

## 1 **Electronic Supplementary Material**

### 2 **Supplemental Methods**

3 ***Categorization of study subjects.*** Social group affiliation was determined from direct  
4 observation of the study subjects and monthly censuses. We also confirmed social  
5 group affiliation by applying a community detection algorithm to raw social contact data  
6 [1]. For habituated individuals, sex was known from direct observation during annual  
7 captures. We assigned individuals to the following age classes: juveniles (1-2 years),  
8 subadults (3-4 years), adults ( $\geq 5$  years); infants ( $< 1$  year) were not included in the  
9 study. Sifaka exhibit formalized submissive signals, “chatter” vocalizations [2], which  
10 were used to assign intrasexual dominance rank among adult individuals in multi-male  
11 and/or multi-female groups. Among males in multi-male groups, one adult assumes the  
12 dominant position and is identifiable by a greasy, stained patch around his sternal scent  
13 gland [3]. In one-male groups, the resident male also exhibits this sternal staining. We  
14 used presence or absence of chest staining during censuses and captures to confirm  
15 relative male dominance (*i.e.*, dominant or subordinate, respectively) in multi-male  
16 groups. We determined group transfers using monthly census data.

17 ***Genetic sample collection and analyses.*** Ear tissue biopsies were collected from 72  
18 individuals from five social groups between 2007 and 2012. Animals were captured  
19 using a blowpipe or CO<sub>2</sub> powered rifle to deliver 3/8 inch darts loaded with Telazol™ at  
20 a dosage of 25 mg per kg following the protocol of Lewis (2009) [4]. Tissue biopsies  
21 were stored in 70-90% ethanol for DNA preservation and kept at ambient temperature  
22 until their arrival at The University of Texas at Austin. Detailed information on DNA  
23 extraction, genotyping, and parentage protocols is provided in [5] and [6]. Briefly, each  
24 individual was genotyped for 14 variable microsatellite loci known to be variable in other  
25 populations of sifaka [7,8]. We used KINGROUP2 [9] to estimate the likelihood of  
26 pedigree relationships (cousin, half-sibling, full-sibling, and parent-offspring) among  
27 dyads. KINGROUP2 calculates the maximum likelihood ratios between a hypothesized  
28 pedigree relationship and a null hypothesis of no relationship. We considered particular  
29 dyads to be ‘related’ when likelihood ratios were significant ( $P < 0.05$  based on 100,000  
30 permutations) for any of the four primary hypotheses of first-order relatives versus the  
31 null hypothesis of ‘unrelated.’ All other dyads were considered to be unrelated. Based  
32 on these results, we constructed a 1-0 matrix of pairwise relatedness among 35  
33 individuals, in which dyads were scored as either ‘related’ or ‘unrelated.’ Additionally,  
34 maternity and paternity were assessed for 32 offspring born in five social groups  
35 between 2007 and 2012 [5] using the maximum likelihood method implemented in  
36 CERVUS 3.0 [10]. We used these parentage results, in combination with highly  
37 significant relationships ( $P < 0.001$ ) obtained using KINGROUP2, to construct a more  
38 finely-resolved relatedness matrix in which dyads were scored by their pedigree  
39 relationship (0.5, 0.25, 0.125, or 0).

40 ***Microbial diversity and composition among social groups.*** All statistical analyses  
41 were conducted using the statistical computing software R version 3.2.4 [11]. Figures  
42 were created using the *ggplot2* and *cowplot* packages [12,13].

43 **Gut microbial richness:** To test for differences in within-sample richness, diversity,  
44 and evenness among individuals, we generated 100 OTU tables rarefied to 39,532  
45 reads (the smallest library size in the dataset) for each individual. After rarefaction,  
46 individual samples contained 651 to 3,599 unique OTUs ( $\bar{x} = 2,482 \pm 774$  s.d.  
47 phylotypes per sample). We calculated mean rarefied richness (number of observed  
48 OTUs), Chao1 species richness, and Shannon's diversity index for each host using the  
49 rarefied OTU tables. Kruskal-Wallis tests adjusted for multiple comparisons (Benjamini-  
50 Hochberg approach) (*agricolae* package) [14] were used to evaluate whether bacterial  
51 richness and evenness per individual differed across social groups.

52 **Microbiome sample clustering:** All multivariate and community analyses were  
53 conducted using the *vegan* and *phyloseq* packages [15,16]. We quantified among-  
54 individual variation in gut microbial community composition by calculating Bray-Curtis  
55 dissimilarities and weighted Unifrac distances between samples. Permutational  
56 multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) [17] was carried out to assess  
57 differences in composition according to social group affiliation, age, sex, and  
58 sex/dominance rank (999 permutations). Clustering of taxonomic profiles was  
59 performed via partitioning of data around medoids (PAM clustering) using the *cluster*  
60 and *fpc* packages [18]. We maximized the silhouette index to assess the optimal  
61 number of clusters and the quality of the resulting clusters.

62 **Differentially enriched microbial taxa:** To identify socially structured bacterial phyla,  
63 families, and genera, we assessed differential abundance among social groups using  
64 the nonparametric SAMseq approach (*samr* package) [19]. This method uses repeated  
65 permutations for assessment of the false discovery rate (FDR). We limited analyses to  
66 bacterial phyla that occurred at least 50 times, families that occurred at least 100 times,  
67 and classifiable genera that occurred at least 100 times in the dataset. SAMseq  
68 analyses were performed separately for each taxonomic level using 1,000 permutations  
69 and 100 re-samplings. Differential abundance was considered significant if the FDR-  
70 adjusted *P* value was  $< 0.05$ .

71 **Genetic relatedness and vertical inheritance.** Because individuals within the same  
72 social group tend to be related (Mantel,  $r = 0.66$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), we considered the  
73 confounding effect of kinship when testing for the effect of group membership on  
74 microbial communities. We used partial Mantel tests with 1,000 permutations, in which  
75 pairwise Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between samples was the dependent variable, group  
76 membership (scored as 0 for group members and 1 for individuals of different groups)  
77 or relatedness (scored as 0 for related and 1 for unrelated dyads) was the fixed effect,  
78 and relatedness or group membership respectively was a covariate. To evaluate vertical  
79 inheritance of gut microbial communities, we used a Kruskal-Wallis test (*coin* package)  
80 [20] with Monte Carlo sampling (10,000 permutations) to compare the mean pairwise  
81 Bray-Curtis dissimilarity among samples collected from related group members of the  
82 same maternal line (*i.e.*, mother-offspring, full sibling, and maternal half-sibling dyads),  
83 samples collected from related group members of different maternal lines (*i.e.*, father-  
84 offspring and paternal half-sibling dyads), and samples collected from unrelated group  
85 members. This analysis considered six maternal lines among Groups I-VI, respectively.

86 **Dietary differences within and among social groups.** To assess differences in diet  
87 among four social groups (II, III, IV, and V), we used direct observations of the plant  
88 parts consumed by 16 focal individuals during the six months preceding fecal sample  
89 collection (5 January 2012 to 19 June 2012; 365 focal hours). During these continuous  
90 focal animal follows lasting an average of six hours per day, all plant parts and plant  
91 species consumed, as well as the duration of feeding bouts, were recorded. Plant parts  
92 were divided into seven categories: (1) mature leaves, including those from *Diospyros*  
93 *latispatula*, *Bauhinia porosa*, *D. perrieri*, *Dalbergia greveana*, *Albizia androyensis*, *A.*  
94 *perrerii*, *Chadsia grevei*, *A. gummifera*, *Baudouinia fluggeiformis*, and *Colvillea*  
95 *racemosa*, (2) young leaves, including those from *A. androyensis*, *D. latispatula*, *A.*  
96 *perrerii*, *C. grevei*, *Chlorophytum falcatum*, *Terminalia fatrea*, and *Pourpartia* sp., (3)  
97 fruit, including those from *D. perrieri* and *Pourpartia sylvatica* (4) seeds, including those  
98 from *Diospyros* sp. and *Salacia madagascariensis* (5), bark from *Commiphora* sp., (6)  
99 stems, (7) flowers, including those from *A. androyensis*, *Noronhia alleizettei*, *Dalbergia*  
100 *clorocarpa*, and *Terminalia fatrea*. To quantify diet composition for each individual, we  
101 calculated the relative proportion of each plant part or plant species as the ratio of time  
102 spent feeding on that particular plant part or plant species to the total time spent feeding  
103 across all focal observations. We used Kruskal-Wallis tests with Monte Carlo  
104 resampling (10,000 permutations) to determine differences among social groups for the  
105 proportions of plant parts and plant species consumed. To assess whether microbiomes  
106 clustered according to diet, we computed pairwise Bray-Curtis dietary distances based  
107 on the relative proportion of time each animal was observed consuming plant species or  
108 plant parts. We used Mantel tests (1,000 permutations) to assess whether dietary  
109 profiles predicted microbial similarity among individuals.

110 **Social interactions and gut microbiome composition.** Social networks use *nodes* to  
111 represent individuals, or groups of individuals, and *edges* to connect nodes based on  
112 empirical proximity, social interactions, or shared space. To test whether physical  
113 contact predicts similarity in gut microbiome composition for sifaka, we constructed a  
114 social network based on socio-affiliative interactions observed during the year preceding  
115 and including fecal sample collection (5 September 2011 to 28 July 2012; 6,972 total  
116 interactions). Behavioral data were collected for four social groups (II, III, IV, V) on a  
117 rotating schedule such that each social group was generally observed for three  
118 consecutive days twice per month. All occurrences of non-aggressive body contacts,  
119 proximity within 1m, and allogrooming were collected on 22 adult and subadult  
120 individuals during one-hour focal animal samples [21]. Observations of social behavior  
121 were recorded continuously, based upon a previously published ethogram for this  
122 species [22]. On average, each focal animal was followed for 38.8 ( $\pm$  15.1) h,  
123 comprising a total of 854.3 focal hours. Juveniles were not observed as focal  
124 individuals, but were included in our analysis if they were observed interacting with adult  
125 or subadult focal individuals. Thus, the socio-affiliative behavior-based network  
126 comprised 33 individuals total. In addition to the continuous recording of focal animal  
127 behavior, the location and distance to the focal animal of all group members (including  
128 juveniles) were recorded every 10 min via scan sampling [21].

129 We calculated grooming indices using the proportion of time two individuals spent  
130 grooming each other, while controlling for the time individuals were observed as focal  
131 animals [23]. We defined the grooming index as:

$$Groom_{AB} = \frac{\sum(A + B)}{\sum A + \sum B} \quad (1)$$

132 wherein A is the time individual A was observed as a focal animal, B is the time  
133 individual B was observed as a focal animal, and A + B is the time A and B were  
134 observed grooming. Network edges were thus weighted according to grooming indices,  
135 such that pairs with higher indices had thicker edges. We used edge density (the ratio of  
136 the number of edges and the number of possible edges) to describe social connectivity  
137 within social groups. We used a Pearson correlation test to examine the influence of  
138 edge density on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities and weighted Unifrac distances among group  
139 members. To quantify the extent of community structure in the social network, we  
140 calculated network modularity (Q) using the edge betweenness community detection  
141 algorithm [1]. This algorithm partitions the network into “modules” that are densely  
142 connected themselves and sparsely connected to other modules. The modularity score  
143 Q ranges from zero for randomly connected networks to greater than 0.3 for networks  
144 with substantial community structure [1]. To measure how direct and indirect contacts  
145 potentially influence gut microbial composition, we calculated inverse weighted path  
146 lengths [24]:

$$E_{ij} = \min \sum_{i,j} \frac{1}{w_{ij}} \quad (2)$$

147 where  $E_{ij}$  is the smallest sum of the inverse weights of edges or ‘social distance’  
148 between each pair of individuals. By incorporating indirect contacts into our social  
149 network analysis, we were able to quantify social relationships between individuals that  
150 were not necessarily observed as focal individuals (*e.g.*, juveniles). To assess whether  
151 sociability affects bacterial species richness within individual microbiomes, we  
152 calculated each animal’s weighted degree centrality (*i.e.*, the sum of its edge weights) in  
153 the grooming network. We also calculated separate outward and inward weighted  
154 degree centralities corresponding to the duration of grooming initiated or received by  
155 each individual in the grooming network. We constructed social networks and calculated  
156 network statistics using the *igraph* package [25].

157 **Predictors of similarity in microbiome taxonomic composition:** We used mixed-  
158 effect regression models to fit the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and weighted Unifrac  
159 distance data to potential social and genetic predictors of pairwise similarity in  
160 microbiome composition. The variables included in model selection were group  
161 membership (‘same’ versus ‘different’), grooming network path length (*i.e.*, social  
162 distance) between individuals, and genetic relatedness (‘related’ versus ‘unrelated’). An  
163 individual could appear interchangeably as individual A or individual B in pairwise  
164 associations; thus, we controlled for autocorrelation by modeling the identities of  
165 animals in each pair as random effects. Model components were compared using

166 Deviance Information criterion (DIC). Lower values indicate a better fit of the model to  
167 the data, and a difference of 5 units is the customary threshold for distinguishing  
168 between models. We adopted a Bayesian approach using the *MCMCglmm* package  
169 [26] and fit our models via Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC). We ran two sets of  
170 models to explain Bray-Curtis dissimilarities and weighted Unifrac distances,  
171 respectively, for 167 pairs of sifaka among the four social groups (II, III, IV, V) for which  
172 behavioral data were available. For each model, the MCMC chain was run for 300,000  
173 iterations, with 25,000 iterations for burn in and a thinning interval of 15. We observed  
174 minimal autocorrelation between recorded iterations, and traces of the sampled output  
175 indicated that the models converged. Because Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and weighted  
176 Unifrac values are continuous proportions, we also fit mixed-effect Beta regression  
177 models to the microbial dissimilarity data using the *glmmADMB* package [26] and  
178 obtained results analogous to those from the *MCMCglmm* package.

179 To evaluate the potential confounding effect of spatial proximity, we constructed  
180 additional social networks based on proximities within 1m observed during the year  
181 (13,340 total interactions among 34 individuals) and six months (7,482 interactions  
182 among 29 individuals) prior to and including fecal sample collection. For each time  
183 period, we used a partial Mantel test (1,000 permutations) to assess whether the  
184 correlation between the grooming network and microbiome dissimilarity matrix was  
185 driven by spatial proximity (represented using a matrix of pairwise proximity path  
186 lengths). To assess whether close grooming partners consumed more similar diets, we  
187 computed Bray-Curtis dietary distances among individuals (N = 16) based on the  
188 relative proportions of time individuals were observed consuming plant species or plant  
189 parts. We then constructed a social network based on the grooming interactions  
190 observed among only these individuals. Partial Mantel tests (1,000 permutations)  
191 assessed whether the correlation between social distance and microbiome dissimilarity  
192 was driven by similarity in plant parts or plant species consumed. Pairwise Bray-Curtis  
193 dissimilarity between samples was the dependent variable, six-month grooming path  
194 length (the same time period as feeding data collection) between individuals was the  
195 fixed effect, and pairwise Bray-Curtis dietary distance was a covariate.

196 **Predictors of within-host microbial diversity:** We applied a mixed model approach to  
197 determine predictors of within-host bacterial species richness for 29 individuals. Poisson  
198 GLMMs were fit to the data via maximum likelihood (link="log", nAGQ = 100, *lme4*  
199 package) [27]. We considered bacterial species richness to be the mean number of  
200 unique OTUs for each host calculated from 100 OTU tables rarefied to 38,663 reads.  
201 Because sifaka social groups had inherently different levels of microbial richness (Fig.  
202 S3), social group affiliation was included as a random effect. Our fixed-effect variables  
203 included host sociability (*i.e.*, weighted degree centrality in the grooming network), age  
204 (adult, subadult, or juvenile), scent-marking rate (mean number of scent-marks per  
205 hour), and dietary diversity (Shannon's diversity index based on the proportion of time  
206 observed foraging on plant parts or plant species). We tested age and host sociability  
207 together in the first model. We then separately tested the influence of network centrality  
208 in only adult individuals to avoid the confounding effect of age. In the second model, we  
209 tested whether OTU richness was specifically associated with initiating or receiving

210 grooming by including outward weighted degree centrality or inward weighted degree  
211 centrality as covariates. Because we had scent-marking data for only 19 individuals,  
212 scent-marking rate was tested separately from the other covariates in a third model. In  
213 the fourth model, we tested whether dietary evenness of plant parts and plant species  
214 consumed influenced microbial richness among the 16 individuals for which dietary data  
215 were available.

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217 **Supplemental References**

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289 **Supplemental Figures**

290 **Figure S1.** Map indicating the location of Ankoatsifaka Research Station. Ankoatsifaka  
291 Research Station (20°47.69'S, 44°9.88'E) is located in a terrestrial section of Kirindy  
292 Mitea National Park, near the western coast of Madagascar.

293 **Figure S2.** Relative abundances of bacterial families among seven Verreaux's sifaka  
294 social groups inhabiting Kirindy Mitea National Park. The most prevalent families in the  
295 sifaka gut microbiome were Lachnospiraceae, Ruminococcaceae, Clostridiaceae,  
296 [Coprobacillaceae], Coriobacteriaceae, Streptococcaceae, Veillonellaceae, (Firmicutes),  
297 Enterobacteriaceae (Proteobacteria), Bacteroidaceae, Prevotellaceae, and  
298 [Paraprevotellaceae] (Bacteroidetes).

299 **Figure S3.** Mean phylotype observed richness, Chao1 species richness, and Shannon's  
300 diversity in seven Verreaux's sifaka social groups inhabiting Kirindy Mitea National Park.  
301 The three indices were calculated from 100 OTU tables rarefied to 39,532 reads for  
302 each sample. Differences among social groups were evaluated using Kruskal-Wallis  
303 tests adjusted for multiple comparisons (\*  $P < 0.05$ ).

304 **Figure S4.** Average silhouette width values for partitioning around medoids (PAM)  
305 clustering with different numbers of clusters (k). Two (clusters) was chosen as the  
306 optimal number. Analyses were based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities (left) and weighted  
307 Unifrac distances (right) among 47 Verreaux's sifaka microbiome samples collected in  
308 Kirindy Mitea National Park.

309 **Figure S5.** Principal coordinates plot of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities showing ecological  
310 distances among 47 Verreaux's sifaka samples. Males that transferred social groups  
311 during the year prior to sample collection (diamonds) are labeled with the direction of  
312 immigration.

313 **Figure S6.** Within social groups, resident sifaka did not share more bacterial phylotypes  
314 than pairs of recent immigrants and residents. The difference in microbial distance  
315 among resident pairs versus immigrant-resident pairs were evaluated using a  
316 permutational Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test.

317 **Figure S7.** Several bacteria genera, including microorganisms considered to be  
318 opportunistic pathogens, were differentially abundant across seven social groups of  
319 Verreaux's sifaka in Kirindy Mitea National Park (FDR-adjusted  $P < 0.05$ ).

320 **Figure S8.** Diet composition for the six months prior to fecal sample collection for 16  
321 Verreaux's sifaka across four social groups (II, III, IV, V) in Kirindy Mitea National Park.

322 **Figure S9.** Differences among four Verreaux's sifaka social groups in the proportion of  
323 foraging time spent consuming various plant parts (mature leaves, flowers, fruit, bark,  
324 seeds, larvae, stems, young leaves). Differences among groups were evaluated using  
325 permutational Kruskal-Wallis tests adjusted for multiple comparisons (\*  $P < 0.05$ ).

326 **Figure S10.** Differences among four Verreaux's sifaka social groups in the proportion of  
327 foraging time spent consuming the most common food tree species within Kirindy Mitea  
328 National Park. Differences among groups were evaluated using permutational Kruskal-  
329 Wallis tests adjusted for multiple comparisons (\*\*  $P < 0.01$ , \*  $P < 0.05$ ).

330 **Figure S11.** Inter-individual differences in dietary profiles among 16 Verreaux's sifaka in  
331 four social groups inhabiting Kirindy Mitea National Park. **A.** Principal coordinates plot of  
332 Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among sifaka plant part dietary profiles. Dietary profiles are  
333 based on the proportion of foraging time spent consuming various plant parts (mature  
334 leaves, flowers, fruit, bark, seeds, larvae, stems, young leaves). **B.** Principal coordinates  
335 plot of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among sifaka plant species dietary profiles. Dietary  
336 profiles are based on the proportion of foraging time spent consuming the most  
337 common food tree species within Kirindy Mitea National Park.

338 **Figure S12.** Although adjacent social groups shared more bacterial phylotypes than  
339 non-adjacent social groups, groups maintained distinct gut microbiota despite  
340 overlapping home ranges. Differences among groups were evaluated using  
341 permutational Kruskal-Wallis tests adjusted for multiple comparisons ( $*** P < 0.001$ ).

342 **Figure S13.** Social groups with higher edge densities have more homogeneous  
343 microbiome compositions. Within-social group edge density is the ratio of the number of  
344 edges and the number of possible edges. We used a Pearson correlation test to  
345 examine the influence of edge density on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities and weighted  
346 Unifrac distances among group members.

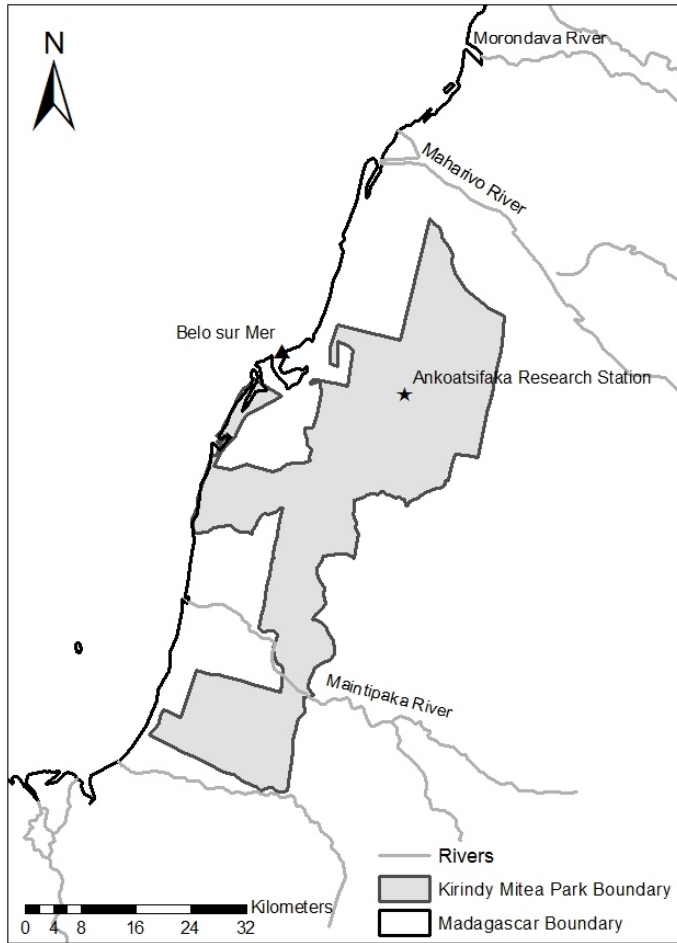
347 **Fig S14.** Vertical inheritance and genetic relatedness correlate with microbiome  
348 similarity between groups but not within groups. **A.** At the population level, related  
349 individuals have more similar microbial communities than unrelated individuals  
350 (permutational Kruskal-Wallis, FDR-adjusted  $P < 0.01$ ). **B.** Within social groups, related  
351 individuals of the same or different maternal line do not necessarily share more bacterial  
352 phylotypes than unrelated group members (permutational Kruskal-Wallis, FDR-adjusted  
353  $P > 0.05$ ). Analyses were based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among 35 Verreaux's  
354 sifaka microbiome samples collected in Kirindy Mitea National Park.

355 **Figure S15.** Scent-marking rate predicts within-host gut microbiome richness for  
356 Verreaux's sifaka ( $N = 19$  individuals) inhabiting Kirindy Mitea National Park. Although  
357 we differentiate individuals by sex and adult male chest status in the figure, we did not  
358 include chest status or sex as covariates in our predictive model of gut microbiome  
359 richness.

360 **Figure S16.** Map of Verreaux's sifaka social group home ranges during the study period  
361 (Groups I-VI). Group Camp is not included because it is an unmarked group for which  
362 we did not have demographic, census, or behavioral data.

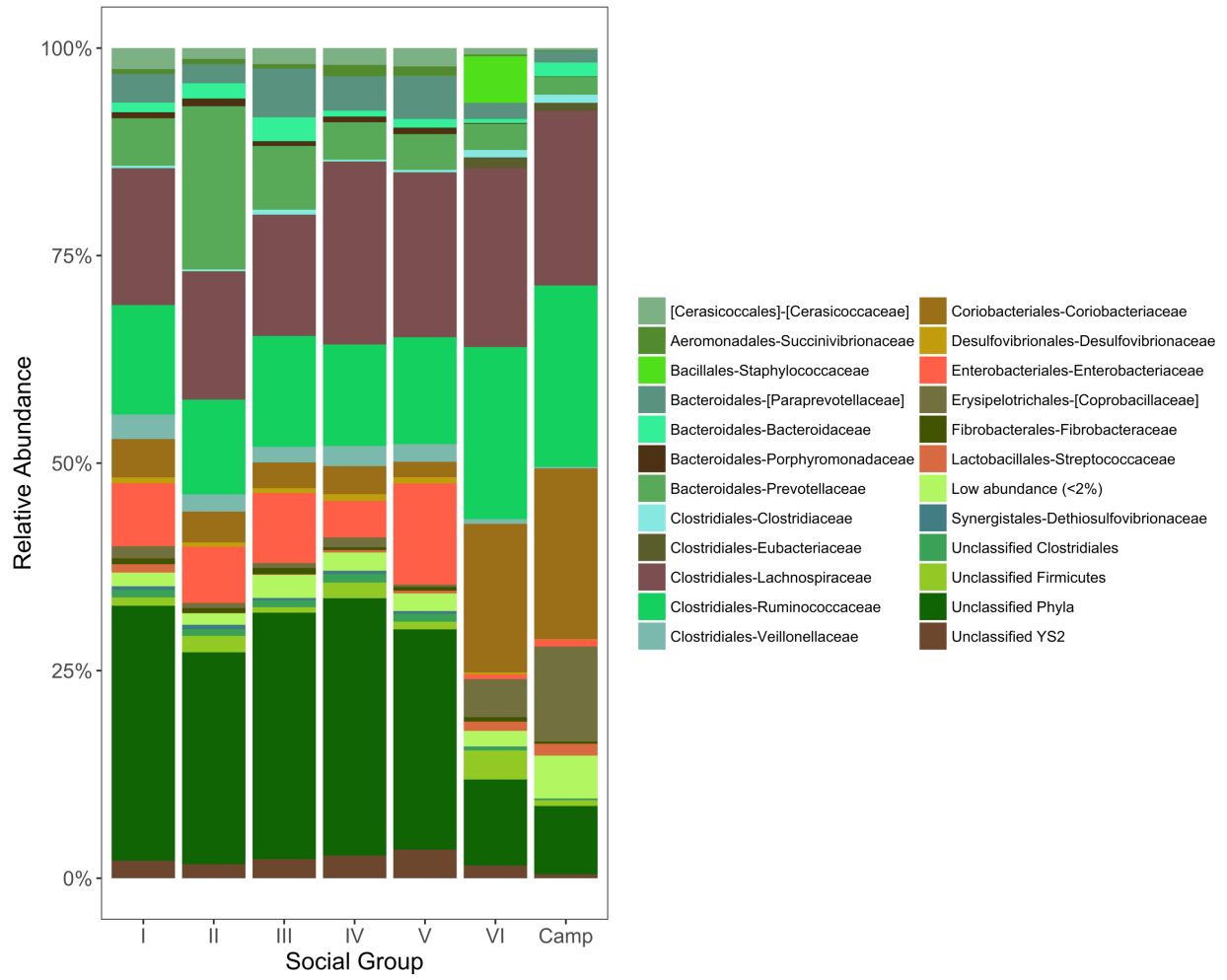
363

364 **Figure S1**



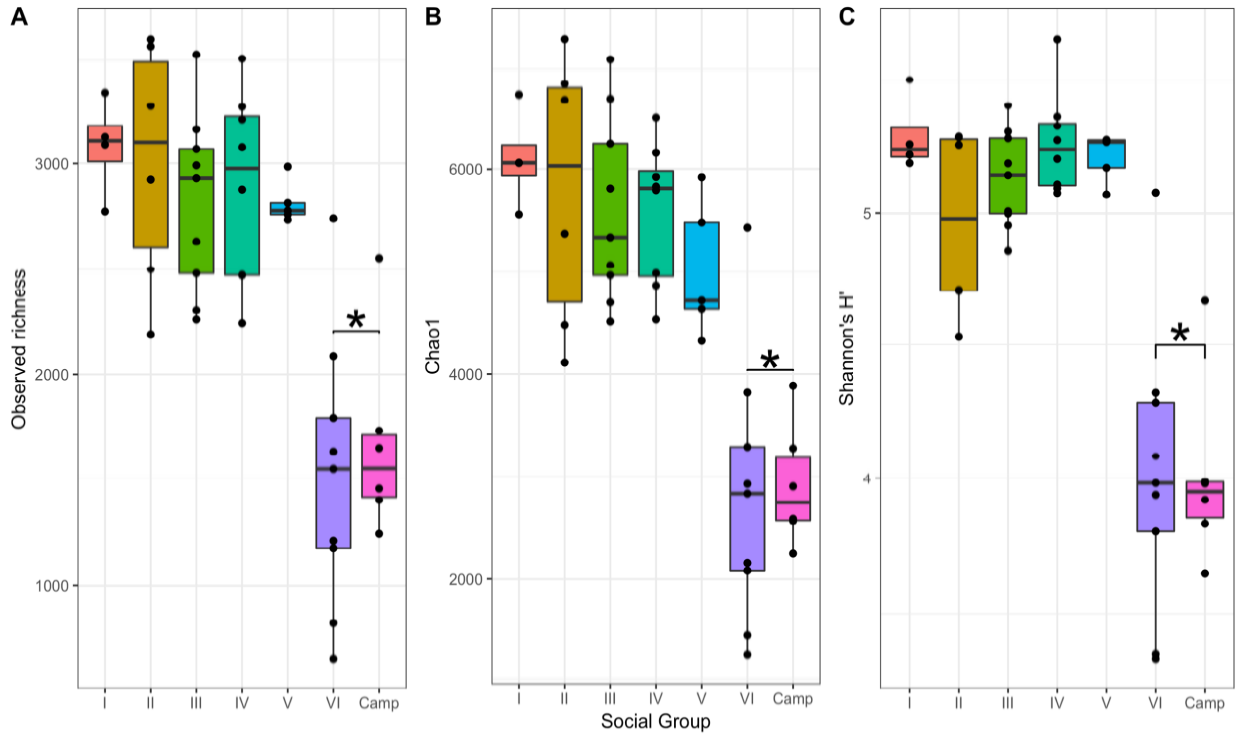
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366

367 **Figure S2**  
 368



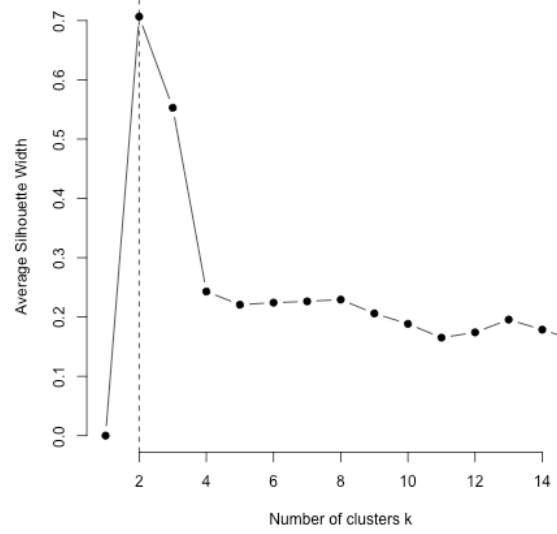
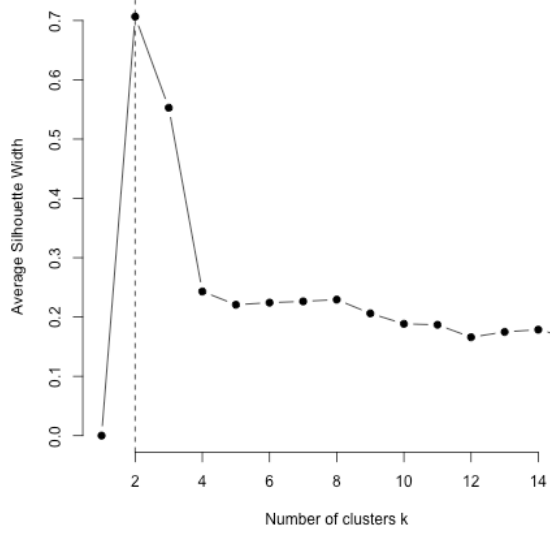
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370 **Figure S3**



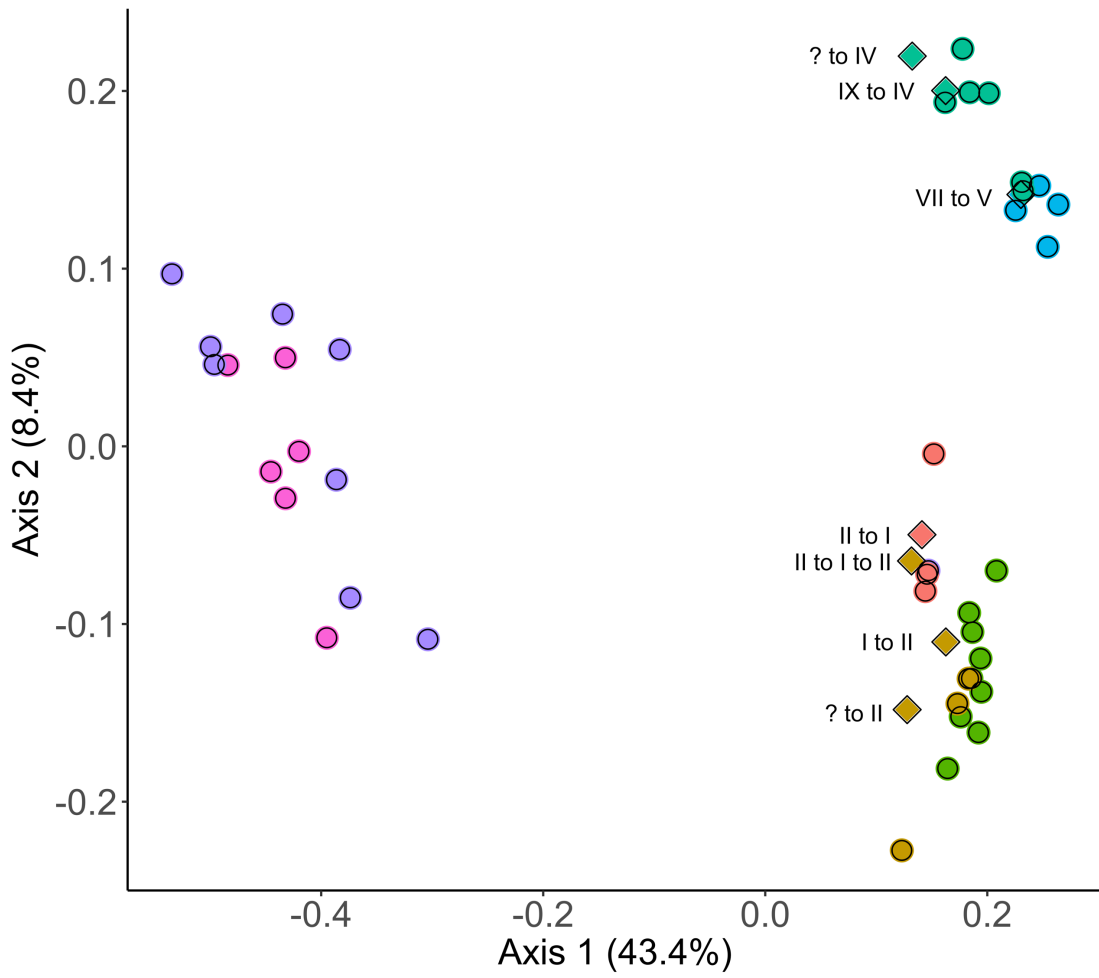
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374 **Figure S4**



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376

377 **Figure S5**  
378

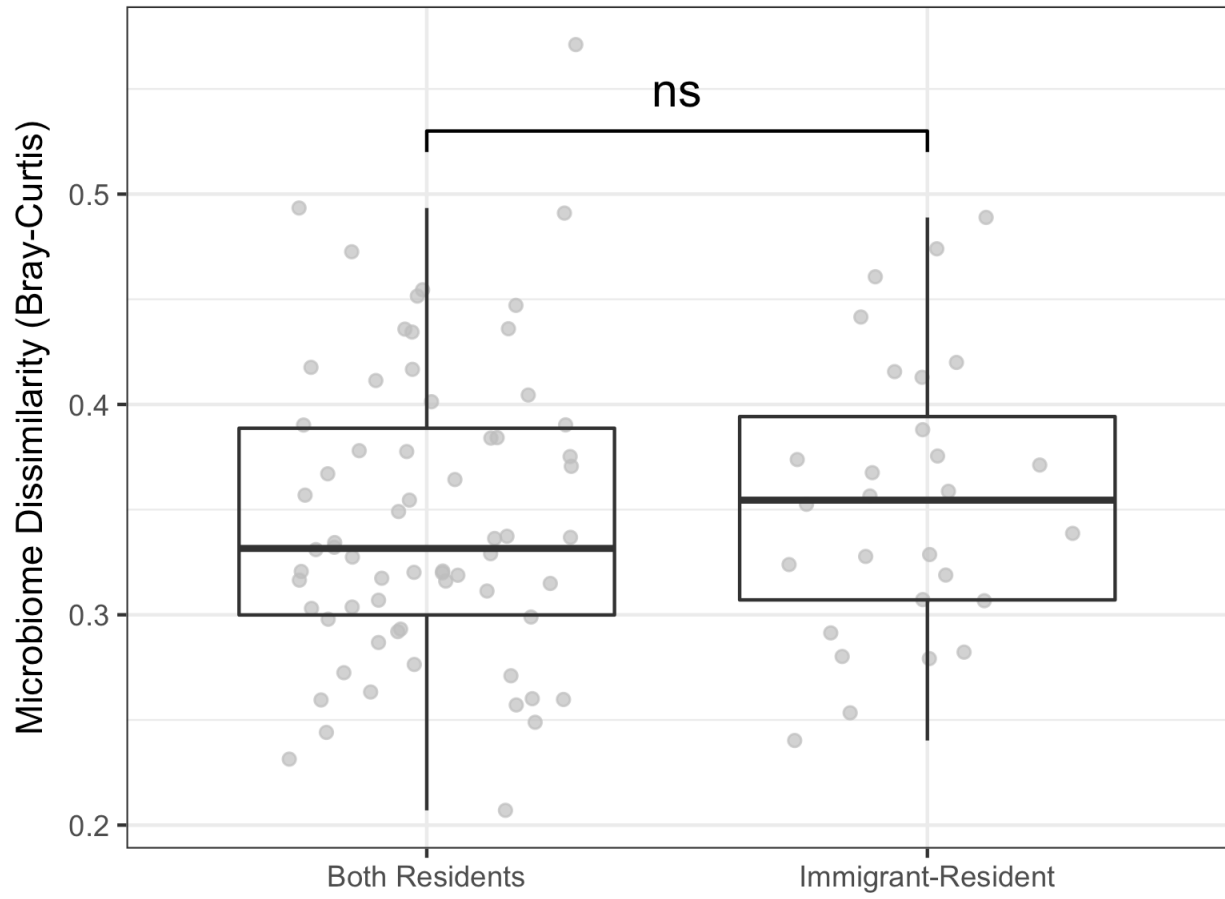


379

◆ Recently dispersed males ● Resident or unmarked individuals

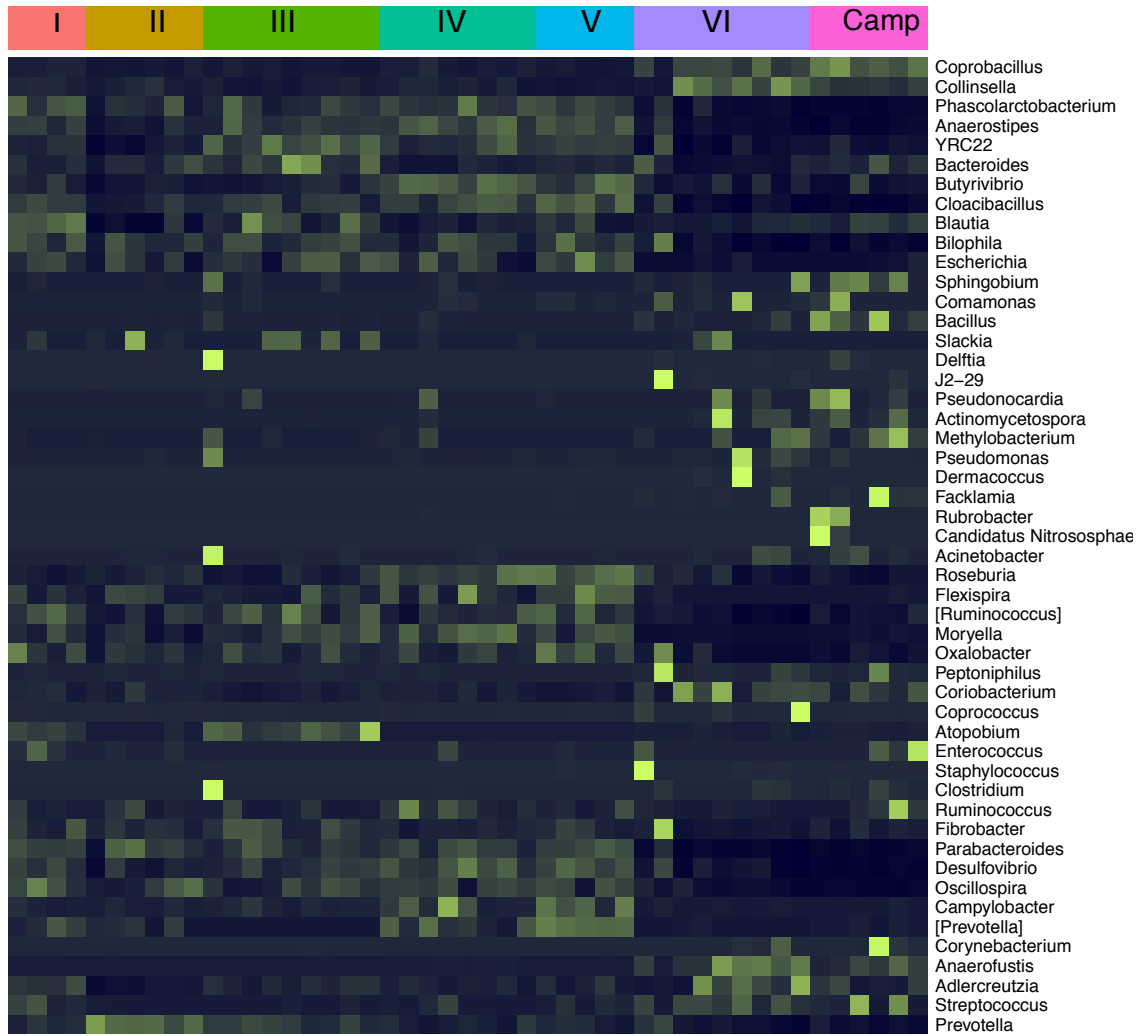
sic

380 **Figure S6**



381  
382

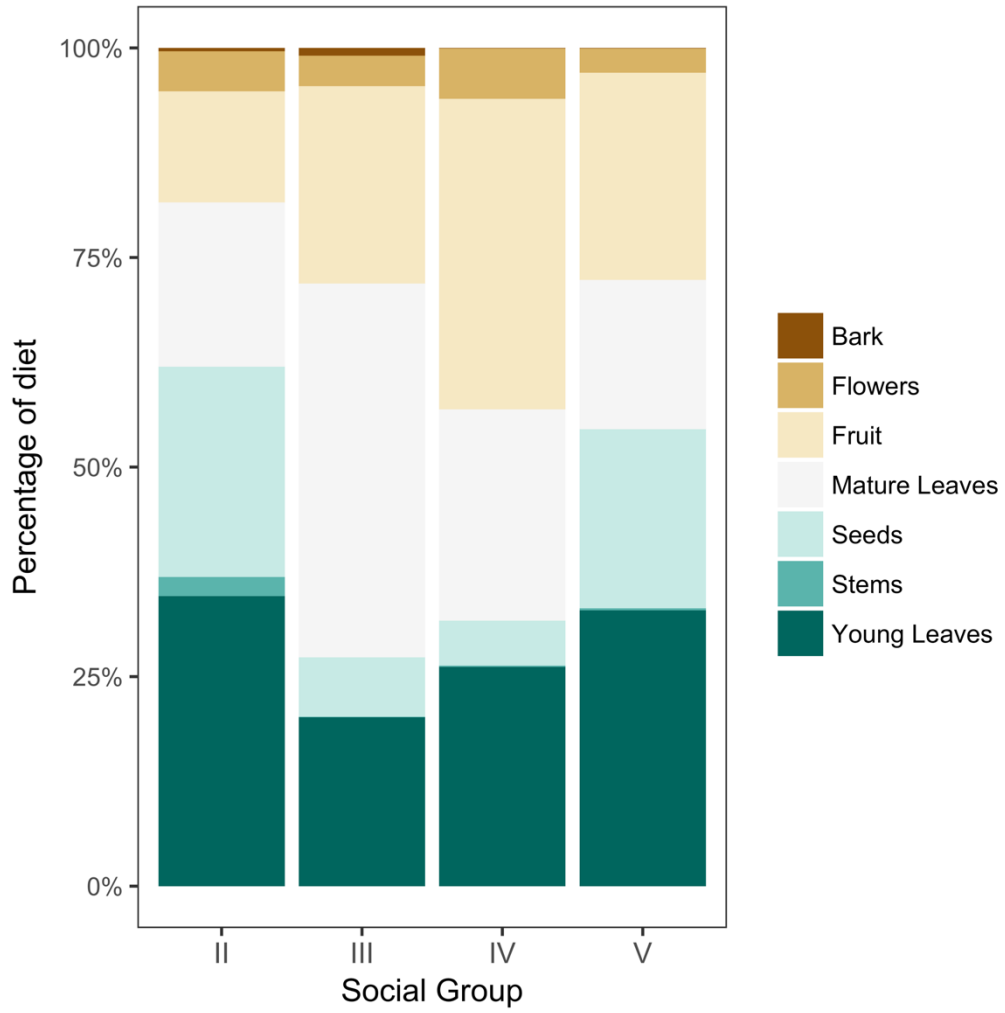




386

387

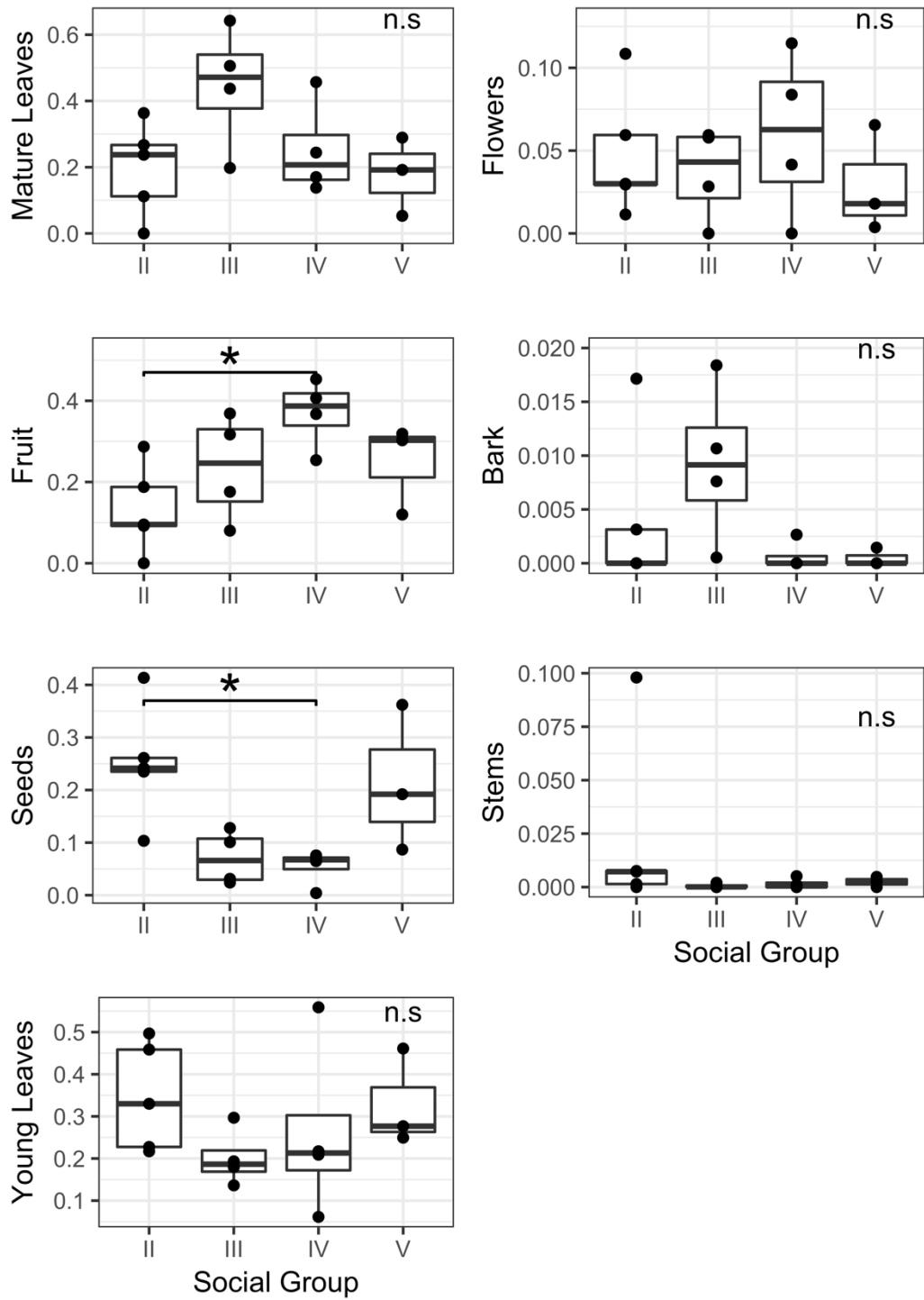
**Figure S8**



388

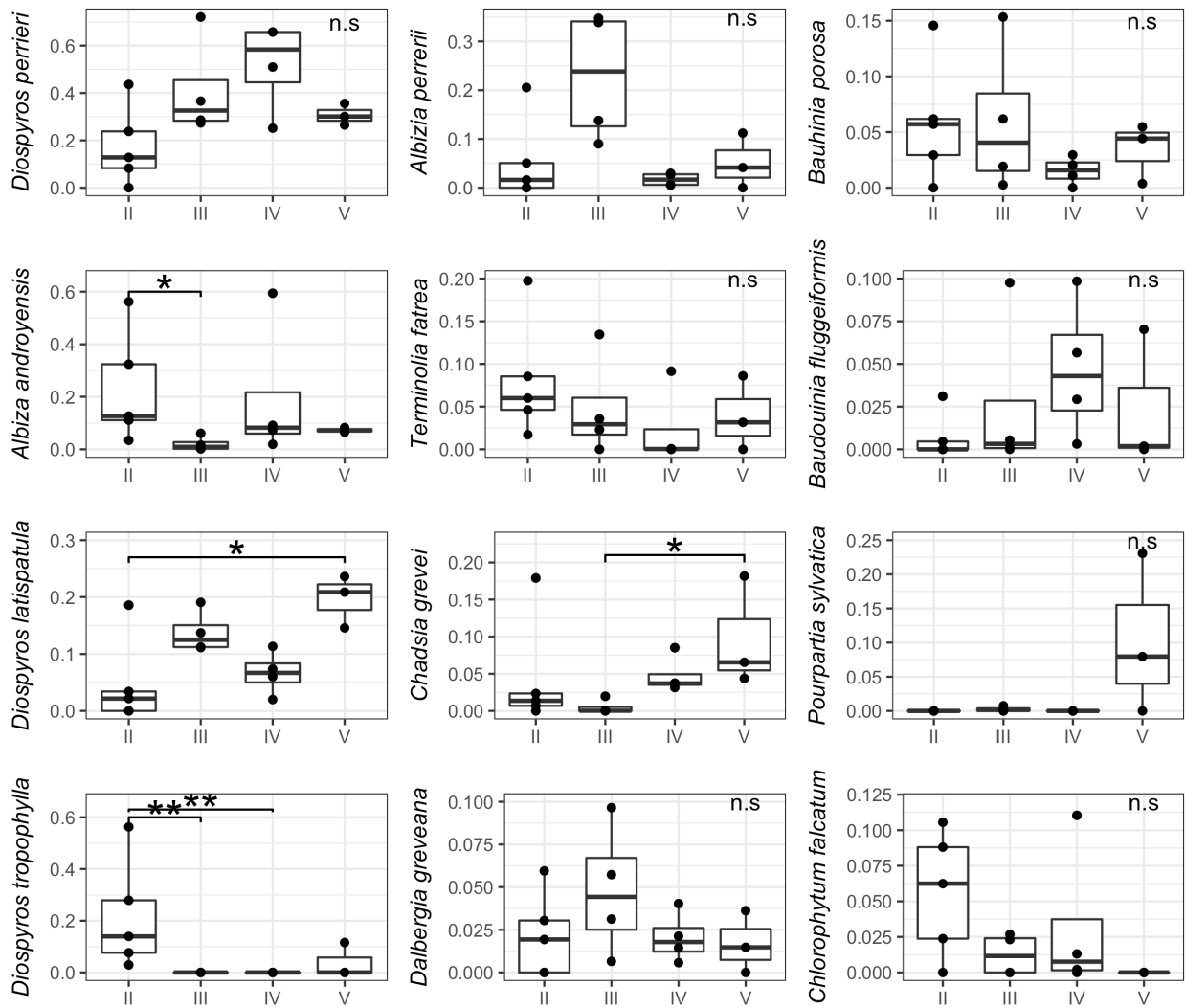
389

390 **Figure S9**



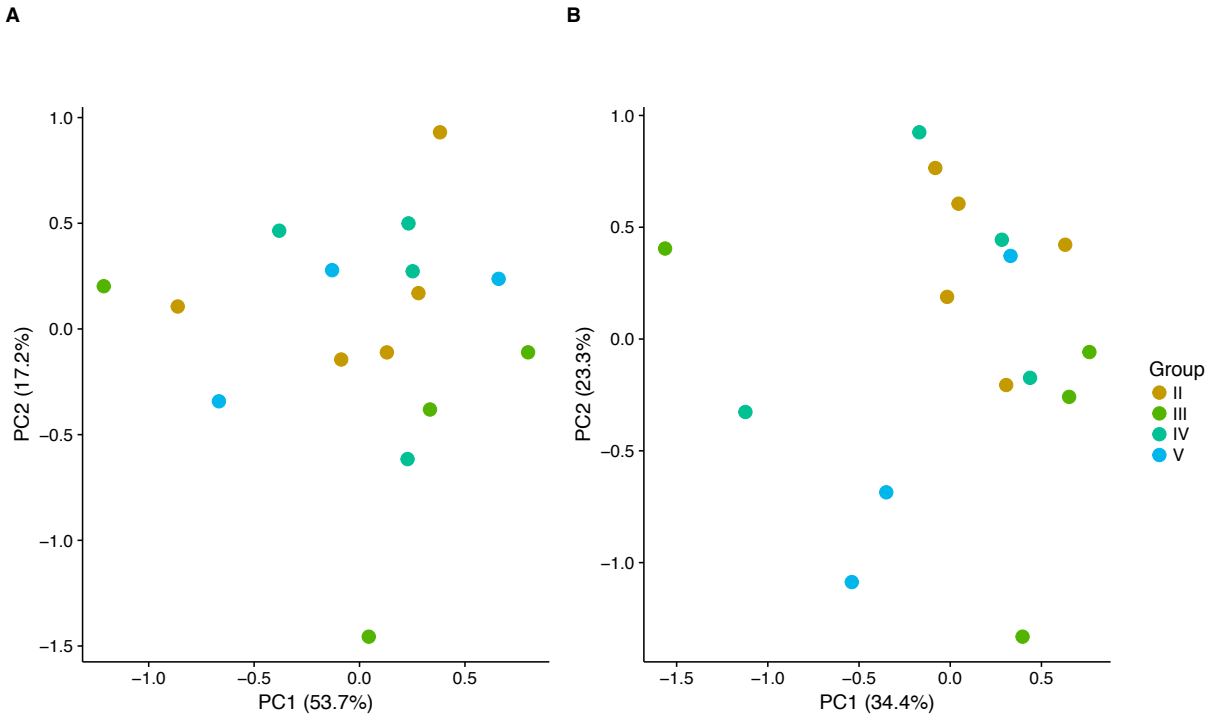
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393 **Figure S10**  
394



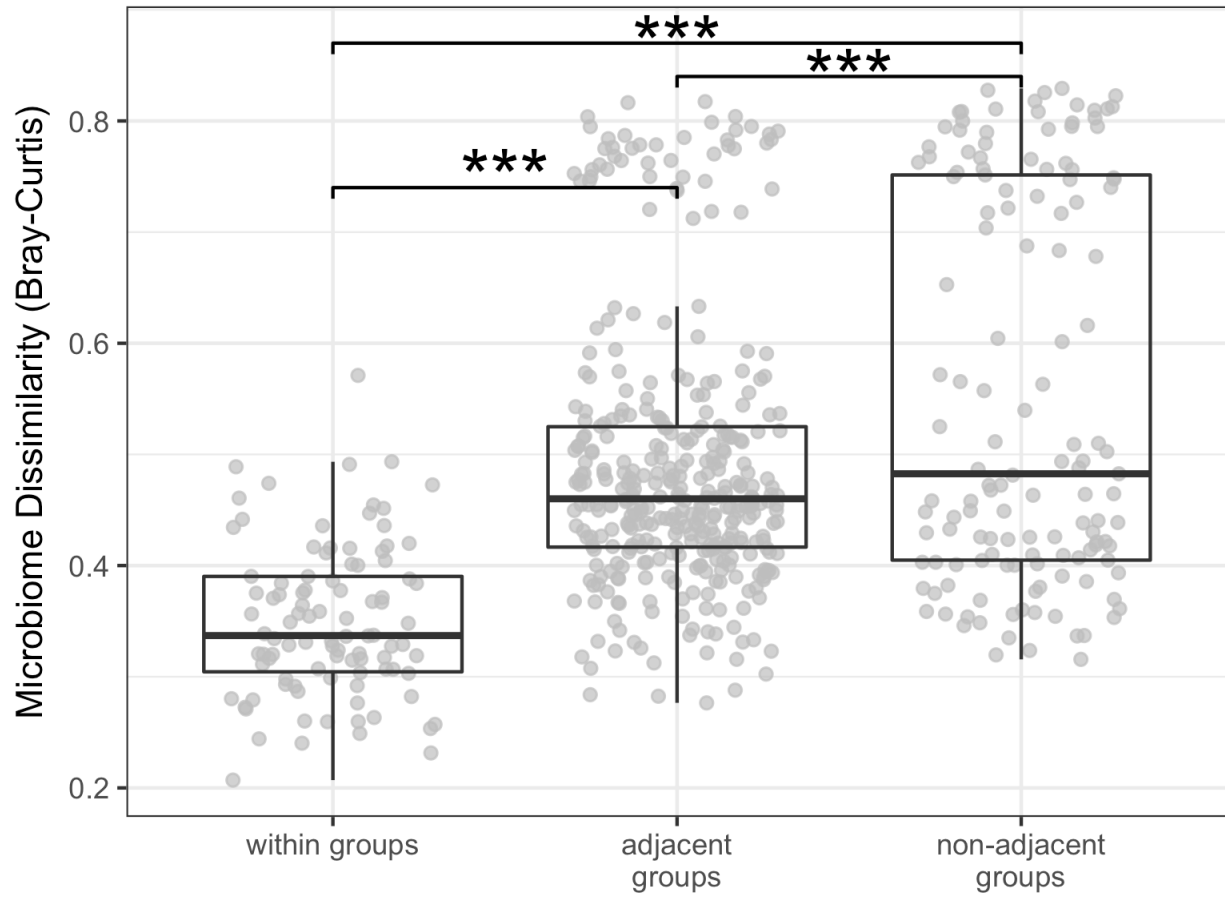
395  
396

397 **Figure S11**  
398



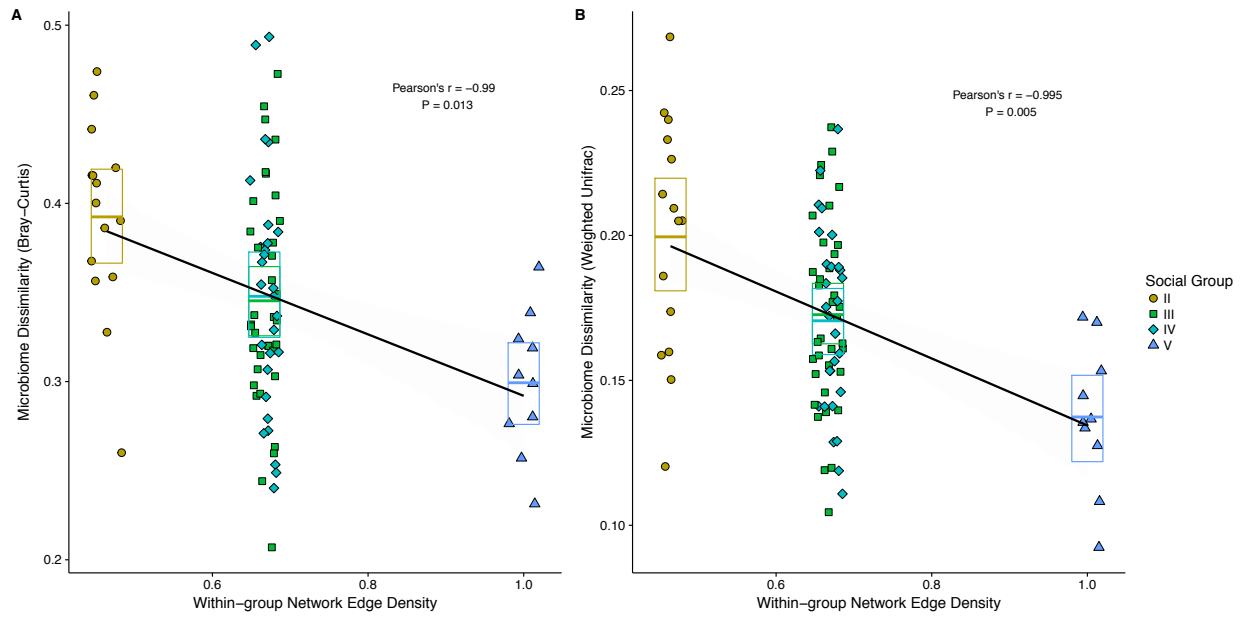
399  
400

401 **Figure S12**



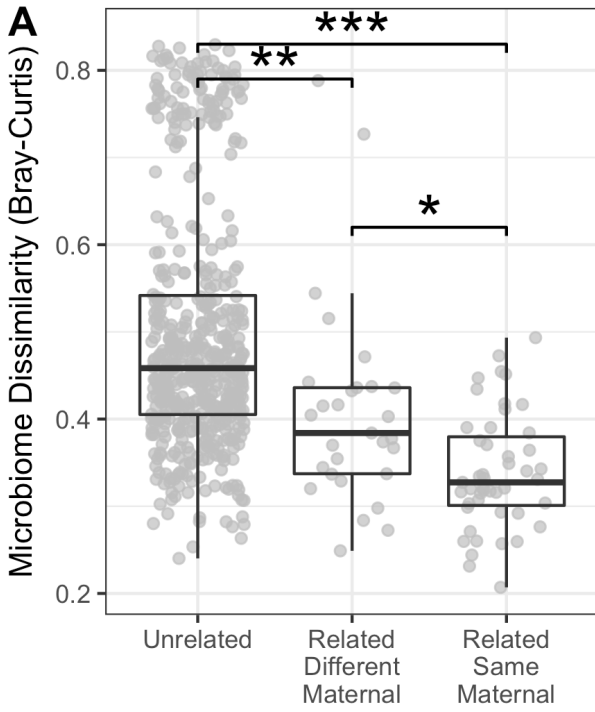
402

403 **Figure S13**  
404

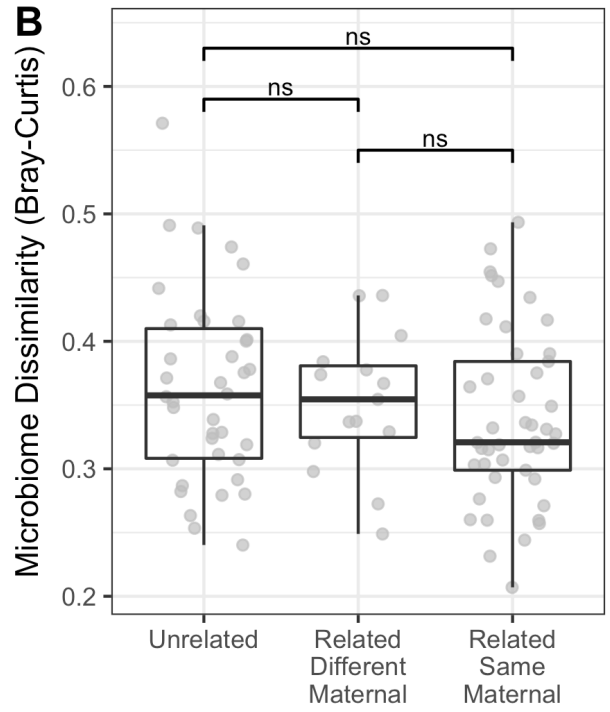


405  
406

407 **Figure S14**  
408



all dyads



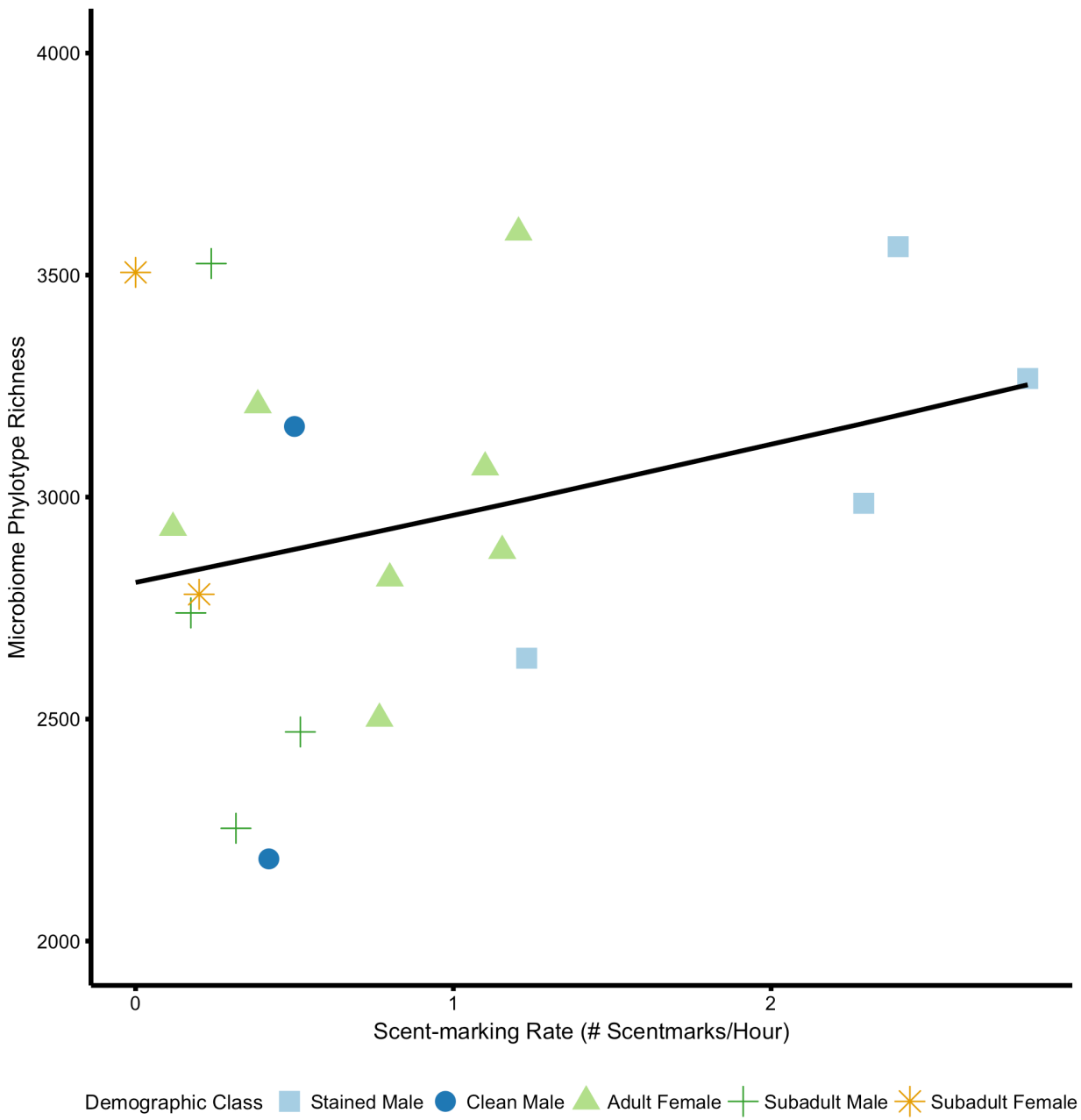
dyads in the same group

409

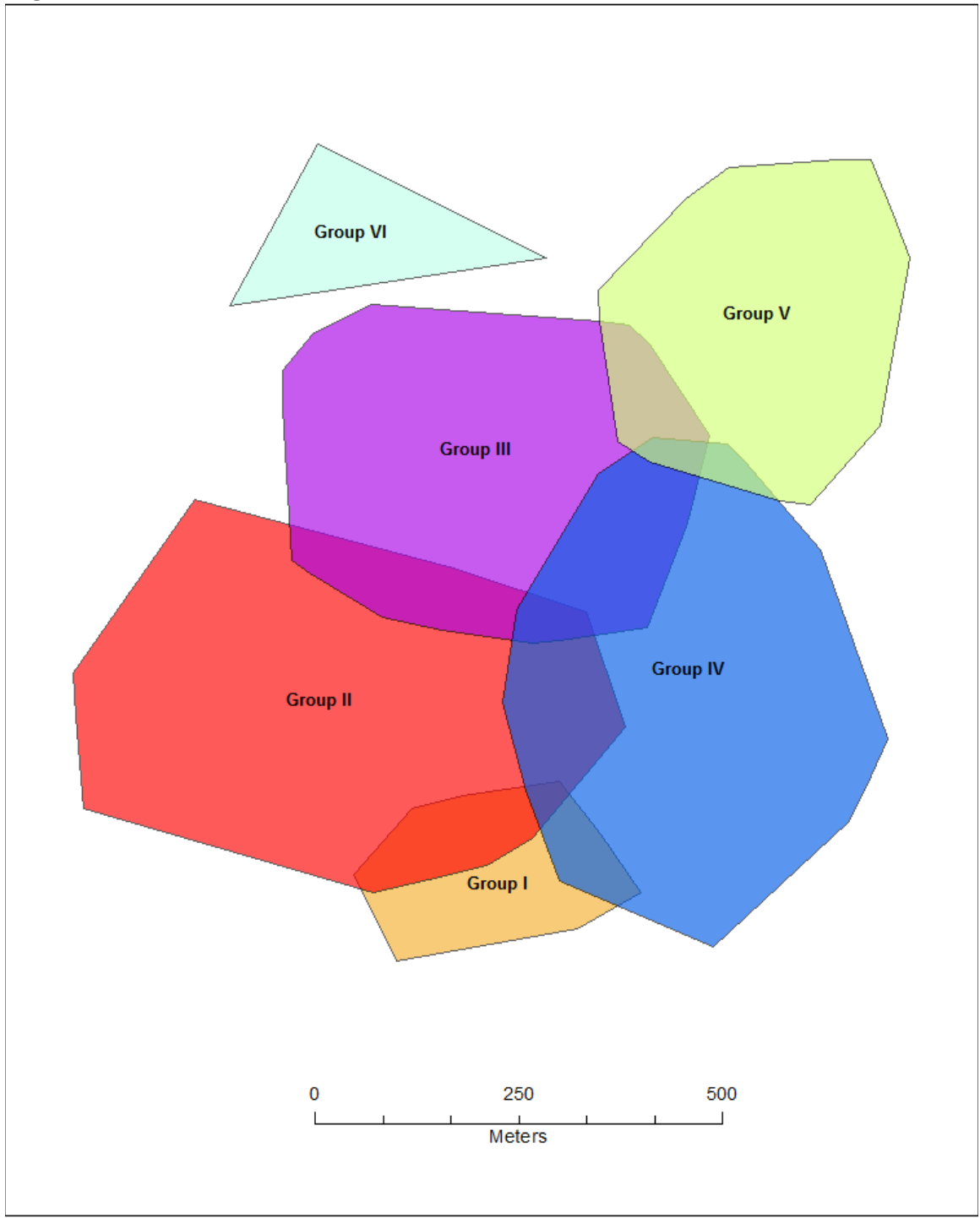
410



411 **Figure S15**  
412



413  
414



417 **Table S1. Sample names and corresponding metadata.** Summary of data available for  
 418 Verreaux's sifaka social groups and individuals sampled in this study. Data abbreviations: genetic data  
 419 (G), social behavior (SB), feeding behavior (FB), scent-marking behavior (SM), adult (A), subadult (S),  
 420 juvenile (J). Recently dispersed males are bolded. Data were collected at Ankoatsifaka Research Station  
 421 in Kirindy Mitea National Park.

Group	ID	Data	Sex	Age	Dominance/ Male chest status	Date	Latitude	Longitude
Camp	Camp 1					6/21/12	-20.795108	44.164616
	Camp 2					7/28/12	-20.795108	44.164616
	Camp 3					7/28/12	-20.795108	44.164616
	Camp 4					6/25/12	-20.795108	44.164616
	Camp 5					6/29/12	-20.795108	44.164616
	Camp 6					6/29/12	-20.795108	44.164616
I	I-F1	G	F	A		7/10/12	-20.787902	44.174563
	I-F2	G	F	A		7/17/12	-20.787506	44.174798
	<b>I-M1</b>	G, SB	M	A	Clean	6/20/12	Capture	Capture
	I-M2	G	M	A	Stained	7/17/12	-20.787655	44.174655
II	<b>II-M1</b>	G, SB, FB, SM	M	A	Subordinate/ Clean	7/23/12	-20.785467	44.172351
	<b>II-M2</b>	G, SB, FB	M	A	Subordinate/ Clean	7/23/12	-20.785467	44.172351
	<b>II-M3</b>	G, SB, FB, SM	M	A	Dominant/ Stained	7/15/12	-20.784029	44.172631
	II-F1	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A	Dominant	7/23/12	-20.785467	44.172351
	II-F2	G, SB	F	J		7/15/12	-20.784096	44.172153
	II-F3	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A	Subordinate	7/23/12	-20.785467	44.172351
III	III-M1	G, SB, FB, SM	M	A	Dominant/ Stained	6/24/12	Capture	Capture
	III-M2	G, SB, SM	M	S		7/24/12	-20.782915	44.175407
	III-M3	G, SB, FB, SM	M	A	Subordinate/ Clean	7/16/12	-20.782915	44.175407
	III-M4	G, SB, SM	M	S		7/3/12	-20.782366	44.172035
	III-F1	G, SB	F	J		7/24/12	-20.783205	44.175449
	III-F2	G, SB	F	J		7/3/12	-20.782383	44.171556
	III-F3	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A	Subordinate	7/24/12	-20.783196	44.175182
	III-F4	G, SB	F	J		7/24/12	-20.783196	44.175182
	III-F5	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A	Dominant	7/24/12	-20.783205	44.175449
IV	<b>IV-M1</b>	G, SB, FB, SM	M	S		7/25/12	-20.787493	44.176167
	<b>IV-M2</b>	G, SB, FB, SM	M	A	Stained	7/9/12	-20.784714	44.175641
	IV-M3	G, SB	M	J		7/9/12	-20.78516	44.175529
	IV-M4	G, SB	M	J		7/25/12	-20.787493	44.176167
	IV-F1	G, SB	F	J		7/9/12	-20.78516	44.175529
	IV-F2	G, SB, SM	F	S		7/25/12	-20.787493	44.176167
	IV-F3	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A	Dominant	7/25/12	-20.787726	44.176175
	IV-F4	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A	Subordinate	7/9/12	-20.78516	44.175529
V	V-F1	G, SB, FB, SM	F	A		7/19/12	-20.780978	44.177685
	V-F2	G, SB, SM	F	S		7/4/12	-20.781778	44.175369
	V-F3	G, SB	F	J		7/4/12	-20.781975	44.17582
	V-M1	G, SB, FB, SM	M	S		7/26/12	-20.783204	44.177087
	<b>V-M2</b>	G, SB, FB, SM	M	A	Stained	7/4/12	-20.781778	44.175369
VI	VI-F1	G	F	A		7/2/12	-20.781799	44.172333
	VI-F2	G	F	A		7/20/12	-20.780155	44.174486
	VI-M1	G	M	A	Stained	7/28/12	-20.779402	44.171545
	VI-U1					7/11/12	-20.77981	44.170482
	VI-U2					7/20/12	-20.779524	44.17233
	VI-U3					7/28/12	-20.779432	44.171258
	VI-U4					7/11/12	-20.779537	44.170558
	VI-U5					7/28/12	-20.77959	44.171239
VI-U6					7/28/12	-20.779528	44.171666	
<b>Total N</b>	47							

422 **Table S2. Socially structured bacterial phyla, families, and genera among seven**  
 423 **social groups of Verreaux's sifaka in Kirindy Mitea National Park.** For each significant  
 424 bacterial taxon, the ranking score, the contrast in each social group (the standardized mean difference  
 425 between the phylum's abundance in that group versus its overall abundance), and the FDR-  
 426 adjusted *P* value are shown. The microbial taxa that distinguished members of Groups I-V were  
 427 Fibrobacteraceae (Fibrobacteres), Order Burkholderiales, *Flexispira*, Enterobacteriaceae, *Escherichia*,  
 428 Desulfovibrionaceae (Proteobacteria), *Parabacteroides* (Bacteroidetes), Order Clostridiales (Firmicutes),  
 429 and Order RF39 (Tenericutes). Sifaka in Groups VI and Camp showed higher abundance of taxa related  
 430 to Actinobacteria (*Collinsella*, *Coriobacterium*, *Corynebacterium*, *Aldercreutzia*) and Firmicutes  
 431 (*Coprobacillus*, Lachnospiraceae, Planococcaceae, unclassified Clostridiales). Groups IV and V were  
 432 enriched in *Campylobacter* (Proteobacteria) and Cyanobacteria, whereas Groups I, II, and III were  
 433 enriched in [Paraprevotellaceae] (Bacteroidetes), Bacillaceae (Firmicutes), and [Cerasicoccaceae]  
 434 (Verrucomicrobia).

Phylum	Score	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Camp	P
Bacteroidetes	33.109	-1.975	3.527	1.224	-3.945	-1.316	0.457	1.801	0.000
Firmicutes	30.716	-0.061	-2.682	-3.203	-0.123	-0.151	3.323	2.869	0.000
Synergistetes	26.789	1.732	1.712	-0.506	2.055	1.699	-2.751	-3.204	0.000
Unclassified	25.339	1.867	-3.405	-1.093	3.471	0.053	0.207	-1.07	0.000
Actinobacteria	22.976	-0.966	-0.907	-2.284	-1.295	-0.527	2.493	3.415	0.000
Verrucomicrobia	22.353	1.652	-1.484	1.18	1.592	2.286	-2.104	-2.713	0.000
Proteobacteria	14.024	0.93	-0.314	1.209	0.012	2.52	-2.023	-1.845	0.000
Cyanobacteria	13.827	-0.356	-1.55	-1.131	1.869	2.634	-0.061	-1.287	0.000
Fusobacteria	9.122	-0.777	-0.5	-0.529	-1.231	0.018	1.512	1.361	0.033
Fibrobacteres	8.872	0.304	-0.015	1.169	-2.282	-0.458	-0.394	1.841	0.033
Family	Score	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Camp	P
<b>Firmicutes</b>									
Lactobacillales- Aerococcaceae	40.355	0.853	3.756	2.904	-3.686	-3.132	-0.087	-0.746	0.000
Bacillales- Staphylococcaceae	34.657	1.499	0.611	-2.262	2.813	3.348	-3.523	-1.305	0.000
Lactobacillales- Streptococcaceae	31.881	0.767	-1.114	1.417	3.148	2.15	-2.949	-3.253	0.000
Clostridiales- Lachnospiraceae	31.409	-0.272	-2.692	-0.881	-1.099	-2.275	4	2.584	0.000
Unclassified Lactobacillales	31.074	1.389	0.617	1.168	3.016	0.983	-3.728	-3.064	0.000
Lactobacillales- Enterococcaceae	29.375	-1.404	-1.777	-1.569	-0.178	-2.295	3.977	2.434	0.000
Clostridiales- Eubacteriaceae	25.754	-0.1	1.218	3.904	-1.952	-0.684	-3.136	0.79	0.000
Unclassified Bacillales	22.929	2.381	0.462	3.001	-0.729	-1.702	-2.885	-0.196	0.000
Clostridiales- Peptostreptococcaceae	18.846	-0.032	1.485	0.206	3.21	-0.826	-2.548	-1.549	0.000
Turicibacterales- Turicibacteraceae	16.862	1.445	2.874	0.026	-1.314	-0.912	0.243	-2.077	0.000
Clostridiales- Ruminococcaceae	15.63	-0.334	-1.584	1.809	2.252	0.585	-0.645	-2.586	0.000
Unclassified Coriobacteriales	14.814	-0.02	0.493	-0.878	3.088	0.388	-0.631	-2.533	0.000
Coriobacteriales- Coriobacteriaceae	14.512	-0.107	1.048	-0.206	1.196	2.275	-2.826	-0.832	0.000
Clostridiales- Veillonellaceae	10.379	1.95	0.058	1.438	0.417	-0.503	-2.073	-0.944	0.006
Clostridiales- Clostridiaceae	9.21	0.339	-0.786	1.891	0.878	-0.193	-0.135	-2.378	0.009
Unclassified Clostridiales	9.198	0.089	-1.301	-1.89	1.372	0.393	1.841	-0.624	0.009
Erysipelotrichales- [Coprobacillaceae]	8.029	-0.234	0.16	1.12	1.481	-0.753	-2.028	0.134	0.016
<b>Proteobacteria</b>									



Unclassified RF39	18.453	1.47	-0.412	1.548	1.63	0.997	-2.018	-3.02	0.000
<b>Genus</b>	<b>Score</b>	<b>I</b>	<b>II</b>	<b>III</b>	<b>IV</b>	<b>V</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>Camp</b>	<b>P</b>
<i>Atopobium</i>	36.459	2.114	-2.172	4.397	-2.71	-2.506	-0.167	0.784	0.000
<i>Parabacteroides</i>	33.294	1.959	3.11	1.052	0.432	1.033	-3.757	-3.001	0.000
<i>Collinsella</i>	32.754	0.266	0.853	-2.189	-1.827	-3.34	3.336	2.715	0.000
<i>Coprobacillus</i>	31.489	0.73	-1.314	-2.208	-0.819	-2.853	2.703	3.678	0.000
<i>Blautia</i>	30.828	1.565	-2.531	0.466	-2.996	-1.656	1.86	3.384	0.000
<i>Coriobacterium</i>	30.089	-0.214	0.963	-2.207	-1.769	-2.923	3.095	2.861	0.000
[ <i>Prevotella</i> ]	30.019	1.322	0.839	-3.107	1.855	3.236	-3.071	0.26	0.000
<i>Adlercreutzia</i>	29.592	1.395	-2.432	-0.016	-2.662	-1.999	2.991	2.603	0.000
<i>Bacteroides</i>	27.876	-0.303	1.666	2.234	-3.359	-1.551	-1.553	3	0.000
<i>Moryella</i>	27.615	0.625	-0.44	2.269	2.554	1.033	-4.121	-1.73	0.000
<i>Anaerofustis</i>	27.169	-0.27	-0.686	-2.266	-0.622	-2.626	3.365	2.744	0.000
<i>Streptococcus</i>	26.618	1.32	-1.751	-2.852	-1.771	-0.054	3.463	1.972	0.000
<i>Prevotella</i>	26.463	-0.255	3.798	1.457	-2.832	-2.265	0.638	-0.773	0.000
<i>Phascolarctobacterium</i>	24.2	2.274	2.182	0.968	0.477	0.125	-1.935	-3.596	0.000
<i>Butyrivibrio</i>	23.831	-1.445	-1.595	-3.404	2.307	0.14	2.105	1.606	0.000
<i>Campylobacter</i>	22.837	-0.272	0.95	0.403	1.893	2.746	-2.819	-2.542	0.000
YRC22	20.222	-0.744	-2.124	3.722	-1.14	-0.485	-1.225	1.535	0.000
<i>Cloacibacillus</i>	20.195	1.243	1.418	0.477	0.463	2.075	-1.843	-3.286	0.000
<i>Corynebacterium</i>	19.846	-0.873	-0.956	-1	-1.341	-1.427	2.031	3.3	0.000
<i>Bacillus</i>	19.085	-1.146	-0.997	-0.29	-0.905	-1.24	0.611	3.741	0.000
<i>Oscillospira</i>	19.006	1.679	2.562	0.424	-0.104	0.045	-0.876	-3.359	0.000
<i>Flexispira</i>	18.059	0.549	1.316	0.308	0.751	2.444	-3.037	-1.66	0.000
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	17.266	-1.169	-0.94	-1.367	-0.958	-0.795	2.161	2.796	0.000
<i>Bilophila</i>	16.626	1.434	2.639	1.252	-1.209	0.039	-1.573	-2.135	0.000
<i>Coprococcus</i>	16.316	-0.12	1.303	-1.554	-1.393	-1.428	3.132	-0.176	0.000
<i>Sphingobium</i>	16.01	-0.557	-1.171	-0.263	-0.747	-1.444	0.683	3.317	0.000
<i>Roseburia</i>	15.723	-1.791	1.304	-2.413	1.44	2.077	0.23	-0.773	0.000
<i>Peptoniphilus</i>	15.544	-0.893	-0.798	-0.771	-1.055	-1.469	2.403	2.166	0.000
<i>Desulfovibrio</i>	15.52	0.938	-0.146	0.317	1.539	1.216	-0.25	-3.574	0.000
<i>Fibrobacter</i>	15.338	0.395	1.836	1.711	-2.825	-1.17	-0.951	1.2	0.000
<i>Escherichia</i>	15.152	0.879	0.878	1.781	-0.055	1.497	-2.91	-1.603	0.000
<i>Actinomyces</i>	15.069	-0.839	-1.089	-0.99	-0.733	-0.839	1.498	2.793	0.000
<i>Enterococcus</i>	13.954	2.178	-0.207	-2.052	-0.881	-0.225	-0.215	2.259	0.000
<i>Methylobacterium</i>	12.357	-0.672	-0.771	-0.639	-0.372	-1.417	0.912	2.738	0.000
[ <i>Ruminococcus</i> ]	12.247	1.278	0.961	1.56	-2.001	-0.236	-1.985	0.943	0.000
<i>Facklamia</i>	12.104	-0.693	-0.772	-1.06	-0.892	-0.238	1.281	2.315	0.000
<i>Oxalobacter</i>	11.108	1.418	1.707	0.373	-1	1.243	-1.8	-1.233	0.000
<i>Clostridium</i>	11.044	-0.916	-1.21	-0.346	-0.996	-0.666	1.75	2.058	0.000
<i>Ruminococcus</i>	9.923	-0.315	0.826	-2.064	1.437	-0.681	-0.835	1.867	0.000
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	9.527	-0.487	-1.111	-0.647	-0.855	-0.263	1.53	1.683	0.000
<i>Pseudonocardia</i>	9.19	-0.782	-0.836	-0.274	-0.203	-0.44	0.149	2.272	0.000
<i>Slackia</i>	8.165	0.054	1.232	1.355	-0.815	-1.19	0.24	-1.141	0.000
<i>Anaerostipes</i>	8.053	0.483	0.713	0.475	0.991	0.5	-0.583	-2.568	0.000
<i>Comamonas</i>	7.755	-0.944	-1.05	-0.315	-0.402	0.293	1.378	0.768	0.000
<i>Delftia</i>	7.677	-0.279	-0.206	-0.015	-0.872	-0.66	0.318	1.674	0.000
<i>Acinetobacter</i>	7.571	-0.932	-0.413	0.006	-0.393	-0.929	0.576	1.806	0.000
J2-29	7.113	-0.398	-0.08	-0.769	-0.635	-0.35	1.215	0.926	0.000
<i>Dermaococcus</i>	6.942	-0.321	-0.148	-0.486	-0.21	-0.279	1.474	-0.255	0.000
<i>Candidatus Nitrososphaera</i>	6.893	-0.112	-0.24	-0.1	-0.228	-0.203	-0.333	1.289	0.000
<i>Rubrobacter</i>	6.802	-0.21	-0.338	-0.158	0.108	-0.208	-0.484	1.341	0.000

435 Abundances for each taxonomic level were determined to be significant using the nonparametric SAMseq  
436 algorithm (FDR adjusted  $P < 0.05$ ).

437

438 **Table S3. Pairwise social and genetic predictors of weighted Unifrac distance**  
 439 **among Verreaux's sifaka at Kirindy Mitea National Park.** Posterior mean, 95%  
 440 credible interval (95% CIs), and *P*-value based on Markov chain Monte Carlo sampling  
 441 for fixed-effect parameters.

	Parameter	Mean	95% CI	<i>P</i>	Interpretation
Group membership <i>N</i> <sub>pairs</sub> = 167 DIC: -594.57	Intercept	0.25	(0.23, 0.26)	<b>&lt; 5 x 10<sup>-5</sup></b>	
	Same group	-0.06	(-0.08, -0.04)	<b>&lt; 5 x 10<sup>-5</sup></b>	Pairs in the same social group have less dissimilar microbiota
	Related	0.005	(-0.01, 0.02)	0.6	No significant correlation
Social distance <i>N</i> <sub>pairs</sub> = 167 DIC: -628.98	Intercept	0.18	(0.15, 0.2)	<b>&lt; 5 x 10<sup>-5</sup></b>	
	Path length	9.07 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	(6.19 x 10 <sup>-6</sup> , 1.2 x 10 <sup>-5</sup> )	<b>&lt; 5 x 10<sup>-5</sup></b>	Pairs that are farther apart in the social network have more dissimilar microbiota
	Related	8.11 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>	(-0.02, 0.01)	0.66	No significant correlation

442 Baseline relatedness (not related) is not shown. Individual identity within each pair was included as a  
 443 random effect. Bolded relationships are significant at *P* < 0.05.

444 **Table S4. Predictors of within-host gut microbiome richness for 29 Verreaux's**  
 445 **sifaka inhabiting Kirindy Mitea National Park.** The coefficient estimate, standard  
 446 error, z value, and Pr(>|z|) value are shown for fixed effect parameters.

Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )	Intreptation
Intercept	7.89	0.02	506.4	<b>&lt; 2 x 10<sup>-16</sup></b>	
Weighted In Degree Centrality	4.66	1.22	3.8	<b>0.0001</b>	Individuals that frequently receive grooming have greater microbial diversity
Weighted Out Degree Centrality	18.62	1.75	10.6	<b>&lt; 2 x 10<sup>-16</sup></b>	Individuals that frequently initiate grooming have greater microbial diversity

447 Group membership was included as a random effect. Bolded relationships are significant at *P* < 0.05.

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