

PONTIFÍCIA UNIVERSIDADE CATÓLICA DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL
FACULDADE DE BIOCIÊNCIAS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ZOOLOGIA

**DIVERSIDADE GENÉTICA E ESTRUTURAÇÃO POPULACIONAL DO
LOBO-MARINHO-DE-GALÁPAGOS, *Arctocephalus galapagoensis***

Fernando Ricardo Vieira Lopes

DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO
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**Fernando Ricardo Vieira Lopes
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**DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO
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RESUMO

O lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos, *Arctocephalus galapagoensis*, apresenta uma das mais restritas distribuições geográficas dentro da família Otariidae, distribuindo-se especialmente à região noroeste das Ilhas Galápagos. Entre as principais ameaças à conservação da espécie está a caça, responsável pela quase extinção da espécie no início do século XIX, devido ao alto valor econômico e de subsistência da pele e gordura destes animais; e também os recorrentes eventos do fenômeno *El Niño*, o qual afeta toda a base da cadeia trófica do Pacífico equatorial e, por consequência, as espécies predadoras e de topo de cadeia trófica como o lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos. Tanto a caça, quanto os recorrentes eventos de *El Niño*, levaram a espécie à Lista Vermelha de Espécies Ameaçadas de Extinção da União Internacional para a Conservação da Natureza (do inglês IUCN), indicando que houve $\geq 50\%$ de redução populacional observada nos últimos 30 anos. No entanto, até o momento, não há estudos que verificaram possíveis efeitos dos problemas mencionados sobre a variabilidade genética da espécie, nem como esta variabilidade está representada espacialmente ao longo da área de distribuição do lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos. Para obter as informações de diversidade genética, estruturação populacional e para verificar possíveis oscilações demográficas, bem como verificar como a variabilidade está distribuída no espaço nós utilizamos de técnicas moleculares, aplicando o uso de dois tipos de marcadores de DNA: um mitocondrial (mtDNA - de herança exclusivamente materna), através da aplicação de parte da região controladora, e outro nuclear (herança biparental), através da aplicação de 18 loci de microssatélites de DNA em amostras coletadas nas três maiores colônias da espécie: Cabo Hammond (Ilha Fernandina), Baía Banks (Ilha Isabela) e Cabo Marshall (Ilha Isabela). Verificamos com nossos resultados que mesmo as colônias analisadas estando distante cerca de 70 Km há uma forte fidelidade das fêmeas ao sítio de nascimento, com 33,9% da variação no mtDNA estando particionada entre colônias. Por outro lado, a estrutura populacional inferida através dos loci nucleares foi fraca. Nossos resultados além de mostrar uma forte fidelidade das fêmeas ao sítio de nascimento, mostrou que os machos são os principais responsáveis pelo fluxo gênico e que a fidelidade ao sítio de nascimento das fêmeas pode ser convertida em estruturação genética espacial em fina escala, mesmo em espécies que apresentam alta capacidade de deslocamento como é o caso de diversas espécies de pinípedes e, em especial, o lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos. Neste sentido, discutimos também neste estudo a importância da filopatria natal e consequente estruturação genética em fina escala para o manejo e conservação do lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos, neste que um dos maiores e mais representativos santuários da vida silvestre, o arquipélago de Galápagos.

ABSTRACT

The Galapagos fur seal, *Arctocephalus galapagoensis*, shows one of the most restricted species distribution range under the Otariidae family, with its distribution restricted to northwest of Galapagos Islands. Among the major threats to the conservation of Galapagos fur seals was the exploitation, that almost drove the species to extinction in the early nineteenth century due to the high economic and subsistence value of its skin and blubber. Currently, the species faces frequent events of *El Niño* that affect the base of the food chain in the equatorial Pacific Ocean, consequently the predatory and top predatory species like the fur seals. Both hunting and *El Niño* events led the species to Red List of Endangered Species of International Union for Conservation of Nature, indicating a $\geq 50\%$ of population in the last 30 years. However, until now, there are no studies related to conservation problems and genetic variability and how genetic variability is represented in the space along the distribution range of Galapagos fur seal. To access the information about genetic diversity, population structure and demographic oscillation as well as how genetic variability is represented in the space we used molecular techniques applying two kinds of markers: a mitochondrial marker (control region, maternal inheritance) and nuclear marker (18 microsatellites loci, bi-parental inheritance). The fur seals were sampled in the three major Galapagos fur seals colonies: Cape Hammond (Fernandina Island), Banks Bay (Isabela Island) and Cape Marshall (Isabela Islands). Our results showed that there is a strong female natal fidelity with 33.9% of mtDNA occurring among partitioned colonies. In this sense, this natal philopatry, was converted in fine-scale matrilineal population structure. In the other hand, the population structure inferred by nuclear loci was weak. This suggests that males are the main responsible by gene flow among sampled localities, even in a highly mobile species like Galapagos fur seal. Here we discuss the importance of natal philopatry and fine-scale matrilineal population structure of Galapagos fur seal species and their implications for management and conservation in the one of the most representative wildlife sanctuaries, the Galapagos archipelago.

APRESENTAÇÃO GERAL

Esta dissertação de mestrado é apresentada sob forma de artigo científico e está configurada de acordo com as normas do periódico *Conservation Genetics*. Todas as legendas de figuras, figuras, tabelas e material suplementar estão incluídos ao final do artigo e estão conforme o permitido pelo periódico. Abaixo uma breve descrição sobre a biologia, ecologia e *status* de conservação da espécie.

O lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos, *Arctocephalus galapagoensis*, é endêmico do arquipélago de Galápagos (IUCN 2014) ($00^{\circ}35' S$, $91^{\circ}00' O$) (Fig. 1A) e juntamente com o leão-marinho-de-Galápagos, *Zalophus wollebaeki*, são as únicas espécies de pinípedes que se reproduzem no Equador (Alava e Salazar 2006; IUCN 2014). O lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos ocorre principalmente na porção noroeste do arquipélago (nas ilhas Fernandina e Isabela), em locais onde há ressurgência de águas frias, ricas em nutrientes e alimentos (Alava e Salazar 2006). O lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos é considerado o menor lobo-marinho existente e apresenta pouco dimorfismo sexual quando comparada as demais espécies da família Otariidae. Os machos possuem de 1,5-1,6 m de comprimento e 60-68 kg de peso, enquanto as fêmeas possuem cerca de 1,1-1,3 m e pesam entre 21,5 e 33 kg (Jefferson et al. 2008; IUCN 2014).

O lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos foi intensamente caçado no início do século XIX, por causa do alto valor da sua pele e gordura. Devido a isso, entre 1816 e 1933 foi registrada a captura de cerca de 22.500 animais (Bastida et al. 2007; Reeves et al. 1992). A espécie foi primeiramente caçada por tripulantes de navios baleeiros que capturavam estes animais ao adentrar em terra firme na busca por alimento e água potável e, posteriormente, por caçadores profissionais de pinípedes. Há registros de que em apenas uma campanha de caça, conduzida pelo Capitão Fanning em 1816, cerca de 8.000 animais foram abatidos (Townsend 1934; Trillmich 1987). Neste sentido, a caça foi o maior problema de conservação enfrentado não só por esta espécie, bem como por todas as demais espécies de lobos e leões-marinhos. Desta maneira, a caça exploratória quase levou à extinção na natureza do lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos (Weber et al. 2004).

No final do século XIX os efeitos da caça haviam sido tão intensos que não se encontravam colônias reprodutivas efetivamente formadas, apenas pequenos grupos de lobos-marinhos dispersos pelo arquipélago (Trillmich 1987). No entanto, em 1957, uma pequena colônia reprodutiva de ~100 espécimes foi encontrada na Ilha Santiago por Eibl-Eibesfeldt

(1959). Entre os anos 1960 e 1970 novas colônias reprodutivas foram descobertas e novos censos estimaram a existência de 1.000-4.000 animais, de acordo com Leveque (1962) e Orr (1972). Entre 1977 e 1978, foram contabilizados 9.785 lobos-marinhos (Trillmich e Mohren 1981) nas principais ilhas de Galápagos e a partir deste valor 30.000 indivíduos foram estimados para o arquipélago como um todo. Atualmente, a IUCN estima a existência de 10.000 a 15.000 lobos-marinhos-de-Galápagos (IUCN 2014)

Durante os eventos de *El Niño*-Oscilação-Sul (ENSO, do inglês *El Niño-Southern Oscillation*), com aquecimento das águas superficiais do oceano Pacífico as correntes oceânicas que levam águas de alta produtividade primária ao arquipélago de Galápagos são afastadas daquela região e com isso toda a cadeia trófica dependente destes recursos é afetada. Estes eventos foram e continuam sendo responsáveis pela morte por inanição de uma parcela significativa da população de *A. galapagoensis* (Trillmich e Dellinger 1991). Acredita-se que os eventos de *El Niño* ocorridos em 1982-83 e 1996-98 foram responsáveis pela diminuição em até 50% da população em cada um dos períodos mencionados (Bastida et al. 2007; IUCN 2014; Trillmich e Dellinger 1991; Trillmich e Limberger 1985), acarretando, inclusive, em dispersões erráticas. Durante os eventos de ENSO vários espécimes já foram registrados na região continental do Equador, Costa Rica, Colômbia, México e possivelmente no Peru (Aurioles-Gamboa et al. 2004; Capella et al. 2002; Félix et al. 2001; Montero-Cordero et al. 2010), ou seja, de 1.000 a 3.000 km distante da sua área de distribuição original. *Arctocephalus galapagoensis* não possui movimentos migratórios fora das Ilhas Galápagos.

O lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos está protegido pela legislação equatoriana desde 1930. No entanto, sua proteção tornou-se efetiva somente após 1959, quando grande parte das Ilhas Galápagos foi declarada Parque Nacional (Seal Conservation Society 2010). As águas ao redor do arquipélago também são protegidas e incluem uma zona de proibição de pesca de 40 milhas náuticas (Heylings et al. 2002). Atualmente, o lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos encontra-se listado como “Em Perigo” na Lista Vermelha de Espécies Ameaçadas de Extinção da União Internacional para a Conservação da Natureza (IUCN), estando incluído na categoria A2a. Isto indica que houve $\geq 50\%$ de redução populacional observada da espécie nos últimos 30 anos, sendo esta redução atribuída principalmente aos intensos eventos de *El Niño* de 1982-83 e 1996-98 (Trillmich e Limberger 1985; IUCN 2014). A espécie também está incluída no Apêndice II da Convenção sobre o Comércio Internacional de Espécies Ameaçadas da Fauna e Flora Silvestres (CITES 2014). Neste apêndice estão incluídas as espécies que não estão

necessariamente ameaçadas de extinção, mas que poderiam chegar a estar a menos que o comércio não seja rigidamente controlado e também aquelas consideradas espécies semelhantes às incluídas na lista CITES por motivos de conservação (CITES 2014).

Apesar da restrita distribuição geográfica, das grandes pressões exercidas em decorrência dos eventos de *El Niño* e da caça indiscriminada sofrida pela espécie, nenhum estudo avaliou a variabilidade genética, a existência de gargalos populacionais, a estruturação populacional nas Ilhas Galápagos e as suas consequências para o manejo e conservação da espécie. Os únicos estudos moleculares sobre *A. galapagoensis* estão basicamente relacionados às análises filogenéticas da família Otariidae e à identificação de indivíduos erráticos através da análise de poucas sequências de DNA mitocondrial (mtDNA) (e.g. Aurioles-Gamboa et al. 2004; Capella et al. 2002; Felix et al. 2001; Montero-Cordero et al. 2010; Wnen et al. 2001; Yonezawa et al. 2009). Neste sentido, este estudo abordou as questões mencionadas acima através da análise de marcadores moleculares extra-nucleares (DNA mitocondrial ou mtDNA) e nucleares (microssatélites) da população do lobo-marinho-de-Galápagos.

É importante mencionar que no grupo dos pinípedes (lobos-marinhos, leões-marinhos, focas e morsas), as fêmeas normalmente são filopátricas ao sítio de nascimento, sendo os machos os principais responsáveis pelo estabelecimento do fluxo gênico entre as populações (Riedman 1990; Fabiani et al. 2003). Desta maneira, a utilização apenas do marcador mitocondrial oferece resultados parciais, por ser insensível ao fluxo gênico mediado pelos machos. Assim, uma avaliação conjunta do mtDNA e de diversos locos de microssatélites, os quais refletem herança bi-parental nas populações (Hancock 1999), é essencial para um estimativa mais ampla sobre os processos atuantes sobre o genoma da espécie.

Os marcadores nucleares de microssatélites tem sido amplamente utilizados em pesquisas voltadas para determinação dos níveis de diversidade genética, para identificação de subdivisões geográficas entre populações de mamíferos aquáticos e recentemente na análise de demografia populacional histórica (Allen et al. 1995; Gemmel et al. 1997; Luikart e Cornuet 1998; Oliveira et al. 2009). Tais marcadores são frequentemente utilizados em estudos de populações naturais por serem extremamente polimórficos, possuindo uma alta taxa de mutação, na ordem de 10^{-5} a 10^{-2} por geração (Jarne e Lagoda 1996), além de apresentarem alelos co-dominantes e de normalmente serem seletivamente neutros.

Além do conhecimento científico, a avaliação dos resultados gerados a partir da análise do mtDNA e dos loci de microssatélites de DNA das populações do lobos-marinhos-de-

Galápagos permitiram testar a hipótese dos efeitos de caça/ENSO sobre a variabilidade genética da espécie. Ou seja, se as reduções populacionais resultantes de caça ou ENSO foram suficientemente fortes para que fosse retirada variabilidade genética da espécie, bem como resultasse em oscilações negativas no tamanho efetivo populacional. Além disso, é fundamental que se saiba o quanto as espécies formalmente descritas apresentam subdivisões geográficas, pois tais diferenças resultam em diferentes estratégias de conservação e manejo ao longo da distribuição da espécie (Eizirik 1996; Frankham et al., 2002).

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Artigo Científico

Fine-scale matrilineal population structure in the Galapagos fur seal and its implications for
conservation management

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Artigo no formato de submissão ao periódico

Conservation Genetics

1 Fine-scale matrilineal population structure in the Galapagos fur seal and its implications

2 for conservation management

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28 **Abstract**

29 Females of many pinniped species generally exhibit strong fine-scale philopatry, but it is unclear over
30 what spatial scale this behavior may translate into genetic population structure. We conducted a population genetic
31 survey in the Galapagos fur seal, *Arctocephalus galapagoensis*, an endangered pinniped endemic to a small
32 geographic range in the northwest of the Galapagos archipelago. To assess patterns of genetic diversity levels and
33 population differentiation mediated by sex-specific gene flow, we analyzed part of the mitochondrial control region
34 (mtDNA) and 18 microsatellites DNA markers. We detected similar levels of genetic diversity to many other
35 pinniped species ($h=0.86$, $\pi=0.012$, $A=7.44$) despite severe anthropogenic exploitation in the nineteenth century
36 and recurrent population crashes due to recent climatic perturbations associated with El Niño Southern Oscillation
37 (ENSO) events. We further found remarkably strong fine-scale matrilineal population structure, with 33.9% of the
38 mtDNA variation being partitioned among colonies separated by as little as 70 km swimming distance. In contrast,
39 population structure inferred from nuclear markers was weak. Our findings provide further evidence that natal
40 philopatry can translate into fine-scale genetic population structure in highly mobile species. We discuss the
41 relevance of our results for the fine-scale conservation management of this species with a very restricted
42 geographic range.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Natal philopatry is widespread among animals (e.g. Greenwood 1980). Returning to the location where
46 one was successfully raised to reproduce may allow individuals to benefit from locally suitable habitat (Shields
47 1982) and from interactions with known neighbours or kin (Greenwood 1980; Shields 1982; Wolf and Trillmich
48 2008). However, philopatry may also increase competition among related individuals and may lead to inbreeding,
49 thereby reducing genetic variation and adaptive potential. This in turn may contribute towards negative population
50 dynamics (Forcada and Hoffmann 2014) and eventually increase the risk of extinction (Shields 1982).

51 Despite its importance, natal philopatry is difficult to study via direct observation and requires long-term
52 mark-recapture studies. One indirect solution is to apply genetic markers, either to genetically identify individuals
53 across multiple years (Hoffman et al. 2006a) or to indirectly quantify the intensity and spatial scale of homing
54 behaviour by evaluating population genetic structure. Philopatry will in general reduce gene flow among
55 populations and increase the effects of genetic drift. In species with male-biased dispersal, the reduction will be
56 more pronounced in the maternally inherited mitochondrial genome. A striking example of this comes from a study
57 that identified remarkably strong fine-scale structuring for Australian sea lions (*Neophoca cinerea*), with colonies
58 as close as ~100 km apart characterised by unique mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) haplotypes (Campbell et al.
59 2008). The implication of this observation is that female recruitment occurs mainly from within the colony, leading
60 to higher risk of localized extinction such as may be caused by human perturbations or demographic and/or
61 environmental stochasticity (Goldsworthy and Page 2007), and a lower propensity to recolonize previous breeding
62 areas. This pattern follows the common observation in pinnipeds that maternally inherited mtDNA markers are
63 more differentiated than nuclear markers (Stanley et al. 1996; Hoffman et al. 2009; Wolf et al. 2008) what is
64 consistent with the expectation of male-biased dispersal (Perrin and Mazalov 2000).

65 Uniparental nonrecombining mtDNA has shorter coalescent times than nuclear DNA and is thus well
66 suited to delineate young evolutionarily significant units – ESUs (Corl and Ellegren 2012), that should ideally be
67 reciprocally monophyletic for mtDNA alleles and show significant divergence of allele frequencies of nuclear loci
68 (*e.g.* microsatellites) (*sensu* Mortiz 1994). ESUs objectively define units below the level of species that should be
69 prioritized for protection when they are under threat (Ryder 1986; Moritz 1994; Chan et al. 2006; Hedrick et al.
70 2006; Robalo et al. 2007; Bottin et al. 2007) in face of limited resources (Avise 1989). Characterization of
71 population structure and identification of ESUs allow the adoption of more effective conservation management
72 strategies, mainly related to the translocation and reintroduction of endangered species, in order to maximize the
73 overall viability of a metapopulation (McCarthy et al. 2004; Akçakaya et al. 2007).

74 In addition to the implications of female philopatry for ESU delineation, extreme philopatry can be of
75 concern where it is associated with a polygynous mating system, as is characteristic for otariid seals (Boness 1991).
76 In this case, declines in female numbers will strongly affect local operational sex ratios, impact local genetic
77 diversity and make local populations vulnerable to genetic (*e.g.* inbreeding, drift, bottlenecks), environmental (*e.g.*
78 *El Niño*, global climate change) or anthropogenic (*e.g.* hunting) impacts that may increase extinction risk
79 (Frankham et al. 2002). According to Cornuet and Luikart (1996), many populations around the world are suffering
80 demographic bottlenecks (reduction of census size) and genetic bottlenecks (reduction of effective population size,
81 N_e) as a result of increasing habitat fragmentation and isolation. The analysis of genetic diversity can be used to
82 test the hypothesis of whether a population that may have experienced recently a genetic bottleneck by comparing
83 its empirical heterozygosity (H_e) of a sampled population with the heterozygosity expected in an equilibrium
84 population (H_{eq}). In nonbottlenecked populations near mutation-drift equilibrium, H_{eq} will be equivalent to the
85 observed heterozygosity under Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (H_e). However, if a population has suffered a recent
86 bottleneck, the mutation-drift equilibrium is transiently disrupted and H_e will exceed H_{eq} computed from the
87 number of alleles in the sample (Luikart and Cornuet 1998).

88 The Galapagos fur seal (GFS), *Arctocephalus galapagoensis*, is a non-migratory species that is endemic
89 and resident of the Galapagos Islands, Ecuador (00°35'S, 91°00'W, Fig. 1A), where it is mainly distributed across
90 the northern and western parts of the archipelago (mainly Fernandina and Isabela islands). The species' geographic
91 range is unusually small for a pinniped species, covering an area smaller than the Galapagos Marine Reserve (less
92 than 140,000 km²). This limited distribution reflects the highly localized influence of an upwelling of cold,
93 nutrient-rich waters from the Humboldt and Cromwell currents, which provide sufficient food resources (Alava
94 and Salazar 2006; IUCN 2014). The species' small range and its mobility set the stage to study the potential impact
95 of philopatry at a high spatial resolution.

96 The GFS is also an important species from a conservation perspective. It was driven to the brink of
97 extinction by human hunting and no well-defined GFS breeding colonies remained in the archipelago towards the
98 end of the 19th century (Heller 1904 *apud* Trillmich 1987). Protective measures were put in place in 1930, but the
99 population only began to recover after 1959, when the Galapagos archipelago was declared a National Park (Seal
100 Conservation Society 2010). Nowadays, the population size is believed to range between 10,000 and 15,000
101 individuals (IUCN 2014). Currently, the GFS is listed in the appendix II of CITES, delineating species that are not
102 necessarily threatened by extinction but may become so unless trade is closely controlled (CITES 2014). The GFS
103 is also categorized as Endangered by IUCN Red List and falls into the A2a category, which applies to species that
104 have suffered a 50% or greater population decline over the last 10 years or three generations (IUCN 2014).

105 The GFS population is also subject to natural fluctuations due to *El Niño Southern Oscillation* (ENSO)
106 events (Wyrtki 1982; Philander 1983; Trillmich and Limberger 1985). These events take their toll on the GFS
107 because they reduce local marine productivity in the Galapagos Islands, thereby affecting the entire food chain
108 including top predators such as fur seals and sea lions (Wyrtki 1982; Philander 1983; Trillmich and Limberger
109 1985). ENSO events significantly decrease survival rates (Trillmich and Wolf 2008) and have been responsible
110 for the death by starvation of significant proportions of the GFS population (Trillmich and Dellinger 1991), with
111 the strongest events of the century (1982-83 and 1996-98) being associated with crashes of up to 50% (Trillmich

112 and Dellinger 1991; Trillmich and Limberger 1985; Alava and Salazar 2006; Bastida et al. 2007). Locally reduced
113 food availability in particularly harsh years could potentially explain why the GFS has been observed foraging as
114 far afield as the coastlines of Ecuador, Costa Rica, Colombia, Mexico and Peru (Félix et al. 2001; Capella et al.
115 2002; Auriolles-Gamboa et al. 2004; Montero-Cordero et al. 2010).

116 Previous genetic studies of the GFS have either included small numbers of individuals to elucidate wider
117 species relationships (Wynen et al. 2001; Wolf et al. 2007; Dasmahapatra et al. 2009) or focused on identifying
118 vagrant animals using a handful of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) sequences (e.g. Félix et al. 2001; Capella et al.
119 2002; Auriolles-Gamboa et al. 2004; Yonezawa et al. 2009; Montero-Cordero et al. 2010). Here, we carried out a
120 study on the genetic structure, genetic diversity and bottleneck histories of all of the main breeding colonies of this
121 species, using mtDNA and microsatellites to provide female and male mediated perspectives respectively. We
122 discuss the genetic consequences of natal philopatry and their implications for conservation management.

123

124 **Material and Methods**

125 **Sample collection and DNA extraction**

126 A total of 90 *A. galapagoensis* tissue samples were collected from pups (49 males and 41 females) during
127 2004, comprising 30 samples each from the three main GFS breeding colonies at Cape Hammond, Fernandina
128 Island (designated CH, 0°18' S, 91°39' W), Banks Bay, Isabela Island (designated BB, °02'S, 91°24'W) and Cape
129 Marshall, Isabela Island (designated CM, 0°00'S, 91°12'W), respectively (Fig. 1). Tissue samples of ~0.5 cm³
130 were collected using piglet ear notch pliers (Majluf and Goebel 1992) from the interdigital membrane of the hind
131 flipper. All animals from each colony were sampled in the same local area and within a couple of hours of each
132 other. Every sampled pup was individually identified using shave marks to ensure that no animal was sampled
133 twice. In order to rule out the possibility of inclusion of closely related individuals, we calculated pairwise genetic
134 relatedness (Lynch and Ritland 1999) using GenAlEx 6.5 (Peakall and Smouse 2006, 2012). Only one pair of

135 specimens was estimated to be closely related ($r>0.25$) and we have therefore removed one of these animals from
136 subsequent analyses.

137 Authorities of the Galapagos National Park (*Servicio Parque Nacional Galápagos*) approved sample
138 collection and exportation under license number 099/04 – SPNG of Project Social Structure in sea lion colonies -
139 PC-01-03. The samples were cryo-preserved in 70% ethanol at the Department of Animal Behaviour in Bielefeld,
140 where genomic DNA was extracted following a standard phenol-chloroform protocol (Sambrook et al. 1989).

141

142 **Mitochondrial DNA amplification and analyses**

143 The following primers were used to amplify a 425 bp region of the mtDNA control region: R3 (L15926)
144 THR 5'- TCA AAG CTT ACA CCA GTC TTG TAA ACC - 3' (Kocher et al. 1989); TDKD (H16498) 5'- CCT
145 GAA GTA GGA ACC AGA TG - 3' (Slade et al. 1994). Each PCR was conducted in a 10 μ l reaction volume
146 containing 100 ng of template DNA, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 100 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.25
147 mM dNTPs, 0.25 μ M of each primer and 0.5 units of 5PrimeTaq polymerase (VWR). The following PCR
148 conditions were used: one cycle of five min at 94 °C; 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 60 s at 65 °C and 60 s at 72 °C;
149 and one final cycle of seven minutes at 72 °C. The resulting PCR products were purified using shrimp alkaline
150 phosphatase and exonuclease I (New England Biolabs) following the manufacturer's recommended protocol. All
151 fragments were then sequenced from both ends on an ABI 3730xl capillary sequencer using the Applied
152 Biosystems BigDye® Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit. Sequence quality was checked within ChromasPro
153 1.7.4 (<http://technelysium.com.au>). Sequences were then aligned automatically within ClustalW 2.1 (Thompson
154 et al. 1997) and one by one manually edited using Bioedit 7.1.3 (<http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/>). Poor quality
155 sequences at the beginning and end of the fragments were removed to yield a 220bp stretch of high-quality
156 sequence that was obtained for all individuals. Three individuals from Cape Marshall did not recover high quality
157 sequence data and were therefore removed from further analyses.

158 Haplotype (Hd) and nucleotide diversities (π) were quantified for the whole sample set and for each
159 colony separately using Arlequin 3.5.1.2 (Excoffier 2010) and DnaSP 5.10.1 (Rozas et al. 2003; Librado and Rozas
160 2009). Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) was conducted within Arlequin 3.5.1.2 (Excoffier 2010) to
161 quantify the amount of variation between and within colonies. AMOVA was conducted separately using F_{ST} (Weir
162 and Cockerham 1984) and Φ_{ST} (Tajima 1993). Haplotype networks were constructed using the median-joining
163 approach (Bandelt et al. 1999) implemented in Network 4.6.11 (<http://www.fluxus-engineering.com>).

164 Additionally, we calculated Fu's F_s (Fu 1997) and Tajima's D (Tajima 1989). Bayesian skyline
165 reconstructions were implemented using BEAUTi 1.7.4 and BEAST 1.7.4 (Drummond et al. 2012) for (i) all data
166 pooled, and (ii) each of the three populations. We used a HKY substitution model gamma site heterogeneity
167 (generated by likelihood with PAUP 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002)) with eight categories and a strict molecular clock
168 prior with Dickerson et al. (2010) mutation rate of 5.74×10^{-7} s/s/gen derived for *Callorhinus ursinus* (Hoffman et
169 al. 2011). Following implementation of 30,000,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) iterations, a Bayesian
170 Skyline Plot was generated using Tracer 1.5 (Drummond et al. 2012).

171

172 **Microsatellite DNA amplification and analysis**

173 We amplified 18 polymorphic loci previously developed for pinnipeds: ZcwB07, ZcwE04, ZcwE12,
174 ZcwF07, ZcwB09, ZcwD02, ZcwE03, ZcwE05 designed for *Zalophus wollebaeki* (Hoffman et al. 2007; Wolf et
175 al. 2006), ZcCgDh5.8 and ZcCgDh7tg designed for *Zalophus californianus* (Hernandez-Velasquez et al. 2005),
176 Hg1.3, Hg6.1, Hg6.3, Hg8.1 and Pv9 designed for *Halichoerus grypus* (Allen et al. 1995; Gemmel et al. 1997),
177 PvcA and PvcE, designed for *Phoca vitulina* (Coltman et al. 1996) and Agaz2, designed for *Arctocephalus gazella*
178 (Hoffman 2009). Forward primers were fluorescently labelled and PCRs were carried out in two separate
179 multiplexed reactions using a Type It Kit (Qiagen) (for details see Table 6) following the manufacturer's
180 recommended protocols. The following PCR profile was used: one cycle of five min at 94 °C; eight cycles of 30
181 s at 94 °C, 90 s at 60 °C and 60 s at 72 °C; 20 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 90 s at 56 °C, 60 s at 72 °C; and one final

182 cycle of 15 min at 72 °C. PCR products were resolved by electrophoresis on an ABI 3730xl capillary sequencer
183 and allele sizes were scored automatically using the program GeneMarker v1.95 and subsequently manually
184 inspected and adjusted when necessary.

185 Deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) and linkage disequilibrium (LD) were assessed
186 using Arlequin with 1,000,000 MCMC steps, 100,000 dememorization steps and 10,000 permutations.
187 Significance levels ($\alpha = 0.05$) for departure from HWE and for LD were corrected for multiple comparisons with
188 the sequential Bonferroni test (Rice 1989). A single locus deviated significantly from HWE in BB, but no
189 significant departures were found in the other colonies or after pooling all of the samples (Table 6). Significant
190 linkage desequilibrium was observed between ZcwE04 and ZcwE12, Pv9, PvcE and Hg1.3. We therefore removed
191 locus ZcwE04 from subsequent analyses.

192 Arlequin was also used to estimate expected heterozygosity (H_e) and observed heterozygosity (H_o), to
193 conduct AMOVA analysis of the microsatellite dataset, and to calculate F -statistics (F_{ST}). We then compared the
194 genetic diversity of this species to previously reported values for several other pinniped species (Table 7). To take
195 potential sex-bias in dispersal into account, all analyses of population structure were conducted using the overall
196 dataset and separately for male and female pups.

197 population structure was tested without prior knowledge of sampling locations, we estimated the posterior
198 probability of the data fitting the hypothesis of K clusters [$\text{Pr}(X|K)$], where K is the number of putative populations,
199 using the program Structure 2.3.4 (Pritchard et al. 2000). We performed 10 independent runs for each K from K
200 = 1 to K = 3 using 1,000,000 MCMC iterations and a burn-in period of 1,000,000. We checked for consistency
201 among replicate runs for the same K value and then computed the arithmetic mean of the 10 runs. We also carried
202 out a similar analysis using the program Structurama 2 (Huelsenbeck and Andolfatto 2007). This program uses a
203 particularly efficient variant of MCMC called Gibbs sampling, where each MCMC cycle involves a Gibbs scan of
204 all of the individuals. Hence the total number of MCMC cycles for the analysis is the product of the reported
205 number of MCMC cycles and the number of individuals in the analysis. We set the number of populations as a

206 random variable, a parameter that uses a Dirichlet process prior (Pella and Masuda 2006). We ran 1,000,000 cycles
207 for the random variable prior of the number of populations. The first 100,000 cycles were discarded as burn-in.
208 The hypothesis that GFS recently experienced one or more genetic bottlenecks was tested comparing the
209 expected heterozygosity (H_e) at each of the microsatellite loci to values expected under neutrality and equilibrium
210 conditions (H_{eq}). As shown by Cornuet and Luikart (1996), samples from populations that recently experienced
211 bottlenecks tend to have $H_e > H_{eq}$. In order to generate the expected heterozygosities under neutrality-equilibrium,
212 we used the program Bottleneck (Piry et al. 1999). This analysis was based on the general two-phase model (TPM),
213 because most loci probably evolve according to a model intermediate between infinite allele model (IAM, Kimura
214 and Crow 1964) and one-step stepwise mutation model (SMM, Otha and Kimura 1973; Di Rienzo et al. 1994).
215 The two-phase model includes both stepwise mutations and mutations larger than single steps and appears to
216 provide a reasonable fit to empirical evidence about the mutation process (Di Rienzo et al. 1994; Garza and
217 Williamson 2001). We recorded the number of loci for which sample heterozygosity exceeded neutrality-
218 equilibrium expectations and whether the overall set of deviations was significant (based on an one-tailed
219 Wilcoxon test, with the alternative hypothesis of heterozygosity excess). The Arlequin software was also used to
220 compute the Garza-Williamson modified index to verify the putative occurrence of a bottleneck and its influence
221 on genetic variability, denoted as M , which refers to the mean ratio of the number of alleles to the range in allele
222 size (Garza and Williamson 2001; Excoffier et al. 2005).

223

224 **Results**

225 **Mitochondrial DNA**

226 A 220 base pair fragment of the mtDNA control region was analysed for sequence variation in 87 GFS
227 individuals sampled from Banks Bay (BB), Cape Hammond (CH) and Cape Marshall (CM) (Table 1). Fourteen
228 segregating sites were found, all transition substitutions and two insertion-deletion sites (found in BB and CH). A

229 total of 14 haplotypes were identified of which only two were shared among all three populations (Ag3 and Ag5)
230 and one was shared between BB and CH (Ag6) (Fig. 1B and Table 2). The 11 remaining haplotypes were specific
231 to each colony (see Table 2 and Fig. 1B for details). Haplotype and nucleotide diversity were moderately high: H_d
232 = 0.86 ± 0.02 and $\pi = 0.012 \pm 0.0009$.

233 Mitochondrial Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) revealed evidence for strong population
234 differentiation, with 33.9% ($P < 0.001$) of the genetic variability being partitioned among the colonies (see Table
235 3). Pairwise Φ_{ST} estimates were of comparable magnitude between colonies: CM-BB ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.27$); CM-CH (Φ_{ST}
236 = 0.31); CH-BB ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.40$) (all significant at $P < 0.001$, Table 4). This pattern was also evident in the haplotype
237 network, which showed marked differences in haplotype frequencies between geographically adjacent colonies
238 (Fig. 1B). Tajima's D and Fu's F_S tests of selective neutrality yielded positive, but non-significant values (Tajima's
239 D : 0.37 ± 0.66 ; Fu's F_S : 0.36 ± 0.60) (Table 5) indicating no evidence for recent population expansion. Bayesian
240 Skyline Plots constructed for the entire dataset and also for each population showed no discernible oscillations in
241 N_{ef} over the last 8,000 years (based on the mutation rate of Dickerson et al. 2010 as described in the materials and
242 methods), other than a slight recent dip for which there is only tentative support (Fig. 2).

243

244 **Microsatellites**

245 All of the microsatellite loci were moderately polymorphic, with an average expected heterozygosity of
246 0.69 ($SD = 0.17$) and an average number alleles per locus of 7.44 ($SD = 3.05$) see table 6 and supplementary data).
247 AMOVA of the microsatellite data uncovered weak but significant ($P < 0.05$) population differentiation, both when
248 male and female pups were analysed together ($F_{ST} = 0.015 / R_{ST} = 0.035, P < 0.001$) and separately (males $F_{ST} =$
249 0.019 / $R_{ST} = 0.029$ and females $F_{ST} = 0.010 / R_{ST} = 0.029$). Weak but significant genetic differentiaion was also
250 observed in pairwise population comparisons (Table 4). In Bayesian cluster analysis within the program Structure,
251 the mean likelihood value for ten independent runs peaked at $K = 1$ (Fig. 3), consistent with a lack of population
252 structure. Structurama generated similar results, with the $Pr(X/K)$ being 99.12% for $K = 1$.

253 The Bottleneck test did not provide support for a recent reduction in effective population size (normal L-
254 shape distribution). However, results for Garza-Williamson's modified index, M , which assumes that $M < 0.68$, are
255 suggestive of a reduction in population size ($M = 0.38 \pm 0.12$).

256

257 **Discussion**

258 This is the first investigation on population genetics of one of the World's most endangered pinniped
259 species, the Galapagos fur seal. We provide data on the population genetic structure and genetic diversity of this
260 species, interpret our findings with respect to what is known about the species' biology and discuss the implications
261 of our results for conservation practice.

262

263 **Genetic diversity and contrasting patterns of population structure**

264 Moderate levels of genetic variability were found at both mtDNA sequences and 18 microsatellite loci.
265 Overall levels of variability were comparable to those found in a variety of other pinniped species, although direct
266 comparisons are made difficult by the fact that many of the loci screened in the different studies are not the same
267 (Table 7).

268 Population structure was pronounced for mitochondrial DNA, but weak for nuclear markers. Over a third
269 of the mtDNA variation was partitioned among the three main breeding colonies, despite these being separated by
270 as little as 70 km, a distance that can easily be bridged during daily foraging trips (Jeglinski et al. 2013). In contrast,
271 nuclear population structure was weak. This result is coherent with previous studies of pinnipeds showing strong
272 mitochondrial structuring, but weak population structure at nuclear level (Stanley et al. 1996; Andersen et al. 1998;
273 Hoffman et al. 2006b; Davis et al. 2008; Campbell et al. 2008; Hoffman et al. 2009, including the Galapagos sea
274 lion Wolf et al. 2008), a pattern that is consistent with the expectation that in pinnipeds females show strong natal
275 philopatry and males are the dispersing sex (e.g. Fabiani et al. 2003; Dickerson et al. 2010, including the Galapagos

276 sea lion Wolf and Trillmich 2007). Nevertheless, in the case of GFS, strong matrilineal structure occurs between
277 adjacent colonies that are separated by as little as 70 Km. This pattern is consistent with mark-recapture studies
278 showing that females of many pinniped species are capable of returning to within meters of their birth locations
279 (Pomeroy et al. 2000; Wolf and Trillmich 2007; Hoffman and Forcada 2012).

280 The low differentiation of nuclear markers suggest sufficient gene flow to counteract inbreeding effects
281 and maintain adaptive potential for the species as a whole. It follows that treating populations as ESUs and
282 managing them separately is not warranted. Nevertheless, the strong matrilineal site fidelity evidenced by the clear
283 structure of mitochondrial genetic variation is of concern. Crashes in abundance of individual populations put the
284 whole species at risk because the strong site fidelity that is characteristic of otariid species compromises
285 recolonization potential. In the GFS this is of particular relevance because the three major breeding populations
286 investigated here comprise a substantial part of the total population. Overall, this justifies that conservation
287 management considers each single population as a vital component of the entire species.

288

289 **Historical variation in effective population size**

290 The Bottleneck test did not provide support for a recent reduction in effective population size. However,
291 results for Garza-Williamson's modified index, M , which assumes that $M < 0.68$, are suggestive of a reduction in
292 population size. These results suggest that anthropogenic exploitation and El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO)
293 events may have had relatively little impact on overall levels of genetic diversity, despite the restricted geographic
294 range of the species. This is consistent with the results of several analyses, all of which suggest that the population
295 has not been subject to significant population size changes in the recent past. For instance, large values of both
296 haplotype and nucleotide diversity at mtDNA could indicate that the original effective population size (N_e) of this
297 species was large (Frankham et al. 2002) and are also an indication of a stable demographic history (Grant and
298 Bowen 1998). We also recovered non-significant values of Tajima's D and Fu's F_S (see Table 5), lending no

299 support to a scenario of recent population expansion. Moreover, it is important to recognize that populations
300 suffering a reduction in census size may not suffer a severe reduction of N_e (genetic bottleneck), due to
301 metapopulation structure involving local extinctions and recolonizations (Pimm et al., 1989). This could be another
302 explanation for the conserved levels of genetic diversity in this species.

303 It is also important to mention the potential contribution to nuclear diversity through male movements
304 between sampled and unsampled colonies (e.g. Campagna et al. 1988; Hoelzel et al. 1999). Adult and sub-adult
305 peripheral males, which are usually excluded from central breeding areas, could contribute towards genetic
306 diversity if they are able to obtain copulations outside these colonies (e.g. Bartholomew 1970; Campagna et al.
307 1988; Boness 1991; Hoelzel et al. 1999). These males may disperse to other colonies if they cannot establish in
308 their original colonies, thereby breeding and leaving offspring in colonies other than those in which they were
309 born, and establishing effective gene flow among colonies (Campagna et al. 1988; Boness 1991; Hoelzel et al.
310 1999). However, it is unclear if this occurs in the GFS, because according to Trillmich and Trillmich (1984) there
311 is a marginal male effect, whereby females prefer areas defended by a strong territorial male which protects them
312 from copulation attempts by marginal males.

313 The Bayesian skyline plot based on mtDNA and bottleneck tests of microsatellite data further provided
314 no evidence of recent oscillations in effective population size, although a slight and weakly supported decrease in
315 female N_e of around 6.2% was observed in the recent past and the M value (Garza-Williamson's modified index)
316 was lower than the threshold of 0.68. This suggests that the population size of GFS may have been historically
317 rather similar to the current day estimate of 10,000-15,000 individuals (IUCN 2014). Mitochondrial DNA
318 (mtDNA) has one quarter the N_e of nDNA (*e. g* microsatellites), it traces only one independent coalescent event,
319 and for microsatellites, a larger number of loci (20-100) may be required to detect genetic signatures of past
320 population processes (Cornuet and Luikart, 1996; Hoban et al. 2013). It also suggests that the catastrophic
321 demographic changes recently documented in GFS (Trillmich and Limberger 1985; Trillmich and Dellinger 1991;

322 Denkinger and Salazar 2010; IUCN 2013) do not appear to have had a marked influence on the genetic diversity
323 of the species that would be detectable with the number of loci used in this study.

324 Several other pinniped species are thought to have been severely bottlenecked, primarily due to
325 anthropogenic exploitation. In a few cases, these events are readily detectable using bottleneck tests (e.g. Oliveira
326 et al. 2009, Hoffman et al. 2011) but many other species reveal no such signals (e.g. Klimova et al. 2014). The
327 reason for this discrepancy is unclear but probably relates to variation in bottleneck timing and intensity. Antarctic
328 fur seals, for example, were driven to the brink of extinction by extreme exploitation over the space of just a few
329 decades. In contrast, Galapagos fur seals probably did not experience such a dramatic reduction. Instead, the
330 population may have been reduced many times over the course of the past few centuries, a pattern that may be
331 more difficult to measure even using classical bottleneck tests and will be difficult even with refined methodology
332 and tens of thousands of markers (Shafer et al. in revision).

333 ENSO events can severely impact pinniped population sizes (e.g. Majluf 1991; Trillmich and Dellinger
334 1991; Trillmich et al. 1991; Oliveira et al. 2006, 2009, 2011) and have been responsible for significant but
335 temporary reductions in GFS census sizes on at least two occasions, 1982-83 and 1996-98 (Trillmich and
336 Limberger 1985; Trillmich and Dellinger 1991; Bastida et al. 2007). Some authors argue that ENSO events are
337 both recurrent and ancient, going back to as far as 2 million years ago (DeVries 1987; Sandweiss et al. 1996), and
338 that many animal species occupying marine environments affected by ENSOs may have adapted by developing
339 flexible life history traits, which allow them to adjust to ever-changing environmental conditions (Majluf 1987).

340 Fur seals, for instance, might achieve this, for example, through extended female lactation periods, which may
341 help to optimize offspring survival (Majluf 1987; Trillmich and Kooyman 2001). Flexible life history strategies
342 can therefore help to buffer environmental stress which, in small populations, can be a decisive factor contributing
343 to persistence and population recovery from demographic reduction. The flexibility is achieved by the mother's
344 potential to adjust the duration of the lactation period thereby buffering offspring against times of low marine
345 productivity during ENSO years (Trillmich and Wolf 2008; Trillmich 1990). A proper understanding of the

346 demographic response of the GFS to ENSO events only will be achieved with long-term individual-based data on
347 key vital rates, including survival and fecundity, as well as data on ENSO frequency and intensity.

348

349 **Conservation implications**

350 Our study has important implications for the conservation management of the GFS. Historical
351 demographic analyses indicate little sensitivity of the long-term effective population size to either historical
352 exploitation or ongoing environmental fluctuations. However, despite the geographic range of this species being
353 within the spatial scale of daily foraging trips (Jeglinski et al. 2013), strong matrilineal structuring is present. The
354 lack of reciprocal monophyly for mtDNA and low differentiation estimated from microsatellite markers suggests,
355 on the one hand, that the three major breeding populations of the species should be considered as a single ESU.
356 On the other hand, conservation efforts should be directed towards all three populations due to strong mtDNA
357 structure and the fact that philopatry is known to negatively affect the speed of recolonization (see above,
358 Matthiopoulos 2005), which is an important property for population recovery after ENSO events. Finally, it is
359 important to emphasize that despite the GFS current population size and its moderate levels of genetic diversity in
360 a single ESU, these fur seals will always be vulnerable to a variety of threats (e.g. feral dogs, infectious diseases,
361 oil spills, entanglement in local net fisheries and ENSO events) due to their restricted distribution to a relatively
362 small archipelago (IUCN 2014).

363

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374

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611 **Figure legends**

612 **Fig. 1 a.** Map of the study area (Galapagos Islands) and the location of the three major Galápagos fur seal colonies
613 sampled for this study : BB: Banks Bay (Isabela Island), CH: Cape Hammond (Fernandina Island) and CM: Cape
614 Marshall (Isabela Island). The grey shaded area represents the species' distribution range. **b.** *Median Joining*
615 *Network* of mtDNA sequences representing distinct haplotypes as circles. Circle size is proportional to the
616 haplotype frequency across all 87 sampled individuals. Pie charts indicate relative frequencies by sampling
617 location CH (black), BB (dark gray) and CM (light gray). Edges connect haplotypes that differ by one base pair
618 substitution. Triangles indicate potential intermediate haplotypes that were not sampled.

619

620 **Fig. 2** Bayesian skyline plot of historical female effective population size (straight line) and the corresponding
621 95% posterior probability interval (grey area).

622

623 **Fig. 3 a.** Log likelihood values as a function of the number genetically differentiated populations inferred from
624 Bayesian STRUCTURE analysis of 18 microsatellite loci. **b.** Proportional membership (q) of each Galapagos fur
625 seal in the genetic clusters inferred by STRUCTURE with $K = 3$, without use of prior population (USEPOPINFO
626 = 0). Each individual is denoted by a vertical bar, and the length of each bar shows the probability of membership
627 in each cluster. In this case, all individuals have roughly the same probability of belonging to each sampling
628 locality, suggesting that there is no population structure.

629

FIGURES

Figure 1.

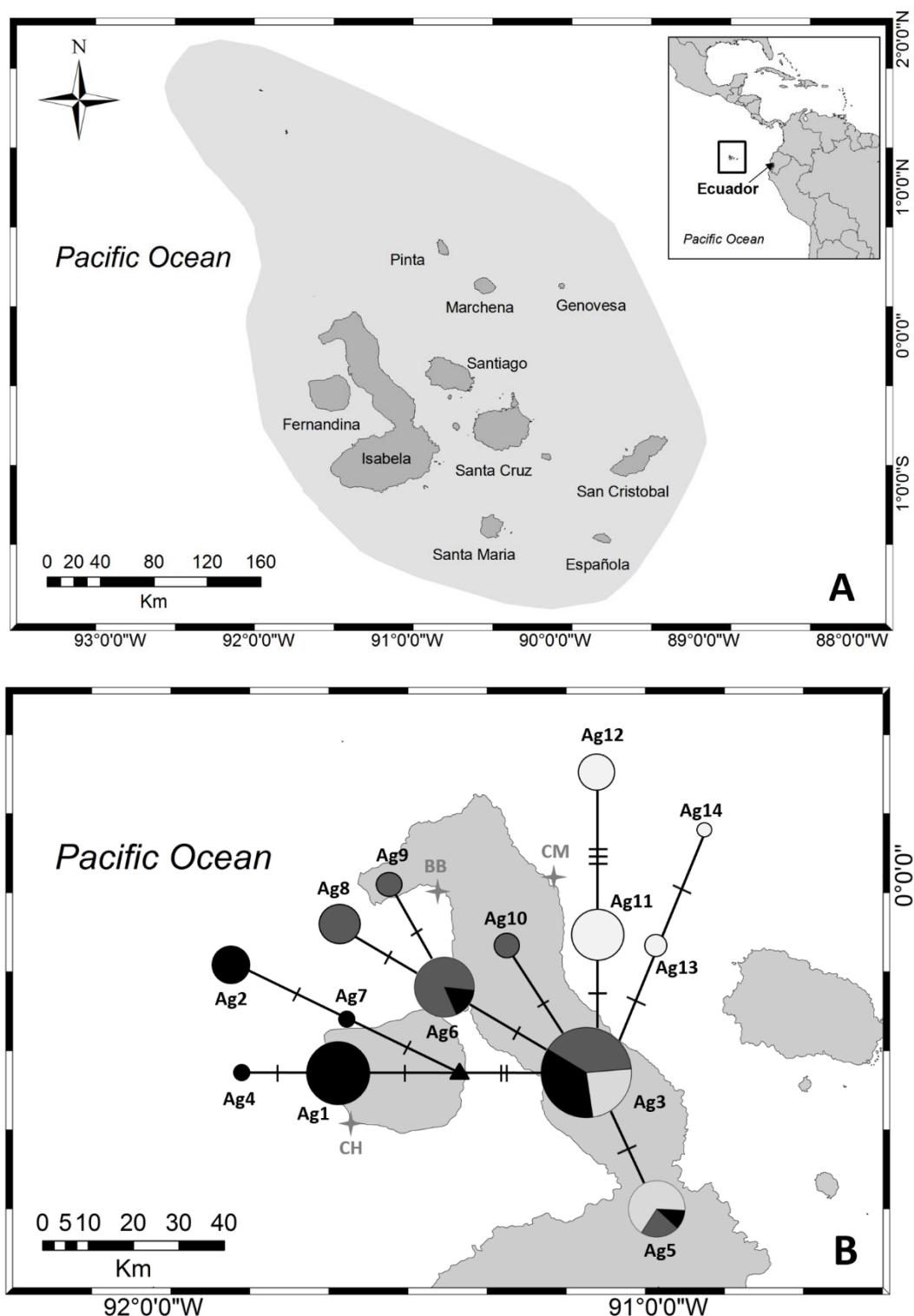


Figure 2.

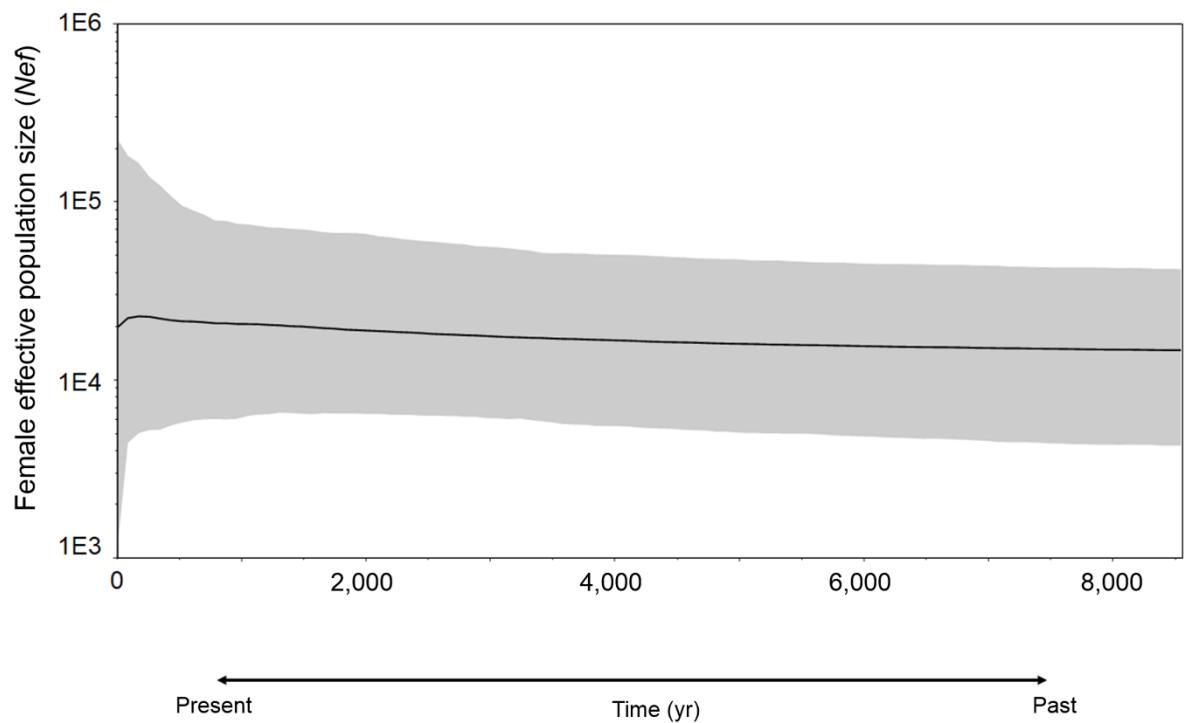
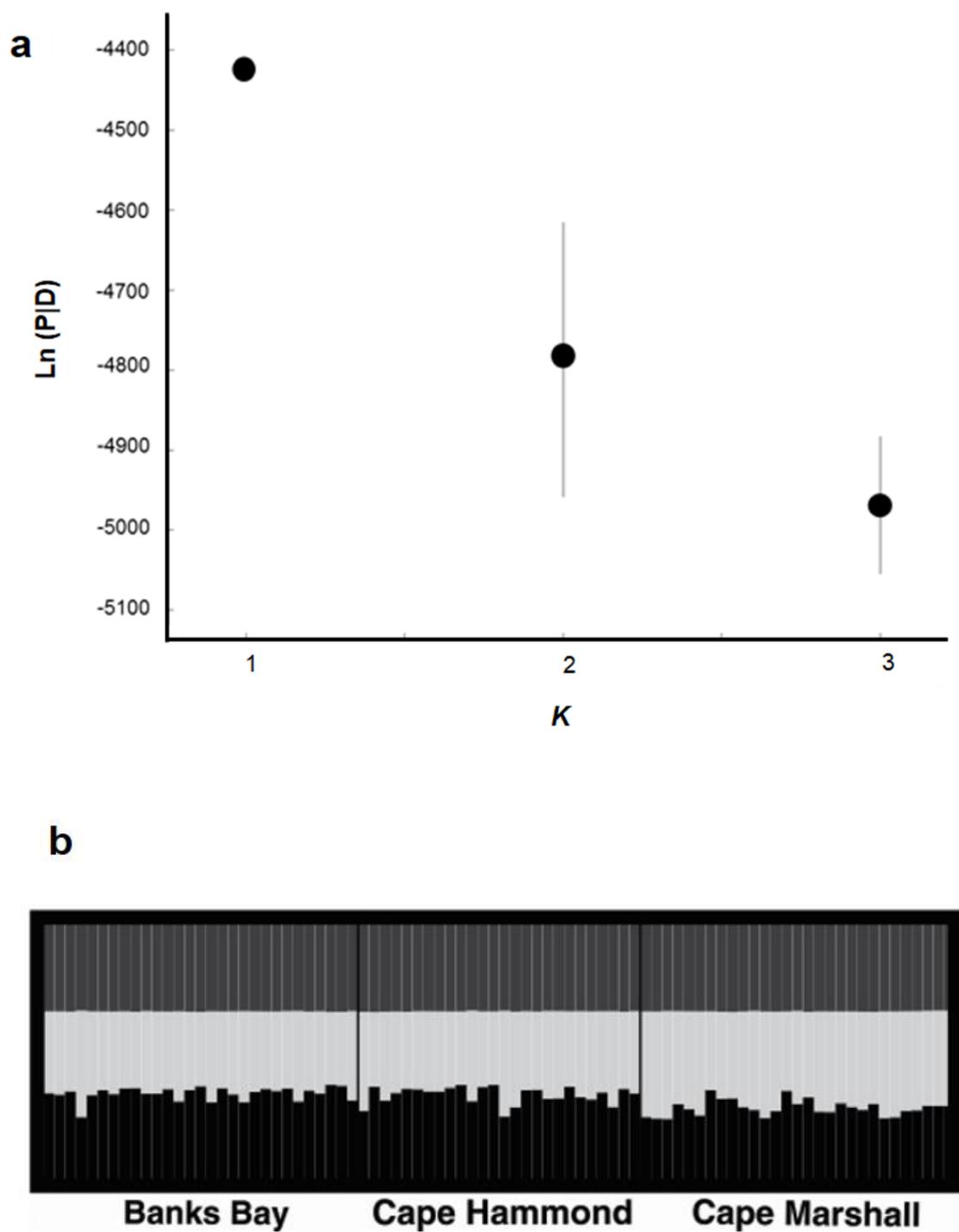


Figure 3.



TABLES

Table 1. Genetic diversity of *Arctocephalus galapagoensis* based on control region mtDNA analysis. N = number of samples, S = segregating sites, H = number of haplotypes, Hd = haplotype diversity, HdSD = standard deviation of haplotype diversity, π = nucleotide diversity and πSD = standard deviation of nucleotide diversity.

Control region mtDNA							
Population	N	S	H	Hd	HdSD	π (%)	πSD (%)
Banks Bay	30	5	6	0.77	0.04	0.5	0.3
Cape Hammond	30	8	7	0.76	0.04	1.1	0.4
Cape Marshall	27	6	6	0.81	0.03	0.9	0.3
Total	87	14	14	0.86	0.02	1.2	0.4

Table 2. List of individuals that bear each mitochondrial DNA control region haplotype. Absolute frequency in the sample and geographic distribution of haplotypes.

Haplotype	Individuals	GenBank Accession Number	Frequency	Locality	Island
Ag1	FH01, FH06, FH07, FH08, FH15, FH17, FH24, FH25, FH27, FH28, FH30,	KM030335	11	Cape Hammond	Fernandina
Ag2	FH02, FH09, FH18, FH23, FH29	KM030336	5	Cape Hammond	Fernandina
Ag3	FH03, FH05, FH11, FH14, FH16, FH20, FH21, FH22, FH26, IB07, IB12, IB13, IB16, IB17, IB22, IB23, IB26, IB27, IB29, IM01, IM19, IM23, IM24, IM25, IM28	KM030337	25	Cape Hammond Banks Bay Cape Marshall	Fernandina Isabela
Ag4	FH04	KM030338	1	Cape Hammond	Fernandina
Ag5	FH10, IB05, IB19, IM03, IM08, IM16, IM17, IM18, IM20	KM030344	9	Cape Hammond Banks Bay Cape Marshall	Fernandina Isabela
Ag6	FH12, FH19, IB01, IB03, IB04, IB06, IB11, IB15, IB18, IB20, IB24, IB25	KM030346	12	Cape Hammond Banks Bay	Fernandina Isabela
Ag7	FH13	KM030347	1	Cape Hammond	Fernandina
Ag8	IB02, IB08, IB09, IB28	KM030366	4	Banks Bay	Isabela
Ag9	IB10, IB21	KM030374	2	Banks Bay	Isabela
Ag10	IB14 IB30	KM030394	2	Banks Bay	Isabela
Ag11	IM02, IM04, IM09, IM12, IM13, IM14, IM21, IM22	KM030396	8	Cape Marshall	Isabela
Ag12	IM05, IM06	KM030400	2	Cape Marshall	Isabela
Ag13	IM07, IM10, IM11, IM15	KM030401	4	Cape Marshall	Isabela
Ag14	IM27	KM030421	1	Cape Marshall	Isabela

Table 3. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) based on fixation indices (F_{ST} and Φ_{ST}) from mtDNA control region and 18 microsatellite loci for the population of *Arctocephalus galapagoensis* as a whole. All values are significant at $P < 0.01$.

Genetic differentiation					
Source of variation	mtDNA		Microsatellites		
	F_{ST}	Φ_{ST}	F_{ST}	R_{ST}	
Among populations	0.132	0.339	0.015	0.035	
Within populations	0.868	0.661	0.985	0.965	

Table 4. Pairwise F -statistics among sampling localities for mtDNA control region and microsatellites.

mtDNA control region			Microsatellites						
	Banks Bay	Cape Hammond	Cape Marshall	Banks Bay	Cape Hammond	Cape Marshall			
Φ_{ST}									
Banks Bay		-	0.401*	0.271*	Banks Bay		-	0.015	0.055*
Cape Hammond	F_{ST}	0.129*	-	0.315*	Cape Hammond	F_{ST}	0.010*	-	0.041*
Cape Marshall		0.146*	0.121*	-	Cape Marshall		0.025*	0.023*	-

* Significant values $P < 0.001$

Table 5. Pairwise neutrality tests.

	Tajima's D	Tajima's D (<i>p</i> -value)	Fu's Fs	Fu's Fs (<i>p</i> -value)
Banks Bay	-0.26	0.43	-0.26	0.47
Cape Hammond	0.81	0.81	0.86	0.69
Cape Marshall	0.58	0.74	0.47	0.62
Total	0.37	0.66	0.36	0.60

Table 6. Measures of genetic diversity at 18 microsatellite loci in the Galápagos fur seal populations studied.

Locus	Allele range	Banks Bay (n = 29)					Cape Hammond (n = 27)					Cape Marshall (n = 29)					Global population ^a (n = 84)				
		A	AR	E	Ho	He	A	AR	E	Ho	He	A	AR	E	Ho	He	A	AR ^b	E ^c	Ho	He
ZcwE05 ²	189-195	4	3.99	0	0.44	0.47	3	3.80	0	0.38	0.39	4	3.00	0	0.43 ^d	0.44	4	3.65	0	0.43	0.44
ZcwD02 ²	198-250	12	11.60	1	0.93	0.91	13	12.60	2	0.88	0.89	13	12.60	2	0.89	0.89	17	12.99	1.66	0.91	0.90
ZcwB09 ²	191-207	6	5.90	1	0.83	0.77	5	4.00	0	0.77	0.80	4	5.00	0	0.79	0.66	6	5.71	0.33	0.80	0.77
ZcCgDh5 ²	319-349	8	7.80	1	0.76	0.73	7	6.50	1	0.69	0.78	7	6.90	0	0.75	0.67	9	7.26	0.66	0.73	0.73
Hg8.1 ¹	178-186	4	3.80	0	0.41	0.40	4	4.90	0	0.46	0.50	5	4.00	1	0.52	0.61	5	4.57	0.33	0.48	0.54
ZcCgDh7t ²	282-290	5	4.80	1	0.38	0.39	3	3.90	0	0.54	0.50	4	3.00	0	0.45	0.39	5	4.15	0.33	0.48	0.44
Hg6.1 ²	140-158	4	3.90	0	0.38	0.39	5	2.90	0	0.56	0.48	3	4.90	0	0.24	0.25	5	4.70	0	0.38	0.37
ZcwF07 ²	146-162	6	5.60	1	0.52	0.46	4	3.90	0	0.48	0.48	4	4.00	0	0.72	0.61	6	4.84	0.33	0.60	0.54
ZcwE03 ²	217-231	8	7.90	1	0.83	0.86	7	6.50	0	0.84	0.85	7	7.00	0	0.86	0.79	8	7.39	0.33	0.85	0.84
ZcwE12 ²	173-187	4	4.00	0	0.82 ^d	0.73	7	5.90	1	0.81	0.82	6	6.90	0	0.66	0.77	7	6.10	0.33	0.78	0.78
ZcwE04 ²	120-144	8	7.90	0	0.97	0.87	9	7.80	0	0.88	0.85	8	8.90	0	0.96	0.85	11	8.62	0	0.94	0.86
ZcwB07 ¹	182-198	7	6.80	0	0.82	0.73	8	6.80	0	0.84	0.82	7	7.90	1	0.93	0.81	9	7.89	0.33	0.86	0.80
Pv9 ¹	172-182	6	5.80	0	0.79	0.68	6	5.00	0	0.69	0.73	5	5.90	0	0.68	0.68	6	5.87	0	0.72	0.70
Hg6.3 ¹	225-239	5	4.80	1	0.48	0.49	4	3.80	0	0.58	0.54	4	4.00	1	0.54	0.61	6	4.46	0.66	0.53	0.55
PvcE ¹	120-136	6	5.80	0	0.66	0.72	5	4.60	0	0.73	0.69	5	4.90	0	0.62	0.62	7	5.30	0	0.67	0.68
Hg1.3 ¹	230-260	7	6.90	0	0.85	0.83	10	8.50	1	0.96	0.87	9	9.90	0	0.89	0.80	10	9.14	0.33	0.90	0.86
PvcA ¹	151-163	7	6.80	1	0.68	0.79	6	4.90	0	0.76	0.80	5	6.00	0	0.67	0.64	7	6.22	0.33	0.70	0.76
Agaz2 ¹	230-240	4	3.80	0	0.68	0.64	6	5.80	0	0.52	0.69	6	5.90	0	0.86	0.74	6	5.31	0	0.66	0.69
Mean		6.17	5.99	0.44	0.68	0.66	6.18	5.67	0.28	0.69	0.69	5.69	6.15	0.28	0.69	0.66	7.44	6.34	0.33	0.69	0.68

Number of alleles (A), allelic richness (AR), number of exclusive alleles (E), observed (Ho) and expected heterozygosity (He); ^{1,2} Pooled markers in multiplex PCR; ^a Samples for all populations pooled; ^b All richness based on a sample size of 84 diploid individuals; ^c Arithmetic mean of exclusive alleles; ^d loci that deviated from H-W equilibrium after Bonferroni correction

Table 7. Microsatellite genetic diversity in pinnipeds, based on expected heterozygosity (He) (or observed heterozygosity when only this information was available) and average number of alleles per locus (A).

Species	Nº individuals	Nº Loci	He	A
Galapagos fur seal (present paper)	84	17	0.68	7.44
Galapagos sea lion ^{1,13}	20	10/367	0.72/0.62	7.9/5.2
South American fur seal ²	226	8	0.77	8.4
New Zealand fur seal ³	383	11	0.75	11.8
Antarctic fur seal ⁴	2106	9	0.8	12.4
Australian fur seal ⁵	183	5	0.58	8.0
Subantarctic fur seal ⁶	76	8	0.60	11.1
Northern fur seal ⁷	462	8	0.80	17
Australian sea lion ⁸	217	5	0.54	4.5
New Zealand sea lion ⁹	40	22	0.72	5.9
California sea lion ^{10,13}	58	12/16	0.61/0.72	6.8/6.4
Steller sea lion ¹¹	668	13	0.66	7.9
Grey seal ¹²	1883	9	0.74	-

¹ Hoffman et al. (2007)

² Oliveira et al. (2008)

³ B. Robertson, A. Kalinin, H. Best, N. Gemmell (in Robertson and Chilvers 2011).

⁴ Hoffman and Amos (2005).

⁵ Lancaster et al. (2010) (Ho only).

⁶ Wynen L, Goldsworthy S, White R, Slade R (in Robertson and Chilvers 2011) (Ho only).

⁷ Dickerson et al. (2010).

⁸ Campbell R (in Robertson and Chilvers 2011).

⁹ Acevedo-Whitehouse et al. (2009) (Ho only)

¹⁰ Hernandez-Velazquez et al. (2005)

¹¹ Hoffman et al. (2006)

¹² Worthington-Wilmer et al. (1999)

¹³ Wolf et al. (2007)

Supplementary material

Golapagos Fur Seal microsatellite data

Tissue sample	Location	ZcwE05	ZcwD02	ZcwB09	ZcwGh5B	Hg8.1	ZcwGh7t	Hg6.1	ZcwF07	ZcwE03	ZcwE12	ZcwE04	Pv9	Hg 6.3	PvcE	Hg 1.3	PvcA	Zcwbd7	Agaz 2																		
		a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b																		
A01_IR1.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	195	214	228	197	201	325	325	178	184	286	286	140	140	150	150	221	223	175	183	136	138	x	x	227	239	130	134	250	252	159	159	186	188	230	234
A02_IR2.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	189	191	226	230	197	203	321	325	178	182	286	286	140	140	148	152	225	229	175	183	126	130	176	178	239	239	130	134	240	258	155	161	184	188	230	234
A03_IR3.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	189	195	216	216	199	201	325	327	178	178	286	286	140	155	146	150	223	223	175	183	134	136	174	180	227	227	132	134	230	240	159	161	188	194	230	234
A04_IR4.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	220	228	197	203	325	327	178	178	284	286	140	140	150	150	225	227	175	183	130	130	174	174	227	227	132	134	230	240	159	161	188	196	x	x
A05_IR5.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	195	195	220	226	197	199	325	349	178	178	286	286	140	155	146	150	217	227	175	177	130	138	174	182	227	239	132	134	250	250	151	161	188	194	230	230
A07_IR7.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	222	228	197	207	321	325	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	154	219	227	175	181	132	138	176	182	227	239	134	134	252	258	159	159	188	196	230	234
A08_IR8.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	212	228	197	197	325	325	178	178	284	286	140	151	150	150	221	229	175	175	126	132	176	180	227	239	134	134	240	258	151	163	184	194	232	234
A09_IR9.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	228	228	203	203	319	321	178	184	286	286	155	157	150	152	221	229	177	183	130	138	174	174	237	237	126	126	240	258	155	155	188	188	230	236
A10_IR10.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	x	x	224	230	197	203	323	325	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	152	223	231	175	177	130	134	174	180	227	239	120	132	230	258	155	159	188	188	230	234
A11_IR11.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	x	x	222	230	203	203	319	325	178	184	286	288	140	140	150	154	225	229	175	181	132	138	174	180	227	237	132	134	250	256	155	161	186	188	230	236
A12_IR12.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	226	228	197	201	325	329	178	180	286	290	140	140	150	150	221	227	177	181	128	138	174	178	227	237	130	130	250	258	159	159	194	194	230	230
B01_IR13.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	226	230	207	207	327	327	178	184	284	286	140	140	150	150	217	221	177	177	130	132	174	180	227	227	134	134	240	250	153	157	188	194	230	230
B02_IR14.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	195	222	226	199	201	321	325	178	180	286	286	140	140	150	150	221	223	175	183	128	130	174	174	227	227	130	134	x	x	x	x	230	230		
B03_IR15.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	189	191	210	226	203	207	323	325	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	152	223	225	177	181	138	140	174	176	227	227	130	132	256	258	161	161	186	188	230	236
B04_IR16.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	214	230	197	199	325	349	178	180	286	286	140	155	150	150	221	225	175	181	138	140	174	176	227	239	126	126	258	258	155	159	186	188	234	236
B05_IR17.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	212	216	199	201	325	325	178	180	286	286	140	157	150	152	227	229	175	177	126	140	174	174	227	227	130	134	240	256	157	161	186	194	230	234
B06_IR18.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	195	222	228	197	197	327	349	178	182	286	286	140	140	150	162	221	221	175	177	128	136	174	174	227	227	130	136	240	252	155	161	188	194	230	236
B07_IR19.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	216	224	197	201	325	325	178	178	286	288	140	140	150	150	225	227	177	177	126	128	174	174	227	227	126	134	240	254	151	161	186	188	230	236
B08_IR20.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	195	212	214	199	203	325	325	178	180	286	286	140	140	150	155	229	229	175	181	130	140	174	174	227	239	134	134	254	254	151	161	186	188	234	236
B09_IR21.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	195	216	224	197	201	321	325	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	150	219	223	175	181	130	140	176	180	227	227	132	134	252	258	155	161	186	188	230	234
B10_IR22.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	193	214	234	197	201	325	327	178	178	286	288	140	151	150	150	217	223	175	183	126	140	174	180	227	227	126	132	250	250	157	157	188	196	230	234
B11_IR23.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	195	212	232	191	203	321	325	180	180	286	286	140	151	150	150	221	229	175	177	132	136	174	180	227	239	134	134	240	252	151	159	194	198	234	234
B12_IR24.fsa	Isabella (Banks Bay)	191	191	214	222	191	201	321	327	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	150	217	227	177	177	130	132	174	176	225	227	134	134	240	258	155	161	188	194	230	236
C01_IM25.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	191	220	228	197	201	323	325	178	180	286	286	140	151	150	150	221	221	175	183	130	132	174	176	227	227	134	134	230	240	161	161	190	190	230	230
C02_IM26.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	195	216	216	197	199	325	327	178	178	286	286	142	157	150	152	221	227	177	181	126	130	174	178	227	227	132	132	238	254	161	161	196	196	234	240
C03_IM27.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	191	212	216	202	203	325	327	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	152	225	227	175	175	130	132	174	176	227	227	134	134	250	258	151	161	188	190	230	236
C04_IM28.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	195	210	220	199	201	325	325	178	180	286	286	140	140	150	150	225	229	175	177	132	134	178	180	227	239	134	134	252	254	151	161	192	196	230	236
C05_IM29.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	195	212	220	199	201	319	325	178	180	286	286	140	140	150	154	227	229	175	177	126	136	174	176	227	239	134	134	250	254	161	161	188	190	230	236
C06_IM30.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	191	212	220	197	201	317	325	178	180	286	286	140	140	150	152	221	229	175	177	126	130	172	174	227	227	130	130	250	254	161	161	188	196	230	236
C07_IM31.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	191	212	230	197	201	325	327	178	178	286	286	140	157	150	152	229	227	177	188	130	140	174	176	227	227	134	134	252	256	161	161	188	194	230	234
C08_IM32.fsa	Isabella (Cabo Marshall)	191	191	212	218	197	199	321	325	178	180	286	288	140	140	150	154	225	229	177	183	126	140	174	176	227	227	134	134	252	252	151	161	188	192	230	234
E01_IM19.fsa	Fernandina	189	191	212	222	199	203	321	325	178	178	286	286	140	140	150	152	223	227	175	177	130	134	174	180	227	237	134	134	250	260	159	159	188	194	230	236
E02_IM20.fsa	Fernandina	191	191	212	216	197	201	325	325	178	178	286	286	140	140	152	152	225	231	175	185	130	134	176	176	227	239	132	132	238	25						