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Population structure of caribou in an ice-bound archipelago

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Abstract

Aim: Archipelagos provide ideal natural systems for testing the effects of isolation and fragmentation of habitats on the genetic makeup of populations—an important consideration, given that many insular species are of conservation concern. Two theories predominate: Island Biogeography Theory (IBT) posits that proximity to the mainland drives the potential for migrants and gene flow. The Central Marginal Hypothesis (CMH) predicts that island populations at the periphery of a species range may experience low gene flow, small population size and high rates of genetic drift. We investigated population genetic structure, genetic diversity and key drivers of diversity for Arctic island-dwelling caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*). Our aim was to inform intraspecific units for conservation and decipher how IBT and CMH could act in an archipelago where isolation is highly variable due to sea ice and open water.

Location: Canadian Arctic Archipelago, Canada (Latitude, 55–82°N; Longitude, 61–123°W).

Methods: We genotyped 447 caribou at 16 microsatellite loci; these caribou represented two subspecies (*R. t. groenlandicus*, *R. t. pearyi*) and three designatable units. We used hierarchical Bayesian clustering and ordination to determine genetic groups. We evaluated the influence of ecological and geographic variables on genetic diversity using linear mixed-effects models and compared diversity among mainland and island herds.

Results: Bayesian clustering revealed nine genetic clusters with differentiation among and within caribou subspecies. Genetic differentiation was explained predominantly by isolation-by-distance across all caribou, even at the scale of subspecies. Island caribou were less genetically diverse than mainland herds; individual heterozygosity was negatively correlated with distance-to-mainland and the extent of autumn ice-free coastline and positively correlated with unglaciated island size.

Main conclusions: Our findings underscore the importance of hierarchical analysis when investigating genetic population structure. Genetic diversity and its key drivers lend support to both IBT and CMH and highlight the pending threat of climate change for Arctic island caribou.

KEYWORDS

Arctic, Bayesian clustering, connectivity, designatable units, genetic diversity, landscape heterogeneity, population structure, *Rangifer tarandus*

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1 | INTRODUCTION

Archipelagos provide ideal natural systems for inferring the effects of isolation and fragmentation on the genetic makeup of populations (Harradine et al., 2015; Levin & Parker, 2012). Heterogeneous across broad spatial gradients, archipelagos offer a unique opportunity to assess the consequences of island size and geographic proximity on population differentiation and diversity (Frankham, 1996). Distance to mainland can be important, where proximity affords potential migrants and gene flow (Island Biogeography Theory; MacArthur & Wilson, 1967). Additionally, island populations far from mainland or at the periphery of a range may experience low gene flow, small population size and high rates of genetic drift (Central Marginal Hypothesis [CMH]; Eckert, Samis, & Lougheed, 2008). Remote populations may become genetically distinct and experience inbreeding and low genetic diversity (Frankham, Ballou, & Briscoe, 2002; Harradine et al., 2015; Miller, Eldridge, Morris, Zenger, & Herbert, 2011; Techer et al., 2016), but they may also experience local adaptation and speciation (Petren, Grant, Grant, & Keller, 2005; Slatkin, 1987). Such differentiation sets the stage for identifying hierarchical units of species, subspecies, ecotypes, populations and, when linked to genetics and evolution, evolutionarily significant units (ESU; Moritz, 1994; Ryder, 1986). These "lines" have important consequences for conservation and protection, and the scientific inferences we draw (Pond, Brown, Wilson, & Schaefer, 2016; Schaefer, 2006).

Archipelagos at high latitudes may be particularly informative. Uniquely, sea ice in polar environments can reduce among-island isolation (Geffen et al., 2007; Jenkins et al., 2016) by facilitating the flow of genes, the rescue of small populations and the maintenance of genetic diversity (Carmichael et al., 2007; Noren et al., 2011). For terrestrial animals, sea ice is a platform for dispersal, seasonal interisland and island-mainland migrations and sporadic long-distance movements (Carmichael et al., 2008; Miller, Barry, & Calvert, 2005; Noren et al., 2011; Poole, Gunn, Patterson, & Dumond, 2010). Yet in the Arctic, sea ice is spatially and temporally heterogeneous (Ferguson, Taylor, Born, Rosing-Asvid, & Messier, 2001; Kutschera et al., 2016; Sahanatien & Derocher, 2012); across this immense space, uniformity in connectivity is unlikely.

We might anticipate that the genetic differentiation of terrestrial Arctic populations is not readily predictable based on ice as a simple barrier or facilitator of movement (Jenkins et al., 2016). Indeed, a diversity of factors—both geographic (distance, rugged terrain) and biological (mobility, life-history strategies)—can influence connectivity. Few studies have evaluated the determinants of genetic population structuring in polar environments (but see, e.g., Carmichael et al., 2007; Harris, Moore, Galpern, Tallman, & Taylor, 2014; Jenkins et al., 2016; Noren et al., 2011; Yannic et al., 2017). The Arctic, in particular, is slated to experience profound ecological disruption from climate change and the recession of sea ice (e.g., Post et al., 2013). Understanding the drivers of connectivity will be pivotal for conservation.

Caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*) provide an ideal case study to test for genetic differentiation. Although one species, caribou

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are mobile and widely distributed; they are morphologically, behaviourally and genetically variable (McFarlane, Miller, Barry, & Wilson, 2014; Serrouva, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Campbell et al., 2012; Yannic et al., 2014). The taxonomy of Rangifer is complex. This species has been variously divided into subspecies (Banfield, 1961), ecotypes (Festa-Bianchet, Ray, Boutin, Côté, & Gunn, 2011; Serrouya, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Campbell et al., 2012; Yannic et al., 2016) and designatable units (DU: a pragmatic alternative to ESU; COSEWIC, 2011; Green, 2005). In the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, two native subspecies, Peary (R. t. pearyi; Allen, 1902) and barren-ground caribou (R. t. groenlandicus: Borowski, 1780), represent three DUs (COSEWIC, 2011; Figure 1) and encompass multiple herds or geographic populations (COSEWIC, 2011; Jenkins, Campbell, Hope, Goorts, & McLoughlin, 2011; Nagy et al., 2011). Some herds have recently declined (Jenkins, Goorts, & Lecomte, 2012); some are likely extirpated (COSEWIC, 2015a,b; Gunn, Miller, Barry, & Buchan, 2006); and others have recovered through reintroductions or translocations (Ferguson, 1985; Heard & Ouellet, 1994). This diversity is compelling; it challenges conservation efforts and urges us to better understand this taxonomic scheme.

Here, we use genetic markers to determine caribou diversity and population structure in a largely ice-bound archipelago. We used 16 microsatellite loci, ordination and hierarchical Bayesian individualbased clustering to uncover how patterns may change with scale (Schaefer, 2006; Warnock, Rasmussen, & Taylor, 2010). In keeping with caribou, the world's most vagile terrestrial animal (Kelt & Van Vuren, 2001), our study extended across an immense geographic range: 20 Arctic islands and mainland Canada, a latitudinal gradient over 2,000 km. We predicted that one panmictic population was unlikely. Instead, we expected hierarchical genetic structure driven by geographic and ecological complexity and the sheer spatial extent of our sampling. Following CMH (Eckert et al., 2008), we expected genetic diversity to decrease towards the periphery of the range. In turn, we expected island populations to be less diverse than mainland populations and to exhibit diversity in accordance with island and population size (Frankham, 1996). Because mountains and open water can reduce connectivity (Geffen et al., 2007; Qiong et al., 2017), we also expected genetic diversity to be negatively related to rugged terrain and ice-free coastlines. To translate our results for conservation, we mapped our findings and assessed their implications for caribou recovery.

2 | METHODS

2.1 | Study area

Our study area (>4,000,000 km²) extended across the Arctic Archipelago and portions of the Canadian subarctic mainland (Figure 1). The area, characterized by a harsh cold climate and tundra vegetation, lies primarily within the Northern and Southern Arctic ecozones. The Arctic Cordillera, featuring extensive ice fields and



FIGURE 1 Distribution of 447 caribou samples across the Arctic Archipelago and mainland Canada, representing two native subspecies and three designatable units (DUs; COSEWIC, 2011). Sample unit designations are from Table 1. The map projection is Canada Lambert Conformal Conic [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

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glaciers, frames the north-east (Ecological Stratification Working Group, 1995).

Peary and barren-ground caribou are nearly allopatric (Banfield, 1961; Figure 1). Most researchers concur that Peary caribou, with their island distribution, constitute a distinct subspecies, ecotype and DU (Table 1). Barren-ground caribou, which occur on the mainland and southern archipelago, have been regarded as a mix of various types (Table 1): mainland barren-ground or migratory tundra herds (Festa-Bianchet et al., 2011; Mallory & Hillis, 1998), insular or tundra wintering herds (Baffin and Southampton islands; Festa-Bianchet et al., 2011; Jenkins et al., 2012; Mallory & Hillis, 1998) and the Dolphin and Union mainland-migrating herd (Dumond, Sather, &

Harmer, 2013; Nagy et al., 2011). In addition, Southampton caribou were reintroduced from nearby Coats Island (1967; Heard & Ouellet, 1994); feral reindeer (*R. t. tarandus*; Linnaeus, 1758) were introduced to the Belcher Islands (1978; Ferguson, 1985).

2.2 | Sample collection

We used 298 samples representing Peary caribou (n = 208), barren-ground caribou (n = 80) and reindeer (n = 10; governments of Nunavut and Northwest Territories; Table 1, Figure 1). Samples included tissue, hair, antler, faecal pellets and faecal surface rubs (using cotton swabs and toothpicks) collected between 1998 and

TABLE 1	Geographic locations of	Arctic island and	subarctic mainland	l caribou included in	this study
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No.	Sample unit	ID	Subspecies	Ecotype	Long	Lat	N	Sample period
1	Amund Ringnes/Cornwall Is.	ARCW	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-95.86	78.08	6	2007
2	Axel Heigberg Is.	AHAH	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-91.20	79.68	20	2007
3	Bathurst Is. Complex	BIBI	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-100.18	75.92	20	2000-2003
4	Cameron Is.	CACA	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-103.91	76.48	22	1998°-2003
5	Devon Is.	DIDI	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-87.63	75.44	10	2002-2003
6	Eglinton/Prince Patrick Is.	EGPP	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-119.02	76.55	8	1975
7	Ellef Ringnes/King Christian	ERKC	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-102.29	78.54	16	2007
8	Ellesmere Is.	ESES	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-78.10	80.30	41	2006
9	Lougheed Is.	LILI	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-105.21	77.42	42	2007
10	Prince of Wales Is.	PW50	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-99.10	72.68	10	1950s
11	Prince of Wales/Somerset Is.	PWSI	R. t. pearyi	Island Tundra Wintering	-96.74	73.02	13	1975
12	North Baffin	PINB	R. t. groen- landicus	Island Tundra Wintering	-82.83	71.69	36	2008-2013
13	South Baffin	BSBS	R. t. groen- landicus	Island Tundra Wintering	-70.38	65.88	22	2009-2012
14	Belcher Is.	SKBI	R. t. tarandus ^b	Island Tundra Wintering	-79.66	56.14	10	2009
15	Southampton Is.	SHSH	R. t. groen- landicus ^b	Island Tundra Wintering	-84.25	64.36	76	С
16	Qamanirjuaq Herd	QAQA	R. t. groen- landicus	Mainland Migratory Tundra	-99.05	60.29	52	C
17	Dolphin & Union Herd	DODO	R. t. groen- landicus	Island-Mainland Migratory	-109.83	69.43	43	C

The latitude and longitude represent the centroid of the island, island group or herd and were generated in ArcGIS using the National Topographic Databases layers (1:250,000). Map projection—North Pole Azimuthal Equidistant, Central Meridian –100, Latitude of Origin 72.

^aEnvironment and Natural Resources (2014). Peary caribou DNA sample collections, Bathurst Island Complex, July 1998. Unpublished Data. Government of NWT, Yellowknife, NT.

^bIntroduced or reintroduced.

^cSerrouya, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Jenkins et al. (2012).

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2012 during aerial and ground surveys (Gunn & Dragon, 2002; Jenkins et al., 2011, 2012; Miller & Gunn, 2003), collar deployment (Jenkins, 2009a) and harvests by Inuit (Jenkins, 2009b) and also archived DNA and tissues (Table 1). We retrieved genotype data for additional individuals from DRYAD including Southampton Island (n = 54), Qamanirjuaq (n = 52), and Dolphin and Union herds (n = 43; Serrouya, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Campbell et al., 2012; Serrouya, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Jenkins et al., 2012). All genetic data (n = 447) were generated at the same laboratory (Wildlife Genetics International, Nelson, BC, Canada) using the same procedure.

Based on geographic herd range, individuals were defined *a priori* into seventeen sample units (i.e., island or multi-island herd, mainland herd; Jenkins et al., 2011; Nagy et al., 2011). We maintained Cameron Island separately due to proximity to both the Lougheed and Bathurst Island herds. Prince of Wales and Prince of Wales-Somerset islands were separated due to sampling period (Table 1); they were included given their conservation value and the possible extirpation of caribou from these islands (Gunn et al., 2006; Jenkins et al., 2011).

2.3 | DNA extraction and genotyping

DNA was extracted from tissues using the DNeasy[™] Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Inc., Valencia, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol. For faecal samples, the buffer recovered after a 1-hr surface wash of 1-3 pellets in Qiagen's buffer ATL, was used in the extraction; pellet surface rubs were clipped and processed like tissue. For hair samples with skin, ~2 mm² of tissue was used for extraction. Otherwise, the roots from ~10 hairs were clipped for processing (Paetkau, 2003).

Samples were genotyped at 16 microsatellite loci using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and previously developed markers: BL42, BM4513 and BM6506 (bovine; Bisho et al., 1994); BMS745 and BMS1788 (bovine; Stone et al., 1995); CRH (bovine; Moore, Barendse, Berger, Armitage, & Hetzel, 1992); FCB193 (ovine; Buchanan, Galloway, & Crawford, 1994); OhemD and OhemQ (deer; Jones, Levine, & Banks, 2000); and Rt1, Rt5, Rt6, Rt7, Rt9, Rt24 and Rt27 (caribou; Wilson, Strobeck, Wu, & Coffin, 1997). Individual PCR amplifications were performed on a MJ Research PTC-100 thermocycler (conditions detailed in Table S1). The PCR mixture contained 50 mM of KCL buffer, 0.010% Triton X-100, 160 µg/mL BSA, 160 µM dNTPs, 160 nm of each primer and 1.5–2.0 mg of MgCl₂ in a sample volume of 15 µL. Taq polymerase amount varied with batch strength. Annealing temperature was 54°C, except for OhemQ where it was 60°C. Microsatellite analysis relied on an ABI four-colour sequence detection system on a 310 automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems). Loci were analysed in two sets, which permitted the elimination of poor samples after the first pass. Genotypes were scored using Genotyper software (ABI); error checking followed Paetkau (2003).

2.4 | Genetic analysis

To evaluate data completeness and confirm unique individuals, we used MICROSATELLITE TOOL KIT 3.1.1 in Microsoft Excel 2013 (Park,

2008) and "allelematch" (Galpern, Manseau, Hettinga, Smith, & Wilson, 2012) in R 3.2.3 (R Core Team 2015). Deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and linkage disequilibrium were tested for each marker and each sampling unit using GENEPOP 4.2.2 (Raymond & Rousset, 1995; Rousset, 2008). For multiple tests, we adjusted error rates using sequential Bonferroni correction (McLaughlin & Sainani, 2014).

Using GENALEX 6.5 (Peakall & Smouse, 2006), we estimated the mean number of alleles (Na), observed heterozygosity (H_o) , expected heterozygosity (H_E) and unbiased heterozygosity (uH_E) for the study area and each sample unit, as well as *F*-statistics for each locus across sample units. To account for differences in sample size, we adjusted estimates of allelic richness (A_R) and private alleles (A_p) for each sample unit using rarefaction based on the smallest diploid sample size (i.e., n = 12) in ADZE 1.0 (Szpiech, Jakobsson, & Rosenberg, 2008). In addition, the inbreeding coefficient (F_{IS}) was calculated using R package "diveRsity" (Keenan et al., 2013). We evaluated differences in genetic diversity (H_E) between sample units using the Kruskal–Wallis test and Dunn's post hoc test in the "PMCMR" R package (Pohlert, 2016); we repeated analyses for each genetic cluster identified through Bayesian analysis.

2.5 | Population differentiation and isolation by distance

To evaluate genetic differentiation among sample units and clusters, we estimated pairwise Fst (Weir & Cockerham, 1984) and computed bias-corrected, pairwise bootstrapped 95% confidence limits based on 10,000 interactions using "diveRsity" in R. We used the function *heatmap.2* in the package "ggplot" to create a UPGMA dendrogram from sample unit $F_{\rm ST}$ values. The heatmap illustrated the $F_{\rm ST}$ matrix and highlighted $F_{\rm ST}$ groups from pairwise $F_{\rm ST}$ values.

Isolation by distance (IBD; Wright, 1943, 1946), the tendency for genetic similarity to reflect geographic proximity (Meirmans, 2012), was assessed by comparing matrices of genetic and geographic distance. Here, we used pairwise $F_{\rm ST}$ for genetic distance. A matrix of geographic distances—based on great-circle distance and representing the shortest distance between points (Nychka, Furrer, Paige, & Sain, 2016)—was calculated using the centroid (Datum WEGS84) of each sample unit in the "fields" package for R (Nychka et al., 2016). To test for IBD, Mantel correlation coefficients (Mantel, 1967) and multivariate Mantel correlograms were calculated based on Spearman correlations and 10,000 permutations using "vegan" in R (Oksanen et al., 2017).

2.6 | Multivariate analysis and Bayesian clustering

We performed principal component analyses (PCA) to evaluate genetic variation among caribou using "adegenet" 1.4-1 in R (Jombart, 2008). This method has no underlying assumptions regarding population genetics (Vergara et al., 2015). We conducted PCA for all caribou and separately for Peary caribou.

We investigated hierarchical structure using two Bayesian individual-based clustering methods (IBC) -- that is non-spatial and spatially explicit models (Ball, Finnegan, Manseau, & Wilson, 2010). We first used STRUCTURE 2.3.3 (Pritchard, Stephens, & Donnelly, 2000) to assign individuals with multilocus genotype data to clusters (K) using a Markov chain Monte Carlo algorithm independent of sampling location. An admixture model with correlated allele frequencies was used (Falush et al., 2003; Kopatz et al., 2014). Fifteen independent runs (for $1 \le K \le 10$) were performed using 500,000 iterations as a burn-in and an additional 750,000 for data collection. Because replicate runs can provide different solutions, ten runs with the highest likelihood [LnP(D)] were extracted for further analysis. We used Structure Harvester v0.6.94 (Earl & vonHoldt, 2012) to generate mean likelihood scores for each K and implement the ΔK Evanno method (Evanno, Regnaut, & Goudet, 2005). For each K, individuals were assigned to a cluster based on their highest percentage of membership (q), provided this value was ≥ 0.5 ; membership coefficients (q) were calculated using the greedy algorithm with 10,000 repeats in CLUMMP 1.1.1 (Jakobsson & Rosenberg, 2007). Individuals remained unassigned if the threshold was not met and considered admixed among genetic clusters. To select the most distinct genetic subdivision, we examined the likelihood estimates from Structure, ΔK values (Evanno et al., 2005) and visual plots. We performed a first run in STRUCTURE, assigning individuals to a primary cluster, and repeated the analysis on each of the assigned groups using the above methods $(1 \le K \le 5)$. We continued until no further substructure was identified (Glass, Walter, Heath, Mandrak, & Corkum, 2015; Hagerty & Tracy, 2010; Rowe & Beebee, 2007).

Next, we evaluated hierarchical structure by incorporating spatial information with multilocus genotype data using TESS 2.3 (Chen, Durand, Forbes, & Francois, 2007; Durand, Chen, & Francois, 2009). When spatial data at the individual level were not available, we generated unique coordinates for each animal based on their prescribed range (Chen et al., 2007; Durand et al., 2009). We used the admixture model which assumes spatial autocorrelation and accounts for clines in allele frequencies and isolation by distance (Francois & Durand, 2010). We performed 15 independent simulations for different maximum numbers of genetic clusters ($2 \le K_{max} \le 10$) with a total of 125,000 sweeps and a burn-in of 50,000. Models were run with a conditional autoregressive (CAR) variance of 1.0, a linear trend surface and a spatial interaction strength of 0.6 to address spatial autocorrelation (Durand et al., 2009; Yannic et al., 2016). As IBD was observed in the area (Jenkins et al., 2016), the linear trend surface option was chosen. For each K_{max} , 10 runs with the lowest deviation information criterion (DIC) were selected and exported for analysis. To assess the optimal number of clusters, the average DIC for each K was plotted against K_{max} . Using CLUMMP, the admixture coefficient was averaged across runs for each $K_{\rm max}$ (Durand et al., 2009) and the output graphically displayed for each unique value. The number of clusters was inferred by evaluating where the plot stabilized at the lowest DIC and through visual assessment of K plots (Basto et al., 2016; Durand et al., 2009). After the first run in TESS, analyses were repeated using the above methods ($2 \le K_{max} \le 5$) until no further substructure was identified.

2.7 | Heterozygosity in relation to ecological and geographic factors

To assess the effect of ecological and geographic factors on genetic diversity, we employed linear mixed-effects (LME) models using the "nlme" package in R (Pinheiro, Bates, DebRoy, Sarkar, & R Core Team, 2017). We built models using individual heterozygosity (HLE) as the response variable. HLE was calculated using the homozygosity index in CERNICALIN V.1 (Aparicio, Ortego, & Cordero, 2006) and logit-transformed to address the bounded nature of the variable (between 0 and 1). To account for small sample sizes, our analysis was limited to sample units with >15 individuals. We treated caribou on Baffin Island as one unit and grouped Cameron Island samples with those from the Bathurst Island Complex (Figure 1).

We investigated the effect of the following independent factors on HLE (Table S2): latitude and longitude (Christiansen & Reyer, 2011), population size (log transformed), island area, glacier-free island area (Frankham, 1996, 1997), distance to mainland (Eckert et al., 2008; Frankham, 1997), subspecies, average annual, spring and fall ice-free coastline (Geffen et al., 2007; Post et al., 2013) and maximum island elevation (Ally, El-Kassaby, & Ritland, 2000). We included sample units or Bayesian clusters as a random effect, accounting for variation within the putative groups and resolving the non-independence of individuals.

To address multicollinearity, we calculated Spearman correlations among predictors in R (Zuur, leno, & Elphick, 2010) and removed correlated variables ($|r| \ge .7$). Using the remaining predictor variables, we calculated stepwise variance inflation factor (VIF) using "usdm" package (Naimi, 2015). We sequentially dropped variables with high VIF before recalculating VIF to a final threshold of 2 (Zuur et al., 2010). Finally, to understand the variance explained by our best LME model(s), we calculated the marginal and conditional R^2 , representing the variance explained by fixed versus fixed and random factors (Nakagawa, Schielzeth, & O'Hara, 2013) using the "MuMIn" R package (Barton, 2015).

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Genetic diversity and differentiation

In total, 447 unique individuals were confirmed; completeness of the dataset at 16 loci was >99%. The mean number of alleles per locus was 6.5 (0.2 standard error [SE]) with a total of 257 alleles across sample units and microsatellite loci. Alleles per loci ranged from 4.7 (0.3 SE) to 8.3 (0.7 SE) on BMS745 and BM4513, respectively (Table S3). The global mean F_{IS} was 0.02 (0.01 SE) and F_{ST} was 0.12 (0.01 SE) when averaged across loci and sample regions (Table S4). There were no significant deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) and no evidence of linkage disequilibrium after sequential Bonferroni corrections.

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For sample units, adjusted allele richness (alleles/locus) ranged from 3.93 to 4.48 for Peary caribou, 3.71 to 4.87 for island barren-ground caribou and to a maximum of 6.8 for the mainland Qamanirjuag herd. Similar patterns are apparent for adjusted private allele richness (Table 2). We found a difference in the mean H_{r} between sampling units (Kruskal–Wallis χ^2 = 76.22, df = 16, p < .001). The Qamanirjuag and Dolphin and Union herds were more diverse than other units.

3.2 | Population differentiation and isolation by distance

Based on F_{ST} values, both the dendrogram and heatmap mainly separated Peary from barren-ground caribou (Figure 2) and showed that the most genetically divergent population was Southampton Island (mean pairwise F_{ST} : 0.206 ± 0.031, min: 0.134; max: 0.243). In addition, these patterns were in broad agreement with alternative individual-based methods below, that is PCA (Figure 4) and Bayesian clustering (Figure 5).

We found a significant relationship between genetic and geographic distances among sample units (F_{ST} – Mantel r = .71, p < .001; Figure 3a)—a relationship also evident in Peary caribou (F_{ST} – Mantel r = .61, p < .001; Figure 3b). Overall, caribou showed positive autocorrelation up to ~600 km (Figure 3c) and Peary caribou (Figure 3d), up to ~250 km.

3.3 Multivariate analysis and Bayesian clustering

Sample unit

ARCW

AHAH

BIBI

CACA

DIDI

EGPP

ERKC

ESES

LILI

Ν

6

20

20

22

10

8

16

41

42

Na

4.06

5.63

5.56

5.31

4.69

4.75

4.88

5.19

5.81

The PCA suggested four primary clusters. In two-dimensional space, Peary caribou emerged as distinct from Baffin Island, Southampton

Н

0.68

0.67

0.78

0.75

0.65

0.74

0.64

0.67

0.75

H_F

0.65

0.69

0.72

0.71

0.65

0.66

0.65

0.69

0.71

uH_F

0.71

0.71

0.74

0.72

0.68

0.70

0.67

0.69

0.72

A_R

4.06

4.26

4.35

4.18

4.07

4.39

3.94

4.01

4.15

Island and the remaining mainland and island herds (Figure 4a). Notably, at this scale, Peary caribou appeared in one homogenous cluster. In separate analysis of Peary caribou, no major divisions were evident, although there was some east-west separation (Figure 4b).

Hierarchical Bayesian clustering in STRUCTURE revealed nine groups overall (Figure 5a), with three distinct clusters at the first level. These largely corresponded with the native subspecies and reintroduced population. Initially, >90% of the individuals were assigned to one of three clusters with high membership coefficients (q > 0.90, Table S5): Peary caribou, the reintroduced population on Southampton Island, and a composite of barren-ground caribou (mainland and island) and Belcher Island reindeer. The latter may have been an effect of the small sample size (n = 10). Second-level analysis revealed two groups within Peary caribou (north-eastern and west-central), no substructure within Southampton Island and four groups within the barrenground and Belcher Island group (Qamanirjuag herd, Baffin Island, Dolphin and Union, and Belcher Island). Third- and fourth-level analyses teased out additional substructure within north-eastern Peary caribou (Figure 5a). All the historical Peary caribou samples clustered with the west-central group where no substructure was found. With the exception of two Qamanirjuag caribou, at second-level analysis, all individuals assigned to a cluster.

By including individual spatial coordinates, we found broadly similar patterns. TESS suggested nine clusters (Figure 5b). The DIC curve and graphical evaluation of membership coefficients both revealed five initial clusters (K_{max} = 5), separating Peary, Southampton Island, Baffin Island and Belcher Island caribou from the Qamanirjuaq and Dolphin and Union group (Figure 5b). Assignments were pronounced: 85% of individuals were assigned to a cluster with q > 0.90 (Table S6); one individual (Qamanirjuag)

F_{IS}

 -0.04^{NS}

0.03^{NS}

-0.08

-0.06*

-0.12* 0.01^{NS}

0.00^{NS}

0.02^{NS}

-0.05

A_p

0.04

0.01

0.00

0.00

0.03

0.00

0.01

0.03

0.02

TABLE 2 Estimates of genetic diversity, number of genotypes (N), mean number of alleles per locus (Na), observed heterozygosity (H_0), expected and unbiased expected heterozygosity ($H_{\rm F}$, uH_E), allelic richness averaged over loci (A_{R}) , mean number of private alleles per locus (A_p) and inbreeding coefficient (F_{1s}). Sample unit IDs as in Table 1

PW50	10	5.19	0.69	0.67	0.71	4.48	0.06	-0.03 ^{NS}
PWSI	13	5.44	0.73	0.69	0.72	4.37	0.07	-0.06*
PINB	36	8.75	0.74	0.71	0.72	4.87	0.18	-0.04 ^{NS}
BSBS	22	7.69	0.69	0.71	0.73	4.82	0.18	0.03 ^{NS}
SKBI	10	5.25	0.65	0.70	0.74	4.46	0.55	0.08 ^{NS}
SHSH	76	6.19	0.66	0.67	0.67	3.71	0.36	0.01 ^{NS}
QAQA	52	14.38	0.85	0.86	0.87	6.84	0.74	0.02 ^{NS}
DODO	43	10.19	0.84	0.83	0.84	6.07	0.48	-0.02 ^{NS}

 A_{P} and A_{P} are based on the minimum sample size of six diploid individuals.

Significantly different from 0 based on 10,000 bootstrap 95% confidence intervals.

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FIGURE 2 Pairwise F_{ST} heatmap and dendrogram based on F_{ST} values among the 17 caribou sampling locations, Arctic Canada (n = 447). The heatmap colour code represents the F_{ST} matrix considering different discrete F_{ST} groups from low to high genetic differentiation: $F_{ST} < 0.001$ (yellow); $0.001 \le F_{ST} < 0.025$, $0.025 \le F_{ST} < 0.05$, $0.05 \le F_{ST} < 0.10$, $0.10 \le F_{ST} < 0.15$, $0.15 \le F_{ST} < 0.20$ and $0.20 \le F_{ST} < 0.25$ (shades of blue) [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary. com]

was unassigned. Progressive partitioning revealed further structure within Peary caribou but also within the Qamanirjuaq-Dolphin and Union group (Figure 5). In the north-east, two small groups, Marvin Peninsula and western Ellesmere Island, were highlighted with third-level analysis.

3.4 | Characteristics of clusters

Genetic diversity (H_E) was significantly different among clusters derived through Bayesian analysis (STRUCTURE—Kruskal–Wallis $\chi^2 = 72.807$, df = 8, p < .001; TESS—Kruskal–Wallis $\chi^2 = 77.869$, df = 8, p < .001). The Qamanirjuaq and Dolphin and Union clusters demonstrated significantly higher diversity than most others. Significant F_{IS} values (Table S7) provided evidence of non-random mating for small, isolated TESS-derived clusters on Ellesmere Island, and the more spatially dispersed STRUCTURE-derived Ellesmere west-central cluster. Pairwise F_{ST} (p < .05; Table S8) among STRUCTURE and TESS clusters ranged from 0.018 to 0.282 and 0.027 to 0.288, respectively.

3.5 | Geographic and ecological drivers of heterozygosity

Through correlation analysis and sequential VIF, we selected three explanatory covariates (distance to mainland [NearDis_km],

effective island size [UnglacArea] and fall ice-free coastline [Fall_ Open_C]), along with subspecies. At the individual level, including either sample units or Bayesian clusters as a random factor, models consistently showed heterozygosity influenced by distance to mainland, open fall coastline and effective island size (Table 3, Figure 6). Effective island size was the only variable with a consistent positive effect on heterozygosity; distance to mainland and open fall coastline reduced heterozygosity (Table 4). Marginal R^2 for best models indicated fixed effects explained 29% of the variance; random effects did not improve these values.

4 | DISCUSSION

Understanding how populations are structured is crucial to conservation (Bowen, Bass, Soares, & Toonen, 2005; Pond et al., 2016). Using multiple approaches, we consistently uncovered strong population differentiation, with similar patterns among caribou across the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. Given the large extent and heterogeneous landscape, we predicted hierarchical organization (Schaefer, 2006). Indeed, we uncovered structure at and below the subspecies level for Peary and barren-ground caribou (Figure 5). Separation between subspecies aligns with Klutsch, Manseau, Anderson, Sinkins, and Wilson (2017) who established that Peary caribou likely evolved in a separate High Arctic



FIGURE 3 Correlation between genetic and geographic distances among (a) all 17 caribou units (n = 447) and (b) Peary caribou, Arctic Canada (n = 208). Corresponding Mantel correlograms (c and d, respectively) identify Mantel r statistic at each distance class; black squares denote those that are statistically significant ($p \le .05$) [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

refugium. Within Peary caribou, two clusters comprised multiple islands where sea ice supports movement and gene flow for most of the year (Jenkins et al., 2016). Uniquely, Marvin Peninsula caribou were bounded by deep fiords, rugged mountains and permanent ice sheets that likely represent barriers to movement. This cluster had previously been differentiated based on microsatellites and mtDNA (Peterson, Manseau, & Wilson, 2010).

Including historical samples can be tricky but informative. Time can add an additional layer of consideration when interpreting cluster results (Taylor, Jenkins, & Arcese, 2012; Zigouris, Schaefer, Fortin, & Kyle, 2013). We detected no substructure within the westcentral Peary cluster that included historical samples from Prince of Wales, Somerset and Prince Patrick Island. Our results largely agree with McFarlane et al. (2014) and highlight the opportunity for active conservation measures (i.e., reintroductions; Griffith, Scott, Carpenter, & Reed, 1989) to address the near-extirpation of Peary caribou from southern portions of their range (COSEWIC, 2015a,b; Gunn et al., 2006).

The diversity and future of peripheral populations are of increasing interest (Brzosko et al., 2009; Safriel, Volis, & Kark, 1994), as mounting environmental change underscores the evolutionary value of such populations (Lesica & Allendorf, 1995; Sexton,

McIntyre, Angert, & Rice, 2009; Volis, Ormanbekova, Yermekbayev, Song, & Shulgina, 2016). Highlighting the separation from mainland Qamanirjuag caribou, our study identified three unique clusters of barren-ground caribou at the northern edge of their range (e.g., Baffin, Southampton, and Dolphin and Union). These clusters corresponded largely to island or mainland-migrating herds with significant among-group differentiation (Table S8). High assignment proportions for Baffin and Southampton samples implied range disjunction and discrete populations (Figure 5). Baffin Island, which includes individuals on small proximal islands (e.g., Prince Charles Island), has experienced significant declines over the last three decades (Campbell, Goorts, Lee, Boulanger, & Pretzlaw, 2015; Jenkins et al., 2012) with no direct evidence of island-mainland movements (COSEWIC, 2011; Jenkins et al., 2012; Manning, 1943). Here, insularity and small population size lead to the loss of genetic diversity, susceptibility to genetic drift and differentiation from other barrenground populations.

Low genetic diversity and genetic differentiation are common in introduced or newly founded populations (Frankham, 1997; Illerai, Spurgin, Rodriguez-Exposito, Nogales, & Randos, 2016) although a number of factors, including founder group size, initial diversity and connectivity are important (Andersen, Simcox, Thomas, &

FIGURE 4 Caribou cluster analyses, Arctic Canada. (a) Using all caribou (*n* = 447), principal component analysis (PCA) highlights four primary clusters, where axes 1 and 2 separate Southampton Island caribou, Peary caribou and Baffin Island caribou from the remaining herds. Eigenvalues were 0.82 for axis 1 and 0.36 for axis 2, and explained 11.32% and 4.97% of the variance, respectively. (b) For Peary caribou (*n* = 208), PCA illustrates a west-east gradient among these island herds. Herd identification numbers are from Table 1 and Figure 1 [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



Nash, 2014; IUCN, 2013; Szucs, Melbourne, Tuff, Weiss-Lehman, & Hufbauer, 2017). Our analyses—PCA, Bayesian analysis and pairwise $F_{\rm ST}$ —converged to establish Southampton Island as the most genetically distinct population (McFarlane et al., 2016; Serrouya, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Campbell et al., 2012). Originating from a small number of individuals, Southampton caribou exemplify the effects of isolation, genetic drift and founder effects on the genetic makeup of populations (Frankham et al., 2002).

Disagreement between multiple Bayesian clustering methods is not uncommon (Ball et al., 2010; Coulon et al., 2008; Yannic et al., 2016). Still, our results demonstrated broad agreement between STRUCTURE and TESS. One exception occurred with Peary caribou (Figure 5). TESS revealed an isolated group on Ellesmere Island; STRUCTURE identified a larger cluster spanning multiple islands. Because we applied a membership threshold of 0.50 and used both spatial and non-spatial methods, such disagreement may be related to marginal genotypes that could represent admixture or could be resolved with spatial information (e.g., TESS). Additionally, our data revealed IBD, which may create inconsistencies in outcomes (Ball et al., 2010).

4.1 | Genetic diversity and key drivers

Compared to their mainland counterparts, island populations often exhibit reduced genetic diversity (Frankham, 1996, 1997). Such examples include island red fox, *Vulpes vulpes* (Lade, Murrey, Marks, & Robinson, 1996); various Australian macropodids (Eldridge, Kinnear, Zenger, McKenzie, & Spencer, 2004); North American gray wolf, *Canis lupus* (Carmichael et al., 2008); *Ornithorhynchus anatinus* (Furlan et al., 2012); and Svalbard reindeer (Côté et al., 2002).



FIGURE 5 Assignment of 447 Canadian Arctic caribou, using hierarchical Bayesian cluster analysis with the program STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al., 2000; a) and TESS (Chen et al., 2007; b). Bar plots (i) show the assignment of individuals through multiple hierarchical levels of analysis, revealing nine genetic clusters and substructure among both Peary and barren-ground caribou (plus reindeer). (ii) Maps show cluster membership of each individual in accordance with bar plots, by colour. (iii) Pie charts illustrate the cluster membership of individuals by sample unit [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

TABLE 3 Best four linear mixed-effects models of logit-transformed individual heterozygosity based on biogeographic predictors with sample unit as random effect^a. K is the number of parameters, AICc is the corrected Akaike information criteria, Δ AICc is the difference between the model AICc and the best model AICc, and AICcWt is the Akaike weight

Ranked models	Predictors ^b	к	AICc	ΔAICc	AICcWt
Model 1	UnglacArea+NearDis_Km+Fall_Open_C	6	752.37	0.00	0.63
Model 2	NearDis_Km+Subspecies+Fall_Open_C	7	754.95	2.59	0.17
Model 3	UnglacArea+NearDis_Km+Subspecies+Fall_Open_C	8	755.20	2.83	0.15
Model 4	UnglacArea+NearDis_Km+Subspecies	7	757.96	5.60	0.04

^aSimilar results were generated when clusters from STRUCTURE and TESS were substituted as the random effect (unpublished; this study). ^bUnglacArea = unglaciated island size (km²), NearDis_Km = distance to mainland (km), Fall_Open_C = average fall ice-free coastline (%).

Nevertheless, if immigration is high, island populations may still be genetically diverse (Carmichael et al., 2007; Pemberton et al., 1996; Stronen et al., 2014). As expected, Arctic island caribou populations displayed lower genetic diversity than the mainland populations, likely as a result of small population size and limited gene flow. In accordance with CMH, the most isolated groups exhibited low diversity; diversity was negatively related to distance from mainland (Figure 6). Here, harsh conditions constrain population densities, which are 1–2 orders of magnitude lower than elsewhere in the species range (Jenkins et al., 2011; Schaefer & Mahoney, 2003); immense distances limit the exchange of genes, even for this mobile

animal (Figure 3). Support for CMH is not uncommon (e.g., Eckert et al., 2008; Micheletti & Storfer, 2015); the hypothesis has been upheld even in studies across large spatial extents (McFarlane et al., 2014; Yannic et al., 2014), such as ours.

Island area and distance to mainland are recurrent themes in island biogeography (MacArthur & Wilson, 1967), including studies of the genetics of island-dwelling vertebrates (Harradine et al., 2015; Stronen et al., 2014; Vellend, 2003, 2005). Positive correlations between island area and genetic diversity are commonplace (Cheylan, Granjon, & Britton-Davidian, 1998; White & Searle, 2007), including our study. Additionally, Dolphin and Union and mainland

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TABLE 4 Estimate of fixed effects produced by the best linear mixed model of individual heterozygosity with sample unit as the random effect (*SD*: 0.06). Estimates were considered as significant (in bold) when the 95% CI did not overlap zero. Marginal and conditional pseudo- R^2 values were 0.289 (R_m^2) and 0.296 (R_c^2), respectively



Estimate	SE	95% CI	
1.74	1.05×10^{-1}	1.54	1.95
1.00×10^{-6}	2.5 × 10 ⁻⁷	4.2 × 10 ⁻⁷	1.57×10^{-6}
-1.00×10^{-3}	1.3×10^{-4}	-1.27×10^{-3}	-7.44×10^{-4}
-1.73×10^{-2}	1.9×10^{-3}	-2.18 × 10 ⁻²	-1.29×10^{-2}
	Estimate 1.74 1.00×10^{-6} -1.00×10^{-3} -1.73×10^{-2}	Estimate SE 1.74 1.05 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.00 × 10 ⁻⁶ 2.5 × 10 ⁻⁷ -1.00 × 10 ⁻³ 1.3 × 10 ⁻⁴ -1.73 × 10 ⁻² 1.9 × 10 ⁻³	EstimateSE95% Cl 1.74 1.05×10^{-1} 1.54 1.00×10^{-6} 2.5×10^{-7} 4.2×10^{-7} -1.00×10^{-3} 1.3×10^{-4} -1.27×10^{-3} -1.73×10^{-2} 1.9×10^{-3} -2.18×10^{-2}

UnglacArea = unglaciated island size (km²), NearDis_Km = distance to mainland (km), Fall_ Open_C = average fall ice-free coastline (%).

Qamanirjuaq caribou showed expectedly higher genetic diversity (Table 2), re-emphasizing the powerful influence of the mainland and its proximity. At the same time, low genetic differentiation exists among continental barren-ground herds (Jenkins et al., 2016; McFarlane et al., 2014, 2016; Yannic et al., 2017; Zittlau, 2004). Indeed, mixing among mainland populations promotes diversity (McFarlane et al., 2016). In our study area, an ice bridge extends that mixing—that is between the mainland and Victoria Island, where seasonal island-mainland migrations and contact among large heterogeneous populations take place (Dumond et al., 2013; Poole et al., 2010).

For island caribou, sea ice is the corridor that facilitates movement (Jenkins et al., 2016). Indeed, like Arctic foxes (Carmichael et al., 2008; Geffen et al., 2007), ice enhances connectivity for caribou (Figures 5 and 6). Genetic diversity was lower on islands where the extent of the ice-free autumn coastline was greater (Figure 6). This represents a conservation warning. Climate change is anticipated to bring extended seasons of open water to the Arctic (Jenkins et al., 2016). For ice-dependent species, open water can thwart betweenisland movements (Dalen et al., 2005; Post et al., 2013). Water can be a serious barrier, even to caribou (Dumond et al., 2013), despite their renowned ability to swim (Miller, 1995).

5 | CONCLUSIONS

Drawing lines below the species level (e.g., subspecies, populations, DUs) has implications for conservation. In Canada, DUs address such intraspecific diversity, with emphasis on discrete and significant groups for protection under the Species at Risk Act (COSEWIC, 2015a). Our work points to Baffin Island caribou as an insular and discrete population (Figures 2 and 4-5), geographically and genetically disjunct from both mainland barren-ground (the same subspecies) and island-dwelling Peary caribou. Such biogeographic separation could help focus management and conservation efforts. It may also be indicative of intraspecific diversity (e.g., DUs; Mee, Bernatchez, Reist, Rogers, & Taylor, 2015) and provide evidence of evolutionary significance (COSEWIC, 2015a). Our study points to Baffin Island caribou as a candidate for consideration as a DU.

Populations are often organized hierarchically, as our study shows, even for highly mobile species (Schaefer, 2006). Iterative clustering is the means to reveal substructure at progressively finer spatial scales (Figure 5). For caribou of the Arctic islands, the diversity of mainland versus islands lends support to island theory; the drivers of genetic diversity—distance to mainland and ice-free isolation—lend support to CMH. Our study underscores the enduring relevance of biogeography (Lomolino, Riddle, Whittaker, & Brown, 2010)—particularly for uncovering biological patterns pertinent to conservation, now and for the future.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

We have no competing interests.

DATA ACCESSIBILITY

Genetic data for Southampton Island, Dolphin and Union, and Qamanirjuaq caribou are available from DRYAD; Serrouya, Paetkau, McLellan, Boutin, Jenkins et al. (2012).

For genetic data and samples on Arctic island caribou contact the Department of Environment, Government of Nunavut; Environment and Natural Resources, Government of Northwest Territories.

All sea ice GIS layers are available as raster files, from the National Snow and Ice Data Center, Sea Ice Index.

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BIOSKETCH

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information tab for this article.

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