

**Isolation of peripheral populations of Canada lynx**

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### ABSTRACT

Landscape barriers to gene flow, such as rivers, can affect animal populations by limiting the potential for rescue of these isolated populations. We tested the Riverine Barrier Hypothesis, predicting that the St. Lawrence River in eastern Canada would cause genetic divergence of Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*, Kerr, 1792) populations by restricting dispersal and gene flow. We sampled 558 lynx from eastern Canada and genotyped these at 14 microsatellite loci. We found 3 genetic clusters, defined by the St. Lawrence River and the Strait of Belle Isle, a waterway separating Newfoundland from mainland Canada. These waterways were not absolute barriers, however: we found 24 individuals that appeared to have crossed. Peripheral populations of lynx are threatened in parts of Canada and the USA, and it is thought that these populations are maintained by immigration from the core. Our findings suggest that in eastern North America, rescue might be less likely because the St. Lawrence River restricts dispersal. We found that ice cover was often sufficient to allow lynx to walk across the ice in winter. If lynx used ice bridges in winter, climate warming could cause a reduction in the extent and longevity of river and sea ice, further isolating these peripheral lynx populations.

**KEYWORDS** Canada lynx, ice bridge, *Lynx canadensis*, Newfoundland, population structure, Quebec, Riverine Barrier Hypothesis, St. Lawrence River, Strait of Belle Isle

**INTRODUCTION**

Landscape-scale impediments to dispersal, such as mountain ranges (e.g., Reding et al. 2013) and roads (e.g., Epps et al. 2005), can cause a reduction in gene flow that can lead to reduced genetic diversity and extirpation of isolated populations (O’Grady et al. 2006). At the leading edge of a shifting species’ distribution, landscape-scale barriers might limit opportunities for the species’ range to expand as optimal environmental conditions shift (Kerr and Packer 1998). At the trailing range edge, landscape features that reduce gene flow could lead to reduced genetic diversity (Koen et al. 2014a) and a reduced potential for already vulnerable populations to adapt to changing environmental conditions (Pearson et al. 2009). Landscape barriers might also prevent rescue of isolated populations by limiting immigration from core populations (Adams et al. 2011).

The influence of rivers on dispersal, species distributions, and speciation has been of interest for over a century (Wallace 1852; Grinnell 1914; Goldman 1937). The Riverine Barrier Hypothesis (Wallace 1852; Ayres and Clutton-Brock 1992) posits that rivers can act as barriers to dispersal and can limit species ranges. It follows that dispersal rates across rivers would be inversely proportional to river width and flow rate. Despite the number of empirical tests, support for this hypothesis is mixed (Colwell 2000). Rivers have been shown to impede dispersal and gene flow of a diversity of terrestrial species, including reptiles (lizards: Lamborot et al. 2003), birds (Hayes and Sewlal 2004; Voelker et al. 2013), and mammals (mustelids: Garroway et al. 2011, primates: Ayres and Clutton-Brock 1992; Peres et al. 1996). There are also examples of rivers that do not act as barriers (Patton et al. 1994; Fairley et al. 2002; Loughheed et al. 1999; Côté et al. 2012). Equivocal support for the Riverine Barrier Hypothesis might be a

function of the ecology and dispersal abilities of the focal species in relation to the width and flow rate of the river in question (Haffer 1997). In northern regions, seasonal river ice can dampen the isolating effects of rivers by making otherwise isolated regions accessible to non-hibernating terrestrial mammals via ice bridges (Jackson 1920; Banfield 1954; Fuller and Robinson 1982*b*; Gaston et al. 2012).

The distribution of Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*, Kerr, 1792) across North America has contracted since European settlement (Laliberte and Ripple 2004), and the southern extent of the range has continued to contract northward in recent decades (Koen et al. 2014*a*). The Canada lynx is federally listed as threatened in the conterminous USA (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 2000) and provincially listed as endangered in New Brunswick (New Brunswick Endangered Species Regulation 2013) and Nova Scotia, Canada (Parker 2001). The St. Lawrence River is over 750 km long and 1 - 42 km wide, and runs through the southern extent of lynx range in Quebec, Canada (Fig. 1). Lynx are known to swim across relatively narrow rivers (100 – 300 m; Feierabend and Kielland 2014), but previous research has suggested that lynx movements are impeded by a river as wide as the St. Lawrence (Rueness et al. 2003). Lynx populations at the southern extent of their range may be maintained or supplemented by immigration from core populations (Schwartz et al. 2002), and in eastern North America this would imply that lynx immigrate southward from north of the St. Lawrence River. Indeed, the possibility of rescue of the threatened southern lynx populations via dispersal from core populations is an important component of assessment and recovery plans for lynx (Ruediger et al. 2000; Nordstrom 2005; Nova Scotia Lynx Recovery Team 2007). Thus, understanding the role of the St. Lawrence River in shaping genetic structure of lynx is an important conservation goal

as it could have implications for the recovery of peripheral lynx populations in eastern North America. If the St. Lawrence River is acting as an impediment to lynx movements and gene flow, then there should be genetic divergence between lynx populations on either side of the river. We also estimated temporal trends in ice cover to assess whether an ice bridge across the St. Lawrence River exists and could be crossed by lynx in winter. For context, we compared our results to a known obstacle to lynx gene flow, the Strait of Belle Isle that separates Newfoundland from mainland Labrador and Quebec, Canada.

**METHODS**

The St. Lawrence River in eastern North America links the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. The river ranges from 1 km wide in the fluvial sections west of Montreal, Quebec, to an average width of 17 km east of Quebec City, Quebec, and widening to an average of 42 km at the lower estuary (Environment Canada 2013, Fig. 1). Portions of the St. Lawrence River freeze periodically during the winter, and sea ice cover in the Gulf of the St. Lawrence varies annually (Johnston et al. 2005). Variability in freezing is due to a combination of factors, including ambient and water temperature, surface wind, water current, tidal flows, and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO, Johnston et al. 2005; Fisheries and Oceans Canada 2012). The Canadian Coast Guard uses icebreakers to keep a channel of the St. Lawrence River open during the winter, from Montreal to Quebec City, for shipping and flood control (Fisheries and Oceans Canada 2001; Dong 2011). For comparison, the Strait of Belle Isle, separating Newfoundland from mainland Labrador and Quebec, Canada, is a 15 - 60 km wide waterway in the Gulf of the St. Lawrence that usually freezes in winter (Fig 1., Fisheries and Oceans Canada 2012).

## Sample collection and genetic profiling

We collected skin samples (2.5mm x 2.5mm) from the pelts of Canada lynx harvested in Quebec, Labrador, and Newfoundland, Canada, from fur auctions between 2008 and 2011. Furbearer harvesting in Quebec was reported by administrative units called Unités de Gestion des Animaux à Fourrure (UGAF). Thus, we used the centroid of the UGAF as the sample location (Fig. 1). The average size of the 58 UGAFs for which we had at least one lynx sample was 4356.8 (SD = 7818.0) km<sup>2</sup>. We were able to categorize the Newfoundland and Labrador samples as being harvested from mainland (Labrador) or island (Newfoundland) only. In 2010 we obtained tissue samples of 15 incidental lynx mortalities in New Brunswick, Canada from the New Brunswick museum. We grouped these samples into one site. As lynx in New Brunswick tended to occur in the northwest of the province (Parker 2001), we used the centroid of this region as our site coordinates for New Brunswick (Fig. 1). The lynx from Quebec and Newfoundland and Labrador presented by Row et al. (2012) are a subset of what we present here. Furthermore, all lynx samples presented here are a subset of those reported in Koen et al. (2014b). We measured pelt length to categorize individuals as adult or juvenile (Quinn and Gardner 1984; Slough 1996).

We genotyped lynx at 14 microsatellite loci (Fca031, Fca035, Fca043, Fca077, Fca090, Fca096, Fca441, Fca391, Fca559, Lc106, Lc109, Lc110, Lc111, Lc118) according to methods described by Row et al. (2012). We manually scored allele sizes using Genemarker 1.7 (Softgenetics). All samples for both species were scored by the same individual using the same criteria, and a second person independently scored a subset of the samples to ensure consistency. We omitted samples that were missing alleles at  $\geq 5$  of 14 loci. We checked for

errors with software Microchecker 2.2.3 (van Oosterhout et al. 2004) and by examining summary statistics with the adegenet package (version 1.4-2, Jombart 2008) in R (R Development Core team 2014). To determine sex, we amplified the y-chromosome-specific Sry locus and the Zfx fragment on the x-chromosome (Woods et al. 1999; Ortega et al. 2004; Zigouris et al. 2012).

**Analysis of genetic data**

We grouped lynx samples into 5 sites based on geographic location: north of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec ( $n = 331$ ), south of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec ( $n = 165$ ), New Brunswick ( $n = 15$ ), mainland Labrador ( $n = 18$ ), and Newfoundland ( $n = 29$ ). We used Bonferroni-corrected ( $\alpha = 0.0012$ ) chi-square tests to determine whether allele frequencies were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE), and estimated expected and observed heterozygosity with the adegenet package (Jombart 2008) in R. We used the software Genepop (web version 4.2, Raymond and Rousset 1995; Rousset 2008) to test for linkage disequilibrium (Bonferroni-corrected;  $\alpha = 0.0005$ ). We used software HP-Rare 1.1 (Kalinowski 2005) to estimate the number of alleles per locus (allelic richness), corrected for a sample size of 15 with rarefaction, for our 5 sites. We estimated  $F_{IS}$  for each site, and pairwise  $D_{est}$  (Jost 2008) and  $F_{ST}$  (Weir and Cockerham, 1984) between sites with the R package DiveRsity (Keenan et al. 2013), with 95% confidence intervals on these estimates (999 bootstraps). For lynx sampled in Quebec, we grouped samples as north or south of the St. Lawrence River and within groups, calculated pairwise  $D_{est}$  and  $F_{ST}$  between UGAF administrative units. We grouped lynx sampled from adjacent UGAFs to increase the sample size in each UGAF (north: 16 sites with an average of 25.7 (SD=16.9) samples/site; south: 7 sites, with an average of 23.1 (SD=16.0) samples/site).

151 To further evaluate the genetic structure of lynx in our study area, we used an analysis of  
 152 molecular variance (AMOVA; Excoffier et al. 1992), with 5 sites nested within the three regions  
 153 delineated by waterways (south of the St. Lawrence River, north of the River, and  
 154 Newfoundland) with the poppr (Kamvar et al. 2014), adegenet (Jombert 2008), and ade4 (Dray  
 155 and Dufour 2007) packages in R. We used 999 permutations to assess statistical significance  
 156 with the ade4 and poppr packages, as described by Excoffier et al. (1992).

157 We used Bayesian clustering software (Structure version 2.3.4, Pritchard et al. 2000) to  
 158 identify genetic clusters. We ran 10 repetitions for each of  $K = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 9\}$  with a burn-in of  
 159 500,000 Markov chain Monte Carlo iterations and followed by  $1 \times 10^6$  iterations. We used an  
 160 admixture model without prior location information. We identified the most likely number of  
 161 genetic clusters with the Evanno method (Evanno et al. 2005) using software Structure  
 162 Harvester (Earl and vonHoldt 2012). We summarized the 10 replicates with software Clumpp  
 163 (Jakobsson and Rosenberg 2007) and visualized the results with software Distruct (Rosenberg  
 164 2004). We considered individuals to be admixed if they had  $0.3 \geq Q \geq 0.7$ , where  $Q$  represented  
 165 the proportion of an individual's genome assigned to a population (Pritchard et al. 2000). We  
 166 conducted a principal component analysis (PCA) of microsatellite genotypes with the ade4  
 167 package (Dray and Dufour 2007) in R. We used the PCA as a complementary analysis to  
 168 program Structure because unlike Structure, PCA does not rely on the assumption that  
 169 populations are in HWE. We note, however, that Structure appears to be robust to departures  
 170 from HWE (Hauser et al. 2006, Rodríguez-Ramilo et al. 2009). We estimated pairwise  $D_{\text{est}}$  (Jost  
 171 2008) and  $F_{\text{ST}}$  (Weir and Cockerham 1984) between clusters (in addition to between sites) with



the R package DiveRsity. For this analysis, we assigned admixed samples to the cluster that accounted for >50% of its ancestry.

**Ice cover on the St. Lawrence River and Strait of Belle Isle**

We were interested in examining whether the St. Lawrence River and Strait of Belle Isle froze in the winter such that lynx could walk across the ice. We analyzed weekly ice charts for the Eastern Coast region from the Canadian Ice Service Archive (Meteorological Service of Canada, Environment Canada) from Dec 1 – May 15, for each of 8 years (2004 - 2011) to assess temporal trends in ice cover. We restricted our analysis to these years because ice charts prior to 2004 with World Meteorological Organization colour coding were not available and our samples were collected prior to 2011. From these data, we identified how many weeks (not necessarily consecutive) that there was an ice bridge across the St. Lawrence River east of Quebec City and across the narrow reaches of the Strait of Belle Isle near St. Anthony, Newfoundland (Fig. 1). We defined an ice bridge as ice, connecting both banks of the river or strait, with a concentration of  $\geq 9$ . Ice concentration is the proportion of the water surface in a defined area that is covered by ice, on a scale from 1 - 10 (Environment Canada 2005). We considered grey ice (10 – 15 cm thick), grey-white ice (15 – 30 cm thick), and first year ice (> 30 cm thick) to be of sufficient thickness for crossing.

**RESULTS**

**Analysis of genetic data**

We successfully genotyped 558 lynx from Quebec ( $n = 331$  north of the St. Lawrence River,  $n = 165$  south of the river), New Brunswick ( $n = 15$ ), Labrador ( $n = 18$ ), and Newfoundland ( $n = 29$ ;

Table 1). We omitted 7 samples from Quebec and 2 samples from Labrador because they were missing alleles at  $\geq 5$  of 14 loci. Both Newfoundland lynx and Quebec lynx south of the St. Lawrence River departed from HWE at 6 of 14 loci (NFLD: Lc111, Fca35, Lc109, Fca559, Lc106, Fca77; QC south: Fca441, Fca96, Fca35, Lc106, Lc109, Lc110;  $p < 0.0012$ ), whereas lynx north of the river departed from HWE at one locus only (Fca96). The New Brunswick and Labrador sites were in HWE at all loci. There was evidence of linkage disequilibrium for 4 pairs of loci (Fca96 and Fca559, Fca559 and Fca31, Fca31 and Fca441, and Fca391 and Fca110;  $p < 0.0005$ ).

Allelic richness and private allelic richness in Quebec south of the St. Lawrence River were 16.6% and 67.5% lower than north of the river (Table 2). Allelic richness and private allelic richness in Newfoundland were 38.8% and 51.8% lower than in Labrador (Table 2). Both  $F_{ST}$  and  $D_{est}$  indicated high genetic differentiation on either side of the St. Lawrence River and the Strait of Belle Isle relative to sites on the same side of the waterway (Table 3). There was greater genetic differentiation between Newfoundland and Labrador than between populations north and south of the St. Lawrence River (Table 3). Within Quebec, gene flow was relatively high between lynx on the same side of the St. Lawrence River:  $F_{ST}$  and  $D_{est}$  between pairs of UGAFs on the same side of the river were lower (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2) than the values we observed for sites on opposite sides of the river (Table 3). We detected evidence of relatively high inbreeding among lynx in Newfoundland (Table 2).

The likelihood values from our Structure analysis indicated two genetic clusters (Supplementary Fig. 1) separating Newfoundland, Labrador, and Quebec (north of the St. Lawrence River) from New Brunswick and Quebec (south of the river). Our PCA results (Fig. 2), however, suggested 3 genetic clusters, grouping New Brunswick and Quebec (south of the

river) into one cluster, Labrador and Quebec (north of the river) into a second cluster, and Newfoundland as a third cluster.  $F_{ST}$  and  $D_{est}$  values (Table 3) were consistent with the latter finding that the St. Lawrence River and the Strait of Belle Isle are impediments to gene flow. Furthermore, the 3 clusters themselves were genetically differentiated (Supplementary Table 3). Our AMOVA showed that while the majority (88.9%) of the variation was within sites ( $\Phi = 0.110$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significant proportion (10.4%) of the genetic variation was partitioned among regions separated by waterways (i.e., south of the St. Lawrence River, north of the River, and Newfoundland;  $\Phi = 0.104$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), with less variation attributed to sites nested within regions (0.7%,  $\Phi = 0.007$ ,  $p = 0.042$ ). Visual inspection of our Structure plot also suggested 3 genetic clusters (Fig. 3), and although this is not demonstrated by our likelihood values (Supplementary Fig. 1b), it does agree with our PCA, AMOVA,  $F_{ST}$  and  $D_{est}$  results, and also with findings from Row et al. (2012) that lynx in Newfoundland are a separate genetic cluster from mainland lynx. As such, and as suggested by Evanno et al. (2005), we have used the weight-of-evidence to interpret our results as three genetic clusters.

**Dispersal across the St. Lawrence River.** We found 9 (2.7%) lynx (7 adult males, 2 adult females) north of the St. Lawrence River that clustered with lynx south of the river. Likewise, we found 9 (5.4%) lynx (5 adult males, 3 adult females) south of the river that clustered with lynx north of the river: one of these (male of unknown age) was sampled in New Brunswick. We found 1 (6.7%) lynx (adult of unknown sex) in Labrador that clustered with lynx south of the St. Lawrence River (Fig. 4). All of these individuals were likely first generation dispersers ( $0.1 > Q > 0.90$ ). We identified the same 19 individuals with both program Structure and PCA. We identified 4 admixed lynx (sharing DNA between north and south clusters): 2 (adult males) were

found north of the river and 2 were found south of the river in Quebec (adult male) and New Brunswick (female of unknown age) (Fig. 4).

**Dispersal across the Strait of Belle Isle.** We found 4 (13.8%) lynx (1 adult male, 2 adult females, 1 adult of unknown sex) in Newfoundland that clustered with lynx from Labrador and Quebec (north of river). We also found 1 (0.6%) lynx (adult female) south of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec that was assigned to the Newfoundland cluster (Fig. 4). We estimated that this individual was a first-generation disperser ( $Q = 0.996$ ), and although we do not know its travel route, the lynx likely crossed both the Strait of Belle Isle and the St. Lawrence River. We identified the same 5 individuals as dispersers with both program Structure and PCA. We found one lynx (female of unknown age) north of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec that was admixed, sharing DNA from the north cluster and Newfoundland (Fig. 4).

#### **Ice cover on the St. Lawrence River and Strait of Belle Isle**

Between 2004 and 2011, there was an ice bridge across the St. Lawrence River east of Quebec City every year (Table 4). The number of weeks that an ice bridge was present varied across years, and those weeks were not necessarily consecutive. When an ice bridge was present across the St. Lawrence River, it tended to be composed of relatively thin grey (10 - 15 cm thick) or grey-white (15 – 30 cm thick) ice. There was also an ice bridge across the Strait of Belle Isle every year: it tended to form later in the winter, but was present for longer (Table 4). The ice bridge tended to be composed of thin (30 – 70 cm thick), medium (70 – 120 cm thick), and thick (>120 cm thick) first year ice.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The St. Lawrence River appeared to pose an impediment to lynx dispersal and gene flow: we found genetic clustering on either side of the river, as demonstrated by Bayesian clustering, PCA, AMOVA, and pairwise differentiation metrics, supporting the Riverine Barrier Hypothesis. We found only 4 admixed animals, further corroborating that the river restricts lynx gene flow. The St. Lawrence River and Strait of Belle Isle are not absolute barriers, however – we found 24 adult lynx that crossed these waterways. A prediction of the Riverine Barrier Hypothesis is that wider segments of the river near the mouth represent a stronger barrier than narrower segments near the headwater. Although we do not know where along the bank lynx crossed the St. Lawrence River, our results lend some support for this prediction: 13 of the 19 first generation river-crossers were sampled closer to the headwater than the mouth of the river (Fig. 4). The admixed lynx that we sampled must have been the offspring of a river-crossing disperser and an individual that did not cross the river, suggesting that river crossing by lynx has occurred over several generations.

We found greater genetic structure between Newfoundland and Labrador than between the north and south of the St. Lawrence River, implying that the Strait of Belle Isle restricts lynx gene flow more so than the St. Lawrence River does. Previous research has shown that lynx across Canada have relatively low genetic structure owing to high gene flow and the ability of lynx to disperse long distances (Schwartz et al. 2002; Campbell and Strobeck 2006; Row et al. 2012). Our findings add to our understanding of the population structure of this putatively vagile and panmictic species. A comparison of  $F_{ST}$  values suggests that the St. Lawrence River ( $F_{ST} = 0.053$ ) and the Strait of Belle Isle ( $F_{ST} = 0.179$ ) pose a greater impediment to lynx dispersal than does the Rocky Mountains in western Canada ( $F_{ST} \approx 0.016$ ; Rueness et al.

2003). Likewise, the  $F_{ST}$  that we observed in lynx on either side of the St. Lawrence River was an order of magnitude higher than that observed across the entire continent ( $F_{ST} = 0.007$  Alaska to Quebec, Row et al. 2012). The striking genetic structure in this otherwise vagile species underlines the importance of waterways in shaping the past and future genetic composition of the lynx.

We do not know whether the lynx in our study walked across the ice in winter or swam across during ice-free seasons. Lynx can swim across rivers: Feierabend and Kielland (2014) observed 2 lynx repeatedly crossing an unfrozen, 100 - 300 m-wide glacial river in air temperatures of  $-27^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The width of the St. Lawrence River ranges from  $<1$  km west of Montreal to  $>42$  km at the river's mouth. It is possible that lynx swim across the narrower sections of the St. Lawrence River, but it seems less likely that lynx would swim across the 15 – 60 km wide Strait of Belle Isle. Our main objective in assessing ice cover, however, was not to determine whether lynx walked or swam across the waterways, but simply to evaluate whether walking was typically possible. The extent of ice cover on the St. Lawrence River was variable within and between years and a channel through much of the river is kept open with icebreakers. Coyotes (*Canis latrans*, Say, 1823) and red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*, L., 1758) will readily cross river ice once shipping lanes have refrozen (Fuller and Robinson 1982a), and it is also possible that lynx walked across river ice on the St. Lawrence despite the periodically open channel. The thickness and extent of ice cover on the Strait of Belle Isle tended to be greater than that of the St. Lawrence River, thus it is possible that lynx walked across the 15 – 60 km of sea ice; lynx have been shown to cross up to 50 km of sea ice in the Arctic (Gaston et al. 2012).

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303           The timing of juvenile lynx dispersal can be variable: Poole (1997) found that lynx kittens  
304   generally dispersed between March and November. In addition to juvenile dispersal, adult lynx  
305   make long-distance exploratory movements at various times of the year (Squires and Laurion  
306   2000; Squires and Oakleaf 2005; Moen et al. 2010). Lynx are obligate predators of the  
307   snowshoe hare (*Lepus americanus*, Erxleben, 1777) and are known to exhibit a 10-year cyclic  
308   fluctuation with hares (Elton and Nicholson 1942). Several studies have found dispersal rates of  
309   adult lynx to be highest following hare population declines (Ward and Krebs 1985; Slough and  
310   Mowat 1996; Poole 1997). In nearby central Ontario, hare population abundance peaked in  
311   2007 and reached a low in 2013 (Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources, unpublished data). The  
312   adult lynx that crossed the river did so before our sampling occurred (beginning in 2008), and  
313   might have been moving in response to the concomitant decline in hare populations. This  
314   speculation could explain our finding of few admixed individuals - the influx of first generation  
315   dispersers was recent (in response to the recent hare decline).

316           Narrower segments of the St. Lawrence River in southern Ontario are permeable to  
317   movement by other mid-sized carnivores. Carr et al. (2007) showed that the St. Lawrence River  
318   has not impeded fisher (*Pekania (Martes) pennanti*, Erxleben, 1777) range expansion from the  
319   Adirondack region of New York, USA, into eastern Ontario, Canada. Likewise, Cullingham et al.  
320   (2009) showed that the St. Lawrence River has allowed gene flow of raccoons (*Procyon lotor*,  
321   (L., 1758), and thus did not stop the spread of the raccoon rabies virus from New York into  
322   southeastern Ontario, Canada. The Strait of Belle Isle appears to be less permeable to  
323   terrestrial mammalian dispersers. It is thought that black bears (*Ursus americanus hamiltoni*,  
324   Cameron, 1957; Paetkau and Strobeck 1996; Marshall et al. 2011) colonized Newfoundland

from Labrador across the Strait of Belle Isle, but such migration events by bears are rare (Paetkau and Strobeck 1996). Recent occurrences of wolves (*Canis lupus*, L., 1758) on Newfoundland are thought to be migrants from Labrador (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador 2012), and recent outbreaks of rabies on the island of Newfoundland suggest immigration of arctic (*Alopex lagopus*, L., 1758) or red (*V. vulpes*) fox from Labrador or Quebec (Nadin-Davis et al. 2008). Lynx in Newfoundland are morphologically (Saunders 1964; van Zyll de Jong 1975; Khidas et al. 2013) and genetically (Row et al. 2012) distinct from mainland lynx populations. We found that lynx cross the Strait of Belle Isle from mainland (Labrador and/or Quebec) to Newfoundland and vice versa – this is one of few contemporary examples of mid-sized carnivores crossing the Strait of Belle Isle.

Peripheral populations of lynx are already vulnerable because less suitable environmental conditions tend to be correlated with low gene flow and low genetic diversity (Koen et al. 2014a). Similarly, we found that lynx south of the St. Lawrence River and on the island of Newfoundland have relatively low neutral allelic richness. If there is a correlation between neutral and adaptive genetic variation, our results could indicate that these peripheral lynx populations are less likely to adapt to changing environmental conditions.

It is expected that climate change will further limit the distribution of lynx in eastern North America (Carroll 2007). Climate change is also expected to cause a northward shift in bobcat (*L. rufus*, Schreber, 1777) distribution (Anderson and Lovallo 2003; Roberts and Crimmins 2010), increasing the area of sympatry of lynx and bobcat. This interspecies range overlap will threaten lynx population persistence at their southern range extent through competition (Peers et al. 2013) and hybridization (Schwartz et al. 2004; Homyack et al. 2008;



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Koen et al. 2014*b*). If the St. Lawrence River impedes bobcat gene flow as it does lynx, it is possible that the river might protect the core of lynx range north of the river by limiting northward range expansion of bobcats from south of the river. It is unclear whether climate warming will reduce the likelihood of ice bridges forming across the river because ice formation in the Gulf of the St. Lawrence is a function of not just temperature, but also wind, water current, tidal flow, and the NAO (Johnston et al 2005; Fisheries and Oceans Canada 2012). Between 1969 and 2002, however, there was a 20 - 40% reduction in sea ice cover during the spring thaw in the Gulf of the St. Lawrence (Johnston et al. 2005).

The St. Lawrence River and the Strait of Belle Isle have important roles in shaping the future distribution of lynx in eastern North America. Lynx populations south of the St. Lawrence River - in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and the northeastern United States - are already classified as threatened or provincially endangered. It is thought that peripheral populations of lynx are maintained by immigration of lynx from the core of the range (Schwartz et al. 2002). We showed that the St. Lawrence River and the Strait of Belle Isle act as impediments to gene flow, isolating these populations from the range core. Thus, rescue of these isolated populations by dispersers is less likely than previously thought. If individual lynx are crossing the St. Lawrence River and the Strait of Belle Isle in the winter by walking across the ice, climate warming could reduce the duration and extent of ice bridges across the waterways, further isolating these peripheral lynx populations.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

368 We thank D McAlpine, J-M DeVink, North American Fur Auction, and Fur Harvesters Auction  
369 Inc. for facilitating sample collection. We thank M Kerr, J Paul, S Simpkins, M Prentice, K Smith, J  
370 Roeder, and lab personnel for lab work. We thank volunteers for help collecting samples, JR  
371 Row and C Gomez for help scoring microsatellite data, and EH Ellington and DL Murray for  
372 discussions. T Sallaway helped us to acquire shapefiles of the St. Lawrence River. Funding was  
373 provided by NSERC (Discovery Grants and Strategic Projects Grants to JB, PJW, and DL Murray),  
374 a Canada Research Chair to PJW, and Wildlife Research and Monitoring Section of the Ontario  
375 Ministry of Natural Resources and Forestry.

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640 Table 1. Summary statistics for 14 microsatellite loci used to genotype Canada lynx (*Lynx*  
 641 *canadensis*) from Quebec ( $n = 496$ ), New Brunswick ( $n = 15$ ), Labrador ( $n = 18$ ), and  
 642 Newfoundland ( $n = 29$ ).

Locus ID <sup>a</sup>	No. alleles	H <sub>o</sub>	H <sub>e</sub>
Fca31	8	0.689	0.740
Fca35	21	0.760	0.873
Fca391	7	0.705	0.741
Fca43	6	0.620	0.632
Fca441	7	0.720	0.771
Fca559	18	0.826	0.874
Fca77	7	0.667	0.723
Fca90	6	0.428	0.482
FCA96	9	0.743	0.801
Lc106	8	0.640	0.710
Lc109	8	0.720	0.826
Lc110	9	0.740	0.812
Lc111	8	0.689	0.724
Lc118	8	0.725	0.735

643 <sup>a</sup> Locus names beginning with Lc were developed from *Lynx canadensis* (Carmichael et al. 2000)  
 644 and locus names beginning with Fca were developed from *Felis catus* (Menotti-Raymond et al.  
 645 1999).



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Table 2. Allelic richness<sup>a</sup> and private allelic richness<sup>b</sup> of 558 Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) grouped by sample location<sup>c</sup> and corrected for a sample size of 15 using rarefaction, and inbreeding coefficient estimates ( $F_{IS}$ )<sup>d</sup>.

	Allelic richness	Private allelic richness	$F_{IS}$		
			Estimate	95% CI (lower)	95% CI (upper)
QC north	5.19	0.40	0.021	0.005	0.037
QC south	4.33	0.13	0.051	0.022	0.079
NB	4.32	0.20	-0.016	-0.134	0.084
LAB	5.47	0.56	-0.027	-0.102	0.044
NFLD	3.35	0.27	0.127	0.033	0.222

<sup>a</sup> Average number of alleles per locus

<sup>b</sup> Average number of alleles per locus that are unique to a site

<sup>c</sup> We grouped lynx by harvest location: north of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec (QC north;  $n = 331$ ), south of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec (QC south;  $n = 165$ ), New Brunswick (NB;  $n = 15$ ), Labrador mainland (LAB;  $n = 18$ ), and Newfoundland (NFLD;  $n = 29$ ).

<sup>d</sup>  $F_{IS}$  and 95% confidence limits (999 bootstraps) estimated with the R package diversity (Keenan et al. 2013)

Table 3. Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  (Weir and Cockerham 1994; lower) and  $D_{est}$  (Jost 2008; upper), with 95% confidence intervals in brackets, of 558 Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) samples in Canada, grouped by sample location<sup>a</sup>.

	QC north	QC south	NB	LAB	NFLD
QC		0.109	0.100	0.020	0.177
north		(0.093-0.126)	(0.068-0.156)	(0-0.062)	(0.130-0.218)
QC	0.053		0.016	0.105	0.196
south	(0.045-0.060)		(0-0.052)	(0.057-0.160)	(0.145-0.242)
NB	0.045	0.006		0.101	0.193
	(0.028-0.068)	(0-0.029)		(0.044-0.169)	(0.130-0.263)
LAB	0.005	0.049	0.046		0.177
	(0-0.022)	(0.028-0.074)	(0.014-0.082)		(0.102-0.256)
NFLD	0.154	0.220	0.239	0.179	
	(0.121-0.181)	(0.186-0.248)	(0.188-0.289)	(0.125-0.230)	

<sup>a</sup> We grouped lynx by harvest location: north of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec (QC north;  $n = 331$ ), south of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec (QC south;  $n = 165$ ), New Brunswick (NB;  $n = 15$ ), Labrador mainland (LAB;  $n = 18$ ), and Newfoundland (NFLD;  $n = 29$ ).

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Table 4. Presence of an ice bridge<sup>a</sup> across the St. Lawrence River east of Quebec City, Quebec<sup>b</sup> or across the Strait of Belle Isle between Newfoundland and mainland Canada.

Season <sup>c</sup>	St. Lawrence River			Strait of Belle Isle		
	No. weeks <sup>d</sup>	Date of first bridge	Date of last bridge	No. weeks <sup>d</sup>	Date of first bridge	Date of last bridge
2004	6	12/01/2004	01/03/2004	10	10/02/2004	26/04/2004
2005	8	13/12/2004	14/03/2005	10	17/01/2005	28/03/2005
2006	3	26/12/2005	20/02/2006	10	23/01/2006	03/04/2006
2007	3	12/02/2007	19/03/2007	15	29/01/2007	08/05/2007
2008	10	17/12/2007	24/03/2008	12	14/01/2008	28/04/2008
2009	8	22/12/2008	09/03/2009	13	19/01/2009	20/04/2009
2010	5	21/12/2009	01/02/2010	3	8/02/2010	26/04/2010
2011	8	27/12/2010	14/03/2011	3	21/02/2011	28/03/2011

<sup>a</sup> We defined an ice bridge as ice (concentration  $\geq 9$  and thickness  $> 10$  cm) connecting both banks of the waterway

<sup>b</sup> Data are from weekly ice charts obtained from the Canadian Ice Service Archive (Meteorological Service of Canada, Environment Canada)

<sup>c</sup> We defined a season as 1 Dec – 15 May (24 weeks). For example, 2004 corresponds to 1 Dec 2003 – 15 May 2004

<sup>d</sup> The number of weeks (not necessarily consecutive) during the season that there was an ice bridge

Figure 1. Location of 558 Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) samples, with circle radius representing the number of samples collected within each harvest unit (Unités de Gestion des Animaux à Fourrure in Quebec) or province. “QC north” indicates the region of Quebec that is north of the St. Lawrence River, and “QC south” indicates the region of Quebec that is south of the St. Lawrence River. “M” and “QC” represent the location of Montreal and Quebec City, respectively, on the St. Lawrence River. “A” represents St. Anthony on the Strait of Belle Isle. The inset map indicates the study area and current distribution of Canada lynx in North America (grey), reproduced with permission (IUCN 2013). NFLD = Newfoundland, NS = Nova Scotia, NB = New Brunswick, ME = Maine, NH = New Hampshire, VT = Vermont, NY = New York.

Figure 2. Plot of principal component axes 1 and 2, showing genetic clustering of 558 Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) found north (QC north) and south (QC south) of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec, New Brunswick, Labrador, and Newfoundland, Canada. Symbols represent sample locations.

Figure 3. Structure plot (Pritchard et al. 2000), representing the proportion of an individual's genome assigned to one of three populations, based on 10 replicates. Individual lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) are grouped based on sample site (QC north = north of the St. Lawrence River in Quebec, QC south = south of the river, NB = New Brunswick, LAB = Labrador, and NFL = Newfoundland), and shading represents cluster assignment.

Figure 4. Locations of 558 Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) samples representing three genetic clusters: north of the St. Lawrence River (dark grey: Quebec and Labrador), south of the St. Lawrence River (light grey: Quebec and New Brunswick), and Newfoundland (black diamonds), with admixed individuals ( $0.3 \leq Q \leq 0.7$ ) represented by X. We randomly located samples within the respective harvest management units or near the centroid of Newfoundland and Labrador for presentation.









