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3 TITLE: Fine-scale social and genetic structure of common bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops*
4 *truncatus*) in the Barataria Basin, Louisiana, USA
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43 ABSTRACT 44 45 46

47 1 The Barataria Bay Estuarine System (BBES) Stock of common bottlenose dolphins
48 (*Tursiops truncatus*) in the northern Gulf of Mexico has been a focus of extensive
49 2 research as a result of the Barataria Basin, Louisiana being one of the most heavily oiled
50 3 estuaries following the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill. The goal of this study was to build
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3 5 upon previous research to better understand social and genetic structure of BBES
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5 6 dolphins.

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7 7 2. Photo-identification data from 2010-2019 were analysed with SOCPROG to identify
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9 8 dolphin social clusters. Genetic analyses were conducted on samples obtained during
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11 9 remote biopsy surveys and health assessments (2010-2018) to assess if identified social
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13 10 clusters were congruent with genetic clustering results, and to evaluate relatedness and
14
15 11 gene flow within and between social and genetic clusters. Spatial analyses of the
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17 12 cumulative photo-identification sighting histories from each cluster were also used to
18
19 13 determine their geographic range and degree of overlap within the Barataria Basin.

20
21 14 3. Social analyses identified four distinct clusters with some degree of geographic overlap
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23 15 and similar utilization distributions as the three identified genetic clusters. Dolphins in
24
25 16 the Barataria Basin were confirmed to be genetically differentiated from those in adjacent
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27 17 coastal waters.

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29 18 4. In general, genetic analyses differentiate distinct dolphin communities established
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31 19 through long-term (generational) preferential breeding behaviour. In contrast, social
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33 20 associations can be more fluid over the short-term, may change in response to habitat or
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35 21 predator/prey changes, and strong associations can be formed between a mix of related
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37 22 and unrelated individuals. The combination of genetic and social methodologies is
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39 23 valuable for developing a better understanding of complex dolphin social interactions and
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41 24 provides unique insights into dolphin behaviour that can be important for developing
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43 25 effective management strategies.

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3 27 KEYWORDS: association patterns, community structure, kernel density estimation,
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5 28 microsatellites, mtDNA, photo-identification, protected species
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10 30 1. INTRODUCTION

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14 32 Long-term studies have proven invaluable in understanding the social structure of both
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16 33 marine and terrestrial species (reviewed in Eisenberg, Muckenhirn & Rudran, 1972; Wells, 1991;
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18 34 Schradin & Hayes, 2017). Data collected from these studies can provide information on spatio-
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20 35 temporal shifts in abundance and distribution, reproductive success, and overall survival rates. In
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22 36 turn, this information can be used to assess impacts of anthropogenic stressors and develop
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24 37 conservation plans for a given population or species (reviewed in Hayes & Schradin, 2017).
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26 38 Bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops* spp.) are long-lived, top-level predators characterized by fission-
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28 39 fusion societies wherein group composition can vary frequently with individuals changing
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30 40 associates over a period of hours to days (White, 1992; Connor et al., 2000). The social
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32 41 organization of dolphin societies can be influenced by density-dependent (e.g. predator and prey
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34 42 distribution) and density-independent (e.g. landscape complexity) factors (reviewed in Lusseau
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36 43 et al., 2006). For example, common bottlenose dolphins in Moray Firth, Scotland, were found to
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38 44 shift grouping patterns in relation to interannual variations in salmon (*Salmo salar*) abundance
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40 45 (Lusseau et al., 2004). In contrast, Lusseau et al. (2003) propose that common bottlenose
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42 46 dolphins in Doubtful Sound, New Zealand require a higher level of group stability as a result of
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44 47 the low productivity found within the local fjords.
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51 48 In the United States, common bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) have a similar
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53 49 fission-fusion social structure to that of other bottlenose dolphin populations around the world
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3 50 (e.g. Quintana-Rizzo & Wells, 2001; Wells, 2003; Urian et al., 2009). In fission-fusion societies,
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5 51 most social interactions among dolphins occur within the same population or community
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8 52 (Connor et al., 2000). However, some individual dolphins occasionally move beyond their core
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10 53 areas into habitat utilized by different dolphin communities and high rates of interactions could
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12 54 promote genetic exchange among adjacent groups (Möller & Beheregaray, 2004), although it
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14 55 should be noted that physical dispersal to a new area does not necessarily equate with gene flow;
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17 56 dispersal and mating leading to successful production of offspring must both occur.
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19 57 Nevertheless, these associations between groups can complicate the development of effective
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21 58 management strategies for a given population or stock, even in the absence of gene flow between
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23 59 them (Vollmer & Rosel, 2013). For example, they may result in geographic overlap between
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25 60 adjacent stocks making it difficult to draw stock boundaries, assign individuals to a stock, or
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28 61 attribute dolphin mortalities to the proper stock (e.g. Balmer et al., 2019).

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31 62 The United States Marine Mammal Protection Act defines a stock as a group of marine
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33 63 mammals of the same species or smaller taxa in a common spatial arrangement that interbreed
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35 64 when mature (MMPA, 16 USC } 1361 et seq.). Currently, for common bottlenose dolphins in
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38 65 U.S. waters of the Gulf of Mexico, 32 bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks are recognized, each
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40 66 generally associated with high, year-round site fidelity to a given BSE. Some BSE stocks form
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42 67 additional finer-scale groupings. For example, in Tampa Bay, Florida, Urian et al. (2009) used
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44 68 photo-identification (photo-ID) data to identify five social clusters of dolphins wherein there was
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47 69 minimal spatial overlap. Although genetic exchange may occur among these clusters, ecological
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49 70 factors such as habitat selection and foraging strategies may play a role in the delineation of
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51 71 these social groups over time. Other Southeast United States (SEUS) BSE stocks show evidence

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3 72 of genetic subdivision, such as in Jacksonville, Florida (Rosel, Hansen & Hohn, 2009), Biscayne
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5 73 Bay, Florida (Litz et al., 2012), and the Indian River Lagoon, Florida (Richards et al., 2013).

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8 74 The Barataria Basin, located in Louisiana in the northern Gulf of Mexico, was one of the
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10 75 most heavily oiled estuaries following the *Deepwater Horizon* (DWH) oil spill (Michel et al.,
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12 76 2013). As a result, the Barataria Bay Estuarine System (BBES) Stock of common bottlenose
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14 77 dolphins has been a focus of extensive research over the past decade. Since 2010, photo-ID
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16 78 surveys, remote biopsy sampling, health assessments, and telemetry studies have examined the
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18 79 impacts of oil exposure on dolphin abundance, health, reproduction, and survival. Long-term
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20 80 photo-ID data indicate BBES dolphins have year-round, multi-year site fidelity to the Barataria
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22 81 Basin (McDonald et al., 2017). Results from a study of BBES dolphins tagged with satellite-
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24 82 linked transmitters support long-term residence, and further showed that BBES dolphins have
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26 83 localized movements that, in general, can be classified into one of three ranging patterns: 1)
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28 84 western Barataria Basin, 2) barrier islands, and 3) eastern Barataria Basin (Wells et al., 2017).
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31 85 Photo-ID analysis has revealed limited movement of dolphins from the Barataria and Caminada
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33 86 Bays (Figure 1) into either the adjacent Terrebonne-Timbalier Bay estuarine system to the west
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35 87 (Mullin et al., 2018) or the south-eastern region of the basin (Garrison, Litz & Sinclair, 2020).

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38 88 Genetic studies completed on BBES dolphin samples collected during 2010-2013 from
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40 89 remote biopsies and health assessments indicated the presence of at least two genetically distinct
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42 90 groups within the Barataria Basin (Rosel et al., 2017). The sample locations for one group were
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44 91 within estuarine waters of the western portion of the basin and the other group was found within
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46 92 estuarine waters of the central and eastern areas, with overlap of the two groups along the barrier
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48 93 islands. Using nuclear microsatellite data, significant differentiation was seen between the two
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50 94 groups, as well as between each BBES group and dolphins sampled > 2 km from shore,
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3 95 belonging to the Western Coastal Stock (WCS). Rosel et al. (2017) also found evidence for three
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5 96 genetic groups within the basin, however, with weaker support than division into two groups,
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8 97 and therefore, differentiation of the three groups was not fully investigated. They suggested that
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10 98 further studies incorporating a larger sample size could increase our understanding of the genetic
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12 99 differentiation and distribution of groups within the Barataria Basin.

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15 100 The goal of this study was to build upon previous research conducted within the Barataria
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17 101 Basin to better understand social and genetic structure of BBES dolphins. Specifically, the
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19 102 objective of this study was to determine the number of discrete social and genetic groups within
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21 103 this estuarine habitat and determine how those different units compare to one another. The
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23 104 results of this study offer a framework for using multiple sampling methods to provide insight
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25 105 into cetacean population structure and habitat use and can inform future stock management
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27 106 decisions and restoration planning.

30 31 107 32 33 108 2. METHODS

34 35 109 36 37 110 2.1 Study location

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39 111 The Barataria Basin is located in southern Louisiana between Bayou Lafourche to the
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41 112 west and the Mississippi River to the east (Figure 1). This large, shallow estuary includes a
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43 113 variety of wetlands from fresh water to brackish to salt water. The basin is separated from the
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45 114 Gulf of Mexico by a chain of barrier islands and covers approximately 1,700 km² with an
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47 115 average depth of 2 m (USEPA, 1999). Tides are diurnal and the substrate comprises primarily a
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49 116 silty-clay sediment with varying amounts of detrital matter (Conner & Day, 1987). The basin's
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51 117 protected shores are characterized by tidal flats and brackish marshes. The marsh vegetation is

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3 118 predominantly smooth cord grass (*Spartina alterniflora*) in the southern reaches transitioning to
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5 119 saltmeadow cordgrass (*S. patens*) further north (Baltz, Rakocinski & Fleeger, 1993). BBES
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7 120 dolphins generally inhabit the Barataria Basin in latitudes south of Little Lake (Figure 1).
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12 122 2.2 Photo-ID data collection and analysis

14 123 Photo-ID data used to analyse dolphin social structure were collected during mark-
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16 124 recapture surveys conducted between 2010-2019. Surveys were completed in two phases: Phase
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18 125 1 - 2010-2014 (10 primary periods; see McDonald et al., 2017 for field effort) as part of the
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20 126 DWH Natural Resource Damage Assessment (NRDA), and Phase 2 - March 2019 (1 primary
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22 127 period; see Garrison, Litz & Sinclair (2020) as part of a study to inform an Environmental Impact
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24 128 Statement (EIS) required for the proposed Mid-Barataria Sediment Diversion (MBSD) project
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26 129 (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 2017). The DWH NRDA study area comprised the western and
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28 130 central portions of the BBES stock area, primarily the estuarine waters in and adjoining Barataria
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30 131 and Caminada Bays (Figure 1). Phase 1 survey transects ran east to west and generally covered
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32 132 the open portions of both bays. Phase 2 surveys covered Phase 1 transects in addition to smaller
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34 133 embayments and contours of marsh edge habitat (including south-eastern portions of the basin
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36 134 not previously surveyed) in order to include coverage of waters north of Bastian, Lanaux, and
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38 135 Pelican islands (Figure 1). Following the robust design for mark-recapture studies (Pollock,
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40 136 1982), survey effort was divided into primary periods. Primary periods consisted of three to four
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42 137 secondary sessions, during each of which all survey transects were completed. During Phase 1,
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44 138 each transect was surveyed three times per primary period. During Phase 2, which only
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46 139 comprised one primary period, transects were surveyed four times in total. Each primary period
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54 140 was completed in 1-2 weeks.

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3 141 Field methods were standardized across both survey phases and are detailed in Rosel et
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5 142 al. (2011) and McDonald et al. (2017). Briefly, when dolphins were encountered, data including
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7 143 GPS location and dolphin group size/composition were recorded for each group. A dolphin
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9 144 group was defined as all dolphins in relatively close proximity (~100 m), engaged in similar
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11 145 behaviour, and generally heading in the same direction (Wells, Scott & Irvine, 1987). During
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13 146 photo-ID surveys, effort was made to photograph each individual of the group with Canon EOS
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15 147 digital cameras (Canon Inc., Ota City, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with 100-400 mm telephoto
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17 148 lenses. During biopsy sampling, attempts were made to photograph sampled individuals for
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19 149 comparison to the Barataria dorsal fin catalogue.

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24 150 Photo analysis techniques, described in Melancon et al. (2011), were followed to assure
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26 151 quality standards. All sorted photographs were scored independently for photo quality and
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28 152 distinctiveness (Urian et al., 2014). Standard photo-ID techniques were used to catalogue
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30 153 individuals based on dorsal fin characteristics (Würsig & Würsig, 1977; Würsig & Jefferson,
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32 154 1990). The program finFindR was used to match all Phase 2 photos (Thompson et al., 2021). All
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34 155 matches made using finFindR were confirmed by two experienced researchers. All photos and
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36 156 associated sighting data were entered into the Barataria FinBase database created during Phase 1
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38 157 (Adams et al., 2006). A discovery curve was plotted to display the number of marked dolphins
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40 158 and number of new individuals identified each year of sampling effort, as well as the total
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42 159 number of individuals catalogued across the study. Marked dorsal fins had two or more
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44 160 significant features or at least one major feature with a good probability of re-identification
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46 161 (Speakman et al., 2010; Urian et al., 2014). The average marked proportion was calculated by
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48 162 dividing the number of marked (distinctive) individuals identified by the number of marked and
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50 163 unmarked (not distinctive) individuals photographed during the study (Speakman et al., 2010).

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3 164 To investigate associations among individual dolphins and identify social clusters, only
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5 165 high-quality photographs of individuals with distinctive dorsal fin characteristics, identifiable
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8 166 across surveys, were included in the association data set. The photo-ID data were analysed using
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10 167 the hierarchical cluster analysis feature in SOCPROG v2.9, a series of MATLAB programs
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12 168 designed specifically to analyse social structure from large datasets for species such as bottlenose
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14 169 dolphins (Whitehead, 2009). Analyses included only dolphins sighted 10 or more times across
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17 170 the study period (Quintana-Rizzo & Wells, 2001; Ingram & Rogan, 2002; Urian et al., 2009),
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19 171 excluding same day resights. Individuals with less than 10 sightings were excluded from the
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21 172 cluster analysis in order to minimize bias due to low sample size (Whitehead, 2008). Individuals
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24 173 were considered to be associated if observed in the same sighting on the same day (Whitehead &
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26 174 Dufault, 1999).

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28 175 Association indices can be used to control for missed observations in social network
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30 176 analyses and are an important factor to consider when quantifying social relationships (Hoppitt
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32 & Farine, 2018). Only images collected during mark-recapture surveys, where the objective was
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34 178 to photograph every individual in the group, were used for the association analysis to minimize
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37 179 potential bias. A simple ratio association index (SRI) with the default average linkage algorithm
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39 180 was used to identify dolphin social clusters (Whitehead, 2009). The SRI, widely used in animal
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41 181 social network analyses, calculates the probability that two individuals are observed together
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44 182 given one has been seen. This index does not overestimate associations between individuals,
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47 183 which has been found with alternative methods such as using twice-weight and half-weight
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49 184 indices (Ginsberg & Young, 1992). Hoppitt & Farine (2018) found the SRI to be valid if the
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51 185 probability of failing to see two individuals together is the same as the probability of failing to
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54 186 see both when they are apart.

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3 187 A dendrogram displays the results of the hierarchical cluster analysis and outlines the
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5 188 degree of association between individuals in the population. Newman's test of modularity (Q)
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8 189 was used to test whether the dolphins within the Barataria Basin can effectively be divided into
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10 190 social clusters (Newman, 2004; Whitehead, 2008). Newman (2004) suggests $Q > 0.3$ indicates
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12 191 accurately represented and well defined divisions. The effectiveness of hierarchical clustering
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15 192 was evaluated through the cophenetic correlation coefficient (CCC). This coefficient, calculated
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17 193 by SOCPROG, ranges from 0 to 1 and indicates how well the dendrogram correlates with the
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19 194 actual association indices, with a value of ≥ 0.8 representing reliable clustering (Whitehead,
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21 195 2009). Median group size was calculated using the revised (post-photo analysis) best field
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23 196 estimate for all dolphin sighting groups containing each social cluster individual. Network
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25 197 analysis statistics (cluster means with bootstrap standard errors using 1,000 replicates) were
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27 198 calculated in SOCPROG to compare the social connectivity within and between social clusters
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29 199 (Newman, 2004). Five social network metrics were evaluated for each social cluster: 1) affinity -
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31 200 the weighted average strengths of all close associates; 2) clustering coefficient - how closely
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33 201 associates are themselves connected; 3) eigenvector centrality - a measure of how connected
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35 202 individuals are within their cluster; 4) reach - a measure of indirect connectedness; and 5)
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37 203 strength - the sum of all association indices with other individuals (Whitehead, 2009).
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44 205 2.3 Genetic data collection and analysis

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47 206 Skin samples for genetic analyses were collected during four remote biopsy surveys
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49 207 (2010-2012; Balmer et al., 2015) and during health assessment studies (2011-2018, except 2012
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51 208 and 2015; Schwacke et al., 2014) conducted within Barataria and Caminada Bays (Figure 1). All
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53 209 skin samples were preserved in a 20% DMSO/saturated NaCl solution. Remote biopsy field
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3 210 sampling methods are detailed in Sinclair et al. (2015). The genetic samples included 126
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5 211 samples collected between 2010 and 2013 that were processed and analyzed by Rosel et al.
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7 212 (2017). An additional 106 skin samples collected in 2014-2018 were added to this study for a
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9 213 total of 232 genetic samples. DNA was extracted from the new samples using a Qiagen DNeasy
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11 214 Blood & Tissue kit following manufacturer's protocols. DNA quality was examined via gel
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13 215 electrophoresis and quantity measured by fluorometry (GE Healthcare Hoefer DyNA Quant 200
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15 216 or Invitrogen/Thermo Fisher Scientific Qubit 4 Fluorometer). The sex from each sample
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17 217 collected by remote biopsy was genetically determined via PCR using ZFXY and SRY specific
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19 218 primers (Rosel 2003). The sexes of individuals captured during health assessment studies were
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21 219 determined in the field by examining the genital slit and the presence/absence of mammary slits
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23 220 (Smolker et al., 1992).

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28 221 Samples were genotyped at 43 nuclear polymorphic microsatellite loci previously
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30 222 optimized for *T. truncatus* (Rosel, Hansen & Hohn, 2009; Rosel et al., 2017; Vollmer et al.,
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32 223 2021; see Supporting Information Table S1). Modifications to original primer sequences were
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34 224 made for D08, DlrFCB12, EV94, and MK8 (Rosel et al., 2017; Vollmer & Rosel, 2017; Vollmer
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36 225 et al., 2021). Excluding MK6, the reverse primer of each microsatellite locus or the forward
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38 226 primer of D22 was PIGtailed as described in Brownstein, Carpten & Smith (1996) to reduce one
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40 227 base pair (bp) stutter. All primer sequences are provided in Supporting Information Table S1.
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43 228 Three of the loci used in this study, Ttr20, Ttr51, and Ttr98, were amplified by Rosel et al.
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45 229 (2017) but were excluded from their final analyses due to evidence of null alleles in one of their
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47 230 studied populations. Primer sequences and PCR conditions for those loci were, therefore, not
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49 231 reported in the previous study but have been included in Supporting Information Table S1. The
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51 232 43 loci were genotyped using a Qiagen Type-it Microsatellite PCR kit in eight multiplexes, each
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3 233 containing four to seven loci, plus one locus (KWM12a) amplified alone and co-loaded with one
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5 234 of the multiplexes (see Supporting Information Table S1 for PCR multiplexing and conditions).
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8 235 A positive and negative control were included with each PCR reaction. All PCR products,
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10 236 including controls, were run on an ABI 3130 or ABI 3500 Genetic Analyzer using GeneScan 500
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12 237 LIZ or GeneScan 600 LIZ v2.0 size standards (Applied Biosystems), respectively. Microsatellite
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14 238 fragments were analysed and allele sizes determined using GeneMapper v6 (Life
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17 239 Technologies/Applied Biosystems). The two instruments were calibrated using a broad set of
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19 240 *Tursiops* samples to ensure allele calling was consistent. In addition, the genotypic data from the
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21 241 Rosel et al. (2017) study were collected in the same lab with the same protocols.

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24 242 A genotyping error rate was calculated by re-genotyping 10% of the samples at all 43
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26 243 loci. Microsatellite Toolkit (Park, 2002) was used to identify any dolphins that had been sampled
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28 244 more than once and probability of identity estimators, $P_{(ID)}$ and $P_{(ID)sib}$ (Waits, Luikart &
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30 245 Taberlet, 2001), were calculated in GenAlEx v6.5 (Peakall & Smouse, 2012). One member of
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32 246 each duplicate pair was removed from further microsatellite analyses.

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35 247 The inclusion of closely related individuals in a data set can bias methods used to
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37 248 estimate genetic diversity that rely on allele frequencies such as Bayesian clustering analysis, as
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39 249 well as diversity estimators such as heterozygosities, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE), and
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41 250 linkage disequilibrium (Anderson & Dunham, 2008; Rodríguez-Ramilo & Wang, 2012; Wang,
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43 251 2018). Therefore, closely related individuals are often removed from genetic analyses. During
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45 252 Barataria Basin field sampling, it was possible that individuals from the same family group were
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47 253 sampled during health assessments when a capture set involved multiple dolphins or during
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49 254 remote biopsy surveys when more than one animal was sampled from a single sighting.
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53 255 Furthermore, photo-ID evidence indicated that several mother-calf pairs were sampled during
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3 256 health assessments. Following standard practice, one individual from each of the mother-calf
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5 257 pairs was removed and one individual was removed from pairs with high pairwise relatedness
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7 258 values (r) from the same capture set or biopsy sighting, to prevent introducing bias from these
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9 259 related pairs. The R package *related* (Pew et al., 2015) was used to calculate r for six relatedness
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11 260 estimators [four moment estimators (Queller & Goodnight, 1989; Li, Weeks & Chakravarti,
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13 261 1993; Lynch & Ritland, 1999; Wang, 2002) and two likelihood-based estimators (Milligan,
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15 262 2003; Wang, 2007)] in RStudio v1.3.1093 (RStudio Team, 2020) with R v3.6.2 (R Core Team,
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17 263 2019). To determine the best relatedness estimator given the data, simulations were conducted
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19 264 using allele frequencies from the Barataria Basin samples to generate 100 pairs of each of the
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21 265 four relationship types (parent-offspring, full-sibling, half-sibling, and unrelated). Pearson
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23 266 correlation coefficients were calculated between observed and expected relatedness values of the
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25 267 simulations. The relatedness estimator with the highest coefficient, the triadic likelihood
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27 268 estimator (trioml; Wang, 2007), was then used to estimate r and identify closely related pairs ($r \geq$
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29 269 0.45).

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35 270 The optimal number of genetic clusters (K) within the Barataria Basin was evaluated
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37 271 using the Bayesian clustering program STRUCTURE v2.3.4 (Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly,
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39 272 2000). An initial STRUCTURE run was completed in which microsatellite data from 29 dolphins
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41 273 of the WCS from Rosel et al. (2017) were included to determine if any dolphins sampled within
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43 274 the Barataria Basin would cluster more closely with this coastal stock and therefore merit
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45 275 exclusion from further analyses. This run was completed using the admixture model, correlated
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47 276 allele frequencies, 20 independent runs for $K = 1-10$, with a burn-in length of 1×10^6 iterations
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49 277 followed by 5×10^6 Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) repetitions, and location priors were
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51 278 set for the two sampling locations (Barataria Basin or WCS). Program defaults were used for all
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3 279 other parameters. All STRUCTURE runs were performed on multi-core processors using the
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5 280 program ParallelStructure (Besnier & Glover, 2013) on the CIPRES Science Gateway v3.3
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7 281 server (Miller, Pfeiffer & Schwartz, 2010). The most likely number of clusters was evaluated
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9 282 using three methods for estimating the best value of K : the mean log-likelihood of the data (\ln
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11 283 $\Pr(X/K)$) (Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly, 2000), ΔK (Evanno, Regnaut & Goudet, 2005), and
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13 284 the parsimony index in KFinder (Wang, 2019). Structure Harvester v0.6.94 (Earl & vonHoldt,
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15 285 2012) was used to visualize ΔK and $\ln \Pr(X/K)$ plots and to generate input files for the program
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17 286 CLUMPP v1.1.2 (Jakobsson & Rosenberg, 2007). The *Greedy* algorithm in CLUMPP was then
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19 287 applied to average the membership coefficient (q) from all replicate runs of the best K . Using the
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21 288 output files from CLUMPP, individuals were assigned to each cluster using a threshold of $q \geq$
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23 289 0.50. Further STRUCTURE runs were completed on each of the identified clusters to determine
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25 290 if hierarchical levels of population structure were present. STRUCTURE parameters were set as
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27 291 previously described but without the use of location priors information and with a burn-in length
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29 292 of 1×10^5 iterations followed by 5×10^5 MCMC repetitions. The optimal number of clusters
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31 293 was determined by evaluating the three methods for estimating K as before and individuals were
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33 294 assigned to clusters with $q \geq 0.50$. Subsequent STRUCTURE runs were conducted until no sub-
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35 295 clustering was indicated.
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42 296 For each of the Barataria Basin genetic clusters identified by STRUCTURE and for the
43
44 297 WCS, Microchecker v2.2.0.3 (van Oosterhout et al., 2004) was used to test each locus for the
45
46 298 presence of null alleles, large allelic dropout, and genotype scoring errors due to stuttering.
47
48 299 Deviation from HWE proportions and linkage disequilibrium were measured using Genepop
49
50 300 v4.2 (Rousset, 2008) with 10,000 dememorizations, 1,000 batches, and 10,000 iterations per
51
52 301 batch. Levels of significance were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the sequential
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3 302 Bonferroni technique (Holm, 1979). The number of alleles, private alleles, and observed and
4
5 303 expected heterozygosities per locus were calculated using ARLEQUIN v3.5.2.2 (Excoffier &
6
7 304 Lischer, 2010). Allelic richness was calculated in FSTAT v2.9.4 (Goudet, 1995; Goudet, 2003).
8
9 305 Differences in mean observed heterozygosity and allelic richness were tested using an analysis of
10
11 306 variance (ANOVA). To investigate genetic differentiation among STRUCTURE clusters, global
12
13 307 and pairwise F_{ST} values were estimated with the microsatellite data in ARLEQUIN and
14
15 308 significance levels were adjusted using sequential Bonferroni.

19 309 The 5' end of the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) control region and flanking transfer-
20
21 310 RNA gene was amplified using PCR and the primers L15824 (Rosel et al., 1999) and H16498
22
23 311 (Rosel, Dizon & Heyning, 1994) with conditions from Vollmer & Rosel (2017), including a
24
25 312 negative no-DNA control with each PCR reaction. Amplified products were purified from low
26
27 313 melting point agarose gels by agarose digestion and then sequenced in the forward and reverse
28
29 314 directions using a BigDye Terminator v1.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems) on an ABI
30
31 315 3130 or ABI 3500 Genetic Analyzer. The forward and reverse reads were edited independently
32
33 316 using Sequencher v5.4.6 (GeneCodes) or Geneious Prime 2000.0.5 (<https://www.geneious.com>),
34
35 317 then assembled for final consensus sequences. Haplotypes were identified using Geneious Prime
36
37 318 and heteroplasmic sequences (Vollmer et al., 2011) were excluded from further mtDNA
38
39 319 analyses. ARLEQUIN was used to calculate nucleotide and haplotype diversities (Nei, 1987) for
40
41 320 each Barataria Basin cluster identified with STRUCTURE and the WCS, and to estimate global
42
43 321 and pairwise levels of differentiation using F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} . The Tamura & Nei (1993) model was
44
45 322 identified as the best model of evolution to use in ARLEQUIN for estimating Φ_{ST} from the
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47 323 program JModeltest v2.1.10 (Darriba et al., 2012) run on the CIPRES Science Gateway v3.3
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3 324 server and using the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Levels of significance for pairwise
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5 325 estimates of F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} were corrected for multiple comparisons using sequential Bonferroni.

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9 10 327 2.4 Combined analyses using data from social and genetic clusters

11
12 328 Spatial data were analysed to determine the geographic range and overlap of dolphin
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14 329 clusters identified via the social analyses and the genetic data. Utilization distributions (UDs)
15
16 330 [i.e. per cent volume contours (PVCs)] represent the probability that an animal or group of
17
18 331 animals is found in a given space (Worton, 1989). Kernel density estimates (KDEs) (Worton,
19
20 332 1989) were estimated using the cumulative photo-ID sighting locations of each social and
21
22 333 genetic cluster using the Geostatistical Analyst and Spatial Analyst Toolboxes in ArcGIS 10.7.1
23
24 334 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA; reviewed by MacLeod, 2013). Using KDEs, 95th (i.e. the entire
25
26 335 range or where an individual can likely be found 95% of the time) and 50th (i.e. the core area or
27
28 336 where an individual is likely to be found 50% of the time) percentile UD were determined. KDE
29
30 337 distributions can be over or under-estimated depending on the bandwidth value (or smoothing
31
32 338 parameter) that is used (Horne & Garton, 2006). The appropriate bandwidth was determined by
33
34 339 using a rule-based ad hoc method (Kie, 2013). Genetic samples that qualified for the SOCPROG
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36 340 analysis by having 10 or more photo-ID sightings were compared to their satellite telemetry
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38 341 assignment group reported by Wells et al. (2017).

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44 342 To compare kinship within the identified genetic and social clusters, average pairwise
45
46 343 relatedness and variance for pairs of individuals within each cluster and for the entire Barataria
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48 344 Basin data set were calculated using the 43 microsatellite loci and the trioml estimator in the
49
50 345 program COANCESTRY v1.0.1.0 (Wang, 2011). The difference in average relatedness between
51
52 346 each cluster (social and genetic) and the entire data set was calculated and tested for significance

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2
3 347 using the bootstrap method (10,000 repetitions) and a 95% confidence level in COANCESTRY
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5 348 to determine if relatedness within any group was higher than that of the overall dataset.
6

7
8 349 To test for evidence of sex-biased dispersal in the genetic and social clusters, two
9
10 350 methods were used. First, the assignment-based procedure developed by Favre et al. (1997) and
11
12 351 extended by Mossman & Waser (1999) was implemented in GenALEx. This method detects sex-
13
14 352 biased dispersal by calculating the mean Assignment Index correction (A_{Ic}) for males and
15
16 353 females. Next, non-parametric tests for significance between the mean A_{Ic} values of the sexes
17
18 354 were performed using a Mann Whitney U-test. The more dispersing sex generally has a negative
19
20 355 mean A_{Ic} (Goudet, Perrin & Waser, 2002). For the second method, average relatedness was
21
22 356 compared between the female-female and male-male pairs of each cluster. The significance of
23
24 357 differences in mean relatedness between the two sexes within a cluster was then tested in
25
26 358 COANCESTRY using the bootstrap method as previously described. The average relatedness of
27
28 359 the more dispersing sex would be expected to be lower than the average relatedness of the more
29
30 360 philopatric sex. This relatedness-based method has been shown to detect lower levels of sex-
31
32 361 biased dispersal not identified by the assignment-based method (Phillips et al., 2014). To further
33
34 362 investigate any differences in gene flow between the sexes, ARLEQUIN was used to calculate
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36 363 overall estimates of F_{ST} and Φ_{ST} among the genetic clusters for males and females separately,
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38 364 using mtDNA data.
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46 47 366 3. RESULTS 48

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50 51 368 3.1 Photo-ID data and social analysis 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

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3 369 From 2010 to 2014 (Phase 1), 132 small vessel-based mark-recapture surveys were
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5 370 completed (McDonald et al., 2017), while 36 vessel surveys were completed in 2019 as part of
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7 371 Phase 2. In total, survey vessels during both phases covered over 15,000 km of trackline across
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9 372 1,087 hours and took 99,916 photographs. Crews spent 408 hours in dolphin sightings over the
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11 373 10 years with an average sighting time of 17 min 46 sec. In total, 1,379 dolphin groups were
12
13 374 encountered with an average group size of 8 individuals (SD = 10.1; range: 1-71; median = 4).
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15 375 Through photo analysis, a total of 2,091 unique individual dolphins were identified with an
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17 376 average marked proportion of 75%. The highest proportion of dolphins (48%; n = 995) was seen
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19 377 during a single primary period while only one individual was observed in all 11 primary periods.
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21 378 The discovery curve showed an increase in catalogued individuals at every mark-recapture
22
23 379 primary period including a steep increase between primary period 10 and 11, coinciding with a
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25 380 5-year gap between surveys and the inclusion of previously unsurveyed regions in 2019 (Figure
26
27 381 2). From 2010 to 2014, the number of new dolphins added to the catalogue following each
28
29 382 primary period ranged from 34 to 312 (mean = 158). The 2019 effort added 507 new individuals
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31 383 to the catalogue, 44% of which were sighted in the previously unsurveyed south-eastern region.

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33 384 A total of 112 individuals were sighted more than 10 times (mean = 12 sightings; range
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35 385 10-24) and were included in the association analysis. Based on associations among these
36
37 386 individuals, SOCPROG identified four distinct social clusters (Figure 3). The resulting
38
39 387 cophenetic correlation coefficient of 0.80 and modularity value of 0.34 indicated a good fit of the
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41 388 data with valid clustering and well-defined community divisions. The island (red) cluster was the
42
43 389 largest with 65 individuals followed by the western (yellow) cluster with 40 individuals. Both the
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45 390 east-central (green) and west-central (blue) clusters were small, containing just three and four
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47 391 individuals, respectively. The east-central social cluster was characterized by the largest median
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392 group size (n=17) but lower social metrics, while the western cluster was the opposite with the
393 smallest group size (n=8) and higher social metrics (Table 1).

395 3.2 Genetic analyses

396 DNA was successfully extracted from all Barataria Basin skin samples and all were
397 genotyped at 43 microsatellite loci. Nine samples were identified as having matching genotypes
398 to individuals analysed by Rosel et al. (2017). The probability of identity estimates was low
399 ($P_{(ID)} = 3.6 \times 10^{-35}$ and $P_{(ID)sib} = 1.3 \times 10^{-14}$), therefore it is unlikely that two dolphins would
400 share the same genotype at all 43 loci. Furthermore, each duplicate pair had matching sexes and
401 mtDNA control region haplotypes. One sample from each of the nine duplicates was removed,
402 resulting in a total of 223 individuals from the Barataria Basin used in further analysis. Re-
403 genotyping of 10% of the samples resulted in a genotyping error rate of 0.00%.

404 The r values of 19 known mother-calf pairs ranged from 0.50-0.68 and each pair had
405 identical mtDNA control region haplotypes. Four additional pairs of individuals each sampled
406 within the same capture set had r values ≥ 0.45 . One individual from each of these pairs as well
407 as from the mother-calf pairs was excluded from further analyses, resulting in a final sample size
408 of 203 for the Barataria Basin.

409 The optimal number of clusters identified from the initial STRUCTURE run, which
410 included dolphins from the Barataria Basin and the WCS, was $K = 2$ using the ΔK method. The
411 parsimony index and the $\ln \Pr(X/K)$ method identified a best K of 4 and 5, respectively
412 (Supporting Information Table S2). Because hierarchical population structure was expected
413 when including individuals from the WCS, ΔK estimation was used to determine the initial best
414 number of clusters. All dolphins of the WCS grouped into a single cluster with the addition of

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2
3 415 seven individuals sampled within the Barataria Basin using $q \geq 0.50$ (Supporting Information
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5 416 Figure S1). The second STRUCTURE cluster contained 195 dolphins sampled within the
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7 417 Barataria Basin. One individual had a q value of 0.50 to each cluster and therefore was not
8
9 418 assigned to either cluster. This individual plus the seven dolphins with higher assignment
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11 419 coefficients to the WCS were removed from further analysis of the Barataria Basin data set. The
12
13 420 average q values of the WCS and Barataria Basin groups were 0.94 and 0.90, respectively.
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15 421 Running the WCS through STRUCTURE alone revealed no hierarchical structure (Supporting
16
17 422 Information Table S2).
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22 423 STRUCTURE analysis of the Barataria Basin data set alone ($n=195$) estimated a best $K =$
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24 424 3 using all three methods for estimating K (Supporting Information Table S2). These three
25
26 425 genetic clusters are geographically distributed, with one group located primarily near the barrier
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28 426 islands of Grand Isle and Grand Terre Islands and the other two groups utilizing either the
29
30 427 western or the central and eastern estuarine habitats of the basin with overlap near the barrier
31
32 428 islands (Figure 4A). Using a q -value cutoff of 0.50, individuals were grouped into ‘western’,
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34 429 ‘east-central’ or ‘island’ genetic clusters with average q values per cluster ranging from 0.71 to
35
36 430 0.76. Approximately 18% of the samples were not assigned to any cluster due to q -values lower
37
38 431 than the 0.50 threshold (Figure 4B). Re-running each of the Barataria Basin clusters alone
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40 432 through STRUCTURE revealed no further partitioning of samples (Supporting Information
41
42 433 Table S2).
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47 434 No microsatellite loci showed significant departure from HWE after Bonferroni
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49 435 correction for any of the Barataria Basin genetic clusters or the WCS (Supporting Information
50
51 436 Table S3). Ttr61 and Ttr71 showed evidence of linkage disequilibrium in the Barataria Basin
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53 437 island cluster only. No evidence of null alleles was found in the Barataria Basin western or island
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3 438 clusters, however Ttr19, Ttr20, and TexVet5 in the east-central cluster and Ttr51 in the WCS did
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5 439 show evidence of null alleles due to homozygote excess. Since evidence of linkage
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8 440 disequilibrium and null alleles were not present for the same loci across groups, all loci were
9
10 441 retained for genetic analyses. The number of alleles and private alleles, allelic richness,
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12 442 heterozygosity values, and HWE P -values per locus for each group is provided in Supporting
13
14 443 Information Table S3. Observed heterozygosity was not significantly different among groups
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16
17 444 (ANOVA, $F = 0.58$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.63$) and values ranged from 0.6170 (± 0.1833) to 0.6632
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19 445 (± 0.1793) with the lowest and highest values estimated for the east-central cluster and the WCS,
20
21 446 respectively. Mean allelic richness was also not significantly different among groups (ANOVA,
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23 447 $F = 1.25$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.29$). Among the Barataria Basin clusters, the mean number of alleles per
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25
26 448 locus ranged from 5.4 to 6.2 and the number of private alleles were 5, 13, and 23 for the western,
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28 449 east-central, and island clusters, respectively.

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31 450 All pairwise comparisons of microsatellite F_{ST} were significant (Table 2A). Pairwise F_{ST}
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33 451 values between the WCS and each of the Barataria Basin clusters ranged from 0.021 to 0.044 (all
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35 452 $P < 0.0001$; Table 2) with the highest F_{ST} estimated between the WCS and the Barataria Basin
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37 453 western cluster. Among the Barataria Basin clusters, the lowest level of differentiation ($F_{ST} =$
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39 454 0.023, $P < 0.0001$) was seen between the east-central and island clusters and similar values were
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41
42 455 seen between the western cluster and the east-central and island clusters ($F_{ST} = 0.031$ and 0.030,
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44 456 respectively, $P < 0.0001$).

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47 457 The final mtDNA control region alignment length was 353 bp. A total of 24 haplotypes
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49 458 were found, 16 in the Barataria Basin samples and 12 in the WCS. Of the 24 haplotypes, eight
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51 459 were heteroplasmic (Supporting Information Table S4). After removal of the heteroplasmic
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54 460 haplotypes, seven of the haplotypes were unique to the WCS and five were unique to the

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3 461 Barataria Basin data set. Novel sequences were submitted to GenBank (MZ615655-MZ615665;
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5 462 Supporting Information Table S4). Haplotype and nucleotide diversity for the Barataria Basin
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7 463 clusters ranged from 0.6456 (± 0.0539) to 0.5933 (± 0.0626), and 0.0030 (± 0.0023) to 0.0044
8
9 464 (± 0.0029), respectively. Diversity indices were higher for the WCS, with a haplotype diversity of
10
11 465 0.8439 (± 0.0533) and nucleotide diversity of 0.0079 (± 0.0048). Pairwise comparisons of F_{ST} and
12
13 466 Φ_{ST} were significant between the WCS and each of the three Barataria Basin clusters (Table 2B).
14
15 467 Pairwise F_{ST} was also significant between the Barataria Basin east-central cluster and the other
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17 468 two Barataria Basin clusters, but not for Φ_{ST} after correcting for multiple comparisons (Table
18
19 469 2B). Significant differences were not seen between the Barataria Basin western and island
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21 470 clusters for either estimator.
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26 471 Average overall relatedness within each of the Barataria Basin genetic clusters and within
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28 472 the western SOCPROG social cluster was significantly higher using a 95% confidence level than
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30 473 the relatedness of the entire Barataria Basin sample set ($r = 0.0262$) (Figure 5; Supporting
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32 474 Information Table S5A). Average relatedness within the island social cluster ($r = 0.0235$) was
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34 475 not significantly different from the overall Barataria Basin sample set (Supporting Information
35
36 476 Table S5A). Relatedness within the east-central and west-central social clusters could not be
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38 477 calculated because there were not enough samples with genetic data assigned to those two
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40 478 clusters.
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45 479 Tests of sex-biased dispersal for the genetic and social clusters were not significant using
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47 480 the assignment-based method implemented in GenAlEx (comparisons of mean AIC values; Table
48
49 481 3). Using the bootstrapping method of COANCESTRY (relatedness-based estimates) with a 95%
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51 482 confidence level, the mean difference in r between male and female pairs was significant only
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53 483 for the east-central genetic cluster with males having a higher average relatedness but relatedness
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3 484 values were generally low for both sexes and the difference between female and male pairs was
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5 485 small (r observed average difference = -0.0132; Supporting Information Table S5B). Among the
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7 486 genetic clusters, overall estimates of F_{ST} based on mtDNA data were significant ($P < 0.05$) for
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9 487 females ($F_{ST} = 0.100$, $P = 0.0027$) but not significant for males ($F_{ST} = 0.025$, $P = 0.1190$).
10
11
12 488 Estimates of Φ_{ST} were identical and not significant for either sex (females: $\Phi_{ST} = 0.032$, $P =$
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14 489 0.0865; males: $\Phi_{ST} = 0.032$, $P = 0.0937$).
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19 491 3.3 Spatial analysis

21
22 492 Cumulative UD_s derived from the KDE analysis indicated a spatial distinction between
23
24 493 the SOCPROG social clusters with some degree of overlap in geographic ranges (Figure 6). The
25
26 494 smallest amount of spatial overlap occurred between the east-central (green) and western
27
28 495 (yellow) social clusters while the greatest amount of overlap occurred between the island (red)
29
30 496 and west-central (blue) clusters. The western cluster had the largest 50% and 95% UD_s, with 4.8
31
32 497 km² and 37.1 km², respectively (Table 4). The east-central social cluster had the smallest UD_s,
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34 498 with 0.99 km² area for the 50% UD and 7.6 km² area for the 95% UD (Table 4).
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38 499 Kernel density estimate analysis of the cumulative photo-ID sightings for each genetic
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40 500 cluster exhibited a large degree of overlap in their geographic ranges (50% UD_s for all three
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42 501 genetic clusters overlapped along the north side of Grand Isle and in Barataria Pass between
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44 502 Grand Isle and Grand Terre Islands; Figure 6). The UD_s for the western and island genetic
45
46 503 clusters were congruent with the western and island social clusters. The east-central genetic
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48 504 cluster had similar UD_s as the east-central and west-central social clusters' combined UD_s. The
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50 505 western genetic group had all of its 95% UD west of Barataria Bay and the Grand Terre Islands.
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52
53 506 The east-central genetic group had the largest 50% and 95% UD_s, with 7.2 km² and 48.8 km²,
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3 507 respectively (Table 4). Conversely, the western genetic cluster had the smallest UD_s, with 3.9
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5 508 km² area for the 50% UD and 31.4 km² area for the 95% UD (Table 4).
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7
8 509 A total of 28 individuals met the criteria to be included in both the genetic and social
9
10 510 clustering analyses (Table 5). The lone west-central social cluster individual (Y22) was assigned
11
12 511 to the western genetic group. This aligned with satellite tag data placing Y22 in the western
13
14 512 group as well (Table 5; Wells et al., 2017). For the island social cluster, 55% of those individuals
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16 513 matched with their genetic assignment to the island group. A similar proportion (60%) of the
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18 514 western social cluster showed agreement with their genetic assignments. The largest agreement
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20 515 (83%) between social cluster and satellite tag assignments was with western cluster individuals.
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25 26 517 4. DISCUSSION

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30 519 The Barataria Basin is habitat for common bottlenose dolphin residents with long-term
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32 520 site fidelity (some dolphins documented over a 10-year period and across seasons) and fine-scale
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34 521 habitat partitioning. The abundance of dolphins in this estuarine system is one of the largest of
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36 522 any surveyed SEUS BSE [2,071 (95% CI: 1,832–2,309)] (Garrison, Litz & Sinclair, 2020).
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38 523 Evidence that the dolphins inhabiting this basin are separated into distinct groups has been
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40 524 previously presented, based on satellite-telemetry (Wells et al., 2017; Cloyed et al., 2021) and
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42 525 genetic data (Rosel et al., 2017). This study provides additional evidence supporting partitions
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44 526 within the basin. Multiple unique social and genetic groups were identified within the studied
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46 527 areas of the Barataria Basin and it is possible that more partitions could be discovered with
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48 528 higher coverage in other parts of the basin, such as the south-eastern and north-central portions.
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50 529 Genetic analysis, with an increased sample size, reinforced the presence of three distinct genetic
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3 530 groups previously identified by Rosel et al. (2017). The degree of nuclear genetic differentiation
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5 531 among the three Barataria Basin genetic clusters was similar to that estimated by Rosel et al.
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7 532 (2017) between the two Barataria groups evaluated in their study. The level of genetic
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10 533 differentiation among these groups was similar to estimates among other dolphin communities of
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12 534 the SEUS, such as BSE groups within the Indian River Lagoon, Florida (Richards et al., 2013),
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14 535 as well as between BSE and coastal stocks of the Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic Ocean (Sellas,
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16 536 Wells & Rosel, 2005; Rosel, Hansen & Hohn, 2009, Rosel et al., 2017). This study also
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18 537 confirmed significant genetic differentiation between dolphins in the Barataria Basin and those
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20 538 from the adjacent coastal waters, as previously revealed by Rosel et al. (2017). Out of the 203
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22 539 dolphins sampled within the Barataria Basin, only seven grouped with the coastal stock in
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24 540 clustering analysis and had much lower membership values ($q = 0.54-0.72$) than the overall
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26 541 average for the WCS ($q = 0.94$). The STRUCTURE results also indicated low levels of
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28 542 admixture between the Barataria Basin and nearshore coastal populations.
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33 543 Using nuclear genetic data, the western genetic cluster showed the highest level of
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35 544 divergence when compared to all other clusters within the Basin. In fact, estimates of F_{ST} were
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37 545 higher between the western cluster and the other two Barataria Basin clusters than between the
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39 546 WCS and the Barataria island or east-central clusters, demonstrating how genetically distinct the
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41 547 western group is from other dolphin groups of the same BSE. The western social cluster had the
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43 548 smallest median group size (Table 1) with high strength and affinity social metrics, further
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45 549 supporting distinction of the western group from the other three social clusters.
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49 550 Kernel density estimate analysis of the cumulative photo-ID sightings indicated spatial
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51 551 distinction between the four social clusters with varying degrees of geographic overlap. There
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53 552 was little to no geographic overlap between the western and east-central social clusters (Figure
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3 553 6). The Barataria Waterway and land formations on the edges of West Champagne Bay separate
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5 554 these two clusters, appearing to serve as a social barrier. The highest degree of geographic
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7 555 overlap was between the island and western social clusters near Grand Isle. The kernel density
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9 556 estimate analysis of the genetic clusters also showed a great amount of geographic overlap near
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11 557 the barrier islands with the majority of the 50% UDs for all three clusters near Grand Isle (Figure
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14 558 6). The east-central genetic cluster was more widespread than the other clusters, with the 95%
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16 559 UD extending to both the western and eastern portions of the Barataria Basin; however, it is the
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18 560 only group with UDs located near the south-eastern region of the basin. Interestingly, when
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20 561 comparing distributions between the social and genetic groups, the western clusters had very
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22 562 similar geographic ranges between the two analysis methods, unlike any of the other clusters.
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24 563 This could indicate that the dolphins in the western portion of the basin are both socially and
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26 564 genetically more unique than the other groups.
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31 565 The east-central, western, and island social and genetic clusters identified by this study
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33 566 generally corresponded to the ranging patterns identified from tracking satellite-tagged dolphins
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35 567 in the Barataria Basin (Wells et al., 2017). However, when comparing the social cluster
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37 568 assignments to the satellite telemetry classifications, less than half of the island social cluster
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39 569 individuals aligned with the island satellite telemetry group (Table 5). There was better
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41 570 agreement when comparing the western social cluster, as over 80% of individuals matched with
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43 571 their corresponding satellite telemetry assignments, further supporting the uniqueness of the
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45 572 dolphins in the western portion of the Basin. The low correspondence between the two studies
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47 573 could be the result of a small sample size of satellite-tagged individuals that qualified for the
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49 574 SOCPROG analysis. Additionally, satellite telemetry represents short-term (< 6 months)
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51 575 movements [mean tag duration was 140 days; Wells et al., (2017)] while the SOCPROG clusters
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3 576 were derived from long-term (10 years) photo-ID sighting records. This temporal difference
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5 577 between the two methodologies could help explain some of the discrepancies in the satellite
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7 578 telemetry and SOCPROG cluster assignments and has been observed in other studies when
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10 579 comparing different sampling methods to assess dolphin movements (e.g. Balmer et al., 2014;
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12 580 Nekolny et al., 2017; Balmer et al., 2021).

14 581 The two largest social clusters, the island and the western, totalled 65 and 40 individuals,
15
16 582 respectively. Both of these larger clusters displayed high strength of associations, connectedness,
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18 583 and gregariousness, especially when compared with the two smaller clusters (east-central and
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20 584 west-central; Table 1). However, group sizes for individuals of the island and western clusters
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22 585 were smaller than the east-central cluster. Individuals in the east-central cluster were seen in much
23
24 586 larger group sizes with looser associations when compared to the other three clusters (Table 1).
25
26 587 This suggests that east-central individuals form many loose associations with other Barataria
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28 588 dolphins but have strong associations with only a few individuals to form a social cluster.
29
30 589 Bottlenose dolphins in southern Australia have shown a similar pattern, potentially in response to
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32 590 higher prey abundance, where one community is characterized by larger aggregations and loose
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34 591 social bonds, and the other by smaller groups but stronger associations, perhaps as a consequence
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36 592 of having to search for limited prey (Diaz-Aguirre et al., 2019). Association patterns can also be
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38 593 influenced by predatory threats (Heithaus & Dill, 2002; Gowans, Würsig & Karczmarski, 2007).
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40 594 Nearly one-third of captured Barataria dolphins showed some degree of shark bite scars (Zolman
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42 595 E., 2020, unpublished data), supporting the possibility that predation risk could be influencing
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44 596 social structure and habitat use, as seen with dolphins in Sarasota Bay, Florida (Wells, Scott &
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46 597 Irvine, 1987; Wilkinson et al., 2017).

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3 598 The dendrogram and network analysis statistics compare the social connectivity within
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5 599 and between social clusters. The position of the west-central social cluster in the dendrogram,
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7 600 between the east-central (with which it shares a node) and island clusters (Figure 3), suggests its
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9 601 four members also have some association with the east-central or island community. This is
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11 602 supported by the equal amount of spatial overlap between the west-central UD with the east-
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13 603 central and island UD (Figure 6). When comparing the network analysis measures, the west-
14
15 604 central cluster had a greater between-class strength value with the island (0.45) cluster compared
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17 605 to the east-central (0.03) or western (0.09) clusters (Table 1), suggesting the west-central and
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19 606 island clusters are more strongly associated. The western cluster appears to be the most isolated
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21 607 social cluster based on its position in the dendrogram and low between-class strength values with
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23 608 the other social clusters. Additional surveys are needed to increase the number of individuals
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25 609 with 10 or more sightings to elucidate the social structure of the smaller clusters.

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31 610 Fine-scale habitat partitioning by common bottlenose dolphins within BSEs has been
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33 611 found elsewhere in the SEUS. Using photo-ID data, Urian et al. (2009) found five discrete
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35 612 dolphin communities within Tampa Bay, Florida. However, unlike the Barataria Basin social and
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37 613 genetic clusters, Tampa Bay communities exhibited very little spatial overlap. Dolphins within
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39 614 the Barataria Basin have spatial cluster patterns more similar to those inhabiting the Moray Firth,
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41 615 Scotland. There, using photo-ID data, Lusseau et al. (2006) found two communities of dolphins
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43 616 with differences in associations but overlapping ranges.

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47 617 Photo-ID data in the present study suggest that all four Barataria Basin social clusters
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49 618 exhibit spatial overlap around Grand Isle. Some dolphins within the Barataria Basin have been
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51 619 observed using a specialized foraging strategy (“drilling”) during which they presumably burrow
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53 620 into the substrate (Quigley et al., 2022). Only six individuals observed “drilling” qualified for the

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3 621 SOCPROG analysis with three from the western cluster, two from the island cluster, and one
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5 622 from the west-central cluster. This behaviour was observed primarily along the north side of
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7 623 Grand Isle and in southern Caminada Bay and could be a driver for the high degree of overlap
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9 624 between the western and island social clusters. Grand Isle began forming around 750 years ago
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11 625 and is one of the most stable Louisiana barrier islands (Torres et al., 2020). Perhaps dolphins
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13 626 from different clusters have shifted their core usage area towards Grand Isle, a preferred area for
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15 627 the “drilling” foraging strategy.
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19 628 A higher number of social clusters (4) than genetic clusters (3) was identified within the
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21 629 Barataria Basin. Two of the social clusters contained only 3-4 individuals, possibly due to the
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23 630 data restrictions of the cluster analysis requiring 10 or more sightings, only including mark-
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25 631 recapture surveys, and a lack of sufficient time series in the eastern part of the basin. However,
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27 632 social clusters containing very few individuals have been observed in other dolphin studies
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29 633 (Genov et al., 2019; Hawkins et al., 2020). It may be that individuals from the two small
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31 634 Barataria social clusters (east-central and west-central) are part of a larger social group with
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33 635 individuals not included in the analysis. One other explanation for the small number of members
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35 636 of the east-central social cluster is the lack of survey effort in that region. With additional central
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37 637 and eastern surveys, the east-central and west-central clusters will likely increase in sample size.
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42 638 Other studies of common bottlenose dolphins in the SEUS have revealed discrepancies in
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44 639 the number of social versus genetic clusters within a single habitat, and similar to findings from
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46 640 this study, a higher number of social versus genetic clusters were reported. For example, using
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48 641 photo-ID data, Mazzoil et al. (2008) identified three communities of dolphins within the Indian
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50 642 River Lagoon of Florida, but only two genetic clusters were differentiated by Richards et al.
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52 643 (2013) using microsatellite data. Furthermore, analysis of telemetry and photo-ID data of
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3 644 dolphins inhabiting Mississippi Sound, Mississippi/Alabama in the northern Gulf of Mexico
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5 645 (Mullin et al., 2017) identified at least two social groups but microsatellite data supported only a
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7 646 single population (Vollmer et al., 2021). The fission-fusion nature of dolphin societies might also
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10 647 explain why more social than genetic groups were found in the Barataria Basin. Connor et al.
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12 648 (2000) suggested that dolphins need to spread out more to reduce feeding competition, resulting
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14 649 in multiple social interactions.

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17 650 If kinship is an important factor in the formation of social bonds within a population, one
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19 651 would expect higher levels of relatedness within social communities than between them. Higher
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21 652 levels of genetic relatedness have been reported for social groups of bottlenose dolphins
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23 653 (*Tursiops* spp.) in other studies (Diaz Aguirre et al., 2019; Chabanne et al., 2021). In this study,
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25 654 two of the four social clusters had large enough sample size to investigate genetic relatedness.
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27 655 Compared to all Barataria samples analysed together as a single group, the western social cluster
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29 656 had significantly higher overall relatedness while the island cluster did not (Supporting Table
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31 657 S5A). This result further supports the uniqueness of the western dolphins. When examining
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33 658 average relatedness within the sexes of both social clusters, the observed average pairwise
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35 659 relatedness was higher for female pairs than male pairs in both clusters, although differences lay
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37 660 within the 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of the bootstrapped sample (Supporting Table 5B). Tests for
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39 661 sex-biased dispersal based on mean AIC values also did not indicate a significant difference
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41 662 between males and females in the social clusters (Table 3). However, sample sizes for both
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43 663 social clusters were small for the tests (≤ 8 individuals per sex) so the power to detect a
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45 664 difference may have been low. While not significant, the lower levels of relatedness and negative
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47 665 mean AIC values of male dolphins within the BBES social groups may suggest that males within
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49 666 the Barataria Basin are the more dispersive sex, but larger sample sizes are necessary to
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3 667 comprehensively examine this question. There was also no overall support for sex-biased
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5 668 dispersal in the genetic clusters except when testing differences in relatedness within the east-
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7 669 central cluster. It should be noted that a lack of evidence for sex-biased dispersal inferred from
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10 670 genetic data has been reported for other common bottlenose dolphin populations in the SEUS
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12 671 (Sellas, Wells & Rosel, 2005; Rosel, Hansen & Hohn, 2009; Richards et al., 2013; Vollmer &
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14 672 Rosel, 2017; Vollmer et al., 2021).

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17 673 Further evidence suggesting movement of male dolphins across social clusters comes
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19 674 from the lower percentage of matching social and genetic assignments for males compared to
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21 675 females. Males had 40% and 50% matching cluster assignments compared to 80% and 60% for
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23 676 females in the western and island clusters respectively. Females also had higher assignment
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25 677 matches between social and telemetry groups than males. Although the sample size is small, this
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27 678 result supports the hypothesis that dolphin social clusters could include males that have dispersed
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29 679 from their natal genetic populations. Fewer matches between the genetic and social assignments
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31 680 could also indicate that dolphins are socializing between different genetic populations but not
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33 681 breeding at rates that would produce panmixia throughout the basin since there is significant
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35 682 genetic differentiation among groups. Longer-term studies of social interactions and additional
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37 683 genetic data from an increased number of individuals will continue to improve our understanding
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39 684 of dolphin interactions within the BBES.

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41
42 685 There was also evidence of female philopatry in the matrilineally inherited mtDNA data.
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44 686 Overall estimates of F_{ST} were higher for females than for males ($F_{ST} = 0.100$ and 0.025 ,
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46 687 respectively). Also, pairwise values of F_{ST} between the western and east-central genetic groups
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48 688 and the east-central and island groups were significantly different from zero, allowing rejection
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50 689 of the null hypothesis of panmixia (Table 2B). Levels of differentiation were, however, not
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3 690 significant between the western and island clusters. The similarities in mtDNA data for those two
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5 691 clusters could indicate a founder event in which the western population first colonized inshore
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7 692 waters of the Barataria Basin and then a subset of individuals separated from the group and
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9
10 693 inhabited areas surrounding the barrier islands that formed within the last 750 years. Also, all
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12 694 comparisons among the Barataria Basin genetic clusters using Φ_{ST} were not significant.
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14 695 Measurements of Φ_{ST} use haplotype frequencies and genetic distance information combined,
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16 696 whereas F_{ST} estimates use haplotype frequency information only. As populations diverge,
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18 697 frequency differences are expected to emerge prior to divergence of the haplotypes through
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20 698 mutation and drift. The low amount of sequence variability between mtDNA haplotypes of
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22 699 dolphins within the basin could be due to historical colonization of the BSE by a single
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24 700 population that then diverged into multiple genetic groups. Low mtDNA diversity has been
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26 701 reported among other BSE populations of *T. truncatus* and, as a result, mtDNA data can have
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28 702 lower statistical power needed to detect genetic structure within these communities (Sellas,
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31 703 Wells & Rosel, 2005; Litz et al., 2012; Richards et al., 2013).

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33 704 Combining social and genetic analyses in this study has further demonstrated that dolphin
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35 705 population structure is complex, and both analytical approaches can provide unique and valuable
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37 706 insights. Overall, genetic analyses can differentiate communities of dolphins established through
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39 707 long-term (generational) preferential breeding behavior. In contrast, associations can be more
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41 708 fluid and may change in response to habitat or predator/prey changes, and strong associations
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43 709 can be formed between a mix of related and unrelated individuals. Combining the two data types
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45 710 can provide insights on different timescales into dolphin population structure versus using one
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47 711 technique alone. Our results suggest underlying social and relatedness groupings of common
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49 712 bottlenose dolphins within the Barataria Basin, coupled with evidence for multiple
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3 713 demographically independent groups that are unique with respect to dolphin populations in
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5 714 coastal waters (i.e. the WCS). Furthermore, it is likely that additional social groups, and possibly
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7 715 genetically distinct groups, occupy the neighbouring estuarine habitats of the Barataria Basin that
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9 716 have yet to be fully investigated. Additional genetic sampling and photo-ID efforts in the south-
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11 717 eastern portion of the basin would improve our understanding of the social and genetic structure
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13 718 throughout the entire basin, and future research should aim to understand habitat and/or
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15 719 behavioral differences that could be drivers of differentiation.
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19 720 Understanding the unique characteristics of these groups, such as social bonds, feeding
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21 721 behavior, prey preference, and habitat specialization, and also the most pressing threats for the
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23 722 distinct communities may help managers to design more effective mitigation or restoration plans,
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25 723 and to monitor their effectiveness to adapt as needed. For example, the MBSD project is
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27 724 intended to divert sediment and nutrients from the Mississippi River to the mid-Barataria Basin
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29 725 to reduce land loss and create and maintain wetlands. The sediment diversion will result in large
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31 726 volumes of fresh water moving into the basin (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 2017). Models
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33 727 predict a 34% decrease in dolphin survival for a given year of diversion operations, with
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35 728 dolphins occupying the western and central portions of the Barataria Basin likely to experience
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37 729 the greatest impacts (Garrison, Litz & Sinclair, 2020). This will potentially compound the
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39 730 significant health effects suffered by BBES dolphins as a result of the DWH oil spill (Schwacke
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41 731 et al., 2014; Lane et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2017). The current study shows discrete social and
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43 732 genetic groups in the western and central regions, which could be severely impacted if these
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45 733 regions are subjected to prolonged durations (multiple months) of fresh water. The information
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47 734 on social structure and evidence for demographically independent groups can aid decisions on
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49 735 management, mitigation, and/or conservation projects, and allow them to be designed to best
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3 736 address the unique threats to given groups of animals, rather than attempting to apply a broad-
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5 737 stroke approach that may not maintain the complex structure and ecosystem roles of the dolphins
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8 738 in the Barataria Basin.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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We thank the Office of Naval Research Marine Mammal Biology Program for providing support for T. Speakman under award number N000141712868. We would like to thank Jeff Adams for his assistance with data queries, Kyle Massie and Tilen Genov for helping with SOCPROG, Brittany Novick for helping with SOCPROG and ArcGIS, Jaime Thompson for the development of finFindR, and Suzanne Lane, Rachel Melancon, Jen Sinclair, Angie Stiles, John Venturella, Errol Ronje, Annie Gorgone, Tony Martinez, and Mandy Tumlin for their assistance with fieldwork and/or photo analysis. We would also like to express our gratitude to C. Grace Sprehn for her assistance in the genetics laboratory. Photo-identification surveys and photo-analysis, biopsy collection, and genetic data collected from 2010-2015 were part of the DWH Natural Resources Damage Assessment. This research was conducted under MMPA Permit Numbers 14450 and 18786. The scientific results and conclusions, as well as any views or opinions expressed herein, are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect those of NOAA or the Department of Commerce. This is National Marine Mammal Foundation Contribution #307 to peer-reviewed scientific literature.

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TABLE 1. Median group size and mean social network metrics of individual social clusters. Standard error is in parentheses. n: number of individuals in each cluster.

Metric	E-central (n=3)	W-central (n=4)	Island (n=65)	Western (n=40)
Number of sightings	31	40	270	267
Group size	17.0 (2.07)	8.5 (2.06)	12.0 (0.96)	8.0 (0.68)
Affinity	1.64 (1.08)	2.06 (0.38)	2.72 (0.19)	2.45 (0.22)
Clustering coefficient	0.04 (0.04)	0.07 (0.01)	0.07 (0.02)	0.07 (0.02)
Eigenvector centrality	0.02 (0.02)	0.02 (0.01)	0.11 (0.04)	0.06 (0.02)
Reach	1.06 (1.18)	1.05 (0.93)	7.18 (2.41)	5.35 (2.03)
Strength	0.48 (0.42)	0.46 (0.40)	2.61 (0.76)	2.16 (0.74)

TABLE 2. Genetic differentiation among the Barataria Basin genetic clusters (western, east-central, and island) identified by STRUCTURE analysis and the Western Coastal Stock (WCS).

A: Pairwise estimates of F_{ST} using nuclear microsatellite data. B: mtDNA pairwise estimates of Φ_{ST} above and F_{ST} below the diagonal. P -values are in parentheses and significant pairwise comparisons after sequential Bonferroni correction are in bold. n: number of samples.

A:	n	Western	East-central	Island	WCS
Western	53				
East-central	49	0.031 (< 0.0001)			
Island	57	0.030 (< 0.0001)	0.023 (< 0.0001)		
WCS	29	0.044 (< 0.0001)	0.027 (< 0.0001)	0.021 (< 0.0001)	

Overall $F_{ST} = 0.029$, $P < 0.0001$

B:	n	Western	East-central	Island	WCS
Western	52		0.032 (0.0451)	0.023 (0.0661)	0.243 (< 0.0001)
East-central	46	0.076 (0.0030)		0.039 (0.0304)	0.156 (< 0.0001)
Island	55	0.010 (0.1787)	0.113 (0.0002)		0.163 (0.0001)
WCS	28	0.196 (< 0.0001)	0.102 (0.0001)	0.227 (< 0.0001)	

Overall $\Phi_{ST} = 0.099$, $P < 0.0001$

Overall $F_{ST} = 0.112$, $P < 0.0001$

TABLE 3. Tests of sex-biased dispersal in the Barataria Basin genetic clusters (GEN) and social clusters (SOC) using the mean Assignment Index correction (mAIc) values calculated in GenAlEx. Significance test results are shown for a two-tailed Mann Whitney U-test (Z and Probability). No values were significant between male and female pairs for any group. n: number of samples.

Group	n		mAIc			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Z	Probability
GEN-western	29	24	0.360	-0.435	-0.643	0.520
GEN-east-central	20	29	0.322	-0.222	0.590	0.555
GEN-island	29	28	0.546	-0.565	-1.660	0.097
SOC-western	8	5	-0.514	0.823	1.171	0.242
SOC-island	7	7	-0.292	0.292	-0.447	0.655
Barataria Basin	100	95	0.195	-0.205	-0.873	0.383

TABLE 4. Number of individuals (n), cumulative number of sighting locations, bandwidth, and 50% and 95% utilization distributions (UDs) areas (km²) for each social (SOC) and genetic (GEN) cluster.

Cluster	n	Cumulative # of locations	Bandwidth	50% area (km ²)	95% area (km ²)
SOC-East-central	3	33	467	0.99	7.6
SOC-West-central	4	42	700	2.6	13.2
SOC-Island	65	765	667	1.5	22.4
SOC-Western	40	504	567	4.8	37.1
GEN-East-central	49	493	1267	7.2	48.8
GEN-Island	57	883	1100	4.0	37.6
GEN-Western	53	861	933	3.9	31.4

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3 **TABLE 5.** Comparison of genetic samples (n=28) that qualified for the SOCPROG analysis
4 along with satellite telemetry assignment group. Genetic assignments are based on
5
6 STRUCTURE membership coefficients (q) ≥ 0.50 . SOC-GEN represents the proportion of social
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8 clusters that matched the genetic assignment. SOC-GEN-TEL represents the proportion of social
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10 clusters that matched both genetic and satellite telemetry assignments. SOC-TEL represents the
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12 proportion of social clusters that matched the satellite telemetry assignment. Clusters in bold
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14 represent matches. nd: data not available.
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Field #	SOCPROG cluster	Genetic cluster (<i>q</i>)	Sat telemetry	Sex	Age	SOC-GEN match	SOC-GEN-TEL match	SOC-TEL match
Y22	west-central	western (0.75)	western	M	nd	0/1 (0%)	0/1 (0%)	0/1 (0%)
BW120223-06	island	western (0.89)	na	M	nd	6/11 (55%) M: 3/6 (50%) F: 3/5 (60%)	2/6 (33%) M: 1/3 (33%) F: 1/3 (33%)	3/7 (43%) M: 1/3 (33%) F: 2/4 (50%)
Y75	island	western (0.93)	western	F	>10			
TYP100814-03	island	island (0.82)	na	M	nd			
Y20	island	east-central (0.90)	western	M	30			
YF8	island	island (0.63)	island	M	12			
R3100511-03	island	unassigned	na	M	nd			
Y60	island	island (0.58)	na	M	11			
Y63	island	island (0.83)	na	F	>10			
YV5	island	island (0.54)	na	F	24			
BW120220-03	island	unassigned	na	F	nd			
Y03	island	unassigned	western	F	15			
Y17	island	island (0.89)	island	F	14			
Y19	island	western (0.68)	island	F	15			
Y18	island	east-central (0.85)	western	M	nd			
YJ2	western	unassigned	western	M	23	6/10 (60%) M: 2/5 (40%) F: 4/5 (80%)	2/4 (50%) M: 0/2 (0%) F: 2/2 (100%)	5/6 (83%) M: 3/4 (75%) F: 2/2 (100%)
Y00	western	island (0.76)	western	M	17			
R3100511-01	western	unassigned	na	M	nd			
BW120223-01	western	island (0.75)	na	M	nd			
Y53	western	western (0.88)	na	F	10			
Y45	western	western (0.78)	na	F	19			
YK4	western	unassigned	western	M	nd			
Y08	western	western (0.59)	island	M	22			
YX7	western	western (0.51)	western	F	>10			
Y73	western	island (0.76)	na	F	17			
BW120223-03	western	western (0.88)	na	M	nd			
Y06	western	island (0.56)	na	M	13			
Y15	western	western (0.74)	western	F	13			

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3 **FIGURE 1.** Barataria Basin study area with photo-ID tracklines from the two phases of field
4 effort. Phase 1 (black dashed line): 2010-2014 (10 primary periods; see McDonald et al., 2017
5 for details) as part of the *Deepwater Horizon* (DWH) Natural Resource Damage Assessment
6 (NRDA), and Phase 2 (solid colored lines): March 2019 as part of an Environmental Impact
7 Statement required for the Mid-Barataria Sediment Diversion (MBSD). The inset in the upper
8 right depicts the same area outlined in the main image, and shows the biopsy sample locations
9 (black dots) within the basin used for the genetic analysis.
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23 **FIGURE 2.** Number of identified individuals, including previously and newly identified,
24 observed within each primary period, and total number of individuals in the Barataria Basin
25 photo-ID catalog observed during mark-recapture surveys.
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33 **FIGURE 3.** SOCPROG dendrogram showing the result from the association analysis using
34 average linkage and simple ratio index for the 112 Barataria Basin dolphins with 10 or more
35 sightings from mark-recapture photo-ID surveys (2010 - 2019). Dolphin catalog ID's are listed
36 on the y-axis. Dolphin clusters are joined by vertical black lines and differentiated by color: east-
37 central (green), west-central (blue), island (red), and western (yellow). The analysis resulted in a
38 cophenetic correlation coefficient of 0.80 and modularity value of 0.34.
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51 **FIGURE 4.** Genetic clustering assignments of individual dolphins within Barataria Basin from
52 STRUCTURE analysis ($K = 3$). A) Sampling locations of the three genetic clusters: east-central
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3 (green circles), island (red circles), and western (yellow circles); and the unassigned individuals
4 (black circles). Number of samples (n) assigned to each cluster and average membership
5 coefficient (q) values are shown for each. B) STRUCTURE bar plot. Each vertical column
6 represents one individual and proportional membership assignments to each of the three clusters
7 is represented by the different colors based on q -value (y -axis). Individuals are grouped into
8 clusters using a q -value threshold of 0.50 and separated by a black line.
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20 **FIGURE 5.** Average pairwise relatedness and variance (error bars) estimated using
21 COANCESTRY within the genetic clusters (GEN), social clusters (SOC), and the entire genetic
22 data set (Barataria Basin). Values are shown for the overall pairs (gray bars), female-female pairs
23 (red), and male-male pairs (blue). Significant differences between the overall relatedness of each
24 cluster and Barataria Basin data set are denoted with * above the bar. Tests of differences
25 between female and male pairs were only significant for the east-central genetic cluster.
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38 **FIGURE 6.** 95% and 50% percent volume contours (PVC) (i.e. utilization distributions (UDs))
39 calculated using kernel density estimates (KDEs) from cumulative photo-ID sightings for each of
40 the four Barataria Basin SOCPROG clusters (top row): western (yellow); island (red); east-
41 central (green); west-central (blue) and the three Barataria Basin genetic groups from the
42 STRUCTURE analyses (bottom row): western (yellow); island (red); east-central (green).
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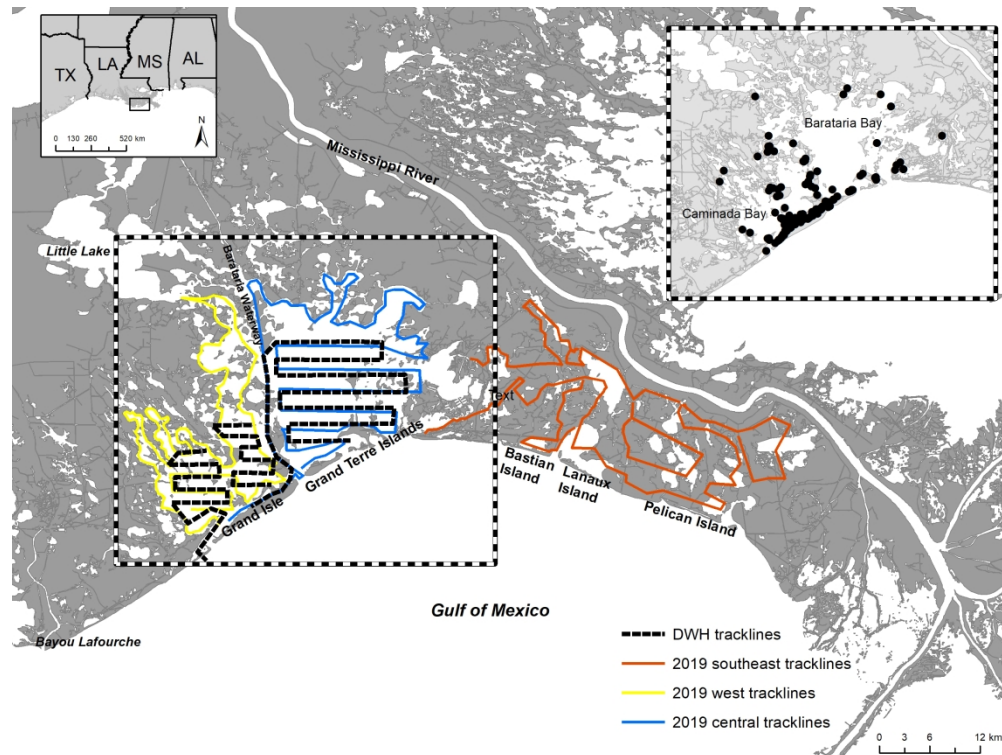


FIGURE 1. Barataria Basin study area with photo-ID tracklines from the two phases of field effort. Phase 1 (black dashed line): 2010–2014 (10 primary periods; see McDonald et al., 2017 for details) as part of the Deepwater Horizon (DWH) Natural Resource Damage Assessment (NRDA), and Phase 2 (solid colored lines): March 2019 as part of an Environmental Impact Statement required for the Mid-Barataria Sediment Diversion (MBSD). The inset in the upper right depicts the same area outlined in the main image, and shows the biopsy sample locations (black dots) within the basin used for the genetic analysis.

245x184mm (300 x 300 DPI)

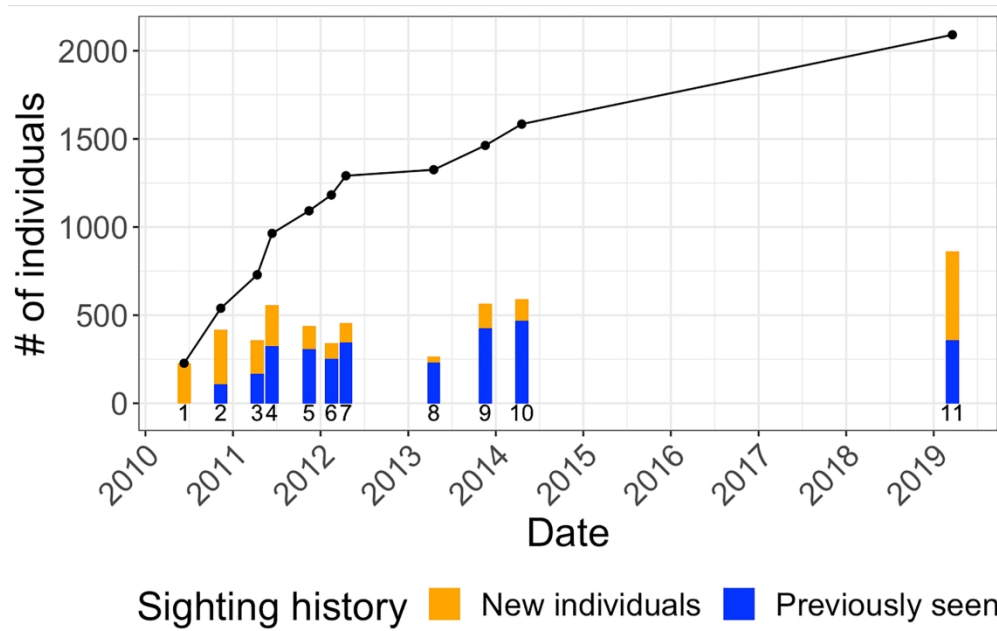


FIGURE 2. Number of identified individuals, including previously and newly identified, observed within each primary period, and total number of individuals in the Barataria Basin photo-ID catalog observed during mark-recapture surveys.

236x149mm (300 x 300 DPI)

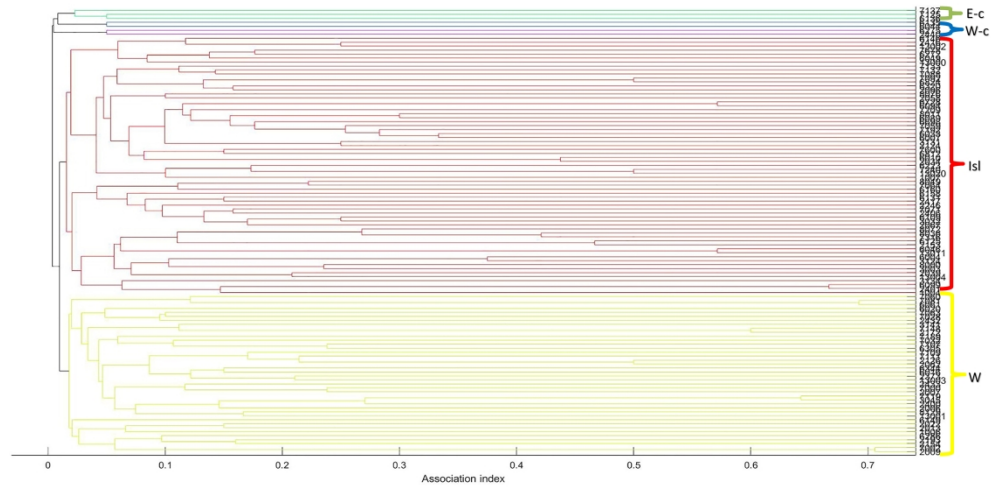


FIGURE 3. SOCPROG dendrogram showing the result from the association analysis using average linkage and simple ratio index for the 112 Barataria Basin dolphins with 10 or more sightings from mark-recapture photo-ID surveys (2010 - 2019). Dolphin catalog ID's are listed on the y-axis. Dolphin clusters are joined by vertical black lines and differentiated by color: east-central (green), west-central (blue), island (red), and western (yellow). The analysis resulted in a cophenetic correlation coefficient of 0.80 and modularity value of 0.34.

736x373mm (300 x 300 DPI)

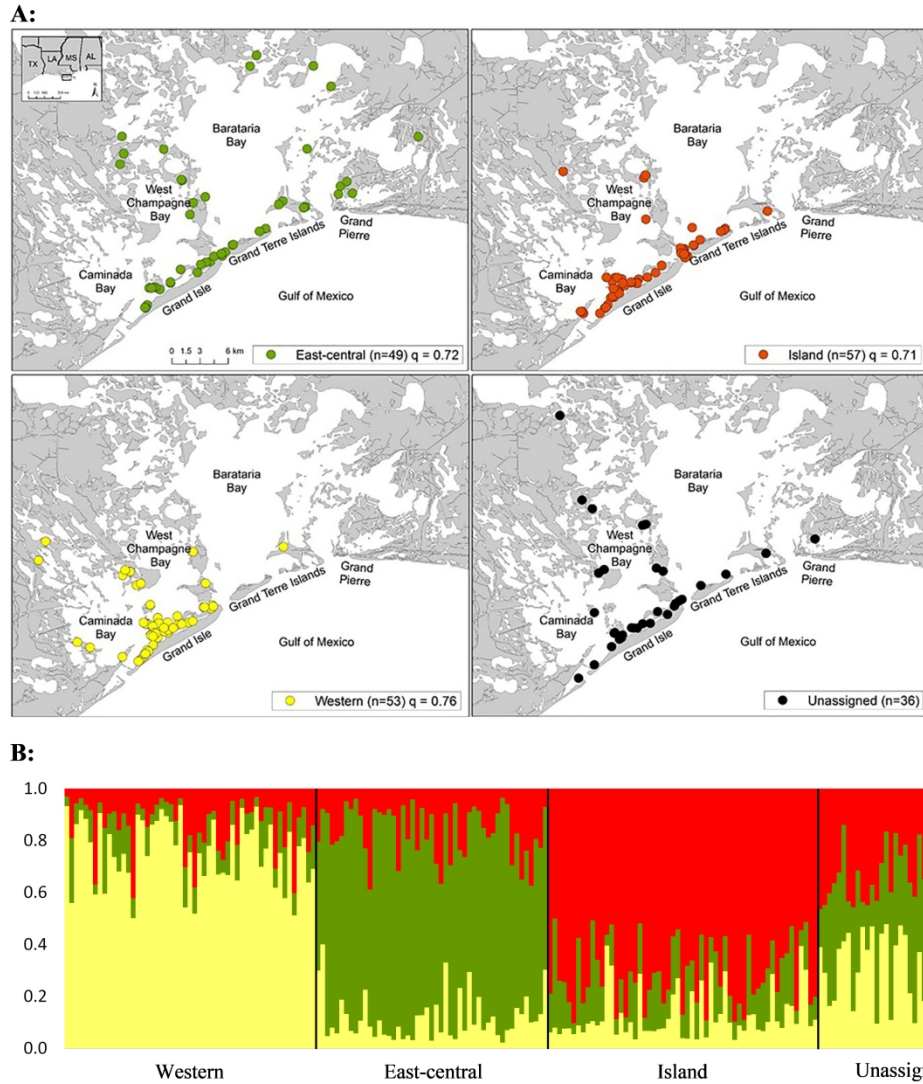


FIGURE 4. Genetic clustering assignments of individual dolphins within Barataria Basin from STRUCTURE analysis ($K = 3$). A) Sampling locations of the three genetic clusters: east-central (green circles), island (red circles), and western (yellow circles); and the unassigned individuals (black circles). Number of samples (n) assigned to each cluster and average membership coefficient (q) values are shown for each. B) STRUCTURE bar plot. Each vertical column represents one individual and proportional membership assignments to each of the three clusters is represented by the different colors based on q -value (y -axis). Individuals are grouped into clusters using a q -value threshold of 0.50 and separated by a black line.

849x932mm (120 x 120 DPI)

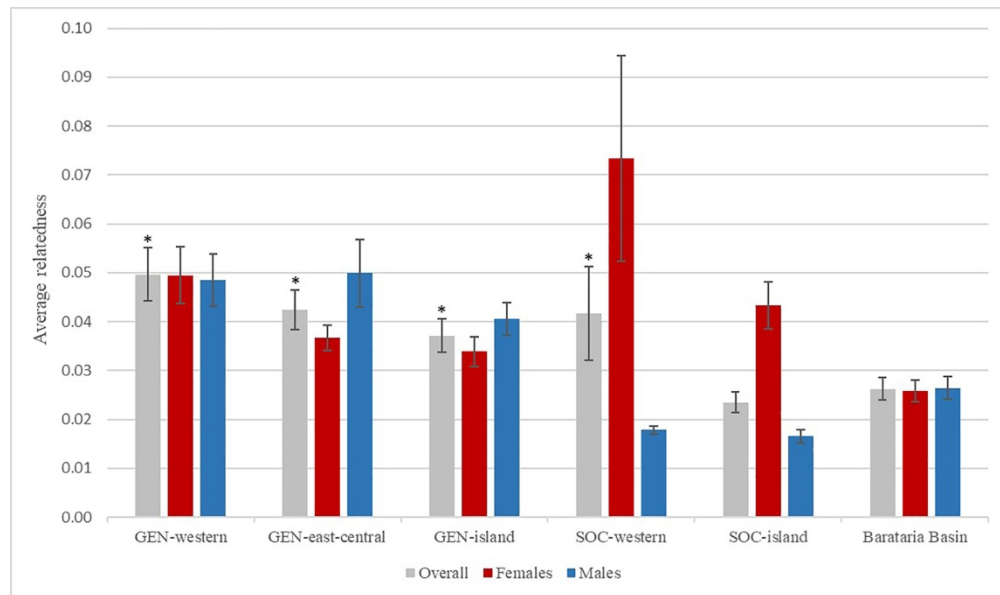


FIGURE 5. Average pairwise relatedness and variance (error bars) estimated using COANCESTRY within the genetic clusters (GEN), social clusters (SOC), and the entire genetic data set (Barataria Basin). Values are shown for the overall pairs (gray bars), female-female pairs (red), and male-male pairs (blue). Significant differences between the overall relatedness of each cluster and Barataria Basin data set are denoted with * above the bar. Tests of differences between female and male pairs were only significant for the east-central genetic cluster.

187x111mm (300 x 300 DPI)

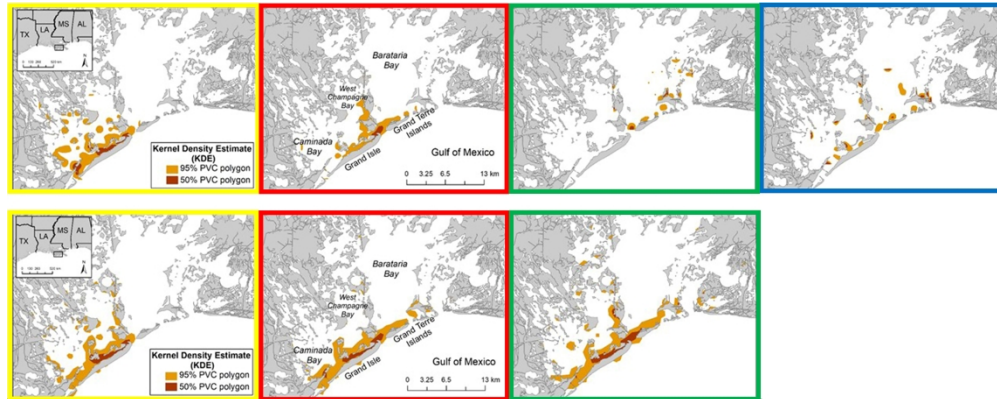


FIGURE 6. 95% and 50% percent volume contours (PVC) (i.e. utilization distributions (UDs)) calculated using kernel density estimates (KDEs) from cumulative photo-ID sightings for each of the four Barataria Basin SOCPROG clusters (top row): western (yellow); island (red); east-central (green); west-central (blue) and the three Barataria Basin genetic groups from the STRUCTURE analyses (bottom row): western (yellow); island (red); east-central (green).

812x325mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Supporting Information

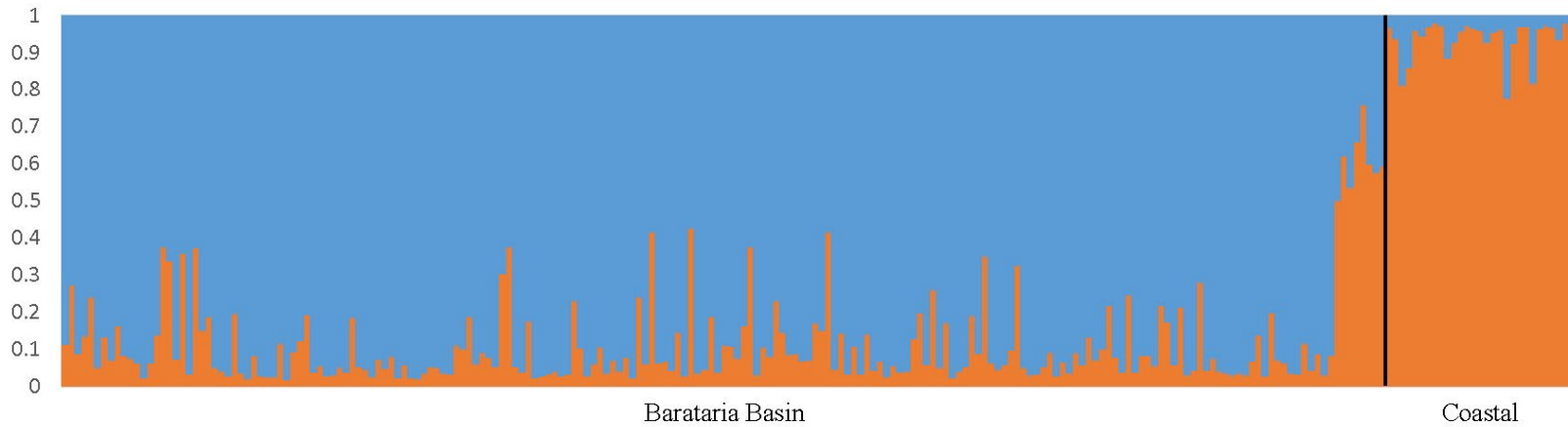


FIGURE S1. Bayesian clustering assignments of dolphins from STRUCTURE analysis of the Barataria Basin and Western Coastal Stock samples. Each individual is represented by a vertical column along the x -axis and proportional membership coefficients (q) to the two clusters are shaded in blue or orange. Sampling locations (inside Barataria Basin versus in coastal waters > 2 km from shore) are separated by a black line.

TABLE S1. PCR conditions for the eight multiplexes used to amplify 43 microsatellite loci using the Qiagen Type-it Microsatellite PCR kit. PCR reactions were completed in 10 μ L volumes and contained 1x Type-it Multiplex PCR Master Mix and 10 ng of DNA. Thermocycler profiles started with a denaturation step of 95°C for 5 min followed by 26-29 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 50-60°C (Ta) for 90 sec, and 72°C for 30 sec with a final extension step at 60°C for 30 min.

Locus	Forward primer (5'-3')	Reverse primer (5'-3')	Repeat type	Multiplex set	Primer final concentration (μ M)	Ta (°C), # of cycles	Species of origin	Reference
MK5	CTCAGAGGGAAATGAGGCTG	GTTTGTCTAGAGGTTCAAAGCCTTCC	Di	1	0.10 μ M	56, 27	<i>T. aduncus</i>	Krützen et al., 2001
MK6	GTCTCTTTCCAGGTGTAGCC	GCCCACTAAGTATGTTCAGC	Di	1	0.10 μ M	56, 27	<i>T. aduncus</i>	Krützen et al., 2001
MK8	TCCTGGAGCACTTATAGTGGC	GTTTCTGTGTCTCTTTGACATGCCCTCACC	Di	1	0.075 μ M	56, 27	<i>T. aduncus</i>	Vollmer et al., 2021 modification of Krützen et al., 2001
MK9	CATAACAAAGTGGGATGACTCC	GTTTATCCTGTGGCTGCAGTG	Di	1	0.10 μ M	56, 27	<i>T. aduncus</i>	Krützen et al., 2001
TexVet7	TGCACTGTAGGGTGTTCAGCAG	GTTTCTTAATTGGGGCGAATTCAC	Di	1	0.10 μ M	56, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rooney, Merritt & Derr, 1999
KWM12a ¹	CCATACAATCCAGCAGTC	GTTTCACTGCAGAATGATGACC	Di	1	0.10 μ M	50, 27	<i>O. orca</i>	Hoelzel, Dahlheim & Stern, 1998
Tr58	TGGGTCTTGAGGGTCTG	GTTTGTCTGAGGCTCTTGTGG	Di	2	0.0375 μ M	52, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
Tr63	CAGCTTACAGCCAAATGAGAG	GTTTCTCCATGGCTGAGTCATCA	Di	2	0.20 μ M	52, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
TexVet5	GATTGTGCAATGGAGACA	GTTTGTGATGACTCCTGTGGG	Di	2	0.05 μ M	52, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rooney, Merritt & Derr, 1999
EV37	AGCTTGATTTGGAAGTCATGA	GTTTAGTAGAGCCGTGATAAAGTGC	Di	2	0.30 μ M	52, 27	<i>M. novaeangliae</i>	Valsecchi & Amos, 1996
PPHO130	CAAGCCCTTACACATATG	GTTTATTGAGTAAAAGCAATTTTG	Di	3	0.30 μ M	50, 29	<i>P. phocoena</i>	Rosel et al., 1999
TrFF6	AAGTAAGTCTCCTTGTACTGG	GTTTGGCAGAGAGATATTAGGACAGC	Di	3	0.15 μ M	50, 29	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
Tr04	CTGACCAGGCATTTCCAC	GTTTGTTTCCAGGATTTAGTGC	Di	3	0.075 μ M	50, 29	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
Tr11	CTTTCAACCTGGCCTTTCTG	GTTTGGCCACTACAAGGGAGTGAA	Di	3	0.05 μ M	50, 29	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
Tr19	TGGGTGGACTCATCAAATC	GTTTAAAGGGCTGAAGAGG	Di	3	0.10 μ M	50, 29	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
Tr34	GCACATGAGTATGTGGACAGG	GTTTCTCCTTGGGAGTGTCTCT	Di	4	0.05 μ M	58, 28	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
Tr48	AAGAGGATGCAATGGCAAG	GTTTGGTAAGAAAATACCAAAGTCC	Di	4	0.0375 μ M	58, 28	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel, Forgetta & Dewar, 2005
EV14	TAAACATCAAAGCAGACCCC	GTTTCCAGAGCCAAGGTCAAAGAG	Di	4	0.30 μ M	58, 28	<i>P. macrocephalus</i>	Valsecchi & Amos, 1996
EV94	ACATGGCCATCGCTTTAAC	GTTTATAAGGGTGAATTTATGG	Di	4	0.30 μ M	58, 28	<i>M. novaeangliae</i>	Vollmer & Rosel, 2017 modification of Valsecchi & Amos, 1996
Tr36(tetra)	GGACATAACTAGCTTCTTGCTTGC	GTTTGTCTGCATAGTGGCAGGCG	Tetra	5	0.05 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr54	GAAGGGCAAACAAGATATCGG	GTTTCTCCGTCTCCTGTTCAATGC	Di	5	0.125 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr55	CAAGACTCTGAAGGATTTCTCAGG	GTTTCAAAGAGCAATGCGAGAGG	Di	5	0.125 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr61	GCCATCGTGAATAAAGACGC	GTTTGGAAAGTCTTACTTGTATTGAGGGC	Di	5	0.10 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr90	AGGGTTCTCCAGAAACATAGGG	GTTTCAACAATCATGAGGCCAGTTCC	Di	5	0.10 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr98	CCATTGCATTTCAATACCACC	GTTTCAAGAGAATTCAGAAACGGAGC	Di	5	0.10 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	this study, Rosel et al., 2017
Tr100	GTCTTGGATTACACGGGGCG	GTTTGGCAGGCAGAAGATAAAGC	Di	5	0.05 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr12	AAATTCTCTTAGTCATGTTTCCACC	GTTTACATCACATTGAGATAGTCTTGGC	Tetra	6	0.10 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr20	CCAATCTTAAGTGGTTCTGGG	GTTTCCCATTGGTCACTTGGTTACG	Tetra	6	0.025 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	this study, Rosel et al., 2017
Tr41	TGTTCTCTAATGCCACATCC	GTTTCAAGAGCATTGTCTATAAAC	Tetra	6	0.05 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr51	GCTAAGATATGACATATTTCCCTGG	GTTTGGTGGTTGATTGAGAACC	Di	6	0.05 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	this study, Rosel et al., 2017
Tr52	TGGACTCAGAGAGATAGGTGG	GTTTGGTGGCTTGTGTCTGTAAGC	Di	6	0.125 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
DlrFCB1	TGCATCTCCATGGTATGTCTTATCC	GTTTACCTCTGCTATGCCTGGAAACGC	Di	6	0.10 μ M	60, 26	<i>D. leucas</i>	Buchanan et al., 1996
Tr56	CTGCATTACCTCTCCACC	GTTTATGATGCAATCACAGGCTGC	Di	7	0.15 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr83	TGCATATTTAGATTTCTAGCTCC	GTTTGCAGAAGTATCGGTTCAAGC	Di	7	0.10 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
D08	ATCCATCATATTGTCAAGTT	GTTTCTCTGGGTGATGAGTCTTC	Di	7	0.20 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017 modification of Shinohara, Domingo-Roura & Takenaka, 1997
D22	GTTTGGAAATGCTCTGAGAAGGTC	CCAGAGCCTATGTGGAC	Di	7	0.035 μ M	60, 26	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Shinohara, Domingo-Roura & Takenaka, 1997
Dde70	ACACCAGCACCTACATTACA	GTTTTCAGCAGCATTTAAACCAAAC	Di	7	0.05 μ M	60, 26	<i>D. delphis</i>	Coughlan et al., 2006
Tr71	CCCTTATTAATCAGAGAGAGAGGG	GTTTCTTACCTCTTCTTCTGTGG	Tetra	8	0.025 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr78	AAAGCTGAGGAGACTTGAGATGG	GTTTGGCTAAGGATGCCATTGAGG	Tetra	8	0.035 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
Tr84	TTAICTATTCACTTCAACACACG	GTTTAAATGTGTCTTAGGAAGACTGAACC	Di	8	0.10 μ M	54, 27	<i>T. truncatus</i>	Rosel et al., 2017
DlrFCB3	CAAGTGCCATCAGTAGATGAATG	GTTTCTTGTATCTATAACTCTGGTTATGG	Di	8	0.25 μ M	54, 27	<i>D. leucas</i>	Buchanan et al., 1996
DlrFCB12 ²	CTCAGTTAATATACATGTAATGCATGC	GTTTCAAAGAATAGCTAAATAAACAGTAAC	Di	8	0.20 μ M	54, 27	<i>D. leucas</i>	this study, modification of Buchanan et al., 1996
SW19	GTAGTTTCTTAAACAGTAATG	GTTTAGTCTGGGCTTTTACCTA	Di	8	0.075 μ M	54, 27	<i>P. macrocephalus</i>	Richard, Whitehead & Wright, 1996

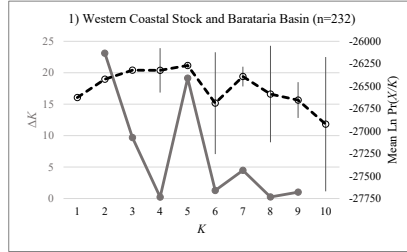
¹KWM12a was amplified alone and then 2 μ L of the PCR reaction was coloaded with 2 μ L of the MK5/MK6/MK8/MK9/TextVet7 PCR reaction.

²Buchanan DlrFCB12 reverse primer sequence is CAAAGAGTATAGCTAAATAACAGTAAC; a G (in bold & underlined) has been removed from our primer sequence.

TABLE S2. Estimations for the optimal number of clusters (K) using Evanno's ΔK , Pritchard's mean log-likelihood of the data ($\ln \Pr(X/K)$) with standard deviation (Stdev), and Wang's parsimony index (PI) for each STRUCTURE run. The most likely K from each method is bolded in each table. When the most likely ΔK was below a value of 10, samples could not be assigned to more than one cluster for that K , therefore the best K was determined to be 1 as estimated by the other two methods. Plots of ΔK (solid gray line) and mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$ (dashed black lines with Stdev plotted) are provided for each STRUCTURE run. n: number of samples.

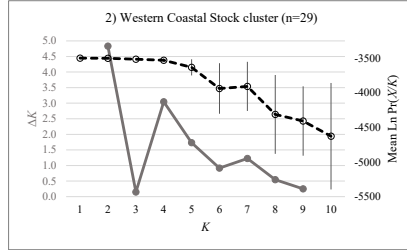
1) Western Coastal Stock and Barataria Basin (n=232)

K	Evanno's ΔK	Pritchard's Mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Stdev $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Wang's PI
1	-	-26625.62	0.70	0.500
2	23.10	-26421.70	4.52	0.753
3	9.69	-26322.12	10.39	0.824
4	0.23	-26323.21	247.16	0.842
5	19.13	-26268.68	24.79	0.623
6	1.26	-26688.55	566.83	0.015
7	4.47	-26392.27	109.73	0.276
8	0.24	-26586.83	537.05	-0.053
9	1.01	-26653.77	199.14	0.129
10	-	-26922.44	747.59	0.147



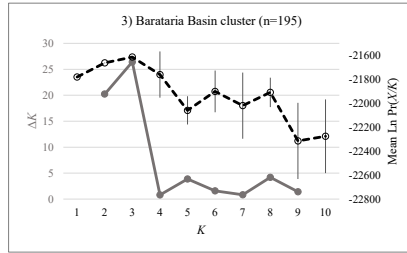
2) Western Coastal Stock alone (n=29)

K	Evanno's ΔK	Pritchard's Mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Stdev $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Wang's PI
1	-	-3498.92	1.04	0.500
2	4.83	-3500.38	2.44	-0.280
3	0.15	-3513.64	17.10	-0.609
4	3.05	-3529.40	28.57	-0.551
5	1.73	-3632.23	116.80	-0.599
6	0.92	-3937.17	365.06	-0.853
7	1.23	-3907.04	354.96	-0.563
8	0.54	-4312.00	569.59	-0.614
9	0.25	-4407.30	501.30	-0.798
10	-	-4626.95	769.21	-0.813



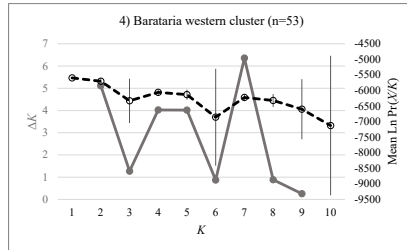
3) Barataria Basin cluster alone (n=195)

K	Evanno's ΔK	Pritchard's Mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Stdev $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Wang's PI
1	-	-21781.33	0.56	0.500
2	20.23	-21663.16	3.44	0.724
3	26.42	-21614.48	7.37	0.824
4	0.79	-21760.49	192.95	0.620
5	3.87	-22059.25	117.98	0.497
6	1.59	-21901.12	174.13	0.491
7	0.83	-22020.10	276.12	0.723
8	4.21	-21909.31	122.68	0.819
9	1.40	-22314.44	317.94	0.691
10	-	-22275.61	307.70	0.722



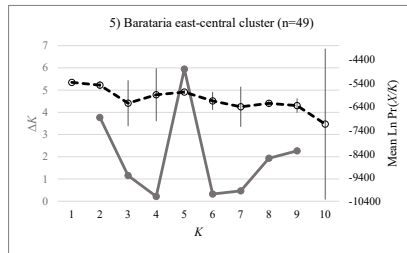
4) Barataria western cluster alone (n=53)

K	Evanno's ΔK	Pritchard's Mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Stdev $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Wang's PI
1	-	-5596.07	1.18	0.500
2	5.11	-5702.94	102.45	-0.169
3	1.27	-6333.57	712.24	-0.037
4	4.03	-6058.74	87.05	0.367
5	4.02	-6134.39	161.49	0.102
6	0.87	-6858.95	1557.67	-0.050
7	6.35	-6226.53	114.69	0.077
8	0.88	-6322.90	206.75	-0.028
9	0.25	-6602.23	965.67	-0.371
10	-	-7127.34	2241.66	-0.371



5) Barataria east-central cluster alone (n=49)

K	Evanno's ΔK	Pritchard's Mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Stdev $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Wang's PI
1	-	-5359.08	0.81	0.500
2	3.77	-5478.58	171.24	-0.227
3	1.15	-6243.02	973.29	0.078
4	0.22	-5883.74	1121.84	-0.153
5	5.95	-5770.11	81.92	-0.083
6	0.33	-6143.68	380.33	-0.289
7	0.47	-6393.57	850.41	-0.449
8	1.93	-6245.38	127.15	-0.074
9	2.26	-6342.93	304.23	-0.376
10	-	-7129.08	3199.31	-0.777



6) Barataria island cluster alone (n=57)

K	Evanno's ΔK	Pritchard's Mean $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Stdev $\ln \Pr(X/K)$	Wang's PI
1	-	-6358.53	0.80	0.500
2	9.76	-6412.61	63.94	-0.079
3	0.08	-7090.64	595.45	-0.044
4	1.30	-7719.12	856.30	-0.329
5	0.31	-7236.98	1071.97	-0.400
6	2.08	-7089.52	174.86	-0.240
7	1.16	-7306.14	217.95	0.124
8	1.30	-7269.66	289.18	-0.056
9	0.38	-7607.82	2299.61	-0.658
10	-	-7077.94	161.66	-0.042

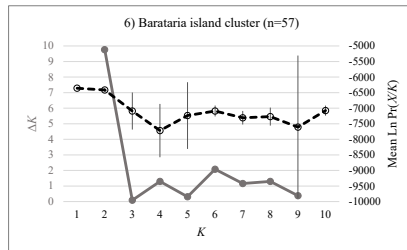


TABLE S4. Mitochondrial DNA haplotypes from Barataria Basin and the Western Coastal Stock (WCS). Counts for the Barataria Basin samples are given for the clusters identified with STRUCTURE analyses (western, east-central, and island) and the unassigned individuals (no $q \geq 0.50$ for any cluster), as well as individuals removed from the Barataria Basin data set due to $q \geq 0.50$ to the WCS in the initial STRUCTURE run. Haplotype name and sample size for haplotypes used in pairwise tests of genetic differentiation are in bold. Heteroplasmic haplotypes are labeled with 'hpl'.

Haplotype name	Barataria Basin					WCS	GenBank Accession	Reference
	Western	East-central	Island	Unassigned	Removed			
Ttr2	28	10	33	12	4	2	AY997308	Sellas et al., 2005
Ttr16	2	2	0	2	0	10	AY997309	Sellas et al., 2005
GTtr18	1	6	2	1	0	0	GQ504051	Rosel et al., 2009
GTtr19	0	3	4	4	0	4	AY997307	Sellas et al., 2005
GTtr23	1	0	3	0	0	0	GQ504062	Kingston et al., 2009
GTtr30	11	17	12	9	4	4	AY997311	Sellas et al., 2005
GTtr45	0	0	0	0	0	1	JN944196	Vollmer and Rosel, 2017
GTtr46	0	0	0	0	0	1	JN944197	Vollmer and Rosel, 2017
GTtr48	0	0	0	0	0	2	JN944199	Vollmer and Rosel, 2017
GTtr54	0	0	0	0	0	1	JN944205	Vollmer et al., 2021
GTtr57	0	0	0	1	0	0	JN944208	this study
GTtr62	0	0	0	0	0	1	JN944213	Vollmer and Rosel, 2017
GTtr72	9	7	1	6	0	0	MZ615655	this study
GTtr73	0	1	0	0	0	0	MZ615656	this study
GTtr75	0	0	0	0	0	1	MZ615657	this study
GTtr76	0	0	0	0	0	1	MZ615658	this study
11Tt079hpl	0	1	0	0	0	0	MZ615659	this study
16Tt269hpl	0	1	0	0	0	0	MT380121	Vollmer et al., 2021
21Tt086hpl	0	0	1	0	0	0	MZ615660	this study
24Tt052hpl	1	0	0	0	0	0	MZ615661	this study
24Tt074hpl	0	0	1	0	0	0	MZ615662	this study
24Tt139hpl	0	0	0	1	0	0	MZ615663	this study
26Tt083hpl	0	1	0	0	0	0	MZ615664	this study
40Tt011hpl	0	0	0	0	0	1	MZ615665	this study
Total used in analysis:	52	46	55	0	0	28		

TABLE S5. Average pairwise relatedness (r) and variance estimated using COANCESTRY and tests for significant differences between A) the genetic clusters (GEN), social clusters (SOC) and the entire genetic data set (Barataria Basin) and B) for each sex within the groups. The 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles obtained from the bootstrapping method to test differences in average relatedness between groups are given. Significant differences in r using a 95% confidence level are in bold when comparing A) each cluster to the entire data set and B) male and females pairs within each group. n: number of samples.

A:

Group	n	average r		variance		r observed average		
						difference	2.5% quantile	97.5% quantile
GEN-western	53	0.0497	0.0054	0.0234	-0.0023	0.0025		
GEN-east-central	49	0.0425	0.0041	0.0162	-0.0026	0.0027		
GEN-island	57	0.0371	0.0034	0.0109	-0.0022	0.0023		
SOC-western	13	0.0417	0.0096	0.0154	-0.0096	0.0116		
SOC-island	14	0.0235	0.0021	-0.0027	-0.0087	0.0108		
Barataria Basin	195	0.0262	0.0023					

B:

Group	n		average r		variance		r observed average		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	difference	2.5% quantile	97.5% quantile
GEN-western	29	24	0.0485	0.0495	0.0054	0.0058	0.0010	-0.0111	0.0114
GEN-east-central	20	29	0.0499	0.0367	0.0068	0.0026	-0.0132	-0.0112	0.0106
GEN-island	29	28	0.0405	0.0339	0.0033	0.0030	-0.0067	-0.0081	0.0077
SOC-western	8	5	0.0178	0.0734	0.0008	0.0210	0.0556	-0.0353	0.0639
SOC-island	7	7	0.0165	0.0433	0.0013	0.0048	0.0268	-0.0307	0.0347
Barataria Basin	100	95	0.0264	0.0258	0.0023	0.0022	-0.0006	-0.0019	0.0019

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