GO	MN36755	MNRJ
bNna02			Parque Nacional do Iguaçu, PR		Pró-Carnívoros/P. Crawshaw Jr.	
bNna03			Ibarama, RS	MPB183	UFSM	
bNna05 ^a			Machadinho, RS		Júlio César Menezes de Sá	
bNna14			Vila Velha/Gurapari, ES		RODOSOL/Andreas Kiekebusch	
bNna16			Corumbá, MS		CPAP-EMBRAPA/G. Mourão	
bNna21			Fortaleza, CE		M. R. Mattos	
<i>P. cancrivorus</i>		bPca10 ^c	Barão de Melgaço, MT		Pró-Carnívoros/R. Morato	
		bPca21 ^a	Vila Velha/Gurapari, ES		RODOSOL/A. Kiekebusch	
		bPca301	Corumbá, MS		CENAP-IBAMA	
MUSTELIDAE		<i>E. barbara</i>	bEba02	Serra da Mesa, GO	MN36627	MNRJ
			bEba03	Serra da Mesa, GO	MN36726	MNRJ
			bEba06	Oriximiná/Rio Trombetas, PA		B. M. Costa
	bEba07		Zoo Sapucaia do Sul, RS	Entrada FZB: 170	FZB/M. Jardim	
	bEba11		Corumbá, MS		CPAP-EMBRAPA/G. Mourão	
	<i>G. cuja</i>	bGcu02 ^c	São Vicente Jaguari, RS	FZB 094	FZB/M. Jardim	
		bGcu08	BR287, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski	
		bGcu09	BR153, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski	
		bGcu10 ^c	Não há localidade no banco	FZB 097	FZB/M. Jardim	
		bGcu12	Itapuã/Viamão, RS	Entrada FZB: 284	FZB/A. Maciel e M. Jardim	
bGcu14	SC-438, Bom Jardim/Cruzeiro, SC		A. Garda e M. Lion			

Family	Species	Sample ID	Locality	Voucher #	Institution/Person (when available)
MUSTELIDAE	<i>G. cuja</i>	bGvi01	SP 300 km 260+200m, Southwest SP		J. Griese
		bGvi02 ^c	Botucatu, SP 300 km 184+100m, SP		J. Griese
		bGvi03	DF-001, Brasília, DF		C. Campos
		bGvi04	SP-300, km 260 (+200m), Southeast SP		F. Lima
		bGvi302	Piumhi-São Roque, MG		CENAP-IBAMA
	<i>L. longicaudis</i>	bLlo06	RS 040 - Km 54, RS		P. H. Ott
		bLlo15	Guaratiba, RJ		H. Waldemarin
		bLlo17 ^c	Rio Negro/Rio Paraguai, MS		H. Waldemarin
		bLlo23 ^c	Antioquia, Colombia		Diego A. Arcila and H. Waldemarin
		bLlo30 ^a	Belo Horizonte, MG	Cad24852	São Paulo Zoo/K. Kassaro
bLlo31 ^a		Corumbá, MS	Cad28861	São Paulo Zoo/K. Kassaro	
bLlo58		Osório, RS		P. Colombo, C. Zank and L. Volkmer	
bLlo67 ^c	Bolivia				
<i>P. brasiliensis</i>	Pbr01 ^c	Corumbá, MS		H. Waldemarin	
	Pbr02 ^c	Corumbá, MS		H. Waldemarin	
<i>C. brachyurus</i>	AE01	Est. Ecol. Águas Emendadas, Brasília			
	AELB75	Est. Ecol. Águas Emendadas, Brasília			
	Cbr05	Cuiabá, MT			
	bCbr11 ^a	Dourados, MS	LPC607	Coleção de Tecidos e DNA da UFES/L. Costa	
	bCbr302 ^a	Parque Estadual da Serra da Canastra, MG		CENAP-IBAMA	
	Extr1SC ^a	Lages, SC			
Lobo-guará 3 ^a	Corrientes, Argentina				
CANIDAE	<i>S. venaticus</i>	bSve304 ^c	Nova Xavantina, MT		CENAP-IBAMA
		bSve305	Nova Xavantina, MT		CENAP-IBAMA
	<i>C. thous</i>	bCth05	Serra da Mesa, GO	MN37446	MNRJ
		bCth13	Cambará do Sul, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski
		bCth64	BR 277, Southwest PR		J. F. Cândido
		bCth142 ^c	Parque de Itapuã, RS		M. Correa
		bCth164	Anaurilândia, MS		Pró-Carnívoros/D. Sana
		bCth185	PE, Brazil		Zoo
		bCth194	CE, Brazil		Zoo/Luiz Carlos Diniz
		bCth225 ^c	Reserva Biológica do Gurupi, MA		UEMA/T. de Oliveira
bCth269	Imperatriz, MA		IBAMA/L. Tchaicka		

Family	Species	Sample ID	Locality	Voucher #	Institution/Person (when available)
CANIDAE	<i>L. gymnocercus</i>	Pgy02 ^c	Sapucaia Zoo, RS		Zoo Sapucaia
		Pgy05 ^c	RS 153, Cachoeira do Sul, RS		A. Lorenz-Lemke and R. Schmitt
		Pgy06	BR116, Eldorado do Sul, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski
		Pgy08 ^c	BR116, Pedro Osório, RS		Pró-Carnívoros/F. Michalski
		Pgy17			
		Pgy34			
		bPgy35 ^c			
		bPgy39	Estação Ecológica do Taim, RS		
		bPgy40	Estação Ecológica do Taim, RS		
		Pve01	Planaltina, DF		F. Rodrigues
	Pve307	Nova Xavantina, MG		J. Dalponte	
	Pve308	Nova Xavantina, MG		J. Dalponte	
	<i>L. vetulus</i>	Pve310	near Pirenópolis, GO	A. Garda and F. Graziottin	
	Pve315	Nova Xavantina, MG		J. Dalponte	
	Pve316	Nova Xavantina, MG		J. Dalponte	
	Pve318	Nova Xavantina, MG		J. Dalponte	
	<i>L. fulvipes</i>	Df20			
		Dfu21			
		Df24			
		Df27 ^c			
		Df29			
		Dfu34			
		Dfu37 ^c			
		Df38 ^a			
	<i>L. griseus</i>	Dgr08			
		Dgr13			
Dgr18					
Dgr19					
<i>L. culpaeus</i>	Dcu4				
	Dc18				
	Dc24				
	DcuC				

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Table S3: Additional PCR and sequencing trials shown by group of species within families.

Family	Species	ATP6	COI
Felidae	<i>Acinonyx jubatus</i>	S*	S
	<i>Caracal caracal</i>	S*	S
	<i>Felis margarita</i>	S*	S
	<i>Felis nigripes</i>	S*	S
	<i>Profelis aurata</i>	NP	NP
Hyaenidae	<i>Crocuta crocuta</i>	S*	S
	<i>Proteles cristata</i>	S*	NS
	<i>Hyaena brunnea</i>	S	S
	<i>Hyaena hyaena</i>	S	S
Viverridae	<i>Arctictis binturong</i>	S	S
	<i>Civettictis civetta</i>	S	S
	<i>Galidia elegans</i>	S	NP
	<i>Paradoxurus hermafroditus</i>	S*	S
	<i>Prionodon linsang</i>	S	S
Herpestidae	<i>Fossa fossana</i>	S	S
	<i>Helogale parvula</i>	S	S
	<i>Herpestes javanicus</i>	S	NS
	<i>Ichneumia albicauda</i>	S	S
	<i>Rhyncogale melleri</i>	S	NS
	<i>Suricata suricatta</i>	S	S
Eupleridae	<i>Cryptoprocta ferox</i>	S*	S
Nandiniidae	<i>Nandinia binotata</i>	NP	NP
Procyonidae	<i>Bassaricyon alleni</i>	S	S
	<i>Bassariscus astutus</i>	S	S
	<i>Potos flavus</i>	NS	NP
Mustelidae	<i>Ictonyx striatus</i>	S*	NS
Ursidae	<i>Ailuropoda melanoleuca</i>	NP	S
	<i>Ursus arctos</i>	NP	S
Ailuridae	<i>Ailurus fulgens</i>	S	S
Phocidae	<i>Mirounga angustirostris</i>	S*	S
	<i>Phoca vitulina</i>	S	S
Otariidae	<i>Arctocephalus forsteri</i>	S*	NP
	<i>Phocarcos hookeri</i>	S	NP
	<i>Zalophus californianus</i>	S*	NS
Odobenidae	<i>Odobenus rosmarus</i>	S*	S

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S: sequenced
NP: no PCR
NS: no sequence
*primer ATP6-DR1 was used as alternative to ATP6-DR2

1420 Table S4: Success of sequencing faecal DNA extracted from zoo carnivores that had been fed with
 1421 rabbit prior to sample collection.
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Sample ID	ATP6	COI
cougar 1	S	S
cougar 2	S	S
cougar 3	S	S
cougar 4	S	S
cougar 5	S	NP
jaguar 1	NP	S
jaguar 2	S	S
jaguar 3	S	S
jaguar 4	NP	NP
leopard 1	S	NS
leopard 2	S	S
ocelot 1	S	S
ocelot 2	S	S
serval 1	S	S
serval 2	NS	NP
serval 3	S	S
tiger 1	S	S
tiger 2	S	NS
tiger 3	S	NP
Total "S"	84%	68%

1423 S: sequenced
 1424 NP: no PCR
 1425 NS: no sequence

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1454 Table S5: Putative maned wolf scats analyzed for interference of prey DNA in predator identification.
 1455 The “PN” prefix codes for samples collected in the Parque Nacional de Brasília, “FAL” for Fazenda
 1456 Águas Limpas and “ES” for Estação Ecológica de Águas Emendadas.
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Sample ID	ATP6	COI ^{COV/IDENT}	Prey vestiges found in faeces
PN96 ^g	maned wolf	NS	fethers, hairs, bones, claws, two almost complete foots
PN97	maned wolf	maned wolf	a beak, feathers
PN98	NP	NP	hairs, a complete foot
PN100	maned wolf	NP	feathers, bones, a beak
PN101	maned wolf	NS	hairs, bones
PN102	maned wolf	<i>Metachirus nudicaudatus</i> ^{100/94}	hairs, bones
PN106	maned wolf	<i>Metachirus nudicaudatus</i> ^{100/87}	hairs, bone
PN108	maned wolf	NS	hairs, bone
PN110	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bone
PN118	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, two beaks
PN119	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, bone, scales [?]
PN125	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones, self-cleaning hair [?]
PN126	NP	NP	feathers
PN131 ^g	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs (mainly white)
PN132	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, armadillo shell bones
PN133	maned wolf	NP	hairs, bones, armadillo shell bones, scale [?]
PN145	dog	NA	
PN148	maned wolf	<i>Priolepis cincta</i> ^{94/85}	feathers, bones
PN149	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs (minly white), bones
PN150	dog	NA	
PN153	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, bones
PN155	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones, rodent teeth
PN156	NP	<i>Cormura brevirostris</i> ^{100/82} <i>Phyllostomus discolor</i> ^{100/82}	hairs
PN160	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones, a foot (reptile)
FAL02	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, bone, armadillo shell bones
FAL05	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones, armadillo shell bones, scales [?]
FAL10	maned wolf	NS	hairs, bone, teeths
FAL11	NP	NP	feathers
FAL12	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers
FAL15	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones, a tooth
FAL16	maned wolf	NP	hairs, bones, armadillo shell bones, scales [?]
FAL19	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones, armadillo shell bones, a foot
FAL20 ^g	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, bone
FAL24 ^g	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs
FAL25	cougar	cougar	black and white banded hairs, bones
FAL26	NP	NP	feather
FAL31	maned wolf	maned wolf	bone, armadillo shell bones, a claw
FAL32	maned wolf	NP	hairs, bones, armadillo shell bones, a foot, scales [?]
FAL35	NP	NP	bones, a tooth, armadillo shell bones
FAL36	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones
FAL37	maned wolf	<i>Priolepis cincta</i> ^{94/85}	none
FAL40	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers
FAL41	maned wolf	NS	feathers, bones, hairs, rodent teeth
FAL42	maned wolf	NP	bone
FAL45	maned wolf	NP	bone, two feet
ES10	domestic cat	domestic cat	hairs
ES51 ^g	maned wolf	maned wolf	hairs, bones
ES54	maned wolf	NP	feathers
ES67	NP	NP	feathers, bones, scales [?]

Table S5: *Continued (2/2)*

Sample ID	ATP6	COI ^{COV/IDENT}	Prey vestiges found in faeces
ES87	NP	NP	feathers
ES92	NP	NP	bones, feathers
ES94	maned wolf	<i>Metachirus nudicaudatus</i> ^{99/91}	feathers
ES98 ^g	NP	NP	feathers
ES99	NP	NP	none
ES104	maned wolf	NP	none
ES106	NP	NP	feathers
ES107	NP	NP	feathers
ES110	NP	NP	hairs
ES121	maned wolf	NS	feathers, two feet
ES122	maned wolf	NS	feather, two feet
ES129 ^g	maned wolf	NS	feathers, a beak
ES131 ^g	maned wolf	<i>Molossus sp.</i> ^{97/86}	feathers
ES134	NP	NP	none
ES135	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers
ES136	NP	NP	feathers, bones
ES147	maned wolf	<i>Spilogale putorius</i> ^{89/83}	feathers, hairs
ES149	maned wolf	maned wolf	bones
ES150	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers
ES151	maned wolf	<i>Molossus rufus</i> ^{93/81} <i>Thomomys umbrinus</i> ^{94/81}	feathers
ES153	maned wolf	NP	feathers
ES163	maned wolf	NS	feathers
ES169	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, a foot
ES175	maned wolf	<i>Metachirus nudicaudatus</i> ^{100/94}	feathers, hairs, bones
ES177	dog	NA	
ES186 ^g	NP	maned wolf	feathers
ES193 ^g	maned wolf	maned wolf	feather
ES195	maned wolf	NS	none
ES196	maned wolf	<i>Molossus sp.</i> ^{97/86}	bone, feather
ES201	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers
ES208 ^g	maned wolf	maned wolf	feathers, hairs
ES213	maned wolf	maned wolf	feather
ES216	maned wolf	NS	bones

^g Samples genotyped for five canid microsatellites (M.B. Lion, unpublished data)

NP: no suitable PCR amplicon obtained for sequencing

NS: no suitable sequence obtained

NA: not amplified

COV/IDENT Max. coverage/Max. Identity of most similar BLAST search

?: uncertain identification



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