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PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BIOLOGIA ANIMAL

KARINA BOHRER DO AMARAL

**INFLUÊNCIA DO AMBIENTE MARINHO NO PADRÃO DE DISTRIBUIÇÃO E NA
ESTRUTURA GENÉTICA DE MAMÍFEROS MARINHOS PREDADORES DE TOPO
DE CADEIA**

PORTO ALEGRE
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DE CADEIA**

Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Animal, Instituto de Biociências da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Mestre/Doutor em Biologia Animal.

Área de concentração: Biologia Comparada

Orientador(a): Prof. Dr. Ignacio Benites Moreno

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Aprovada em ____ de _____ de _____.

BANCA EXAMINADORA

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Dr/a. Juan Pablo Torres Florez

Dedico este trabalho aos meus pais, Marta e Carlos Alberto,
e a minha irmã, Caroline,
que me ensinaram a ser persistentes, lutar,
e, principalmente, acreditar que tudo seria possível
mesmo quando tudo parecia impossível
em vários momentos das nossas vidas.

*[...]Longe se vai sonhando demais
Mas onde se chega assim
Vou descobrir o que me faz sentir
Eu, caçador de mim*

*Nada a temer
Senão o correr da luta
Nada a fazer
Senão esquecer o medo
Abrir o peito à força
Numa procura
Fugir às armadilhas da mata escura*

*Vou descobrir o que me faz sentir
Eu, caçador de mim*

Sergio Magrão e Luiz Carlos Sá

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RESUMO

Duas espécies de cetáceos apresentam padrões de distribuição peculiares ao longo da costa brasileira, muito provavelmente em resposta às condições hidrográficas e topográficas que ocorrem entre 20 e 33°S. A primeira espécie, a franciscana ou toninha (*Pontoporia blainvillei*), é um golfinho de distribuição restrita do Brasil até a Argentina, que ocorre primariamente na plataforma continental interna, raramente ultrapassando os 50 m de profundidade. Já a segunda espécie, o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico (*Stenella frontalis*), é um golfinho de distribuição restrita ao Oceano Atlântico, que ocupa principalmente a plataforma continental. Estas duas espécies apresentam hiatos ao longo da sua distribuição no Brasil que tem consequências na morfologia e estrutura genética das espécies. Através da aplicação de diferentes métodos, o principal objetivo deste estudo foi investigar a influência do ambiente marinho no padrão de distribuição e na estrutura genética destas duas espécies com ênfase na costa brasileira. No primeiro capítulo, investigou-se a relação do ambiente marinho com o padrão de distribuição da franciscana. Para tanto, uma revisão e atualização da distribuição das áreas de manejo da franciscana (FMA), e dos limites dos hiatos, ao longo do Brasil foram realizadas. Análises de nicho ecológico sugerem que os hiatos fazem parte do nicho fundamental da franciscana que seriam, portanto, relativamente adequados para a espécie. No entanto, o estreitamento da plataforma continental parece ser o principal fator que explica a ausência da espécie nos hiatos e, inclusive poderia explicar a diferenciação genética entre algumas FMAs. No segundo e terceiro capítulos, a relação entre similaridade genética e distâncias geográficas e ambientais foram investigadas para o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico em duas escalas: ao longo de praticamente toda distribuição e em uma escala

mais restrita com ênfase no Brasil. Populações geneticamente distintas ao longo de toda distribuição da espécie foram identificadas com base em um marcador mitocondrial, que podem ser resultado Isolamento por Distância e Isolamento por Resistência, relacionados tanto com condições ambientais contemporâneas quanto do passado (Último Glacial Máximo). As análises de estrutura populacional do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico no Brasil, investigada mais profundamente com marcadores genômicos, indicam ao menos a existência de três populações (Brasil, Colômbia e Oceânica) suportando, portanto, a hipótese de uma população isolada no sudeste do Brasil. De forma geral, conclui-se que o ambiente marinho e, principalmente, fatores como extensão da plataforma continental, batimetria e temperatura tem um papel fundamental para explicar o padrão de distribuição destas espécies no Brasil. Além disso, outros processos podem estar envolvidos na estruturação genética do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico e também da franciscana como, por exemplo, estrutura social, filopatria e a história evolutiva destas espécies. O maior desafio para conservação da franciscana é seu status de Criticamente Ameaçada no Brasil e, em relação ao golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico é a deficiência de dados. Uma vez que ambas espécies ocorrem na porção mais desenvolvida do país, os resultados aqui obtidos têm impacto direto na conservação destas espécies, porque trazem informações que podem ser utilizadas em planos futuros de conservação e manejo.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE: modelagem de nicho ecológico, genômica, golfinhos, franciscana, golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico

ABSTRACT

Along Brazilian coastal waters, either franciscana and Atlantic spotted dolphins exhibited distributional gaps, which is most likely resulting from changes in the environmental features between 20 and 33°S. The former species, franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvillei*), is a river dolphin with restricted distribution from Brazil to Argentina, recorded mainly up to 50 m deep over the inner shelf. The second species, Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*), is a delphinine dolphin distributed across the Atlantic Ocean, being mainly recorded over the continental shelf. The distribution patterns that these species showed in Brazil have a direct influence on the morphology/ecology and genetic structure of both species. Different approaches were applied to address the main goal of this study, which was investigating the influence of marine environment in shaping the distribution pattern, as well as genetic structure of franciscana and Atlantic spotted dolphin with emphasis in the Brazilian coastal waters. In the first chapter, I investigated the franciscana distribution in Brazil using an ecological niche modeling approach. In order to do that, I performed a review of records of the species along Brazil and, updated the limits of franciscana management areas (FMAs) and distributional gaps. The results suggested that gaps are within franciscana fundamental niche and, therefore, both gaps would be suitable for franciscana. However, the narrow of continental shelf seems to be the main factor inhibiting the presence of franciscana in these areas. Furthermore, the narrowing of continental shelf play a role to explain the genetic differentiation among FMAs. In the second and third chapters, the relationship between genetic distances and geographic and environmental distances were investigated both in a restrict and a broad scale. I found genetically distinct populations

across Atlantic spotted dolphin distribution based on mtDNA, that are probably resulting of Isolation-by-Distance and Isolation-by-Resistance related both with contemporary and past conditions (e.g. Last Glacial Maximum). Furthermore, I investigated population structure using genomic markers (Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms, SNPs) across Western South Atlantic, Caribbean and Eastern Atlantic. The results suggested at least three different populations, and therefore, confirmed previous hypothesis of an isolated population in the southeastern Brazil. Overall, I concluded that marine environment, especially the extension of continental shelf, bathymetry and sea surface temperature, are the main factors that explaining the distribution pattern of franciscana and Atlantic spotted dolphin in Brazil. Besides that, other process such as, social structure and phylopatry, as well as biogeographical process might be investigated in further studies. Franciscana is considered “Critically endangered” in Brazil, and Atlantic spotted dolphin has not enough data to determine its conservation status. Since both species are recorded in the most developed region of the country with high anthropic pressure, my results could help in future management and conservation plans for both species in a regional scale.

KEY-WORDS: ecological niche modeling, genomic, dolphins, franciscana, Atlantic spotted dolphin

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

A distribuição geográfica de uma espécie é a manifestação de complexas interações entre as características intrínsecas de um organismo (principalmente, suas tolerâncias ambientais, os recursos que necessita, história de vida, parâmetros demográficos e, capacidade de dispersão) com as características do ambiente (principalmente, aquelas que variam no espaço e tempo e que tem influência na limitação da distribuição de uma espécie)(BROWN; STEVENS; KAUFMAN, 1996). As consequências dessas interações influenciam todas as características da distribuição geográfica de uma espécie: tamanho, forma, limites, e estrutura interna (BROWN; STEVENS; KAUFMAN, 1996). Dessa forma, o tamanho da distribuição geográfica de uma espécie e como ela varia ao longo do tempo é uma das principais características ecológicas e evolutivas de uma espécie (BROWN; STEVENS; KAUFMAN, 1996). Além disso, o tamanho da distribuição geográfica de uma espécie é um forte preditor do risco de extinção de uma espécie, uma vez que espécies com distribuição restrita são mais vulneráveis que espécies com ampla distribuição (GASTON; FULLER, 2009a).

Descrever precisamente e entender os processos que determinam a distribuição dos organismos é um problema fundamental em ecologia, com importantes aplicações em conservação e manejo (GASTON; FULLER, 2009b; PEARSON, 2007). Uma vez que as espécies estão intimamente relacionadas com o ambiente que elas ocupam, compreender os padrões de distribuição de uma espécie e, se possível, delimitar sua distribuição são etapas fundamentais para seu completo conhecimento. Estudos biogeográficos possibilitam o entendimento de padrões que influenciam na divergência populacional e

especiação, além de auxiliar na identificação de processos que estruturam a diversidade de organismos em uma variedade de escalas geográficas e taxonômicas.

Os cetáceos são predadores marinhos de topo de cadeia com grande capacidade de dispersão. Cetáceos fazem parte da ordem Cetartiodactyla (AGNARSSON; MAY-COLLADO, 2008), que se caracterizam por uma variedade de formas e adaptações aos mais diversos ambientes aquáticos. Atualmente dentro de Cetacea são reconhecidas aproximadamente 90 espécies (Committee on Taxonomy 2014), que se distribuem amplamente no ambiente marinho, desde regiões tropicais a polares, com algumas espécies ocorrendo em bacias hidrográficas (MCGOWEN; SPAULDING; GATESY, 2009; STEEMAN et al., 2009). Cetacea está dividido em dois grupos monofiléticos: Mysticeti e Odontoceti (MCGOWEN; SPAULDING; GATESY, 2009). Mysticeti é representado pelas baleias com cerdas bucais, ao passo que Odontoceti é representado pelas “baleias com dentes” (*e.g.* orca, baleia-piloto), botos e golfinhos.

Através da perspectiva da história natural, os cetáceos são um grupo completamente adaptado ao meio aquático e, conseqüentemente tridimensionalmente conectados. Dessa forma, explicar a distribuição de animais marinhos é frequentemente desafiador nesse “mundo 3D”. Este desafio é particularmente real para os cetáceos, já que estes são animais geralmente grandes, altamente móveis, endotérmicos, homeotérmicos, e presumivelmente euritérmicos, podendo ser encontrados virtualmente em qualquer ambiente aquático. No entanto, mesmo com tantas adaptações muitos cetáceos exibem padrões claramente delimitados de distribuição, sendo poucos considerados “cosmopolitas” (DO AMARAL et al., 2018).

São muitos os fatores que afetam a distribuição dos cetáceos, entre eles: fatores demográficos (abundância, idade e estrutura sexual das populações, status reprodutivo e ciclo de vida dos indivíduos), fatores evolutivos (morfologia, fisiologia, adaptações comportamentais), fatores ecológicos (produção biológica, uso e distribuição de presas, predadores e competidores), fatores ambientais (temperatura da água, salinidade, densidade, profundidade da termoclina, tipo de substrato e batimetria) e fatores antropogênicos (poluição, capturas acidentais ou diretas, efeitos sonoros) (PALACIOS et al., 2013; REDFERN et al., 2006).

Para os grupos atuais de cetáceos está bem estabelecido que a distribuição das espécies relaciona-se intimamente tanto com características hidrográficas, quanto com características fisiográficas dos oceanos. Estes dados oceanográficos são os principais delimitadores das espécies de presas e conseqüentemente da distribuição dos cetáceos, uma vez que o habitat é primariamente delimitado pela disponibilidade de alimento (BAUMGARTNER; MULLIN; MAY, 2001). Portanto, a estrutura, comportamento e distribuição global de muitos cetáceos viventes está fortemente ligada a disponibilidade de alimento e, por sua vez, massas de água e padrões climáticos globais.

Relações significantes entre variáveis topográficas, como batimetria e gradientes de profundidade e a distribuição de populações de cetáceos foram observadas para muitas espécies de cetáceos (e.g. BAUMGARTNER; MULLIN; MAY, 2001; DANILEWICZ et al., 2010). A influência primária do meio físico sobre a distribuição dos cetáceos é devido, provavelmente, a agregação de presas. A distribuição de espécies de presas bentônicas ou demersais é diretamente limitada pela fisiografia através da profundidade e/ou seu gradiente e o tipo de substrato. Já para espécies de presas, como peixes pelágicos

ou cefalópodes, a fisiografia atua indiretamente, através de mecanismos que são induzidos pela topografia, como a ressurgência de nutrientes. Tais mecanismos levam ao aumento da produção primária e agregação de zooplâncton, levando ao aumento da produção secundária (PALACIOS et al., 2013; REDFERN et al., 2006).

As características hidrográficas, como temperatura da água, salinidade, concentração de clorofila *a*, entre outras, são importantes características que estão correlacionadas com a distribuição dos cetáceos, uma vez que podem secundariamente afetar a disponibilidade de presas. A temperatura e salinidade da água são consideradas importantes variáveis oceanográficas, uma vez que influenciam diretamente a vida marinha. E, a clorofila *a* representa o status trófico da superfície das águas (e.g., BALLANCE; PITMAN; FIEDLER, 2006; DAVIES, 1963; SÃO PEDRO et al., 2015; XU et al., 2013).

Nos últimos anos, o tradicional conceito de grandes e homogêneas populações de organismos marinhos tem sido transformado pela genética/genômica molecular (KELLEY et al., 2016). A ausência de barreiras físicas óbvias nos oceanos e o alto fluxo gênico entre populações desafiam os modelos de especiação alopátrica. No entanto, extensiva estruturação genética tem sido recuperada, sugerindo uma dinâmica complexa no recrutamento de espécies marinhas. Por esses motivos, a especiação marinha é considerada um paradoxo (BIERNE; BONHOMME; DAVID, 2003; HAUSER; CARVALHO, 2008).

A identificação de barreiras geográficas no ambiente marinho é um desafio, já que elas não são tão óbvias quanto no ambiente terrestre (DO AMARAL et al., 2018). Uma vez que muitas espécies marinhas apresentam ampla e rápida dispersão e assume-se

que as correntes e passagens oceânicas permitem uma constante mistura de *pools* gênicos, inibindo mudanças evolutivas. Assim, o requerimento de isolamento durante especiação alopátrica parece ser mais difícil de ser satisfeito nos oceanos (NORRIS, 2000; STEEMAN et al., 2009), embora a especiação também possa ocorrer em simpatria. No entanto, especializações intraespecíficas durante o forrageio parecem ser importantes delimitadores do fluxo gênico entre populações simpátricas e parapátricas (HOELZEL, 1998). Diversos estudos têm revelado estruturação populacional em fina escala como resultado de divergência ecológica em espécies consideradas cosmopolitas como ocorre, por exemplo, com os golfinhos-nariz-de-garrafa (*Tursiops truncatus*) e as orcas (*Orcinus orca*) (MORIN et al., 2015; SEGURA-GARCÍA et al., 2018; TEZANOS-PINTO et al., 2008).

Em relação aos cetáceos, espécies associadas a um habitat específico, forrageio, especializações e interações sociais e culturais, em combinação com processos demográficos como efeito fundador e contrações/expansões populacionais podem acarretar em relações descontínuas entre distâncias genética e geográficas ((FOOTE et al., 2016; MORIN et al., 2015; SEGURA-GARCÍA et al., 2018; VACHON; WHITEHEAD; FRASIER, 2018; WHITEHEAD, 2017). Por exemplo, diferenças e mudanças em correntes, ambientais, na distribuição de presas e comportamento foram já identificadas como fatores que influenciam a estrutura genética de algumas espécies de golfinhos da família Delphinidae (FOOTE et al., 2016; MÖLLER et al., 2011).

No hemisfério sul, a maior diversidade de cetáceos ocorre no Oceano Atlântico, onde pelo menos 57 espécies têm registros confirmados (DO AMARAL et al., 2018). Na costa brasileira, são registradas 46 espécies de cetáceos, sendo que nas regiões sul e

sudeste concentram-se o maior número de registros (n=44). Esta região de alta diversidade de cetáceos, localizada aproximadamente entre as latitudes de 20° e 33°S, engloba dois grandes sistemas oceanográficos a Zona de Convergência Subtropical e o “*Brazilian Bight*” (Figura 1).

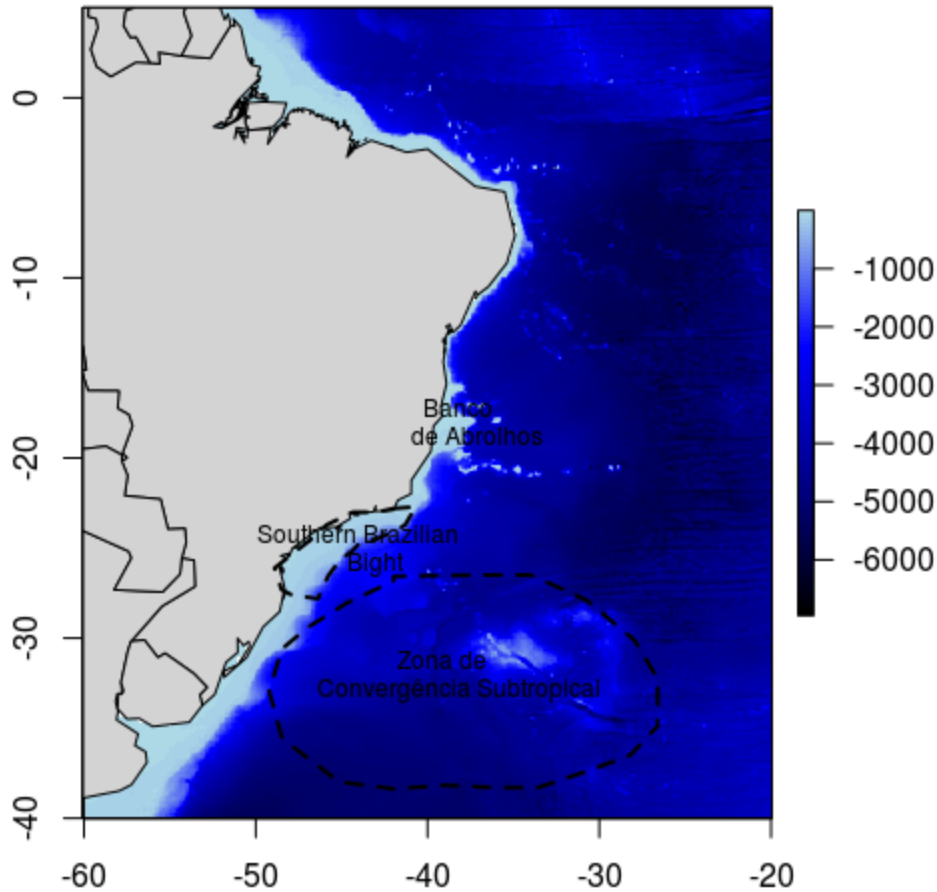


Figura 1. Mapa batimétrico do Atlântico Sul Ocidental com indicação do Banco de Abrolhos, *Southeast Brazilian Bight* e Zona de Convergência Subtropical.

A zona de convergência é resultado do encontro de duas correntes importantes: a Corrente do Brasil e a Corrente das Malvinas. A Corrente do Brasil tem origem na divisão da Corrente Sul Equatorial, que também forma a Corrente do Norte do Brasil, próximo dos 10°S (SILVEIRA et al., 2000). A Corrente do Brasil carrega a Água Tropical,

oligotrófica, ao longo da plataforma continental em direção ao Sul (EMÍLSSON, 1961; SILVEIRA et al., 2000). À medida que se dirige para o sul, a Água Tropical perde calor para atmosfera e se mistura com águas de baixa salinidade e temperatura, resultando na Água Subtropical, que se caracteriza pela salinidade entre 35 e 36 ppm e temperatura variando entre 10 e 20°C (EMÍLSSON, 1961). A Água Subtropical faz parte da Água Central do Atlântico Sul (EMÍLSSON, 1961), que é uma massa de água que flui para o norte em camadas profundas e pode alcançar a margem continental. Esta massa de água tem temperaturas maiores que 6°C e menores que 20°C, e salinidade entre 34,6 e 36 ppm (SILVEIRA et al., 2000).

A Corrente do Brasil encontra com a Corrente das Malvinas entre 33 e 40°S. A Corrente das Malvinas é uma corrente de contorno oeste subpolar, cuja origem está na Corrente Circumpolar Antártica (MATANO; SCHLAX; CHELTON, 1993). É caracterizada por carregar Água Subantártica (temperatura entre 4 e 15°C; salinidade de 33 ppm; rica em nutrientes) para o norte (SEELINGER; ODEBRECHT; CASTELLO, 1998). Ao se cruzarem, as duas correntes são forçadas em direção leste e originam a zona de Convergência Subtropical do Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental, uma das regiões oceânicas mais energéticas do mundo (MATANO; SCHLAX; CHELTON, 1993).

A zona de convergência entre a Corrente do Brasil e a Corrente das Malvinas apresenta uma variação sazonal, ocorrendo mais ao norte durante o inverno do que no verão austral. Este fenômeno tem consequências importantes tanto para o clima local quanto para as populações marinhas, porque marca o limite entre as águas quentes e as águas frias oriundas da Corrente Circumpolar Antártica (MATANO; SCHLAX; CHELTON, 1993).

Um exemplo da influência da Convergência Subtropical está em uma grande porção da plataforma continental e do talude entre o Cabo de Santa Marta (28°40'S) e Uruguai (34°40'S). Esta é uma zona de transição biogeográfica entre a Patagônia e o Brasil tropical. A dominância sazonal de diferentes massas de água sobre a plataforma e o talude continental condicionam a composição e abundância das espécies, a distribuição das comunidades e suas relações tróficas, além da produção biológica (SEELINGER; ODEBRECHT; CASTELLO, 1998).

O Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental apresenta outras áreas importantes para a vida marinha: o “*Southeast Brazilian Bight*” (SBB), entre Cabo Frio (23°S) e o Cabo de Santa Marta (28°S) (Emilsson, 1961). O SBB é também uma área de alta produtividade e presença de cetáceos, devido a ressurgência de águas ricas em nutrientes (CAMPOS; VELHOTE; DA SILVEIRA, 2000; CASTRO; MIRANDA, 1998).

Em relação ao relevo, a costa leste da América do Sul entre aproximadamente 20°S e 34°S apresenta variações na plataforma continental (CASTRO; MIRANDA, 1998; MAHIQUES; SOUSA; FURTADO, 2010) (Figura 1). Entre 5 e 16°S, a plataforma continental é bastante estreita, tendo de 20 a 50 km de extensão. Já entre 16 e 20°S, ocorre uma expansão da plataforma continental, que corresponde ao Banco de Abrolhos. A partir do Banco de Abrolhos até Cabo Frio (23°S), a plataforma continental fica estreita novamente. Além disso, a linha costa muda de orientação abruptamente de NE-SW para E-W. A partir deste ponto, a plataforma amplia novamente e correspondendo ao SBB (20 a 28°S). Na região do Cabo de Santa Marta (29°S), a quebra da plataforma continental ocorre próximo da costa, mas a partir desta localização a plataforma continental torna-se bastante ampla até o sul do continente.

Duas espécies de cetáceos apresentam padrões de distribuição peculiares ao longo da costa brasileira, muito provavelmente em resposta às condições hidrográficas e topográficas descritas acima. E, por isso, se tornaram o alvo deste estudo: a franciscana *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1844) e o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico *Stenella frontalis* (Cuvier, 1829). A primeira espécie é um golfinho de distribuição restrita do Brasil até a Argentina, que a ocorre primariamente na plataforma continental interna, raramente ultrapassando os 50 m de profundidade (CRESPO; HARRIS; GONZÁLEZ, 1998; DANILEWICZ et al., 2010). Já a segunda espécie é um golfinho de distribuição restrita ao Oceano Atlântico, ocupando principalmente a plataforma continental com registros esporádicos até os 1.000 m de profundidade (MORENO et al., 2005; PERRIN, 2009). Interessantemente, as duas espécies apresentam hiatos ao longo da sua distribuição no Brasil (BORDINO et al., 2002; DO AMARAL et al., 2015; MORENO et al., 2005). A seguir apresenta-se uma breve descrição das duas espécies.

Franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvillei*)

Pontoporia é uma das linhagens de golfinhos de rio que habitaram e se diversificaram em um complexo sistema fluvial-marinho da América do Sul que existiu durante períodos de nível do mar elevado, registrados no Mioceno (HAMILTON et al., 2001). No entanto, esta foi a única linhagem que se dispersou para o ambiente marinho a partir do recuo da Bacia do Paraná, colonizando a zona de plataforma interna ao norte e ao sul do estuário do Rio de La Plata na América do Sul (HAMILTON et al., 2001).

Desta linhagem, a única espécie existente é a franciscana ou toninha (*Pontoporia blainvillei*) que é encontrada a partir de Itaúnas, Espírito Santo, Brasil, até Golfo Nuevo, Península Valdés, Argentina) (CRESPO; HARRIS; GONZÁLEZ, 1998; SICILIANO; DI

BENEDITTO; RAMOS, 2002). A distribuição da espécie não é contínua e dois hiatos são registrados no sudeste no Brasil. Até o momento, considera-se que o hiato norte é de Regência, Espírito Santo (19°40'S) até Barra do Itabapoana, Rio de Janeiro (21°18'S); e o hiato sul é de Macaé, Rio de Janeiro, (22°25'S) até Ilha Grande, Rio de Janeiro (23°09'S) (Figura 2).

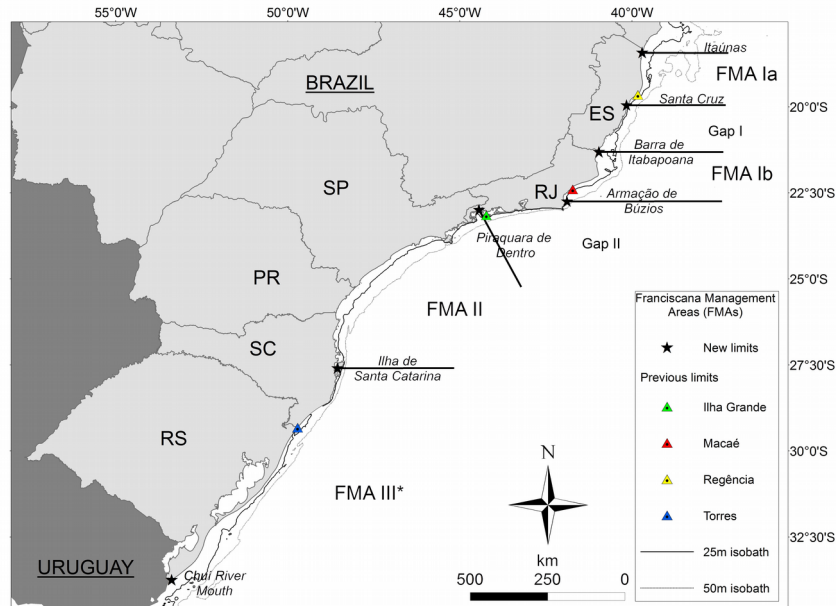


Figura 2. Mapa de distribuição da franciscana com os limites considerados até o momento de cada área de manejo (Franciscana Management Areas, FMAs) e hiatos, bem como os novos limites propostos no capítulo 1.

Atualmente, a franciscana é considerada o golfinho mais ameaçado da América do Sul. Seu status de conservação é “Vulnerável” na Lista Vermelha de espécies ameaçadas da União Internacional para Conservação da Natureza (*The IUCN Red List*) (ZERBINI et al., 2017); regionalmente, a espécie é listada oficialmente como “ criticamente Ameaçada”(MMA 2014), devido principalmente a capturas acidentais em rede de pesca (FRAINER; HUGGENBERGER; MORENO, 2015; PRADO; SECCHI; KINAS, 2013). Para promover a conservação da espécie, Secchi et al. (2003) propuseram quatro

unidades de manejo (*Franciscana Management Areas*, FMAs) ao longo da distribuição da franciscana: FMA I e FMA II localizadas exclusivamente no sudeste e sul do Brasil, FMA III entre sul do do Brasil e Uruguai, e FMA IV ao longo da Argentina. A divisão da espécie nestas áreas de manejo foi posteriormente suportada por diferentes tipos de dados (poluentes, dieta, morfologia externa, parasitas) (ALONSO et al., 2012; BARBATO et al., 2012; COSTA-URRUTIA et al., 2012; CUNHA et al., 2014; TORRE; ALONSO; MARTÍNEZ, 2012). Recentemente, novos estudos sugerem a reformulação destas FMAs, no sentido de incluir subdivisões (e.g. MENDEZ et al., 2010). Por exemplo, a FMA I já é formalmente reconhecida em duas unidades de manejo distintas separadas pelo hiato norte (CUNHA et al., 2014). Também foi proposto que a FMA I constitui uma Unidade Evolutiva Significante (*Evolutionary Significant Unit*, *ESU*) distinta de todas as demais FMAs (CUNHA et al., 2014).

Golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico (*Stenella frontalis*)

Delphinidae é a mais diversa família de cetáceos existentes e apresenta uma variedade de formas de crânio, dentes e adaptações corporais que refletem suas dietas variadas e métodos de locomoção sendo, portanto, animais ecologicamente versáteis (BARNES, 1990; STEEMAN et al., 2009). Esta é a família de golfinhos que apresenta o maior número de espécies de mamíferos marinhos, atualmente existindo 38 espécies reconhecidas/válidas (CABALLERO et al., 2007; GEISLER et al., 2011; MCGOWEN, 2011; WICKERT et al., 2016). Os delfínídeos são altamente diversos em águas tropicais e em latitudes quentes a temperadas, onde são encontrados diversos gêneros: *Delphinus*, *Sotalia*, *Sousa*, *Stenella*, *Steno*, *Tursiops* (MCGOWEN, 2011).

O golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico (*Stenella frontalis*) é um golfinho endêmico das águas tropicais, subtropicais e temperadas do Oceano Atlântico (PERRIN, 2009; PERRIN et al., 1987) e, diferentemente das demais espécies do gênero, sua distribuição parece ser mais restrita à águas relativamente rasas (PERRIN, 2009). A espécie é altamente variável geograficamente, levando a confusões taxonômicas e má identificação dos espécimes, já que também apresenta o padrão de pintas pelo corpo e muitas vezes é confundido com o golfinho-pintado-pantropical (*S. attenuata*). Na Lista Vermelha da IUCN, a espécie apresenta dados insuficientes e a maior ameaça à espécie é captura acidental ao longo de sua distribuição (HAMMOND et al., 2012).

A espécie é encontrada em águas quentes do Oceano Atlântico, principalmente sobre a plataforma continental, mas também pode ser encontrada esporadicamente em águas profundas. Ocorre também nas ilhas oceânicas dos Açores e Canárias. Existem formas menores e menos pintadas que habitam águas oceânicas pelágicas e, estes golfinhos juntamente com aqueles que ocorrem em ilhas, tem suas preferências ambientais menos conhecidas. No geral, a espécie tem uma distribuição geográfica complexa, na qual ao menos seis distintos morfótipos foram identificados (PERRIN et al., 1987). Estudos genéticos baseados em marcadores mitocondriais e nucleares identificaram dois *clusters* correspondentes aos que foram previamente descritos como os morfótipos costeiros e oceânicos ao longo do oeste do Atlântico Norte e Golfo do México. Além disso, o *cluster* costeiro parece estar sub-estruturado em três grupos que parecem estar correlacionados com distintos requerimentos ambientais (VIRICEL; ROSEL, 2014).

MORENO et al. (2005) observou que os registros de *Stenella frontalis* no Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental ocorrem ao norte de 6°S e entre 21 e 33°S. Existindo, portanto, uma grande área no Nordeste do Brasil (aproximadamente 1.500 km), entre 6 e 18°S, sem a ocorrência da espécie (DANILEWICZ et al., 2013).

Análises de modelo de nicho ecológico indicam a ausência de condições ambientais ótimas para os golfinhos-pintados-do-Atlântico a partir do Banco de Abrolhos, e inclusive ao norte de 6°S (DO AMARAL et al., 2015) (Figura 3). Provavelmente o estreita da plataforma continental brasileira desde o Banco de Abrolhos (~18°S) até 6°S explica o hiato da distribuição da espécie na costa brasileira. No Golfo do México, o estreitamento da plataforma continental foi considerado uma barreira física para a espécie, causando uma diminuição no habitat requerido preferencialmente pelo morfótipo considerado costeiro (VIRICEL; ROSEL, 2014).

Segundo MORENO et al., (2005), a distribuição descontínua desta espécie na costa do Brasil poderia indicar a existência de uma população no sul/sudeste do Brasil distinta e isolada daqueles animais que ocorrem no nordeste brasileiro e de outras regiões do Atlântico (e.g. Caribe e Atlântico Norte). Análises morfológicas, genéticas e evidências ecológicas suportam a hipótese de que os golfinhos-pintados-do-Atlântico que ocupam a porção sul/sudeste da costa brasileira podem, de fato, constituir uma linhagem evolutiva distinta (CABALLERO et al., 2013; DO AMARAL et al., 2015; MORENO, 2002). Esta população estaria, portanto, distribuída entre as regiões sul e sudeste da Costa Brasileira onde o ambiente marinho preferencial da espécie é altamente impactado por ações antrópicas das mais variadas (e.g. poluição, capturas acidentais em redes de pesca, exploração de óleo e gás, etc., portos, tráfego de embarcações), uma vez que esta região é

a economicamente mais desenvolvida do país (MÉNDEZ-FERNANDEZ et al., 2018; SANTOS et al., 2018).

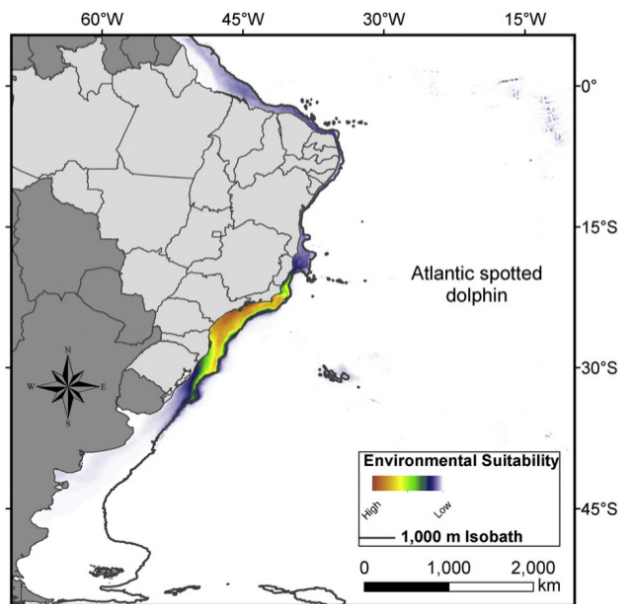


Figura 3. Mapa da distribuição potencial do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico no Atlântico Sul Ocidental. Retirado de DO AMARAL et al., 2015.

OBJETIVOS

Objetivo geral

Investigar a influência do ambiente marinho no padrão de distribuição e na estrutura genética de duas espécies de golfinhos: a franciscana e o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico com ênfase na costa brasileira.

Objetivos específicos

- 1) Revisar a distribuição da franciscana no Brasil, incluindo uma atualização dos limites das FMAs I, II e III e, também dos hiatos;
- 2) Investigar os fatores que potencialmente explicam a ausência da franciscana nos hiatos através da modelagem de nicho ecológico;
- 3) Investigar a estrutura genética do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico ao longo de toda sua distribuição, usando a região controle do DNA mitocondrial (mtDNA);
- 4) Investigar a influência do ambiente marinho na diferenciação genética do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico através de metodologias relacionadas a “*Seascape genetics*”, uma adaptação da genética de paisagem para o ambiente marinho;
- 5) Investigar a estrutura genética do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico com ênfase nos indivíduos que ocorrem ao longo da costa brasileira através da análise de Nucleotídeos de Polimorfismo Único (*Singe Nucleotide Polymorphism*, SNPs) obtidos através do sequenciamento de nova geração.

ESTRUTURA DA TESE

A tese é composta por três capítulos que serão apresentados na forma de manuscrito e foram escritos na língua inglesa. Espera-se que os manuscritos sejam submetidos o mais brevemente possível, com exceção do capítulo 1 que já está publicado. Os periódicos a qual cada manuscrito foi formatado é indicado no início de cada capítulo. Os três capítulos que compõem a tese são referentes aos seguintes manuscritos:

Capítulo I

“Reassessment of the franciscana Pontoporia blainvillei (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1844) distribution and niche characteristics in Brazil”

Artigo publicado no *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*:
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jembe.2018.07.010>.

Neste capítulo, atingiram-se os objetivos específicos 1 e 2 que visavam uma revisão e atualização da distribuição das áreas de manejo da franciscana (FMA) ao longo do Brasil, e também dos limites dos hiatos. Além disso, procurou-se através da aplicação de diferentes métodos esclarecer a ausência da franciscana nestas áreas com base nas diferenças das características ambientais destas áreas em relação às áreas onde a espécie é registrada.

No total, 788 registros de franciscana foram compilados ao longo de sua distribuição no Brasil. Estes dados foram utilizados para confirmar os limites das FMAs propostos por especialistas e, também novos limites para os hiatos de distribuição foram determinados: o hiato norte estende-se da desembocadura do Piraquê-Açu (19°57'S), Santa Cruz,

Espírito Santo até Barra de Itabapoana (21°18'S), Rio de Janeiro; o hiato sul estende-se de Armação dos Búzios (22°44'S) até Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S), Rio de Janeiro. Análises de nicho ecológico sugerem que os hiatos fazem parte do nicho fundamental da franciscana sendo, portanto, relativamente adequados para a espécie em termos de salinidade, temperatura, turbidez e profundidade. No entanto, o estreitamento da plataforma continental parece ser o principal fator que explica a ausência da espécie nos hiatos e, inclusive poderia explicar a diferenciação genética entre algumas FMAs. Aparentemente, uma plataforma continental estreita poderia intensificar as interações bióticas levando, por exemplo, a maior competição por alimento e/ou causando uma limitação geográfica para manutenção de tamanho populacional mínimo viável em períodos de tempo presente ou passado.

Capítulo II

“Seascape genetics of the Atlantic spotted dolphin (Stenella frontalis) based on mtDNA control region”

Neste capítulo, cumpriram-se os objetivos 3 e 4 citados anteriormente. Uma vez que foram encontradas populações distintas geneticamente ao longo de toda distribuição do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico baseado nas análises de mtDNA, investigou-se a relação das distâncias genéticas com diferentes tipos de distâncias geográficas, de resistência e ambientais.

Através da análise de 545 sequências da região controle do mtDNA (incluindo sequências já publicadas e dados inéditos), foram indentificadas diferentes populações no Atlântico Norte Ocidental e Golfo do México, além de uma população oceânica que inclui

indivíduos que habitam os arquipélagos do Atlântico Oriental e, também as águas oceânicas do Atlântico Norte Ocidental. Indivíduos que ocorrem no sul/sudeste do Brasil parecem formar uma população distinta, exibindo baixos níveis de diversidade genética de acordo com os resultados obtidos. Análises de paisagem genética para o ambiente marinho (“*Seascape genetics*”) indicam certo grau de Isolamento por Distância e Isolamento por Resistência, relacionados tanto com condições ambientais contemporâneas quanto do passado (Último Glacial Máximo). Além disso, sugere-se que outros processos podem estar envolvidos na diferenciação das populações como, por exemplo, estrutura social e filopatria.

Capítulo III

“Population genomics of the Atlantic spotted dolphins (Stenella frontalis) across the Atlantic Ocean”

Neste capítulo, cumpriu-se o objetivo 5 citado anteriormente. Considerando-se o impacto das técnicas genômicas que aumentam a qualidade, resolução e confiabilidade das análises genéticas, neste capítulo utilizou-se de uma destas técnicas disponíveis para investigar a estrutura populacional do golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico ao longo do Caribe, Ilhas Canárias Brasil e Uruguai. Além disso, a relação da estruturação genética com o ambiente marinho foi investigada.

Dados genômicos foram gerados para indivíduos coletados no Atlântico Sul Ocidental (Brasil e Uruguai), Caribe (Colômbia e Ilha Guadalupe) e Atlântico Oriental (Ilhas Canárias). Estes dados foram utilizados para testar padrões de diferenciação genética entre estas regiões e, principalmente, avaliar a distinção genética dos indivíduos que

ocorrem no Atlântico Sul Ocidental. As análises indicam ao menos a existência de três populações: uma no sudeste do Brasil, uma na Colômbia e uma oceânica. No entanto, os níveis de diferenciação recuperados foram baixos, sendo necessários mais amostras e, principalmente, amostragem em outros locais para aumentar o poder estatístico das análises e melhor delineamento dos limites populacionais regionais. Os resultados também indicam que a similaridade genética está correlacionada com a geografia; mas o ambiente marinho também parece ter alguma influência na estrutura genética, principalmente a profundidade e a temperatura. Finalmente, nossos dados suportam a hipótese de uma população isolada no sudeste do Brasil.

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CAPÍTULO I

* Conforme regras do *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*.

Reassessment of the franciscana *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1844) distribution and niche characteristics in Brazil

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ABSTRACT

The franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvillei*) is the most threatened small cetacean of South America. The species is endemic to coastal waters of the western South Atlantic Ocean, where it is distributed from Itaúnas (Brazil) to Golfo San Matias (Argentina). Its range was divided in four Franciscana Management Areas (FMAs) for conservation purposes. However, the distribution of the franciscana is not continuous along its range, with two hiatuses proposed in southeastern Brazilian coast. The absence of franciscana records in these regions has been confirmed by multiple years of research, however the reasons for this discontinuous distribution is not well understood. In this study, information on the distribution of the franciscana in south and southeastern Brazil is updated and new limits for FMAs are proposed. NicheA 3.0 software was used to investigate the environmental suitability of distributional gaps in relation to four weakly correlated, allegedly relevant descriptors of franciscana's distribution. In total, 788 records from dedicated aerial and boat surveys and bycatch were used to verify and to confirm the new FMAs limits proposed by franciscana's experts previously. The distributional gaps were reshaped and defined as following: Gap I from Piraquê-Açu River Mouth, Santa Cruz (19°57'S) in the state of Espírito Santo to Barra de Itabapoana (21°18'S) in the state of Rio de Janeiro; and Gap II from Armação dos Búzios (22°44'S) to Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S) in Rio de Janeiro. The ecological niche model indicated that distributional gaps are inside franciscana's fundamental niche, and are relatively suitable in terms of salinity,

temperature, diffuse attenuation and bathymetry. However, the narrow of continental shelf seems to be the main factor explaining the absence of franciscanas in the distributional gaps as well as for the differentiation of some of the FMAs proposed. Narrowness of continental shelf seems to be intensifying the dynamics of biotic interactions promoting food competition for example, and/or causing geographic limitation to maintain minimal viable population size in present or past times periods.

KEY-WORDS: cetaceans, distributional gaps, environmental suitability, geographic range, western South Atlantic Ocean

HIGHLIGHTS:

1. The franciscana dolphin is endemic and the most threatened small cetacean of South America
2. We analyzed its distribution in Brazil, mainly in relation to its distributional gaps
3. Narrowness of the continental shelf seems to explain the absence of franciscana within the gaps
4. Loss of shelf habitat could intensify biotic interactions (predation/competition)
5. Historical factors could also play a role to explain this biogeographical pattern

1. INTRODUCTION

The franciscana *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1844) is the most threatened small cetacean of South America (Secchi et al., 2003a). Mortality in gillnets have been impacting franciscana dolphins throughout their range for at least 50 years (e.g. Ott et al., 2002; Prado et al. 2013, 2016; Secchi et al., 2003a, 2003b), compromising

the viability of its populations (Kinas, 2002; Secchi, 2006). The franciscana faces a high risk of extinction and is listed as “Vulnerable” on a global scale by IUCN (Zerbini et al., 2017), while regionally in Brazil it is officially listed as “Critically Endangered” (MMA 2014).

The franciscana is endemic to coastal waters of Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina. Currently, the species occurs from Itaúnas (18°25’S), in the state of Espírito Santo, southeastern Brazil (Siciliano et al., 2002) to Golfo San Matias (41°10’S), Rio Negro, Argentina (Crespo et al., 1998). Early studies showed evidence that franciscana is not continuously distributed along its range in Brazil (Siciliano et al., 2002). Many years of bycatch monitoring, beach surveys for stranded animals and aerial surveys confirms the existence of two distributional gaps: (1) from Regência (19°40’S), in Espírito Santo, to Barra do Itabapoana (21°18’S), in the state of Rio de Janeiro, namely northern distributional gap (Gap I); and (2) from Macaé (22°25’S) to Ilha Grande (23°09’S), in Rio de Janeiro, namely southern distributional gap (Gap II) (e.g. Azevedo et al., 2002; Danilewicz et al., 2012; de Moura et al., 2009). Systematic and long-term monitoring has confirmed the absence of franciscanas, mainly in the central portion of these gaps (e.g. de Moura et al., 2009). However, there is no consensus about the exact boundaries of the gaps (e.g. Azevedo et al., 2002; Siciliano et al., 2015) which play an important role in the delineation of management units for the species (Secchi et al., 2003a).

Previous studies revealed the existence of geographical population structure based on external morphology and genetic markers (e.g. Higa et al., 2002; Ott, 2002; Pinedo, 1995; Ramos et al., 2002; Secchi et al., 1998). After applying a multi-methodological approach for identifying stock discreteness, Secchi et al. (2003a) divided the

franciscana's range into four Franciscana Management Areas (FMAs) (please see Fig. 1 of the refereed article). FMA I and FMA II are located exclusively in southeastern and southern Brazil, FMA III includes southern Brazil and Uruguay, and FMA IV encompasses the range of the species in Argentina. These management divisions are supported by recent data on pollutant loads, diet, external morphology and parasites (e.g. Alonso et al., 2012; Barbato et al., 2012; Costa-Urrutia et al., 2012; de la Torre et al., 2012; Hoss et al., 2017). New studies have suggested the need of reformulation of the former FMA's subdivisions (e.g. Gariboldi et al., 2015, 2016; Mendez et al., 2010), including the separation of FMA I in two distinct management units (FMA Ia and FMA Ib) separated by the northern distributional gap (Anonymous, 2015; Cunha et al., 2014).

The increased effort from properly designed aerial surveys to estimate franciscana's abundance (e.g. Danilewicz et al., 2010, 2012; Zerbini et al., 2011) and long-term projects evaluating franciscana bycatch (see Material and Methods) have provided many georeferenced at-sea records for the species. These data have been useful to characterise the distributional ecology of franciscanas' populations in a comprehensive manner and can be used to perform ecological niche modeling in order to investigate factors that influence their distribution.

Correlative species distribution models are based on algorithms that estimate ecological niches and explore potential distributional areas by assessing relationships between species occurrences and environmental information (Qiao et al., 2016). Niche modeling approaches dramatically expanded in recent years and currently several techniques and toolkits are available (Phillips et al., 2006, Qiao et al., 2016). In addition, these techniques have been widely used in studies on the distribution of cetaceans (e.g. do

Amaral et al., 2015; Palacios et al., 2013; Rossi-Santos and Oliveira, 2016), including estimates of the potential franciscana distribution (Gomez and Cassini, 2015).

Given the high risk faced by the franciscana, especially the extremely high risk of extinction observed regionally in Brazil (Rocha-Campo et al., 2010), and the importance of distributional ecology to either the process of risk assessment and conservation planning, the aim of this study is (1) to update information on the franciscana distribution in Brazil, including a review of FMAs I, II and III as well as the distributional gaps between them, and (2) to investigate the factors that potentially explain the existence of gaps in the range of the franciscana.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Study area

The study area includes the Brazilian continental shelf from 18°S to 34°S, including only those waters up to the 50m isobath (Fig. 1A). The area is characterized by different physical oceanographic processes. Castro and Miranda (1998) therefore proposed a segmentation of the Brazilian continental shelf into six zones, of which three zones are encompassed by the study area: Abrolhos – Campos Region (15°S – 23°S), South Brazilian Bight (23°S – 28°30'S) and Southern Brazilian Shelf (28°30'S – 34°S) (Fig. 1B). These areas are characterized by different features in relation to topography, productivity, sea surface temperatures and salinity due to upwelling, land runoff from several estuaries and convergence of currents (Figs 1D - F). Conversely to Castro and Miranda (1998), who proposed a division of the Brazilian continental shelf for practical

reasons, Mahiques et al. (2010) suggest a division in terms of geology, bathymetry, declivities and the presence of canyons and channels (Fig. 1C).

2.2. Franciscana dataset

Franciscana records used in the present analyses corresponded to observations of live animals *in situ* through dedicated aerial and boat surveys or to specimen entangled in coastal gillnets fisheries in Brazil (for which precise location data were available). Only data from the marine environment were considered, therefore franciscana records previously observed in estuarine areas such as Babitonga Bay (Cremer and Simões-Lopes, 2005, 2008) and Paranaguá Bay (Santos et al., 2009) in southern Brazil were not included. Only sightings data from dedicated surveys and georeferenced data from bycatch were used in the present analysis in order to estimate franciscana's fundamental ecological niche. Sampling effort and potential biases associated with non-uniform sampling effort, especially those related to fishery monitoring, have not been considered in this study.

Data from aerial surveys were obtained through dedicated line transect studies designed to assess franciscana distribution and to estimate abundance (details in Danilewicz et al., 2010, 2012; Zerbini et al., 2010). Bycatch data were obtained directly by some of the authors via onboard surveys or logbook information provided by reliable and well known captains of fishing vessels operating along the Brazilian coast from 1992 to 2004 (Danilewicz, 2007; Danilewicz et al., 2009; Ott, 1998; Secchi et al., 1997, 2004). Additional records were obtained from peer-reviewed literature (Di Benedetto, 2003; Di

Beneditto et al., 2001; Flores, 2009; Moreno et al., 2003; Santos and Netto, 2005; Santos et al., 2002, 2009; Siciliano et al., 2002).

2.3. Environmental dataset

Ten environmental variables that are considered to influence cetaceans distributions (e.g. Baumgartner et al., 2001; Palacios et al., 2013; Redfern et al., 2006) and specifically franciscanas (Gomez and Cassini, 2015; Siciliano et al., 2002) were initially selected to describe the characteristics of the franciscana's habitats and distributional gaps (Table 1).

Environmental information was obtained from Bio-Oracle (Tyberghein et al., 2012) and MARSPEC (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013). These public databases provide a set of user-friendly and high-resolution GIS data layers of the ocean and were designed for species distribution modeling applications (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013; Tyberghein et al., 2012). The layers consist of global coverage satellite-based and *in situ* measured data interpolated and assembled at an annual temporal resolution and at different spatial resolutions (1km and 9km from MARSPEC and Bio-Oracle datasets, respectively). Geophysical layers were derived from the SRTM30_PLUS high resolution bathymetry dataset (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013), and bioclimatic layers were derived from a long term dataset from NOAA's World Ocean Atlas and NASA's MODIS satellite imagery (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013; Tyberghein et al., 2012; for more details about environmental dataset access: <http://www.marspec.org/> and <http://www.oracle.ugent.be/>). All environmental layers were processed in ArcGIS 10.2.2 (ESRI, 2013) in datum WGS 84, using the same spatial extent (18°S to 34°S) at a 9km resolution.

In order to assess the shelf habitat available for franciscanas in the study area, distance to shore data was obtained from distance to shore layer, in which we extracted its values at 0.5° latitudinal intervals along the 25m and 50m isobaths.

2.4. Environmental analyses

Non-independence of predictor variables is a well-known problem in ecology (e.g. Dormann et al., 2013), and it is recommended a preliminary selection of layers in order to avoid redundant data layers in ecological niche analysis (e.g. Qiao et al., 2016). Therefore, correlation of environmental layers was assessed, and factorial analyses were used to select variables with low multicollinearity. Collinearity analyses were conducted in R Statistical Software version 3.2.4 (R Development Core Team, 2016) using the *corrplot* package (Wei and Simko, 2016) on all variables presented in Table 1, with the exception of distance to shore.

Non-parametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn tests) were conducted to provide a preliminary assessment of potential differences between occupied and unoccupied areas with respect to environmental variables selected by the factorial analysis. In order to comply with the assumptions of independence and randomization of sampling required by nonparametric tests, sample points randomly distributed throughout the study areas were used. In a first step, polygons were designed representing areas adjacent to the gaps (i.e. FMA Ia, FMA Ib and FMA II) and areas not occupied by franciscana (i.e. gaps). The polygons were constrained longitudinally by the 50m isobath, and latitudinally by the limits for the new FMAs proposed here (see results section). In a second step, a number of random points within each polygon were generated taking into account the proportions of areas (100 points were created within the polygon with the smallest area and so forth).

Data were then grouped as “Area occupied by Franciscana (AOF)”, Gap I, and Gap II. AOF corresponded to the region between Itaúnas in Espírito Santo, and the center of Ilha de Santa Catarina in the state of Santa Catarina, without a discrimination of FMAs and the exclusion of distributional gaps. Finally, significant differences were tested among the medians of the variables identified by the factorial analysis using a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the Dunn test. All statistical tests were performed in software R Statistical Software version 3.2.4 (R Development Core Team, 2016) using the `nortest` (Gross and Ligges, 2015) and the `dunn` (Dinno 2017) packages. A significance level of $\alpha=0.05$ was adopted and the p-value for multiple comparisons was adjusted using the Bonferroni method.

2.5. Ecological niche analysis

NicheA 3.0 (Qiao et al., 2016) was used to investigate if the distributional gaps are consistent with franciscana’s fundamental ecological niche. NicheA software generates ecological niche models following the Hutchinsonian approach of an n-dimensional space, and projects these models in geographic space in the form of continuous species suitability models (for details, see Qiao et al., 2016). NicheA assumes that a species’ fundamental ecological is convex in shape, and thus can be operationalized as minimum-volume ellipsoids (MVE) (Qiao et al., 2016). Similar to others modeling approaches (e.g. Maxent – Phillips et al., 2006), MVE could be influenced by sampling biases; however, MVE is only influenced by bias in the periphery of the cloud points. If there are sampling biases that affect the concentrations of points in the interior of the cloud, those will have no effect (A. Townsend Peterson 2017, personal communication). This means that MVE is not influenced by the density of the points (Huiji Qiao 2017,

personal communication). Considering the biased nature of the franciscana data set (e.g. uncorrected for effort), NicheA was deemed the most suitable tool to investigate the characteristics of the franciscana's distribution. In order to better represent the franciscana's fundamental niche, all types of records (bycatch, aerial and boats surveys) were pooled.

Finally, MVEs, representing the franciscanas' fundamental ecological niche, were projected to a habitat suitability map. For the MVE, continuous values of suitability were assessed as the Euclidean distance to the niche centroid (Qiao et al., 2016). The most suitable areas are those closest to the niche centroid (with values close to 1), while the most unsuitable are those areas further away from the niche centroid (with values close to 0); areas totally outside of species niche were set to -1 suitability.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Franciscana distribution update

In total, 788 records of franciscanas in Brazil were compiled from Itaúnas (18°25'S) in Espírito Santo to Chuí River Mouth (33°44'S) in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, located on the Brazil-Uruguay border (Fig. 2). Most of the data were collected between 1992 and 2014. Bycatch data represented 78% of these records, sightings from aerial surveys represented 20.9% and sightings from boat surveys accounted for only 1.1% of the overall data (records for each FMA are summarized in Table 2).

Based on the records compiled, a reassessment of the limits of the FMAs and the distributional gaps were proposed (Table 2, Fig. 3). The distributional gaps were defined as following: Gap I is located from Santa Cruz (19°57'S) to Barra de Itabapoana

(21°18'S) in Espírito Santo State; Gap II is located from Armação dos Búzios (22°44'S) to Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S) in Rio de Janeiro.

3.2. Environmental layers analyses

From nine layers initially considered to have some influence in the franciscana's distribution, four pairs of environmental layers exhibited correlation coefficient higher than 0.7 (Fig. 4). Therefore, the following environmental layers were selected based on the highest value of each factor of factorial analyses (Table 3): Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity, and Bathymetry.

Polygons representing areas adjacent to the gaps (i.e. FMA Ia, FMA Ib and FMA II) and areas not occupied by franciscana (i.e. gaps) are presented in Fig. 5. Considering the proportions of areas, the number of random points created for each polygon is presented in Table 4.

Differences between AOF and Gap I were statistically significant for Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6A), and Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6B). Differences between AOF and Gap II were statistically significant for Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6B) and Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6C). Gap I and Gap II were statistically differentiated in relation to Mean Annual of Sea Surface Salinity (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6A), Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6B) and Mean Annual of Diffuse Attenuation (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6C). Bathymetry was not statistically different among the areas analyzed (Table 5, Fig. 6D). In general, Gap I had the highest median of Mean Annual of Sea Surface Salinity; Gap II had the highest

median of Mean Annual of Diffuse Attenuation; and, AOF had the highest median of Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature.

3.3. Ecological niche analysis

The franciscana's Minimum-Volume Ellipsoid (MVE, representing the franciscana's fundamental ecological niche) was estimated using 788 occurrence records in a three-dimensional environmental space represented by Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity, and Bathymetry in NicheA.

The franciscana's distribution model (i.e. the MVE projected in geographic space) revealed that the waters in the continental shelf up to 25m were closest to niche centroid (values close to 1), therefore these areas corresponded to the most suitable habitat for franciscanas (Fig. 7). On the other hand, water depths between 25m and 50m isobaths exhibited a progressive decrease of environmental suitability and were more distant from franciscana niche centroids (values close to 0). Gap I and Gap II exhibited values of distance to niche centroid lower than 0.75.

3.4. Shelf habitat availability

The 25m isobath was very close to the shore in the areas corresponding to distributional gaps (i.e. very little area with shallow waters), while the areas suitable for franciscanas were characterized by shallow waters (up to the 50m isobath) up to quite some distance from the coast. In the Gap I, 25m isobaths were identified between 5km and 30km of coastal line. In the Gap II, the 25m isobaths were at less than 10 km from shore, as close as just 1km from the coast line at 23°S (close to Arraial do Cabo in Rio de Janeiro; see Fig. 8).

The location of the 50m isobath was similar to those of 25m, being closest to shore in the areas corresponding to the gaps. In the Gap I, 50m isobaths was more than 30km far from coast line. In the Gap II, 50m isobaths was positioned closest to shore, being less than 1 km far from shore at 23°S (Fig. 8). In addition to the distributional gaps, a marked narrowing of continental shelf is also observed around the Ilha de Santa Catarina (27°35'S) (Fig. 8).

4. DISCUSSION

The comprehensive review of the franciscana's occurrences along Brazilian coastal waters support the boundaries of FMAs as well as distributional gaps proposed by franciscanas' experts recently (see Anonymous, 2015; Ott et al., 2015). In relation to previous studies (for instance Secchi et al., 2003a; Siciliano et al., 2002), FMA Ia was extended further south from Regência (19°40'S) to Santa Cruz (19°57'S) in Espírito Santo; the southern limit of FMA Ib was relocated southward from Macaé (22°25'S) to Armação de Búzios (22°44'S) in Rio de Janeiro, due to the stranding of a live animal in the locality of Manguinhos, Armação de Búzios, reported by Siciliano et al. (2015). The northern limit of FMA II was established as Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S) in Rio de Janeiro, while the southern limit was dislocated further northward from Torres (29°20'S) to the center of Ilha de Santa Catarina (27°35'S) in Santa Catarina, based on previous genetic studies (Cunha et al., 2014; Ott, 2002) (see Fig. 3). These changes on FMAs have impact direct on the extension of distributional gaps, which by its turn were reduced in relation to previous studies (Azevedo et al., 2002; Danilewicz et al., 2012; de Moura et al., 2009; Secchi et al., 2003a; Siciliano et al., 2002).

In general, the habitat suitability model presented here confirmed the well-known distribution of franciscanas (Danilewicz et al., 2009), indicating high environmental suitability for the species mainly up to the 25m isobath (Fig. 7). However, this highly suitable environment could extend up to 50m in the southernmost portion of franciscanas' distribution in Brazil as already indicated by Danilewicz et al. (2009). The ecological niche analyses also showed that both distributional gaps seem suitable for franciscanas at some level and they are inside of the fundamental niche of species.

The resulting map of environmental suitability generated here is consistent with that proposed by Gomez and Cassini (2015), where habitat suitability map indicated high suitability for franciscanas in waters up to approximately 30m depth from Brazil to Argentina (Gomez and Cassini, 2015). Even though Gomez and Cassini (2015) did not include bathymetry as a predictor, their resulting map agreed with the IUCN map. On the other hand, the franciscana's IUCN map was proposed by experts based on the 30m isobath to establish the eastern border of franciscanas' distribution. In contrast to Gomez and Cassini (2015), the habitat suitability model proposed here indicated some level of suitability for franciscana in the gaps.

Bathymetry and distance to shore are considered important predictors of franciscanas' distribution (e.g. Danilewicz et al., 2009; Secchi and Ott, 1999), since individuals are rarely recorded beyond 50m isobaths (Danilewicz et al., 2009). However, the present analysis did not indicate that bathymetry differs statistically among the area occupied by franciscanas and the gaps (Fig. 6D). On the other hand, the analysis of shelf habitat availability indeed revealed that the continental platform is extremely narrow in the gaps, reaching just 1km of distance from shore at 23°S, for instance (Fig. 8). It was

already suggested the narrowing of the continental shelf in the distributional gaps would limit habitat availability for franciscanas (Di Benedetto et al., 2001; Netto and Siciliano, 2007; Siciliano et al., 2002).

A similar example has been demonstrated in the western South Atlantic with the Atlantic spotted dolphin *Stenella frontalis* (G. Cuvier 1829). A gap in the distribution of this dolphin species exists where the Brazilian continental shelf narrows substantially between Abrolhos Bank (~18°S) and 6°S (Danilewicz et al., 2013; Moreno et al., 2005). Ecological niche modeling revealed lack of optimal environmental conditions for the species in the region of the coast where the continental shelf narrows (see do Amaral et al., 2015). In relation to franciscanas' distribution it is also interesting to note that a narrowing of continental shelf also exists around Ilha de Santa Catarina (27°35'S), where the limits between the FMA II and FMA III has been proposed (Ott, 2002; Cunha et al., 2014).

Analysis performed here showed that Gap II is located in a very restrict band of continental shelf, where the coastline orientation changes abruptly from NE-SW to E-W (Castro and Miranda, 1998). The continental shelf is almost nonexistent in the Gap II resulting in a drastic reduction of the shelf habitat even if other conditions such as temperature, salinity and productivity could support the existence of species. In relation to Gap I, for example, the narrow shelf associated with higher levels of salinity could play a role to explain the absence of franciscanas in this area.

As suitability was projected in the distributional gaps, the absence of franciscana could be attributed to the reduction in the shelf habitat due to the narrowing of continental shelf. This environmental change could in turn intensify the biotic

interactions such as competition by food and predation with other marine species. Guiana dolphin *Sotalia guianensis* (Van Bénédén, 1864) is a species with similar habitats (Da Silva et al., 2010) and could compete with franciscana by food and/or space. Furthermore, it was already observed a significant overlap in the diet of franciscana and largehead hairtail *Trichiurus lepturus* Linnaeus, 1758 (see Bittar and Di Benedetto, 2009; Di Benedetto et al., 2013). Also, the reduction of shelf habitat could enhance the vulnerability to predation by other cetaceans such as killer whale *Orcinus orca* (Linnaeus 1758) (e.g. Ott and Danilewicz, 1998; Santos and Netto, 2005). Besides the likely strengthening of these biotic interactions, intrinsic factors, as minimal viable population size, also can play an important role in this very reduced range of habitat. In fact, a synergistic effect of biotic and abiotic factors can be determinant for the absence of franciscanas in the distributional gaps.

As top predators, cetacean distribution is limited by different factors (for example, productivity, temperature and salinity) that constraint both its prey and predator's distributions (e.g. Baumgartner et al., 2001; Palacios et al., 2013; Redfern et al., 2006). Temperature is a well-recognised factor delimiting species distribution (e.g. Jeffree and Jeffree, 1994) and salinity is also a well-known factor that have influence on cetacean distribution due to importance of physiological mechanisms to maintain the water and salt balance in cetaceans (e.g. Xu et al., 2013). Therefore, both salinity and temperature seem to impose physiological constraints for franciscanas, including stress triggered by high salt levels (e.g. São Pedro et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2013) and offspring resistance to cold environment (e.g. Danilewicz 2003).

The presence of franciscana in FMA Ia appears to be associated with the plume of Doce River that probably maintains the levels of salinity more favorable to franciscanas or its prey species (Netto and Siciliano, 2007; Siciliano et al., 2002). Therefore, higher levels of salinity in Gap I could be a potential explanation for the absence of franciscanas in this area, once this gap has the highest median of Sea Surface Salinity. Since the franciscana seems to be associated with areas with great salinity ranges such as estuaries or river mouths (Cremer et al., 2003; Santos et al., 2009; Siciliano et al., 2002), a higher constant salinity could impose some physiological constraint to the franciscana and/or to its prey species. Although franciscana has a fairly opportunist behavior in terms of prey abundance and occurrence (Bassoi, 2005) and shifts in prey composition overtime were already detected in southern Brazil (Secchi et al., 2003b), sciaenid fishes and long-finned squid *Doryteuthis sanpaulensis* (Brakonieccki, 1984) are very representative in the diet of the franciscana along its geographic range (Bassoi, 2005; Danilewicz et al., 2002). Sciaenid species are mainly present in tropical to warm and temperate environments over sandy and muddy bottoms in brackish, estuarine and low-salinity coastal regions (Martins et al., 2016).

Gomez and Cassini (2015) also suggested based on their ecological niche analysis that temperature and salinity could be considered the environmental predictors of franciscana along its entire range as well as the potential distribution of the striped weakfish *Cynoscion guatucupa* (Cuvier, 1830). They also highlighted the physiological constraints imposed by Sea Surface Temperature and Salinity, and they did not find any support for previous statements that turbidity could be an important ocean determinant of franciscana distribution.

Diffuse attenuation is an indicator of the water turbidity and it is directly related to the presence of scattering particles in the water column. The analysis performed here indicated that the Gap II has the highest median of Diffuse Attenuation. This finding is a little bit controversial in relation to previous studies that suggested a preference for turbid waters by franciscanas (Siciliano et al., 2002). The reader should be aware that these results are influenced by the Guanabara Bay, Rio de Janeiro, and its discharge, which in turn could be increasing the values of Diffuse Attenuation, not reflecting a condition along the entire Gap II.

Finally, it is important to highlight that distributional gaps have an immediate impact on the population structure of franciscanas mainly in relation to franciscanas from FMA I. Genetic evidences based on mtDNA suggests that franciscanas are divided in two evolutionary lineages, franciscanas from FMA I (i.e. those northward Gap II) being a distinct lineage in comparison to all remaining franciscanas (Cunha et al., 2014). Furthermore, FMA I is further sub-structured into FMA Ia and FMA Ib (Cunha et al., 2014). From these findings it is possible to assume that both northern and southern distributional gaps have been acting as a barrier long enough to have an impact on the population structure in the areas adjacent to the gaps. Considering the importance of shelf habitat for franciscanas, it seems to be reasonable to suppose that historical factors such as sea level oscillations and, consequently, fragmentation of coastal platform during glacial and interglacial cycles, play a key role to explain for the absence of franciscana in these areas.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The shelf habitat is very important to franciscana. However, a wide shelf does not necessarily result in an increased presence of franciscana if other conditions such as salinity are not suitable. For example, the Brazilian continental shelf is very large at the north portion of the Espírito Santo, in the region of the Abrolhos Bank, however franciscana range seems to be limited longitudinally, possible due to higher and salt levels recorded there.

The new limits of FMAs and the habitat suitability model presented here could be used as a guide to planning studies and actions that aim the conservation of the franciscana in Brazil. Further studies should investigate franciscanas' prey availability in those areas considered distributional gaps as well the possible relevance of other biotic interactions. Finally, changes in the coastal environment and habitat loss caused by human activities, such as industrial port development, should also be considered in conservation plans for the species.

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TABLES

Table 1. List of environmental variables analyzed in this study and its respective source, resolution and unit.

Environmental Variables	Source	Unit	Original Resolution
Bathymetry (Depth of the seafloor)	MARSPEC	meters	1 km
Distance to shore	MARSPEC	kilometres	1 km
Bathymetric Slope	MARSPEC	degrees	1 km
Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A	Bio-Oracle	mg/m ³	9 km
Annual Range in Concentration of Chlorophyll A	Bio-Oracle	mg/m ³	9 km
Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation	Bio-Oracle	m ⁻¹	9 km
Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity	MARSPEC	Psu	1 km
Annual Range in Sea Surface Salinity	MARSPEC	Psu	1 km
Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature	MARSPEC	degrees °C	1 km
Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature	MARSPEC	degrees °C	1 km

Table 2. Summary of franciscanas' records by areas and data source and gaps limits. FMAs were established according to Cunha et al., (2014) and limits were updated. Abbreviations: ES, Espírito Santo; RJ, Rio de Janeiro; SC, Santa Catarina; RS, Rio Grande do Sul.

Records Summary Information					
Areas	New limits	Aerial Surveys	Boat Surveys	Bycatch	Total
FMA Ia	Itaúnas, ES (18°25'S) to Santa Cruz, ES (19°57'S)	6	0	0	6
Gap I (north)	Piraquê-Açu River Mouth, Santa Cruz, ES (19°57'S) to Barra de Itabapoana, ES (21°18'S)				
FMA Ib	Barra de Itabapoana, RJ (21°18'S) to Armação de Búzios, RJ (22°44'S)	13	2	11	26
Gap II (south)	Armação dos Búzios, RJ (22°44'S) to Piraquara de Dentro, RJ (22°59'S)				
FMA II	Piraquara de Dentro, RJ (22°59'S) to Ilha de Santa Catarina, SC (27°35'S)	41	7	60	108
FMA III *	Ilha de Santa Catarina, SC (27°35'S) to Chuí River Mouth, RS (33°44'S)	105	0	543	648
TOTAL		165	9	614	788
Percentage (%)		20.9%	1.1%	78.0%	100.0%

*FMA III is partially represented, because it extends into Uruguay.

Tables 3. Factorial Analysis of nine environmental variables used in this study. Abbreviations: bat, Bathymetry; dist, Distance to Shore; slope, Bathymetric Slope; da_mean, Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation; cl_mean, Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A; cl_range, Annual Mean in Concentration of Chlorophyll A; sss_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity; sss_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Salinity; sst_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature; sst_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature.

	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5
bat	0.135			0.771	
slope	-0.143	-0.226	0.155		0.126
cl_mean	0.929	0.190		0.289	
cl_range	0.695	0.440	-0.169	-0.190	0.163
da_mean	0.959	0.122		0.128	-0.208
sss_mean		-0.121	0.976	-0.147	
sss_range	0.118	0.791	-0.271		
sst_mean	-0.123	-0.404	0.837	0.102	
sst_range	0.256	0.884	-0.129		
SS loadings	2.402	1.887	1.805	0.786	0.104
Proportion Var	0.267	0.210	0.201	0.087	0.012
Cumulative Var	0.267	0.477	0.677	0.765	0.776

Table 4. Information used to investigate the environmental distinctiveness of areas occupied and not occupied by franciscanas. Abbreviation: AOF, Area Occupied by Franciscana.

Areas		Proportion in relation to the smallest polygon (i.e., Gap II)	Number of Random Points Generated
AOF	Area Ia	2.44	244
	Area Ib	2.34	234
	Area II	7.72	772
	Gap I	1.48	148
	Gap II	1	100

Table 5. Medians comparisons through Kruskal-Wallis. Statistically significant values are in bold.

Environmental Layer	Kruskal-Wallis Test	
Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity	$\chi^2 = 106.45$	p-value < 0.05
Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature	$\chi^2 = 164.01$	p-value < 0.05
Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation	$\chi^2 = 19.799$	p-value < 0.05
Bathymetry	$\chi^2 = 4.0115$	p-value =0.13

Table 6. Areas medians comparisons through Dunn tests for each environmental layer, which Kruskal Wallis test was significant. Abbreviation: AOF, Area Occupied by Franciscana. P-value is indicated among parenthesis and statistically significant values are in bold.

	Dunn Test		
	AOF	Gap I	
Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity	-10.229 (0.00001)	-	Gap I
	0.433967 (0.9965)	7.218 (0.00001)	Gap II
Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature	12.13 (0.00001)	-	Gap I
	5.165059 (0.00001)	-3.999 (0.0001)	Gap II
Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation	-0.664 (0.7597)	-	Gap I
	-4.441 (0.00001)	-3.119 (0.0027)	Gap II

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. A) Study area of franciscana dolphin distribution. Brazilian continental shelf zones proposed by B) Castro & Miranda (1998) and C) Mahiques et al. (2010). Representation of annual means of D) Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature (SST), E) Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A, and F) Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity (SSS). Abbreviations: ACR, Abrolhos – Campos Region; SBB, South Brazilian Bight; SBS, Southern Brazilian Shelf; SPB, São Paulo Bight; FMB, Florianópolis – Mostardas Bight (FMB); RGC, Rio Grande Cone; TZ, Transitional Zone.

Figure 2. Compiled records of franciscana dolphin along Brazilian coastal waters from Itaúnas (ES) to Chuí River Mouth (RS). Abbreviations: ES, Espírito Santo; RJ, Rio de Janeiro; SP, São Paulo; PR, Paraná; SC, Santa Catarina; RS, Rio Grande do Sul.

Figure 3. New geographic ranges of the Franciscanas Management Areas (FMAs) and distributional gaps. Localities already considered limits are indicated in the map by triangles symbols. Abbreviations: ES, Espírito Santo; RJ, Rio de Janeiro; SP, São Paulo; PR, Paraná; SC, Santa Catarina; RS, Rio Grande do Sul. *FMAlIIII is partially represented because this management area extends further to the south to include the coast of Uruguay.

Figure 4. Correlation matrix of nine environmental variables evaluated in the study. Abbreviations: bat, Bathymetry; slope, Bathymetric Slope; da_mean, Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation; cl_mean, Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A; cl_range, Annual Mean in Concentration of Chlorophyll A; sss_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface

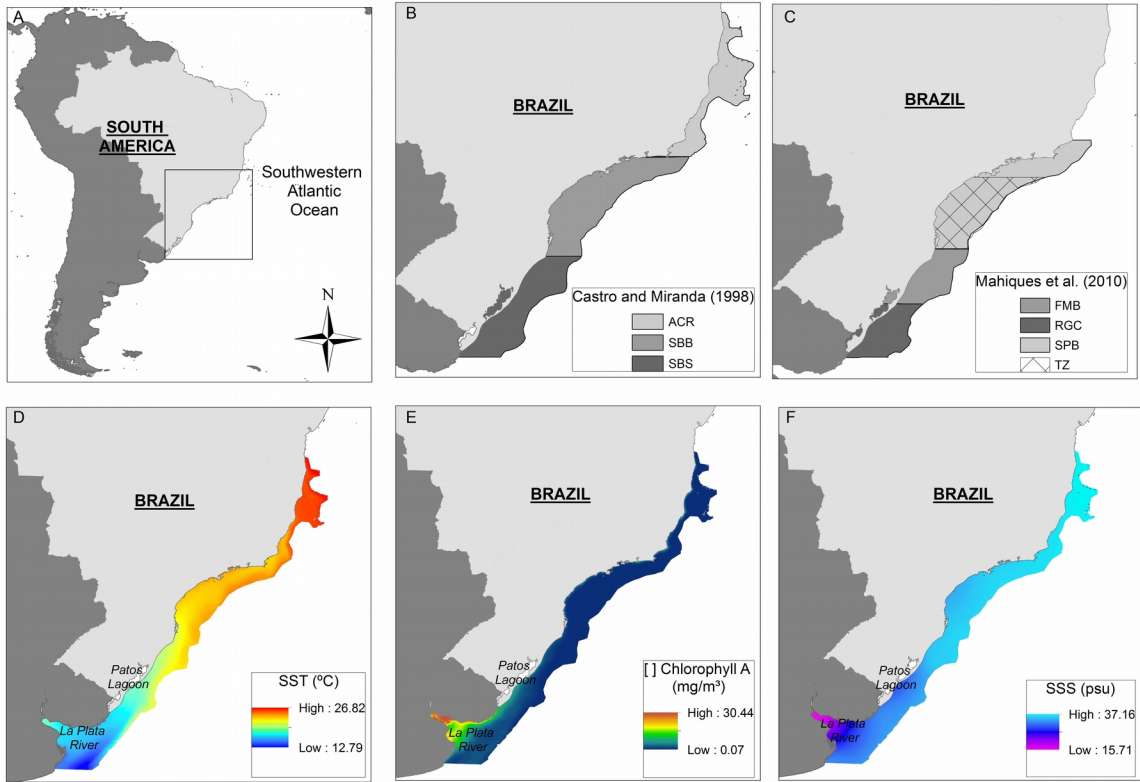
Salinity; sss_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Salinity; sst_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature; sst_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature.

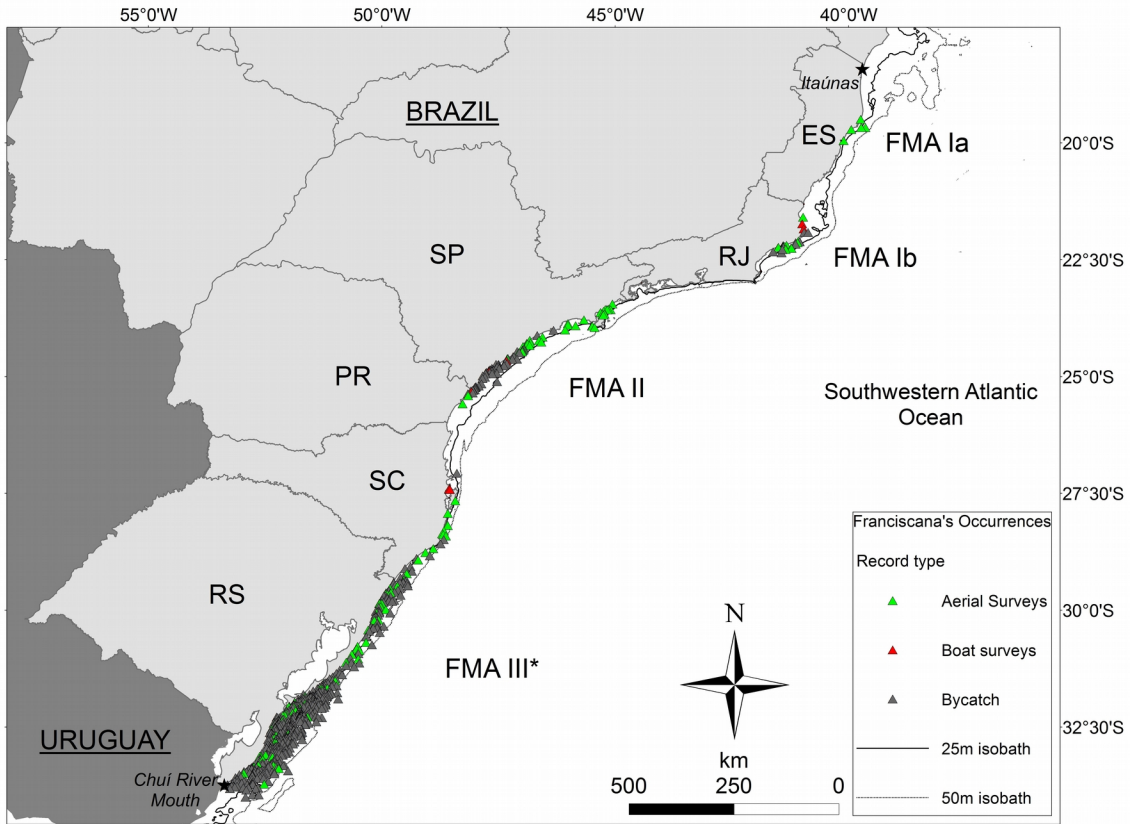
Figure 5. Map of polygons used to create random points in order to represent the area occupied by franciscana and those not occupied. Abbreviation: AOF, Area occupied by Franciscana.

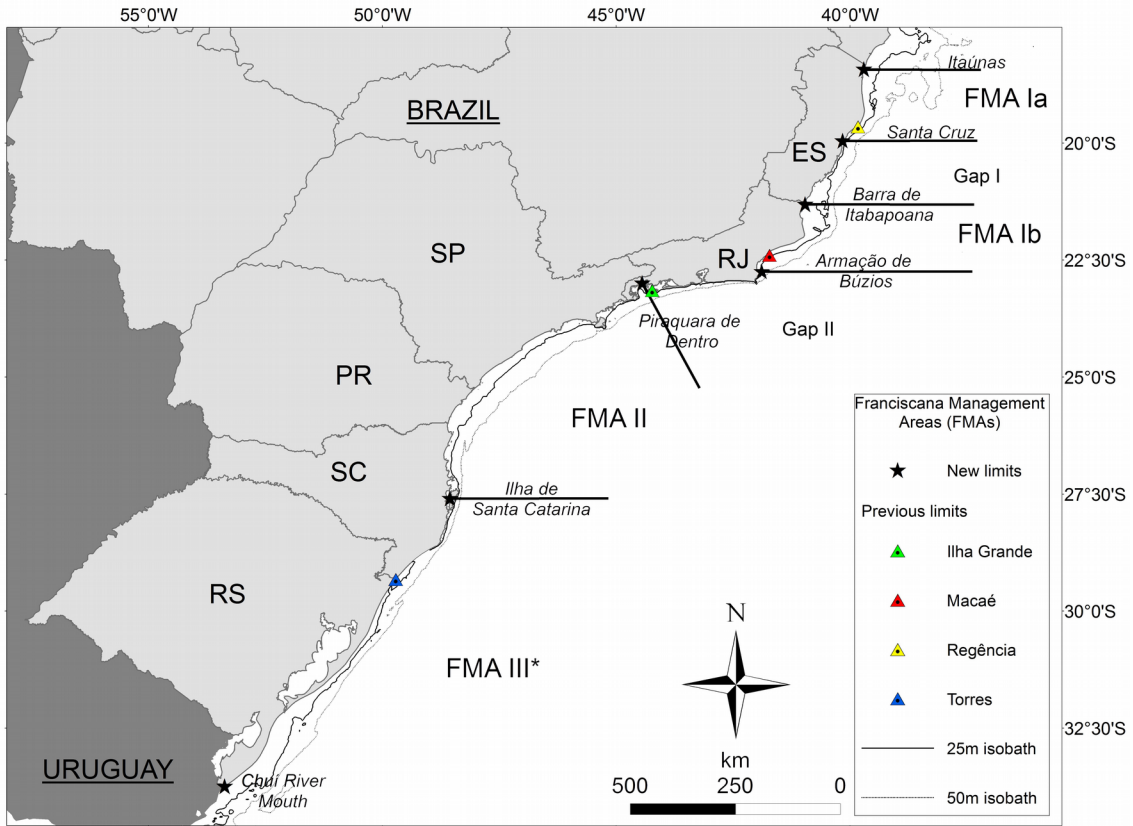
Figure 6. Boxplot of environmental values extracted from random points grouped according area occupied by franciscana (AOF) and those not occupied. Boxplot represents median, 25th and 75th percentiles, and 5th and 95th are represented by the errors bars. In A) Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity; B) Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature; C) Mean Annual of Diffuse Attenuation; and D) Bathymetry.

Figure 7. A) Habitat suitability model with continuous values of the distance to the niche centroid representing the franciscana's fundamental niche. B) A map zoom is provided to visualize the environmental suitability of northern and southern distributional gaps. Values between 0 and 1 represent the relative distance between the points and the centre of the ellipsoid; -1 represent areas out of the ellipsoid or unsuitable; 0 means areas on the edge of the ellipsoid or with low suitability; and 1 means areas on the center of the ellipsoid or with high environmental suitability (H. Qiao 2017, p.c.).

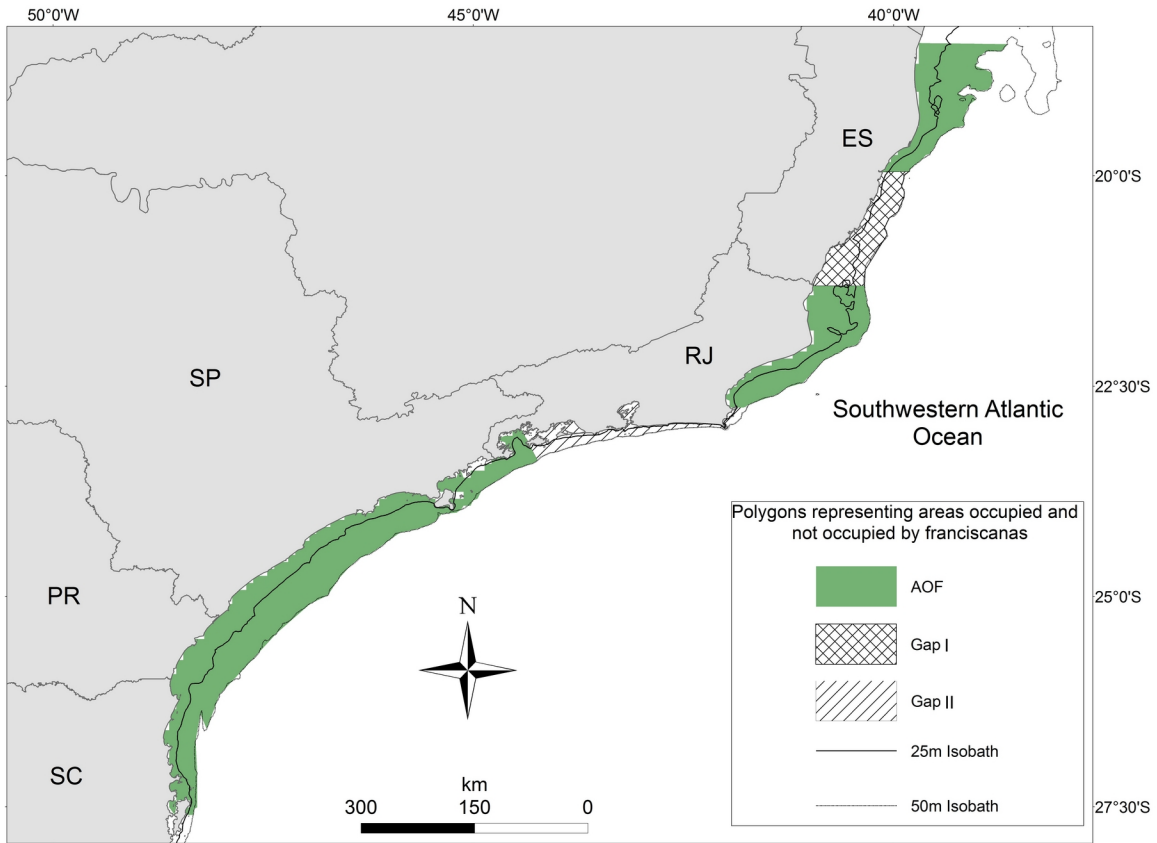
Figure 8. Distance to shore of the 25m and 50m isobaths in relation to latitude. Area occupied by franciscana are represented in green; distributional gaps are represented in red (left, Gap I; right, Gap II).

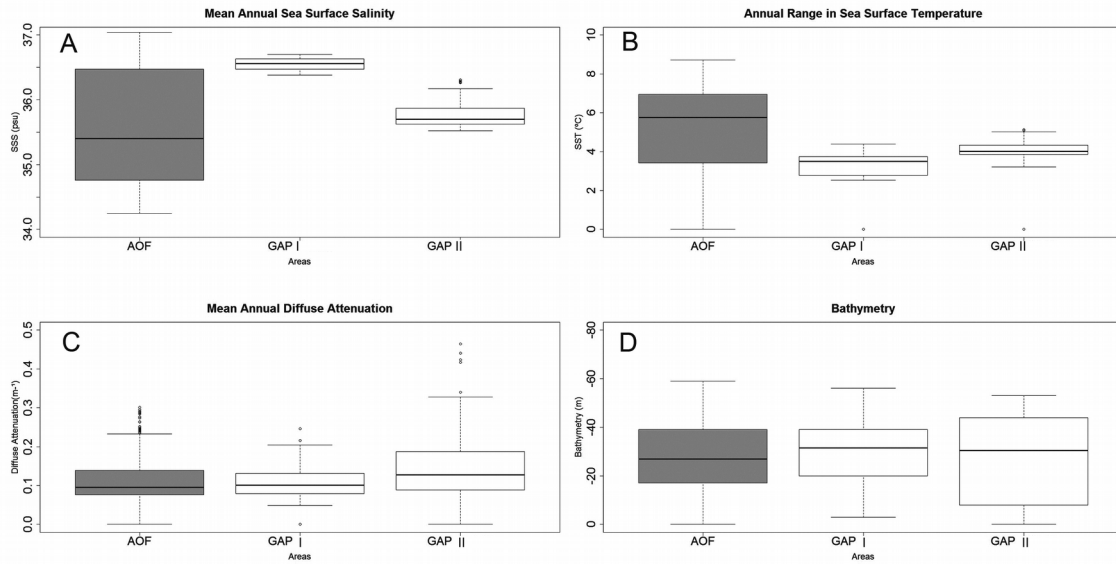


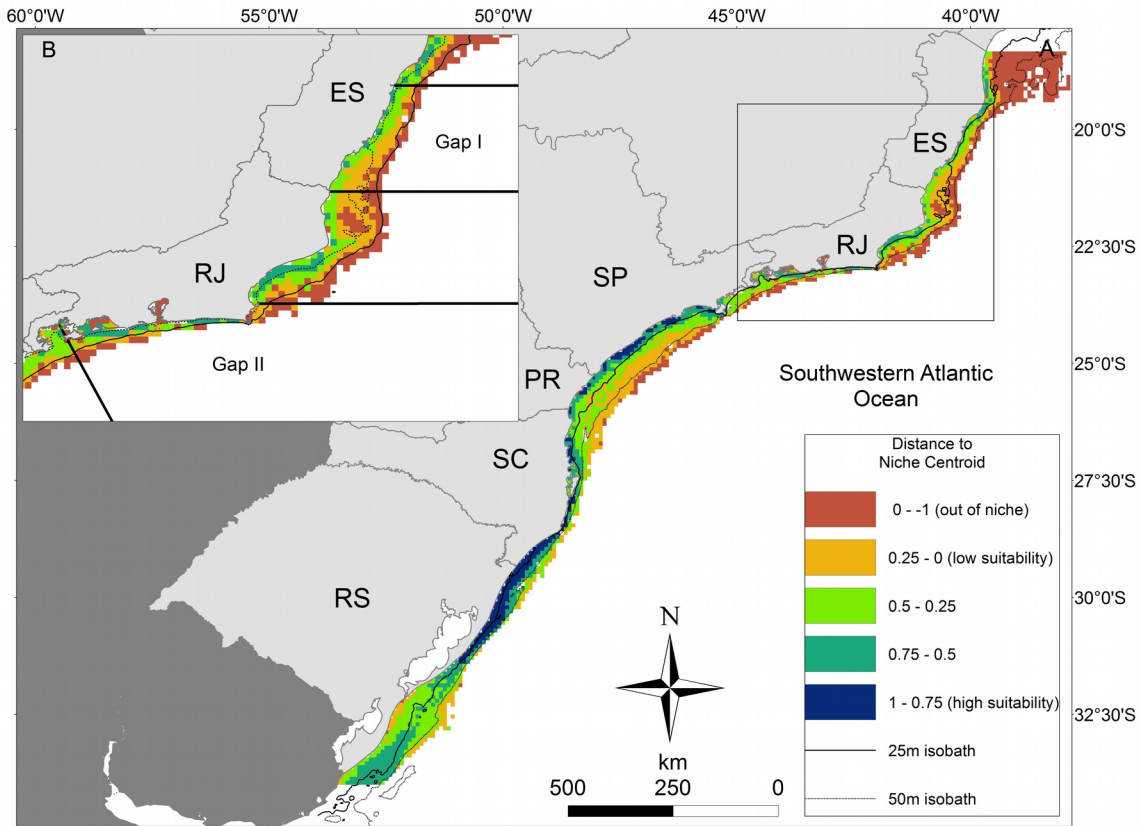


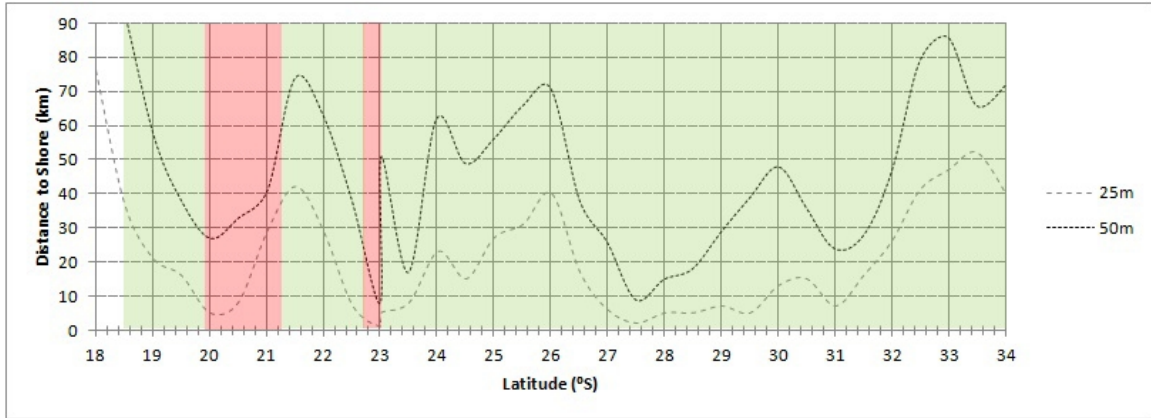


slope	0.21	0.26	-0.15	-0.23	-0.23	-0.21	-0.21	-0.21
sss_mean	0.85	-0.16	-0.36	-0.23	-0.22	-0.19	-0.13	
sst_mean	0.06	-0.55	-0.51	-0.44	-0.24	-0.17		
bat	-0.1	-0.11	-0.08	0.33	0.22			
sss_range	0.77	0.51	0.25	0.22				
sst_range	0.6	0.4	0.33					
cl_rg	0.7	0.67						
cl_mean	0.94							
da_mean								









CAPÍTULO II

* Conforme regras da *Marine Biology*.

Seascape genetics of the Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) based on mtDNA control region

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Abstract

The Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) is endemic to tropical, subtropical and warm temperate waters of the Atlantic Ocean. The species has a complex geographical distribution, across which population structure has been recovered and it is most likely the result of distinct environmental requirements. Following a seascape genetics approach we investigate population differentiation of Atlantic spotted dolphins along the Atlantic Ocean and its relationship with marine environmental variables. We found different populations in the Western North Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico and individuals inhabiting oceanic islands in the Eastern Atlantic forming one population connected with those from oceanic waters of the Western North Atlantic. We also found that individuals from southeastern Brazil represent one distinct population and exhibit low levels of genetic diversity based on the mtDNA control region marker. We detected some level of Isolation-by-distance and Isolation-by-Resistance, including contemporary and past conditions. We attributed the low levels of correlation between genetic and geography/environment due to such large scale analyzed here and we also hypothesized that different process could play role to explain the genetic patterns recovered such as social structure and some level of phylopatry within populations.

Keywords: isolation-by-distance, isolation-by-environment, isolation-by-resistance, Delphininae, Atlantic Ocean

Introduction

Seascape genetics is a derivation of landscape genetics discipline to marine environment (Riginos and Liggins 2013). In general, landscape genetics aims to understand how spatial factors as geographic distance and environmental heterogeneity shape genetic differentiation along species distribution (Manel 2003; Storfer et al. 2007; Holderegger and Wagner 2008; Balkenhol et al. 2009). However, as pointed out by Riginos and Liggins (2013), despite its theoretical similarities, seascape genetics studies should take into account the peculiarities of both the marine environment (e.g., fluidity, three-dimensionality, temporal and spatial scales, currents) and marine organisms (e.g. higher dispersal abilities).

Different patterns of how geography and/or environment shape genetic variation are recognized in landscape genetics. Isolation-by-distance (IBD) (Wright 1943; Manel 2003) is a very common model tested in landscape genetic studies, and postulates that populations separated by greater geographic (i.e. straightline or Euclidean) distances show greater levels of genetic differentiation (Wright 1943; Balkenhol

et al. 2009). More recently, derivations of the “isolation by” generic term have been described, such as isolation-by-environment (IBE) (Wang and Bradburd 2014) and isolation-by-resistance (IBR) (McRae 2006). IBE is defined as a pattern in which genetic differentiation increases with environmental differences, independent of geographic distance (Wang and Bradburd, 2014). On the other hand, IBR model predicts a positive relationship between genetic differentiation and the resistance distance, a graph theoretic distance metric based on circuit theory (McRae 2006). According to the the authors, the resistance distance provides a more appropriate predictor of equilibrium genetic differentiation than Euclidean distance because it accounts for heterogeneity in species’ distributions and migration rates, as it incorporates all possible pathways and is better supported by existing analytic theory (McRae 2006).

In recent years, molecular genetic approaches have changed the traditional concept of large and homogeneous marine populations of, for instance, invertebrates and fishes. The absence of obvious physical barriers on the oceans and high gene flow among populations of marine organisms have long challenged the models of allopatric speciation. However, extensive genetic population structure has been discovered in many marine species, suggesting more complex recruitment dynamics in marine species than previously assumed. Thus, marine speciation is considered a paradox (Bierne et al. 2003; Hauser and Carvalho 2008).

Despite of the great dispersal capacity of marine top predators such as cetaceans, several studies have been revealing that these species exhibit also extensive population structure along its distribution. Fine-scale population structure has been extensively recovered and it is most likely the result of ecological divergence in cosmopolitan species like bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*), common dolphin (*Delphinus sp.*) and killer whales (*Orcinus orca*) (e.g., Tezanos-Pinto et al. 2008; Amaral et al. 2012; Foote et al. 2016). In general, habitat association, foraging, specializations and kin interactions, in combination with past bottlenecks and periods of expansion and contraction, can lead to discontinuous relationships between genetic and geographic distance. Habitat discontinuities and changes in oceanographic features, prey distribution and philopatric behaviour have also been identified as influencing the spatial genetic structure of several delphinid species (Möller et al. 2011).

The Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) is a Delphinidae dolphin endemic to tropical, subtropical and warm temperate waters of the Atlantic Ocean (Perrin 2009). The species ranges from 45°N

to 35°S in the west Atlantic, and from Azores to at least Gabon in the east Atlantic (Perrin 2009). In general, Atlantic spotted dolphins inhabit continental shelf along its distribution, but also could be recorded in oceanic waters in the western north Atlantic and oceanic islands in the east north Atlantic (Freitas et al. 1989; Jefferson et al. 1997; Baumgartner et al. 2001; Davis et al. 2002; Silva et al. 2003; Moreno et al. 2005; Weir 2010).

In general, *Stenella* dolphins present great dispersal capabilities (e.g., Reilly 1990). Evidences of dispersal across large distances was also demonstrated both direct and indirectly for Atlantic spotted dolphins in North Atlantic (Herzing 1997; Davis et al. 2006; Quérrouil et al. 2010). However, the Atlantic spotted dolphin presents a complex geographic distribution, where distinct populations have been identified based on morphology, genetics and pollutants analyses (Perrin et al. 1987; Adams and Rosel 2006; Green et al. 2007; Quérrouil et al. 2010; Caballero et al. 2013; Viricel and Rosel 2014; Méndez-Fernandez et al. 2018).

Analysis of mtDNA CR marker is recurrent in all studies conducted so far aiming to understand population structure of Atlantic spotted dolphins among different regions of Atlantic Ocean (see Adams and Rosel 2006; Green et al. 2007; Quérrouil et al. 2010; Caballero et al. 2013; Viricel and Rosel 2014). This marker was also considered the most commonly applied molecular marker in genetic studies of cetacean taxonomy (Rosel et al. 2017a, b; Schwartz and Boness 2017). Despite the limitations of mtDNA markers, such as being a matrilineal marker and not providing information on male-biased dispersal (Rosel et al. 2017a), mtDNA is usually considered a useful marker to landscape genetics because it is a neutral and nonrecombinant marker. Holderegger and Wagner (2008) highlighted that in contrast to biparentally inherited marker types such as microsatellites and SNPs, the mtDNA markers are transmitted unchanged from the mother to her offspring, which, in principle, makes them useful for the detection of dispersal events.

In relation to the marine environment, several studies have been conducted based on the framework of seascape genetics (Selkoe et al. 2008; Riginos and Liggins 2013; Wee et al. 2014; Thomas et al. 2015; Benestan et al. 2016) and some of these studies have been conducted in cetacean species (Mendez et al. 2010, 2011; Amaral et al. 2012). Amaral et al. (2012) revealed that marine productivity and sea surface temperature are correlated with genetic structure in the highly mobile and widely distributed

short-beaked common dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*). In a study of humpback dolphin (*Sousa spp.*), Mendez et al. (2011) assessed population structure patterns using mtDNA CR marker and the potential influence of environmental in shaping this patters along western Indian Ocean. The authors showed genetically isolated populations in areas environmentally distinct, and high-lighted the utility of molecular markers in combination with high quality environmental data to address questions related to ecological processes in marine species.

The aim of this study is (1) to assesses population structure of Atlantic spotted dolphin using mtDNA CR along all species distribution and based on seascape genetics framework (2) to investigate how marine environment could be influencing genetic differentiation among populations. This is the first attempt to investigate population structure of Atlantic spotted dolphin as well as its relationship with marine environment along its distribution. In order to do that, we include a comprehensive review of mtDNA CR sequences and its respective geographic coordinates and combine that with high-resolution environmental data. Based on previous findings that related genetics differentiation with environmental conditions (Viricel and Rosel 2014), we expect recover population differentiation across the distribution of the species as resulting from environmental heterogeneity and/or geographic distance.

Material and Methods

Sampling and DNA extraction

Tissue samples of 108 individuals were obtained from remotely-darting biopsies, stranded or incidentally captured Atlantic spotted dolphins from different regions of the Atlantic Ocean, including: Brazil (n=80), Colombia (n=7), Guadeloupe Island (n=1), Uruguay (n=1), and Canary Island (n=19). Samples were preserved in different ways, including ethanol, sodium chloride-saturated 20% dimethyl sulphoxide or lyophilized for long-term preservation.

Total genomic DNA was extracted from tissue samples using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen), following the protocol, with the exception of the proteinase K digestion step that was extended overnight (Hancock-Hanser et al. 2013). DNA was eluted in lower volumes than recommended to avoid low concentrations of DNA mainly from samples obtained from stranded animals. DNA quality and concentration was verified using Qubit Fluorometric Quantition (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.).

Mitochondrial control region sequencing and GenBank data

We used 1 µl of DNA to amplify a portion of 650 bp of the mitochondrial control region (CR) using the primers t-Pro-whale M13Dlp1.5 (5'-TGTAACGACAGCCAGTTCACCCAAAGCTGRARTTCTA-3') and Dlp8 (5'-CCATCGWGATGTCTTATTTAAGRGGAA-3') following the protocol by Tezanos-Pinto et al. (2008) for amplification reaction and thermal cycler profile. PCR products were cleaned by adding Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase and Exonuclease I as recommended by the manufacturer followed by an incubation period at 37°C for 30 min and 80°C for 15 min. Both strands were sequenced on an ABI 3730 automated sequencer (BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing; Applied Biosystems).

GenBank data and alignment

In order to include sequences from other regions of the species range, several sequences of mtDNA CR were obtained from GenBank. Accession numbers and original references are available in Table S1. Brazilian samples already analyzed by Caballero et al. (2013) were reanalyzed and resequenced as described above.

All available mtDNA CR sequences from Atlantic spotted dolphins were downloaded, but only those sequences with available geographic information in the refereed publications were considered in the analyses. Geographic coordinates referring to sequences from Bahamas, Azores and Madeira were estimated based on the main local of sampling collection referenced to in the articles. Geographic coordinates from sequences of Western North Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico were not directly available and, thus, were estimated through crossing information of different data banks. We crossed date and region of sampling with dates and geographic coordinates available on GBIF (GBIF, 2018) public database from 1994 to 2001. Only those sequences that exactly matched dates and geographic coordinate with the region of sampling were included in the analyses. Finally, all sequences obtained from GenBank and those obtained by PCR were aligned using the software Sequencher, version 5.4.6 (Genes Codes Corporation).

Genetic diversity and Population differentiation

Populations were defined based on information available from previous studies and geographic localities that better represent the sampling area (Table S1, Fig. 1). Thus, we defined 11 populations:

Azores (AZ), including samples from individuals collected around Azores Archipelago and published by Qu erouil et al. (2010); Madeira (MAD), including samples from individuals collected around Madeira Archipelago and also published by Qu erouil et al. (2010); Canary (CAN) including sequences collected from animals stranded at Canary Islands and analyzed in this study; MAB (Mid-Atlantic Bight), including haplotypes sequences from individuals collected on coastal and oceanic waters northward Cape Hatteras (~ 35 N) as defined previously by Adams and Rosel (2006) and confirmed by Viricel and Rosel (2014); SAB (South Atlantic Bight), including haplotypes sequences from individuals collected on the continental shelf and southward Cape Hatteras (~ 35 N) as defined previously by Adams and Rosel (2006) and confirmed by Viricel and Rosel (2014); eastern Gulf of Mexico (eGOM), including haplotype sequences from individuals collected at continental shelf and east of the Mobile Bay firstly analyzed by Adams and Rosel (2006), and posteriorly defined by Viricel and Rosel (2014) with analyses of more samples; western Gulf of Mexico (wGOM), including haplotype sequences from individuals collected at continental shelf and westward of Mobile Bay firstly analyzed by Adams and Rosel (2006), and also posteriorly defined by Viricel and Rosel (2014); Bahamas (BAH), including haplotypes sequences from individuals collected on Bahamas and previously analyzed by Green et al. (2007) and Green (2008); Caribbean (CAB), including haplotype sequences collected around Caribbean Sea and previously analyzed by Caballero et al. (2013), but include also sequences from individuals collected in La Guajira (Colombia) and Isla Guadalupe analyzed in this study by the first time; Northern Brazil (N_Br), included two samples collected from stranded animals in the northern Brazil; finally, Brazil_Uruguay (Br_Uy), included samples collected southward 22 S on the continental shelf, mainly in the Southeast Brazilian Bight(southeastern Brazil), and one sample from an stranded animal at approximately 34 S in Uruguay, all these samples were analyzed in this study (a few of these samples had been previously analyzed by Caballero et al. (2013), but we opted by sequencing these samples again as already explained above).

Haplotypes were defined by DNAsp 6.0 and molecular diversity indexes such as nucleotide and haplotype diversities were estimated in Arlequin 3.5.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2015). Neutrality tests (Tajima's D and Fu's FS) were also performed to test for population demographic changes in Arlequin 3.5.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2015). Significance was assessed through 10,000 permutations.

Population differentiation was tested by calculating pairwise F_{ST} , and Φ_{ST} using Tamura-Nei distance in Arlequin 3.5.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2015). Significance was assessed through 10,000 permutations. Nei's estimate of net divergence (dA) (hereafter, Nei's dA) was also estimated using nucleotideDivergence function of the StrataG package (Archer et al. 2016) with model settled to "TN93". Finally, analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) was computed in Arlequin 3.5.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2015) among pairs of populations most closest geographically. Significance was assessed through 1,000 permutations.

Phylogenetic relationships

A median-joining network of haplotypes was constructed in NETWORK 5.0.0.3 (Bandelt et al. 1999). A Bayesian phylogenetic tree was performed in MrBayes v.3.2.6 (Ronquist et al. 2011) including haplotypes. Four simultaneous MCMC chains were run for 2 million generations, with trees sampled at intervals of 100 generations and 20% of trees were discarded as "burnin". A sequence of Guiana dolphin (*Sotalia guianensis*) was used as outgroup (GenBank Accession Number KM893401).

Individual level analysis and Procrustes analysis

Since the delimitation of populations *a priori* based on geography is very questionable for cetaceans due to their great dispersal capabilities, an individual level analyses was performed through procrustes analysis approach to find an optimal transformation that maximizes the similarity between Principal Component Analysis (PCA) maps of genetic variation and geographic maps of population locations (Wang et al. 2012).

First, we applied procrustes analysis to compare the individual-level coordinates of the first two components (PC1 and PC2) in the PCA performed on the mtDNA CR data to the geographic coordinates. PCA of mtDNA CR was performed using the function `dudi.pca` of `ade4` package (Dray and Dufour 2007). We used `procrustes` function in order to rotate a configuration to maximum similarity with another configuration, and the function `protest` to test the significance between two configurations. We used `procrustes` and `protest` functions from the `vegan` package (Oksanen et al. 2017) in R 3.4.2 (R Core Team

2017). Posteriorly, we applied the residual function to estimate the residuals of the first procrustes, and performed a second one using a PCA of environmental rasters (see below).

The consistence of individual level analysis with the determination of population *a priori* by literature and geography was visually checked.

Environmental and Spatial data

Our study area encompasses the complete distribution of Atlantic spotted dolphins along tropical and subtropical Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). Currently, the distribution of several species is available in shapefile format by the The IUCN Red List (Hammond et al. 2012). Therefore, we utilized this map as a background for subsequent analyses. However, taking into account that we have access to a sample of an individual (male) collected at southernmost record of species in the Western Atlantic Ocean, we modified the original shapefile in order to consider the environmental information from this area. In the last years, the species have been recorded in Uruguayan waters (Valentina Franco-Trecu personal communication; Paro et al. 2014).

The final range of study area extended longitudinally from 20°E to 100°W, and latitudinally from 45°N to 40°S. This such greater extension of Atlantic Ocean encompasses several different environmental conditions, including coastal and oceanic waters; ranges of Atlantic seafloor such as islands, seamounts and the Mid-Atlantic Ridge; changes in the orientation of coast; oceanic currents and gyres that provide an exceptional environmental heterogeneity along Atlantic spotted dolphin distribution.

Along its distribution, Atlantic spotted dolphins are recorded mainly in those waters above continental shelf up to 1,000 m isobath, being recorded off of continental shelf in specific regions such as Western North Atlantic and in the oceanic islands of the Eastern Atlantic (Perrin et al. 1987; Freitas et al. 1989; Jefferson et al. 1997; Baumgartner et al. 2001a; Silva et al. 2003; Moreno et al. 2005; Fernández et al. 2009; do Amaral et al. 2015). Therefore, the study area includes the following coastal and shelf areas from north to southward in the Western Atlantic Ocean: Southern Atlantic Bight, Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean, north South America, southeastern Brazil and Uruguay. Oceanic waters include the Mid-Atlantic Bight (off United States) and data from Azores, Madeira and Canary Archipelagos in the Eastern Atlantic Ocean. These regions are represented by different oceanic systems and oceanic currents that were

systematically described by Spalding et al. (2007) for coastal and shelf areas and by Spalding et al. (2012) for pelagic areas.

Environmental layers were gathered from MARSPEC (Sbrocco and Barber 2013), an ocean climate layers for marine spatial ecology. This public bank provides both geophysical and bioclimate information in ESRI grid format at ~ 5 km seconds of resolution.

Considering what is known as habitat preferences of cetaceans and specifically Atlantic spotted dolphins (e.g., Baumgartner et al. 2001; do Amaral et al. 2015), we pre-selected the following environmental layers from MARSPEC dataset: bathymetry (m), slope (degrees), distance to shore (km), sea surface salinity (psu, SSS) and sea surface temperature (°C, SST). Three different metrics of SSS and SST were included: mean annual, annual range and annual variance. SSS of the freshest month and SSS of the saltiest month as well as SST from the coldest month and SST from the warmest were also selected. We used a custom R script written by Elizabeth J. Sbrocco to crop MARSPEC ESRI grids to our area of interest as well to convert it to an ASCII file.

Correlation among layers were investigated using the function pairs of raster package (Hijmans et al. 2014). Layers highly correlated were excluded from the following analyses. A PCA was also performed using the function rasterPCA of the package RStoolbox (Leutner and Horning 2016).

Kruskal-Wallis with bonferroni correction were performed to investigate if medians of environmental variables were equal among putative populations (we just considered populations with more than one record, therefore AZ, MAD and BAH were not included). This test was followed by Dunn test using dunn package (Dinno 2017) to test differences between pairwise putative populations. Visualization of medians among different population was provided by boxplot graphics.

“Isolation by” analyses

All populations (except AZ, MAD and BAH) were represented by several individuals with different sampling geographic coordinates. In order to represent each population with one geographic coordinate, we estimated the centroid of each population based on geographic coordinates of individuals collected.

One geographic matrix representing geographic distances were estimated using least-cost distances using different functions of marmap package (Pante and Simon-Bouhet 2013). We estimated least-cost distance with no constraint among centroids, and least-cost distances with constraints of a maximum of 300 m, 600 m, 900 m depths.

Three matrices representing environment were generated using the values of bathymetry, Mean Annual SSS and Mean Annual SST extracted for the centroid of each population. These environmental layers are considered important predictors of cetaceans' distribution (Baumgartner et al. 2001; Redfern et al. 2006; Palacios et al. 2013). We also generated a matrix from the principal component 1 (PC1) of the environmental PCA, and another one was generated calculating Euclidean distances of PC1.

Two matrices representing resistance distances (McRae 2006) were calculated using the software Circuitscape v. 3.5.8 (Shah and McRae 2008). Resistance distances were estimated among centroids of populations based on maps of environmental suitability generated for Atlantic spotted dolphins for both contemporary and Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) climatic and geophysical conditions. Maps of environmental suitability were generated using the maxent function of the dismo package (Hijmans et al. 2011) in order to build a MaxEnt ("Maximum Entropy") species distribution model (Phillips et al. 2006). MaxEnt model settings were defined through ENMevaluate function of the package ENMeval package (Muscarella et al. 2014), which provide species-specific tuning of settings to generate models. The model with the lowest value of the Akaike Information Criterion corrected for small samples sizes reflects both model goodness-of-fit and complexity (Muscarella et al. 2014). We used the block as data partitioning method. Environmental layers not correlated were used. We gathered the same set of environmental layers for contemporary and LGM time frames and cropped them to encompass the study area. Occurrence records were the same dataset compiled for sequences, with exception that we remove duplicate records and records representing the same pixel. We used 10,000 points to determine the MaxEnt distribution (background points).

Initially to explore the data, we performed a simple linear regression of data using lm function. We tested three different matrices of genetic differentiation data (linearized F_{ST} , Φ_{ST} and Nei's d_A) against the different matrices of geographic distance (without and with restrictions) and the resistance matrices based on suitability models of contemporary and LGM conditions.

Finally, IBD and IBE were tested using Distance-based Redundancy Analysis (dbRDA) (Legendre and Anderson 1999). We also tested environmental distances conditioned on geographic distances. IBE was also tested through Mantel tests and Partial Mantel to test the correlation among genetic matrices and the Euclidean distance of environment, and also controlling for geographic distances. In order to test IBD, Mantel tests were performed between contemporary and LGM resistance matrices and against genetic matrices.

Canonical analysis is the simultaneous analysis of two, or several data tables combining the concepts of ordination and regression. Among canonical analysis, Redundance analysis (RDA) is related to multiple regression analysis and it is used when the X variables display linear relationships with the Y variables. In distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA), a resemblance matrix is computed among the sites using a similarity measure appropriate to species data. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) is applied to this matrix to obtain new Euclidean axes (matrix Y) fully representing the relationships among the sites; a correction for negative values may be required. The experimental factors and their interactions are coded as orthogonal dummy variables. RDA is applied to the new matrix Y to test the significance of the factor (or interaction) coded into matrix X, with all the other factors (and interactions) coded into a matrix of covariables (Legendre and Legendre 1998). Here dbRDA was performed using the function `capscale` in the `vegan` package (Oksanen et al. 2017) that is an alternative implementation of dbRDA, in which the dissimilarity data are first ordinated using metric scaling, and the ordination results are analyzed with redundancy analysis. We assessed the significance of test using `anova` function.

Mantel statistic formula is a linear model that brings out the linear component of the relationship between the values in two distance matrices. Strong nonlinearity may prevent relationships from being identified in the Mantel test. Mantel and Partial Mantel tests were performed using `mantel` and `partial` functions in the `vegan` package (Oksanen et al. 2017) using pearson method. Significance was assessed with 999 permutations.

All R analyses were performed on R 3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017).

Results

mtDNA sequences and genetic diversity

Our final dataset of mtDNA CR was composed of 545 sequences considering both previously analyzed sequences and those generated in this study (Table S1, Fig. 1). From 108 tissue samples analyzed here, we are able to successfully generated sequences from 80 samples. GenBank data included thousands of individual sequences or haplotypes sequences already published or unpublished and we performed a rigorous selection of GenBank sequences. Therefore, we included 465 sequences in our dataset for which we were able to obtain geographic coordinates with a high degree of reliability. When haplotype sequences were available we just selected those for which we could determine the number of individuals included in that haplotype. Although we have been extremely cautious with the selection of GenBank information, we are aware of possible error associated with analyses performed here, mainly those conducted with F_{ST} values due to its dependency on the frequency of haplotypes in the populations. Thus, we highlighted the importance of researchers to be willing to provide key information on their publications in order to allow for the replication of their data in different studies. Some samples obtained from stranded animals have its geographic coordinates slightly modified to capture environmental information from the region (Table S1).

Fig. 1 Representation of bathymetry of study area and 545 geographic coordinates of Atlantic spotted dolphins analyzed. Circles symbol represent sequences from individuals and/or haplotypes already analyzed in other studies; diamond symbol represents samples from individuals analyzed by the first time. Colors represent data grouping in different putative population. Abbreviations: AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico

Our mtDNA CR dataset included 344 bp with a total of 103 haplotypes recovered among populations. Molecular diversity indexes are presented on Table 1. Nucleotide diversity was higher than 0.01 for AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB, wGOM, CAB and N_Br. These same populations and also eGOM had haplotype diversities higher than 0.8. Despite their relatively higher sample size, Bahamas and Br_Uy had the lowest values of both indexes.

Table 1. Molecular diversity indexes, and neutrality tests for Atlantic spotted dolphin putative populations. Abbreviations: N, number of samples; Nh, number of haplotypes; π , nucleotide diversity; AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico. Statistical significant values are represented in bold

	AZ	MAD	CAN	MAB	SAB	eGOM	wGOM	BAH	CAB	N_Br	Br_Uy
N	145	46	12	17	82	59	15	93	14	2	60
Nh	54	31	11	11	11	17	6	6	11	2	8
Exclusive haplotypes	31	12	2	2	5	10	1	0	5	0	3
π	0.0210	0.0202	0.0215	0.0120	0.0097	0.0090	0.0127	0.0065	0.0198	0.0534	0.0067
Polimorphic sites	55	48	32	17	14	22	13	8	38	22	10
Segregating sites	49	42	27	17	14	20	13	8	31	17	10
Gene diversity	0.949	0.981	0.985	0.941	0.714	0.914	0.800	0.572	0.934	1.000	0.633
Tajima's D	-0.700	-1.071	-0.971	-0.798	0.428	-0.932	0.227	0.968	-1.459	0.000	0.124
Tajima's D p-value	0.269	0.135	0.163	0.232	0.716	0.179	0.633	0.850	0.061	1.000	0.599
Fu's FS	-24.065	-15.597	-3.447	-3.452	0.297	-5.135	1.231	2.392	-2.205	3.091	0.255
Fu's FS p-value	0	0	0.039	0.039	0.602	0.028	0.745	0.853	0.132	0.599	0.6

Since our focus is relating environment and/or geography to genetics, we considered the two samples obtained from northern Brazil as a distinct population because we considered do not correct grouping these samples neither into Br_Uy nor CAB due to its geographic distances to both centroids. Ecological niche modeling data (do Amaral et al. 2015) and Moreno et al. (2005) suggested that individuals from northern Brazil could be not related to those from southeastern Brazil. Therefore, the higher values of molecular indexes obtained for this putative population were due to differences in the haplotypes recovered in these two samples, being necessary more samples to confirm the genetic diversity of dolphins from this area.

The neutrality tests estimated showed statistically significant and negative values of Fu's FS for the following putative populations: AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB and eGOM. Tajima's D was not statistically significant for all populations (Table 1).

Population differentiation

Pairwise F_{ST} , Φ_{ST} and Nei's dA are showed in Table 2. Overall, consistent differentiation between most putative populations was statistically significant for F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} . Both fixation indexes were consistent in showing no differentiation at the population level between AZ, MAD and CAN. Significant differentiation between Br_Uy and BAH in relation to all other populations was recovered (except that the

F_{ST} value between Br_Uy and N_Br was not significant). Both fixation indexes were consistent showing differentiation at the population level between Western North Atlantic putative populations (except the F_{ST} value between eGOM and MAB was not significant). Western North Atlantic populations seems to be differentiated from AZ, MAD and CAN in relation to both indexes. However, the relationship between MAB and the eastern Atlantic Islands is not consistent between F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} . The relationship between CAB and the remaining putative population was also not consistent between F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} . However, both markers revealed consistent differentiation among CAB and SAB, BAH and Br_Uy; and were also consistent in showing no differentiation among CAB and CAN, MAB and N_Br. The highest F_{ST} value was 0.39 between BAH and Br_Uy; and the highest Φ_{ST} value was 0.64 between N_Br and BAH. The lowest significant F_{ST} value was 0.02 between CAB and MAD; and the lowest significant Φ_{ST} value was 0.04 between eGOM and MAB.

Nei's dA values obtained ranged from 0.000005 to 0.017. The lowest Nei's dA values were obtained between N_Br and Br_Uy; and the highest values between either N_Br and MAD or Br_Uy and MAD. Both N_Br and Br_Uy populations had Nei's dA values higher than 0.01 when compared to others populations (except in the pairwise comparison with SAB). The comparison between Nei's dA values and fixation indexes is not totally consistent because some pairwise comparison that were not significant at one or both fixation indexes had higher Nei's dA values (for instance, AZ and MAD); and some pairwise comparison with low Nei's dA values had significant fixation index values (for instance, Br_Uy and SAB).

AMOVA analysis showed significant genetic structure among three different combinations of populations based on geography proximity (Table 3). The highest FCT and significance was recovered with the following groups: Group 1 including AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB; Group 2 represented by SAB, Group 3 including eGOM and wGOM; Group 4 represented by BAH; and Group 5 including CAB and N_Br; and, finally Group 6 represented by Br_Uy (FCT = 0.12841; p-value < 0.000001).

Table 2. Pairwise fixation index and Nei's estimate of net divergence (dA) values obtained between Atlantic spotted dolphins putative populations for mtDNA control region marker. Abbreviations: AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico. Statistical significant values are represented in bold.

	AZ	MAD	CAN	MAB	SAB	eGOM	wGOM	BAH	CAB	N_Br	Br_Uy	
F_{ST}	AZ		0.402	0.387	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.013	0.283	0.000	
	MAD	0.000		0.729	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.016	0.849	0.000	
	CAN	0.002	-0.006		0.181	0.002	0.035	0.002	0.000	0.216	0.961	0.001
	MAB	0.033	0.027	0.018		0.004	0.182	0.007	0.000	0.245	0.258	0.000
	SAB	0.091	0.122	0.114	0.087		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.030	0.000
	eGOM	0.050	0.044	0.036	0.012	0.125		0.000	0.000	0.053	0.094	0.000
	wGOM	0.109	0.097	0.110	0.085	0.228	0.115		0.000	0.001	0.114	0.000
	BAH	0.210	0.234	0.257	0.256	0.263	0.182	0.347		0.000	0.033	0.000
	CAB	0.032	0.025	0.011	0.013	0.158	0.030	0.125	0.269		0.614	0.000
	N_Br	0.021	-0.019	-0.032	0.044	0.206	0.065	0.152	0.357	0.049		0.065
	Br_Uy	0.120	0.149	0.178	0.231	0.266	0.195	0.302	0.388	0.211	0.273	
	Φ_{ST}	AZ		0.806	0.577	0.123	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.133	0.049
MAD		-0.007		0.629	0.133	0.000	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.137	0.052	0.000
CAN		-0.012	-0.012		0.157	0.014	0.003	0.018	0.000	0.093	0.096	0.011
MAB		0.021	0.019	0.029		0.000	0.049	0.047	0.000	0.231	0.037	0.002
SAB		0.152	0.189	0.121	0.258		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000
eGOM		0.067	0.072	0.122	0.041	0.317		0.002	0.000	0.004	0.004	0.000
wGOM		0.083	0.080	0.110	0.072	0.380	0.106		0.000	0.054	0.094	0.000
BAH		0.190	0.244	0.293	0.316	0.403	0.174	0.324		0.000	0.005	0.000
CAB		0.021	0.021	0.049	0.016	0.365	0.081	0.049	0.310		0.116	0.000
N_Br		0.203	0.223	0.164	0.422	0.617	0.534	0.367	0.640	0.151		0.012
Br_Uy		0.061	0.069	0.114	0.130	0.245	0.083	0.242	0.247	0.187	0.628	
Nei's dA		AZ	0.0000									
	MAD	0.0044	0.0000									
	CAN	0.0013	0.0051	0.0000								
	MAB	0.0023	0.0003	0.0033	0.0000							
	SAB	0.0051	0.0088	0.0043	0.0069	0.0000						
	eGOM	0.0011	0.0068	0.0024	0.0037	0.0036	0.0000					
	wGOM	0.0012	0.0068	0.0025	0.0039	0.0054	0.0006	0.0000				
	BAH	0.0034	0.0069	0.0044	0.0051	0.0062	0.0043	0.0051	0.0000			
	CAB	0.0012	0.0050	0.0001	0.0032	0.0050	0.0026	0.0024	0.0050	0.0000		
	N_Br	0.0131	0.0172	0.0112	0.0154	0.0021	0.0103	0.0130	0.0133	0.0121	0.0000	
	Br_Uy	0.0130	0.0172	0.0111	0.0153	0.0020	0.0101	0.0129	0.0130	0.0120	0.0000047	0.0000

Table 3. Results from analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) of population structure in Atlantic spotted dolphin. Abbreviations: AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico. Statistical significant values are represented in bold

Groups	Source of variation	% variation	F-statistics
1 = {AZ, MAD, CAN}; 2 = {MAB, SAB, eGOM, wGOM, BAH}, 3 = {CAB, N_Br}, 4 = {Br_Uy}	Among groups	-0.240	FCT = -0.00242 (p-value > 0.05)
	Among populations within groups	15.060	
	Within populations	85.190	
1 = {AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB}; 2 = {SAB}, 3 = {eGOM, wGOM, CAB, N_Br}, 4 = {BAH}, 5 = {Br_Uy}	Among groups	11.780	FCT = 0.11784 (p-value < 0.005)
	Among populations within groups	4.250	
	Within populations	83.970	
1 = {AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB}; 2 = {SAB}, 3 = {eGOM, wGOM}, 4 = {BAH}, 5 = {CAB, N_Br}, 6 = {Br_Uy}	Among groups	12.84	FCT = 0.12841 (p-value < 0.000001)
	Among populations within groups	3.19	
	Within populations	83.97	
1 = {AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB}; 2 = {SAB, eGOM, wGOM, BAH}, 3 = {Br_Uy}, 4 = {CAB, N_Br}	Among groups	0.32	FCT = 0.0032 (p-value > 0.05)
	Among populations within groups	14.62	
	Within populations	85.06	
1 = {AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB}; 2 = {SAB}, 3 = {BAH, eGOM, wGOM, CAB} 4 = {N_Br, Br_Uy}	Among groups	8.73	FCT = 0.08726 (p-value < 0.01)
	Among populations within groups	7.49	
	Within populations	83.79	
1 = {AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB}; 2 = {SAB}, 3 = {BAH, eGOM, wGOM, CAB, N_Br} 4 = {Br_Uy}	Among groups	8.84	FCT = 0.08844 (p-value < 0.05)
	Among populations within groups	7.4	
	Within populations	83.75	

Phylogenetic relationships

The median-joining network obtained was complex and revealed that all haplotypes are very closely related to each other, with a few of them showing higher differentiation by mutation steps (Fig. S1). Many haplotypes are shared among all populations and 71 are exclusive of different populations. AZ had the highest number of sequences analyzed, and 54 haplotypes were found in this population with 31 being exclusive. Taking into account the sample size, MAD, CAN, MAB and CAB had higher numbers of different haplotypes. AZ and MAD share several haplotypes between each other, but also with other populations. On the other hand, SAB, BAH and Br_Uy, that have more than 60 sequences analyzed, the number of haplotypes ranged from six to 11. SAB and Br_Uy had five and three haplotypes exclusives, respectively. BAH and N_Br do not have exclusive haplotypes. All populations shared a minimum of two haplotypes.

The phylogenetic tree of haplotypes revealed that Haplotype 52, which was recovered in one sample from La Guajira, diverged from all others haplotypes. Some clusters were recovered with posterior

probability higher than 0.9. In general, these clusters are mainly formed by haplotypes from North Atlantic at low frequencies (Fig. S2).

Procrustes analyses

Despite our efforts to group samples into the most reasonable way taking into account geography and previous studies, we also analyzed samples at individual level analyses without any grouping of sequences *a priori* and further tested genetic data against both geography and environment through procrustes analyses.

Procrustes analysis between genetic similarity and geographic distance suggested a significant correlation ($t = 0.1719$, $p = 9.999e-05$), while the analysis between genetic similarity and environmental space was also significant ($t = 0.1015$, $p = 0.017098$).

The visual inspection of graphics (Fig. 2) suggested that those sequences from southern Atlantic (i.e., a Br_Uy and N_Br) have a strong relationship with those from northern Atlantic (Fig. 2a). When we analyze the graphic representing the relationship between genetic and environmental space (Figure 2b), we observe that AZ, MAD and CAN samples are further away from those from Western Atlantic; Br_Uy, SAB and MAB seem to be closest in relation to wGOM, eGOM, BAH, CAB and N_Br. The clusters observed in this graphic seem to be in agreement with our designation of groups *a priori*, since the colors used to represent *a priori* grouping of samples indicated that few individuals are dislocated in relation to its centroids and/or other individuals from the same group. Interesting, the most displaced sample from those collected in the Brazil-Uruguay region (blue color) is that sampled in Uruguay. This sample from Uruguay had the Haplotype 85, which is present in other 83 samples mainly from SAB ($n= 59$), AZ ($n=18$), BAH ($n=15$), and less often in others populations (CAN, eGOM, MAB, MAD). In Brazil, the Haplotype 85 was found only in three samples.

Fig. 2 Representation of procrustes analyses. a) The relationship between genetic and geography is showed. b) The relationship between the residuals of the previous procrustes and environment are represented in the environmental space. Samples were colored according to sampling area. Abbreviations: AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico

Environmental analysis

Based on the correlation among environmental layers pre-selected, we chose six uncorrelated layers to represent the environmental information in this study: bathymetry, slope, Mean Annual SSS, Annual Range in SSS, Mean Annual SST, and Annual Range in SST. The exception was the inclusion of Annual Range in SST which is correlated with Mean Annual of SST, but we considered including this layer because its a very important variable to represent the ranges of oceanographic conditions.

Principal Component Analyses (PCA) was performed with six environmental variables and Principal component 1 (PC1) explained 92.2% of variation and PC2 explained 6.5%. Both PCs components explain almost 99% of variation. Bathymetry and Mean Annual SST were the environmental variables that mainly contribute to the first and second components of PCs, respectively. Plot of PCA (Fig. 3) revealed the heterogeneity along the study area. However, some regions seem to have similar conditions. Western North Atlantic, Eastern North Atlantic and Western South Atlantic seem to have similar conditions; the equatorial zone in coast from America and Africa also seem to be similar; Gulf of Mexico seem to exhibit distinct conditions not found in other regions of the Atlantic Ocean.

Fig. 3 Representation of Principal Component Analyses (PCA) performed with six environmental variables. Similar colours indicate regions with similar conditions

We also analyzed the differences of environmental variables among the putative populations represented by more than one geographic coordinate in our dataset. Kruskal-Wallis tests were significant for all environmental layers, revealing significant differences among all putative populations (Table S2). However, pairwise comparisons revealed that some populations were not differentiated in relation to some environmental layers (Table S3). The environmental characteristics of putative populations in relation to each environmental variable were represented in boxplots (Fig. 4).

In relation to geophysical layers, CAB had the highest median bathymetry (654 m depth) and Slope (20°). CAN had the lowest median bathymetry (5 m depth), probably because all samples from CAN are from stranded animals. Although MAB had median equal to 39 m depth equal to Br_Uy and similar to SAB, individuals from MAB were also recorded in waters of 2,000 m depth. Medians from eGOM and wGOM were 54 m depth and 92 m depth, respectively. Although almost of all populations had slope medians equal to 1 (except CAB), the slope of areas ranged considerable and CAN, CAB and MAB exhibited the highest differences. The remaining areas seem to be flatter and had lower values of slope.

In relation to SSS, CAN and N_Br had the highest median of Mean Annual SSS (more than 36 psu) as well as the lowest values of Annual Range in SSS (0.19 and 0.68 psu, respectively). Br_Uy, CAB, eGOM and SAB had medians of Mean Annual SSS around 35 psu, and Annual Range in SSS medians ranging from 0.90 psu to 3.65 in these areas. wGOM had Mean Annual of SSS equal to 34.7 psu and Annual Range in SSS equal to 3.7 psu. MAB had the lowest median of Mean Annual SSS (33 psu) and Annual Range in SSS equal to 2.24 psu.

In relation to SST, CAB and N_Br had the highest median of Mean Annual SST (more than 27°C) as well as the lowest values of Annual Range in SST (3.2 and 2°C, respectively). Br_Uy and SAB had pretty similar median of Mean Annual SST (around 23°C), but medians were significantly different in relation to Annual Range in SST (Br_Uy = 5°C; SAB = 9°C). eGOM and wGOM were not differentiated in relation to both Mean Annual and Annual Range of SST, where median of these variables were closest to 24 – 25 °C and 8 – 10°C, respectively. CAN and MAB had the lowest values of Mean Annual SST (20.5°C and 18°C, respectively). MAB had the highest value of Annual Range in SST around 13°C.

Fig. 4 Boxplots representing ranges of the six environmental variables analyzed for each putative population (represented by more than one geographic record). Abbreviations: AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico

Ecological Niche Modeling

In our study, the main aim of ecological niche modeling was to provide a map of suitability to estimate resistance matrix for further IBR analyses, thus we provided here a general description of models. We highlighted that these models were generated only taking into account the geographic coordinates analyzed in this study. Therefore, the models are most likely to just reflect environment suitability of these specific set of records and do not should be considered as a potential distribution model for the species in both contemporary and past conditions.

After filtering our geographic coordinates dataset representing the sequences analyzed, 98 presence records were used for training model. The best configuration model defined with the lowest AICc

value were feature class equals to Hinge (H) and regularization multiplier equals to 3.5. Environmental layers with the highest percentage of contribution to the model were bathymetry (85.9%) and Mean Annual SST. The model had AUC training equal to 0.967.

Prediction of the contemporary conditions (Fig. 5) suggested high environmental suitability along the continental shelf of Africa and around Oceanic Islands in the Eastern Atlantic; in the Western Atlantic, high suitability was recovered mainly in the Western North Atlantic shelf, Gulf of Mexico, and along the continental shelf from southeastern Brazil until Uruguay. In the Caribbean Sea, spots of high suitability were recovered in the continental shelf of Colombia and Venezuela. On the other hand, prediction in the LGM conditions (Figure 6) suggested high environmental suitability in specific areas along continental shelves of America and Africa. Since sea level reduced 120 m during the LGM, many areas of high suitability in the contemporary period were not available for the species in the LGM. Therefore, oceanic islands seems to exhibited more suitability at that time in relation to contemporary model.

Fig. 5 Maps representing the environmental suitability model for Atlantic spotted dolphin in (a) contemporary and (b) Last Glacial Maximum conditions. Warm colours represent high environmental suitability; cold colours low environmental suitability; and, black zones representing continental shelf portions that were dry during 120 m sea level regression. Model was generated from 98 presence records analyzed in this study, therefore should not be considered as a potential distribution map for the species in both contemporary and past conditions

“Isolation by” analyses

Four least-cost distance matrices were generated as well as its respective maps representing least-cost paths (Fig. 6). Least-cost distance with no constraint considered the least-cost path ignoring bathymetry, while least-cost with constraints computed transition object with maximum depth constraint of 300 m, 600 m, and 900 m (i.e., path impossible in waters deeper than 300 m, 600 m, and 900 m, respectively). The least-cost distance with maximum depth constraints were similar to each other and revealed interesting paths between populations.

Fig. 6 Least-cost distances maps. Lines represented the least-cost distances computed among putative populations of Atlantic spotted dolphins without and with a bathymetric constraint of 300 m, 600 m and 900 m

On the other hand, resistance distance analyses based on suitability models for contemporary conditions indicated multiple pathways among populations. In relation to resistance analyses based on suitability models for LGM conditions, only pathways including MAD, CAN, MAB, eGOM, wGOM and

CAB were considered because the remaining centroids were not represented in the LGM suitability map due to the decreasing of 120 m of sea level.

Simple linear regression between genetic matrices and resistance, geographic and environmental matrices are presented in Table 4. In the F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} matrices significant relationships were detected between both fixation indexes and three least-cost distances with constraints as well as between both fixation indexes and resistance matrix based on suitability map of LGM condition. In relation to Nei's dA matrix, significant relationships were detected between Nei's dA and least-cost distance with no constraint as well as between resistance matrices based on suitability map of contemporary and LGM conditions. The highest R^2 were from linearized Nei's dA against resistance matrix based on suitability map of contemporary conditions ($R^2 = 0.172$); and, linearized Φ_{ST} against least-cost distances with maximum of 300 m constraint ($R^2 = 0.172$).

Table 4. Simple linear regression between linearized F_{ST} , Φ_{ST} and Nei's dA matrices and least-cost as well as resistance matrices. Abbreviations: ENM, Ecological Niche Model; LGM, Last Glacial Maximum. Significant values are high-lighted in bold.

		r (slope)	R^2	P-value
F_{ST}	No restriction	2680.6	0.02704	0.2303
	Max. 300m depth	-315300000000	0.1667	0.001973
	Max. 600m depth	-299800000000	0.1692	0.001808
	Max. 900m depth	-280000000000	0.1683	0.001863
	Resistance ENM contemporary	20.85	0.004281	0.635
	Resistance ENM LGM	-95065	0.1387	0.005112
Φ_{ST}	No restriction	-279.4	0.001906	0.752
	Max. 300m depth	-125700000000	0.172	0.00165
	Max. 600m depth	-118600000000	0.1718	0.001653
	Max. 900m depth	-110800000000	0.1709	0.001706
	Resistance ENM contemporary	-19823	0.02511	0.2479
	Resistance ENM LGM	-31222	0.09707	0.0206
Nei's dA	No restriction	206707.8	0.1535	0.0031
	Max. 300m depth	-1020000000000	0.001666	0.767
	Max. 600m depth	-1042000000000	0.001951	0.749
	Max. 900m depth	-1031000000000	0.002178	0.7351
	Resistance ENM contemporary	4287.23	0.1727	0.0016
	Resistance ENM LGM	-2488333	0.09069	0.02547

DbRDA testes conducted considering least cost distances, environmental variables separately or summarized as PC1 did not detect significant IBD or IBE neither in marginal tests (Table 5) nor conditional tests (Table 6) that taking into account for spatial variation.

Table 5. Results of marginal dbRDA tests. Abbreviations: BAT, Bathymetry; SSS, Sea Surface Salinity; SST, Sea Surface Temperature; PC1, Principal Component 1

Marginal dbRDA Tests				
	Variable	F	P-value	% Variance
F _{ST}	SST	-0.88	0.96	-2.9
	BAT	-0.06	0.6	-0.19
	SSS	0.53	0.53	1.45
	PC1	-0.06	0.58	0.17
	Least cost distance no restriction	26.29	0	0
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	0.83	0.58	11.96
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.21	0.98	-4.37
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.21	0.97	-4.37
Φ _{ST}	SST	-2.31	0.97	-44.6
	BAT	-0.69	0.87	-10.73
	SSS	0.16	0.54	2.3
	PC1	-0.65	0.83	-10.06
	Least cost distance no restriction	128.78	0	0
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.10	0.92	-14.58
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.44	0.99	-54.40
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.44	0.99	-54.40
Nei dA	SST	2.98	0.12	0.01
	BAT	0.33	0.53	0.001
	SSS	0.22	0.71	0.001
	PC1	0.31	0.56	0.001
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0.03
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	0.69	0.72	0.013
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	0.61	0.71	0.0001
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	0.61	0.71	0.01

Table 6. Results of conditional dbRDA tests. Abbreviations: BAT, Bathymetry; SSS, Sea Surface Salinity; SST, Sea Surface Temperature; PC1, Principal Component 1

Conditional dbRDA Tests				
	Variables	F	P-value	% Variance
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
SST	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.09	0.84	-0.32
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.13	0.87	-0.82
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.13	0.87	0.82
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
BAT	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	0.87	0.46	2.45
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.25	0.95	-1.61
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.25	0.95	-1.61
F _{ST}	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
SSS	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	0.02	0.82	0.07
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	0.08	0.77	0.48
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	0.08	0.79	0.48
	Least cost distance no restriction	0,000	0,000	0,000
PC1	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	0.702	0.504	2.14
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.11	0.9	0.68
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.11	0.92	0.68
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
SST	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	0.06	0.58	2.08
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.28	0.8	-10.81
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.28	0.82	-10.81
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
BAT	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	2.65	0.21	57.18
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	0.44	0.56	14.83
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	0.44	0.54	14.83
Φ _{ST}	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
SSS	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.73	0.92	-32.19
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.9	0.94	-40.06
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.9	0.94	-40.06
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
PC1	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	1.95	0.25	46.9
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	0.52	0.51	17.43
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	0.52	0.51	17.43
Nei dA	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	2.25	0.2	0.01
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	1.53	0.3	0.005
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	1.53	0.3	0.005
BAT	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0

	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.01	0.81	-0.00004
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.27	0.97	-0.001
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.27	0.97	-0.001
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
SSS	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	10.64	0.06	0.01
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	2.56	0.16	0.01
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	2.56	0.17	0.01
	Least cost distance no restriction	0	0	0
PC1	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.46	0.95	-0.002
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.42	0.98	-0.002
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.42	0.98	-0.002

Mantel tests between Nei's dA genetic matrix and least-cost distance with no restriction was statistically significant ($r = 0.39$, $p = 0.02$), as well as between Nei's dA and resistance matrix based on suitability map of contemporary condition ($r = 0.41$, $p = 0.04$) (Table 7). All remaining comparisons including marginal tests considering least-cost distances, environmental Euclidean Distances, resistance distances (Table 7), and, conditional tests considering Euclidean distances controlling for least-cost distances were not statistically significant (Table 8).

Table 7. Results of marginal Mantel tests. Abbreviation: LGM, Last Glacial Maximum Significant results are typed in bold

Marginal Mantel Tests			
	Variable	r	P-value
	Least cost distance no restriction	0.16	0.19
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.41	0.99
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.41	0.99
F _{ST}	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.41	0.99
	Environmental (Euclidean Distance)	-0.22	0.74
	Contemporary Ecological Niche Modeling (Resistance)	0.06	0.39
	LGM Ecological Niche Modeling (Resistance)	-0.37	0.98
	Least cost distance no restriction	-0.04	0.59
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.41	0.99
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.41	0.99
Φ _{ST}	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.41	0.99
	Environmental (Euclidean Distance)	-0.15	0.63
	Contemporary Ecological Niche Modeling (Resistance)	-0.16	0.74
	LGM Ecological Niche Modeling (Resistance)	-0.31	0.99
Nei dA	Least cost distance no restriction	0.39	0.02
	Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.04	0.52
	Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.04	0.55
	Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.05	0.57
	Environmental (Euclidean Distance)	-0.1	0.51

Contemporary Ecological Niche Modeling (Resistance)	0.41	0.04
LGM Ecological Niche Modeling (Resistance)	-0.30	0.93

Table 8. Results of conditional Mantel tests.

		Conditional Mantel Tests		
		Variables	r	P-value
F_{ST}	Environmental (Euclidean Distance)	Least cost distance no restriction	-0.20	0.66
		Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.29	0.90
		Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.29	0.92
		Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.29	0.91
Φ_{ST}	Environmental (Euclidean Distance)	Least cost distance no restriction	-0.16	0.65
		Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.22	0.88
		Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.22	0.90
		Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.22	0.88
Nei dA	Environmental (Euclidean Distance)	Least cost distance no restriction	-0.03	0.47
		Least cost distance Max 300m depth restriction	-0.10	0.52
		Least cost distance Max 600m depth restriction	-0.10	0.51
		Least cost distance Max 900m depth restriction	-0.10	0.53

Discussion

In this study, we evaluated by the first time the genetic structure along the full species range of Atlantic spotted dolphins using mtDNA CR marker. Furthermore, we investigated the relationship among genetic structure, geography, and contemporary and past environment heterogeneity following a seascape genetics approach. Our results show that both geography and environment have a significant relationship with genetic structure, including past environment conditions. Although we do not detect a strong relationship, the results suggest that geographic distances, namely IBD, could have more influence in such larger great study scale, while environmental heterogeneity could be more influent in smaller scales as already proposed for the species (Viricel and Rosel 2014).

Genetic Structure

Recently, the importance of mtDNA CR marker in studies conducted with cetaceans species was highlighted even in the era of next generation sequencing due to great number of species that have this marker sequenced and easily available in data repositories such as GenBank (Rosel et al. 2017a, b). Several metrics and markers that could be used to improve taxonomic resolution among cetaceans species were reviewed, and Nei's dA net divergence and Φ_{ST} seemed to perform better in relation to other metrics in

studies conducted with mtDNA CR marker (Rosel et al. 2017b). Since traditionally, landscape genetic studies use linearized F_{ST} to test for the relationships between genetic and geographic distances (Rousset 1997), we decide to also estimate this statistics so that this study can be comparable with others that have been conducted following a seascape genetics approach. Therefore, we analyzed and present results in three different metrics to investigate genetic structure (F_{ST} , Φ_{ST} and Nei's dA) along Atlantic spotted dolphin distribution. Furthermore, our Nei's DA results were within the interval considered appropriate for population designation (0.00007 – 0.004) and, in some comparisons Nei's dA values were higher than 0.014, which is the threshold considered appropriate to subspecies differentiation (Rosel et al. 2017b).

In relation to studies previously conducted with Atlantic spotted dolphin, our ranges of fixation and molecular diversity indexes seems to be similar to other studies (Adams and Rosel 2006; Green et al. 2007; Qu erouil et al. 2010; Caballero et al. 2013; Viricel and Rosel 2014). However, the pairwise relationship between populations changed in some cases, and putative populations considered not statically differentiated in previous studies were considered different populations here; for example, we obtained significant F_{ST} between MAB and Azores, and between BAH in relation to GOM and SAB. Probably, this happened due to the inclusion of samples never analyzed before and also due to changes in the frequency of haplotypes in each population analyzed previously (Green 2008; Viricel and Rosel 2014), because we are not able to include the exactly same set of samples analyzed previously.

We also highlight the importance of inclusion of areas never analyzed before to understand population structure along Atlantic spotted dolphin distribution. Samples from the Canary Islands, northern Brazil and from the southernmost limit of the species were analyzed for the first time. We also included a higher number of samples from southeastern Brazil and added more samples from Caribbean in the dataset. Unfortunately, we could not get samples from Western Africa, which should become indispensable in further studies. In relation to these new samples added, CAN seems to be more closely related to the AZ and MAD. Therefore, AZ, MAD and CAN could be considered one oceanic population with the inclusion of MAB based on mtDNA CR marker.

The analyses of samples obtained from south/ southeastern Brazil and Uruguay revealed lower diversity indexes and were statistically differentiated from almost all populations in relation to both fixation indexes as suggested previously by Caballero et al. (2013). Since we analyzed a higher number of samples

from Brazil, we highlighted the lowest number of haplotypes and nucleotide diversity recovered in this population, being 8 and 0.0067 respectively. Other populations such as CAB and AZ with a sample size of almost a fifth and quarter, respectively, than Brazil have extremely higher values of both indexes. Nei's d_A values were higher than those considered to designate subspecies in almost all pairwise comparisons, indicating a strong evidence for both geographic and reproductive isolation of this population.

In relation to Atlantic spotted dolphins that are recorded in north Brazil it is difficult to determinate its relationship with other populations because a gap of approximately 1,500 km is recognized between 6°S and 18°S due to the narrow of continental shelf (Moreno et al. 2005) and low environmental suitability (do Amaral et al. 2015). Taking into account fluxing of the warm North Brazil Current (NBC), it seems reasonable proposing that North Brazil individuals are more related to the Caribbean. Costa et al. (2017) had already proposed that the north Brazil cetacean fauna seems more similar with those from southern Caribbean region rather than from southern Brazil. However, two samples analyzed here were not enough to elucidate the relationship of individuals from north Brazil with the remaining populations. Our results revealed that one sample had Haplotype 45 which was only recovered in 4 samples from Brazil collected off the 50 m isobath. The other sample had Haplotype 53 which was also found in 6, 3 and 1 samples from AZ, MAD and CAN, respectively.

The position of Uruguayan sample in the Brazil population is intriguing. Moreno et al. (2005) had suggested that dolphins from southeastern Brazil follow the displacement of Brazil Current southward in the summer months. Posteriorly, this idea was corroborated by ecological niche modeling (do Amaral et al. 2015). These factors led us to group samples from south Brazil (~ 29°S) and Uruguay (~34°S) with those collected in the SBB, therefore considering only one population (namely, Br_Uy) from approximately 22°S to 34°S in the Western Atlantic Ocean. The sample collected at south Brazil (~29°S) had Haplotype 71, which is also found in eight samples from SBB and two samples from AZ and MAD. However, Haplotype 85 recovered in the Uruguayan sample has high frequency in North Atlantic, mainly in SAB. This result is surprising and we considered that individuals from Atlantic Spotted dolphin southernmost distribution deserve attention in future studies, and they are essential to provide a better understanding of dispersal of the species.

Caballero et al. (2013) highlighted the high number of haplotypes shared between Azores, Madeira and Brazilian samples and suggested, based on data available at that time, Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Central Atlantic (i.e. Azores–Madeira–southeastern Brazil) should be managed as one population for practical terms. However, since we analyzed a sample size six times higher than those analyzed by Caballero et al. (2013) and recovered low diversity indexes and statistically significant differences between Br_Uy and all putative populations along species range, including Caribbean, we suggested that individuals from southeastern/south South America should be considered as a different population for management purposes until more data becomes available.

In relation to the Caribbean, despite the relatively small number of samples analyzed here the genetic diversity found was high. In general, fixation indexes and Nei's DA values indicated no differentiation of the Caribbean in relation to Western North Atlantic populations and the Oceanic population (AZ, MAD, CAN and MAB). Caballero et al. (2013) founded no differentiation in pairwise comparisons of CAB with Azores and Madeira in relation to Φ_{ST} ; but these comparisons were significant for F_{ST} . We considered that further studies should be carried out to better determinate the relationships of Caribbean individuals with other regions. At this point, we can just confirmed the hypothesis proposed by Caballero et al. (2013), which suggested that Caribbean and the southeastern Brazil belong each other to separate populations based on significant differentiation found at mtDNA CR marker.

In relation to Western North Atlantic, we recovered similar patterns already obtained (e.g., Adams and Rosel 2006; Viricel and Rosel 2014). Small differences in the values of fixation or molecular diversity index could be explained by different sample sizes included here, since we filtered sequences according to the availability of precise geographic coordinates. An interesting pattern recovered in our study was the significant differentiation of BAH population in relation to all putative populations analyzed, and mainly from closest populations such as eGOM and SAB. Previous genetic analysis showed that this population was connected with those from the GOM and SAB probably mediated by the Gulf Stream flow (Green 2008). However, we recovered significant and higher differentiation in relation to wGOM and SAB; and, slightly lower differences were recovered in relation to eGOM. We believed that these differences could be attributed to different sample size analyzed, since after the studies of Green (2008) more sequences from

Western North Atlantic become available through the studies of Kingston et al. (2009) and Viricel and Rosel (2014).

Despite the inherent difficulty to group cetacean individuals in populations, we believe that our results are in agreement with previous studies that tested differentiation among putative populations of Atlantic spotted dolphins based on both mtDNA and nuclear data. Furthermore, the Procrustes analyses conducted at individual level and with no determination of groups *a priori* indicated significant relationships between genetic, geography and environment. Although these analyses are not commonly conducted with mtDNA data, we believe that the results obtained were very interesting and allowed a better understanding of our data. The relationships between geography and environment were not so evident in the “isolation by” analysis (see discussion below), but the patterns of grouping in the procrustes showed a pattern that corroborated other analyses. For example, the strong influence of North Atlantic haplotypes in South Hemisphere is evident in Fig. 2a. In the analysis of genetic versus environment the clusters showed in the Figure 2b are in agreement with our division of putative populations *a priori* with few individuals far from its counterparts. Such pattern is easily explained by the mobility of this top predator species. Furthermore, this last procrustes analysis brings light to similarities of clusters in the environmental space that would not be expected taking into account the great environmental heterogeneity of the Atlantic Ocean; for example the proximity of Br_Uy with SAB and MAB populations. These similarities and differences were also better visualized in the boxplot analyzes. As pointed out by (Massatti et al. (2017), procrustes analyses in a genetic context are interpreted under the assumption that individuals from populations closer in geographic proximity will be more closely related (i.e., IBD), and deviations from this pattern bring to light interesting biological and/or historical phenomena.

“Isolation by”

Taking as a whole, the regression of genetic distances against least-cost distances and resistance matrices were significant and suggested that both contemporary conditions and least-cost distance with a maximum of 300 m depth constraint could be considered as a predictor of genetic differentiation. Although we have significant values in our tests, our coefficient values are relatively low, suggesting that just 17% of genetic variation could be explained by environment or geography. These results are in agreement with procrustes analyses that also suggested a significant correlation between geography and environment with

genetics, being the correlation between geography and genetic slightly higher than environment and genetic.

Although we find some level of explanations in the models, we considered that many factors play role to explain these pattern such as 1) the scale of study, 2) the environmental similarity of some unexpected regions, 3) the utilization of one pair of geographic coordinates (i.e, centroids) to represent each population, 4) the methods utilized (dbRDA and Mantel tests), 5) the utilization of mtDNA CR, and 6) the possibility of social structure driving genetic patterns at some regions (e.g. BAH).

The formers four factors could be considered complementary to each other to explain our results. Environmental analyses (see Figs. 2b, 3 and 4) revealed similarities between regions unexpected to be similar, for example Western North Atlantic and Western South Atlantic. Since we used environmental information sampled for a centroid of each regions in both dbRDA and Mantel tests, maybe the environmental information extracted from just one point (i.e, centroid) was not able to capture properly the environmental differences among regions. Although is noteworthy to point out that the ecological similarities from Western North Atlantic and Western South Atlantic were recovered by a principal Component Analyses (PCA) performed with six environmental variables (see Fig. 3).

At large scale study conducted with the grey wolf (*Canis lupus*), a top predator widely distributed and with high dispersal capabilities, Geffen et al. (2004) recovered significant IBD and, when spatial variation was taken into account, a significant relationship between genetic variation and climate were detected in the case of microsatellite Nei's distance or F_{ST} based on mtDNA RFLP profiles. However, the authors did not detected significant relationships of a set of environmental variables with genetic structure even considering longitude and latitude as covariables. The authors attributed these results to a lack of power of the analyses due to the low number of populations analyzed at that time. Despite the inherent differences between terrestrial and marine environment, we considered some similarities between our study and the grey wolf' study because both used dbRDA tests that failed to detect isolation by environment in top predators with high dispersal abilities at large scales. Perhaps these relationship between environment and genetic should be tested at regional scales, where with a reduced dataset environmental data could be included in a more comprehensive way. For example, Viricel and Rosel (2014) had already suggested that

environment play a role to explain genetic differences between adjacent regions (eGOM and wGOM) in Western North Atlantic.

Mantel tests is widely used in landscape/seascape studies (Manel 2003; Storfer et al. 2007; Balkenhol et al. 2009; Mendez et al. 2010, 2011; Amaral et al. 2012; He et al. 2013). Despite several criticisms and discussions about the statistical performance of Mantel tests have been made, and other sophisticated and complex approaches to analyze spatial multivariate data are available the Mantel test is still widely used (Diniz-Filho et al. 2013). The authors suggested that Mantel tests provide a simple and useful tool for multivariate analysis of spatial patterns of genetic divergence mainly if the ecological or evolutionary hypotheses are expressed as pairwise distances or similarities and considering a careful application and interpretation of Mantel tests (Diniz-Filho et al. 2013).

The analysis conducted by Mendez et al. (2011) for humpback dolphins along Western Indian Ocean did not show patterns of IBD or IBE. The authors suggested that lack of IBD is not uncommon among cetaceans, and has been attributed to a negligible influence of geography in the presence of other factors, such as behavioral constraints or environmental discontinuities (Mendez et al. 2010). However, Mendez et al. (2011) observed a strong and seemingly overlapping genetic and environmental breaks and suggested that these environmental breaks could have some influence in the genetic structure of humpback dolphin populations in a non-linear or proportional manner. Indeed, the most part of analyzes performed here and the Mantel tests assuming a linear correlation among data. However, water resources data frequently exhibit features resulting in a deviation from linearity: asymmetry or skewness, outliers and heavy tails (symmetric data with more observations at both extremes) (Helsel and Hirsch 2002). Thus, we hypothesized that the non-linearity of our data could also have an impact in the analyses performed here.

In general, we observed that our different methods (Simple linear regression, Mantel tests and even procrustes analyses) are in agreement at some level. All of them suggested a pattern of IBD with some influence of IBE. Therefore, we believe that the large spatial scale of our study and the methods that assuming a linearity of data could play a role to explain the low levels of correlation among genetic structure, geography and environment.

In relation to use of mtDNA CR, we believed that the inclusion of more samples and more nuclear markers certainly will improve the power of analyses. But we advocate in defense of mtDNA CR because

this marker provides an exceptional opportunity to investigate the genetic structure along almost the total distribution of a cetacean species. As pointed out by Holderegger and Wagner (2008), mtDNA often do not provide enough genetic variation among individuals at the spatial scales of landscape genetic studies. However, if there is enough mtDNA variation among the individuals within a landscape, dispersal can be readily determined (Holderegger and Wagner 2008). At this point, we cannot determine dispersal among populations and this is not our goal, but certainly mtDNA CR analyses revealed some interesting patterns along Atlantic spotted dolphin distribution that should be further investigated.

In relation to social structure, our aim was neither looking for phylopatry within populations or within sexes nor identifying sex-biased dispersal - already investigated by Adams and Rosel (2006) and Quérouil et al. (2010). However, we observed that BAH population exhibit a high degree of pairwise differentiation even among the closest populations such as eGOM and SAB. The population of Bahamas is long-term studied, and social clusters and some level of cluster phylopatry for both sexes were found (Elliser and Herzing 2012). Furthermore, this community of Atlantic spotted dolphins in Bahamas has long-term affiliations that are often correlated with age, sex, and reproduction factors, being mating strategies and sex the primary factors shaping social structure. Reproduction and social familiarity strongly influence female associations, whereas age and alliance formation strongly affect male associations (Elliser and Herzing 2014). In Gulf of Mexico, indirect evidences of some kind of site fidelity was reported by (Viricel and Rosel 2014), since one of the samples was collected twice in the same region with a difference of five years. In Brazil, a relatively higher number of individuals from SBB was photo-identified in the same place in a interval of two years (Santos et al. 2018). Therefore, we hypothesized that social structure could have some impact in our analyses, probably confusing our matrices analyses because great genetic differentiation was recovered at short distances, for example, in the pairwise comparison between BAH and SAB.

Regression analyses detected a significant relationship between genetic structure and resistance matrices based on past conditions. Much of continental shelf was exposed when sea level reduced 120 m along Atlantic Ocean, therefore many areas that are occupied today by dolphins were lost during LGM (see Fig. 6). Some populations analyzed here (SAB, BAH, N_Br, Br_UY) were not considered in the resistance matrix based on environmental suitability of LGM, because its respective centroids were not represented in the LGM map. Transgression and regression of sea during glacial cycles had also a great impact in the

southeastern Brazil shelf (Mahiques et al. 2010). Despite a high environmental suitability was recovered in the LGM model, the continental shelf suffered a substantial narrowing in the SBB, for example. Furthermore, it was suggested that the western South Atlantic could be colder than at present, within the expected range for a glacial interval (Laprida et al. 2011). Overall, haplotype network indicated a strong connection of all haplotypes with those from AZ and MAD, and also a high genetic diversity and signal of population expansion were recovered in the Oceanic population (AZ, MAD, CAN, MAB). Procrustes analyses also revealed a strong relationship between southern hemisphere and northern hemisphere populations. Thus, we hypothesized that Oceanic population were environmentally more stable during the LGM, and since these individuals may were not present in the continental shelf, having an oceanic distribution, they were able to recolonize posteriorly different areas of the continental shelf that have similar environmental characteristics (e.g., Western North Atlantic and Western South Atlantic) are not adapted to continental shelf they were able to recolonize different areas of the continental shelf. Viricel and Rosel (2014) had already proposed the influence of sea level changes to explain the genetic differences within GOM.

General considerations

In comparison to other studies that analyzed population structure using mtDNA CR marker in *Stenella* dolphins, we observed that our values were similar from those comparisons within oceanic basins (Escorza-Treviño et al. 2005; Andrews et al. 2013). However, in some pairwise comparisons between populations of Atlantic spotted dolphin we recovered higher values of Φ_{ST} than those values obtained in pairwise comparisons between ecotypes and/or subspecies described for Spinner dolphin (*Stenella longirostris*) and Pantropical spotted dolphin (*S. attenuata*). In relation to Clymene dolphin (*S. clymene*), which is also endemic of the Atlantic Ocean, a preliminary study also indicated that individuals from Brazil are distinct from those of North Atlantic, mainly from oceanic waters of North Atlantic, while and some level of connection was recovered between South Atlantic individuals and those from Gulf of Mexico (Nara et al. 2017).

In general, information of genetic structure of *Stenella* dolphins in Atlantic Ocean and the relationships of dolphins from the Atlantic Coast of South America with those from North Atlantic is scarce

or even nonexistent for most species of *Stenella*. Therefore, based on our results and those obtained for Clymene dolphin (Nara et al. 2017), we suggested that other species of *Stenella* could also have exhibit some level of population differentiation in south Atlantic waters and deserve attention in future studies.

Conclusion

In this study, we revealed that Atlantic spotted dolphin exhibits significant population structure along its distribution based on mtDNA CR marker. Since we analyzed a short fragment of mtDNA CR, we highlighted that the patterns recovered here deserve further investigation.

We also pointed out the distinctiveness of those individuals from southeastern Brazil and the complex relationships among populations evidenced by our results. Nevertheless, we reinforce the necessity of more information to determine the status of individuals recorded in Brazil and also to provide a better understanding of the relationship of individuals recorded along the Atlantic Coast of South America. These aims should be addressing through the analyze of nuclear markers such as SNPs and the inclusion of more samples. Specifically, we recommend more sampling effort in the north and south Brazil as well as Uruguay, and from individuals recorded in the outer continental shelf. We believed that the inclusion of more genetic markers and individuals from the outer continental shelf should bring some light regarding the connections among populations. Beyond that, it is crucial the inclusion of individuals from Eastern Africa in further studies.

Despite we had detected some level of IBD and IBR including contemporary and past conditions, we also hypothesized that different process could play role to explain the genetic patterns recovered here such as social structure and some level of phylopatry within populations.

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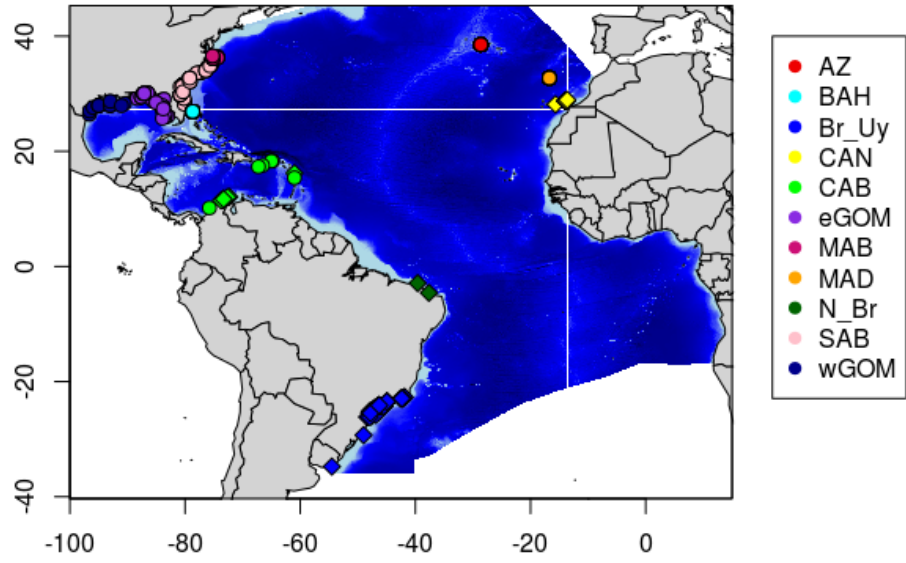
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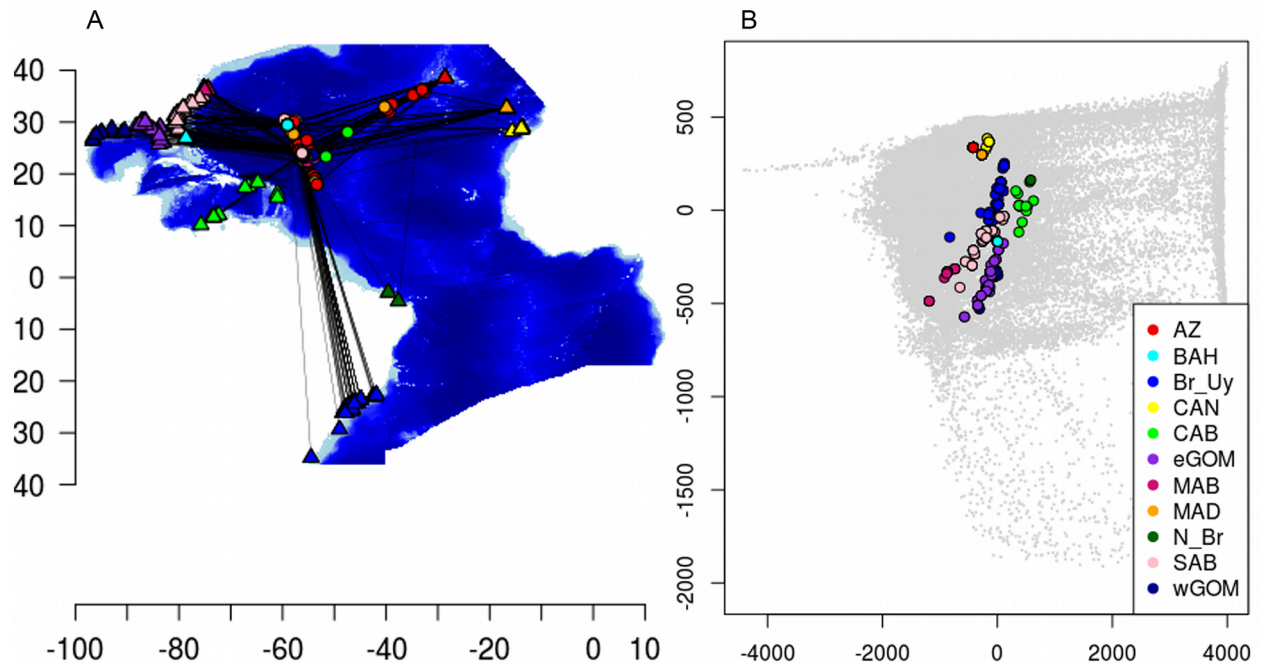
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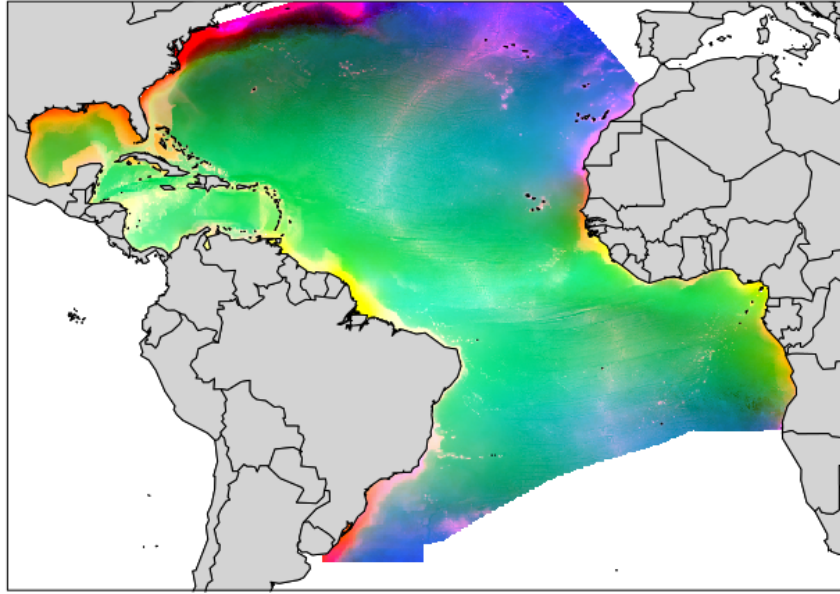
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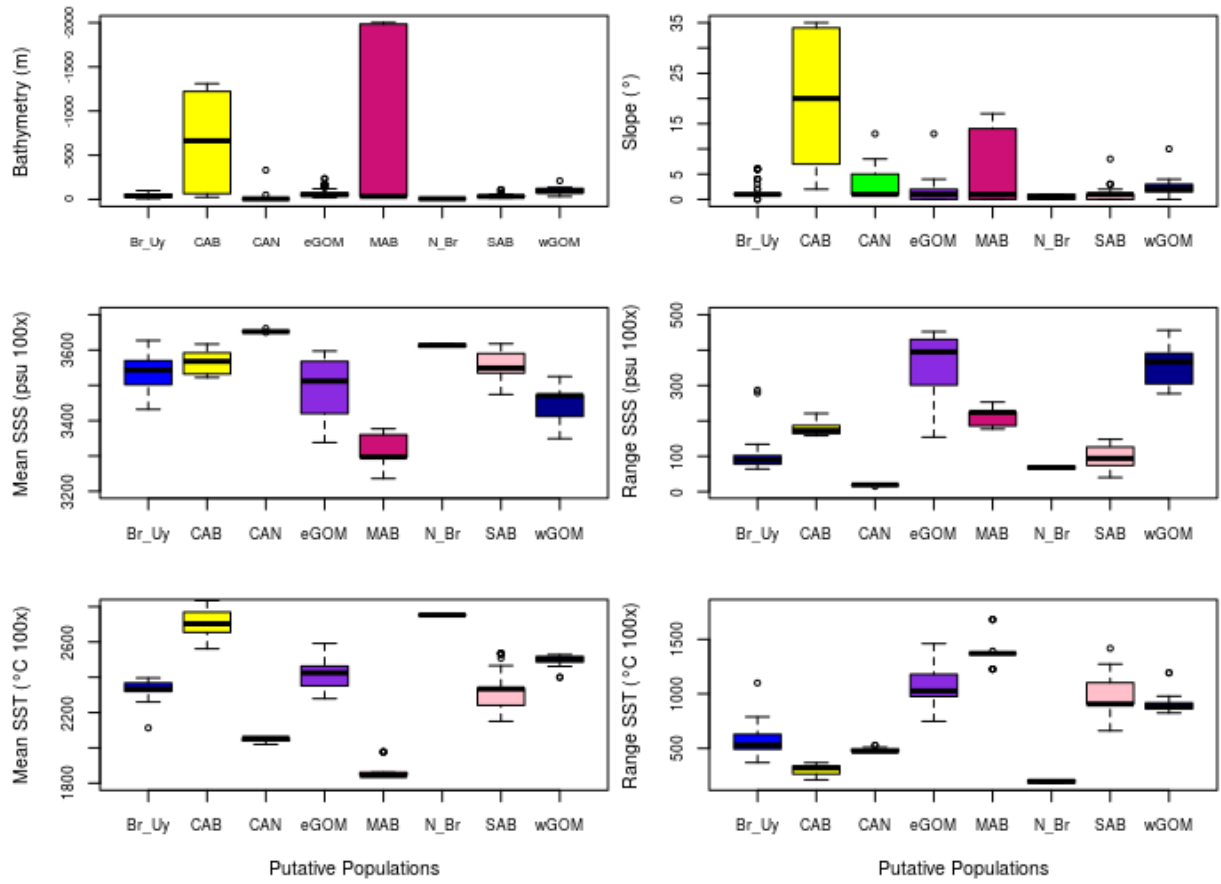
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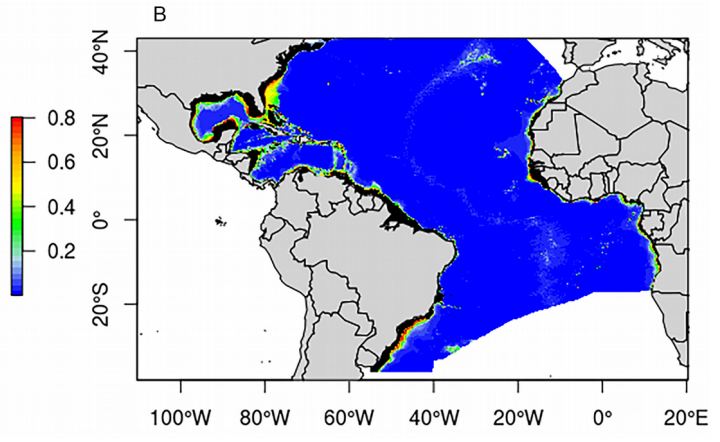
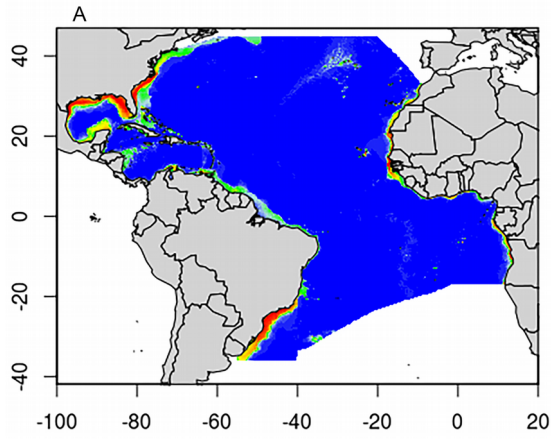
Figures

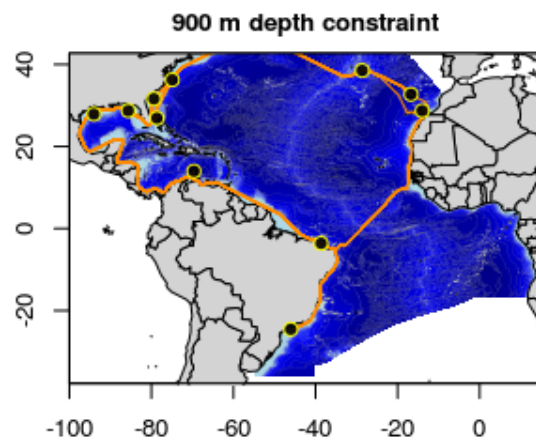
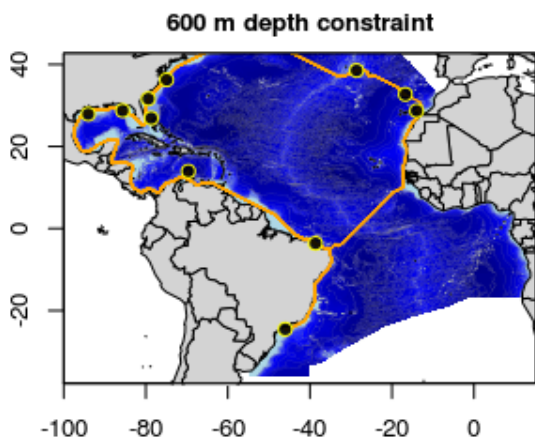
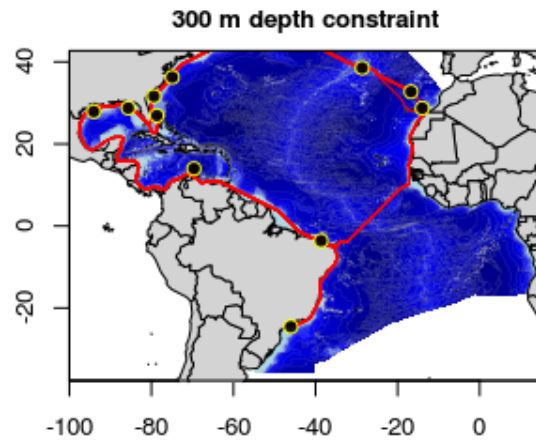
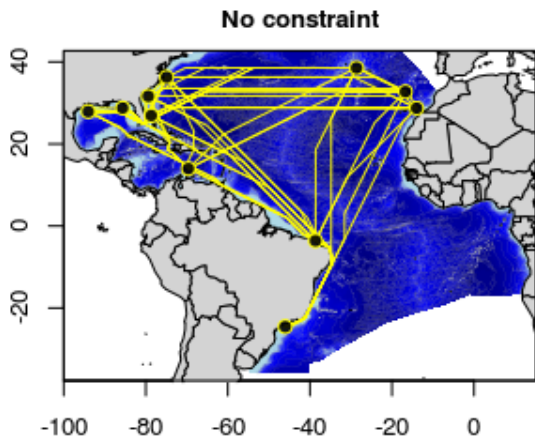












SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table S1. Samples information and GenBank accession numbers. Abbreviations: AZ, Azores; BAH, Bahamas; Br_Uy, Brazil and Uruguay; CAB, Caribbean; CAN, Canary; eGOM, eastern Gulf of Mexico; MAB, Mid-Atlantic Bight; MAD, Madeira; N_Br, Northern Brazil; SAB, South Atlantic Bight; wGOM, western Gulf of Mexico

GenBank Accession Number	Lab_ID	Population	Haplotype	Longitude	Latitude	Reference
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EF682749.1	AzMd_EF682749.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682751.1	AzMd_EF682751.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682737.1	AzMd_EF682737.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682765.1	AzMd_EF682765.1	AZ	hap46	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682766.1	AzMd_EF682766.1	AZ	hap50	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682713.1	AzMd_EF682713.1	AZ	hap29	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682702.1	AzMd_EF682702.1	AZ	hap24	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682680.1	AzMd_EF682680.1	AZ	hap50	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682771.1	AzMd_EF682771.1	AZ	hap50	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682662.1	AzMd_EF682662.1	AZ	hap50	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682686.1	AzMd_EF682686.1	AZ	hap49	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682774.1	AzMd_EF682774.1	AZ	hap49	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682722.1	AzMd_EF682722.1	AZ	hap85	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682668.1	AzMd_EF682668.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682787.1	AzMd_EF682787.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010

EF682759.1	AzMd_EF682759.1	AZ	hap73	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682742.1	AzMd_EF682742.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682700.1	AzMd_EF682700.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682793.1	AzMd_EF682793.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682683.1	AzMd_EF682683.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682730.1	AzMd_EF682730.1	AZ	hap54	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682770.1	AzMd_EF682770.1	AZ	hap85	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682726.1	AzMd_EF682726.1	AZ	hap11	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682729.1	AzMd_EF682729.1	AZ	hap46	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682733.1	AzMd_EF682733.1	AZ	hap11	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682773.1	AzMd_EF682773.1	AZ	hap16	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682762.1	AzMd_EF682762.1	AZ	hap12	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682747.1	AzMd_EF682747.1	AZ	hap70	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682711.1	AzMd_EF682711.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682670.1	AzMd_EF682670.1	AZ	hap6	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682707.1	AzMd_EF682707.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682654.1	AzMd_EF682654.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682739.1	AzMd_EF682739.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682673.1	AzMd_EF682673.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682689.1	AzMd_EF682689.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682784.1	AzMd_EF682784.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682783.1	AzMd_EF682783.1	AZ	hap18	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682725.1	AzMd_EF682725.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682738.1	AzMd_EF682738.1	AZ	hap17	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682694.1	AzMd_EF682694.1	AZ	hap35	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682708.1	AzMd_EF682708.1	AZ	hap70	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682754.1	AzMd_EF682754.1	AZ	hap16	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682757.1	AzMd_EF682757.1	AZ	hap7	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682758.1	AzMd_EF682758.1	AZ	hap81	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682740.1	AzMd_EF682740.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682728.1	AzMd_EF682728.1	AZ	hap6	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682745.1	AzMd_EF682745.1	AZ	hap68	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682768.1	AzMd_EF682768.1	AZ	hap68	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682660.1	AzMd_EF682660.1	AZ	hap7	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682697.1	AzMd_EF682697.1	AZ	hap2	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682653.1	AzMd_EF682653.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682717.1	AzMd_EF682717.1	AZ	hap2	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682704.1	AzMd_EF682704.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682687.1	AzMd_EF682687.1	AZ	hap26	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682732.1	AzMd_EF682732.1	AZ	hap85	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682672.1	AzMd_EF682672.1	AZ	hap85	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682741.1	AzMd_EF682741.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682665.1	AzMd_EF682665.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682674.1	AzMd_EF682674.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682719.1	AzMd_EF682719.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682706.1	AzMd_EF682706.1	AZ	hap76	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682651.1	AzMd_EF682651.1	AZ	hap88	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682695.1	AzMd_EF682695.1	AZ	hap88	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010
EF682735.1	AzMd_EF682735.1	AZ	hap20	-28.63	38.53	Quérouil et al. 2010

EF682726.1	BAHAMAS_USA_AzMd_EF682726.1	BAH	hap11	-78.66	26.91	Green et al. 2007. Green 2008
EF682726.1	BAHAMAS_USA_AzMd_EF682726.1	BAH	hap11	-78.66	26.91	Green et al. 2007. Green 2008
	Br_Uy_PA360	Br_Uy	hap71	-47.86	-25.14	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF28	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.13	This Study
	Br_Uy_BC11	Br_Uy	hap20	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA205	Br_Uy	hap20	-47.61	-26.03	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF09	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.16	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF11	Br_Uy	hap74	-46.51	-24.23	This Study
	Br_Uy_GEMM219	Br_Uy	hap71	-41.9	-22.7	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF15	Br_Uy	hap71	-46.15	-24.33	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA198	Br_Uy	hap71	-47.66	-25.02	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc05	Br_Uy	hap71	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_MM42	Br_Uy	hap71	-49	-29.3	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF22	Br_Uy	hap71	-47.1	-24.68	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc16	Br_Uy	hap71	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF19	Br_Uy	hap71	-47.1	-24.68	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF16	Br_Uy	hap85	-46.15	-24.33	This Study
	Br_Uy_SFUY	Br_Uy	hap85	-54.5	-34.76	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF03	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_GEMM102	Br_Uy	hap72	-42.28	-22.93	This Study
	Br_Uy_GEMM59	Br_Uy	hap20	-42.56	-22.93	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF12	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.15	-24.33	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc03_frontalis	Br_Uy	hap85	-46.49	-25.36	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA165	Br_Uy	hap72	-48.31	-26.14	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc13	Br_Uy	hap10	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc04	Br_Uy	hap72	-46.49	-25.36	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF27	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.13	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF01	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA164	Br_Uy	hap20	-48.31	-26.14	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc14	Br_Uy	hap20	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF08	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA249	Br_Uy	hap20	-48.01	-25.37	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF30	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.13	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF13	Br_Uy	hap20	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_GEMM208	Br_Uy	hap20	-41.9	-22.7	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF20	Br_Uy	hap11	-47.1	-24.68	This Study
	Br_Uy_BC10	Br_Uy	hap45	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc02_frontalis_	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.86	-25.76	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF35	Br_Uy	hap20	-47.1	-24.68	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc08	Br_Uy	hap45	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_BC12	Br_Uy	hap45	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc06	Br_Uy	hap72	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF10	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.51	-24.23	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF02	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF04	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF05	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA199	Br_Uy	hap11	-47.66	-25.02	This Study
	Br_Uy_GEMM400_	Br_Uy	hap20	-42.21	-22.94	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF18	Br_Uy	hap20	-47.1	-24.68	This Study

	Br_Uy_GEMM305	Br_Uy	hap20	-42.42	-22.93	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc15	Br_Uy	hap45	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF14	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.15	-24.33	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF25	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.13	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA209	Br_Uy	hap85	-47.9	-26.15	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc17	Br_Uy	hap20	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc09	Br_Uy	hap20	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_bc07	Br_Uy	hap20	-45.52	-24.24	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF32	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.13	This Study
	Br_Uy_PA365	Br_Uy	hap20	-47.79	-25.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF07	Br_Uy	hap20	-44.95	-23.48	This Study
	Br_Uy_GEMM149	Br_Uy	hap20	-42.35	-22.93	This Study
	Br_Uy_SF26	Br_Uy	hap20	-46.26	-24.13	This Study
EF682654.1	NEPST366	CAB	hap76	-64.78	18.35	Caballero et al. 2013
KC204738.1	NEPST877	CAB	hap40	-65	18.3	Caballero et al. 2013
KC204737.1	GU01022801	CAB	hap27	-66.55	17.55	Caballero et al. 2013
KC204739.1	GU01030102	CAB	hap57	-67.25	17.33	Caballero et al. 2013
KC204740.1	STEN20010612	CAB	hap78	-61	15.4	Caballero et al. 2013
KC204736.1	SfronCCIR0103	CAB	hap65	-75.76	10.16	Caballero et al. 2013
	CAB_G40LG	CAB	hap5	-72.29	12.08	This Study
	CAB_G30LG	CAB	hap52	-73.28	11.78	This Study
	CAB_G28LG_	CAB	hap44	-73.36	11.55	This Study
	CAB_G24LG	CAB	hap5	-73.30	11.68	This Study
	CAB_G9LG	CAB	hap5	-73.75	11.48	This Study
	CAB_SFCARIBE	CAB	hap20	-61	16.2	This Study
	CAB_G38LG_	CAB	hap5	-72.61	12.04	This Study
	Cab_G10_Roosevelt	CAB	hap1	-73.30	11.69	This Study
	CI_2703	CAN	hap5	-13.86	28.74	This Study
	CI_0302	CAN	hap75	-13.83	28.70	This Study
	CI_2102	CAN	hap85	-13.86	28.74	This Study
	CI_0607	CAN	hap69	-13.74	28.89	This Study
	CI_230313	CAN	hap35	-15.66	28.15	This Study
	CI_1303	CAN	hap91	-13.86	28.74	This Study
	CI_2003	CAN	hap95	-13.86	28.74	This Study
	CI_0612	CAN	hap53	-13.95	28.73	This Study
	CI_2303	CAN	hap101	-13.86	28.74	This Study
	CI_2510	CAN	hap90	-13.95	28.73	This Study
	CI_0809	CAN	hap20	-13.86	28.74	This Study
	CI_0704	CAN	hap75	-13.63	28.92	This Study
	Sfro134	eGOM	hap85	-87.58	29.45	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	Sfro222	eGOM	hap85	-86.50	29.65	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9673GOM	eGOM	hap85	-86.51	30.07	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9793GOM	eGOM	hap56	-87.27	29.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	Sfro202	eGOM	hap11	-83.49	25.98	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	Sfro206	eGOM	hap11	-83.96	27.97	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	Sfro200	eGOM	hap11	-83.65	29.03	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	Sfro201	eGOM	hap11	-83.65	29.03	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	Sfro138	eGOM	hap11	-87.58	29.45	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9672GOM	eGOM	hap11	-86.22	29.64	Viricel and Rosel 2014

Sfro223	eGOM	hap11	-86.50	29.65	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9786GOM	eGOM	hap11	-86.27	29.65	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9794GOM	eGOM	hap11	-87.27	29.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
96102GOM	eGOM	hap11	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro217	eGOM	hap11	-86.50	30.11	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9778GOM	eGOM	hap20	-85.02	28.46	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9674GOM	eGOM	hap20	-86.51	30.07	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro199	eGOM	hap5	-83.47	26.52	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro219	eGOM	hap5	-85.48	28.75	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9768GOM	eGOM	hap5	-88.30	29.18	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro135	eGOM	hap5	-87.58	29.45	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9787GOM	eGOM	hap5	-86.53	29.65	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9698GOM	eGOM	hap5	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9675GOM	eGOM	hap5	-86.51	30.07	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9490GOM	eGOM	hap100	-83.77	27.37	Viricel and Rosel 2014
512-02	eGOM	hap100	-86.36	29.40	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro214	eGOM	hap20	-83.86	27.55	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro213	eGOM	hap4	-83.86	27.55	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9796GOM	eGOM	hap4	-87.27	29.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9695GOM	eGOM	hap4	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9697GOM	eGOM	hap4	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro136	eGOM	hap14	-87.58	29.45	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro137	eGOM	hap14	-87.58	29.45	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro220	eGOM	hap55	-85.48	28.75	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9495GOM	eGOM	hap1	-82.99	26.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro210	eGOM	hap1	-83.47	26.52	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9489GOM	eGOM	hap1	-83.77	27.37	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro212	eGOM	hap1	-83.86	27.55	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro215	eGOM	hap1	-83.86	27.55	Viricel and Rosel 2014
512-01	eGOM	hap1	-86.36	29.40	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9696GOM	eGOM	hap1	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro216	eGOM	hap1	-86.50	30.11	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro218	eGOM	hap1	-86.50	30.11	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro203	eGOM	hap8	-83.49	25.98	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro204	eGOM	hap8	-83.49	25.98	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro209	eGOM	hap8	-83.85	26.98	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro207	eGOM	hap83	-83.96	27.97	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro208	eGOM	hap22	-83.85	26.98	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro211	eGOM	hap3	-83.47	26.52	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9494GOM	eGOM	hap41	-83.92	25.73	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro205	eGOM	hap41	-83.86	27.55	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9779GOM	eGOM	hap41	-85.02	28.46	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro133	eGOM	hap41	-87.58	29.45	Viricel and Rosel 2014
96100GOM	eGOM	hap41	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9699GOM	eGOM	hap41	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9491GOM	eGOM	hap79	-83.77	27.37	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9792GOM	eGOM	hap79	-87.27	29.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
96101GOM	eGOM	hap79	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014
96103GOM	eGOM	hap42	-87.11	30.05	Viricel and Rosel 2014

	99232ATL	MAB	hap85	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	98080701	MAB	hap85	-75.01	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99238ATL	MAB	hap21	-75.21	36.56	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99237ATL	MAB	hap11	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99230ATL	MAB	hap92	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99231ATL	MAB	hap13	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99267ATL	MAB	hap38	-74.35	36.25	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99268ATL	MAB	hap38	-74.35	36.25	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99266ATL	MAB	hap38	-74.38	36.52	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99269ATL	MAB	hap27	-74.35	36.25	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99271ATL	MAB	hap77	-74.35	36.25	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99235ATL	MAB	hap5	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99236ATL	MAB	hap5	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99234ATL	MAB	hap4	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99233ATL	MAB	hap1	-75.13	36.14	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99239ATL	MAB	hap1	-75.21	36.56	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99240ATL	MAB	hap1	-75.21	36.56	Viricel and Rosel 2014
EF682817.1	AzMd_EF682817.1	MAD	hap34	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682824.1	AzMd_EF682824.1	MAD	hap34	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682832.1	AzMd_EF682832.1	MAD	hap48	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682829.1	AzMd_EF682829.1	MAD	hap61	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682835.1	AzMd_EF682835.1	MAD	hap23	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682828.1	AzMd_EF682828.1	MAD	hap5	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682834.1	AzMd_EF682834.1	MAD	hap15	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682799.1	AzMd_EF682799.1	MAD	hap31	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682838.1	AzMd_EF682838.1	MAD	hap31	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682796.1	AzMd_EF682796.1	MAD	hap33	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682801.1	AzMd_EF682801.1	MAD	hap38	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682820.1	AzMd_EF682820.1	MAD	hap39	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682798.1	AzMd_EF682798.1	MAD	hap71	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682810.1	AzMd_EF682810.1	MAD	hap66	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682807.1	AzMd_EF682807.1	MAD	hap90	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682800.1	AzMd_EF682800.1	MAD	hap90	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682811.1	AzMd_EF682811.1	MAD	hap66	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
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EF682812.1	AzMd_EF682812.1	MAD	hap53	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
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EF682804.1	AzMd_EF682804.1	MAD	hap53	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682825.1	AzMd_EF682825.1	MAD	hap53	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682795.1	AzMd_EF682795.1	MAD	hap50	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682826.1	AzMd_EF682826.1	MAD	hap46	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
EF682831.1	AzMd_EF682831.1	MAD	hap47	-16.73	32.73	QuéroUIL et al. 2010
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EF682819.1	AzMd_EF682819.1	MAD	hap20	-16.73	32.73	Quéroil et al. 2010
EF682840.1	AzMd_EF682840.1	MAD	hap26	-16.73	32.73	Quéroil et al. 2010
EF682797.1	AzMd_EF682797.1	MAD	hap87	-16.73	32.73	Quéroil et al. 2010
EF682823.1	AzMd_EF682823.1	MAD	hap76	-16.73	32.73	Quéroil et al. 2010
EF682837.1	AzMd_EF682837.1	MAD	hap80	-16.73	32.73	Quéroil et al. 2010
	Br_Uy_aq286_ceara	N_Br	hap53	-37.64	-45.8	This Study
	Br_Uy_aq78_ceara	N_Br	hap45	-39.6	-2.9	This Study
	9991ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.1	28.62	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9993ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.1	28.62	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9994ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.1	28.62	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99100ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99103ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99105ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99106ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99108ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9998ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	9999ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99110ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.36	30.32	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99114ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.36	30.32	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99115ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.36	30.32	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99314ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99315ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99316ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99317ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99318ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99319ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99325ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99126ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
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	99130ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99134ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99145ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.22	31.66	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99146ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.22	31.66	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99148ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.22	31.66	Viricel and Rosel 2014
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	99162ATL	SAB	hap85	-79.18	32.7	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99174ATL	SAB	hap85	-77.4	33.6	Viricel and Rosel 2014
	99175ATL	SAB	hap85	-77.4	33.6	Viricel and Rosel 2014

99176ATL	SAB	hap85	-77.4	33.6	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99205ATL	SAB	hap85	-75.97	34.63	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99206AT	SAB	hap85	-75.97	34.63	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99207ATL	SAB	hap85	-75.97	34.63	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9992ATL	SAB	hap96	-80.1	28.62	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99104ATL	SAB	hap28	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99109ATL	SAB	hap92	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99313ATL	SAB	hap92	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99177ATL	SAB	hap92	-77.93	33.59	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99178ATL	SAB	hap92	-77.93	33.59	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99306ATL	SAB	hap92	-76.39	34.03	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99309ATL	SAB	hap92	-76.39	34.03	Viricel and Rosel 2014
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SD604-4	SAB	hap92	-75.35	35.06	Viricel and Rosel 2014
98072001	SAB	hap20	-80.15	28.19	Viricel and Rosel 2014
98071905	SAB	hap20	-80.18	29.17	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99149ATL	SAB	hap20	-80.22	31.66	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99213ATL	SAB	hap20	-75.66	34.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99125ATL	SAB	hap85	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99132ATL	SAB	hap36	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99156ATL	SAB	hap36	-79.18	32.7	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99160ATL	SAB	hap36	-79.18	32.7	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99161ATL	SAB	hap36	-79.18	32.7	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99307ATL	SAB	hap36	-76.39	34.03	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99139ATL	SAB	hap102	-80.22	31.66	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99210ATL	SAB	hap85	-75.66	34.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99320ATL	SAB	hap93	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99326ATL	SAB	hap93	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99327ATL	SAB	hap93	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99328ATL	SAB	hap93	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99330ATL	SAB	hap93	-80.29	31.09	Viricel and Rosel 2014
98071906	SAB	hap5	-80.18	29.17	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99116ATL	SAB	hap5	-80.36	30.32	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99211ATL	SAB	hap5	-75.66	34.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99101ATL	SAB	hap1	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99102ATL	SAB	hap1	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99107ATL	SAB	hap1	-80.81	29.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014
98072301	SAB	hap1	-80.86	31.23	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99129ATL	SAB	hap1	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99131ATL	SAB	hap1	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99133ATL	SAB	hap1	-80.48	31.15	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99310ATL	SAB	hap1	-79.12	32.08	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99312ATL	SAB	hap1	-79.12	32.08	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99157ATL	SAB	hap1	-79.18	32.7	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99308ATL	SAB	hap1	-76.39	34.03	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99113ATL	SAB	hap41	-80.36	30.32	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99311ATL	SAB	hap41	-79.12	32.08	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99155ATL	SAB	hap41	-79.18	32.7	Viricel and Rosel 2014
99212ATL	SAB	hap41	-75.66	34.84	Viricel and Rosel 2014

Sfro106	wGOM	hap21	-96.61	26.41	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro097	wGOM	hap21	-96.54	27	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro100	wGOM	hap21	-94.99	27.95	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9972GOM	wGOM	hap21	-92.99	27.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9973GOM	wGOM	hap21	-92.99	27.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro104	wGOM	hap21	-92.97	28.68	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro107	wGOM	hap76	-90.5	28.31	Viricel and Rosel 2014
98091401	wGOM	hap67	-95.94	27.6	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro099	wGOM	hap67	-94.99	27.95	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro103	wGOM	hap67	-94.99	27.95	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro101	wGOM	hap4	-94.99	27.95	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro102	wGOM	hap4	-94.99	27.95	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9974GOM	wGOM	hap4	-92.99	27.96	Viricel and Rosel 2014
Sfro105	wGOM	hap51	-92.97	28.68	Viricel and Rosel 2014
9969GOM	wGOM	hap1	-91.03	27.92	Viricel and Rosel 2014

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Table S2. Kruskal-Wallis test among putative populations in relation to environmental variables. Significant values were typed in bold. Abbreviations: SSS, Sea Surface Salinity; SST, Sea Surface Temperature.

Kruskal-Wallis	X ²	P-value
Bathymetry	72.654	0.0000000000000429
Slope	73.935	0.0000000000002359
Mean Annual SSS	121.75	0.0000000000000022
Annual Range in SSS	205.25	0.0000000000000022
Mean Annual SST	166.52	0.0000000000000022
Annual Range in SST	198.79	0.0000000000000022

Table S3. Dunn test between putative populations in relation to environmental variables. P-values are in the below diagonal and significant values were typed in bold in the upper diagonal. Abbreviations: SSS, Sea Surface Salinity; SST, Sea Surface Temperature.

		Br_Uy	CAN	CAB	eGOM	MAB	N_Br	SAB	wGOM
Bathymetry	Br_Uy	-	-3.43	3.82	3.06	0.97	-2.06	-1.32	3.67
	Canary	0.008	-	5.64	5.2	3.58	-0.52	2.78	5.54
	Caribbean	0.002	0.0000	-	-1.93	-1.07	-3.46	-4.7	-0.2
	eGOM	0.03	0.0000	0.75	-	-1.07	-2.84	-4.6	1.73
	MAB	1	0.0047	0.22	1	-	-2.33	-1.84	2.24
	N_br	0.55	1	0.008	0.06	0.27	-	1.75	3.37
	SAB	1	0.0756	0.0000	0.0001	0.91	1	-	4.58
	wGOM	0.0033	0.0000	1	1	0.35	0.01	0.0001	-
Slope	Br_Uy	-	-1.01	-4.6	1.55	1.48	1.33	4.49	-1.46
	Canary	1	-	-2.66	1.91	1.92	1.67	3.51	-0.26
	Caribbean	0.0001	0.11	-	5.55	4.91	3.07	7.36	2.54
	eGOM	1	0.78	0.0000	-	0.44	0.93	2.8	-2.45
	MAB	1	0.76	0.0000	1	-	0.73	1.34	-2.34
	N_br	1	1	0.03	1	1	-	0.27	-1.83
	SAB	0.0001	0.006	0.0000	0.0001	1	1	-	4.22
	wGOM	1	1	0.2	0.2	0.27	0.94	0.0003	-
Mean Annual SSS	Br_Uy	-	-5.08	-1.61	2.16	5.97	-1.92	-2.02	3.96
	Canary	0.0000	-	2.87	6.32	8.61	0.29	4.08	7.1
	Caribbean	1	0.06	-	2.94	5.87	-1.2	0.46	4.36
	eGOM	0.43	0.0000	0.04	-	4.51	-2.48	-4.34	2.58
	MAB	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	-	-4.04	-7.44	-1.4
	N_br	0.76	1	1	0.18	0.0007	-	1.45	3.36
	SAB	0.6	0.001	1	0.0002	0.0000	1	-	5.29
	wGOM	0.001	0.0000	0.0002	0.14	1	0.01	0.0000	-
Annual Range in SSS	Br_Uy	-	3.28	-3.71	-9.91	-4.72	0.99	-0.15	-6.27
	Canary	0.01	-	-5.44	-9.01	-6.19	-0.43	-3.44	-7.34
	Caribbean	0.003	0.0000	-	-2.4	-0.54	2.4	3.73	-1.9
	eGOM	0.0000	0.0000	0.23	-	1.88	3.51	10.5	0.03
	MAB	0.0000	0.0000	1	0.83	-	2.68	4.77	-1.44
	N_br	1	1	1	0.01	0.1	-	-1.02	-3.34
	SAB	1	0.01	0.003	0.0000	0.0000	1	-	-6.35
	wGOM	0.0000	0.0000	0.81	1	1	0.01	0.0000	-
Mean Annual SST	Br_Uy	-	3.83	-6.13	-4.75	5.11	-2.55	0.71	-4.63
	Canary	0.02	-	-7.71	-6.57	0.51	-3.99	-3.53	-6.58
	Caribbean	0.0000	0.0000	-	3.2	8.93	-0.02	6.71	1.3
	eGOM	0.0000	0.0000	0.02	-	8.26	-1.34	5.80	-1.61
	MAB	0.0000	1	0.0000	0.0000	-	-4.34	-4.82	-7.74
	N_br	0.15	0.001	1	1	0.0002	-	2.73	0.66
	SAB	1	0.006	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.09	-	-5.2
	wGOM	0.0001	0.0000	1	1	0.0000	1	0.0000	-
Annual Range in SST	Br_Uy	-	1.04	2.24	-9.24	-9.18	1.07	-7.4	-3.65
	Canary	1	-	0.85	-6.389	-7.57	0.58	-5.13	-3.57
	Caribbean	0.35	1	-	-7.93	-8.83	0.14	-6.64	-4.62
	eGOM	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	-	-3.02	3.43	2.56	2.21
	MAB	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0358	-	4.41	4.75	4.15

N_br	1	1	1	0.009	0.0001	-	-2.83	-2.42
SAB	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.15	0.0000	0.06	-	0.72
wGOM	0.004	0.005	0.0001	0.38	0.0005	0.21	1	-

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

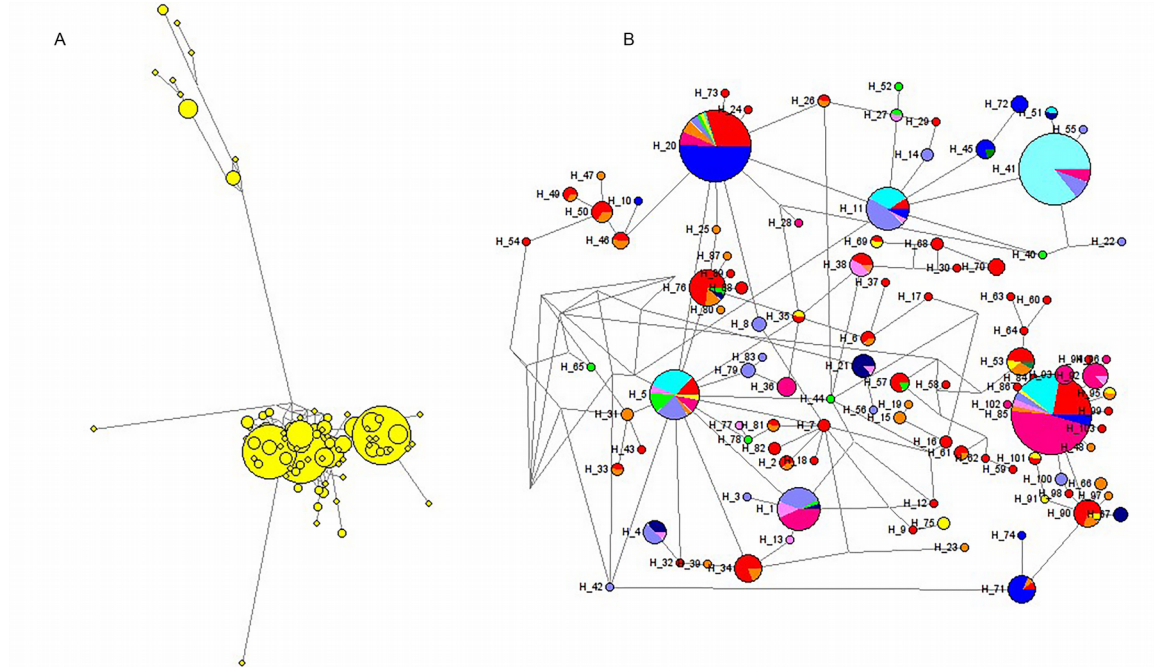


Fig. S1 Median-joining network of mtDNA control region haplotypes of Atlantic spotted dolphin. a) Circle size are proportional to the number of individuals exhibiting the corresponding haplotype and length of lines is proportional to the number of mutational steps separating haplotypes. b) Each haplotype is coloured according to the legend of Fig. 1 of main text

Fig. S2 Phylogenetic tree of mtDNA control region haplotypes of Atlantic spotted dolphin. Numbers above the branches indicate posterior probabilities

* Conforme regras da *Molecular Ecology*.

Population genomics of the Atlantic spotted dolphins (*Stenella frontalis*) across the Atlantic Ocean

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Abstract

The Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) is endemic to the Atlantic Ocean. It was hypothesized that the species has a complex geographical distribution, with a population structure suggestive of differing environmental requirements. We generated genomic data from individuals from the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean, Caribbean and Eastern Atlantic to test for patterns of genetic differentiation and evaluate specifically the genetic distinctiveness of Southwestern Atlantic Ocean populations. Our clustering results and population differentiation analyses suggests there may be at least three regional groups (a southeastern Brazil, Colombian Caribbean, and an oceanic group). However, with limited genetic differentiation, more samples are needed to confidently delineate regional population boundaries. Our results also revealed that genetic similarity is primarily correlated with geography, but that environment also has an effect on genetic structure. Lastly, our results support the hypothesized relative isolation of individuals in the southeastern Brazil. We detected a fine-scale population structure among southeastern Brazilian individuals. This substructure is comprised of a group that inhabits the inner and midshelf of the Southeast Brazilian Bight (SBB), which is geographically restricted to Brazil, and another group that occupies the outer shelf; members of this latter group have a similar genetic makeup to individuals from geographically distant locations, including the Canary Islands and Colombian Caribbean individuals. Our results are extremely important for informing the management and conservation of this species, especially in the Southeastern Brazil, individuals associated with inner and midshelf have a restricted geographic distribution that is suggestive of a demographically distinct population.

Key-words: Delphininae, genome-wide markers, SNPs, population genomics, DDRad-Seq

Running title: Population Genomics of Atlantic Spotted Dolphins

Introduction

The Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) is a Delphinidae dolphin endemic to tropical, subtropical and warm temperate waters of the Atlantic Ocean (Perrin, 2009). The species ranges from Azores to at least Gabon in the Eastern Atlantic, and ranges from 45°N to 35°S in the Western Atlantic, where a distributional gap is recorded along South America (Moreno et al., 2005; Perrin, 2009). In general, Atlantic spotted dolphins inhabit the continental shelf along their distribution, but can also occur in oceanic waters (Baumgartner, Mullin, May, & Leming, 2001; Davis et al., 2002; Freitas, Dellinger, & Reiner, 1989;

Jefferson, Curry, Leatherwood & Powell, 1997; Moreno et al., 2005; Perrin, 2009; Weir, 2010). Despite its high dispersal capabilities, the Atlantic spotted dolphin presents a complex geographic distribution, where at least six distinct morphotypes were identified based on adult size, coloration and osteological measures of skulls (Perrin et al., 1987). Genetic studies conducted so far have also corroborated the evidence of geographic variation along its distribution (Adams & Rosel, 2006; Viricel & Rosel, 2014).

This species seems to challenge the long-standing assumptions about biodiversity in the marine environment, in which marine species maintain large and homogeneous populations (Bierne, Bonhomme, & David, 2003; Hauser & Carvalho, 2008). Vicariant and allopatric models for speciation are far less important in pelagic evolution than sympatric or parapatric speciation in which dispersal is not limiting (Norris, 2000).

Advances in genomic technology have been facilitating genomic studies in a range of marine species to answer questions about the process of both macroevolution and microevolution (Kelley, Brown, Therkildsen, & Foote, 2016). Moreover, population genomics have provided unprecedented resolution for addressing questions on population structure, speciation and adaptation in marine environments (e.g. Kelley, Brown, Therkildsen, & Foote, 2016).

Next generation sequencing is promising tool in phylogeography, because it allows different approaches to be used to discover, sequence, and genotype thousands of markers across any genome of interest in a fast and cost-effective way (Davey et al., 2011; McCormack, Hird, Zellmer, Carstens, & Brumfield, 2013). Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been successfully used to explore patterns of population differentiation over a significant part of the Atlantic spotted dolphin geographical range (Fernández et al., 2016; Foote et al., 2016; Leslie & Morin, 2016, 2018; Morin et al., 2015).

The application of genomic techniques to cetaceans as well as others non-model organisms has yielded numerous contributions to evolutionary biology and ecology, many of which would not have been possible with traditional genetic markers (Cammen et al., 2016; Hancock-Hanser et al., 2013). The advent of low-cost high throughput sequencing has led to dramatic increases in the number of neutral markers that can be evaluated even with low sample size, improving our power to resolve fine-scale or cryptic population structure in species with high dispersal capability such as Atlantic spotted dolphin. Recently, Leslie & Morin (2018) suggested that next generation techniques had enough statistical power to discern

closely related groups in others species of the *Stenella* genus (*S. attenuata* and *S. longirostris*) even using a relatively small dataset (n= 58 and n=72, respectively).

Atlantic spotted dolphins, as mentioned before, present a complex geographic pattern. In North Atlantic, several studies were conducted in order to investigate population structure of this species mainly along the Western North Atlantic coast (e.g. Adams & Rosel 2006, Viricel & Rosel 2014), as well as Bahamas (Green et al., 2007) and Azores and Madeira Archipelago (Qu erouil et al., 2010). However, for a significant part of their distribution, little is known about population structure. Caballero et al. (2013) proposed that Atlantic spotted dolphins from southeastern Brazil and the Caribbean are distinct stocks based on levels of the genetic differentiation measures F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} based on a preliminary analysis of mitochondrial control region sequences (mtDNA CR) (Caballero, Santos, Sanches, & Mignucci-Giannoni, 2013). Moreno et al., (2005), based on a comprehensive review of sightings and captures of Atlantic spotted dolphins, had already suggested that individuals from Southwestern Atlantic Ocean were isolated.

do Amaral et al. (*in prep.*) analyzed 545 mtDNA CR sequences from individuals sampled along the entire species distribution, with exception of African waters. The results obtained confirmed different populations in the Western North Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico and also that individuals inhabiting oceanic islands in the Eastern Atlantic form one population connected with those from oceanic waters of the Western North Atlantic, corroborating previous studies (Adams & Rosel, 2006; Qu erouil et al., 2010; Viricel & Rosel, 2014). Furthermore, the results indicated that individuals from southeastern Brazil represent one distinct population and exhibit low levels of genetic diversity based on the mtDNA CR marker.

Our main objective of this study is therefore to investigate the population structure of Atlantic spotted dolphins with emphasis in the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean individuals using genome-wide molecular markers. Based on previous studies, our main hypothesis is that those individuals found in the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean are isolated from others along Atlantic spotted dolphin range and represent at least a distinct population that deserves protection.

Material and Methods

Sample collection and DNA extraction

Samples consisted of different kinds of tissues (skin, muscle or liver) obtained from stranded individuals, remotely-darting biopsy or incidentally captured dolphins in pelagic drift gillnets collected from 1996 to 2016. These samples represent different regions of Atlantic Ocean: Southwestern Atlantic Ocean (Brazil, n=80; Uruguay, n=1), Caribbean (Colombia, n=7; Guadeloupe Island, n=1), and Eastern Atlantic (Canary Islands, n=19) (Table S1). A significant number of samples was collected along Brazilian coastal waters in the Southeast Brazilian Bight (hereafter, SBB) and these samples were treated as potentially two different groups: samples collected from stranded, incidentally captured and biopsied dolphins up to 100 km from coastline were considered belonging to the “SBB inner/midshelf” group, and samples collected beyond 100 km of coastline were grouped in the “SBB outer shelf” group.

Samples were preserved in different ways, including ethanol, sodium chloride-saturated 20% dimethyl sulphoxide or lyophilized for long-term preservation. We extracted total genomic DNA from tissue samples using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen), following the manufacturer protocol. However, we extended the proteinase K digestion step overnight (Hancock-Hanser et al., 2013). We eluted DNA in lower volumes than recommended to avoid low concentrations of DNA mainly from samples obtained from stranded animals. DNA quality and concentration was verified using Qubit Fluorometric Quantitation (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.).

Sex Determination

Molecular sexing techniques were used to determine the sex of specimens from which skin samples were collected using remotely-darting biopsies. We used a PCR-based method that consists in a multiplex reaction, which simultaneously targets the ZFX and SRY genes (Rosel, 2003). A fragment of 339 bp of the SRY gene was amplified through the primers TtSRYR (5' -ACCGGCTTCCATTTCGTGAACG-3') and PMSRYF (5'-CATTGTGTGGTCTCGTGATC-3'). A fragment of 382 bp of the ZFX gene was amplified using the primers ZFX0582F (5'-ATAGGTCTGCAGACTCTTCTA-3') and ZFX0923R (5'-AGAATATGGCGACTTAGAACG-3'). We performed an Exact Binomial Test to test if the true proportion of males and females in the dataset is 50%-50%. A two-tailed test was conducted in R 3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017) using the function `binom.test` in the package `stats` (R Core Team 2017) with 95% confidence level.

Double-Digest RAD-seq genomic data generation, processing and genotyping

We used Double Digest restriction-site-associated DNA sequencing (ddRAD-seq) (Peterson, Weber, Kay, Fisher, & Hoekstra, 2012), method to obtain genome-wide SNPs from the Atlantic spotted dolphin samples. Briefly, we built one library using two restriction enzymes (*EcoRI* and *MseI*) to digest genomic DNA (~ 400 ng per sample). We performed a ligation step, where unique barcodes (10bp) and Illumina adapters were added to the digested DNA. After ligation, the product was cleaned and we selected fragments between 350 – 450 bp using a Pippin Prep platform (Sage Science). Fragments selected were amplified by PCR. The final library was sequenced for 100bp in one HiSeq2000 lane (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

In order to analyse the raw data, we ran a pipeline through the University of Michigan flux, as described next. First, we demultiplex and processed the genomic sequences using Stacks version 1.45 (Catchen, Hohenlohe, Bassham, Amores, & Cresko, 2013). One mismatch in the adapter sequence (-adapter_mm) and a barcode distance of two was used in process radtags to allow barcode rescue (-barcode_dist); adapter sites were also removed. In total, we obtained more than 155 million retained reads from 90 individuals (average of 1,733,002 ± 1, 142,324 retained reads per individual).

After this initial step, we excluded eight samples from subsequent analyses, six samples collected from stranded animals, one sample collected from an incidental captured animal, and another one that was collected by remotely-darting biopsy. Therefore, samples with more than 500k retained reads were analyzed throughout the pipeline. Nevertheless, we chose to include 11 individuals with less than 500k retained reads (86,902 to 472,856) in the pipeline in order to increase representativity of some geographic areas, but almost all of these individuals ended up being excluded at some point along the pipeline due to the low number of retained reads. In general, samples obtained by remotely-darting biopsies or incidental capture had the highest DNA concentrations, a higher number of retained reads and good DNA quality, but we also observed that some samples from stranded specimens had enough DNA concentration and a high number of retained reads (higher than 1 million of retained reads in some cases).

We assembled the reads to the bottlenose dolphin genome (*Tursiops truncatus*, T_tru1.4, GenBank assembly accession: GCA_000151865.3 (latest), 2.5x Sanger; 3.5x 454; 30x Illumina coverage) with the short-read alignment tool BWA 0.7.15 (Li & Durbin, 2009). After alignment, we run PSTACKS with a

minimum depth of coverage to report a stack equal to three (-m 3), model type equal bounded (-model_type), and an error bound for ϵ of 0.1 (-bound_high). We obtained a mean coverage of 9.6 (\pm 3.8). A catalog of genomic sequences was built in CSTACKS using the aligned flag (--aligned), which base catalog construction on alignment position, not sequence identity. Putative loci for each individual were identified using SSTACKS using also the aligned flag (--aligned) in order to base matching on alignment position, not sequence identity.

From SSTACKS output, we run a first POPULATIONS analyses with the following parameters: -r 0 -p 1 -m 3 --min_maf 0 --max_obs_het 0.5). We processed the resulting vcf file with a customized script in R 3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017), in order to eliminate single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from the last five base pairs in the 3'- end of each locus, as well as loci with exceedingly high genetic diversity as such high values are suggestive of sequencing and assembly errors (i.e., $\theta > 0.009$, representing loci in the upper 95% quantile of the distribution of genetic diversity; Fig. S1). In addition, we built a whitelist with 126,783 unique loci with 191,152 SNPs. We run POPULATIONS module again in order to keep only one SNP per loci (--write_random_snp). From this second POPULATIONS output, we used Plink v1.90b5 (Purcell et al., 2007) to filter missing data. Throughout Plink analyses, we excluded six individuals that had more than 60% of missing data, and we also removed loci that had more 10% of missing data considering all individuals. Therefore our resulting data set (hereafter referred as Dataset 1) contained a total of 9,450 SNPs in 9,450 loci, with a genotyping rate of 0.97, for 73 individuals. Dataset 1 was used as input for the following analyses: the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Dray & Dufour, 2007), Discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) (Jombart, Devillard, & Balloux, 2010) and Procrustes analyses (Wang, Zöllner, & Rosenberg, 2012).

After Plink filtering, we created another list keeping loci/SNPs with a maximum of 50% of missing data. We combined this list with the whitelist created previously resulting in a final whitelist with 87,322 SNPs in 49,187 loci . We used this final whitelist to run POPULATIONS both with and without the --write_random_SNP flag. The output of POPULATIONS without the flag (--write_random_snp) constitutes the Dataset 2, which in turn had 83,512 SNPs in 47,878 loci, with genotyping rate of 0.006. Dataset 2 and was used to calculate genetic diversity summary statistics for each putative population and

F_{ST} values in Stacks version 1.45 (Catchen et al., 2013) and Arlequin 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2015), respectively. We also used this dataset to estimate heterozygosity and F_{ST} values using strataG package (Archer, Adams, & Schneiders, 2016). Furthermore, we used Dataset 2 to estimate co-ancestry proportions using sparse nonnegative matrix factorization implemented in the sNMF software (Frichot, Mathieu, Trouillon, Bouchard, & François, 2014). The output of POPULATIONS with the flag constituted the Dataset 3, in which we had 47,873 loci/SNPs. Dataset 3 was used as input for maximum likelihood analysis (see below).

Clustering of individuals and populations

We investigated levels of population structure using three different methods: discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC), sNMF, and Procrustes analyses. Dataset 1 (see above) was used as input for the DAPC analyses with individuals grouped into seven putative populations based on sampling locations ("Canary Islands", "Caribbean (Isla Guadeloupe)", "Caribbean (La Guajira)", "SBB inner/midshelf", "SBB outer shelf", "Northern Brazil", and "Uruguay").

DAPC (Jombart et al., 2010) was performed using the *adegenet* (Jombart & Ahmed, 2011) package in R 3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017). This method aims to identify and describe genetic clusters using a few synthetic variables, which are constructed as linear combinations of the original variables (alleles), which have the largest between-group variance and the smallest within-group variance. Coefficients of the alleles used in the linear combination are called loadings, while the synthetic variables are themselves referred to as discriminant functions (Jombart & Ahmed, 2011; Jombart & Collins, 2015). Moreover, being based on the Discriminant Analysis, DAPC also provides membership probabilities of each individual for the different groups based on the retained discriminant functions (Jombart & Collins, 2015).

First, we used the function `find.clusters` (`max.n.clust=8`, i.e., maximum number of putative populations+1) to identify clusters without *a priori* assignment of individuals to groups based on sampling location (k-means clustering). Second, we ran the `dapc` function on the individuals when they were grouped by sampling location using the function `optim.a.score` as recommended by authors (Jombart & Collins, 2015). However, `optim.a.score` function determined that the number of PC to retain was equal to 1. Therefore, we ran DAPC using the maximum number of PCs recommended, which is $n/3$ (Jombart &

Ahmed, 2011). We also used DAPC to assess membership probabilities of each individual for the different groups based on the retained discriminant functions. This analysis is useful for groups defined by an external criteria, i.e., defined biologically, as opposed to identified by k-means. We further investigate admixed individuals, which we define as those having no more than 0.6 probability of membership to any group (Jombart & Collins, 2015).

Since the delimitation of populations *a priori* based on geography is very questionable for cetaceans due to their great dispersal capabilities, an individual level analyses was performed through Procrustes approach to find an optimal transformation that maximizes the similarity between Principal Component Analysis (PCA) maps of genetic variation and geographic maps of population locations (Wang, Zöllner, & Rosenberg, 2012).

First, we applied Procrustes analysis to compare the individual-level coordinates of the first two components (PC1 and PC2) in the PCA performed on Dataset 1 to the geographic coordinates. PCA was performed using the function `dudi.pca` of `ade4` package (Kopelman, Mayzel, Jakobsson, Rosenberg, & Mayrose, 2015). We used `procrustes` function in order to rotate a configuration to maximum similarity with another configuration, and the function `protest` to test the significance between two configurations. We used `procrustes` and `protest` functions from the `vegan` package (Oksanen et al., 2017). Posteriorly, we applied the residual function to estimate the residuals of the first procrustes, and performed a second one using a PCA of environmental rasters (see do Amaral et al. *in prep.*). The significance of the association statistic between the genetic PC values and geography or environmental space was evaluated based on 10 000 permutations.

We estimated individual ancestry coefficients based on sparse nonnegative matrix factorization algorithms using as input Dataset 2. This method is implemented in the computer program sNMF (Frichot et al., 2014). Like PCA, NMF algorithms are flexible approaches that are robust to departures from traditional population genetic model assumptions (Frichot et al., 2014).

Diversity estimates and population differentiation

An overall differentiation (F_{ST}) for each pairwise combination of population was estimated using the `strataG` package in R with 1,000 repetitions using Dataset 2.

Mean heterozygosity across SNPs for all individuals within a population is indicative of the overall genetic variation within the populations. Low heterozygosity could indicate smaller populations, inbred individuals, or poor sample quality that results in allelic dropout (Leslie & Morin, 2018). On the other hand, high heterozygosity could indicate outbred individuals, large historical population abundance, or be an artefact of the higher sample sizes for these populations (Leslie & Morin, 2018). Dataset 2 was used to calculate genetic diversity summary statistics for each putative population (only those with more than five individuals) in STACKS (i.e., π and heterozygosity expected averaged) across populations. From these summary statistics, estimates for long-term effective population sizes (N_e) can be approximated through the formula $\pi=4*N_e*\mu$ (Tajima, 1983), based on estimates of mutation rate per site for the bottlenose dolphin (0.84×10^{-9} mutations per site per generation (Fernández et al., 2016)). F_{ST} values (distance matrix) and its significances were calculated in Arlequin 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2015) with 10,000 replicates with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

Phylogeographic Analysis

Dataset 3 was used as input for phylogenetic analysis in RAxML (Randomized Accelerated Maximum Likelihood) (Stamatakis, 2014). We performed the analysis in the CIPRES portal using RaxML-HPC2 on XSEDE (8.2.10) tool, in which provides a phylogenetic tree inference using maximum likelihood/rapid bootstrapping algorithm to account for uncertainty in the estimation of the topology. Most of parameters were kept as default, with exception: we used GTRGAMMA model of sequence evolution, and we performed 1000 bootstrap iterations.

Results

Genotyping and Sex determination

The genomic library was built with 90 individuals but after data processing we successfully genotyped 73 individuals representing the following geographical regions: "Canary Islands" (n= 7), "Caribbean (Isla Guadalupe)" (n= 1), "Caribbean (La Guajira)" (n=5), "SBB inner/midshelf" (n=45), "SBB outer shelf (n=15)", "Northern Brazil (n=1)", and "Uruguay" (n=1) (Fig. 1). Due to a low number of retained reads, 17 individuals were not included in the analyses. Of these, 13 samples were obtained from stranded dolphins and 4 from biopsy darting. From these biopsy-collected samples, one sample was removed due to low retained reads (14,137); and the other three individuals (Sf39 from SBB

inner/midshelf; G24 and G40 from Caribbean - La Guajira) were removed because they were misplaced in early exploratory analyses.

From the 73 individuals genotyped, 57 samples were obtained from remotely biopsy darting, and sex identification in the field was not possible. Using molecular sexing methods, we identified 31 males, 19 females and 7 individuals remained undetermined. Samples obtained from stranded animals or incidentally captured, sexing identification was possible at the time of sampling collection (8 males and 8 females). In total, our dataset had 39 males, 27 females and seven unidentified samples. The exact binomial test did not reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of males and females in our dataset is 50% (p-value = 0.1753).

In the PCA (Fig. 2) estimated with Dataset 1, individuals are arranged in relatively well defined clusters, defined according to sampling location. Nevertheless, some individuals were grouped far from their geographical origin: a Guadeloupe Island sample grouped with individuals collected in southeastern Brazil; a Uruguayan sample was positioned closer to Northern Brazil and La Guajira samples; one sample from SBB inner/midshelf (Sf38) and another one from Caribbean - La Guajira (G38) were grouped with Canary Islands samples.

In the PCA performed with samples collected only in Brazil (Fig. 3) we observed two distinct groups, one of them including only individuals sampled in the inner/midshelf, and the other including both individuals collected in the inner/midshelf and in the outer shelf.

Clustering of individuals

The smallest BIC recovered throughout DAPC ran with the function `find.cluster` was with $K=1$ ($K=1$, BIC = 452.6768; $k=2$, BIC = 452.7890) (results not showed). We also ran a second DAPC with $n.pca=50$ and $n.da=100$ in order to apply the `optim.a.score` function, which by its turn determined that the number of PC to retain was equal to 1 (results not showed). Therefore we ran `dapc` function using $n.da=100$ and opted to set $n.pca= 24$, because $n/3$. Finally, we plotted the first two discriminat functions as two-dimensional scatters (Fig. 4). In general, the DAPC showed that genomic variation across individuals and populations was well represented by the first two eigenvalues of the DAPC although one eigenvalue was clearly dominant (inset Fig. 4). Graphical visualization suggests three separated groups along PC1 and PC2

axes. Southeastern Brazil (both inner/midshelf and outer shelf), Caribbean – La Guajira and Canary Islands individuals formed tight clusters at different portions of genomic space. As already observed in the PCA analyses, Uruguayan and Guadeloupe Island samples are genetically closer to Caribbean and southeastern Brazil clusters, respectively. The sample obtained from Northern Brazil was closer to Caribbean – La Guajira cluster. From this DAPC, we investigated the membership probability of each individual and presented this analysis as a STRUCUTURE-like graphic (Fig. 5). We identified three admixed individuals (BC_08, BC_16, PA_209), which having no more than 0.6 probability of membership to any group. (Fig. S2). However, these results show be interpreted with caution because they are probably overfitted.

In relation to southeastern Brazil individuals, we observed a partial overlapping among individuals collected in the inner/midshelf and those collected in the outer shelf. Therefore, we further investigated clustering within southeastern Brazil. The smallest BIC recovered throughout DAPC ran with the function `find.cluster` was also with $K=1$ ($K=1$, BIC = 354.9546; $k=2$, BIC = 357.0297). We also ran a DAPC with the `optim.a.score` function, which by its turn determined that the number of PC to retain was equal to 15. Since, a single discriminant function had been retained due to $k=2$, we plotted the densities of individuals on a given discriminant function with different colors for different groups (Fig. S3). Membership probabilities were investigated through DAPC conducted with the `optim.a.score` and results are showed in Fig. S4. Two individuals from the inner/midshelf group were identified as admixed (i.e., having no more than 0.6 probability of membership to any group) (Fig. S5).

We also analyzed samples at an individual level without any *a priori* clustering and further tested genetic data against both geography and environmental variables through Procrustes analyses. Procrustes analysis between genetic similarity and geographic distance suggested a significant correlation ($t = 0.72$, $p = 9.999e-05$), while the analysis between genetic similarity and environmental space was also significant ($t = 0.31$, $p = 0.017198$).

In general, the visual inspection of graphics (Fig. 6) suggested that those individuals from the Canary Islands had an intermediary position in relation to those from Caribbean and Southeastern Brazil (Fig. 6A). Uruguayan and Guadeloupe Island samples are genetically more similar to Caribbean and Brazilian samples, respectively. Despite surprising, the position of these samples is in agreement with PCA

and DAPC analyses. When we analyze the graphic representing the relationship between genetic and environmental space (Fig. 6B), we observe the clusters observed in this graphic seem to be in agreement with a designation of groups by sampling location, since individuals were positioned close with its counterparts (with exception of one individual from Canary Islands). The most displaced sample is those collected in Uruguay.

Analyses using sNMF across K-values ranging from 1 to 8 indicated that $K = 2$ is the most likely number of populations according minimal cross-entropy criterion (Fig. S6). In the resulting graphic of $K=2$, an orange genomic axis is predominant on samples from southeastern Brazil (Fig. 7). We also provided a graphic of $K=3$ (Fig. S7), in which genetic variation broke down into three genomic axes, where a blue genomic axis predominated along individuals from Colombian and Canary Islands. Individuals sampled in the inner/midshelf showed a predominant orange genomic axis, that also appeared on Canary Islands samples. A pink genomic axis is spread out across almost all individuals, mainly in those from Brazilian outer shelf. Besides that, individuals sampled outside of these main areas, such as one sample from Northern Brazil and another one from Uruguay, were dominated by the blue genomic axis (Fig. S7).

Despite differences in the methods, we considered our clustering results consistent across analyses. Overall they suggested some level of differentiation among the main sampling locations: southeastern Brazil, Canary Islands and Caribbean. However, the differentiation among these three genetic clusters seems to be subtle. Individuals collected outside of these main locations (Northern Brazil and Uruguay) were positioned closer to Caribbean – La Guajira individuals, except one sample collected in Guadeloupe Island that clustered with southeastern Brazil samples. Both PCA conducted only with samples from southeastern Brazil and DAPC seem suggested a further subdivision within southeastern Brazil cluster.

Diversity estimates and population differentiation

We estimated diversity and population differentiation using two different methods and we considered in these analyses putative populations with at least five individuals. The results obtained with Dataset 2 are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

Mean heterozygosity across SNPs for all individuals within a population is indicative of the overall genetic variation within the populations. Heterozygosity estimated in the Stacks, values ranged from

0.1251 to 0.1357 considering only variant positions, and from 0.0016 to 0.0017 considering variant and fixed positions of Dataset 2. Despite the disparity in sample sizes among putative populations heterozygosity values were similar across populations in each dataset (Table 1), however values ranged greatly using only variant positions or using variant and fixed positions.

We also observed that great variations in nucleotide diversity estimates, which by its turn had an impact in the effective size estimates (N_e) (Table 1). N_e estimated from nucleotide diversity calculated using just variant positions ranged from 392 697 to 413 764 individuals for SBB inner/midshelf and Canary group, respectively. However, N_e estimated from nucleotide diversity based on variant and fixed positions ranged from 4 775 to 5 056 individuals (Table 1).

In relation to the F_{ST} statistics, values estimated in StrataG were not possible to estimate its p-value, because the analysis was computally demanding. Anyway, we opted to present F_{ST} present the values (Table 2). The smallest F_{ST} value was equal to 0.01 between individuals sampled in the SBB outer shelf and inner/midshelf, and the highest F_{ST} value was equal to 0.1 between Caribbean - La Guajira and SBB inner/midshelf. In general, population differentiation calculated with the F_{ST} statistics in Arlequin indicated higher and significant differentiation (F_{ST} values between 0.07 and 0.12) between Caribbean - La Guajira and SBB inner/mid shelf, as well as between Caribbean - La Guajira and SBB outer shelf.

Phylogeographic Analysis

Phylogenetic analysis using Dataset 3 (47,873 SNPs/loci) produced a topology with low bootstrap support, mainly in the most external branches (Fig. 8). However in this analysis two main clades were recognized, being one clade almost exclusively formed by individuals collected in southeastern Brazilian waters, and another one formed by all remaining individuals from southeastern Brazil, Canary Islands and Caribbean – La Guajira.

The clade formed by individuals collected in southeastern Brazil included both individuals from SBB inner/midshelf and outer shelf, with exception of the individual sampled at Caribbean - Guadeloupe Island that is also presented in this clade. The clade is further structured in several small clades.

The second main clade included individuals collected at different sampling locations. This clade is also further structured in small clades, being one of them highly support formed by individuals from

Caribbean - La Guajira, Northern Brazil and Uruguay. With exception of one individual (SF_38) from SBB inner/midshelf, all individuals from southeastern Brazil presented in this clade were from SBB outer shelf. Individuals sampled at Canary Islands were spread across this clade.

Discussion

In this study, we used genome wide markers to understand population structure in Atlantic Spotted dolphin across a significant part of its geographic distribution, including Eastern Atlantic, Caribbean and Western South Atlantic. The most part of samples included here were collected in areas never analyzed before in relation to nuclear markers, such as Canary Islands, northern Brazil and the southernmost limit of the species. Our results therefore represent a first genome-wide investigation of population structure along these areas, and bring light into many more interesting aspects about the connectivity and biology of the species that deserves further investigation.

In general, the clustering methods used in our study were congruent, identifying three main clusters: southeastern Brazil, Caribbean and Canary Islands. Although some of the methods indicated that differentiation among these genetic populations is subtle, pairwise genetic differentiation was statistically significant between these clusters. Our results also indicated a possible hierarchical structure within the Brazilian population. Finally, our analyses revealed interesting connection patterns, in which some speculations about dispersal routes could be hypothesized.

Overall genetic differentiation

Our results are limited in terms of comparisons with other genetic studies conducted with Atlantic Spotted dolphins due to the main following reasons: 1) sampling areas analyzed here were never analyzed before with nuclear markers; 2) the markers used here, namely SNPs, were never analyzed in this species before, thus the levels of heterozygosity and population differentiation could only be compared with studies conducted with related species of the Delphinidae family (Fernández et al., 2016; Foote et al., 2016; Leslie & Morin, 2018; Morin et al., 2015).

Previous studies that aimed to investigate population structure across Atlantic Spotted dolphins were conducted mainly in North Atlantic through the analyses of microsatellites and mtDNA (Adams &

Rosel, 2006; Quérrouil et al., 2010; Viricel & Rosel, 2014). These studies identified clusters corresponding to previously described morphotypes inhabiting oceanic and shelf waters, as well as sub-structuring in the shelf cluster, possibly related to environmental distinctiveness (Viricel & Rosel, 2014). Interestingly, Azores individuals, even located as far as 4,500 km, were considered to belong to the oceanic cluster recovered by Viricel & Rosel (2014), where no further division was detected across Western and Eastern North Atlantic. Furthermore, no genetic structure was recovered between Atlantic spotted dolphins from the Azores and Madeira, neither between the archipelagos nor between groups of islands (Quérrouil et al., 2010). In our study, we did not had the opportunity to include these populations in our dataset, being available for us just individuals stranded at Canary Islands.

do Amaral et al. (*in prep.*) analyzed by the first time the genetic structure along almost the full species range using mtDNA CR marker. Their results suggested that Canary Islands individuals seems to be more closely related to the Azores and Madeira Archipelagos than other regions, and, therefore individuals inhabiting these set of islands in the Eastern Atlantic could be part of one oceanic population. In this context, we observed that individuals from Canary Islands had an intermediary position in relation to Brazilian and Caribbean clusters based on nuclear SNPs, as well as the levels of differentiation were statistically insignificant or smaller across several pairwise comparisons both in relation to Caribbean and southeastern Brazilian individuals ($F_{ST} > 0.07$). Therefore, our results based on genome-wide markers seem to confirm this oceanic “status” of these individuals. Such individuals are most likely to perform cross-oceanic dispersal and, therefore, could maintain gene flow across distant populations.

Caballero et al. (2013) analyzed individuals collected along Caribbean Sea both in relation to mtDNA and nuDNA. At the nuclear level, a high number of alleles were shared between samples collected in Caribbean (Colombia and Puerto Rico) and southeastern Brazil. However, at that time, the authors considered that southeastern Brazil and Caribbean should be considered population units genetically isolated. And, they suggested that the higher number of alleles shared between these populations could be the result of not enough time for nuDNA to diverge between population units due to lower mutation rates in nuDNA when compared to mtDNA (Caballero et al., 2013). Recently, do Amaral et al. (*in prep.*) confirmed

the results of Caballero et al. (2013) and suggested that southeastern Brazil and Caribbean individuals should be considered different populations based on mtDNA CR.

The results obtained here based on genome-wide SNPs are interesting and have potential to help understand the complex relationship among Brazil and Caribbean both in relation to Atlantic spotted dolphin and also in relation to cetacean fauna connectivity (Costa et al., 2017). Our dataset included samples from Caribbean collected in different locations: one sample collected from a stranded female in the Guadalupe Island, and five samples of individuals collected by biopsy-darting in La Guajira Peninsula in northern Colombia. Interestingly, the individual collected in Guadalupe grouped together with southeastern Brazil individuals in all analyses performed here. In relation to mtDNACR marker, do Amaral et al. (*in prep.*) observed this same pattern. This sample had Haplotype 20, which was widely distributed along species range, being common in Azores and Western North Atlantic, but also found in high frequency in southeastern Brazil.

Taking into account these results, but also that we excluded in the first steps of our analyses two samples from La Guajira due to a weird positioning of these samples in our exploratory analysis of data, we suggest that the Caribbean individuals could represent a very diversified population. do Amaral et al. (*in prep.*) also found high levels of diversity across Caribbean samples based on mtDNA marker. However, we highlight that this conclusion should be taken with caution, because our dataset is limited to few individuals mainly collected at one restricted locality, La Guajira. Furthermore, the higher levels of differentiation observed here could be related to a fine-scale population structure in Colombian waters.

In relation to the overall structure recovered from our dataset, the Procrustes analyses suggested a significant correlation between genetic similarity and environmental space, but mainly between genetic similarity and geographic distance. Therefore, it is not surprising that the clusters that we recovered across different analyses reflected sampling locations. In relation to environment, Bathymetry and Mean Annual SST were the environmental variables that mainly contribute to the first component of PC and the second PC, respectively. Therefore, it seems reasonable propose that individuals were positioned along axes 1 and 2 according Bathymetry and SST, respectively. Although at about 7% of our data was obtained from stranded individuals, 78% of our samples were collected from biopsy and therefore the environmental

conditions that species occupied along its distribution could be thought to be represented in our dataset. In relation to axis 1, we assumed that individuals were predominantly collected at relatively shallow waters, which is typical of this *Stenella* species (Perrin, 2009). In relation to axis 2 there is a reasonable stratification of individuals in a “tropical” to “temperate” gradient.

The ecological niches of cetaceans seem to be defined by water temperature, water depth and factors that affect the distribution and abundance of their prey (topography, ocean currents and primary productivity) (Baumgartner et al., 2001; Palacios, Baumgartner, Laidre, & Gregr, 2013; Redfern et al., 2006). In relation to Delphinidae dolphins, several species present population structure related to habitat specializations (e.g. Morin et al., 2015). Viricel & Rosel (2014) detected significant differences in sea surface temperature, depth and turbidity among the four genetic clusters identified in the Western North Atlantic. Moreno et al. (2005) had proposed that Atlantic Spotted dolphin is found just up to 1,000 m isobath based on a comprehensive review of *Stenella* species records in the Western South Atlantic. The authors also suggested a gap in the Atlantic spotted dolphin distribution, due to the narrow of continental shelf between 6 and 18°S (Danilewicz, Ott, Secchi, Andriolo, & Zerbini, 2013; do Amaral et al., 2015; Moreno et al., 2005) . do Amaral et al. (2015) corroborated the existence of this distributional gap using ecological niche modeling.

Atlantic spotted dolphins from the Southeast Brazilian Bight

Based on the distributional gap between 6 and 18°S due to the narrow of continental shelf, Moreno et al. (2005) suggested the existence of two populations along Brazil. Furthermore, they hypothesized that dolphins distributed off the northern coast of Brazil (north of 6°S) may represent the southern range of a population that is connected to the Caribbean, Gulf of Mexico and North Atlantic (Moreno et al., 2005). According authors, a second, geographically and possibly reproductively isolated, population would be found in southern and southeastern Brazil (21 to 33° S). Compared the skull morphology and morphometrics of specimens from this area with those from the North Atlantic Ocean and Caribbean and found significant differences in shape, metric and meristic characters (Moreno, 2002).

Genomic-wide markers analyzes here added an important information to help understand the relationship between South America and Caribbean. However, this relation seems to be more complex in

relation to what has been proposed in other studies (Caballero et al., 2013; Costa et al., 2017; Moreno et al., 2005). Based on the haplotypes found in the analyzes of mtDNA CR (do Amaral et al. *in prep.*) and several studies that proposed different forms or ecotypes according habitat specialization, namely “inshore”, “coastal” and “offshore” (Barragán-Barrera et al., 2017; Möller et al., 2011; Sellas, Wells, & Rosel, 2005), we opted to treat those individuals collected along southeastern Brazil as two different sampling sites: one of them consisted of samples collected mainly in the inner/midshelf and approximately at 50 m isobath, and another group of samples were designated as SBB outer shelf, because these samples were collected more than 100 km from the coastline.

All samples analyzed here from southeastern Brazil, where collected up to 100 m of depth in the SBB and we opted to divided in these groups according the stratification of Brazilian Continental Shelf (Castro & Miranda, 1998). SBB had an inner shelf separated from the midshelf waters by a thermal front that changes seasonally, being closer to the coast (10 – 20 km) during summer and farther offshore (40 – 50 km) during winter. The inner shelf is occupied mainly by Coastal Water, which has low salinities due to the mixture of land runoff from several estuaries and saline water. Inner shelf currents are highly dependents on the wind direction, in which northeasterly winds forces the currents southwestward, and vice versa (Castro & Miranda, 1998). Midshelf waters show a two-layer structure, and in the summer, there is a predominantly shallow and thin seasonal thermocline connected to the inner front. The waters of lower layers are classified as Cold South Atlantic Central Water (SACW, SST < 20°C and SSS < 36.4 psu). By its turn, midshelf waters are separated from outer shelf waters by a strong near-surface cross-shelf salinity front. The outer shelf front is located at 80 – 120 km from the coast. Salty waters of Tropical Water (SST > 20°C, SSS > 36.4 psu) are present in the upper layer, and SACW have a strong influence in the lower layer (Castro & Miranda, 1998).

Both SBB takes place between two prominent capes, namely, Cabo Frio (23°S) and Cabo de Santa Marta (~28°S) (Castro & Miranda, 1998), where upwelling induced by shelf break associated with the cyclonic meanders of the Brazil Current is recorded (Campos, Velhote, & Da Silveira, 2000). The upwelling plays an important role in the pumping of SACW from the slope region onto the continental shelf (Campos et al., 2000).

Although is not totally clear the distinction of these two “strata” in southeastern Brazil, we observed a pronounced differentiation among southeastern Brazil group in relation to La Guajira population. Furthermore, RaxML tree, DAPC and PCA conducted only with Brazilian samples suggested some level of differentiation of southeastern Brazil in relation to other sampling localities. As discussed above, habitat specializations could be triggered by environmental factors and indeed the SBB seem to have a great environmental heterogeneity along continental shelf. However, such differentiation could also be related to social structure, for example.

It is well-known that some coastal populations of bottlenose dolphins live in small populations characterized by low genetic diversity and low gene flow between neighboring populations, suggesting local founder events at least in some areas or recent isolation (Barragán-Barrera et al., 2017). Despite of the relatively higher number of samples analyzed here we also observed low levels of diversity in the SBB inner/midshelf cluster in relation to sampling locations analyzed with far fewer individuals. For example, SBB outer shelf individuals have slightly higher values of nucleotide diversity and heterozygosity (considering the different datasets analyzed) than SBB inner/midshelf cluster. It is important highlight that SBB outer shelf had a sample size of approximately one third in relation to the SBB inner/middle shelf.

Despite do Amaral et al. (*in prep.*) had not discriminated Brazilian samples in two distinct groups, their results also revealed very low levels of diversity and relatively high and significant differentiation in pairwise comparisons across populations based on mtDNA CR.

Statistical power of SNPs for population structure and conservation of Atlantic Spotted Dolphin

In our study, we used three different datasets, in which the number of SNPs were different. We included in some datasets independent SNPs (i.e., one SNP per locus) or more than one SNP per locus, and, finally, the number of allowed missing data across dataset was also variable. Moreover, we had a disparate sample size across sampling localities, being SBB inner/midshelf group with the highest sample size (n=43) and La Guajira group with the lowest sample size (n=5). The nature of our dataset and the sample size differences could have had an impact in our results (Huang & Knowles, 2016; Morin, Martien, & Taylor, 2009). Beyond that, we also did not have the opportunity to include in our dataset important samples from Western North Atlantic and Eastern Atlantic (Azores and Madeira) that were previously analyzed in relation to nuDNA (Adams & Rosel, 2006; Green et al., 2007; Quérrouil et al., 2010; Viricel & Rosel, 2014).

Furthermore, dolphins from Eastern Africa remain genetically unknown. Probably if we have access to samples of these areas, our results could have been different (see Huang & Knowles, 2016).

Despite differences in methods used to estimate population differentiation, we observed that our results were consistent across analyses, resulting in F_{ST} values with almost the same order of magnitude. However, we obtained some negative values between some comparisons estimated in Arlequin software (e.g. SBB inner/midshelf and SBB outerh shelf, SBB outer shelf and Canary, and La Guajira and Canary), probably due to insufficient statistical power due to low sample size (Morin et al., 2009). Furthermore, it was not possible estimate p-values in StrataG, because the analysis was compute-intensive.

Comparisons in relation to the magnitude of values obtained here are difficult for different reasons. First, several factors could influence the final dataset such as the amount of sequence divergence among the individuals/taxa included in the study, the coverage and post-sequencing processing decisions about the reads, and the tolerance for missing data set by the researcher (Huang & Knowles, 2016). Second, our study analyzed by the first time genome-wide markers in the Atlantic spotted dolphin. Third, comparisons with similar studies using genome-wide markers in related species (e.g. Leslie & Morin, 2018) could provide some perspective about the magnitude of differentiation, but each species is unique in relation to, for example, small or large population size, behavior, demographic history that all together influence in the magnitude of results obtained (Morin et al., 2009)

For example, in relation to studies using SNPs in *Stenella* species, 4,381 SNPs were used to investigate population structure of Spinner dolphins (*Stenella longirostris*) across Eastern Tropical Pacific (ETP)(Leslie & Morin, 2016). In relation to heterozygosity values ranged from 0.25 to 0.27, and significant F_{ST} values ranged from 0.0009 to 0.0215, including comparisons between populations or subspecies. Population structure of Pantropical spotted dolphin (*Stenella attenuata*) across ETP was also investigated and the results obtained throughout the analyzes of 3,721 SNPs revealed a heterozygosity between 0.24 and 0.26 (Leslie & Morin, 2016). Significant F_{ST} values ranged from 0.0019 to 0.073 across populations or subspecies (Leslie & Morin, 2016). Population structure of Spinner and Pantropical spotted dolphins were also investigated across oceanic basins (Leslie & Morin, 2018). The authors recovered very similar values for heterozygosity and population differentiation in relation to their previous study (Leslie & Morin, 2016). In relation to Spinner dolphins, 3,340 SNPs were analyzed, heterozygosity ranged from 0.15 to 0.27; and

significant F_{ST} values ranged from 0.0035 to 0.0119 among subspecies, and from 0.0074 to 0.3 among populations across oceanic basins. In relation to Pantropical spotted dolphins, 3,524 SNPs were analyzed, heterozygosity ranged from 0.21 to 0.26; and significant F_{ST} values was equal to 0.05 between subspecies within the same oceanic basin (ETP), and from 0.012 to 0.1727 across populations (Leslie & Morin, 2018). Leslie & Morin (2018) observed that the disparity in sample sizes between ETP populations and those from the global sampling made comparisons of heterozygosity within both species difficult, and pairwise tests of population differentiation based on allele frequencies showed high levels of differentiation in both species despite high dispersal potential of individual animals.

Abundance estimates of Atlantic spotted dolphins in Western North Atlantic ranges from 14,438 to 37,611 individuals (Mullin & Fulling, 1998; Waring, Josephson, Maze-Foley, & Rosel, 2009). Although it is difficult to know whether our estimates of N_e were reliable, this information is provided by the first time for the Atlantic spotted dolphin across a considerable part of its distribution.

Although made comparison with the studies cited above are difficult due to biological features of each species and the complex and unresolved phylogenetic relationship of *Stenella* species (Amaral, Jackson, Möller, Beheregaray, & Coelho, 2012; Perrin, Rosel, & Cipriano, 2013), these studies were the only ones conducted with a relatively similar dataset and related species so far, specially those conducted with Spinner and Pantropical spotted dolphins (Leslie & Morin, 2016, 2018). We observed that our results of population differentiation among our main sampling locations were in the same order of magnitude of comparisons among subspecies of Spinner and Pantropical spotted dolphin.

More specifically for conservation purposes, we believed that our study could help to protect Brazilian individuals. Morin et al. (2009) assessed statistical power of SNPs for population structure and conservation studies of cetaceans based on the Endangered Species Act (ESA) and the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), that designated two different units-to-serve. The authors suggested through a simulated dataset of whales that a F_{ST} equal 0.2 could be helpful to identify Distinct Population Segment (DPS), which are similar to the evolutionarily significant unit (ESU) (Moritz, 1994; Waples, 1991), while a F_{ST} equal to 0.0025 could be helpful to identify demographically independent population (DIP) (Taylor, 1997; Taylor et al., 2017). Whether we apply these thresholds in our dataset, we could conclude that at least individuals analyzed here from different sampling locations constitutes at least three demographically

independent populations (southeastern Brazil, Caribbean – La Guajira, and Canary Islands). Furthermore, southeastern Brazil is further structured in two independent populations.

Despite our levels of differentiation within southeastern Brazil were not consistent across all analyses, we observed that pairwise comparison performed with Dataset 2 in the StrataG reached a F_{ST} value equal to 0.01, although we cannot estimate the p-value. Taking into account, the findings of Méndez-Fernandez et al. (2018) in relation to POPs concentrations in individuals from southeastern Brazil (the most industrialized region in Brazil with a human population of more than 80 millions), we highlight the necessity to, at least, southern Brazilian dolphins be considered a different management unit due to constant threats faced by these individuals. Furthermore, we suggested that those individuals inhabiting the inner/midshelf waters also deserves some management actions, since they probably represent a lineage with some level of social structure and/or founder events (see Santos et al., 2018, Barregán-Barrera et al., 2017). Currently, the main source of human-induced mortality in the southern range of the species in Brazil is bycatch in fishing gear, particularly bottom set and drift gillnets (Reeves et al., 2013), habitat degradation, underwater noise and overfishing of prey species. Therefore, due to its unknown status, isolation and relatively limited range, further studies on abundance and trends, mortality and genetic structure should be viewed as a priority to assess the conservation status of this Atlantic spotted dolphin populations in Brazil. And, at least in the near future the conservation status of the species should be determined at the national level.

Conclusion

Our study provide an unprecedented information about population structure of Atlantic spotted dolphin across a significant part of its distribution that have never analyzed before in relation nuclear markers. In general, we observed a subtle population structure among the main sampling locations analyzed here: Brazil, Colombian Caribbean and Canary Islands. We also investigated an additional level of structure in the southeastern Brazil population. Our analyses suggested a correlation of geography, and environment (bathymetry and sea surface temperature) with genetic similarities.

Taking into account we had a relatively large sample size in Brazilian cluster and based on the levels of differentiation observed here we proposed that the both populations should be treated as different

“units” and deserve protection due to constant anthropogenic threats faced by these individuals in the southeastern Brazil, mainly related to ship traffic, oil exploration, agricultural and industrial pollutants.

The status of the Canary Islands and Caribbean should be better investigate, including more samples, as well as we strongly recommend the inclusion of samples from Eastern Africa and the South America. Additional samples across all species distribution had the potential to elucidate dispersal routes and biogeographic history of this species along Atlantic Ocean.

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Tables

Table 1. Population genetics summary statistics for Atlantic spotted dolphin based Dataset 2 (83,512 SNPs in 47,878 loci). Numbers of females (F), males (M) and I (indetermined sex) is provided by putative population.

Putative populations	Samples	Sex (M/F/I)	Private Alleles
SBB outer shelf	15	10/4/1	4047
SBB inner/midshelf	43	21/18/4	14700
Caribbean – La Guajira	5	2/1/2	4815
Canary Islands	7	4/3/0	8163

Putative populations	Variant positions			
	Exp Het (mean/var/SE)	Obs Het (mean/var/SE)	π (mean/var/SE)	N_e
SBB outer shelf	0.1355/0.0267/0.0006	0.1303/0.028/0.0006	0.1412/0.0292/0.0006	396629
SBB inner/midshelf	0.1374/0.025/0.0005	0.1251/0.0215/0.0005	0.1398/0.0259/0.0006	392697
Caribbean – La Guajira	0.1197/0.0296/0.0006	0.1284/0.0445/0.0007	0.1382/0.0406/0.0007	388202
Canary Islands	0.1229/0.0282/0.0006	0.1357/0.0476/0.0008	0.1473/0.0461/0.0008	413764

Putative populations	Variant and Fixed positions			
	Exp Het (mean/var/SE)	Obs Het (mean/var/SE)	π (mean/var/SE)	N_e
SBB outer shelf	0.0017/0.0006/0	0.0016/0.0006/0	0.0018/0.0006/0	5056
SBB inner/midshelf	0.0017/0.0005/0	0.0016/0.0005/0	0.0017/0.0006/0	4775
Caribbean – La Guajira	0.0015/0.0005/0	0.0016/0.0008/0	0.0017/0.0007/0	4775
Canary Islands	0.0015/0.0005/0	0.0017/0.0008/0	0.0018/0.0008/0	5056

Table 2. Pairwise population genetic differentiation statistics for Atlantic spotted dolphin calculated in StrataG. F_{ST} is below the diagonal and p-value is above. Comparisons significantly different from zero ($p < 0.05$) are in bold. SBB, Southeast Brazilian Bight. * p-values were not calculated.

Arlequin Analysis				
Putative Populations	SBB outer shelf	SBB inner/midshelf	Caribbean – La Guajira	Canary Islands
SBB outer shelf	-	0.9651	0.0001	0.9999
SBB inner/midshelf	-0.01629	-	0.000001	0.52916
Caribbean – La Guajira	0.07902	0.11795	-	0.72527
Canary Islands	-0.09723	-0.00263	-0.2581	-
StrataG Analysis				
Putative Populations	SBB outer shelf	SBB inner/midshelf	Caribbean – La Guajira	Canary Islands
SBB outer shelf	-	*	*	*
SBB inner/midshelf	0.0102	-	*	*
Caribbean – La Guajira	0.0651	0.0696	-	*
Canary Islands	0.1026	0.10976		-

Figures

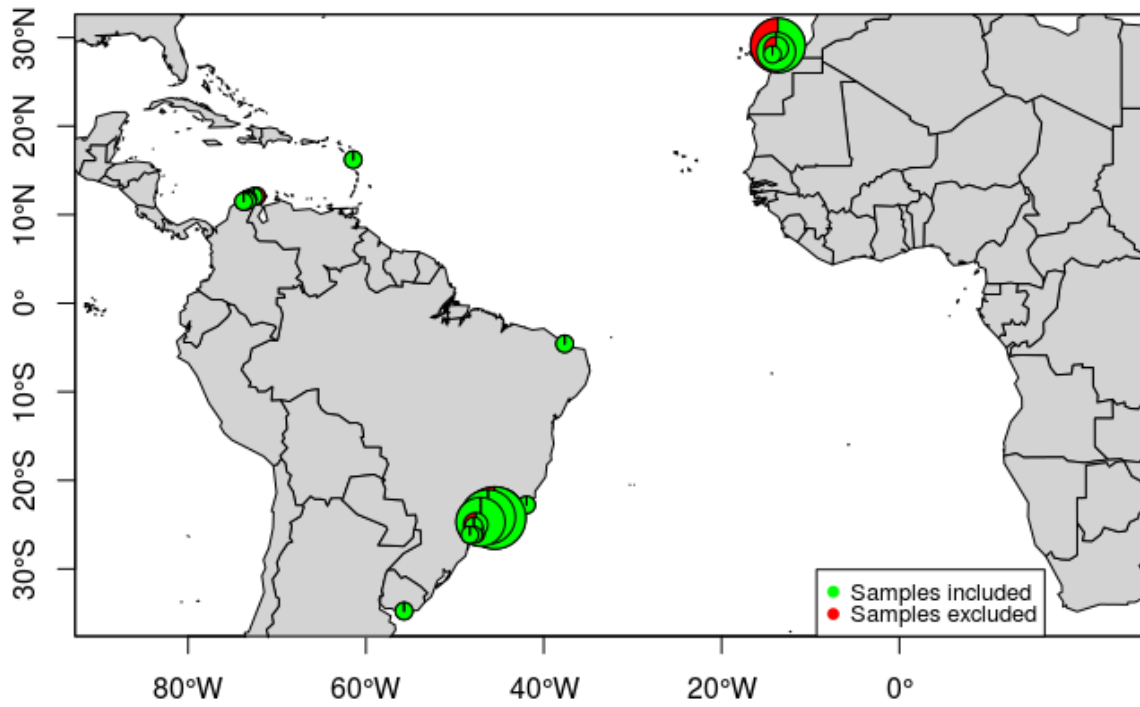


Figure 1. Sampling of Atlantic spotted dolphin. The size of circle is proportional of number of samples collected at each geographic coordinates. Green circles indicated samples that were used throughout analyses, while red circles represent samples that were removed at some point of the bioinformatic pipeline or that were not considered in the analysis due to low DNA quantity/quality.

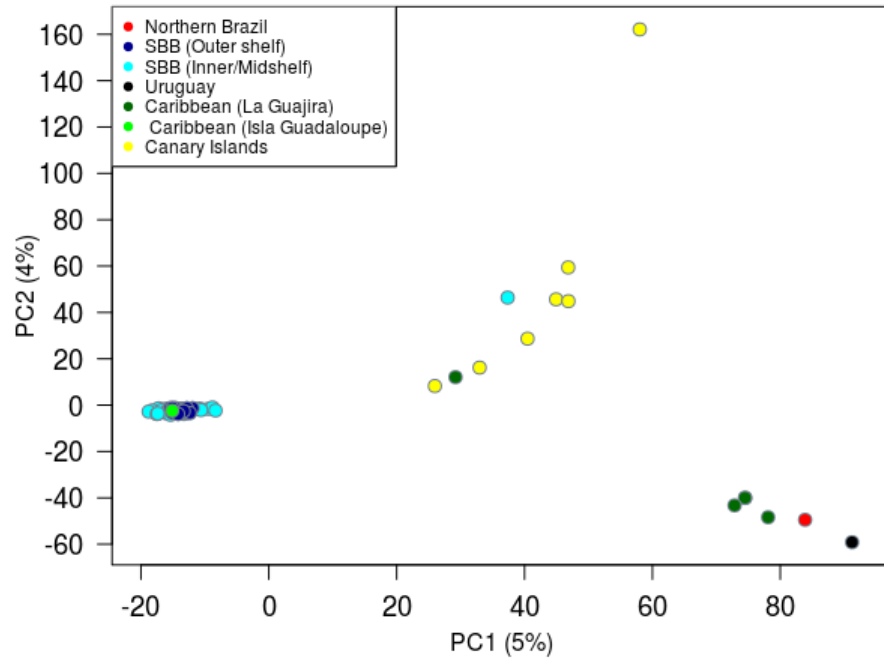


Figure 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) performed with Dataset 1. Different colours representing the different sampling locations as described in the figure insert.

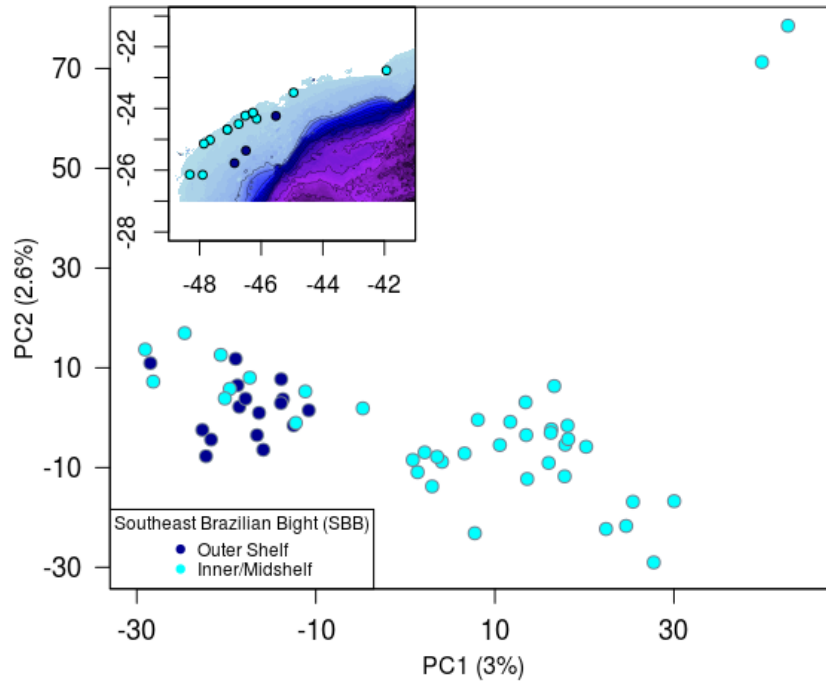


Figure 3. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) performed with Dataset 1, but just considering samples from southeastern Brazil. Different colours represent sampling locations. Insert map indicates the sampling locations in the Southeast Brazilian Bight (SBB).

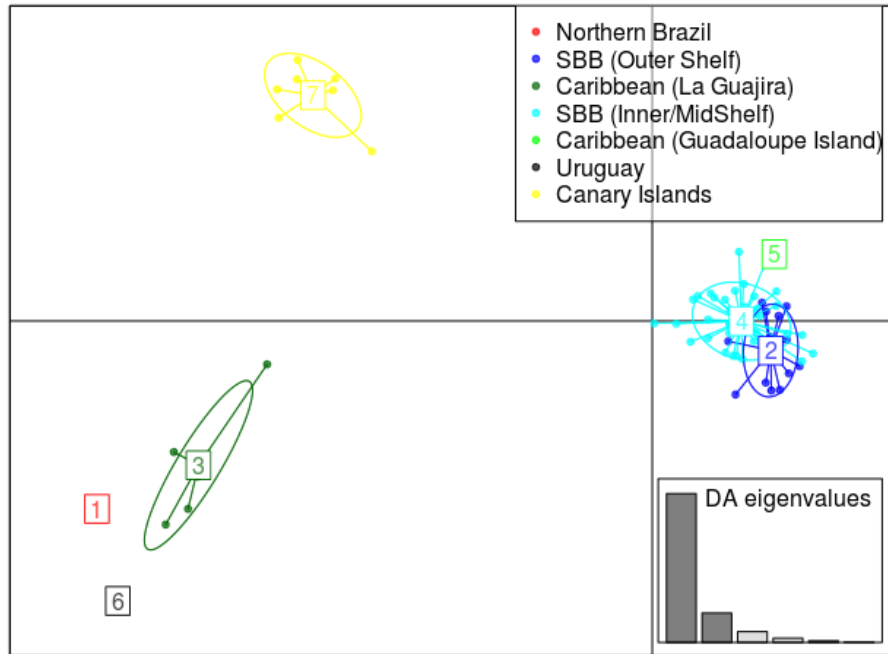


Figure 4. Genomic variation across individuals and populations of Atlantic spotted dolphin across Atlantic Ocean. Scatter plot of individuals based on the first two eigenvalues (created from $n/3$) of the DAPC. The obtained graph represents the individuals as dots and the groups as inertia ellipses, which are colored by sampling locations. Eigenvalues of the analysis are displayed in inset.

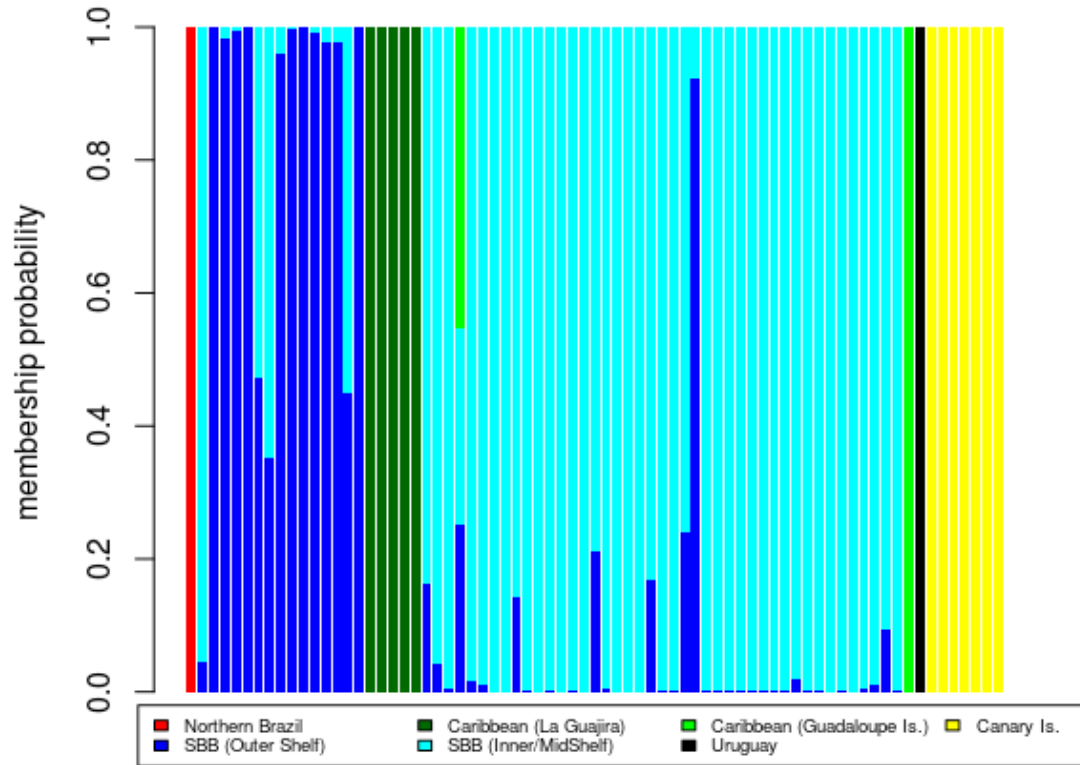


Figure 5. A STRUCTURE-like graphical representation of membership probabilities to have a global picture of the clusters composition based on the DAPC performed with n.pca equal to 24 ($n/3$). Colors represent sampling locations and individuals were colored according the probability to belong to determined cluster.

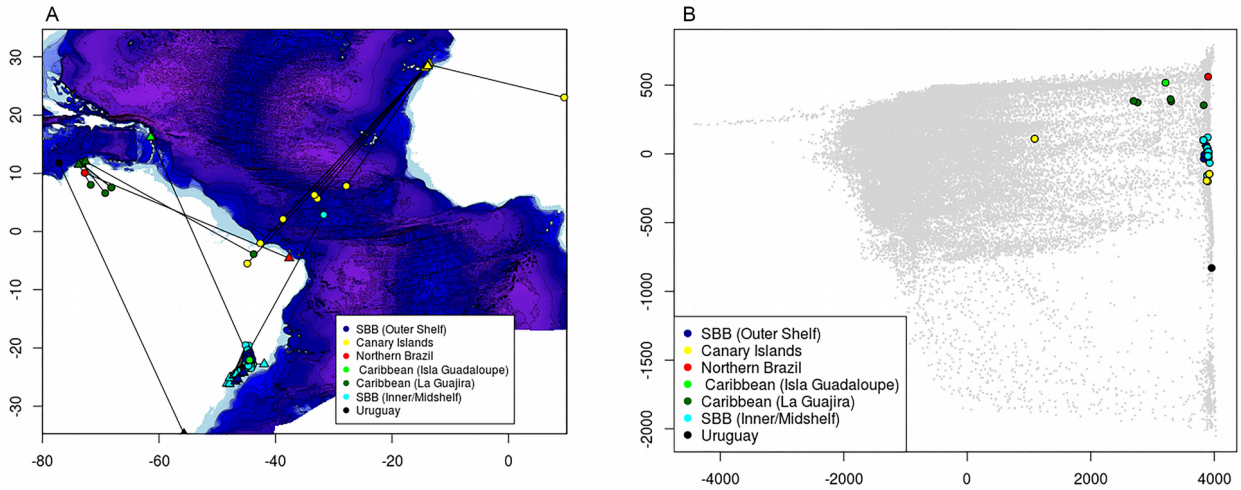


Figure 6. Representation of Procrustes analyses. A, the relationship between genetic and geography is showed. B, the relationship between the residuals of the previous Procrustes and environment are represented in the environmental space by the first two PCs. Bathymetry and Mean Annual STT were the environmental variables that mainly contribute to the PC 1 and PC 2, respectively. Samples were colored according to sampling area.

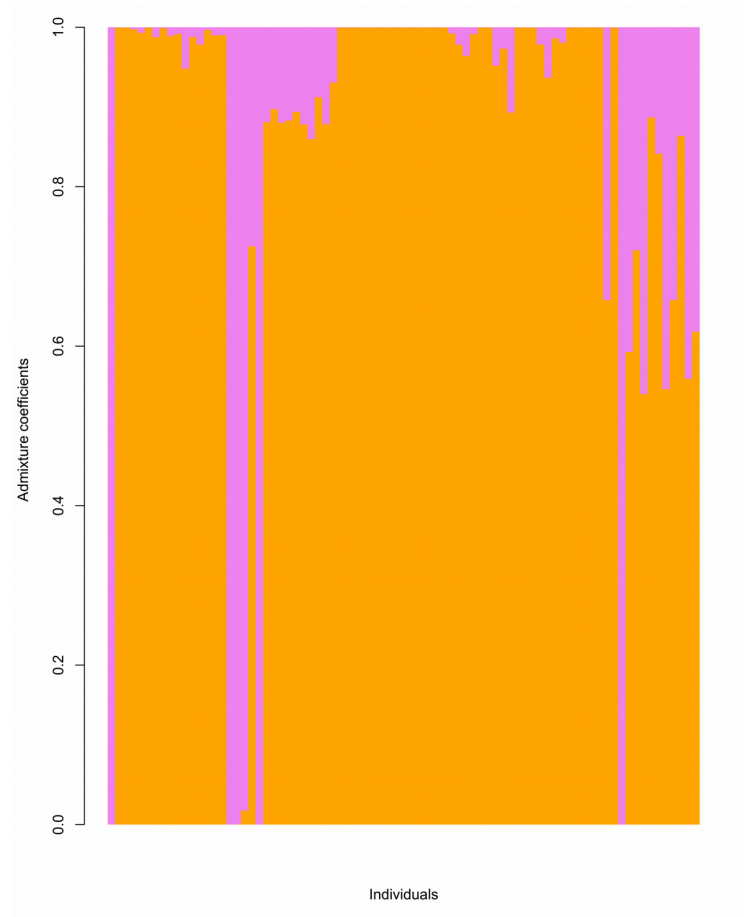


Figure 7. Graphical representation of ancestry estimates obtained for Atlantic spotted dolphin Dataset 2 ($K = 8$). Shown are estimated ancestry coefficients using sNMF with $K=2$ (cross-entropy = 0.44).

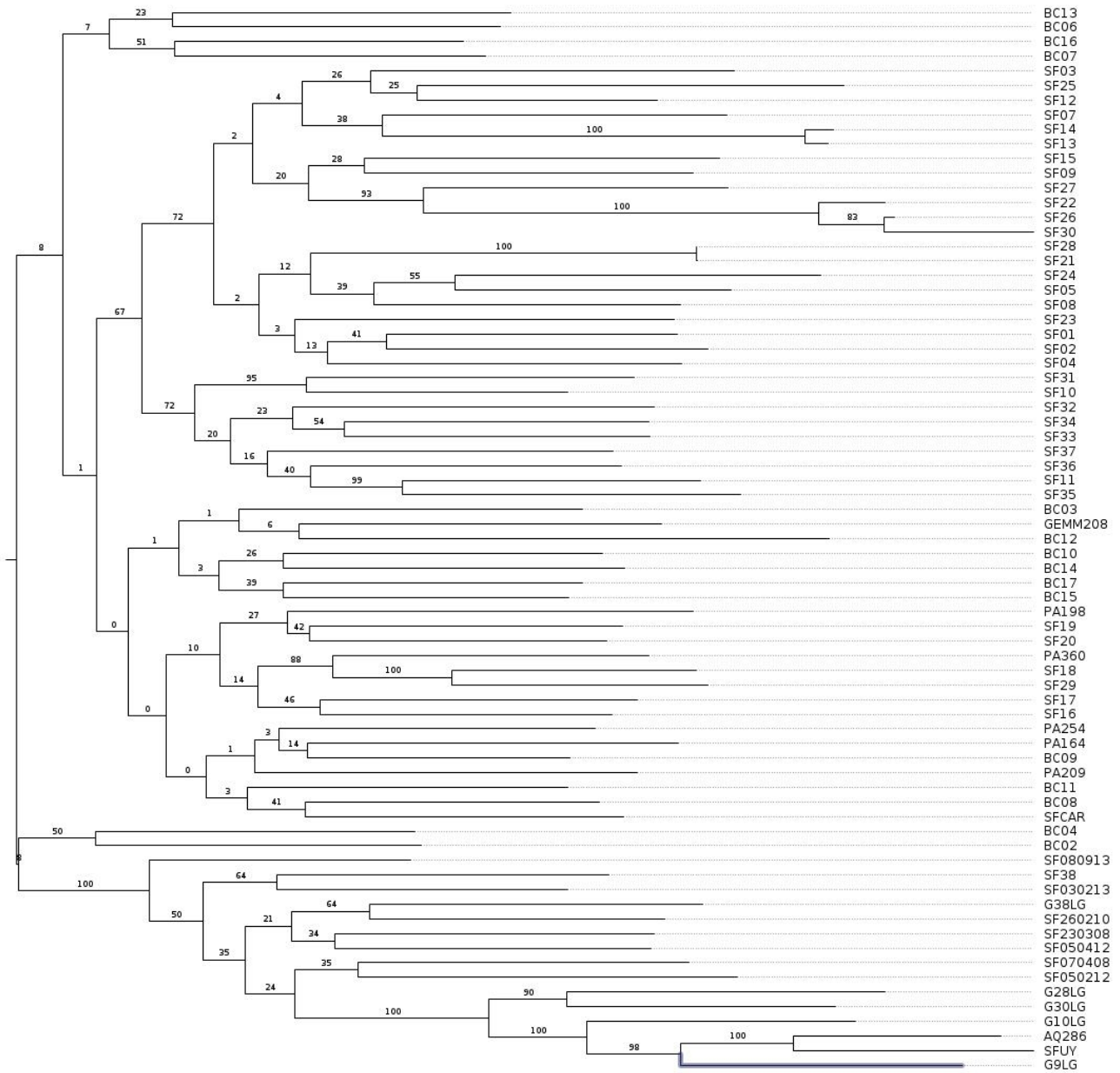


Figure 8. Topology of Maximum Likelihood tree for Atlantic spotted dolphin using Dataset 3. Nodes are labelled with bootstrap support. SBB inner/midshelf individuals: codes GEMM, PA and SF; SBB outer shelf individuals: BC; Caribbean – La Guajira individuals: G; Caribbean – Guadeloupe Island individual: SFCAR; Canary Islands: SF followed by six digits.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Sampling and genomic sequences per individual pre- and post-processing in STACKS; * marks individuals removed from the analysis because of poor sequence quality, large numbers of missing loci, or a single individual in that population.

Sampling Location	Sample	Type	Sex	Longitude	Latitude	Retained Reads	Mean Coverage	Maximum Coverage
Northern Brazil	AQ_286	Strading	M	-37.6450917	-4.58076944	3253358	15.95	446
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_02	Biopsy	M	-46.86639	-25.76958	3624265	17.67	348
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_03	Biopsy	M	-46.49609	-25.365	2565923	16.11	406
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_04	Biopsy	M	-46.49609	-25.365	2912275	12.81	643
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_05*	Biopsy	F	-45.5231	-24.2412	14137	-	-
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_06	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	2812841	16.73	65
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_07	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	3068807	18.27	576
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_08	Biopsy	F	-45.5231	-24.2412	2275299	12.72	581
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_09	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	2828635	15.61	118
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_10	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	3113945	14.59	309
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_11	Biopsy	F	-45.5231	-24.2412	3096880	12.57	645
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_12	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	3728673	15.05	549
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_13	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	3150348	14.82	488
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_14	Biopsy	M	-45.5231	-24.2412	2936780	13.38	851
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_15	Biopsy	F	-45.5231	-24.2412	2775644	13.93	631
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_16	Biopsy	F	-45.5231	-24.2412	2734000	13.51	398
SBB Outer Shelf	BC_17	Biopsy	I	-45.5231	-24.2412	2959420	14.55	1251
Caribbean – La Guajira	G10_LG	Biopsy	F	-73.3044444	11.6972222	3608553	13.8	589
Caribbean – La Guajira	G24_LG*	Biopsy	I	-73.3027778	11.6880556	3246338	-	-
Caribbean – La Guajira	G28_LG	Biopsy	I	-73.3602778	11.5563889	3698714	13.77	790
Caribbean – La Guajira	G30_LG	Biopsy	I	-73.2808333	11.7858333	3248635	11.17	302
Caribbean – La Guajira	G38_LG	Biopsy	M	-72.6161111	12.0461111	513954	5.19	936
Caribbean – La Guajira	G40_LG*	Biopsy	I	-72.2988889	12.0894444	1317152	-	-
Caribbean – La Guajira	G9_LG	Biopsy	M	-73.7586111	11.4844444	2839831	12.35	220
SBB Inner/Midshelf	GEMM_027*	Strading	M	-42.026081	-22.957836	289	-	-
SBB Inner/Midshelf	GEMM_149*	Strading	F	-42.35629	-22.935298	95779	3.32	788
SBB Inner/Midshelf	GEMM_208	Strading	M	-41.93508	-22.765293	556674	4.95	768
SBB Inner/Midshelf	GEMM_219*	Strading	F	-41.94424	-22.7562	12570	-	-
SBB Inner/Midshelf	GEMM_305*	Strading	F	-42.422808	-22.93448	119272	3.47	695
SBB Inner/Midshelf	GEMM_316*	Strading	M	-40.57866	-21.20285	271	-	-
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_164	Incidental Capture	F	-48.3180556	-26.1411111	443314	4.69	653
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_198	Incidental Capture	F	-47.6630556	-25.0205556	555510	4.82	622
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_199*	Incidental Capture	M	-47.6630556	-25.0205556	257186	4	486
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_205*	Incidental Capture	M	-47.6108333	-26.0386111	220039	3.88	1088
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_209	Incidental Capture	F	-47.9	-26.15	796756	6.03	825
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_254	Incidental Capture	M	-	-	337896	4.39	799
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_360	Incidental Capture	F	-47.8612	-25.1417	1331820	7.52	244
SBB Inner/Midshelf	PA_365*	Incidental Capture	F	-47.793367	-25.485133	9397	-	-
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_01	Biopsy	M	-44.95	-23.483333	2137870	9.93	502
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_02	Biopsy	F	-44.95	-23.483333	1775982	9.32	539

SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_03	Biopsy	M	-44.95	-23.483333	2292796	10.28	959
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_04	Biopsy	M	-44.95	-23.483333	2926753	11.86	668
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_05	Biopsy	M	-44.95	-23.483333	1666950	9.13	642
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_07	Biopsy	M	-44.95	-23.483333	1937426	9.58	934
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_08	Biopsy	M	-44.95	-23.483333	2664738	11.56	152
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_09	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.166667	2332106	10.66	609
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_10	Biopsy	F	-46.516667	-24.233333	2731074	10.26	937
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_11	Biopsy	M	-46.516667	-24.233333	2315917	10.1	777
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_12	Biopsy	F	-46.15	-24.333333	1531863	8.81	655
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_13	Biopsy	M	-46.15	-24.333333	1708493	10.7	378
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_14	Biopsy	F	-46.15	-24.333333	1657911	7.56	223
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_15	Biopsy	F	-46.15	-24.333333	2008064	10.16	851
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_16	Biopsy	F	-46.15	-24.333333	2749312	12	608
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_17	Biopsy	M	-46.15	-24.333333	2212398	12.31	889
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_18	Biopsy	F	-47.1	-24.683333	1827654	10.91	1066
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_19	Biopsy	F	-47.1	-24.683333	1599277	9.72	470
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_20	Biopsy	F	-47.1	-24.683333	2373687	11.45	407
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_21	Biopsy	F	-47.1	-24.683333	1167902	7.63	185
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_22	Biopsy	F	-47.1	-24.683333	1779901	10.11	643
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_23	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.133333	740521	5.3	611
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_24	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.133333	1331604	7.6	81
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_25	Biopsy	I	-46.266667	-24.133333	472856	4.57	1060
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_26	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.133333	1353557	8.76	935
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_27	Biopsy	I	-46.266667	-24.133333	1559278	9.88	627
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_28	Biopsy	I	-46.266667	-24.133333	2711463	12.09	722
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_29	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.133333	2059179	10.69	825
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_30	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.133333	468914	4.73	819
SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_31	Biopsy	M	-46.266667	-24.133333	1660803	9.27	450
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SBB Inner/Midshelf	SF_39*	Biopsy	F	-46.733333	-24.5	3435868	-	-
Caribbean – Isla Guadalupe	SF_CAR	Strading	F	-61.43091	16.20633	3457297	15.07	18
Uruguay	SF_UY	Strading	M	-55.71	-34.76	3467961	12.76	991
Canary Islands	SF030213	Strading	F	-13.835876	28.705264	876024	6.58	24
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Canary Islands	SF080913	Strading	F	-13.868572	28.745253	931994	6.51	444
Canary Islands	SF200315*	Strading	M	-	-	133	-	-
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Canary Islands	SF260210	Strading	M	-13.861742	28.43191	737841	5.94	1193
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Supplementary Figures

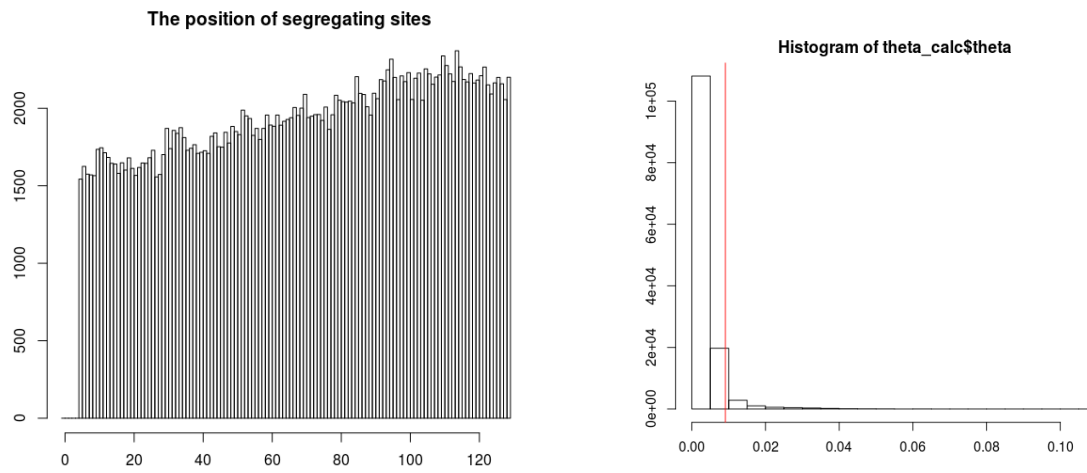


Figure S1. Summary of the frequency of segregating sites for each base-pair position of a locus (A), and the distribution of theta, θ , per loci (B), with the red line marking the θ -values in the 95 percentile that were excluded from analyses to avoid including variation likely reflective of sequencing and/or assembly errors.

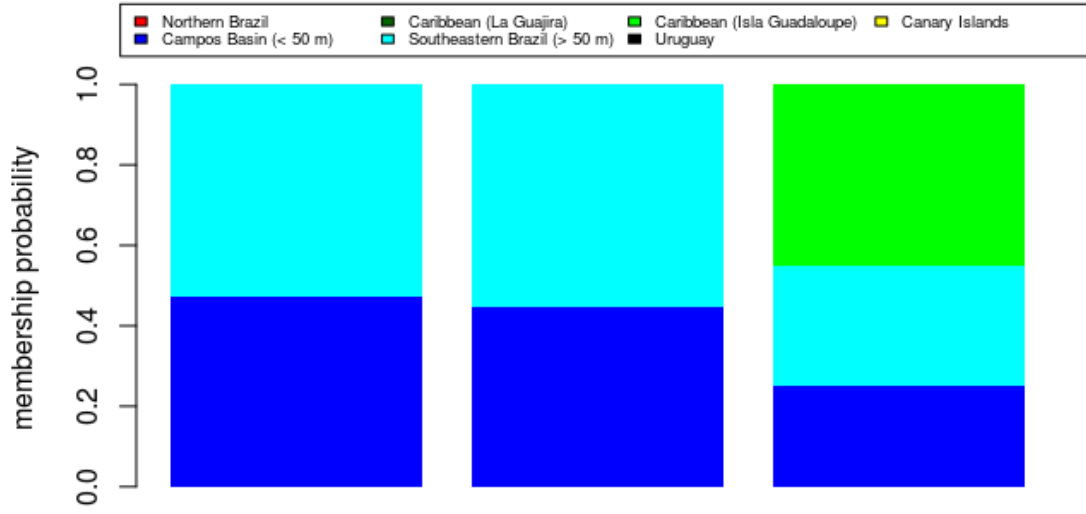


Figure S2. Representation of admixed individuals. Admixed individuals having no more than 60% of probability of membership in a single cluster.

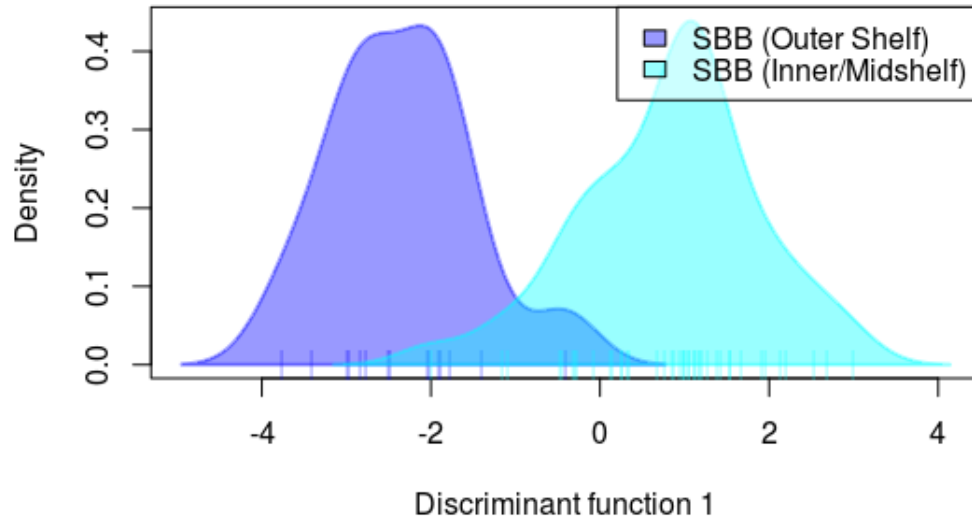


Figure S3. Genomic variation across individuals and populations of Atlantic spotted dolphin across Atlantic Ocean. Scatter plot of individuals based on the first two eigenvalues (created from optimum 15 principal components) of the DAPC. The obtained graph represents the individuals as dots and the groups as inertia ellipses, which are colored by sampling locations. Eigenvalues of the analysis are displayed in inset.

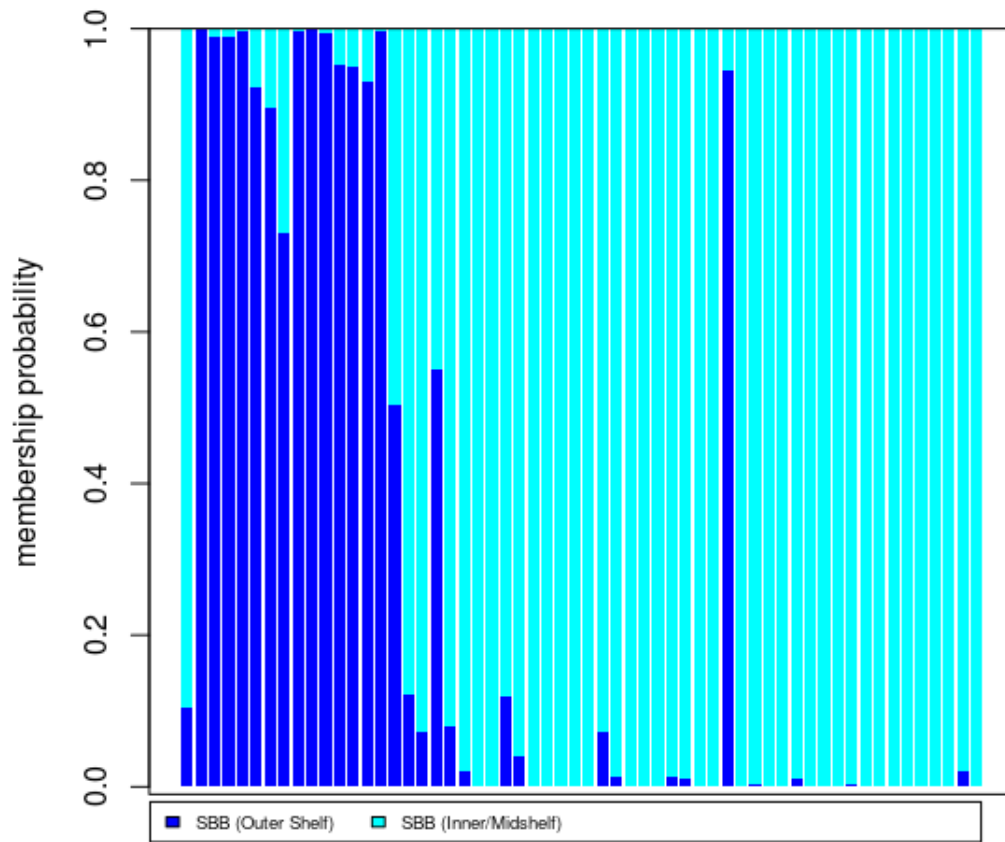


Figure S4. A STRUCTURE-like graphical representation of membership probabilities to have a global picture of the clusters composition based on the DAPC performed with optimum 15 principal components (n.pca=15). Colors represent sampling locations and individuals were colored according the probability to belong to determined cluster.

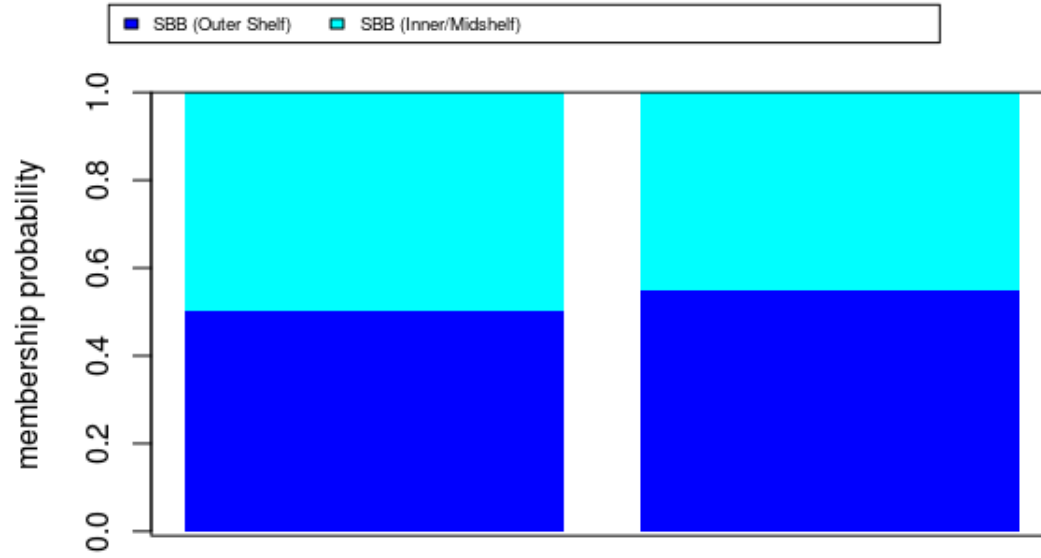


Figure S5. Representation of admixed individuals in the southeastern Brazil group. Admixed individuals having no more than 60% of probability of membership in a single cluster.

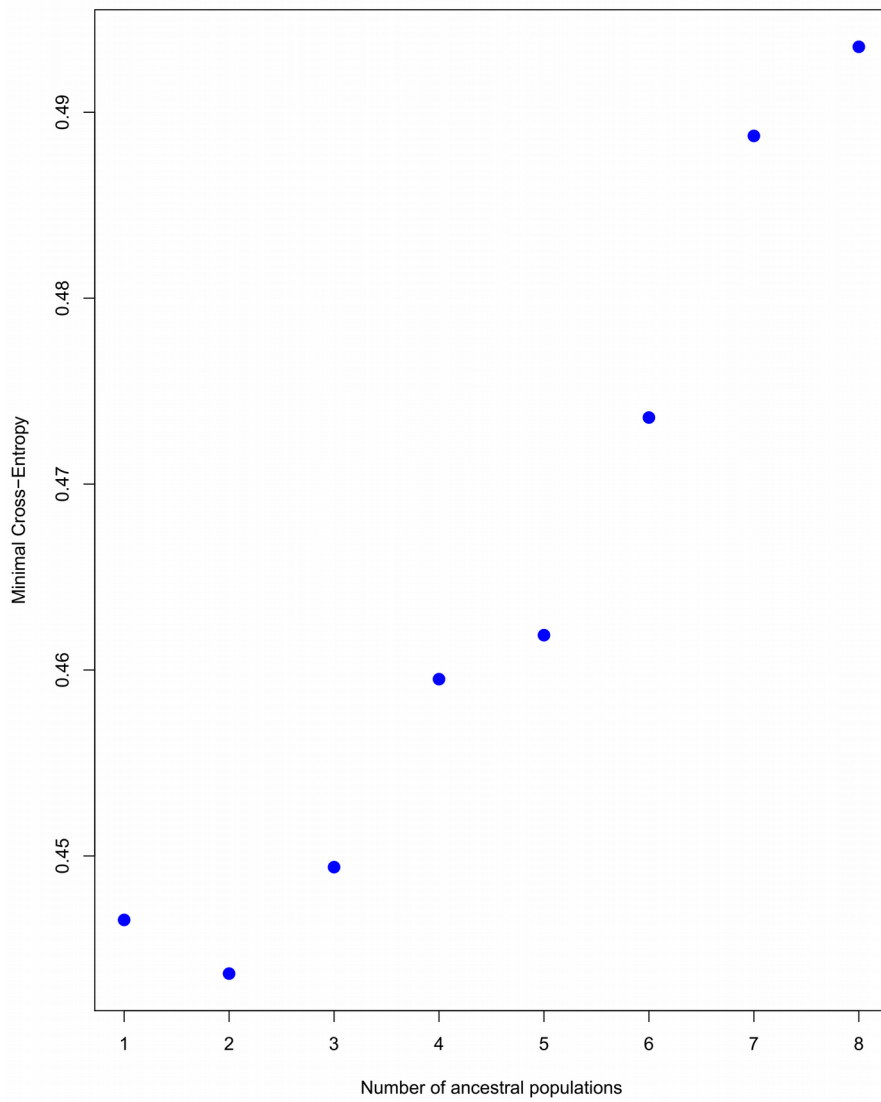


Figure S6. The most likely number of ancestral populations according minimal cross-entropy.

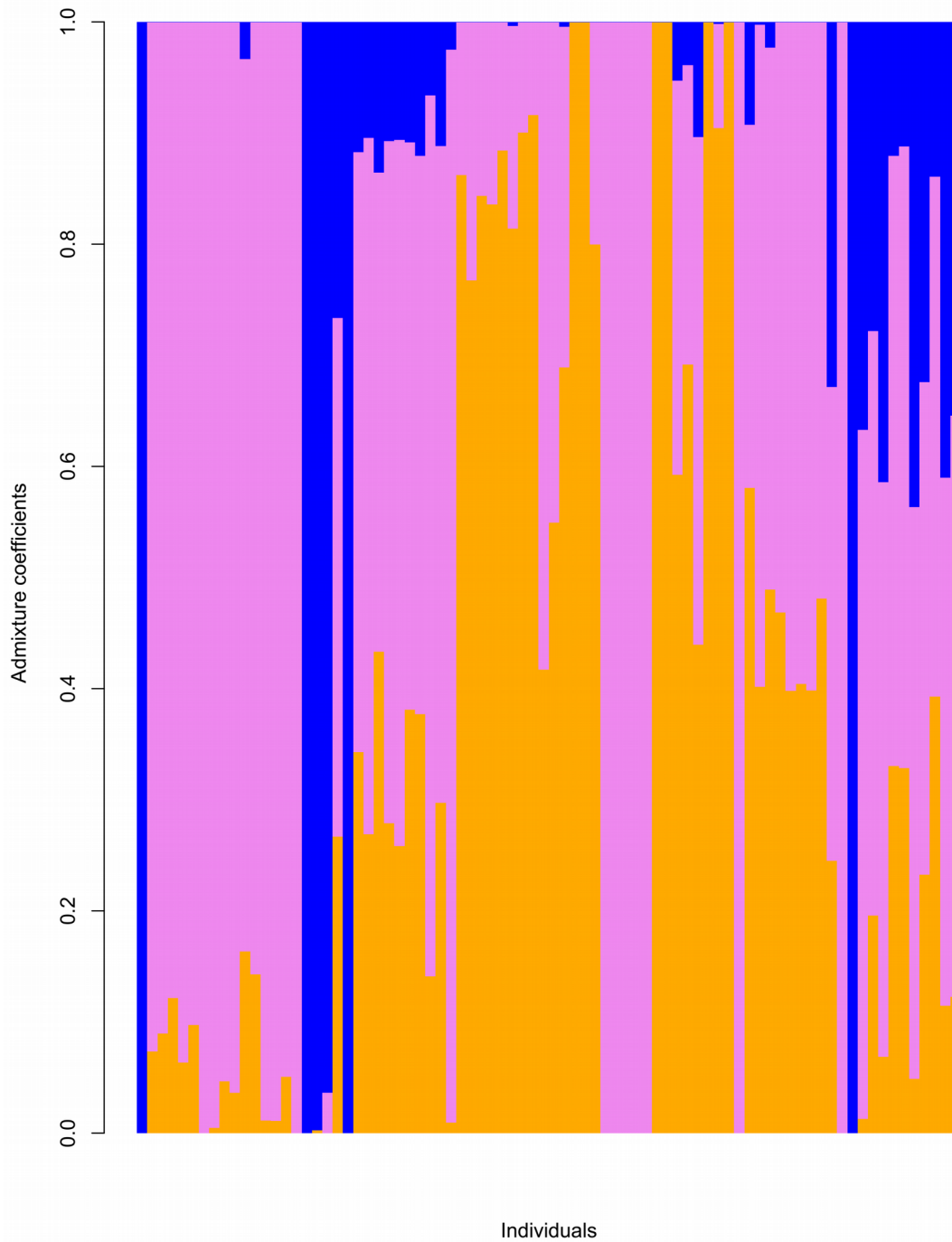


Figure S7. Graphical representation of ancestry estimates obtained for Atlantic spotted dolphin Dataset 2 ($K = 8$). Shown are estimated ancestry coefficients using sNMF with $K=3$ (cross-entropy = 0.45).

CONCLUSÕES GERAIS

O padrão de distribuição de uma espécie é resultado de complexas interações biológicas com o ambiente. Em espécies que vivem no ambiente marinho é especialmente difícil reconhecer os fatores que limitam a distribuição de uma espécie, porque o ambiente parece ser 3-dimensionalmente contínuo e, portanto, as barreiras não são tão óbvias como no ambiente terrestre. No entanto, características hidrográficas (salinidade, turbidez, temperatura e produtividade) e topográficas (relevo, declividade, e extensão da plataforma continental) parecem ser os principais delimitadores da distribuição de espécies de cetáceos, que por serem predadores de topo de cadeia exibem grande capacidade de dispersão.

Nesta tese, a influência do ambiente marinho no padrão de distribuição e estrutura genética de duas espécies de cetáceos com histórias de vida bastante diferentes, mas endêmicas do Oceano Atlântico e com padrões de distribuição semelhantes (i.e., a presença de hiatos de distribuição) no Brasil foram investigados. As espécies analisadas foram a franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvelleri*) e o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico (*Stenella frontalis*). E, em relação as variáveis ambientais analisou-se especificamente batimetria, declividade, temperatura, salinidade, produtividade e turbidez da água. De forma geral, os estudos foram conduzidos em duas escalas: uma mais restrita, onde analisou-se toda distribuição da franciscana ao longo da costa brasileira, enquanto que os estudos com o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico incluíram praticamente toda distribuição da espécie no Oceano Atlântico.

Embora a distribuição da franciscana seja bem conhecida, os fatores ambientais que poderiam explicar a ausência da espécie em duas porções do sudeste do Brasil ainda

eram alvo de debate entre os especialistas. No Capítulo I, demonstramos que embora os hiatos apresentem condições que poderiam favorecer a presença da espécie, uma vez que fazem parte do seu nicho fundamental; no entanto, o hiato sul apresenta uma plataforma continental muito estreita, e o hiato norte embora não seja tão restrito em termos de extensão longitudinal da plataforma continental, exibe níveis de salinidade um pouco mais elevado do que os ambientes ocupados, de fato, pela franciscana. A plataforma estreita longitudinalmente pode intensificar relações ecológicas (como competição e predação), mas pode ter tido um efeito mais importante durante as transgressões e regressões marinhas registradas no Pleistoceno, por exemplo. Uma vez que a espécie exibe estruturação genética ao longo da sua distribuição e também diferenças morfológicas/ecológicas, pode-se concluir que este padrão de distribuição na costa brasileira seja também resultado da história evolutiva da espécie ao longo dos últimos 10 milhões de anos.

Em relação ao golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico, embora muito se conheça sobre a distribuição da espécie e sua estruturação genética no Atlântico Norte, pouco ainda se sabia sobre a espécie no Atlântico Sul. No Brasil, a espécie não é registrada em uma faixa muito estreita da plataforma continental entre 6 e 18°S, e possivelmente, os golfinhos registrados ao sul de 18°S poderiam estar isolados dos demais que ocorrem ao longo do Oceano Atlântico.

No Capítulo II, sequências da região controle do mtDNA de praticamente toda a distribuição da espécie foram analisadas e confirmaram a existência de várias populações. Embora a utilização de apenas um marcador não seja o suficiente para determinar com confiabilidade a existência e limites destas populações, este estudo investigou pela

primeira vez um número grande de amostras obtidas em regiões de pouco conhecimento da espécie (Atlântico Sul Ocidental, Caribe e Ilhas Canárias). Além disso, observou-se que embora de forma não muito expressiva, esta estruturação genética pode ser resultado da influência de fatores como distâncias geográficas e ecológicas. No Capítulo III, marcadores genômicos foram utilizados para investigar a estrutura genética entre três áreas: Atlântico Sul Ocidental, Caribe e Canárias. No geral, os resultados indicam diferenciação ao longo destas áreas e, possivelmente, dois grupos distintos podem existir numa escala muito fina dentro do “*Southeast Brazilian Bight*”, sendo um grupo associado a parte interna/média da plataforma continental e o outro associado a plataforma mais externa.

Os resultados obtidos ao longo destes três capítulos trazem à luz informações de grande relevância para futuros estudos sobre cetáceos no Brasil, podendo ser utilizadas principalmente em planos de manejo e conservação da franciscana e do golfinho-pintado-Atlântico, ao menos, em escala regional.

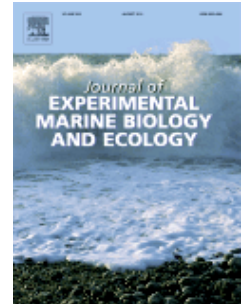


JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL MARINE BIOLOGY AND ECOLOGY

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This result was later contradicted by Becker and Seligman (1996).

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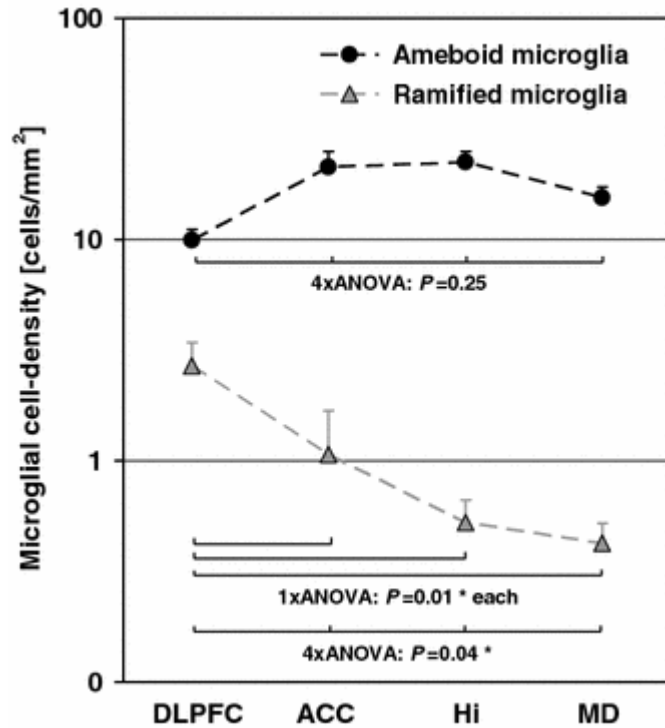
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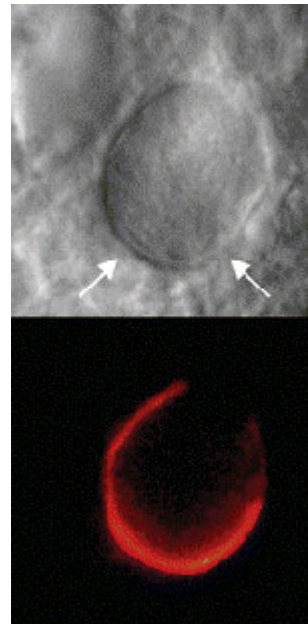
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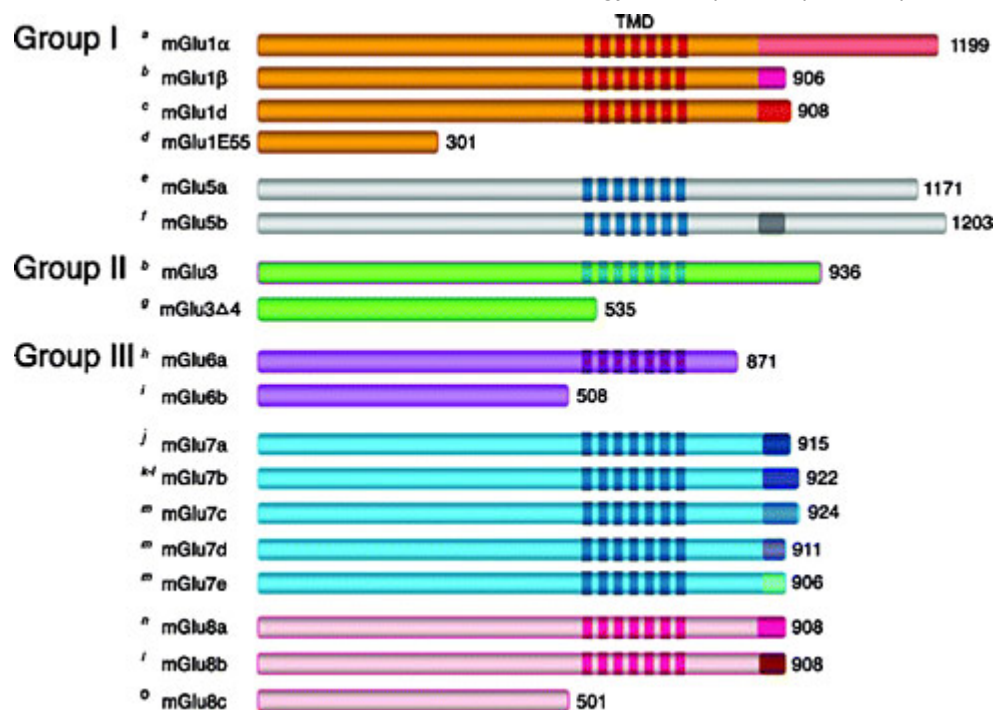
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영어 원고의 경우, 에디터 및 리뷰어들이 귀하의 원고에 실린 결과물을 정확하게 평가할 수 있도록, 그들이 충분히 이해할 수 있을 만한 수준으로 작성되어야 합니다. 만약 영작문과 관련하여 도움을 받기를 원하신다면 다음의 사항들을 고려하여 주십시오:

- ・ 귀하의 원고의 표현을 명확히 해줄 영어 원어민 동료를 찾아서 리뷰를 의뢰합니다.
- ・ 영어 튜토리얼 페이지에 방문하여 영어로 글을 쓸 때 자주하는 실수들을 확인합니다.
- ・ 리뷰에 대비하여, 원고의 의미를 명확하게 해주고 리뷰에서 요구하는 문제점들을 식별해서 영문 수준을 향상시켜주는 전문 영문 교정 서비스를 이용합니다. Nature Research Editing Service와 American Journal Experts에서 저희와 협약을 통해 서비스를 제공하고 있습니다. Springer 저자들이 본 교정 서비스를 첫 논문 투고를 위해 사용하시는 경우 10%의 할인이 적용되며, 아래의 링크를 통하여 확인이 가능합니다.

영어 튜토리얼 페이지

Nature Research Editing Service

American Journal Experts

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원고가 수락될 경우, 출판 전 저희측 편집자에 의해 원고의 철자 및 문체를 검수하는 과정을 거치게 됩니다.

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MOLECULAR ECOLOGY

Author Guidelines

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1. SUBMISSION

Authors should note that submission implies that the content has not been published or submitted for publication elsewhere except as a brief abstract in the proceedings of a scientific meeting or symposium.

Once the submission materials have been prepared in accordance with the Author Guidelines, manuscripts should be submitted online at <https://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/mec>

- The submission system will prompt authors to use an ORCID iD (a unique author identifier) to help distinguish their work from that of other researchers. [Click here](#) to find out more.
- **Conflict of Interest Statement**
 - Upon submission, authors will be asked to affirm a conflict of interest statement. For guidance, see the 'Conflict of Interest' section in the Editorial Policies and Ethical Considerations section below. Authors should ensure they liaise with all co-authors to confirm agreement with the statement.
- [Click here](#) for more details on how to use the [ScholarOne](#) submission database.
- For help with submissions, please contact: molecol@wiley.com

2. AIMS AND SCOPE

Molecular Ecology publishes papers that utilize molecular genetic techniques to address consequential questions in ecology, evolution, behaviour and conservation.

Studies may employ neutral markers for inference about ecological and evolutionary processes or examine ecologically important genes and their products.

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broadly applicable in ecology are not appropriate for *Molecular Ecology* and should instead be submitted to a more specialized journal or to [Ecology & Evolution](#).

If your work addresses technical methods, computer programs and genomic resource development, please submit these to our companion journal, [Molecular Ecology Resources](#).

**

各位作者，请在投稿信中陈述您的科研成果与 *Molecular Ecology* 的办刊宗旨和报道领域的契合之处。

Molecular Ecology 刊载的科研论文致力于运用分子基因技术解决生态，进化，行为和生态保护的相关问题。

研究包括采用中性标记监测生态和进化过程的干扰，以及对生态重要基因和相应产物的检验。

若投稿论文仅描述并适用于当前正在研究的类群，而不涉及解决更广泛的生态学问题，此类文章不在 *Molecular Ecology* 的报道领域内，建议向更专业的期刊投稿，或 [Ecology & Evolution](#)。

如果您的研究成果专注于技术方法，电脑程序和基因组资源开发，请向我们的姐妹刊 [Molecular Ecology Resources](#) 投稿。

**

Research areas of interest to *Molecular Ecology* include:

- ecological, evolutionary, and population genomics
- population structure and phylogeography
- landscape genomics
- community ecology and coevolution
- reproductive strategies
- relatedness and kin selection
- sex allocation
- population genetic theory
- analytical methods development
- conservation genetics
- speciation and hybridization
- microbial biodiversity
- evolutionary dynamics of ecologically important genes or QTLs
- ecological interactions
- molecular adaptation and environmental genomics
- impact of genetically modified organisms

Authors, please include a statement in your Cover Letter describing how your work fits the Aims and Scope of

3. MANUSCRIPT CATEGORIES AND REQUIREMENTS

Original Articles (Primary Research Papers)

Our principal function is to publish primary research papers. Such papers are reports of research projects that are complete to the extent that they yield valuable insights into topics within the Aims and Scope of *Molecular Ecology*.

- limit of 8000 words per paper, excluding references
- manuscripts generally contain in this order:

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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Introduction o Materials and Methods o Results o Discussion o Acknowledgements o References o Data Accessibility o Author Contributions o Tables and Figures (with captions) 	

'From the Cover' Papers

Primary Research Papers of exceptional interest to a wide audience within the Aims and Scope of *Molecular Ecology*.

- Accepted articles will be highlighted on the cover and in the table of contents, and will frequently be featured in commentaries and press alerts.
- From the Cover submissions that are judged not to merit this designation may still be considered as regular Original Articles.
- From the Cover submissions can include papers previously reviewed by other high impact journals. In these instances, we can utilize all documents associated with the previous review process. The use of these review materials does not guarantee acceptance or that the manuscript will not receive external review.
 - o To increase the probability that further external review will not be necessary, authors in these cases should revise the manuscript according to reviewers' comments and submit a cover letter describing these changes and explaining why their paper would be appropriate for publication as a From the Cover article in *Molecular Ecology*.
- limit of 8000 words per paper, excluding references
- N.B. We appreciate that authors of From the Cover papers are looking for rapid publication, and hence we will consider initial submissions that are not in standard *Molecular Ecology* format.
- e.g., manuscripts in Nature, PNAS or Science format are welcome.
- Please note that articles deemed suitable for publication will need to be changed to *Molecular Ecology* format prior to final acceptance

Invited Reviews and Syntheses

Invited Reviews

- Invited by the Reviews Editor from individuals who have major contributions to make to the field of molecular ecology. We will consider unsolicited review papers, but authors wishing to submit such manuscripts

2000 words each)

- o Color figures in these articles are published in print free of charge

Syntheses

- These papers bring together data from many different studies to address an important hypothesis in ecology or evolution. They are not commissioned by an editor and can be directly submitted to the journal.
- Specifics:

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- o Colour figures in these articles are published in print free of charge.

Opinions

These papers present points of view, that are relevant and potentially controversial, as a means of encouraging debate. Such manuscripts may present speculative and provocative viewpoints, although they must be conditioned by the normal standards of scientific objectivity, and they will be subject to peer review. Opinion Articles should be shorter than 6000 words, excluding references.

Comments

Comments on published papers, principally those published in, *Molecular Ecology*, will be considered by the editors and published after consultation or peer review. Such manuscripts should be as brief as possible. A rebuttal by the original author(s) may also be solicited and published alongside the Comment.

Meeting Reviews

These papers describe the theme, notable presentations and conclusions of a scientific meeting of interest to the molecular ecology community. Meeting Reviews are only published after peer review, and should not present new data. They should be shorter than 6000 words, excluding references.

4. PREPARING THE SUBMISSION

Cover Letters

Your cover letter should contain a clear statement of how your manuscript fits the scope of the journal.

As submission implies that the content has not been published or submitted for publication elsewhere except as a brief abstract in the proceedings of a scientific meeting or symposium, it is not necessary to reiterate this information.

Response to Reviewers

If your paper is a revision or resubmission, please prepare a detailed response to the previous set of editor and reviewer comments.

- The manuscript submission system removes text highlighting, bold type or text colours, so the most robust approach is to copy the decision letter into a Word document and insert your responses beneath each comment, starting your text with ">>>".
- Uploading a copy of the manuscript with changes tracked also assists with the review process, particularly for papers given a 'reconsider after revision' or an 'accept, minor revisions' decision.

Formatting

- Double-spaced text
- Single-spacing for:
 - o Table and figure captions
 - o References
 - o Appendices
 - o Supporting/Supplemental information
- Side margins 2.5 cm side margins, top and bottom margins 3 cm

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Manuscripts failing to include any of these elements will be returned without review.

File Types

For initial submission, manuscripts can be:

- Microsoft Word with tables and figures either embedded in the document or uploaded as separate files
- A single pdf containing the text, tables and figures
- LaTeX
 - o please use the LaTeX 'article' class
 - o do not add coding to 'force' line breaks or the positioning of 'floats', as this coding will need to be removed in the conversion of the file to XML
 - o To submit your manuscript to ScholarOne Manuscripts, please combine all of your LaTeX and EPS (figure) source files into a single PDF and upload this file as your designated 'Main Document'. (This will be used as a reference file.)
 - o Please then upload all LaTeX and EPS (figure) source files as a single zipped folder designated as a 'TeX/LaTeX Source Folder'.
- Keep files as small as possible to facilitate information transmission (max 50 MB)
- With the exception of LaTeX support files as outlined above, do not use any form of compression or zipping, as these can interfere with our upload process.

Note: If accepted you must supply the manuscript in an editable format (Word, LaTeX), separate files for each figure and tables in an editable format (Word or Excel).

Tables and Figures

- Tables and figures should appear after the main text.
- Captions should appear with their respective table or figure.
- Footnotes for tables should be given below the table.
- Colour images are welcome, but authors are charged for colour production in print (see Final MS Preparation).
- In the full-text online edition of the journal, figure captions may be truncated in abbreviated links to the full screen version. Therefore, the first 100 characters of any caption should inform the reader of key aspects of the figure.

Preparation of Figures

- Almost all figures submitted to Molecular Ecology should be vector graphics, as these are clear at all magnifications and reproduce well both in print and online.
- Graphs should always be saved directly as .eps or .pdf files from a professional graphics program (e.g., R)

possible.

- Photographic images can be in a pixel-based format, but please ensure that these are saved as .tif files with at least 300 dpi, or (failing that) a .jpg with no compression.
- Prepare figures such that, after reduction to fit across one column, two-thirds page width, or two columns (80 mm, 112 mm, or 169 mm, respectively) as required, all lettering and symbols will be clear and easy to read,
 - o i.e., no axes labels should be too large or too small. Further details are available at <http://authorservices.wiley.com/bauthor/illustration.asp>.

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media from the publisher or the original source, and for supplying Wiley with that permission

Charges for Colour

- Figures published in Molecular Ecology will appear in colour in the online version of the article, at no cost to authors.
 - o In the 'Colour Online Only' option, figures have the colour saturation of the original version reduced to zero for print. As a result, we recommend authors consider paying for colour printing if their figures and captions do not convey the same information in greyscale as they do in colour. More information on making figures that are legible in colour online and greyscale in print can be found at <http://www.molecularecologist.com/figure-guidelines/>.
- It is journal policy that authors pay the full cost for any print reproduction of colour artwork.
 - o Please contact the production staff for current colour figure charges: mec@wiley.com

To learn about options for help with figure preparation, please see [Wiley Editing Services](#).

Related Manuscripts

Reviewers and Editors often ask to see unpublished manuscripts (i.e. 'in press', 'in review' or 'submitted') that appear to be related to the submitted paper. As obtaining these during the review process adds unnecessary delays, we request that these related manuscripts are uploaded as 'supplemental files for review only' at the submission stage.

Parts of the Manuscript

Separate files should be uploaded for the main text and for each figure.

Original Articles and From the Cover Articles include, in this order:

Main Text File

The text file should be presented in the following order:

Title Page

1. A short, informative title containing the major key words within the first 65 characters.
 - a. see Wiley's [best practice SEO tips](#)
 - b. The title should not contain abbreviations
 - c. It's fun to present your work with a really clever title, but don't let it compromise the discoverability of the work. The best way to have some fun and make sure your work will be found on internet searches is to present the title this way:

Accurate Scientific Title With Keywords: Fun, Catchy, Clever Title

2. A short running title of less than 45 characters;
3. The full names and affiliation of the authors;
 - a. The author's institutional affiliations should be that where the work was conducted

c. Please refer to the journal's [Authorship policy](#) in the [Editorial Policies and Ethical Considerations](#) section for details on author listing eligibility.

Abstract

Please provide an abstract of no more than 250 words containing the major keywords.

Keywords

Please provide four to six keywords.

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~~Results (separate from Discussion)~~

Discussion

Acknowledgements

- These should briefly give credit to other people who have made a contribution to the study.
- Ensure that all relevant grant numbers are listed.

References

Please see this document for examples of implementing [APA Reference Style](#).

Data Accessibility Statement

Authors are required to archive their data in a publicly accessible repository such as Dryad, FigShare, GenBank, etc. (not a laboratory homepage).

- Upon submission, this statement must be included, but can describe curation plans prior to data having been thus archived.
- Upon acceptance, data must be archived and the Data Accessibility statement completed including database and information such as accession numbers or DOI (as available) for all data from the manuscript.
- Note: if data, scripts, or other artefacts used to generate the analyses presented in the paper are available via a publicly available data repository, authors should include a reference to the location of the material within their paper.

Example:

"Data Accessibility:

- DNA sequences: Genbank accessions F234391-F234402; NCBI SRA: SRX0110215
- Final DNA sequence assembly uploaded as online
- Climate data and MaxEnt input files: Dryad doi:10.5521/dryad.12311
- Sampling locations, morphological data and microsatellite genotypes: Dryad doi:10.5521/dryad.12311"

Manuscripts lacking a Data Accessibility section will not be passed through to an editor. Please note that reviewers will be asked to comment on the completeness of this section.

Author Contributions

Authors should include a brief Author Contributions statement at the end of the paper in which they describe their specific contributions to the published work. Contributions could include, but are not limited to:

- designed research
- performed research
- contributed new reagents or analytical tools

Tables

Tables should be self-contained and complement, not duplicate, information contained in the text. Specifics:

- Must be editable files, not pasted as images
- Legends should be concise but comprehensive – the table, legend, and footnotes must be understandable without reference to the text
- All abbreviations must be defined in footnotes.

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- Statistical measures such as SD or SEM should be identified in the headings.

Figure Legends

Legends should be concise but comprehensive – the figure and its legend must be understandable without reference to the text. Include definitions of any symbols used and define/explain all abbreviations and units of measurement.

Figures

Although authors are encouraged to send the highest-quality figures possible, for peer-review purposes, a wide variety of formats, sizes, and resolutions are accepted. [Click here](#) for the basic figure requirements for figures submitted with manuscripts for initial peer review, as well as the more detailed post-acceptance figure requirements.

Figures submitted in colour

- will be reproduced in colour online free of charge
- Please note, however, that it is preferable that line figures (e.g. graphs and charts) are supplied in black and white so that they are legible if printed by a reader in black and white
- to have figures printed in colour in hard copies of the journal, a fee will be charged by the Publisher.

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Supporting information is information that is not essential to the article, but provides greater depth and background. It is hosted online and appears without editing or typesetting. It may include tables, figures, videos, datasets, etc. [Click here](#) for Wiley's FAQs on supporting information.

- If feasible, consider using this branded Molecular Ecology [Supporting Information Document](#).
- Place article title and all author names at the beginning of the Supplemental document
- Consolidate Supplemental information into as few files as possible
- If the document becomes very large, prepare a Table of Contents for the document
- Supporting Information should be uploaded in a separate file and given the file designation 'Supporting Information for online publication.'
- This material will not appear in the PDF Version of Record

Supporting Information will not be edited or altered from its original format during the production process, and therefore proofs of your Supporting Information will not be available. Supporting Information will appear online when your article is published.

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- Specs for the Cover Image must be:
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 - o Width - 156.13 mm
 - o Dpi - 150 dpi

Wiley Author Resources

Manuscript Preparation Tips:Wiley has a range of resources for authors preparing manuscripts for submission

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Editing, Translation, and Formatting Support:[Wiley Editing Services](#) greatly improve the chances of a manuscript being accepted. Offering expert help in English language editing, translation, manuscript formatting, and figure preparation, Wiley Editing Services ensures that the manuscript is ready for submission.

5. EDITORIAL POLICIES AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Editorial Review and Acceptance

The acceptance criteria for all papers are the quality and originality of the research, its fit to the scope of the journal and significance to journal readership.

Wiley's policy on confidentiality of the review process is [available here](#).

Referrals to the Open Access Journal *Ecology and Evolution*

For rapid publication of quality research that we are unable to accept, select authors of declined manuscripts will be offered the option of having the paper, along with any related reviews, automatically transferred for consideration by *Ecology and Evolution*.[Ecology and Evolution](#) is a Wiley Open Access journal and article publication fees apply.

- Authors will not need to reformat or rewrite their manuscript at this stage, and publication decisions will be made a short time after the transfer takes place.
- Once the referral is made, the manuscript will be held in a secure Wiley FTP site that is not accessed until authors request to transfer their manuscript.
- The Editor of *Ecology and Evolution* will accept submissions reporting well-conducted research that reaches the standard acceptable for publication. Accepted papers can be published rapidly, typically within 15 days of acceptance.

Data Storage and Documentation

Archiving of data in a publicly accessible repository is mandatory for publication in *Molecular Ecology*.

We require that authors include a 'Data Accessibility' section after the References (see 'Preparing the Submission' Section for details). This section must be present at initial submission, and data archiving must be completed before final acceptance.

Data are important products of the scientific enterprise, and they should be preserved and usable for decades in the future. As such, *Molecular Ecology* requires authors to archive the data supporting their results and conclusions along with sufficient details so that a third party can interpret them correctly. Papers with exemplary data and code archiving are more valuable for future research, and, all else being equal, will be given higher priority for publication.

TreeBASE, Dryad, FigShare, the Knowledge Network for Biocomplexity, your own institutional or funder repository, or as Supporting Information on the Molecular Ecology web site.

- The utility of archived data is greatly enhanced when the scripts and input files used in the analyses are also made available.
- Given that scripts may be a mix of proprietary and freely available code, their deposition is not compulsory, but we nonetheless strongly encourage authors to make these scripts available whenever possible.
- Software and documentation may be made accessible from a long-term server (e.g., github), however, at

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continued access to these resources is ensured.

- [Whitlock et al. \(2010\)](#), states that accurate interpretation of data will likely "require a short additional text document, with details specifying the meaning of each column in the data set. The preparation of such shareable data sets will be easiest if these files are prepared as part of the data analysis phase of the preparation of the paper, rather than after acceptance of a manuscript."
- For additional guidelines on data deposition best practice, please visit <http://datadryad.org/depositing>.

Data must be publicly available at time of publication. Embargos may be granted in exceptional instances at the discretion of the Managing Editor. Exemptions to this policy may also be granted, especially for sensitive information such as human subject data or the location of endangered species.

Preprints

Molecular Ecology will consider submissions that have previously been made available online, either on a preprint server like arXiv, bioRxiv, or PeerJ PrePrints, or on the authors' own website. However, any such submissions must not have been published in a scientific journal, book or other venue that could be considered formal publication. Authors must inform the editorial office at submission if their paper has been made available as a preprint.

- Authors of accepted papers that were made available as preprints must be able to assign copyright to Molecular Ecology, or agree to the terms of the Wiley Open Access agreement and pay the associated fee.
- Given that the measurable impact of the article is diminished when citations are split between the preprint and the published article, authors are required to:
 - o update the entry on the preprint server so that it links to and cites the DOI for the published version
 - o cite only the published article themselves.

Independent Peer Review Services

Molecular Ecology will consider referrals from independent review services. However such manuscripts may be subject to additional external review by Molecular Ecology. If appropriate, we will invite authors to submit a revision of their manuscript to Molecular Ecology. Note that we cannot guarantee a positive decision for referred manuscripts.

Human Studies and Subjects

For manuscripts reporting medical studies that involve human participants, a statement identifying the ethics committee that approved the study and confirmation that the study conforms to recognized standards is required, for example: [Declaration of Helsinki](#); [US Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects](#); or [European Medicines Agency Guidelines for Good Clinical Practice](#).

Images and information from individual participants will only be published where the authors have obtained the individual's free prior informed consent. Authors do not need to provide a copy of the consent form to the publisher; however, in signing the author license to publish, authors are required to confirm that consent has been obtained.

A statement indicating that the protocol and procedures employed were ethically reviewed and approved, as well as the name of the body giving approval, must be included in the Methods section of the manuscript. Authors are encouraged to adhere to animal research reporting standards, for example the [ARRIVE reporting guidelines](#) for reporting study design and statistical analysis; experimental procedures; experimental animals and housing and husbandry. Authors should also state whether experiments were performed in accordance with relevant institutional and national guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals:

- US authors should cite compliance with the US National Research Council's [Guide for the Care and Use of](#)

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- UK authors should conform to UK legislation under the [Animals \(Scientific Procedures\) Act 1986 Amendment Regulations \(SI 2012/3039\)](#).
- European authors outside the UK should conform to [Directive 2010/63/EU](#).

Compliance with International Conventions and Regulations on Biological Diversity and Endangered Species

We strongly recommend that papers submitted to Molecular Ecology comply with the Convention on Biological Diversity and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CBD and CITES). Within the CBD, we ask that authors follow the Access to Benefit Sharing (ABS) guidelines, and give credit and equal access to benefits to countries, academic institutions and scientists that participated in the collection and analysis of data. Under the CITES convention, we request that authors observe the need for permits for the import and export of specimens that fall under CITES guidelines.

Compliance with Laws on Animal Experimentation and Sampling from Natural Populations

We expect that papers submitted to Molecular Ecology comply with the ARRIVE guidelines for the use of animals in research (<http://www.nc3rs.org.uk/ARRIVE>), as well as any other legal requirements of the countries where the work was conducted. Sampling procedures for natural populations must be properly described and should be designed to minimize their impact on the taxa involved and their habitat. They must also comply with any international and national legal requirements.

Research Reporting Guidelines

Accurate and complete reporting enables readers to fully appraise research, replicate it, and use it. Authors are encouraged to adhere to the following research reporting standards.

- [ARRIVE guidelines](#)

Species Names

Upon its first use in the title, abstract, and text, the common name of a species should be followed by the scientific name (genus, species, and authority) in parentheses. For well-known species, however, scientific names may be omitted from article titles. If no common name exists in English, only the scientific name should be used.

Number of Loci, Populations and Individuals

Sampling strategies and marker choices should be designed to best address the question motivating the study. Unless there are exceptional circumstances, authors of single species phylogeographic studies must base their inferences on multiple loci: our editors and reviewers often question the reliability of inferences based on a single locus and such manuscripts will typically not be sent out for review.

We have been reluctant to formulate guidelines regarding the minimum number of independent loci, populations and individuals needed for publication in Molecular Ecology, largely because such guidelines would depend on the

guidance on this policy.

Data Analysis Best Practice

Molecular Ecology expects that statistical and molecular tools used in submitted papers should meet a high standard of rigor. All analytical approaches have inherent limitations, and authors should therefore attempt to identify the limitations of their chosen approach and corroborate their interpretations when possible.

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examples of acceptable nomenclature are provided.

Sequence Data

Nucleotide sequence data can be submitted in electronic form to any of the three major collaborative databases: DDBJ, EMBL, or GenBank. It is only necessary to submit to one database as data are exchanged between DDBJ, EMBL, and GenBank on a daily basis. The suggested wording for referring to accession-number information is: 'These sequence data have been submitted to the DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank databases under accession number U12345'.

Addresses are as follows:

- DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ) www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp
- EMBL Nucleotide Archive: ebi.ac.uk/ena
- GenBank www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank

Proteins sequence data should be submitted to either of the following repositories.

- Protein Information Resource (PIR): pir.georgetown.edu
- SWISS-PROT: expasy.ch/sprot/sprot-top

Structural Data

For papers describing structural data, atomic coordinates and the associated experimental data should be deposited in the appropriate databank (see below). **Please note that the data in databanks must be released, at the latest, upon publication of the article.** We trust in the cooperation of our authors to ensure that atomic coordinates and experimental data are released on time.

- **Organic and organometallic compounds:** Crystallographic data should not be sent as Supporting Information, but should be deposited with the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (CCDC) at ccdc.cam.ac.uk/services/structure_deposit.
- **Inorganic compounds:** Fachinformationszentrum Karlsruhe (FIZ; fiz-karlsruhe.de).
- **Proteins and nucleic acids:** Protein Data Bank (rcsb.org/pdb).
- **NMR spectroscopy data:** BioMagResBank (bmr.b.wisc.edu).

Use of RAPD/ISSR Markers

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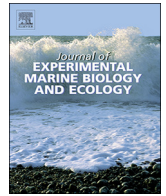
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Reassessment of the franciscana *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1844) distribution and niche characteristics in Brazil

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ABSTRACT

The franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvillei*) is the most threatened small cetacean of South America. The species is endemic to coastal waters of the western South Atlantic Ocean, where it is distributed from Itaúnas (Brazil) to Golfo San Matias (Argentina). Its range was divided in four Franciscana Management Areas (FMAs) for conservation purposes. However, the distribution of the franciscana is not continuous along its range, with two hiatuses proposed in southeastern Brazilian coast. The absence of franciscana records in these regions has been confirmed by multiple years of research, however the reasons for this discontinuous distribution is not well understood. In this study, information on the distribution of the franciscana in south and southeastern Brazil is updated and new limits for FMAs are proposed. NicheA 3.0 software was used to investigate the environmental suitability of distributional gaps in relation to four weakly correlated, allegedly relevant descriptors of franciscana's distribution. In total, 788 records from dedicated aerial and boat surveys and bycatch were used to verify and to confirm the new FMAs limits proposed by franciscana's experts previously. The distributional gaps were reshaped and defined as following: Gap I from Piraquê-Açu River Mouth, Santa Cruz (19°57'S) in the state of Espírito Santo to Barra de Itabapoana (21°18'S) in the state of Rio de Janeiro; and Gap II from Armação dos

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Búzios (22°44'S) to Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S) in Rio de Janeiro. The ecological niche model indicated that distributional gaps are inside franciscana's fundamental niche, and are relatively suitable in terms of salinity, temperature, diffuse attenuation and bathymetry. However, the narrow of continental shelf seems to be the main factor explaining the absence of franciscanas in the distributional gaps as well as for the differentiation of some of the FMAs proposed. Narrowness of continental shelf seems to be intensifying the dynamics of biotic interactions promoting food competition for example, and/or causing geographic limitation to maintain minimal viable population size in present or past times periods.

1. Introduction

The franciscana *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1844) is the most threatened small cetacean of South America (Secchi et al., 2003a). Mortality in gillnets have been impacting franciscana dolphins throughout their range for at least 50 years (e.g. Ott et al., 2002; Prado et al., 2013, 2016; Secchi et al., 2003a, 2003b), compromising the viability of its populations (Kinas, 2002; Secchi, 2006). The franciscana faces a high risk of extinction and is listed as “Vulnerable” on a global scale by IUCN (Zerbini et al., 2017), while regionally in Brazil it is officially listed as “Critically Endangered” (MMA, 2014).

The franciscana is endemic to coastal waters of Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina. Currently, the species occurs from Itaúnas (18°25'S), in the state of Espírito Santo, southeastern Brazil (Siciliano et al., 2002) to Golfo San Matias (41°10'S), Rio Negro, Argentina (Crespo et al., 1998). Early studies showed evidence that franciscana is not continuously distributed along its range in Brazil (Siciliano et al., 2002). Many years

of bycatch monitoring, beach surveys for stranded animals and aerial surveys confirms the existence of two distributional gaps: (1) from Regência (19°40'S), in Espírito Santo, to Barra do Itabapoana (21°18'S), in the state of Rio de Janeiro, namely northern distributional gap (Gap I); and (2) from Macaé (22°25'S) to Ilha Grande (23°09'S), in Rio de Janeiro, namely southern distributional gap (Gap II) (e.g. Azevedo et al., 2002; Danilewicz et al., 2012; de Moura et al., 2009). Systematic and long-term monitoring has confirmed the absence of franciscanas, mainly in the central portion of these gaps (e.g. de Moura et al., 2009). However, there is no consensus about the exact boundaries of the gaps (e.g. Azevedo et al., 2002; Siciliano et al., 2015) which play an important role in the delineation of management units for the species (Secchi et al., 2003a).

Previous studies revealed the existence of geographical population structure based on external morphology and genetic markers (e.g. Higa et al., 2002; Ott, 2002; Pinedo, 1995; Ramos et al., 2002; Secchi et al., 1998). After applying a multi-methodological approach for identifying

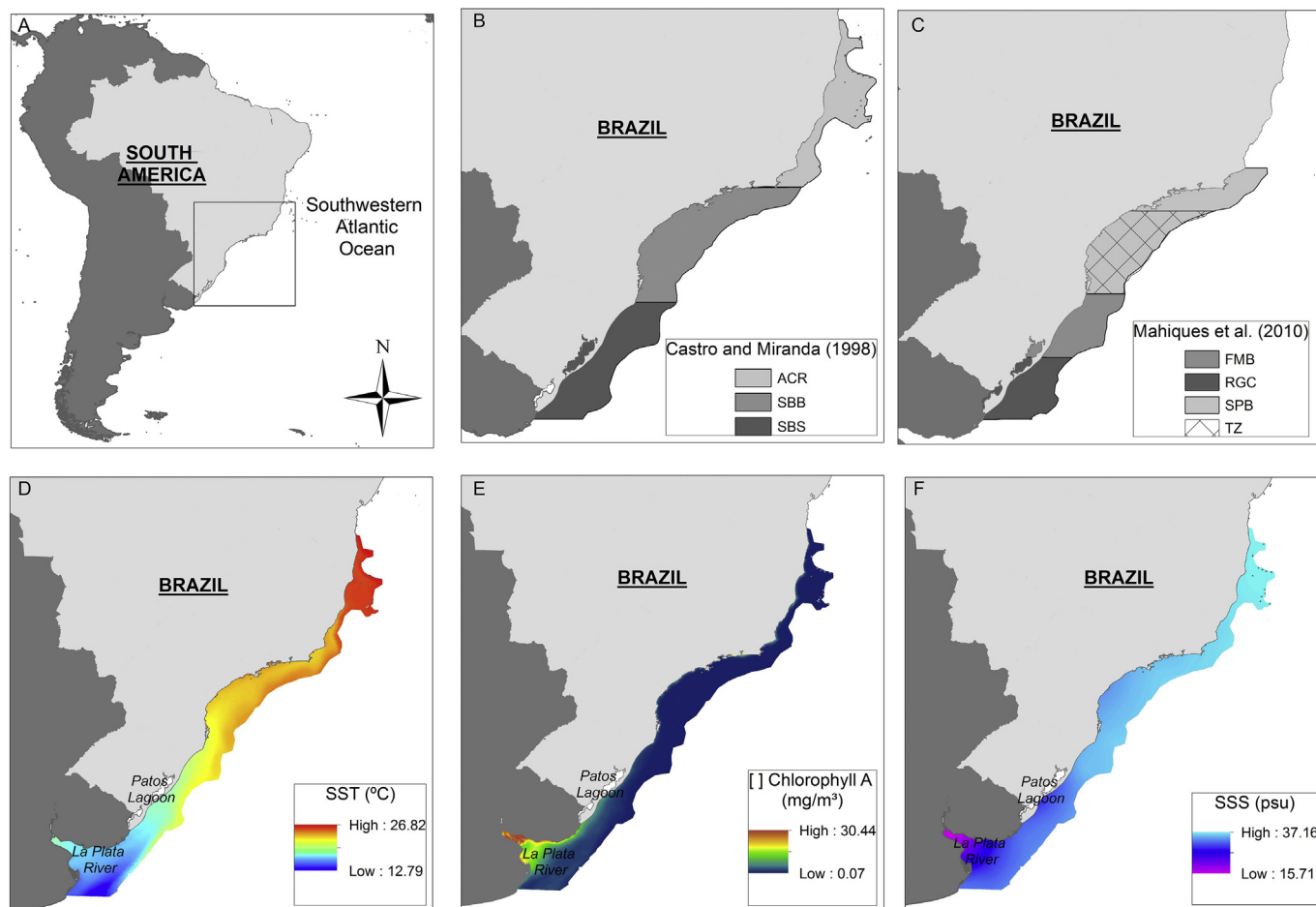


Fig. 1. A) Study area of franciscana dolphin distribution. Brazilian continental shelf zones proposed by B) Castro and Miranda (1998) and C) Mahiques et al. (2010). Representation of annual means of D) Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature (SST), E) Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A, and F) Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity (SSS). Abbreviations: ACR, Abrolhos – Campos Region; SBB, South Brazilian Bight; SBS, Southern Brazilian Shelf; SPB, São Paulo Bight; FMB, Florianópolis – Mostardas Bight; RGC, Rio Grande Cone; TZ, Transitional Zone.

stock discreteness, Secchi et al. (2003a) divided the franciscana's range into four Franciscana Management Areas (FMAs) (please see Fig. 1 of the referred article). FMA I and FMA II are located exclusively in southeastern and southern Brazil, FMA III includes southern Brazil and Uruguay, and FMA IV encompasses the range of the species in Argentina. These management divisions are supported by recent data on pollutant loads, diet, external morphology and parasites (e.g. Alonso et al., 2012; Barbato et al., 2012; Costa-Urrutia et al., 2012; de la Torre et al., 2012; Hoss et al., 2017). New studies have suggested the need of reformulation of the former FMA's subdivisions (e.g. Gariboldi et al., 2015, 2016; Mendez et al., 2010), including the separation of FMA I in two distinct management units (FMA Ia and FMA Ib) separated by the northern distributional gap (Anonymous, 2015; Cunha et al., 2014).

The increased effort from properly designed aerial surveys to estimate franciscana's abundance (e.g. Danilewicz et al., 2010, 2012; Zerbinini et al., 2011) and long-term projects evaluating franciscana bycatch (see Material and Methods) have provided many georeferenced at-sea records for the species. These data have been useful to characterise the distributional ecology of franciscanas' populations in a comprehensive manner and can be used to perform ecological niche modeling in order to investigate factors that influence their distribution.

Correlative species distribution models are based on algorithms that estimate ecological niches and explore potential distributional areas by assessing relationships between species occurrences and environmental information (Qiao et al., 2016). Niche modeling approaches dramatically expanded in recent years and currently several techniques and toolkits are available (Phillips et al., 2006; Qiao et al., 2016). In addition, these techniques have been widely used in studies on the distribution of cetaceans (e.g. do Amaral et al., 2015; Palacios et al., 2013; Rossi-Santos and Oliveira, 2016), including estimates of the potential franciscana distribution (Gomez and Cassini, 2015).

Given the high risk faced by the franciscana, especially the extremely high risk of extinction observed regionally in Brazil (Rocha-Campo et al., 2010), and the importance of distributional ecology to either the process of risk assessment and conservation planning, the aim of this study is (1) to update information on the franciscana distribution in Brazil, including a review of FMAs I, II and III as well as the distributional gaps between them, and (2) to investigate the factors that potentially explain the existence of gaps in the range of the franciscana.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

The study area includes the Brazilian continental shelf from 18°S to 34°S, including only those waters up to the 50 m isobath (Fig. 1A). The area is characterized by different physical oceanographic processes. Castro and Miranda (1998) therefore proposed a segmentation of the Brazilian continental shelf into six zones, of which three zones are encompassed by the study area: Abrolhos – Campos Region (15°S – 23°S), South Brazilian Bight (23°S – 28°30'S) and Southern Brazilian Shelf (28°30'S – 34°S) (Fig. 1B). These areas are characterized by different features in relation to topography, productivity, sea surface temperatures and salinity due to upwelling, land runoff from several estuaries and convergence of currents (Fig. 1D–F). Conversely to Castro and Miranda (1998), who proposed a division of the Brazilian continental shelf for practical reasons, Mahiques et al. (2010) suggest a division in terms of geology, bathymetry, declivities and the presence of canyons and channels (Fig. 1C).

2.2. Franciscana dataset

Franciscana records used in the present analyses corresponded to observations of live animals in situ through dedicated aerial and boat surveys or to specimen entangled in coastal gillnets fisheries in Brazil

(for which precise location data were available). Only data from the marine environment were considered, therefore franciscana records previously observed in estuarine areas such as Babitonga Bay (Cremer and Simões-Lopes, 2005, 2008) and Paranaguá Bay (Santos et al., 2009) in southern Brazil were not included. Only sightings data from dedicated surveys and georeferenced data from bycatch were used in the present analysis in order to estimate franciscana's fundamental ecological niche. Sampling effort and potential biases associated with non-uniform sampling effort, especially those related to fishery monitoring, have not been considered in this study.

Data from aerial surveys were obtained through dedicated line transect studies designed to assess franciscana distribution and to estimate abundance (details in Danilewicz et al., 2010, 2012; Zerbinini et al., 2011). Bycatch data were obtained directly by some of the authors via onboard surveys or logbook information provided by reliable and well known captains of fishing vessels operating along the Brazilian coast from 1992 to 2004 (Danilewicz, 2007; Danilewicz et al., 2009; Ott, 1998; Secchi et al., 1997, 2004). Additional records were obtained from peer-reviewed literature (Di Benedetto, 2003; Di Benedetto et al., 2001; Flores, 2009; Moreno et al., 2003; Santos and Netto, 2005; Santos et al., 2002, 2009; Siciliano et al., 2002).

2.3. Environmental dataset

Ten environmental variables that are considered to influence cetaceans distributions (e.g. Baumgartner et al., 2001; Palacios et al., 2013; Redfern et al., 2006) and specifically franciscanas (Gomez and Cassini, 2015; Siciliano et al., 2002) were initially selected to describe the characteristics of the franciscana's habitats and distributional gaps (Table 1).

Environmental information was obtained from Bio-Oracle (Tyberghein et al., 2012) and MARSPEC (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013). These public databases provide a set of user-friendly and high-resolution GIS data layers of the ocean and were designed for species distribution modeling applications (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013; Tyberghein et al., 2012). The layers consist of global coverage satellite-based and in situ measured data interpolated and assembled at an annual temporal resolution and at different spatial resolutions (1 km and 9 km from MARSPEC and Bio-Oracle datasets, respectively). Geophysical layers were derived from the SRTM30_PLUS high resolution bathymetry dataset (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013), and bioclimatic layers were derived from a long term dataset from NOAA's World Ocean Atlas and NASA's MODIS satellite imagery (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013; Tyberghein et al., 2012; for more details about environmental dataset access: <http://www.marspec.org/> and <http://www.oracle.ugent.be/>). All environmental layers were processed in ArcGIS 10.2.2 (ESRI, 2013) in datum WGS 84, using the same spatial extent (18°S

Table 1

List of environmental variables analyzed in this study and its respective source, resolution and unit.

Environmental variables	Source	Unit	Original resolution
Bathymetry (Depth of the seafloor)	MARSPEC	Meters	1 km
Distance to shore	MARSPEC	Kilometres	1 km
Bathymetric Slope	MARSPEC	Degrees	1 km
Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A	Bio-Oracle	mg/m ³	9 km
Annual Range in Concentration of Chlorophyll A	Bio-Oracle	mg/m ³	9 km
Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation	Bio-Oracle	m ⁻¹	9 km
Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity	MARSPEC	Psu	1 km
Annual Range in Sea Surface Salinity	MARSPEC	Psu	1 km
Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature	MARSPEC	degrees °C	1 km
Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature	MARSPEC	degrees °C	1 km

to 34°S) at a 9 km resolution.

In order to assess the shelf habitat available for franciscanas in the study area, distance to shore data was obtained from distance to shore layer, in which we extracted its values at 0.5° latitudinal intervals along the 25 m and 50 m isobaths.

2.4. Environmental analyses

Non-independence of predictor variables is a well-known problem in ecology (e.g. Dormann et al., 2013), and it is recommended a preliminary selection of layers in order to avoid redundant data layers in ecological niche analysis (e.g. Qiao et al., 2016). Therefore, correlation of environmental layers was assessed, and factorial analyses were used to select variables with low multicollinearity. Collinearity analyses were conducted in R Statistical Software version 3.2.4 (R Development Core Team, 2016) using the corplot package (Wei and Simko, 2016) on all variables presented in Table 1, with the exception of distance to shore.

Non-parametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn tests) were conducted to provide a preliminary assessment of potential differences between occupied and unoccupied areas with respect to environmental variables selected by the factorial analysis. In order to comply with the assumptions of independence and randomization of sampling required by nonparametric tests, sample points randomly distributed throughout the study areas were used. In a first step, polygons were designed representing areas adjacent to the gaps (i.e. FMA Ia, FMA Ib and FMA II) and areas not occupied by franciscana (i.e. gaps). The polygons were constrained longitudinally by the 50 m isobath, and latitudinally by the limits for the new FMAs proposed here (see Results section). In a second step, a number of random points within each polygon were generated

taking into account the proportions of areas (100 points were created within the polygon with the smallest area and so forth). Data were then grouped as “Area occupied by Franciscana (AOF)”, Gap I, and Gap II. AOF corresponded to the region between Itaúnas in Espírito Santo, and the center of Ilha de Santa Catarina in the state of Santa Catarina, without a discrimination of FMAs and the exclusion of distributional gaps. Finally, significant differences were tested among the medians of the variables identified by the factorial analysis using a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the Dunn test. All statistical tests were performed in software R Statistical Software version 3.2.4 (R Development Core Team, 2016) using the nortest (Gross and Ligges, 2015) and the dunn (Dinno, 2017) packages. A significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ was adopted and the p -value for multiple comparisons was adjusted using the Bonferroni method.

2.5. Ecological niche analysis

NicheA 3.0 (Qiao et al., 2016) was used to investigate if the distributional gaps are consistent with franciscana's fundamental ecological niche. NicheA software generates ecological niche models following the Hutchinsonian approach of an n -multidimensional space, and projects these models in geographic space in the form of continuous species suitability models (for details, see Qiao et al., 2016). NicheA assumes that a species' fundamental ecological is convex in shape, and thus can be operationalized as minimum-volume ellipsoids (MVE) (Qiao et al., 2016). Similar to others modeling approaches (e.g. Maxent – Phillips et al., 2006), MVE could be influenced by sampling biases; however, MVE is only influenced by bias in the periphery of the cloud points. If there are sampling biases that affect the concentrations of points in the interior of the cloud, those will have no effect (A. Townsend Peterson 2017, personal

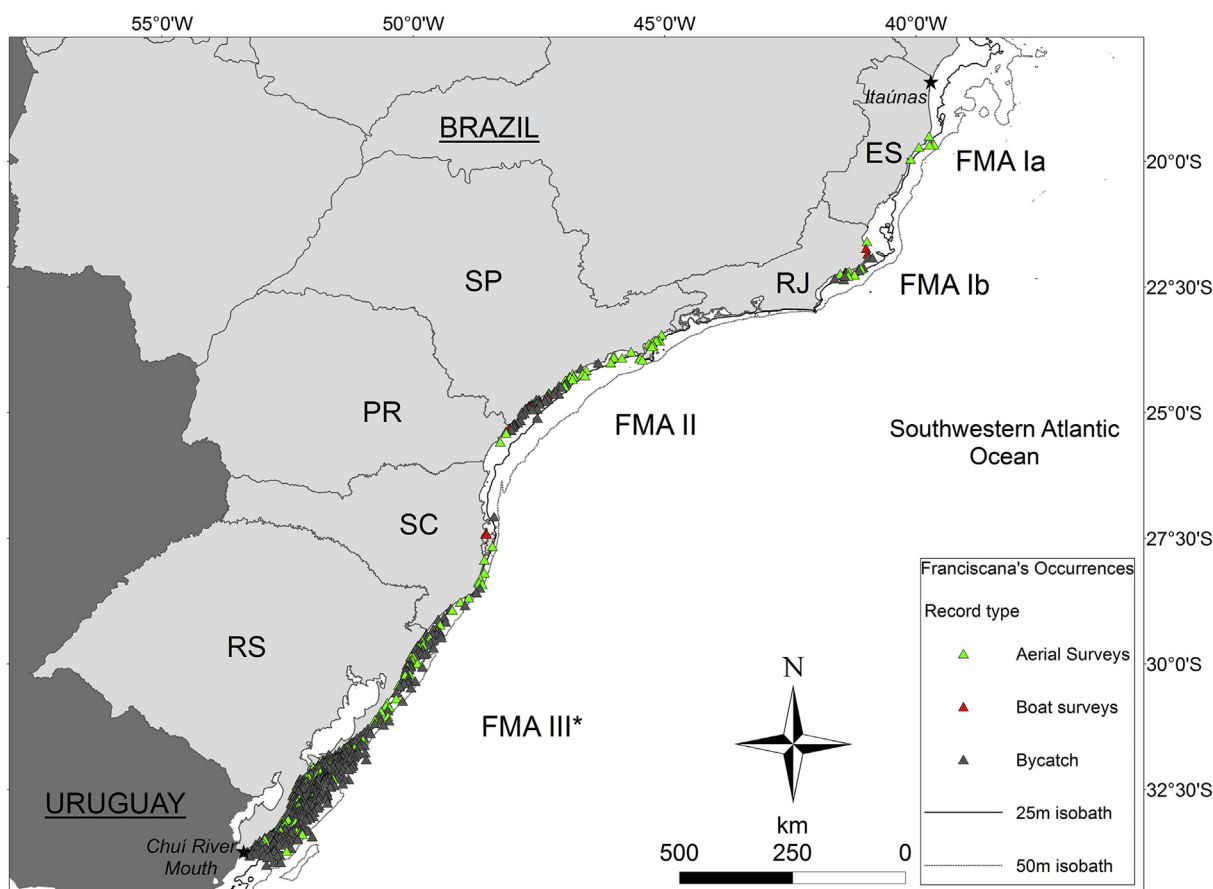


Fig. 2. Compiled records of franciscana dolphin along Brazilian coastal waters from Itaúnas (ES) to Chuí River Mouth (RS). Abbreviations: ES, Espírito Santo; RJ, Rio de Janeiro; SP, São Paulo; PR, Paraná; SC, Santa Catarina; RS, Rio Grande do Sul.

communication). This means that MVE is not influenced by the density of the points (Huiji Qiao 2017, personal communication). Considering the biased nature of the franciscana data set (e.g. uncorrected for effort), NicheA was deemed the most suitable tool to investigate the characteristics of the franciscana's distribution. In order to better represent the franciscana's fundamental niche, all types of records (bycatch, aerial and boats surveys) were pooled.

Finally, MVEs, representing the franciscanas' fundamental ecological niche, were projected to a habitat suitability map. For the MVE, continuous values of suitability were assessed as the Euclidean distance to the niche centroid (Qiao et al., 2016). The most suitable areas are those closest to the niche centroid (with values close to 1), while the most unsuitable are those areas further away from the niche centroid (with values close to 0); areas totally outside of species niche were set to -1 suitability.

3. Results

3.1. Franciscana distribution update

In total, 788 records of franciscanas in Brazil were compiled from Itaúnas (18°25'S) in Espírito Santo to Chuí River Mouth (33°44'S) in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, located on the Brazil-Uruguay border (Fig. 2). Most of the data were collected between 1992 and 2014. Bycatch data represented 78% of these records, sightings from aerial surveys represented 20.9% and sightings from boat surveys accounted for only 1.1% of the overall data (records for each FMA are summarized in Table 2).

Based on the records compiled, a reassessment of the limits of the FMAs and the distributional gaps were proposed (Table 2, Fig. 3). The distributional gaps were defined as following: Gap I is located from Santa Cruz (19°57'S) to Barra de Itabapoana (21°18'S) in Espírito Santo; Gap II is located from Armação dos Búzios (22°44'S) to Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S) in Rio de Janeiro.

3.2. Environmental layers analyses

From nine layers initially considered to have some influence in the franciscana's distribution, four pairs of environmental layers exhibited correlation coefficient higher than 0.7 (Fig. 4). Therefore, the following environmental layers were selected based on the highest value of each factor of factorial analyses (Table 3): Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity, and Bathymetry.

Polygons representing areas adjacent to the gaps (i.e. FMA Ia, FMA Ib and FMA II) and areas not occupied by franciscana (i.e. gaps) are presented in Fig. 5. Considering the proportions of areas, the number of random points created for each polygon is presented in Table 4.

Differences between AOF and Gap I were statistically significant for Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6A), and Annual

Range in Sea Surface Temperature (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6B). Differences between AOF and Gap II were statistically significant for Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6B) and Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6C). Gap I and Gap II were statistically differentiated in relation to Mean Annual of Sea Surface Salinity (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6A), Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6B) and Mean Annual of Diffuse Attenuation (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 6C). Bathymetry was not statistically different among the areas analyzed (Table 5, Fig. 6D). In general, Gap I had the highest median of Mean Annual of Sea Surface Salinity; Gap II had the highest median of Mean Annual of Diffuse Attenuation; and, AOF had the highest median of Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature.

3.3. Ecological niche analysis

The franciscana's Minimum-Volume Ellipsoid (MVE, representing the franciscana's fundamental ecological niche) was estimated using 788 occurrence records in a three-dimensional environmental space represented by Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity, and Bathymetry in NicheA.

The franciscana's distribution model (i.e. the MVE projected in geographic space) revealed that the waters in the continental shelf up to 25 m were closest to niche centroid (values close to 1), therefore these areas corresponded to the most suitable habitat for franciscanas (Fig. 7). On the other hand, water depths between 25 m and 50 m isobaths exhibited a progressive decrease of environmental suitability and were more distant from franciscana niche centroids (values close to 0). Gap I and Gap II exhibited values of distance to niche centroid lower than 0.75.

3.4. Shelf habitat availability

The 25 m isobath was very close to the shore in the areas corresponding to distributional gaps (i.e. very little area with shallow waters), while the areas suitable for franciscanas were characterized by shallow waters (up to the 50 m isobath) up to quite some distance from the coast. In the Gap I, 25 m isobaths were identified between 5 km and 30 km of coastal line. In the Gap II, the 25 m isobaths were at < 10 km from shore, as close as just 1 km from the coast line at 23°S (close to Arraial do Cabo in Rio de Janeiro; see Fig. 8).

The location of the 50 m isobath was similar to those of 25 m, being closest to shore in the areas corresponding to the gaps. In the Gap I, 50 m isobaths was > 30 km far from coast line. In the Gap II, 50 m isobaths was positioned closest to shore, being < 1 km far from shore at 23°S (Fig. 8). In addition to the distributional gaps, a marked narrowing of continental shelf is also observed around the Ilha de Santa Catarina (27°35'S) (Fig. 8).

Table 2

Summary of franciscanas' records by areas and data source and gaps limits. FMAs were established according to Cunha et al. (2014) and limits were updated.

Records summary information					
Areas	New limits	Aerial Surveys	Boat Surveys	Bycatch	Total
FMA Ia	Itaúnas, ES (18°25'S) to Santa Cruz, ES (19°57'S)	6	0	0	6
Gap I (north)	Piraquê-Açu River Mouth, Santa Cruz, ES (19°57'S) to Barra de Itabapoana, ES (21°18'S)				
FMA Ib	Barra de Itabapoana, RJ (21°18'S) to Armação dos Búzios, RJ (22°44'S)	13	2	11	26
Gap II (south)	Armação dos Búzios, RJ (22°44'S) to Piraquara de Dentro, RJ (22°59'S)				
FMA II	Piraquara de Dentro, RJ (22°59'S) to Ilha de Santa Catarina, SC (27°35'S)	41	7	60	108
FMA III ^a	Ilha de Santa Catarina, SC (27°35'S) to Chuí River Mouth, RS (33°44'S)	105	0	543	648
TOTAL		165	9	614	788
Percentage (%)		20.9%	1.1%	78.0%	100.0%

Abbreviations: ES, Espírito Santo; RJ, Rio de Janeiro; SC, Santa Catarina; RS, Rio Grande do Sul.

^a FMA III is partially represented, because it extends into Uruguay.

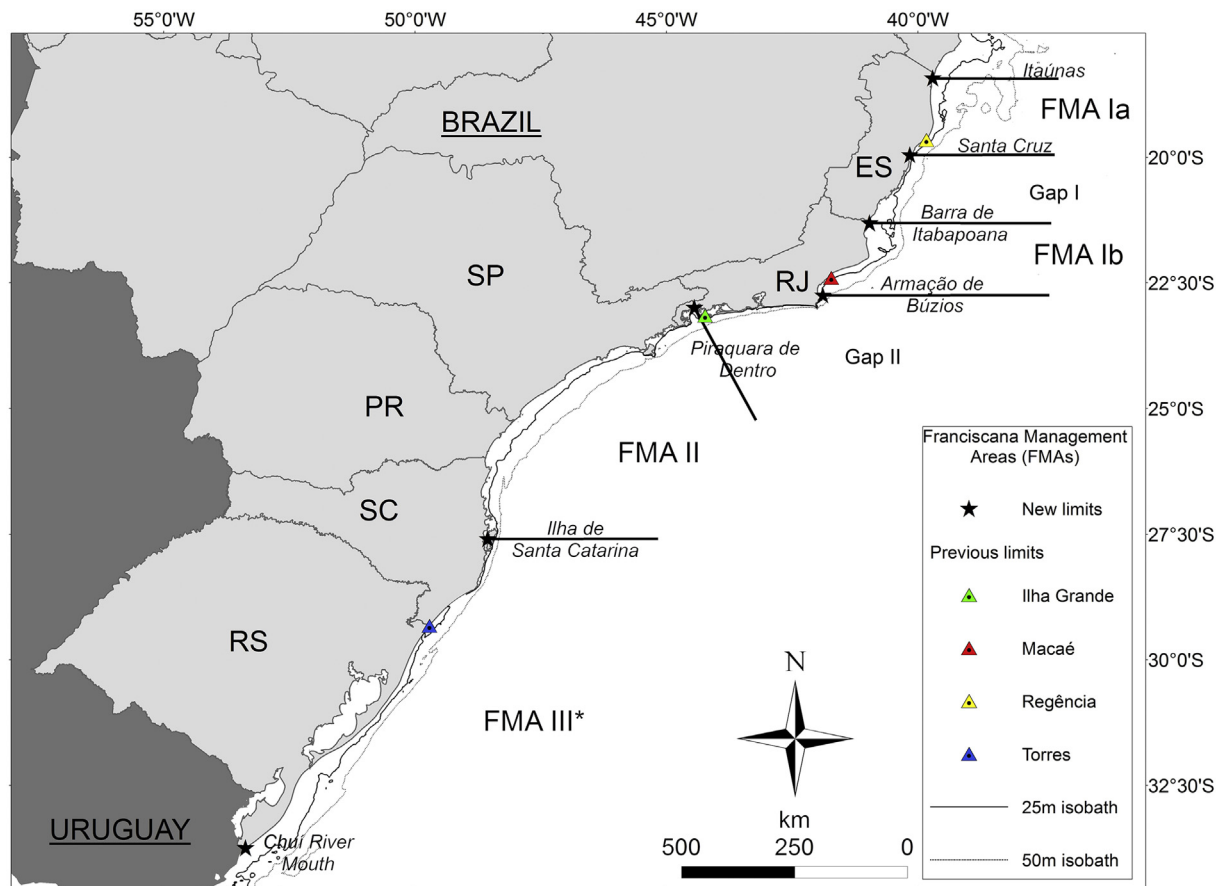


Fig. 3. New geographic ranges of the Franciscanas Management Areas (FMAs) and distributional gaps. Localities already considered limits are indicated in the map by triangles symbols. Abbreviations: ES, Espírito Santo; RJ, Rio de Janeiro; SP, São Paulo; PR, Paraná; SC, Santa Catarina; RS, Rio Grande do Sul. *FMAIII is partially represented because this management area extends further to the south to include the coast of Uruguay.

4. Discussion

The comprehensive review of the franciscana's occurrences along Brazilian coastal waters support the boundaries of FMAs as well as distributional gaps proposed by franciscanas' experts recently (see Anonymous, 2015; Ott et al., 2015). In relation to previous studies (for instance Secchi et al., 2003a; Siciliano et al., 2002), FMA Ia was extended further south from Regência (19°40'S) to Santa Cruz (19°57'S) in Espírito Santo; the southern limit of FMA Ib was relocated southward from Macaé (22°25'S) to Armação de Búzios (22°44'S) in Rio de Janeiro, due to the stranding of a live animal in the locality of Manguinhos, Armação de Búzios, reported by Siciliano et al. (2015). The northern limit of FMA II was established as Piraquara de Dentro (22°59'S) in Rio de Janeiro, while the southern limit was dislocated further northward from Torres (29°20'S) to the center of Ilha de Santa Catarina (27°35'S) in Santa Catarina, based on previous genetic studies (Cunha et al., 2014; Ott, 2002) (see Fig. 3). These changes on FMAs have impact direct on the extension of distributional gaps, which by its turn were reduced in relation to previous studies (Azevedo et al., 2002; Danilewicz et al., 2012; de Moura et al., 2009; Secchi et al., 2003a; Siciliano et al., 2002).

In general, the habitat suitability model presented here confirmed the well-known distribution of franciscanas (Danilewicz et al., 2009), indicating high environmental suitability for the species mainly up to the 25 m isobath (Fig. 7). However, this highly suitable environment could extend up to 50 m in the southernmost portion of franciscanas' distribution in Brazil as already indicated by Danilewicz et al. (2009). The ecological niche analyses also showed that both distributional gaps seem suitable for franciscanas at some level and they are inside of the

fundamental niche of species.

The resulting map of environmental suitability generated here is consistent with that proposed by Gomez and Cassini (2015), where habitat suitability map indicated high suitability for franciscanas in waters up to approximately 30 m depth from Brazil to Argentina (Gomez and Cassini, 2015). Even though Gomez and Cassini (2015) did not include bathymetry as a predictor, their resulting map agreed with the IUCN map. On the other hand, the franciscana's IUCN map was proposed by experts based on the 30 m isobath to establish the eastern border of franciscanas' distribution. In contrast to Gomez and Cassini (2015), the habitat suitability model proposed here indicated some level of suitability for franciscana in the gaps.

Bathymetry and distance to shore are considered important predictors of franciscanas' distribution (e.g. Danilewicz et al., 2009; Secchi and Ott, 1999), since individuals are rarely recorded beyond 50 m isobaths (Danilewicz et al., 2009). However, the present analysis did not indicate that bathymetry differs statistically among the area occupied by franciscanas and the gaps (Fig. 6D). On the other hand, the analysis of shelf habitat availability indeed revealed that the continental platform is extremely narrow in the gaps, reaching just 1 km of distance from shore at 23°S, for instance (Fig. 8). It was already suggested the narrowing of the continental shelf in the distributional gaps would limit habitat availability for franciscanas (Di Benedetto et al., 2001; Netto and Siciliano, 2007; Siciliano et al., 2002).

A similar example has been demonstrated in the western South Atlantic with the Atlantic spotted dolphin *Stenella frontalis* (G. Cuvier 1829). A gap in the distribution of this dolphin species exists where the Brazilian continental shelf narrows substantially between Abrolhos Bank (~18°S) and 6°S (Danilewicz et al., 2013; Moreno et al., 2005).

slope	0.21	0.26	-0.15	-0.23	-0.23	-0.21	-0.21	-0.21
sss_mean	0.85	-0.16	-0.36	-0.23	-0.22	-0.19	-0.13	
sss_range		0.06	-0.55	-0.51	-0.44	-0.24	-0.17	
sst_mean			bat	-0.1	-0.11	-0.08	0.33	0.22
sst_range				sss_range	0.77	0.51	0.25	0.22
cl_range					0.6	0.4	0.33	
cl_mean						0.7	0.67	
da_mean							0.94	

Fig. 4. Correlation matrix of nine environmental variables evaluated in the study. Abbreviations: bat, Bathymetry; slope, Bathymetric Slope; da_mean, Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation; cl_mean, Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A; cl_rg, Annual Range in Concentration of Chlorophyll A; sss_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity; sss_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Salinity; sst_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature; sst_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature.

Ecological niche modeling revealed lack of optimal environmental conditions for the species in the region of the coast where the continental shelf narrows (see do Amaral et al., 2015). In relation to franciscanas' distribution it is also interesting to note that a narrowing of continental shelf also exists around Ilha de Santa Catarina (27°35'S), where the limits between the FMA II and FMA III has been proposed (Ott, 2002; Cunha et al., 2014).

Analysis performed here showed that Gap II is located in a very restrict band of continental shelf, where the coastline orientation changes abruptly from NE-SW to E-W (Castro and Miranda, 1998). The continental shelf is almost nonexistent in the Gap II resulting in a drastic reduction of the shelf habitat even if other conditions such as temperature, salinity and productivity could support the existence of

Table 3
Factorial analysis of nine environmental variables used in this study.

	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5
bat	0.135			0.771	
slope	-0.143	-0.226	0.155		0.126
cl_mean	0.929	0.190		0.289	
cl_range	0.695	0.440	-0.169	-0.190	0.163
da_mean	0.959	0.122		0.128	-0.208
sss_mean		-0.121	0.976	-0.147	
sss_range	0.118	0.791	-0.271		
sst_mean	-0.123	-0.404	0.837	0.102	
sst_range	0.256	0.884	-0.129		
SS loadings	2.402	1.887	1.805	0.786	0.104
Proportion Var	0.267	0.210	0.201	0.087	0.012
Cumulative Var	0.267	0.477	0.677	0.765	0.776

Abbreviations: bat, Bathymetry; dist, Distance to Shore; slope, Bathymetric Slope; da_mean, Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation; cl_mean, Mean Annual Concentration of Chlorophyll A; cl_range, Annual Mean in Concentration of Chlorophyll A; sss_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity; sss_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Salinity; sst_mean, Mean Annual Sea Surface Temperature; sst_range, Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature.

species. In relation to Gap I, for example, the narrow shelf associated with higher levels of salinity could play a role to explain the absence of franciscanas in this area.

As suitability was projected in the distributional gaps, the absence of franciscana could be attributed to the reduction in the shelf habitat due to the narrowing of continental shelf. This environmental change could in turn intensify the biotic interactions such as competition by food and predation with other marine species. Guiana dolphin *Sotalia guianensis* (Van Bénédén, 1864) is a species with similar habitats (Da Silva et al., 2010) and could compete with franciscana by food and/or space. Furthermore, it was already observed a significant overlap in the diet of franciscana and largehead hairtail *Trichiurus lepturus* Linnaeus, 1758 (see Bittar and Di Benedetto, 2009; Di Benedetto et al., 2013). Also, the reduction of shelf habitat could enhance the vulnerability to predation by other cetaceans such as killer whale *Orcinus orca* (Linnaeus, 1758) (e.g. Ott and Danilewicz, 1998; Santos and Netto, 2005). Besides the likely strengthening of these biotic interactions, intrinsic factors, as minimal viable population size, also can play an important role in this very reduced range of habitat. In fact, a synergistic effect of biotic and abiotic factors can be determinant for the absence of franciscanas in the distributional gaps.

As top predators, cetacean distribution is limited by different factors (for example, productivity, temperature and salinity) that constraint both its prey and predator's distributions (e.g. Baumgartner et al., 2001; Palacios et al., 2013; Redfern et al., 2006). Temperature is a well-recognised factor delimiting species distribution (e.g. Jeffree and Jeffree, 1994) and salinity is also a well-known factor that have influence on cetacean distribution due to importance of physiological mechanisms to maintain the water and salt balance in cetaceans (e.g. Xu et al., 2013). Therefore, both salinity and temperature seem to impose physiological constraints for franciscanas, including stress triggered by high salt levels (e.g. São Pedro et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2013) and offspring resistance to cold environment (e.g. Danilewicz, 2003).

The presence of franciscana in FMA Ia appears to be associated with the plume of Doce River that probably maintains the levels of salinity more favorable to franciscanas or its prey species (Netto and Siciliano, 2007; Siciliano et al., 2002). Therefore, higher levels of salinity in Gap I could be a potential explanation for the absence of franciscanas in this area, once this gap has the highest median of Sea Surface Salinity. Since the franciscana seems to be associated with areas with great salinity ranges such as estuaries or river mouths (Cremer and Simões-Lopes, 2005; Santos et al., 2009; Siciliano et al., 2002), a higher constant salinity could impose some physiological constraint to the franciscana and/or to its prey species. Although franciscana has a fairly opportunist behavior in terms of prey abundance and occurrence (Basso, 2005) and shifts in prey composition overtime were already detected in southern Brazil (Secchi et al., 2003b), sciaenid fishes and long-finned squid *Doryteuthis sanpaulensis* (Brakonieccki, 1984) are very representative in the diet of the franciscana along its geographic range (Basso, 2005; Danilewicz et al., 2002). Sciaenid species are mainly present in tropical to warm and temperate environments over sandy and muddy bottoms in brackish, estuarine and low-salinity coastal regions (Martins and Haimovici, 2016).

Gomez and Cassini (2015) also suggested based on their ecological niche analysis that temperature and salinity could be considered the environmental predictors of franciscana along its entire range as well as the potential distribution of the stripped weakfish *Cynoscion guatucupa* (Cuvier, 1830). They also highlighted the physiological constraints imposed by Sea Surface Temperature and Salinity, and they did not find any support for previous statements that turbidity could be an important ocean determinant of franciscana distribution.

Diffuse attenuation is an indicator of the water turbidity and it is directly related to the presence of scattering particles in the water column. The analysis performed here indicated that the Gap II has the highest median of Diffuse Attenuation. This finding is a little bit controversial in relation to previous studies that suggested a preference for

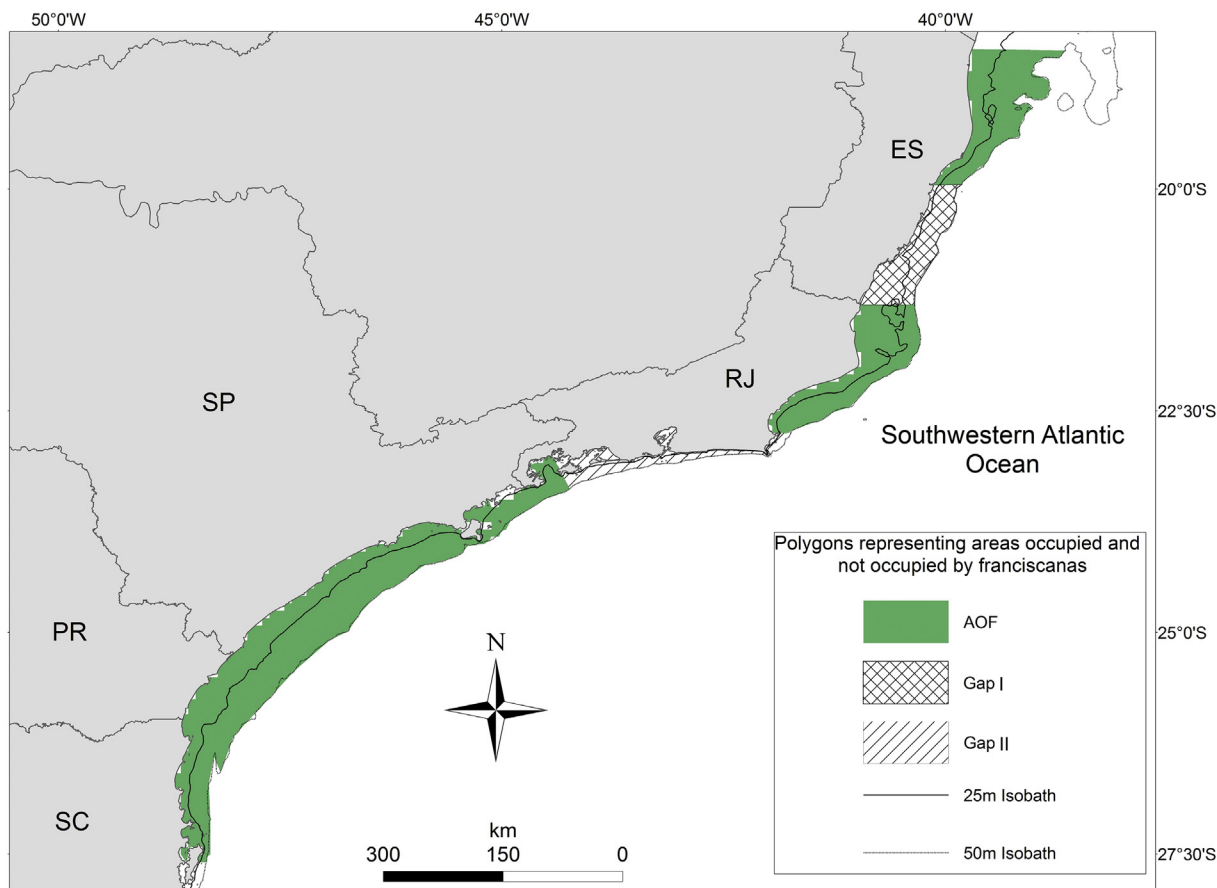


Fig. 5. Map of polygons used to create random points in order to represent the area occupied by franciscana and those not occupied. Abbreviation: AOF, Area occupied by Franciscana.

Table 4
Information used to investigate the environmental distinctiveness of areas occupied and not occupied by franciscanas. Abbreviation: AOF, Area Occupied by Franciscana.

Areas	Proportion in relation to the smallest polygon (i.e., Gap II)	Number of random points generated
AOF		
Area Ia	2.44	244
Area Ib	2.34	234
Area II	7.72	772
Gap I	1.48	148
Gap II	1	100

Table 5
Medians comparisons through Kruskal-Wallis.

Environmental layer	Kruskal-Wallis Test	
Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity	$\chi^2 = 106.45$	<i>p</i> -value < .05
Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature	$\chi^2 = 164.01$	<i>p</i> -value < .05
Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation	$\chi^2 = 19.799$	<i>p</i> -value < .05
Bathymetry	$\chi^2 = 4.0115$	<i>p</i> -value = .13

Statistically significant values are in bold.

turbid waters by franciscanas (Siciliano et al., 2002). The reader should be aware that these results are influenced by the Guanabara Bay, Rio de Janeiro, and its discharge, which in turn could be increasing the values of Diffuse Attenuation, not reflecting a condition along the entire Gap II.

Finally, it is important to highlight that distributional gaps have an immediate impact on the population structure of franciscanas mainly in

Table 6
Areas medians comparisons through Dunn tests for each environmental layer, which Kruskal -Wallis test was significant.

Dunn test	Areas		
	AOF	Gap I	
Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity	- 10.229 (0.00001)	-	Gap I
Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature	0.433967 (0.9965)	7.218 (0.00001)	Gap II
Mean Annual Diffuse Attenuation	12.13 (0.00001)	-	Gap I
	5.165059 (0.00001)	- 3.999 (0.0001)	Gap II
	- 0.664 (0.7597)	-	Gap I
	- 4.441 (0.00001)	- 3.119 (0.0027)	Gap II

Abbreviation: AOF, Area Occupied by Franciscana. P-value is indicated among parenthesis and statistically significant values are in bold.

relation to franciscanas from FMA I. Genetic evidences based on mtDNA suggests that franciscanas are divided in two evolutionary lineages, franciscanas from FMA I (i.e. those northward Gap II) being a distinct lineage in comparison to all remaining franciscanas (Cunha et al., 2014). Furthermore, FMA I is further sub-structured into FMA Ia and FMA Ib (Cunha et al., 2014). From these findings it is possible to assume that both northern and southern distributional gaps have been acting as a barrier long enough to have an impact on the population structure in the areas adjacent to the gaps. Considering the importance of shelf habitat for franciscanas, it seems to be reasonable to suppose that historical factors such as sea level oscillations and, consequently, fragmentation of coastal platform during glacial and interglacial cycles,

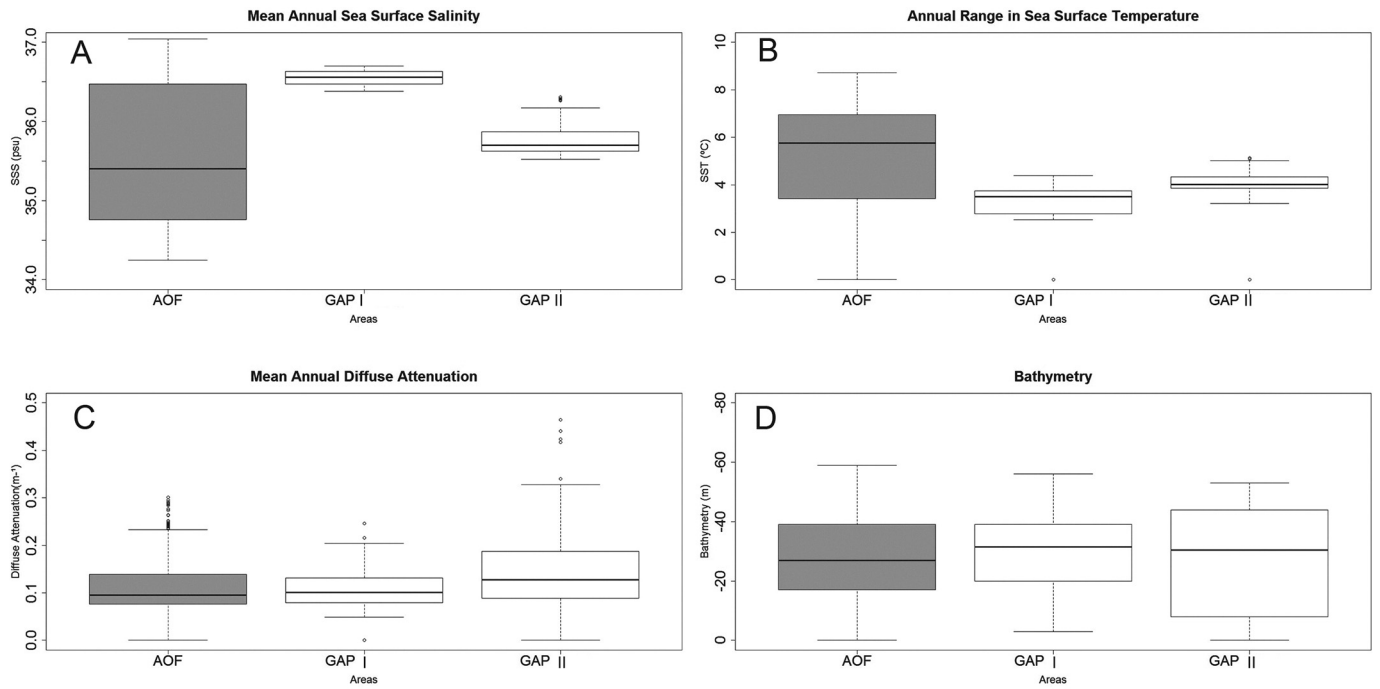


Fig. 6. Boxplot of environmental values extracted from random points grouped according area occupied by franciscana (AOF) and those not occupied. Boxplot represents median, 25th and 75th percentiles, and 5th and 95th are represented by the errors bars. In A) Mean Annual Sea Surface Salinity; B) Annual Range in Sea Surface Temperature; C) Mean Annual of Diffuse Attenuation; and D) Bathymetry.

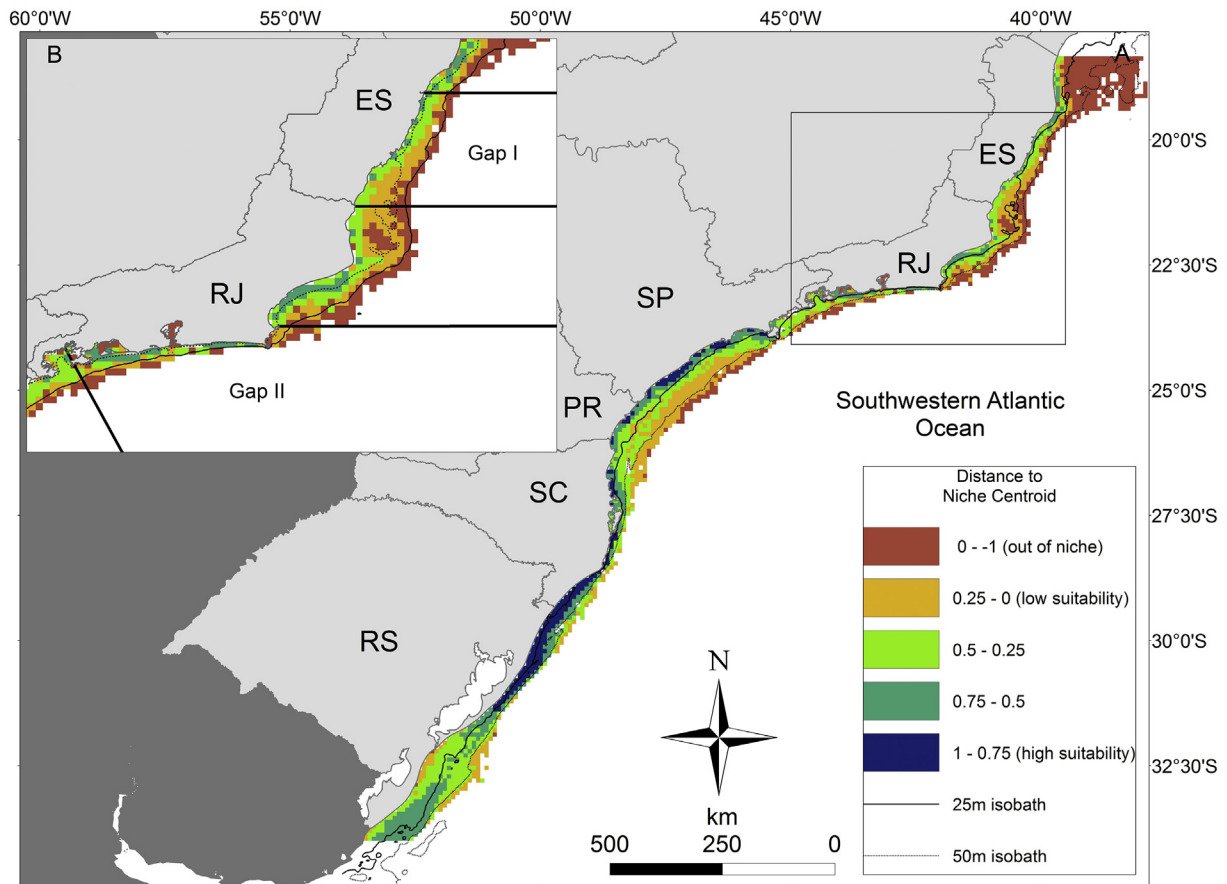


Fig. 7. A) Habitat suitability model with continuous values of the distance to the niche centroid representing the franciscana's fundamental niche. B) A map zoom is provided to visualize the environmental suitability of northern and southern distributional gaps. Values between 0 and 1 represent the relative distance between the points and the centre of the ellipsoid; - 1 represent areas out of the ellipsoid or unsuitable; 0 means areas on the edge of the ellipsoid or with low suitability; and 1 means areas on the center of the ellipsoid or with high environmental suitability (H. Qiao 2017, p.c.).

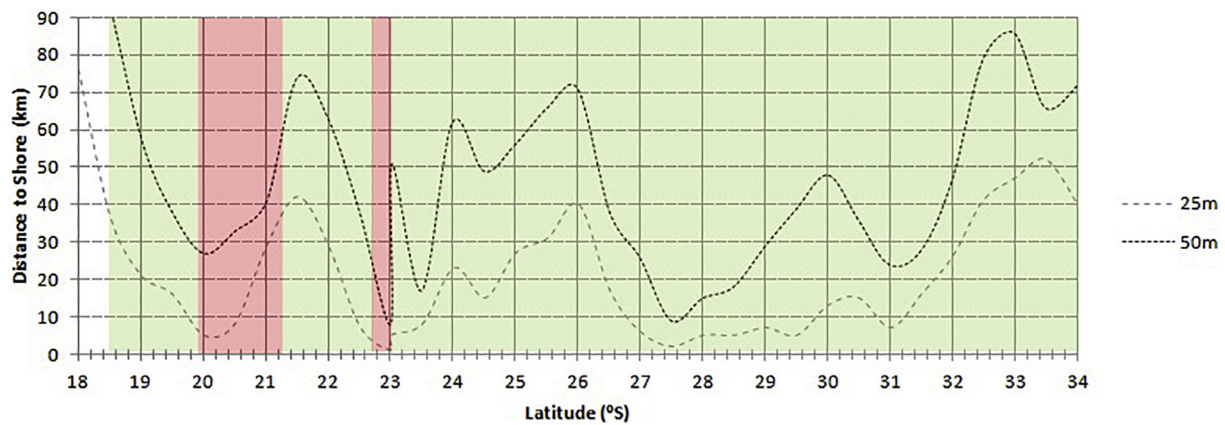


Fig. 8. Distance to shore of the 25 m and 50 m isobaths in relation to latitude. Area occupied by franciscana are represented in green; distributional gaps are represented in red (left, Gap I; right, Gap II). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

play a key role to explain for the absence of franciscana in these areas.

5. Conclusions

The shelf habitat is very important to franciscana. However, a wide shelf does not necessarily result in an increased presence of franciscana if other conditions such as salinity are not suitable. For example, the Brazilian continental shelf is very large at the north portion of the Espírito Santo, in the region of the Abrolhos Bank, however franciscana range seems to be limited longitudinally, possible due to higher and salt levels recorded there.

The new limits of FMAs and the habitat suitability model presented here could be used as a guide to planning studies and actions that aim the conservation of the franciscana in Brazil. Further studies should investigate franciscanas' prey availability in those areas considered distributional gaps as well the possible relevance of other biotic interactions. Finally, changes in the coastal environment and habitat loss caused by human activities, such as industrial port development, should also be considered in conservation plans for the species.

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