Mitogenomic differentiation in spinner (*Stenella longirostris*) and pantropical

spotted dolphins (*S. attenuata*) from the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean

Leslie, Matthew S.,[1,2,3*] Archer, Frederick I., [2,1] Morin, Phillip A.[2,1]

1. Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego, mail-code

0208, 9500 Gilman Dr. La Jolla, CA, 92093 USA

2. Southwest Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, NOAA, 8901

La Jolla Shores Dr., La Jolla, CA 92037, USA

3. Current Affiliation: National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, PO

Box 37012, MRC 121, Washington, DC 20013-7012

*Author for correspondence: lesliem@si.edu

Running Title: Mitogenomic population structure of pelagic dolphins

Keywords: mitochondrial DNA, conservation genetics, pelagic dolphins

22
23

Abstract:

Spinner dolphins (*Stenella longirostris*) and spotted dolphins (*S. attenuata*) show high intraspecific morphological diversity and endemic subspecies in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean (ETP). Previous studies of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) have found low genetic differentiation among most of these groups, possibly due to demographic factors, ongoing gene flow, and/or recent divergence. These species were heavily depleted due to bycatch in the ETP yellowfin tuna fishery. Because population structure is important for accurate management of the recovery of these species, we collected whole mitochondrial genome sequences from 104 spinner and 76 spotted dolphins to test structure hypotheses at multiple hierarchical levels. Our results showed significant differences between subspecies of spotted (F_{ST}: 0.0125; $P = 0.0402$) and spinner dolphins (F_{ST}: 0.0133; $P = 0.034$), but no support for the division of existing offshore stocks of spotted dolphins or Tres Marias spinner dolphins. We compare these results to previous results of genome-wide nuclear SNP data and suggest high haplotype diversity, female dispersal, male philopatry, or relative power of the two datasets explains the differences observed. Our results further support a genetic basis for biologically meaningful management units at the subspecies level, and provide a critical component to mitigating historical and continued fishery interactions.

Introduction:

Determining population genetic structure is important for accurately managing protected wildlife species (Taylor 2005). Because mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) is more abundant in cells and has a higher rate of mutation - thus accruing variability on a time-scale typical of population divergence – it has been the preferred marker for population genetic studies of wildlife (Moritz 1994; Allendorf 2017). Moreover, because of the strictly maternal inheritance of mtDNA, comparing the strength of genetic structure between mtDNA and nuclear DNA (nuDNA) can provide valuable insights into maternal genetic structure and sex-bias dispersal in wildlife populations (Moritz 1994). Mitochondrial DNA data are particularly useful for species with strong matrilineal social structure – such as several toothed whale species (i.e., killer whales, sperm whales, and pilot whales). In cetaceans, whole mtDNA genome (mitogenome) sequencing has provided additional clarity species-level population structure and phylogeographic patterns where single mtDNA markers have not (Archer *et al.* 2013; Morin *et al.* 2010). We expanded upon previous mtDNA datasets and include the whole mitochondrial genome to test for population structure in two species of dolphin.

Fisheries bycatch is arguably the largest threat facing cetaceans today (Read *et al.* 2006). One of the largest fisheries bycatch events in history occurred in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean (ETP) and heavily impact pelagic spinner and spotted dolphins in this area. These two species were abundant (numbering in the low millions) in the ETP (Wade *et al.* 2007), but because both species commonly associate with one-another and with large tuna (see Scott *et al.* 2012 for details), bycatch in the dolphin-set tuna purse-seine fishery starting in the 1960s killed hundreds of thousands annually (Lo and Smith 1986, National Research Council 1992, Wade 1995). Despite protection under the U.S. Marine Mammal Protection Act of 1972 and multi-national protection under the 1999 Agreement on the

International Dolphin Conservation Program (Joseph 1994, Gosliner 1999), ETP spinner

and spotted dolphin population abundances remain low (Wade *et al.* 2007, Gerrodette *et*

al. 2008). Determining how populations are naturally structured in the ETP is critical to

accurately managing the recovery of these populations.

ETP Spinner Dolphins

Globally, there are four subspecies of spinner dolphin (*Stenella longirostris*). The

nominate form, the pantropical spinner (*S. l. longirostris*) inhabit in all tropical waters of

the world outside the ETP. Pantropical spinners are usually associated with islands in the

central and western Pacific, such as the Hawaiʻian Islands. In shallow waters of Southeast

Asia, there is a much smaller dwarf spinner subspecies (*S. l. roseiventris*) (Perrin *et al.*

1989, 1999). The Central American spinner dolphin (*S. l. centroamericana*) and the

eastern spinner dolphin (*Stenella l. orientalis*) are endemic to the ETP (Fig. 1, based on

Perrin 1985). Analyses of external coloration, body size, and the extensive analyses of

cranial morphology lead to the erection of these ETP subspecies (Perrin *et al.* 1991,

Douglas *et al.* 1992). The Central American subspecies is found off the Pacific coasts of

Southern Mexico south through Panama, in relatively near-shore waters. The eastern

spinner dolphin (*S. l. orientalis*), on the other hand, inhabits offshore waters that extend

from Baja California, Mexico, south to Ecuador (Perrin 1990).

For management purposes, the two ETP endemic spinner dolphin subspecies are

considered stocks, plus a third stock - the whitebelly spinner. The "whitebelly" spinner is

proposed to represent a hybrid swarm between the eastern subspecies and the pantropical

subspecies of the central and western Pacific (Perrin *et al.* 1991). Taxonomically, it is

classified as part of the nominate (pantropical) spinner subspecies *S. l. longirostris*.

Significant geographic overlap exists between the eastern subspecies and the whitebelly

form (Perrin *et al.* 1985) (See Fig. 1). Finally, a distinct morphotype of the eastern

spinner dolphin, known as the "Tres Marias" spinner dolphin, has been described from

near the islands of the same name off the coast of Mexico. These were thought to be a

distinct type based on external body morphometrics (Perryman and Westlake 1998).

Some molecular genetics approaches have not found genetic structure corresponding to

the subspecific morphological differences (Dizon *et al.* 1994, Galver 2002). Andrews *et*

al. (2013) estimated high levels of gene flow between subspecies in the ETP using

autosomal and mitochondrial genes and found a shared Y chromosome haplotype in the

eastern and Central American subspecies that was not found in the pantropical or dwarf

subspecies. Interestingly, this locus was found to be polymorphic in whitebellies,

supporting the hypothesis of introgression in this form (Andrews *et al.* 2013). The

authors proposed that sexual selection was driving the divergence of spinner dolphins in

the ETP. Recently, Leslie and Morin (2016) found strong population structure within

both species using genome-wide SNP data.

ETP Spotted Dolphins

The pantropical spotted dolphins (*Stenella attenuata*) in the ETP is split into two

subspecies based on morphometric analyses: a coastal endemic subspecies (*S. a.*

graffmani - Perrin 1975, Perrin *et al.* 1987) and an offshore pantropical subspecies (*S. a.*

attenuate). Genetic analyses of microsatellites show high genetic diversity in spotted

dolphins and support some differentiation between subspecies (Escorza-Treviño *et al.*

2005). This study identified at least four demographically independent populations within

the coastal subspecies (*S. a. graffmani*) and differences between southern populations of

the coastal subspecies and the pelagic subspecies. However, they found no differences

between the northern populations of the coastal subspecies and the pelagic subspecies.

Escorza-Treveño *et al.* (2005) identified demographically independent populations within

the coastal subspecies and posited that interchange continues between the northern *S. a.*

graffmani populations and the offshore pantropical subspecies.

Although the results of Escorza-Treviño *et al.* (2005) indicate substructure, the entire

coastal subspecies is currently a single management stock. Offshore pantropical spotted

dolphins in the ETP are divided into two stocks: 1) the 'northeastern' (NE) stock is

defined geographically as north of 5°N, east of 120°W, and 2) the 'western-southern'

(WS) stock is defined as south and west of this northeastern area (Fig. 2) (Perrin *et al.*

1994). A distributional hiatus along 5°N is the basis for the north-south boundary

between NE and WS stocks (Perrin *et al.* 1994), and this has recently been supported by

SNP analyses (Leslie and Morin 2016).

Given the morphological differentiation between subspecies and recent evidence of

nuclear DNA genetic differentiation, we assume the previous results from single mtDNA

loci lacked power to resolve these close intraspecific relationships. In addition, studies of

other cetacean species have shown mitochondrial genomes to be a useful tool for

resolving intraspecific relationships when single mtDNA genes cannot (Archer *et al.*2013,

Morin *et al.* 2010.

Objectives

We used DNA capture array library enrichment and highly paralleled DNA sequencing to

collect whole mitochondrial genome sequence data from 104 spinner and 76 spotted

dolphins to test hypotheses of population genetic structure at multiple hierarchical levels

in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean. We performed analyses of whole mtDNA genomes

(mitogenomes) and individual mtDNA genes to test observed levels of differentiation

between recognized and proposed management stocks. We also tested for structure

supporting the Tres Marias spinner dolphin and alternative stock boundaries in the

offshore spotted dolphins. Although still only representing one locus, mitogenomes allow

us to examine matrilineal population structure and contrast our findings with those found

in previous studies using nuclear DNA (Escorza-Treviño *et al.* 2005; Andrews *et al.*

2013; Leslie and Morin 2016) to infer sex-biased dispersal.

METHODS

Sample Collection and DNA extraction

Skin samples used in this study were collected from free-ranging animals *via* biopsy dart

(Lambertsen 1987) on research cruises or from dead specimens killed as bycatch in the

tuna purse-seine fishery between 1982 and 2010 (104 spinner dolphins and 76 spotted

dolphins Fig. 1, 2; Supplementary Material Tables S1, S2). On research cruises it is

relatively common to see some fraction of spinner dolphins of alternate morphology (*i.e.*,

possibly different subspecies) within a school of dolphins comprised mostly of another

morphotype/subspecies. For this reason, spinner dolphin samples collected from research

cruises were assigned to a stock based on the external morphology of the majority of

animals in the school, rather than the morphology of the individual sampled or the

geographic location of the school. This method was preferable because: 1) only after

observing the group (which could contain > 1,000 individuals) for some time could

observers classify it to stock, 2) the external characters distinguishing subspecies are

subtle, therefore researchers collecting biopsies from the bow of the research vessel could

not confidently classify fast-swimming individuals in real time, and 3) the ranges of ETP

spinner dolphin subspecies overlap making geography an unreliable predictor of stock

identity. Some samples were used from areas where the eastern and whitebelly spinners

are known to geographically overlap (see Figure 1). Spinner dolphin samples from

Hawaiʻi spanned the breadth of the main islands and also Midway Atoll.

Because there is little overlap of subspecies distribution in ETP pantropical spotted

dolphins, geographic location of the sampling site was used to assign samples to

subspecies and stocks. To avoid misassigned individuals near the borders of the NE and

WS offshore stocks, we did not use samples collected between 4°N and 6°N east of

125°W. Hawaiʻian spotted dolphin samples were collected from the Kona Coast of

Hawaiʻi and Oʻahu.

Biopsy samples were stored in salt-saturated 20% DMSO, 70% ethanol, or frozen with no

preservative. We extracted DNA using silica-based filter membranes (Qiagen, Valencia,

CA) on an automated workstation (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA). DNA was quantified

using Pico-Green fluorescence assays (Quant-it Kit, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and a

Tecan Genios microplate reader (Tecan Group Ltd, Switzerland).

Library Preparation and Sequencing

Next-generation sequencing libraries were generated as described by Hancock-Hanser *et*

al. (2013), using unique 6bp and 7bp index sequences for each individual to allow up to

100 samples to be multiplexed. Multiplexed libraries were enriched for whole

mitogenomes and 85 nuclear DNA loci using Sure Select DNA Capture Arrays (Agilent

Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) as described by Hancock-Hanser *et al.*

(2013). Sequence data from the 85 nuclear loci were not used in this study. Target

sequences for capture enrichment included the reference pantropical spotted dolphin

mitochondrial genome (Genbank No. EU557096; Xiong *et al.* 2009) and a suite of 85

nuclear loci (not included in this study). Three identical arrays - designed with the eArray

software package (Agilent Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) - were used to

capture a multiplexed mix of both species. Each array contained one replicate of the

mitogenome probes at a probe interval of 15bp as well as 13 replicates of probes for the

nuclear loci at a probe interval of 3bp. Each enriched library was then sequenced using

1X100bp Illumina HiSeq technology (two using Illumina HiSeq2000 and one using

HiSeq2500).

Mitogenome Assembly

Raw read data were filtered for quality (minimum quality score of 15) and demultiplexed

by unique barcode. Consensus sequences for each sample were generated from

mitogenome sequence reads using a custom pipeline (Dryad data repository

doi:10.5061/dryad.cv35b) in R v2.15.0 (R Core Team, 2014). Reads were first mapped to

the reference spotted dolphin sequence with the short-read alignment tool BWA (Li and

Durbin, 2009). The mpileup module in SAMTOOLS (Li *et al.* 2009) was then used to

convert the resulting BAM-format alignment file into a ''pileup'' text format, which was

then parsed by custom R code to create the consensus sequence for each individual. The

following rules were used in this process: A "N" was inserted at a position if the

assembly had <3 reads, <5 reads where not all contained the same nucleotide, or >5 reads

where no one nucleotide (*i.e*., A, C, G, T) was present in >70% of the reads. All

mitogenome sequences were initially aligned with MAFFT using the automatic selection

of an appropriate handling strategy ("auto") and default parameters (Katoh *et al.* 2009)

followed by a refinement of alignments by eye.

Diversity Estimates and Population Structure Analyses

Two mitogenome data sets were created for each species. First, we partitioned each

species' mitogenome into fifteen loci (12 coding sequences, the control region and 2

rRNA genes). ND6 and tRNA loci were removed prior to analyses because they conform

to different evolutionary models and ND6 falls on the opposite strand from the remaining

genes (Duchene *et al.* 2011). Sequences were aligned to the pantropical spotted dolphin

reference and locus start/stop positions were annotated in GENEIOUS v5.4 (Biomatters

Limited) using the GENEIOUS alignment tool and the amino acid translation tool,

respectively.

Second, we removed the control region because of high variation in this region and

concatenated the remaining 14 regions to make the concatenated mitogenome sequences.

The final sequence lengths for the concatenated data were 13,426bp and 13,425bp for

spinner and spotted dolphins, respectively. An individual was removed entirely from

analyses if it contained >10% missing data across the entire concatenated sequence.

For both data sets, we estimated haplotypic diversity (h, Nei 1987) and nucleotide

diversity (π, Tajima 1983), and assigned individual genes and whole mitochondrial

genome sequences to unique haplotypes using tools from the *strataG* package in R (v.

2.3.1; Archer *et al.*2016). Two pairwise estimates of population genetic structure, F_{ST}

(Wright 1949) and Φ_{ST} (Excoffier *et al.* 1992), were also performed using the *strataG*

package. The significance of each estimate was tested using 5000 non-parametric random

permutations of the data matrix variables. For Φ_{ST}, pairwise distances were calculated

using the best substitution model as identified by Akaike's Information Criterion in

JModelTest version 2.1.4 (Posada 2008). Models were determined for individual gene

regions and the entire concatenated dataset.

We performed a substitution rate test on each species' mitogenome data set to determine

if mutations had reached a point of saturation. For this test, we generated pairwise percent

differentiation and plotted this against a Jukes and Cantor (1969) correction factor

generated using MEGA 5.2.2 (Tamura *et al.* 2011). We chose this model because of its

simplicity; if deviations were seen here then general saturation could be assumed.

Although mitochondrial loci are assumed to be under purifying selection (Stewart *et al.*

2008) we, nonetheless, tested spinner dolphin mitochondrial genes for evidence of

positive selection using both Tajima's *D* and Codon-based *Z*-Test as implemented in

MEGA 5.2.2 (Tamura *et al.* 2011).

RESULTS:

Hancock-Hanser *et al.* (2013) present information on the success rate of the DNA capture

method including summary statistics of the data analyzed in this paper. As it relates to

our analyses, questions might arise about how using arrays designed from closely-related

species affected our results. As presented in Tables 4 and 5 of Hancock-Hanser *et al.*

(2013), spinner dolphin samples had slightly higher number of mtDNA reads per

individual than spotted dolphin samples, despite use of the spotted dolphin mitogenome

as the capture bait. The same pattern was found for the nuDNA capture – spinner

dolphins had more reads per individual than spotted dolphins - despite all the baits being

common bottlenose dolphin DNA sequence. We interpreted this consistency as an

indication that inter-specific capture worked well and that any decrease in capture success

(as evidenced in reads per individual for a given species) was more likely due to a

combination of other factors (sample quality, multiplexing rate, sequencing technology,

and/or variation in library preparation) rather than reduced capture due to inter-specific

baits. The one area that might have been an issue for inter-specific capture was the hyper-

variable section of the control region (see below).

Spinner dolphins

We assembled 104 complete or nearly complete (<10% missing data) concatenated

spinner dolphin mtDNA data sets (Genbank accession numbers in Supplementary Table

S1). The hyper-variable section of the control region had consistently lower coverage in

many individuals and was removed from the concatenated data set (Supplementary Table

S1). Subspecies and regional sample sizes, summary statistics and genetic diversity

measures are listed in Table 1. At the subspecies level, haplotypic diversities were high

and nucleotide diversity was low (>0.9722, <0.0073, respectively). The substitution rate

test did not show any signs of saturation. The best nucleotide substitution model

estimated by JModelTest (Posada, 2008) was JC69 (Jukes and Cantor 1969) for each

individual gene region and the entire concatenated data set. The results of F_{ST} and Φ_{ST}

analyses of the mtDNA concatenated genes and Φ_{ST} of the individual gene regions for

spinner dolphins are shown in Table 2. Due to space limitations, we only discuss Φ_{ST} for

the partitioned gene region analyses.

At the subspecies level, the Φ_{ST} test showed no differentiation between Central American

spinners and eastern spinner dolphin subspecies in either the concatenated or partitioned

data sets. F_{ST} was significant in the concatenated data set (0.0133, $P = 0.034$). Φ_{ST}

comparisons of the whitebelly form and coastal Central American subspecies showed

nearly significant differentiation in the concatenated data set ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.0490$; $P = 0.0542$)

and seven individual gene regions. ND3 showed a significant difference at $P = 0.0054$,

while all other significant comparisons between these strata were at $P < 0.05$ (Table 2).

We found no significant differences between the whitebelly and the eastern subspecies

using the concatenated mitogenome data ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.0181$; $P = 0.0741$). However, eight

individual mitochondrial genes showed significant differentiation. All individual gene

partitions in spinner dolphins were found to be under purifying selection using Tajima's

D tests for selection (Table S3) and Z-Test for positive selection using the Nei-Gojobori

method (Nei and Gojobori 1986) (Table S6).

Φ_{ST} tests showed no differentiation between Tres Marias spinners and either ETP spinner

dolphin subspecies in either the concatenated or partitioned data sets. Four individual

gene regions were significantly different in the pairwise comparisons of Tres Marias and

whitebelly spinner dolphins ($P < 0.05$; ND3 at $P < 0.01$).

All tests involving comparisons with Hawai'ian spinner dolphins (*S. l. longirostris*) -

using the concatenated data set - were highly significant. Four genes showed population

structure (significant Φ_{ST}) in all pairwise comparisons between Hawai'i and ETP groups

(*i.e.*, Central America, Tres Marias, eastern, and whitebelly spinner), but not in any

pairwise comparisons between these ETP groups: 16S, ATP6, ND2, and ND5. Because

of the low abundance and geographic isolation of the Hawai'ian population, we presume

these genetic differences between Hawai'i and the ETP groups resulted primarily from

drift in the Hawai'ian population, though some unique haplotypes in Hawai'i also

suggest sequence divergence between the subspecies. 16S had 24 haplotypes total, but

only 4 haplotypes among all 15 Hawai'ian samples. ATP6 had many more haplotypes in

total (53), but again reduced diversity in Hawai'i (5). One of these Hawai'ian haplotypes

was common among all ETP groups, and two were exclusive to Hawai'i. The final two

Hawai'ian ATP6 haplotypes were shared with one ETP spinner dolphin each. ND2 also

had 53 haplotypes total, but only 4 spread among the 15 Hawai'ian samples. Twelve

samples from Hawai'i had two haplotypes that were not shared with ETP populations.

One individual shared a haplotype with an eastern spinner dolphin, the other two

haplotypes were single samples unique to Hawai'i. Finally, ND5 had 70 total haplotypes,

but only 5 among the Hawai'ian samples – none of which were shared with ETP

populations.

Spotted dolphins

We assembled 76 complete or nearly complete (<10% missing data) spotted dolphin

mitogenomes (Genbank accession numbers in Supplementary Table S2). Sample sizes,

summary statistics and genetic diversity measures are listed in Table 1. At the level of

subspecies, nucleotide diversity was higher in spotted dolphins (>0.0162) than spinner

dolphins. Haplotypic diversity (h) is high in both species (>0.9529), but ETP spotted

dolphins subspecies have slightly lower levels (0.9529 and 0.9804 for the coastal and

offshore groups, respectively) than spinner dolphin subspecies (0.9722 and 0.9985) in

this region. The coastal ETP subspecies for both spinner and pantropical spotted dolphins

in the ETP show reduced h compared to their offshore ETP counterparts (Table 1).

Similar to the spinner dolphin mitogenome data, the substitution rate test did not detect

any signs of saturation, and JC69 was the best substitution model for all individual gene

regions and the entire concatenated data set.

Results of F_{ST} and $\varPhi_{ST}$ analyses of the mtDNA concatenated genes and $\varPhi_{ST}$ of the

individual gene regions for spotted dolphins are presented in Table 4. Similar to the

spinner dolphins, our analyses at the subspecies level for spotted dolphins (coastal *vs.*

offshore) show no significant differentiation using Φ_{ST} for the concatenated or partitioned

data sets. F_{ST} was significant in the concatenated data set (0.0125, $P = $ 0.0402).

Estimates of differentiation between the current management stocks within the offshore

subspecies (NE and WS stocks) using the whole mitogenome data and individual mtDNA

genes showed no differences. Using Φ_{ST}, no significant differences were observed

between the coastal subspecies and the NE offshore stock, however F_{ST} (0.0302) was

highly significant at $P = $ 0.0002 between theses management units. Similarly, Φ_{ST} was

not significant for pairwise comparisons of the Coastal subspecies and WS offshore stock

using the concatenated data or individual genes.

Within the WS offshore stock, we found nearly significant Φ_{ST} differences between the

southern and western offshore regions using the concatenated mitogenome (0.1666; $P = $

0.0668). One individual mtDNA gene (ND4) had significant differentiation (p <0.05) and

three others had nearly significant p-values (16S, ND1, ND5).

Comparing separate western and southern portions of the WS stock to other partitions

using the mitogenome data set also yielded no significant Φ_{ST} estimates. Our comparison

of the NE stock to the western portion of the WS stock, however, was nearly significant

using the concatenated mitogenome ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.1135$; $P = $ 0.0517) and four individual

mtDNA genes showed significant Φ_{ST} differences (p<0.05). Neither data set showed

significant differences between the NE stock and the southern portion of the WS stock for

either statistic.

Comparison of the coastal subspecies to just the southern portion of the WS stock

resulted in no significant F_{ST} or Φ_{ST} difference in the concatenated data set or individual

gene regions. Between the coastal subspecies and western offshore portion of the WS

stock, however, one individual gene region (ATP8) showed significant differentiation (P

< 0.05), and one (12S) showed nearly significant differentiation ($P = 0.0559$). Ideally we

would have partitioned the coastal subspecies south of central Mexico into the population

units described by Escorza-Triveño *et al.* (2005), but our smaller sample size prevented

us from doing this.

Significant differentiation was detected between Hawai'i and the coastal subspecies, and

between Hawai'i and offshore spotted dolphins, in F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} of the concatenated data

set. As expected, given this result, significant differentiation was detected in many

individual mtDNA genes (see Table 4). We also detected significant differences between

Hawai'i and the NE stock in four genes, but not for the concatenated mtDNA data set

(although it was nearly significant for Φ_{ST} at $P = 0.0645$). Hawai'i and the WS stock

were significantly different in the concatentated data set using Φ_{ST}, and in nine individual

genes ($P < 0.05$).

Finally, we also tested hypotheses of differences between Hawai'i and divided western

and southern portions of the WS stock. Hawai'i and the western portion were

differentiated using the concatenated dataset (Φ_{ST}: 0.4932; $P = 0.0179$). Ten individual

genes showed differentiation between these two strata (see Table 4). Hawai'i and the

southern portion of the WS stock were not differentiated based on our concatenated data

sets, but did show significant differentiation in five individual genes ($P<0.05$).

Discussion

Spinner and spotted dolphins in the eastern tropical Pacific offer a unique opportunity to study genetic differentiation at multiple scales in species with strong intraspecific morphological differences. Recent divergence, high genetic diversity, large population sizes, and ongoing gene flow likely contribute to low detectability of genetic divergence (Galver 2002, Escorza-Treviño *et al.* 2005, Andrews *et al.* 2013, Taylor and Dizon 1996, Waples 1998). Using complete mitogenomes, we found some genetic support for endemic subspecies of spinner and spotted dolphins, although the strength of this support varies between markers (see Table 5). We did not find support, however, for the division of offshore stocks of spotted dolphins; nor did we find separation of the Tres Marias spinner dolphins as an independent population. In contrast, nuclear SNP analysis recovered these stock-level differences (Leslie and Morin 2016). The difference in our findings compared to those of Leslie and Morin (2016) could reflect the limitations of our mtDNA data or something biologically meaningful about the populations.

First, we will discuss the individual comparisons for each species, then finish with an overall discussion comparing our findings with those of others.

Spinner Dolphins

Traditional F_{ST} was very low as expected, but supported endemic subspecies distinction (Central American and eastern). We found non-significant results from Φ_{ST} – a metric that includes differences in nucleotide divergence. Thus we conclude that haplotypes within these two subspecies are very similar, but that haplotype frequencies are significantly different.

Nevertheless, our results provide evidence of genetic differentiation between the accepted

ETP endemic subspecies concordant with morphology (Perrin *et al.* 1991) and results

from Andrews *et al.* (2013) who used data from the nuclear Actin gene, and Leslie and

Morin (2016) who used restriction-associated nuDNA sequencing. Differences in

ecological, distributional, morphological, nuDNA, and now mtDNA data support the

recognition of these distinct subspecies.

Breeding biology and movement patterns could also affect the patterns we see between

the Central American and eastern spinner dolphins. In particular, assortative mating can

decrease N_e, which could serve to amplify signal of structure in the nuDNA genome. The

eastern spinner dolphin is thought to have a polygynous mating system (Perrin and

Mesnick, 2003). Perrin and Mesnick (2003) concluded that relatively few males are

involved with mating, serving to reduce N_e and potentially increase genetic structure

(Perrin and Mesnick, 2003). Conversely, however, a skewed breeding system might also

increase dispersal, as adult male dominance might promote movements of juvenile males

which then become established breeders outside their natal range. Unfortunately, very

little is known about the movement patterns of individual dolphins in the ETP, and less is

known about differences in movement based on sex. High site fidelity in males could also

restrict male-mediated geneflow between groups and increase relative signal in nuDNA

analyses.

F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} tests between the whitebelly spinner and the Central American endemic ETP

subspecies revealed nearly significant differentiation (Table 5), indicating possible

separation. Nuclear SNP data support differences between these two groups (Leslie and

Morin 2016). In our mitogenome data set, every whitebelly sample had a unique

haplotype. As a result, frequency-based measures of differentiation such as *F*-statistics

were likely underestimated.

Using slightly different samples, Andrews *et al.* (2013) also found differentiation

between Central American and whitebelly spinners using mtDNA genes (control region

and cyt*b*). We recovered the same pattern for cyt*b* and several others (Table 2). Moreover,

Andrews *et al.* (2013) included 10 samples of Central American spinners that had

questionable subspecific identity (based on further investigation of the sample collection

records at SWFSC by MSL). These samples were initially identified as Central American

spinners, but the confidence in the identification was low and they should have been

labeled as "unidentified". Given the uncertainly, these samples could have been from

eastern spinner dolphins. Removal of these samples reduced our representation of Central

American spinners (*n*=9), which may have impacted our ability to detect intraspecific

structure. However, the Central American subspecies has lower relative abundance, and

therefore might be expected to show higher levels of structure due to drift.

Two biological explanations for the possible differentiation between Central American

and whitebelly spinners in the mtDNA are isolation by distance and admixture between

whitebellies and Hawai'ian spinners. These are the two most geographically distant

putative populations of ETP spinner dolphins; therefore, isolation by distance could

contribute to population genetic structuring. Admixture between the whitebelly and

Hawai'ian spinners would bring novel haplotypes from the Gray's subspecies (Hawai'i)

into the whitebellies resulting in genetic structure.

We found nearly significant Φ_{ST} between the whitebelly spinner and the eastern spinner

using the concatenated mitogenome data. In addition, we also found significant

differences between these strata in eight individual mtDNA genes. Leslie and Morin's

(2016) SNP analysis supported differentiation of these two groups. Andrews *et al.* (2013)

inferred high migration rates between whitebelly and eastern spinner dolphins (30.1

migrants per generation from whitebelly to eastern and 57.9 migrants from eastern to

whitebelly). Despite this high rate of migration, we detected evidence of differentiation.

As discussed, the statistical power to estimate levels of migration between very large

populations with low relative sample sizes is weak (Waples 1998, Taylor *et al.* 2000). For

this reason, we did not estimate levels of migration for these data. Andrews *et al.* (2013)

did estimate migration in ETP spinner dolphins and found lower, but significantly

different from zero, rates of migration per generation between populations of Gray's

(Hawai'ian and other Pacific Island groups) spinners and the whitebelly spinners (3.22

migrants per generation into Gray's and 1.6 into whitebelly spinners). The rate of

migration into Gray's spinner populations from the eastern population was estimated to

be less than one (0.82), but significantly different from zero. Although this was not a

major focus of our study, the differences we detected between the Hawaiian population

and the ETP pelagic populations were higher than any comparisons within the ETP,

supporting the hypothesis that this is an insular population or possibly subspecies.

Differences in breeding systems could help drive or maintain differentiation between

eastern and whitebelly spinner dolphins (Perrin and Mesnick 2003). A polgynous system

in eastern spinners could result in higher site-fidelity and lower male Ne – both of which

would accentuate signal in nuDNA population structure. Alternatively, as discussed

above, admixture between whitebelly and Hawai'ian spinners could also result in novel

whitebelly genotypes resulting in higher apparent population structure between

whitebelly and eastern spinners.

Alternative spinner dolphin stocks:

We found no support for a Tres Marias population that differs from the eastern or Central American subspecies (*e.g.,* Perryman and Westlake 1998) using the concatenated or individual mitochondrial gene data sets. Given the weak genetic differences we found between the accepted endemic subspecies with much more marked morphological differences, this result may not be surprising. We found statistically significant differences in four individual mtDNA genes when comparing the Tres Marias group to the whitebelly spinners and several nearly significant genes. We do not feel confident making taxonomic recommendations for the "Tres Marias" spinners based on these analyses. Additional studies should approach this question using larger sample sets and additional data.

Spotted dolphins:

Spotted dolphin mitogenomes have lower haplotypic diversity but higher nucleotide diversity than spinner dolphins, despite extremely high historical population sizes in the former. The two main reasons for lower haplotypic diversity could be a recent and/or prolonged population bottleneck, such as the decrease caused by mortalities in the tuna purse-siene fishery, or an extremely matrifocal social structure (Hoelzel *et al.* 2007). Although matrifocal social structure is known in several species of odontocetes (*e.g.,* killer whales and sperm whales), it is not a known characteristic of spotted dolphins, and thus is an unlikely cause of low genetic diversity.

Similar to our findings for spinner dolphins, traditional F_{ST} calculated for the spotted dolphin mitogenome data set supports differentiation of the offshore *S. a. attenuata* and the endemic coastal *S. a. graffmani* subspecies, whereas Φ_{ST} failed to indicate any difference - either for the entire genome or within any single gene. Our results show the

NE stock being strongly differentiated from the coastal subspecies (based on allele

frequency alone), counter to the results found by Escorza-Treviño *et al.* (2005) showing

connection between the NE stock and the coastal subspecies based on seven

microsatellite loci. In that study, the authors inferred that there was a strong connection

between the coastal and offshore subspecies in northern Mexico. The differences between

our results and those of Escorza-Treviño *et al.* (2005) could be due to sampling; the

previous study included more samples from the northern portion of the coastal spotted

dolphin range than we did. Additionally, the differences could be attributed to the unique

evolutionary patterns of the different markers examined in Escorza-Treviño *et al.* (2005)

(*i.e.,* microsatellites) vs. the mitogenomes used in our study.

Spotted dolphin stocks:

A main objective of this work was to test for difference between existing (NE, WS, and

Coastal) and proposed (independent W and S) management stocks. Using the whole

mtDNA genome data set, we found no evidence for differentiation between the two

current stocks (NE and WS). This could be because the two stocks are genetically

connected or because our data lack power to detect differentiation at this fine scale. The

concatenated mtDNA indicated weak evidenced for splitting up the current WS stock - a

high Φ_{ST} value (0.1666) and nearly significant ($P = 0.0668$). Similarly, we detected

nearly significant differences between the NE stock and the western group of the WS

stock using the concatenated mtDNA genome. Four mtDNA loci had significant Φ_{ST}

estimates for this partition. The NE and the offshore southern group were not

significantly different in any test, suggesting that the distributional hiatus at 5° north is

not a barrier to gene flow. We cannot say with any certainty if this is the case, however,

because of the low sample size for the southern portion of WS stock (n=9); a larger

sample size is necessary to convincingly investigate this hiatus. Overall, the whole

concatenated mtDNA genome was not as useful as anticipated for delimiting stock

structure, possibly because it introduced more variation (*via* novel haplotypes) into an

already highly variable system. Whole mtDNA genomes have been useful for clarifying

subspecific boundaries where information in single mtDNA genes has shown low

variability (Archer *et al.*2013, Morin *et al.* 2010), including in this paper, but testing

population-level boundaries in highly abundant cetaceans using mtDNA genomes may be

less feasible.

Leslie and Morin (2016) found divergence between the offshore and coastal spotted

dolphin subspecies, but did not include data from individuals from the NE offshore stock

of spotted dolphins. Therefore, this comparison includes animals from the most

geographically separate portions of the offshore (WS) and coastal subspecies range.

Additional nuclear data from the NE stock are needed to determine whether proximate

populations of these two subspecies are also as genetically divergent.

Overall Patterns Observed

Despite the increase in data over other mtDNA studies, it is likely that whole

mitogenomes still do not provide enough statistical power to detect differences given the

recent divergence, continued low-level interbreeding, and/or high diversity and historical

abundance. We collected whole mitogenomic data to help resolve close population

relationships. However, one risk of adding more data in this situation – with populations

with high genetic diversity – is that haplotype discovery may not plateau within a sample

set. In other words, more unique haplotypes are added thereby increasing the difficulty of

characterizing haplotype frequencies among and between populations. Sequencing

additional samples could help rectify this issue.

Similarly, there are also limitations to using frequency-based F-statistics. F_{ST} is good at

detecting frequency differences that indicate genetic structure in cases where haplotypes

are similar within populations and different between populations (such as those that

would result via drift in small populations). However, when haplotype diversity is high

within and among populations, very large sample sizes are needed to characterize

haplotype frequencies to detect differences using F_{ST}. In this situation, F_{ST} point values

will be underestimated. Moreover, sampling effects can become important drivers of F_{ST}

beyond the base frequency of alleles present and result in false positive results. Our initial

hypothesis was that sequencing more of the mitogenome would result in more shared

differences within populations which would be reflected in both the frequency-based

statistics; this was not the case.

Instead, we found significant differences between subspecies of both spinner and spotted

dolphins using F_{ST}, but not Φ_{ST}. F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} provide slightly different perspectives on

population differentiation and we believe it is important to present both measures. Our

results show inconsistencies between these two metrics, which does not necessarily mean

analytical problems or inaccuracies, but reflects something interesting about our data. F_{ST}

tests for population differentiation are based on allele (or haplotype) frequencies and do

not provide direct insights into levels of molecular divergence (Weir and Cockerham,

1984, Excoffier *et al.* 1992, Meirmans and Hedrick 2011). Φ_{ST} estimates capture more

information regarding the differentiation due to sequence divergence (or nucleotide

diversity) in addition to differences in haplotype frequencies. The high heterozygosity

issues mentioned above can still impact Φ_{ST}. Although we chose to focus the bulk of the

discussion on Φ_{ST}, we do report statistically significant measures of F_{ST} and briefly

compare and contrast the two metrics. Φ_{ST} may be more indicative of older, long-term

processes, whereas F_{ST} can show recent differences among populations, indicating

another reason it is important to report both metrics. In addition, given that the test for

significance is determined by an arbitrary cut-off ($P = 0.05$), we also present results that

are "nearly significant". Combined with given the difficulty of distinguishing these

groups in previous works, we felt it important not to focus too intensely on the arbitrary

cut-off, but rather overall patterns of indicators.

Moreover, our sample sizes were low in some partitions (n=7). This could result in the

allele frequencies of populations being under-characterized, which could skew results in

over- or under-classification. Efforts should be made to collect more samples for future

studies.

Alternatively, non-significant results could occur with low levels of geneflow between

strata that are demographically independent populations (Avise 1995; Taylor and Dizon

1996). Because management decisions rely on them, results must be interpreted within

the context of all available information and with recognition of the caveats of the data

used to generate them.

The discordance we observed between the mitogenome results and those using nuDNA

data (Leslie and Morin 2016) could also reflect biological factors. One possibility is

female-mediated exchange diluting the signal of structure in mtDNA or male site-fidelity

increasing structure in the mtDNA. Although there is some evidence from radio tagging

studies that spinner and spotted dolphins can move relatively large distances (Perrin *et al.*

1979), a thorough investigation into the differences between sexes is lacking. At least for

spinner dolphins it is likely that the polygynous breeding system described by Perrin and

Mesnick (2003) would contribute to increased signal of structure in the nuclear genome.

Drift in mtDNA loci as indicated by comparisons with Hawai'i

Because of the greater divergence observed between Hawai'ian and ETP populations of these two dolphins, we thought it would be informative to highlight genes showing structure (Hawai'i vs. ETP), likely due to neutral drift acting on a small insular population, that might be useful for studying other Hawai'ian populations of cetacean species. Four genes (16S, ATP6, ND2, and ND5) showed population structure (significant Φ_{ST}) in all pairwise comparisons between Hawai'i and ETP spinner dolphin groups (*i.e*., Central America, Tres Marias, eastern, and whitebelly spinner), but not in any pairwise comparisons between these ETP groups. All of the mtDNA regions with significant Φ_{ST} were found to be under purifying selection (negative Tajima's *D* - Table S3; and non-significant Z-tests – Table S4) indicating that the within-mitogenome differences are accumulating by neutral drift rather than via positive selection in ETP spinner dolphins. Significant differences between ETP groups and the Hawai'ian insular population of spotted dolphins were found in all but five of the mtDNA genes. We note however that the low sample sizes for Hawai'ian spotted dolphins may explain some of the non-significant differences observed with respect to ETP stocks.

Positive Selection in ETP Spinner Dolphin mtDNA

Selection should affect linked loci equally; however, selection can act on individual mtDNA genes, such as in the case of cytochrome *b* in Antarctic killer whales (Foote *et al*. 2010). We tested for positive selection in spinner dolphin mitochondrial genes and found none. We did not test for positive selection in spotted dolphins because there were no individual mtDNA genes that supported differentiation between the two ETP subspecies.

Conclusions:

Defining population genetic structure is challenging for species with large historical

population sizes and high mobility. These populations may retain high genetic variation

even as abundance becomes relatively low, which could obscure signals of genetic

structure used to designate stock boundaries for estimating population abundance and

setting stock-specific mortality limits. Ultimately, without information on structure,

populations could be under-classified and unique evolutionary units and populations

could go extinct as we may fail to take appropriate conservation action. Alternatively,

there is a cost to managing populations as separate when there is no biological basis to do

so. Such errors can have economic, social, and political consequences resulting from

unnecessary restrictions on human activity. Furthermore, a consistent pattern of these

errors will "stiffen the resolve of skeptics and make it difficult to accomplish sound

resource management in the future" (Waples 1998).

This unique system of two delphinids, with available samples collected *in situ* from

remote offshore environments encompassing extensive geographic and morphological

variation, was used to test for population genetic structure at multiple hierarchical levels

in species with high historical abundance and high intra-specific morphological variation.

Our results show a complex pattern of genetic structure in the two different data sets for

each species. Although complex, we believe the structure observed in our results is

biologically meaningful. Given the aforementioned difficulties with detecting structure

using genetic techniques in this system – and the supporting morphometric results - even

subtle signatures of structure are significant findings. The mitogenome data show support

for the endemic ETP spinner and spotted dolphin subspecies.

We found very little support for the division of offshore stocks of spotted dolphins and no

support for the unique form of Tres Marias spinner dolphins as compared to the eastern

or Central American subspecies. This is not to say that these biological entities do not

exist, just that our mtDNA data do not support them or may not have sufficient power to

detect the subtle genetic differences between them. Further, we recommend the collection

and analysis of additional samples from the Central American subspecies to compare to

existing offshore subspecies samples collected from fisheries bycatch and research

cruises. In addition, we recommend additional studies of population structure that

incorporate environmental variables as potential population boundaries in this area.

Finally, placing these populations within a global phylogeographic context will help

provide a better context for our results by fully characterizing intraspecific diversity and

establishing the evolutionary process that led to ETP endemism.

Acknowledgements:

MSL was supported by a National Science Foundation (NSF) Graduate Research

Fellowship, a NSF Integrative Graduate Education and Research Traineeship Fellowship,

the Ralph A. Lewin Graduate Fellowship in Marine Biology at Scripps Institution of

Oceanography, the Lerner-Grey Memorial Foundation at the American Museum of

Natural History, and the Edna Bailey Sussman Foundation. We would especially like to

thank Dr. William F. Perrin who provided guidance and support throughout the

development and completion of this study. Danielle Davila, Brittany Hancock-Hanser,

Gabriela Serra-Valente, Victoria Pease, Kelly Robertson, Dr. Louella Dolar, Nicole

Beaulieu and Morgane Lauf for help in the laboratory and tissue archive. Dr. Karen

Martien provided a thoughtful critique of this manuscript. Al Jackson provided copies of

original field datasheets. We thank Dr. Robin Baird of Cascadia Research Collective and

Dr. Erin Oleson of the NOAA Pacific Islands Science Center for permission to use

Hawaiʻian spinner dolphin samples. The Scripps Research Institute provided assistance

with sequencing, especially Drs. Steve Head, Lana Shaffer and John Shimashita. Support

for this research was also provided from Drs. Lisa Ballance and Barbara Taylor of the

Marine Mammal and Turtle Division of SWFSC. We are grateful to William Perrin,

Karen Martien, Kim Andrews, Patricia Rosel and three anonymous reviewers for their

careful and constructive reviews of the manuscript.

Literature Cited:

Aitken, N., S. Smith, C. Schwarz, and P. A. Morin. 2004. Single nucleotide

polymorphism (SNP) discovery in mammals: a targeted-gene approach. Molecular

Ecology 13:1423-1431.

Allendorf, F. W. 2017. Genetics and the conservation of natural populations: allozymes

to genomes. Molecular Ecology 26(2):420-430.

Andrews, K. R., W. F. Perrin, M. Oremus, *et al.* 2013. The evolving male: spinner

dolphin (*Stenella longirostris*) ecotypes are divergent at Y chromosome but not mtDNA

or autosomal markers. Molecular Ecology 22:408-2423.

Antao, T., A. Lopes, R. J. Lopes, A. Beja-Pereira, and G. Luikart. 2008. LOSITAN: A

workbench to detect molecular adaptation based on a F_{ST}-outlier method. BMC

Bioinformatics, 9(1):323.

Archer, .F I., P. E. Adams, B. B. Schneiders. 2016. STRATAG: An R package for

manipulating, summarizing and analysing population genetic data. Molecular Ecology

Resource. doi:10.1111/1755-0998.12559.

Archer, F. I., P. A. Morin, B. L. Hancock-Hanser, K. M. Robertson, M. S. Leslie, M.

Berube, S. Panigada, B. L. Taylor. 2013. Mitogenomic phylogenetics of fin whales

(*Balaenoptera physalus spp.*): genetic evidence for revision of subspecies. PLoS ONE

8(5): e63396.

Avise, J. C. 1995. Mitochondrial DNA polymorphism and a connection between genetics

and demography of relevance to conservation." Conservation Biology 9(3): 686-690.

Beaumont M. A., and R. A. Nichols. 1996. Evaluating loci for use in the genetic analysis

of population structure. Proceedings of the Royal Society of Londong B 263:1619-1626.

Dizon, A.E., W. F. Perrin, and P. A. Akin. 1994. Stocks of dolphins (*Stenella* spp. and

Delphinus delphis) in the eastern tropical Pacific: a phylogeographic classification.

NOAA Technical Report NMFS 119, 20pp.

Dornburg, A., M. C. Brandley, M. R. McGowen, and T. J. Near. 2012. Relaxed clocks

and inferences of heterogeneous patterns of nucleotide substitution and divergence time

estimates across whales and dolphins (Mammalia: Cetacea). Molecular Biology and

Evolution 29:721-736.

Douglas, M.E., G. D. Schnell, D. J. Hough, and W. F. Perrin. 1992. Geographic variation

in cranial morphology of spinner dolphins *Stenella longirostris* in the eastern tropical

Paciic Ocean. Fisheries Bulletin 90:54-76.

Drummond, A., and A. Rambaut. 2007. BEAST: Bayesian evolutionary analysis by

sampling trees. BMC Evolutionary Biology 7:214.

Duchene, S., F. I. Archer, J. Vilstrup, S. Caballero, and P. A. Morin. 2011. Mitogenome

phylogenetics: The impact of using single regions and partitioning schemes

on topology, substitution rate and divergence time estimation. PLoS ONE 6(11): e27138.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0027138.

Eriksson, J., G. Larson, U. Gunnarsson, B. Bed'hom, M. Tixier-Boichard, *et al.* 2008.

Identification of the yellow skin gene reveals a hybrid origin of the domestic chicken.

PLoS Genetics 4(2): e1000010 10.1371/journal.pgen.10000010.

Escorza-Treviño, S., F. I. Archer, M. Rosales, A. Dizon, and A. Lang. 2005. Genetic

differentiation and intraspecific structure of Eastern Tropical Pacific spotted dolphins,

Stenella attenuata, revealed by DNA analyses. Conservation Genetics 6(4): 587-600.

Evanno, G., S. Regnaut, and J. Goudet. 2005. Detecting the number of clusters of

individuals using the software STRUCTURE: a simulation study. Molecular Ecology 14:

2611-2620.

Excoffier, L. and H. E. L. Lischer. 2010. Arlequin suite ver 3.5: A new series of

programs to perform population genetics analyses under Linux and Windows. Molecular

Ecology Resources 10:564-567.

Excoffier, L., P. E. Smouse, and J. M. Quattro. 1992. Analysis of molecular variance

inferred from metric distances among DNA haplotypes: application to human

mitochondrial DNA restriction data. Genetics 131(2):479.

Foll, M. and O. E. Gaggiotti. 2008. A genome scan method to identify selected loci

appropriate for both dominant and codominant markers: A Bayesian perspective.

Genetics 180:977-993.

Galver, L. 2002. The molecular ecology of spinner dolphins, *Stenella longirostris*:

genetic diverstiy and population structure. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California.

Gerrodette, T., G. Watters, W. Perryman, and L. T. Balance. 2008. Estimates of 2006

dolphin abundance in the eastern tropical Pacific, with revised estimates from 1986-2003.

NOAA Tech. Memo. NMFS-SWFSC-422.

Gosliner, M. L. 1999. The tuna-dolphin controversy. Pages 120-155 *in* J. R. Twiss Jr. and

R. R. Reeves, eds. Conservation and management of marine mammals. Smithsonian

Institution Press, Washington DC.

Hancock-Hanser, B., A. Frey, M. S. Leslie, P. H. Dutton, and P. A. Morin. 2013.

Targeted multiplex next-generation sequencing: Advances in techniques of mitochondrial

and nuclear sequencing for population genomics. Molecular Ecology Resources 13:254-

268.

Hoekstra, H. E., R. J. Hirschmann, R. A. Bundey, P. A. Insel, and J. P. Crossland. 2006.

A single amino acid mutation contributes to adaptive beach mouse color pattern. Science,

313(5783):101-104.

Hoelzel, A. R., J. Hey, M. E. Dahlheim, C. Nicholson, V. Burkanov, and N. Black. 2007.

Evolution of population structure in a highly social top predator, the killer whale.

Molecular Biology and Evolution 24 (6):1407-1415.

Horne, J. B. 2014. Thinking outside the barrier: neutral and adaptive divergence in Indo-

Pacific coral reef faunas. Ecology and Evolution 28(6):991-1002.

Hubbard, J. K., J. A. C. Uy, M. E. Hauber, H. E. Hoekstra, and R. J. Safran. 2010.

Vertebrate pigmentation: from underlying genes to adaptive function. Trends in Genetics,

26(5):231-239.

Hubisz, M., D. Falush, M. Stephens, and J. Pritchard. 2009. Inferring weak population

structure with the assistance of sample group information. Molecular Ecology Resources

9:1322-1332.

Joseph, J. 1994. The tuna-dolphin controversy in the eastern Pacific Ocean: Biological,

economic and political impacts. Ocean Development and International Law 25:1-30.

Jukes, T. H., and C. R. Cantor. 1969. Evolution of protein molecules. Pages 21-132 in H.

M. Munro, ed. Mammalian protein metabolism. Academic Press, New York.

Kalinowsky, S. T. 2010. The computer program STRUCTURE does not reliably identify

the main genetic clusters within species: simulations and implications for human

population structure. Heredity 106(4):625-632.

Katoh, K., G. Asimenos, and H. Toh. 2009. Multiple alignment of DNA sequences with

MAFFT. Methods in Molecular Biology 537:39–64.

Lambertsen, R. H. 1987. A biopsy system for large whales and its use for cytogenetics.

Journal of Mammalogy 68:443-445.

Leslie, M. S., and P. A. Morin. In press. Using genome-wide SNPs to detect structure in

high-diversity and low-divergence populations of severely impacted eastern tropical

Pacific spinner (*Stenella longirostris*) And pantropical spotted dolphins (*S. attenuata*).

Frontiers in Marine Science 3:253. doi: 10.3389/fmars.2016.00253.

Li, H., and R. Durbin. 2009. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows -

Wheeler transform. Bioinformatics 25:1754-1760.

Li, H., B. Handsaker, A. Wysoker, *et al.* 2009. The sequence alignment/map format and

SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25:2078-2079.

Lo, N., and T. D. Smith. 1986. Incidental mortality of dolphins in the eastern tropical

Pacific, 1959-72. Fishery Bulletin 84: 27-34.

Lyons, L., T. Laughlin, N. Copeland, *et al.* 1997. Comparative anchor tagged sequences

(CATS) for integrative mapping of mammalian genomes. Nature Genetics 15:47-56.

McKenna, A., M. Hanna, E. Banks, *et al.* 2009. The Genome Analysis Toolkit: a

MapReduce framework for analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data. Genome

Research 20(9):1297-1303.

Meirmans, P. G. and P. W. Hedrick 2011. Assessing population structure: FST and

related measures. Molecular Ecology Resources 11(1):5-18.

Morin, P. A., F. I. Archer, A. D. Foote, *et al.* 2010. Complete mitochondrial genome

phylogeographic analysis of killer whales (*Orcinus orca*) indicates multiple species.

Genome Research 20: 908-916.

Morin, P. A., F. I. Archer, V. L. Pease, *et al.* 2012. Emperical comparison of single

nucleotide polymorphisms and microsatellites for population and demographic analyses

of bowhead whales. Endangered Species Research 19:129-147.

Moritz, C. 1994. Applications of mitochondrial DNA analysis in conservation: a critical

review. Molecular Ecology 3:401-411.

Narum, S. R., and J. E. HESS. 2011. Comparison of F_{ST} outlier tests for SNP loci under

selection. Molecular Ecology Resources 11:184–194.

National Research Council. 1992. Dolphins and the tuna industry. National Academy

Press, Washington DC.

Nei, M. 1987. Molecular evolutionary genetics. Columbia University Press.

Nei, M., and Gojobori T. 1986. Simple method for estimating the number of synonymous

and nonsynonymous nucleotide substitutions. Molecular Biology and Evolution 3:418-

426.

Norris, Richard D. 2000. Pelagic species diversity, biogeography, and evolution.

Paleobiology 26.sp4: 236-258.

Perrin, W. F. 1990. Subspecies of Stenella longirostris (Mammalia: Cetacea:

Delphinidae). Proceedings of the Biological Society of Washington 103:453-463.

Perrin, W. F., P.A. Akin, and J. V. Kashiwada. 1991. Geographic variation in external

morphology of the spinner dolphin *Stenella longirostis* in the eastern Pacific and

implications for conservation. Fisheries Bulletin 89(3):411-428.

Perrin, W. F., M. L. L. Dolar, and D. Robineau. 1999. Spinner dolphins (*Stenella*

longirostris) of the western Pacific and Southeast Asia: pelagic and shallow-water forms.

Marine Mammal Science 15(4): 1029-1053.

Perrin, W. F., W. E. Evans and D. B. Holts. 1979. Movements of pelagic dolphins

(*Stenella* spp.) in the eastern tropical Pacific as indicated by results of tagging, with

summary of tagging operations, 1969-76. NOAA Technical Memo NMFS 737:14 pp.

Perrin, W. F., and J. R. Henderson, 1979. Growth & reproductive rates in two populations

of spinner dolphins, *Stenella longirostris*, with different histories of exploitation. Reports

of the International Whaling Commission Special Issue 6:417–430.

Perrin W. F., and S. L. Mesnick. 2003. Sexual ecology of the spinner dolphin, *Stenella*

longirostris: Geographic variation in mating system. Marine Mammal Science 19:462-

483.

Perrin, W. F., N. Miyazaki, and T. Kasuya. 1989. A dwarf form of the spinner dolphin

(*Stenella longirostris*) from Thailand. Marine Mammal Science 5:213-227.

Perrin, W. F., G. D. Schnell, D. J. Hough, J. W. Gilpatrick Jr., and J. V. Kashiwada. 1994.

Reexamination of geographic variation in cranial morphology of the pantropical spotted

dolphin, *Stenella attenuata*, in the eastern Pacific. Fisheries Bulletin 92(2):324-346.

Perrin, W. F., M. D. Scott, G. J. Walker, and V. L. Cass. 1985. Review of geographical

stocks of tropical dolphins (*Stenella* spp. and *Delphinus delphis*) in the eastern Pacific.

NOAA Technical Report NMFS 28. 28 pp.

Perrin, W. F., E. D. Mitchell, J. G. Mead, D. K. Caldwell, M. C. Caldwell, P. J. H. Van

Bree, and W. H. Dawbin. 1987. Revision of the spotted dolphins, *Stenella* spp. Marine

Mammal Science 3:99–170.

Perryman, W. L., and R. L. Westlake. 1998. A new geographic form of the spinner

dolphin, *Stenella longirostris*, detected with aerial photogrammetry. Marine Mammal

Science 14:38-50.

Posada, D. 2008. jModelTest: Phylogenetic model averaging. Molecular Biology and

Evolution 25:1253-1256.

Pritchard, J. K., M. Stephens, and P. Donnelly. 2000. Inference of population structure

using multilocus genotype data. Genetics 155.2:945-959.

R Core Team. 2014. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R

Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. http://www.R-project.org/.

Read A. J., P. Drinker, S. Northridge. 2006. Bycatch of Marine Mammals in U.S. and

Global Fisheries. Conservation Biology 20(1):163-169.

Rieder, S., S. Taourit, D. Mariat, B. Langlois, and G. Guérin. 2001. Mutations in the

agouti (ASIP), the extension (MC1R), and the brown (TYRP1) loci and their association

to coat color phenotypes in horses (*Equus caballus*). Mammalian Genome, 12(6):450–

455.

Russello, M. A., S. L. Kirk, K. K. Frazer, and P. J. Askey. 2012. Detection of outlier loci

and their utility for fisheries management. Evolutionary Applications 5:39–52.

Scott, M. D., S. J. Chivers, R. J. Olson, P. C. Fiedler, and K. Holland. 2012. Pelagic

predator associations: Tuna and dolphins in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean. Marine

Ecology Progress Series 458:283-302.

Stamatakis, A., T. Ludwig, and H. Meier. 2005. RAxML-III: a fast program for

maximum likelihood-based inference of large phylogenetic trees. Bioinformatics 21:456-

463.

Stewart, J. B., C. Freyer, J. L. Elson, A. Wredenberg, Z. Cansu, A. Trifunovic, N.

Larrson. 2008. Strong purifying selection in transmission of mammalian mitochondrial

DNA. PLoS Biol 6(1): e10. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.0060010

Tajima, F. 1983. Evolutionary relationship of DNA sequences in finite populations.

Genetics 105(2):437-460.

Tamura, K. and M. Nei. 1993. Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the

control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. Molecular Biology

and Evolution 10:512–26.

Tamura, K., D. Peterson, N. Peterson, *et al.* 2011. MEGA5: Molecular Evolutionary

genetics analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary distance, and maximum

parsimony methods. Molecular Biology and Evolution 28:2731-2739.

Tavare, S. 1986. Some probabilistic and statistical problems on the analysis of DNA

sequences. Lectures on Mathematics in the Life Sciences 17:57-86.

Taylor, B. L. 2005. Identifying Units to Conserve. Marine Mammal Research:

Conservation Beyond Crisis. Baltimore, MD. The Johns Hopkins University Press. 149-

164.

Taylor, B. L., and Dizon A. E. 1996. The need to estimate power to link genetics and

demography for conservation. Conservation Biology 10:661–664.

Taylor, B. L., Chivers, S. J., Sexton, S., and Dizon, A. E. 2000. Evaluating dispersal

estimates using mtDNA data: Comparing analytical and simulation approaches.

Conservation Biology 14:1287–1297.

Wade, P. R. 1995. Revised estimates of incidental kill of dolphins (Delphinidae) by the

purse-seine tuna fishery in the eastern tropical Pacific, 1959-1972. Fishery Bulletin

93:345-354.

1001

1002   Wade, P. R., G. M. Watters, T. Gerrodette, and S. B. Reilly. 2007. Depletion of spotted

1003   and spinner dolphins in the eastern tropical Pacific: Modelling hypotheses for their lack

1004   of recovery. Marine Ecology Progress Series 343:1-14.

1005

1006   Waples, R. S. 1998. Separating the wheat from the chaff: patterns of genetic

1007   differentiation in high gene flow species. Journal of Heredity 89(5):438-450.

1008

1009   Willing, E.-M., C. Dreyer, and C. van Oosterhout. 2012. Estimates of genetic

1010   differentiation measured by F_{ST} do not necessarily require large sample sizes when using

1011   many SNP markers. PLoS ONE 7(8): e42649.

1012

1013   Weir, B.S., and C. C. Cockerham. 1984. Estimating F-statistics for the analysis of

1014   population structure. Evolution 38(6):1358-1370.

1015

1016   Wright, S. 1949. The genetical structuring of populations. Annals of Eugenics 15(1):323-

1017   354.

1018

1019   Xiong, Y., M. C. Brandley, S. Xu, K. Zhou, and G. Yang. 2009. Seven new dolphin

1020   mitochondrial genomes and a time-calibrated phylogeny of whales. BMC Evolutionary

1021   Biology 9:20.

1022

1023

Table 1. Summary statistics for ETP spinner (A) and spotted (B) dolphin mitogenome data. n_H: number of haplotypes; PS: polymorphic sites; h: haplotype diversity; π: nucleotide diversity; %: percent of unique haplotypes.

A. Spinner dolphins *Stenella longirostris* (n = 104)						
Subspecies/Stock	**n:female/male/unk**	**n_H**	**PS**	***h***	**π**	**%**
Central American *S. l. centroamericana*	9:4/4/1	8	648	0.9722	0.0057	0.7778
eastern~ *S. l. orientalis*	53:28/19/6	51	648	0.9985	0.0073	0.9245
Putative Stocks						
whitebelly *S. l. longirostris*	27:16/11/0	27	457	1	0.0043	1
Tres Marias^~ *S. l. orientalis*	21:8/10/3	20	373	0.9952	0.0078	0.9048
Hawai'i *S. l. longirostris*	15:1/4/10	9	104	0.9921	0.0068	0.8260

B. Spotted dolphins *Stenella attenuata* (n = 76)						
Subspecies	**n:female/male/unk**	**n_H**	**PS**	***h***	**π**	**%**
Coastal *S. a. graffmani*	24:11/13/0	16	234	0.9529	0.0162	0.5000
ETP offshore[§] *S. a. attenuata*	47:20/19/8	43	519	0.9804	0.0198	0.7222
Offshore Stocks (*S. a. attenuata*) - Current and Putative^						
northeastern	25:10/8/7	22	400	0.9867	0.0238	0.8000
western-southern	17:9/7/1	17	298	1	0.0096	1
Offshore western^	8:7/1/0	8	191	1	0.0087	1
Offshore southern^	9:2/6/1	9	253	1	0.0092	1
Hawai'i	5:1/3/1	3	36	0.7000	0.0244	0.4000

^ Stocks that are not recognized for management purposes. ~ The Tres Marias spinner samples are part of the eastern stratum. [§] Includes data for five samples that were omitted from stock comparisons because they were sampled too close to geographic stock boundaries.

Table 2: Pairwise divergence estimates for subspecies and stocks of spinner dolphins based on concatenated mitogenome data (F_{ST}, Φ_{ST} and χ^2) and partitioned mitogenomic data (Φ_{ST} only). Light gray backgrounds for p<0.05; medium gray for p<0.01; darker gray backgrounds for p<0.001 (p-values in parentheses).

Taxon 1 (n) vs. Taxon 2 (n)	Concatenated mitogenome F_{ST} (p-value)	Φ_{ST} (p-value)	Partitioned mitogenome Φ_{ST} (p-value) 12s $n_H=24$	16s $n_H=24$	ATP6 $n_H=53$	ATP8 $n_H=11$	COI $n_H=65$	COII $n_H=39$	COIII $n_H=47$	CYTB $n_H=61$	CR $n_H=50$	ND1 $n_H=59$	ND2 $n_H=53$	ND3 $n_H=21$	ND4 $n_H=56$	ND4L $n_H=22$	ND5 $n_H=70$
Central Amer. (9) vs. eastern (53)	0.0133 (0.034)	-0.0127 (0.5235)	-0.0120 (0.5265)	0.0061 (0.4977)	-0.0076 (0.4001)	0.0590 (0.0801)	-0.0276 (0.8640)	-0.0199 (0.6988)	-0.0158 (0.5766)	-0.0094 (0.4711)	0.0017 (0.3983)	0.0148 (0.2501)	-0.0260 (0.7376)	0.0338 (0.1325)	-0.0287 (0.6950)	-0.0268 (0.7444)	-0.0139 (0.5368)
Central Amer. (9) vs. whitebelly (27)	0.0128 (0.056)	0.0490 (0.0542)	-0.0165 (0.5882)	0.0217 (0.1947)	0.0311 (0.1277)	0.1279 (0.0189)	0.0351 (0.0903)	0.0936 (0.0144)	0.0086 (0.2995)	0.0601 (0.0456)	0.0555 (0.0412)	0.0844 (0.0362)	0.0113 (0.2833)	0.1505 (0.0054)	0.0870 (0.0464)	0.0478 (0.0931)	0.0273 (0.1203)
eastern (53) vs. whitebelly (27)	0.0007 (0.2867)	0.0181 (0.0741)	0.0307 (0.0414)	0.0159 (0.0835)	0.0051 (0.2421)	-0.0065 (0.5546)	0.0264 (0.0288)	0.0342 (0.0152)	-0.0020 (0.4501)	0.0154 (0.1165)	0.0270 (0.0059)	0.0260 (0.0468)	0.0104 (0.1687)	0.0638 (0.0018)	0.0464 (0.0422)	0.0343 (0.0214)	0.0026 (0.2859)
Tres Marias (21) vs. Central Amer. (9)	0.0155 (0.0914)	-0.0345 (0.7576)	0.0113 (0.2921)	-0.0283 (0.7240)	-0.0436 (0.7284)	-0.0082 (0.2863)	-0.0393 (0.8636)	-0.0318 (0.7150)	-0.0301 (0.6752)	-0.0238 (0.5872)	-0.0102 (0.5328)	-0.0158 (0.5219)	-0.0451 (0.8698)	0.0022 (0.4025)	-0.0558 (0.8900)	-0.0638 (0.9470)	-0.0383 (0.7888)
Tres Marias (21) vs. eastern (32)	0.0009 (0.4107)	-0.0116 (0.7084)	-0.0109 (0.6474)	-0.0217 (0.9462)	-0.0088 (0.5169)	0.0019 (0.3119)	-0.0124 (0.7654)	-0.0182 (0.8772)	-0.0150 (0.8116)	-0.0062 (0.5291)	-0.0135 (0.8454)	-0.0117 (0.6898)	-0.0031 (0.4447)	-0.0206 (0.8894)	-0.0185 (0.7898)	-0.0049 (0.4887)	-0.0105 (0.6442)
Tres Marias (21) vs. whitebelly (27)	0.0024 (0.1934)	0.0263 (0.0807)	0.0421 (0.0643)	0.0111 (0.1979)	0.0086 (0.2423)	0.0175 (0.2421)	0.0323 (0.0519)	0.0406 (0.0362)	-0.0005 (0.3907)	0.0311 (0.0765)	0.0413 (0.0168)	0.0359 (0.0636)	0.0243 (0.1087)	0.0676 (0.0052)	0.0859 (0.0789)	0.0485 (0.0448)	0.0124 (0.1807)
Hawaii (15) vs. whitebelly (27)	0.0456 (0.0001)	0.1964 (0.0002)	0.0236 (0.1667)	0.3590 (0.0002)	0.2560 (0.0002)	-0.0127 (0.6582)	0.1964 (0.0002)	0.1885 (0.0006)	0.0154 (0.1363)	0.1031 (0.0004)	0.0771 (0.0036)	0.0818 (0.0026)	0.3302 (0.0002)	0.4467 (0.0002)	0.1324 (0.0002)	-0.0137 (0.2197)	01858 (0.0002)
Hawaii (15) vs. eastern (53)	0.0449 (0.0001)	0.1849 (0.0002)	0.0428 (0.0605)	0.3293 (0.0002)	0.2268 (0.0002)	-0.0002 (0.4031)	0.2061 (0.0002)	0.2104 (0.0002)	0.0338 (0.0625)	0.1182 (0.0026)	0.2050 (0.0002)	0.1406 (0.0012)	0.3090 (0.0002)	0.3283 (0.0002)	0.1339 (0.0025)	0.0170 (0.1643)	0.1494 (0.0007)
Hawaii (15) vs. Central Amer. (9)	0.0636 (0.0219)	0.3284 (0.0002)	-0.0083 (0.4045)	0.5265 (0.0002)	0.3328 (0.0004)	0.1600 (0.0631)	0.3983 (0.0002)	0.4280 (0.0002)	0.1415 (0.0034)	0.2474 (0.0002)	0.2464 (0.0002)	0.3091 (0.0002)	0.4352 (0.0004)	0.3863 (0.0002)	0.2728 (0.0002)	0.1597 (0.0701)	0.2854 (0.0004)
Hawaii (15) vs. Tres Marias (21)	0.0487 (0.0004)	0.2260 (0.0002)	0.0796 (0.0478)	0.3900 (0.0002)	0.2552 (0.0002)	0.0339 (0.2507)	0.2576 (0.0002)	0.2351 (0.0002)	0.0703 (0.0272)	0.1398 (0.0004)	0.1533 (0.0002)	0.1958 (0.0002)	0.3454 (0.0002)	0.3608 (0.0002)	0.1667 (0.0004)	0.0630 (0.0669)	0.1828 (0.0002)

Table 3. Pairwise divergence estimates (F_{ST}) for spinner and spotted dolphin subspecies, respectively, using all nuclear SNPs, and using only neutral SNPs. Light gray backgrounds for p<0.05; Medium gray for p<0.01; darker gray backgrounds for p<0.001.

Spinner dolphins		All 51 SNPs	42 Neutral SNPs
Taxon 1 n:female/male/unk	**Taxon 2** n:female/male/unk	F_{ST} **(p-value)**	F_{ST} **(p-value)**
Central American 7:3/3/1	eastern 28:15/7/6	-0.0023 (0.4485)	-0.0066 (0.5148)
Central American 7:3/3/1	whitebelly 21:12/9/0	0.0148 (0.2607)	0.0082 (0.3216)
eastern 28:15/7/6	whitebelly 21:12/9/0	0.0297 (0.0059)	0.0282 (0.0099)
Spotted dolphins		**All 36 SNPs**	**25 Neutral SNPs**
Offshore 13:6/6/1	Coastal 12:5/7/0	0 .1711 (0.001)	0.1493 (0.0005)

Table 4: Pairwise divergence estimates for subspecies and stocks of spotted dolphins using concatenated mitogenome data (F_{ST}, Φ_{ST} and χ^2) and partitioned mitogenomic data (Φ_{ST} only). n_H listed below each gene name is the number of haplotypes for that gene. Light gray backgrounds for p<0.05; medium gray for p<0.01; darker gray backgrounds for p<0.001 (p-values in parentheses). "*NA*" indicates comparisons where Φ_{ST} could not be estimated because all individuals in both strata share the same haplotype. "*" are where one stratum was n<5.

Taxon 1 (n) vs. Taxon 2 (n)	Concatenated mitogenome F_{ST} (p-value)	Φ_{ST} (p-value)	Partitioned mitogenome Φ_{ST} (p-value) 12S n_H=6	16S n_H=7	ATP6 n_H=20	ATP8 n_H=5	COI n_H=21	COII n_H=13	COIII n_H=11	CYTB n_H=20	CR n_H=20	ND1 n_H=15	ND2 n_H=17	ND3 n_H=10	ND4 n_H=23	ND4L n_H=2	ND5 n_H=29
Coastal (24) vs. Offshore (52)	0.0125 (0.0402)	-0.0091 (0.4961)	0.0089 (0.2553)	-0.0316 (0.9932)	-0.0149 (0.6788)	-0.0169 (0.7536)	0.0018 (0.3265)	-0.0133 (0.6182)	-0.0243 (0.8890)	-0.0143 (0.6067)	-0.0122 (0.7336)	-0.0099 (0.5357)	-0.0198 (0.7610)	-0.0222 (0.9006)	-0.0042 (0.4085)	0.0041 (0.3023)	-0.0056 (0.4217)
Northeastern (25) vs. western-southern (17)	0.0045 (0.2099)	-0.0076 (0.4111)	-0.0014 (0.3779)	0.0079 (0.2841)	-0.0156 (0.5332)	0.0057 (0.2691)	-0.0194 (0.6164)	0.0003 (0.3637)	-0.0193 (0.5067)	-0.0211 (0.5423)	-0.0091 (0.5552)	0.0086 (0.2585)	-0.0021 (0.3473)	-0.0068 (0.4139)	0.0039 (0.3077)	-0.0038 (0.3771)	-0.0187 (0.5574)
Coastal (24) vs. northeastern (25)	0.0302 (0.0002)	-0.0082 (0.4405)	0.0032 (0.3375)	-0.0326 (0.8096)	-0.0204 (0.7070)	-0.0061 (0.4689)	-0.0007 (0.3651)	-0.0060 (0.4325)	-0.0271 (0.7540)	-0.0201 (0.6148)	-0.0041 (0.4653)	0.0031 (0.3041)	-0.0119 (0.4797)	-0.0105 (0.4947)	0.0055 (0.2923)	0.0016 (0.3249)	-0.0125 (0.5309)
Coastal (24) vs. western-southern (17)	0.0144 (0.0884)	-0.0342 (0.8102)	-0.0186 (0.5621)	-0.0356 (0.6598)	-0.0297 (0.7402)	0.0081 (0.3153)	-0.0313 (0.8118)	-0.0355 (0.8624)	-0.0449 (0.8950)	-0.0385 (0.8666)	-0.0024 (0.8060)	-0.0392 (0.9142)	-0.0335 (0.7224)	-0.0393 (0.9112)	-0.0311 (0.7582)	-0.0360 (0.7624)	-0.0285 (0.6812)
Offshore southern (9) vs. offshore western (8)	0.0771 (0.2249)	0.1666 (0.0668)	-0.1717 (0.0781)	0.2129 (0.0618)	0.1167 (0.1039)	0.1117 (0.0801)	0.1229 (0.0743)	0.1361 (0.0939)	0.1816 (0.0767)	-0.0471 (0.4611)	0.0683 (0.1177)	0.1767 (0.0575)	0.1771 (0.0743)	0.1155 (0.1183)	0.2148 (0.0394)	0.1382 (0.1231)	0.1895 (0.0529)
Northeastern (25) vs. offshore western (8)	0.0027 (0.4291)	0.1135 (0.0517)	0.0853 (0.0945)	0.1848 (0.0352)	0.0728 (0.1223)	0.1128 (0.0252)	0.0575 (0.1397)	0.1164 (0.0504)	0.1117 (0.0749)	0.0064 (0.3259)	0.0348 (0.1635)	0.1525 (0.0372)	0.1179 (0.0775)	0.1142 (0.0697)	0.1497 (0.0394)	0.1309 (0.0689)	0.0894 (0.0957)
Northeastern (25) vs. offshore southern (9)	0.0073 (0.3755)	-0.0400 (0.7446)	-0.0242 (0.5728)	-0.0537 (0.8008)	-0.0468 (0.8162)	-0.0691 (0.9552)	-0.0291 (0.6287)	-0.0387 (0.7512)	-0.0491 (0.7828)	-0.0509 (0.8168)	-0.0300 (0.7886)	-0.0379 (0.7394)	-0.0392 (0.7150)	-0.0551 (0.9540)	-0.0238 (0.5626)	-0.0694 (0.9756)	-0.0327 (0.6092)
Coastal (24) vs. offshore southern (9)	0.0255 (0.0762)	-0.0130 (0.4065)	-0.0323 (0.5874)	-0.0277 (0.4713)	-0.0279 (0.5721)	-0.0147 (0.4071)	-0.0122 (0.4423)	-0.0079 (0.3971)	-0.0227 (0.4611)	-0.0579 (0.8690)	-0.0418 (0.8558)	-0.0012 (0.3477)	-0.0419 (0.6714)	-0.0309 (0.5854)	0.0051 (0.3209)	-0.0160 (0.4301)	-0.0030 (0.3453)
Coastal (24) vs. offshore western (8)	0.0049 (0.4321)	0.0749 (0.1331)	0.1368 (0.0559)	0.1366 (0.0855)	0.0594 (0.1583)	0.1363 (0.0167)	0.0751 (0.1281)	0.0406 (0.1953)	0.0769 (0.1535)	-0.0089 (0.3361)	0.0488 (0.1359)	0.0609 (0.1541)	0.0901 (0.1101)	-0.0372 (0.2059)	0.1067 (0.0881)	0.0239 (0.2425)	0.0841 (0.1269)
Hawaii (5) vs. Coastal (24)	0.1430 (0.0026)	0.2773 (0.0208)	0.4166 (0.0019)	0.2176 (0.0572)	0.2767 (0.0174)	-0.0502 (0.5687)	0.4032 (0.0028)	0.1687 (0.0762)	0.2175 (0.0585)	-0.2859 (0.0254)	0.2037* (0.0326)	0.3643 (0.0049)	0.1575* (0.0947)	0.3085 (0.0042)	0.2660 (0.0252)	0.2811 (0.0202)	0.2541 (0.0244)
Hawaii (5) vs. Offshore (47)	0.1181 (0.0006)	0.1582 (0.0389)	0.1806 (0.0422)	-0.1282 (0.1107)	0.1882 (0.0352)	-0.0459 (0.6156)	-0.2138 (0.0124)	-0.0818 (0.1323)	0.1361 (0.0632)	-0.0849 (0.1481)	0.1485* (0.0475)	0.2598 (0.0082)	0.1146* (0.1449)	0.2609 (0.0054)	0.1239 (0.0593)	0.1689 (0.0545)	0.1303 (0.0517)
Hawaii (5) vs. northeastern (25)	0.0576 (0.2709)	0.1308 (0.0645)	0.1153 (0.0962)	0.0809 (0.1793)	0.1584 (0.0353)	-0.0198 (0.4695)	-0.1981 (0.0206)	0.0638 (0.1739)	0.1099 (0.1123)	0.1478 (0.0714)	0.1372* (0.0567)	0.2499 (0.0102)	0.0869* (0.1279)	0.2751 (0.0051)	0.0984 (0.1029)	0.1446 (0.0843)	0.0951 (0.1355)
Hawaii (5) vs. western-southern (17)	0.2474 (0.0702)	0.2273 (0.0238)	0.2942 (0.0284)	0.2139 (0.0774)	0.2670 (0.0297)	-0.0542 (0.8308)	0.2583 (0.0244)	0.1353 (0.1133)	-0.1992 (0.0547)	0.2259 (0.0286)	0.1704* (0.0547)	0.3089 (0.0196)	0.1793*(0.1473)	0.2751 (0.0234)	0.1925 (0.0356)	0.2673 (0.0342)	0.2062 (0.0366)
Hawaii (5) vs. offshore western (8)	0.4958 (0.0732)	0.4932 (0.0179)	0.4558 (0.0318)	0.5298 (0.0168)	0.4984 (0.0148)	0.0285 (0.3925)	0.4640 (0.0119)	0.4572 (0.0364)	0.5036 (0.0352)	0.0013 (0.4061)	0.3598* (0.0771)	0.5523 (0.0039)	0.4484* (0.0328)	0.4915 (0.0033)	0.5093 (0.0114)	0.1309 (0.0689)	.0924 (0.1393)
Hawaii (5) vs. offshore southern (9)	0.1509 (0.2207)	0.1274 (0.1167)	0.3012 (0.0268)	0.0306 (0.2757)	0.1750 (0.0718)	0.0443 (0.1961)	0.2126 (0.0202)	0.0036 (0.4437)	0.0161 (0.3045)	0.1384 (0.0872)	-0.1260* (0.0865)	0.2138 (0.0178)	0.0039* (0.2641)	-0.0551 (0.0206)	0.0808 (0.1389)	0.1382 (0.1231)	0.5038 (0.0198)

Table 5. Summary table of pairwise comparisons using mtDNA and nuDNA data sets (sample sizes in parentheses). In the mtDNA column, a "☐" denotes significance of whole mtDNA based on at least one measure (see Tables 2-4), 'ns' = non-significant, " ~ " = indicating possible structure with *P*-value between 0.05 and 0.1. "# Genes" is the number of significant mtDNA genes ("~" + # for nearly significant genes). For the nuDNA column, a "☐" denotes significance and '*NA*' denotes not tested (Leslie & Morin 2016; *Escorza-Treviño et al.* 2005).

Spinner dolphins	Taxon 1 (n_{mt}/n_{nuc})	Taxon 2 (n_{mt}/n_{nuc})	mtDNA Whole	# Genes	nuDNA
Test of endemic subspecies	Central American (9/9)	eastern (53/36)	☐	0	☐
Testing whitebelly intergrade	Central American (9/7)	whitebelly (27/15)	~	7: ~1	☐
Testing whitebelly intergrade	eastern (54/36)	whitebelly (27/15)	~	8; ~1	☐
Alternative stock hypotheses	Tres Marias (21/12)	Central American (9/9)	~	0	☐
""	Tres Marias (21/12)	Eastern (32/36)	ns	0	☐
""	Tres Marias (21/12)	Whitebelly (27/12)	~	4; ~5	☐
""	Hawaii (15/0)	Whitebelly (27/0)	☐	11	*NA*
""	Hawaii (15/0)	Eastern (32/0)	☐	11; ~1	*NA*
""	Hawaii (15/0)	Central American (9/0)	☐	12; ~1	*NA*
""	Hawaii (15/0)	Tres Marias (21/0)	☐	13; ~1	*NA*

Spotted dolphins	Taxon 1 (n_{mt}/n_{nuc})	Taxon 2 (n_{mt}/n_{nuc})	Whole	# Genes	nuDNA
Testing subspecies	Offshore (52/13)	Coastal (24/27)	☐	0	☐*
Testing existing stocks	Offshore NE (25/15)	Off. western-southern (17/16)	ns	0	☐
Testing existing stocks	Offshore NE (25/15)	Coastal (24/27)	☐	0	☐
Testing existing stocks	Offshore WS (17/16)	Coastal (24/27)	~	0	☐
Alternative stock hypotheses	Offshore southern (9/0)	Offshore western (8/0)	~	1: ~9	*NA*
""	Offshore NE (25/0)	Offshore western (8/0)	~	4; ~7	*NA*
""	Offshore NE (25/0)	Offshore southern (9/0)	ns	0	*NA*
""	Offshore southern (9/0)	Coastal (24/0)	~	0	*NA*
""	Offshore western (8/0)	Coastal (24/0)	ns	1; ~3	*NA*
""	Hawaii (5/0)	Coastal (24/0)	☐	10; ~4	*NA*
""	Hawaii (5/0)	Offshore (52/0)	☐	6; ~4	*NA*
""	Hawaii (5/0)	Offshore NE (25/0)	~	4; ~4	*NA*
""	Hawaii (5/0)	Offshore WS (17/0)	☐	9: ~3	*NA*
""	Hawaii (5/0)	Offshore western (8/0)	☐	10; ~2	*NA*
""	Hawaii (5/0)	Offshore southern(9/0)	ns	5; ~3	*NA*

30   *Figure 1.* Sampling localities and range map for spinner dolphins within the ETP.
31   Subspecies and stock boundaries based on Perrin *et al.* 1985. Red dots indicate Central
32   American spinners. Blue symbols indicate eastern spinners - boxes are the proposed Tres
33   Marias form. Green dots indicate whitebelly spinners, a proposed intergrade between the
34
35

Figure 2. Sampling localities for spotted dolphins with ETP subspecies and stock
boundaries based on Perrin *et al.* 1985. Coastal spotted dolphins (*S. a. graffmani*) are in
red and offshore (*S a. attenuata*) are in blue. Blue circles indicate sampling locations for
the northeastern stock of offshore spotted dolphins. Blue triangles indicate samples from
Hawaii. Inverted triangles indicate southern offshore samples that were removed from
analyses of offshore stocks because they were collected between 4°N and 6°N; these
samples were included in subspecies-level analyses. Animals that represent the western
substock were the group of blue squares west of 120°W and animals representing the
southern sub-stock were the group of blue squares taken from south of the 5°N stock
boundary. Samples sizes for mtDNA analyses presented in the legend.