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Population genetics of the freshwater fish *Prochilodus* magdalenae (Characiformes: Prochilodontidae), using species-specific microsatellite loci

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Prochilodus magdalenae is a freshwater fish endemic to the Colombian hydrographic Magdalena-Cauca and Caribe basins. The genetic structuring patterns of populations of different members of *Prochilodus* and the historic reinforcements of its depleted natural stocks suggest that *P. magdalenae* exhibits genetic stocks that coexist and co-migrate throughout the rivers Magdalena, Cauca, Cesar, Sinú, and Atrato. To test this hypothesis and explore the levels of genetic diversity and population demography of 725 samples from the studied rivers, we developed a set of 11 species-specific microsatellite loci using next-generation sequencing, bioinformatics, and experimental tests of the levels of polymorphism of the microsatellite loci. The results evidenced that P. magdalenae exhibits high genetic diversity, significant inbreeding levels ranging from 0.120 to 0.255, and plausible signs of erosion of the genetic pool. Additionally, the population genetic structure constitutes a mixture of genetic stocks heterogeneously distributed along the rivers studied, and moreover, a highly divergent genetic stock was detected in Chucurí, Puerto Berrío, and Palagua that may result from reinforcement practices. This study provides molecular tools and a wide framework regarding the diversity and structure of P. magdalenae, which is crucial to complement its baseline information and diagnosis and monitoring of populations and to support the implementation of adequate regulation, management, and conservation policies.

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and Caribe basins. The genetic structuring patterns of populations of different members of <i>Prochilodus</i>
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INTRODUCTION

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38	The family Prochilodontidae (Teleostei: Characiformes) comprises the genera <i>Prochilodus</i> ,
39	Semaprochilodus, and Ichthyoelephas and encompasses 21 Neotropical freshwater fish species along the
40	main river basins of South America (Castro & Vari, 2004). Most of the prochilodontids exhibit large body
41	sizes and high fecundities and abundances, representing around 50-80% of the biomass caught in
42	artisanal and commercial fisheries throughout the distribution area (Barroca et al., 2012b; Melo et al.,
43	2016a). Furthermore, some members of Prochilodontidae constitute a potential resource for fish farming
44	due to certain characteristics such as their fast growth and weight increase, rustic management, and high
45	economic value (Flores-Nava & Brown, 2010; DellaRosa et al., 2014; Roux et al., 2015).
46	In addition to the economic importance, Prochilodontidae play an important trophic role in aquatic
47	ecosystems. These detritivorous and migratory fishes contribute to the nutrient cycling, distribution,
48	equilibrium, and maintenance of energetic flows and support a wide trophic network for a great number
49	of predators (Flecker, 1996). Hence, the adequate management of fisheries is crucial for the maintenance
50	of high productivity and permanent resource availability as well as to guarantee the stability and
51	continuity of the aquatic ecosystems (Taylor, Flecker, & Hall, 2006; Batista & Lima, 2010).
52	The bocachico <i>Prochilodus magdalenae</i> Steindachner 1878 is the most representative endemic species of
53	the Colombian ichthyofauna, considered the emblematic fishery resource of the Magdalena-Cauca Basin,
54	with an estimated unload for the Magdalena Basin of 2,182.67 metric tonin 2013 (Colombian fishing
55	statistical service: SEPEC). However, between 1978 and 2012, this species experienced drastic decreases
56	in its population densities, catches (approx. 85%), and mean catch sizes. These effects resulted from
57	overfishing during migratory periods, violations of legislation related to mean catch sizes, and habitat
58	disturbances including deforesting, floodplain lake desiccations, agrochemical or chemical contamination



- 59 derived from farming and mining activities, sedimentation, and dam/hydropower construction, among
- others (Cortes Millan, 2003; Lasso et al., 2010; Mojica et al., 2012).
- To counteract its detrimental situation, several state regulations were implemented for the management
- and conservation of *P. magdalenae* (Usma et al., 2009; Lasso et al., 2010; Mojica et al., 2012).
- 63 Specifically, this fish resource was catalogued as under critical threat in 2002 and as vulnerable since
- 64 2012 in the Colombian Red List of freshwater fishes (Mojica et al., 2012). Additionally, national
- 65 regulations of territorial entities and autonomous corporations focused their efforts on population
- 66 reinforcements (improperly called restocking) of natural stocks in the last 20 years (INPA regulation 531-
- 67 1995; ANLA, INCODER, AUNAP regulation 2838-2017). However, these last-mentioned activities are
- 68 not based on knowledge of the population genetics of *P. magdalenae* and their ecological, genetic, and
- 69 sanitary impacts are unknown due to the lack of programmatic monitoring and regulation of fish farming
- 70 (Povh et al., 2008; FAO, 2011).
- 71 Moreover, population genetic studies of *P. magdalenae* are recent, scarce, and fragmented (López-Macías
- 72 et al., 2009; Aguirre-Pabón, Narváez Barandica, & Castro García, 2013; Mancera-Rodríguez, Márquez, &
- Hurtado-Alarcón, 2013; Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014; Hernández, Navarro, & Muñoz,
- 74 2017), and most of the required information regarding the origin, genetic diversity, and structure of
- 75 juveniles used for population reinforcements of natural stocks remains unavailable. Hence, natural stocks
- 76 of *P. magdalenae* are highly susceptible to experiencing disturbances of their genetic background
- 77 resulting from artificial mixtures of genetic stocks with different evolutionary histories or, alternatively,
- 78 from the high competition for resources among different stocks.
- 79 Since *P. magdalenae* performs long longitudinal migrations (around 1,224 km; velocity: 50.6 km/day)
- 80 (López-Casas et al., 2016), it is reasonable to think that its natural stocks experience extensive gene flow.
- 81 However, the observation that *Prochilodus lineatus* (Godoy, 1959) and *Prochilodus argenteus* (Godinho



82	& Kynard, 2006) show fidelity to spawning sites ("homing") suggests that P. magdalenae may exhibit a
83	population genetic structure even in the absence of physical barriers.
84	Indeed, previous genetic studies have found the population structure and/or coexistence of multiples
85	stocks along the Magdalena River and several tributaries (López-Macías et al., 2009; Mancera-Rodríguez,
86	Márquez, & Hurtado-Alarcón, 2013; Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014). Although this
87	structure may result from the unregulated population reinforcements of the natural stocks, it may also
88	reflect a natural behavior of P. magdalenae since similar patterns of genetic population structure have
89	been found in other congeners such as <i>Prochilodus reticulatus</i> (López-Macías et al., 2009), <i>P. argenteus</i>
90	(Hatanaka & Galetti Jr., 2003; Hatanaka, Henrique-Silva, & Galetti Jr., 2006; Barroca et al., 2012a), P.
91	lineatus (Ramella et al., 2006; Rueda et al., 2013; Gomes et al., 2017), and Prochilodus costatus (Barroca
92	et al., 2012a,b).
93	This study tested the hypothesis that <i>P. magdalenae</i> exhibits genetic stocks that coexist and co-migrate
94	throughout the rivers, tributaries, and floodplain lakes of the different Colombian hydrographic areas
95	Magdalena-Cauca and Caribe. Likewise, we compare the genetic diversity and structure with those of five
96	sites (Pijiño, Llanito, Mompox, Palomino, and San Marcos) previously studied by Orozco Berdugo &
97	Narváez Barandica (2014). To test this hypothesis, we developed species-specific microsatellite locidue to
98	their advantages in population genetics (Fernandez-Silva et al., 2013; Putman & Carbone, 2014).
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101	MATERIALS AND METHODS
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103	Sample collection



This study analyzed a total of 725 muscle tissues of *P. magdalenae* from the river mainstream and floodplain lakes along the different Colombian hydrographic areas of the Magdalena-Cauca and Caribe (Fig. 1; Supplementary Information) and 40 juveniles from a local fish hatchery. The samples preserved in 70% ethanol were provided by Integral S.A. through two scientific cooperation agreements (September 19, 2013; Grant CT-2013-002443). Sampling collection was performed by Integral S.A., framed under an environmental permit from Ministerio de Ambiente, Vivienda y Desarrollo Territorial de Colombia # 0155 on January 30, 2009 for Ituango hydropower construction. Samples previously studied by Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica (2014) were collected during project 111752128352 of COLCIENCIAS under collection permit #1293 of 2013 of the Universidad del Magdalena.

Microsatellite loci development

Low-coverage sequencing of the genomic library of one specimen of *P. magdalenae* from the middle section of the Magdalena River was performed using the Illumina MiSeq v.2 instrument using the "whole genome shotgun" strategy and the Nextera library preparation kits for the sequence reads. All steps concerning the read cleaning, contig assemblage, identification of microsatellite loci, primer design, in silico alignment of primers using electronic PCR (ePCR), PCR optimization, and polymorphism analysis of 50 microsatellites were performed following the methodology described by Landinez & Márquez (2016). A set of 21 polymorphic microsatellite loci were selected and fluorescently labeled for genotyping of 88 randomly chosen samples (Table 1). Then, a subset of 11 loci were selected for further evaluation of genetic diversity and structure in 725 samples along the Caribbean drainage because they satisfied the criteria of clearly defined peaks, reproducibility and consistency of amplifications, absence of stutter bands, specific bands, high polymorphism, correct motif sizes, low levels of heterozygosity deficit, and polymorphism information content (PIC) values, among others parameters required to validate new microsatellite primers (Neff, Garner, & Pitcher, 2011; Fernandez-Silva et al., 2013; Schoebel et al., 2013).

Genotyping of samples



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The PCRs were conducted in a volume of 10 µl, which contained 2–4 ng/µl of template DNA isolated with the GeneJET DNA purification kit (Thermo Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions, 1 × buffer (Invitrogen), 0.2 mM dNTPs (Thermo Scientific), 0.05 U/µl PlatinumTM Taq DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen), 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 2% formamide (Sigma), 0.35 pmoles/µl labeled forward primer (either FAM6, VIC, NED, or PET, Applied Biosystems), and 0.5 pmoles/µl reverse primer (Macrogen). The PCRs were performed on a T100 thermocycler (BioRad) with an initial denaturation step of 95 °C for 3 min followed by 32 cycles consisting of a denaturation step of 90 °C for 22 s and an annealing step for 18 134 s using the annealing temperatures described for each primer in Table 1. The extension step and a final 136 elongation were absent in this thermal profile. Finally, the PCRs were submitted to electrophoresis on an automated sequencer ABI 3730 XL (Applied Biosystems) using LIZ500 (Applied Biosystems) as the internal molecular size. Allelic fragments were denoted according to their molecular size and scored using GeneMapper v.4.0 (Applied Biosystems). Before the statistical analysis, Micro-Checker v.2.2.3 (van 140 Oosterhout et al., 2004) was run to detect potential genotyping errors.

Statistical analysis

142 Tests for departures from Hardy-Weinberg linkage equilibria as well as the observed (H_O) and expected 143 $(H_{\rm F})$ heterozygosities and the inbreeding coefficient $(F_{\rm IS})$ were estimated using Arlequin v.3.5.2.2 (Excoffier, Laval, & Schneider, 2005). The sequential Bonferroni correction was applied to adjust the 144 145 statistical significance in multiple comparisons (Rice, 1989). The average number of alleles per locus and 146 the PIC (Botstein et al., 1980) for each marker were calculated with GenAlEx v.6.503 (Peakall & Smouse, 2006) and Cervus v.3.0.7 (Marshall et al., 1998), respectively. 147 148 The average number of alleles per locus, observed and expected average heterozygosities, and fixation index (Hartl & Clark, 1997) were calculated with GenAlex v.6.503 (Peakall & Smouse, 2006) to estimate 149 150 the genetic diversity of *P. magdalenae*. The genetic differentiation among geographical samples was calculated using the standardized statistics F'_{ST} (Meirmans, 2006) and Jost's Dest (Meirmans & Hedrick, 151





152	2011) and analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) (Meirmans, 2006) with 10,000 permutations and
153	bootstraps included in GenAlex v.6.503 (Peakall & Smouse, 2006). Furthermore, the diploid genotypes of
154	11 loci (22 variables) in 725 individuals were submitted to discriminant analysis of principal components
155	(DAPC) using the R-package ADEGENET (Jombart, 2008).
156	To examine other groupings of the samples, genetic differentiation among samples was tested using the
157	Bayesian analysis of population partitioning with Structure v.2.3.4 (Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly,
158	2000). Parameters included 350,000 Monte Carlo Markov Chain steps and 50,000 iterations as burn-in,
159	the admixture model, correlated frequencies, and the LOCPRIOR option for detecting relatively weak
160	population structure (Hubisz et al., 2009). Each analysis was repeated 20 times for each simulated K
161	value, which ranged from 1 to $n + 3$ (n, number of populations compared). For a best estimation of
162	genetic stocks (K), the ΔK ad hoc statistic (Evanno, Regnaut, & Goudet, 2005) was calculated with
163	Structure Harvester (Earl & VonHoldt, 2012). Then, CLUMPP v.1.1.2b (algorithm: Full Search or
164	Greedy; function: G' normalized, 100,000 repeats, and other parameters at their default values)
165	(Jakobsson & Rosenberg, 2007) and Distruct v.1.1 (Rosenberg, 2004), respectively, were used to
166	summarize the results of independent Structure runs and plot the Q-matrices obtained in a histogram
167	displaying the ancestry of each individual in each population.
168	Additionally, the occurrence of recent genetic bottlenecks of populations was evaluated by calculating the
169	levels of heterozygosity and the M ratio using Bottleneck v.1.2.02 software (Piry, Luikart, & Cornuet,
170	1999) and Arlequin v.3.5.2.2 (Excoffier, Laval, & Schneider, 2005), respectively. Excess heterozygosity
171	was assessed by employing the Wilcoxon sign-rank test (Luikart & Cornuet, 1998). The M ratio – the
172	mean ratio of the number of alleles compared to the range of allele size – indicates that the population has
173	experienced a recent and severe reduction in population size when its values are smaller than 0.68 (Garza
174	& Williamson, 2001).



To explore non-neutral evolutionary forces acting on the microsatellite loci, a scanning analysis was performed using the software BayeScan v.2.1 (Foll & Gaggiotti, 2008) to detect candidate loci under selection. Parameters for BayeScan analyses included 10:1 prior odds for the neutral model and 20 pilot runs consisting of 5,000 iterations each followed by 250,000 iterations with a burn-in length of 50,000 iterations (Foll & Gaggiotti, 2008).

Phylogenetic relationships among genetic groups

To explore the phylogenetic relationships among individuals sampled along the basin, partial fragments of the mitochondrial *cox1* gene (~650 bp) were amplified in a subset of samples using primers and PCR conditions previously described by Ivanova et al. (2007). PCR products were sequenced by the Sanger method using an automated sequencer, ABI 3730 XL (Applied Biosystems). The best-fit evolutionary model was determined based on the Bayesian information criterion as implemented in the software jModelTest (Posada & Crandall, 1998). Phylogenetic relationships were determined by Bayesian inference using the software MrBayes v.3.2.6 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003). For this purpose, we performed two independent runs of 20 million generations sampled each 1,000 generations using 25% as burn-in. The remaining values were left as default. The convergence of each parameter was checked based on a potential scale reduction factor nearing 1 and average standard deviation of the split frequencies lower than 0.01. Finally, the visualization of the resulting trees was performed with Figtree v.1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2012).

RESULTS

Microsatellite loci development



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A total of 21 of the 50 loci microsatellite evaluated were polymorphic and showed allelic frequencies that departed from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The number of alleles per locus ranged from 11 to 37, with an average number of 20.619 alleles/locus, the average values of observed and expected heterozygosities were Ho = 0.589 and He = 0.876 and the PIC values ranged from 0.399 to 0.949 (average 0.867) (Table 1). A total of 10 loci failed to satisfy the selection criteria, showing a single allele size class in more than 50% of alleles in the studied sample (Pma32), dropout and stuttering (Pma32, Pma08), inconsistent amplifications (Pma17, Pma47, Pma57), or low-definition peaks (Pma42, Pma56, Pma26, Pma50). Consequently, only 11 (Pma39, Pma25, Pma02, Pma35, Pma01, Pma40, Pma46, Pma36, Pma18, Pma13, and Pma14) satisfied most of the parameters required to validate the new microsatellites primers described previously.

Genetic diversity, population demography, and outlier loci screening

208 Comparisons among rivers revealed that 8 of 11 loci exhibit allelic frequencies concordant with Hardy-209 Weinberg equilibrium expectations in at least one case (Table 2). However, the analysis across loci 210 showed allelic frequencies that departed significantly from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium expectations in 211 all rivers evaluated (Table 2). The average number of alleles per locus was higher in Cauca (22.455) and 212 Magdalena (19.455), followed by Nare (15.636), Sinú (15.273), the fish hatchery (14.818), and Atrato (14.636) and was lowest in San Jorge (13.545) and Cesar (13.364). Additionally, the highest values of 213 214 observed and expected heterozygosities were found in San Jorge (Ho: 0.809; He: 0.884) and Cesar (Ho: 215 0.782; He: 0.873) followed by Sinú (Ho: 0.767; He: 0.882), Magdalena (Ho: 0.758; He: 0.896), and Cauca (Ho: 0.725; He: 0.898) and were lowest in Atrato (Ho: 0.718; He: 0.879), the fish hatchery (Ho: 216 0.691; He: 0.880), and Nare (Ho: 0.659; He: 0.876) (Table 2). 217 Furthermore, comparisons among sites within each river showed similar high levels of genetic diversity 218 219 (Table 3). The highest value of genetic diversity was found in the floodplain lake Palagua in the 220 Magdalena River (Na: 17.182 alleles/locus; He: 0.895; Ho: 0.792), whereas the lowest was observed in





221	Beté, a site of the Atrato River (Na: 9.273 alleles/locus; He: 0.791; Ho: 0.711). In addition, all sites
222	exhibited a highly significant deficit of heterozygosity (Table 3) with Doctrina and Cauca S1 showing the
223	lowest and highest heterozygosity deficits, respectively. Inbreeding coefficients (F_{IS}) per site in main
224	rivers of the different Colombian hydrographic areas were significant and ranged from 0.120 to 0.255
225	(Table 3). Although decreased in magnitude, heterozygosity deficits and inbreeding coefficients (Table 3)
226	remained significant even after comparing the genetic diversity according to genetic stocks in Chucurí,
227	Puerto Berrío, and Palagua and among the Magdalena River and tributaries.
228	Results of the tests performed using Bottleneck (Table 4) were significant for all populations under the
229	infinite alleles model (IAM) and for most populations under the two-phase model (TPM), whereas they
230	were generally non-significant under the stepwise mutation model (SMM). As it is thought that few loci
231	follow the strict SMM (Piry, Luikart, & Cornuet, 1999), the best estimation of expected heterozygosity at
232	mutation-drift equilibrium is expected under a combination of IAM and TPM. Additionally, all values of
233	the M ratio were substantially smaller than 0.68, indicating that all populations have experienced recent
234	and severe reductions in population size (Table 4).
235	In contrast to other samples that did not show evidence of selection, BayeScan analysis revealed that 8 of
236	11 loci (Pma39, Pma25, Pma02, Pma35, Pma40, Pma36, Pma13, and Pma14) exhibit substantial evidence
237	of selection in the Magdalena River (Table 5).
238	Genetic structure and phylogenetic relationships among the samples studied
239	Bayesian analysis showed the presence of two genetic stocks ($\Delta K = 2$), one predominantly in the
240	Magdalena River (Chucurí, Puerto Berrio, and Palagua) and the other one in the remaining rivers
241	evaluated (Fig. 2A), which is concordant with DAPC (Fig. 2B) and AMOVA (F' _{ST(7, 1407)} = 0.009; P =
242	0.000). However, pairwise comparisons of the standardized statistics F' _{ST} (Meirmans, 2006) and Jost's
243	Dest (Meirmans, & Hedrick, 2011) showed additional genetic differences among Atrato, the fish



244	hatchery, Sinú, and the remaining rivers (Table 6) as well as among the Magdalena River and its
245	tributaries, Cauca and Nare.
246	Furthermore, Bayesian analysis excluding samples that exhibit loci putatively under selection showed two
247	genetic stocks ($\Delta K = 2$) that coexist and are homogenously distributed across the Magdalena River and its
248	tributaries, a single stock predominantly in Sinú and Atrato, and a mixture of two latter stocks in the fish
249	hatchery (Fig. 2C), concordantly with DAPC (Fig. 2D), AMOVA ($F'_{ST(20, 1257)} = 0.007$; $P = 0.000$), and
250	pairwise comparisons of the F' _{ST} and Jost's Dest estimators (Table 6). The last-mentioned analysis
251	excluding Chucurí, Puerto Berrío, and Palagua showed that Magdalena River was genetically similar to
252	its tributaries Cauca, Cesar, San Jorge, and Nare (Table 6).
253	However, comparisons among sites within each river revealed that the two stocks in Magdalena River and
254	its tributaries were not homogenously distributed as was shown by Bayesian analysis (Figs. 3A-C),
255	DAPC (Figs. 3D,E), AMOVAs, and estimators of genetic differentiation (Tables 6, 7). Additionally, this
256	analysis revealed a genetic substructure in Sinú (ΔK = 2; Fig. 4A) and Atrato (ΔK = 2; Fig. 4B) that is
257	concordant with the results of DAPC (Figs. 4C and 4D, respectively), AMOVA, and pairwise
258	comparisons of estimators of genetic differentiation (Sinú: $F'_{ST(1, 67)} = 0.033$; $P = 0.000$; $F'_{ST} = 0.027$; $P = 0.000$)
259	0.004 ; D'est = 0.149; P = 0.005 ; Atrato: $F'_{ST(1,57)} = 0.045$; P = 0.000 ; $F'_{ST} = 0.047$; P = 0.000 ; D'est =
260	0.330; P = 0.000).
261	Finally, the Bayesian tree using the <i>coxI</i> gene clustered our samples (GenBank accession numbers
262	MK330430 to MK330494) with sequences of <i>P. magdalenae</i> and <i>P. reticulatus</i> deposited in public
263	databases and in a different group, Prochilodus marie and Prochilodus nigricans (Fig. 5).
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DISCUSSION



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Microsatellite loci development

This work developed species-specific microsatellite loci using next-generation sequencing and bioinformatic analysis. Although a total of 21 of 50 microsatellite loci with tri- and tetra-nucleotide motifs were polymorphic in P. magdalenae, the consistency in the amplification in a larger sample, allelic size class distribution, and high definition peaks allowed the selection of only 11 microsatellite loci for further population genetic analysis. Most of the loci showed allelic frequencies that departed from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and were related to a significant heterozygosity deficit, which may be related to the significant levels of inbreeding as well as the genetic structure of the samples shaped by the mixture of two genetic stocks (see below). Although the levels of genetic diversity measured by the expected heterozygosities were similar, the levels of observed heterozygosity as well as the average number of alleles per locus found in this study were substantially greater than those found by Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, (2014). These results support the idea that the heterologous microsatellite loci used by these authors may be limited by the presence of null alleles or genotyping errors related to their dinucleotide motifs because a higher variability is expected in shorter motifs (e.g. 2mers, Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014) compared with longer motifs (3mers and 4mers, this study). However, despite these differences, both heterologous and species-specific microsatellite loci revealed a general deficit of heterozygotes in all samples, indicating that its causes are biological rather than technical. In this context, the species-specific microsatellite loci developed in this study seem to provide a good approach to studying the population genetics of P. magdalenae considering that the levels of heterozygosity constitute a parameter used to estimate the genetic diversity of the populations.

Genetic diversity and population demography





290	Microsatellite data revealed average values of genetic diversity (He: 0.737) among the highest values
291	found in other Prochilodontidae species, only surpassed by those reported for <i>P. costatus</i> (Melo et al.,
292	2013) and P. argenteus (Coimbra et al., 2017) (0.747 and 0.753 respectively). Similarly, the average
293	levels of expected heterozygosity were higher than that found in P. magdalenae measured by
294	heterologous microsatellite (He: 0.877; Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014) and Neotropical
295	Characiforms (He: 0.675 ± 0.16 ; see review by Hilsdorf & Hallerman, 2017).
296	Additionally, this study found levels of observed heterozygosity higher than those found by Orozco
297	Berdugo & Narváez Barandica (2014). However, the use of species-specific microsatellite loci developed
298	in this study revealed similar values of expected heterozygosity among samples analyzed by Orozco
299	Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014 (2014) and the remaining samples analyzed, indicating that
300	differences between the two studies are related to the type of microsatellite loci utilized (heterologous vs
301	species-specific microsatellite loci).
302	The significant deficit of heterozygosity in all studied samples corroborates the previous findings for P .
302 303	The significant deficit of heterozygosity in all studied samples corroborates the previous findings for <i>P. magdalenae</i> from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the
303	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the
303 304	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the magnitude of the heterozygosity deficit as well as the inbreeding coefficient were substantially lower
303 304 305	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the magnitude of the heterozygosity deficit as well as the inbreeding coefficient were substantially lower (0.075–0.239) than those previously reported (0.624–0.788). Following Franklin (1980) and Soulé (1980),
303 304 305 306	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the magnitude of the heterozygosity deficit as well as the inbreeding coefficient were substantially lower (0.075–0.239) than those previously reported (0.624–0.788). Following Franklin (1980) and Soulé (1980), the values above 10% of the inbreeding coefficient indicate that these populations require careful
303 304 305 306 307	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the magnitude of the heterozygosity deficit as well as the inbreeding coefficient were substantially lower (0.075–0.239) than those previously reported (0.624–0.788). Following Franklin (1980) and Soulé (1980), the values above 10% of the inbreeding coefficient indicate that these populations require careful management to avoid future detrimental effects on its populations. This point is important since it has
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303 304 305 306 307 308 309	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the magnitude of the heterozygosity deficit as well as the inbreeding coefficient were substantially lower (0.075–0.239) than those previously reported (0.624–0.788). Following Franklin (1980) and Soulé (1980), the values above 10% of the inbreeding coefficient indicate that these populations require careful management to avoid future detrimental effects on its populations. This point is important since it has been recommended recently that any inbreeding coefficient higher than zero will usually have an adverse fitness effect (Frankham, Bradshaw, & Brook, 2014).
303 304 305 306 307 308 309	magdalenae from Magdalena River (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014); however, the magnitude of the heterozygosity deficit as well as the inbreeding coefficient were substantially lower (0.075–0.239) than those previously reported (0.624–0.788). Following Franklin (1980) and Soulé (1980), the values above 10% of the inbreeding coefficient indicate that these populations require careful management to avoid future detrimental effects on its populations. This point is important since it has been recommended recently that any inbreeding coefficient higher than zero will usually have an adverse fitness effect (Frankham, Bradshaw, & Brook, 2014). Another non-excluding alternative is plausible considering that the significant deficit of heterozygosity



314 P. magdalenae is iteroparous and characterized by total spawning (Jaramillo-Villa & Jiménez-Segura, 315 2008) as described in its congener P. costatus (Carolsfield et al., 2004) and P. lineatus (Roux et al., 2015). 316 317 On the other hand, this study also provided evidence for a population bottleneck, suggesting that P. magdalenae shows signs of erosion of the genetic pool, likely by the constant pressure from fishing and 318 319 other anthropogenic activities exerted on its populations. Although paradoxical to the heterozygosity 320 deficit found in all populations evaluated, this outcome is plausible considering that the Bottleneck 321 algorithm tests not for an excess of heterozygotes (Ho > He) but rather for an excess of heterozygosity (He > He at mutation-drift equilibrium) (Piry, Luikart, & Cornuet, 1999). Besides, the combination of a 322 323 population bottleneck and a heterozygosity deficit may result from population growth in a closed system, 324 population genetic structure, or admixture (Barson, Cable, & Oosterhout, 2009). Considering the lengths 325 of the rivers studied, population growth in a closed system is unlikely but the last two alternatives may explain our results due to the coexistence of genetic stocks in the samples studied and the continuous 326 327 reinforcements of natural stocks using juveniles from fish hatcheries, which may create an apparent excess of novel alleles and an incomplete allele frequency distribution. Similar results have also been 328 329 found in guppies, *Poecilia reticulata*, in Trinidad and Tobago (Barson, Cable, & Oosterhout, 2009). 330 **Genetic Structure** This study tested the hypothesis that *P. magdalenae* exhibits genetic stocks that coexist and co-migrate 331 along sections of the main channel and some tributaries of the Magdalena River (Cauca, San Jorge, and 332 Cesar), Sinú, and Atrato. Before testing this hypothesis, we compare the genetic structure at regional 333 334 scale, finding two spatially structured populations: one predominantly in the Magdalena River (Puerto Berrío and the floodplains Chucurí and Palagua) and the other in the remaining rivers evaluated. 335 The geographical genetic structure may result from taxonomic differences among stocks due to the lack 336 337 of regulations on the reinforcement of natural stocks of P. magdalenae. The phylogenetic analysis using





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partial sequences of cox1 gene indicates that samples do not correspond to species such as P. marie or P. nigricans because this genetic stock is clustered with previously published sequences of P. magdalenae (Aguirre-Pabón, Narváez Barandica, & Castro García, 2013). However, it remains to be seen whether they represent artificial mixtures of P. magdalenae and P. reticulatus because the current phylogenetic analysis of Prochilodontidae does not allow the two species to be discriminated (Melo et al., 2016b, 2018). Moreover, the morphological and molecular similitudes have led to the proposal that P. magdalenae and P. reticulatus represent only one species with probable allopatric differentiation resulting from the uplift of the Sierra del Perijá (Melo et al., 2016b). Thus, a separated clustering of mitochondrial sequences of those stocks is not expected in the phylogenetic analysis even though they represent allopatric populations. An alternative explanation is that the genetic differences result from eight outlier loci that are putatively under selection in three sites of the Magdalena River, suggesting that P. magdalenae experiences natural/artificial selection or local adaptation, although testing of these hypotheses is out of the scope of the present study. The explanation that outlier loci represent false positives resulting from the inclusion of severely bottlenecked populations (Teshima, Coop, & Przeworski, 2006; Foll & Gaggiotti, 2008) seems unlikely because the significant excess of heterozygosity and small values of the M ratio were found even in populations that do not exhibit outlier loci. Thus, considering that those sites have been exposed to restocking since 20 years ago and since microsatellite loci are not transcriptionally active, the outlier loci found in this study may reflect hitchhiking selection resulting from stock reinforcements using juveniles selected artificially by fish hatcheries. Alternatively, the outlier loci may result from asymmetric gene flow by unidirectional migration from hatchery stocks to wild populations. Similar results were found in Denmark in populations of three brown trout, which have been significantly admixtured with stocked hatchery trout (Hansen, Meier, & Mensberg, 2010). Although the above reasoning might explain the genetic differences between stocks, an additional justification is required to explain the restricted distribution of one genetic stock in only three sites of the





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Magdalena River considering the migratory abilities of these species/allopatric populations. Thus, this genetic structure seems to result from recent population reinforcements before reproductive/feeding migrations, use of artificial barriers to avoid migration of the fish, clogging by sedimentation or vegetation, or the desiccation of access to floodplain lakes or may be a product of the intensive anthropic intervention in these territories characterized by the exploitation of hydrocarbons and livestock. This idea is concordant with the fact that degradation of preferred habitat and barriers that impede dispersal contribute to the degree of genetic differentiation among populations (Faulks, Gilligan, & Beheregaray, 2011). Furthermore, the results found here provide support for the hypothesis that P. magdalenae exhibits genetic stocks that coexist and co-migrate along sections of the rivers Magdalena, Cauca, Cesar (tributaries of the Magdalena River), Sinú, and Atrato. Since similar patterns of genetic structure are found in P. reticulatus (López-Macías et al., 2009), P. marggravii (Hatanaka & Galetti Jr., 2003), P. argenteus (Sanches et al., 2012), P. costatus (Barroca et al., 2012a), P. magdalenae (Orozco Berdugo & Narváez Barandica, 2014; Hernández, Navarro, & Muñoz, 2017), and I. longirostris (Landínez-García & Márquez, 2016), this outcome supports the idea that this genetic structure is a generalized tendency within the family Prochilodontidae. Excluding the genetic stock of Puerto Berrío and the floodplains Chucurí and Palagua, each river showed the coexistence of at least two genetic stocks. Homogeneous and non-homogeneous distributions of these genetic stocks along the rivers explain similarities (Cauca, Magdalena, San Jorge, Cesar and Samaná Norte) as well as geographical differences among the rivers analyzed (within Magdalena, including Puerto Berrío and the floodplains Chucurí and Palagua, Sinú, and Atrato). This genetic structure also explains the significant heterozygosity deficit observed in all sites analyzed (Wahlund effect) as discussed above. Similar evidence of the Wahlund effect has been documented in the congener P. costatus, which exhibited genetic differences resulting from temporal isolation (Braga-Silva & Galetti Jr., 2016). Although sampling in this study was not designed to detect temporal genetic structuring, genetic



similarities among samples collected in different years suggest that the Wahlund effect must be more
spatial than temporal. It remains to be seen whether this behavior is natural or artificial, considering that
the restocking activities have been widely implemented along different Colombian rivers.
CONCLUSIONS
This study manifes and deman that Down and along a subject to high constitutional discounting aircrift and in broading
This study provides evidence that <i>P. magdalenae</i> exhibits high genetic diversity, significant inbreeding
levels between 0.075 to 0.239, and plausible signs of erosion of the genetic pool and conforms a mixture
of genetic stocks heterogeneously distributed along the rivers studied. Additionally, this study developed
a set of 11 microsatellite loci that allow the detection of reliable levels of genetic diversity, providing a
tool for monitoring changes in the genetic diversity of the species, brood stocks, and juveniles used for
supportive breeding and for measuring the efficacy of current population reinforcement/restocking
activities. Management and conservation strategies need to be implemented at the level of the basins
Magdalena-Cauca, Sinú, and Atrato concordantly with their genetic population structure.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
The authors thank the Centro Nacional de Secuenciación Genómica, Universidad de Antioquia (Medellín,
Colombia) for assistance in bioinformatic analysis.
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Table 1(on next page)

Primer sequences, characteristics, polymorphism levels, and genetic diversity of 21 species-specific microsatellite loci in 88 individuals of *Prochilodus magdalenae* randomly chosen from the whole sample.

Ta: annealing temperature standardized in PCRs, Na: number alleles per locus; R: allelic size range; PIC: polymorphism information content; H_0 and H_E : observed and expected heterozygosity, respectively; P: statistical significance for tests of departure from Hardy Weinberg equilibrium. Values in bold represent significance after sequential Bonferroni correction.

Locus	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Motif	Ta(°C)	Na	Ra	PIC	Но	He	P	F
Pma39a	F: CCAATGACCTGTTTTCTACATTTGC R: AATCTACTACCCGGATGGCG	G (ATCT)n	58	14	231 - 283	0.860	0.671	0.878	0.002	0.232
Pma25 ^a	F: AAGGGGAAAGAAATCCAGGC R: ATCCTGGGTTCATACCGACG	(AAGGC)n	60	12	174 - 229	0.816	0.795	0.840	0.003	0.048
Pma02 ^a	F: CGACATTCAACATGACAGTGC R: CACCAAATTGATGCAAACTGC	(ATCT)n	58	19	231 - 307	0.917	0.816	0.927	0.019	0.115
Pma35 ^a	F: GCAGTCTGGCATTTTAGTGGC R: ACCACATCTCGCATCACTGG	(ATCT)n	58	21	269 - 353	0.935	0.536	0.944	0.000	0.429
Pma56 ^c	F: ATTTGGTGCCTGTAGCTGGG R: ACGGTCGGTGCACTAATTCC	(ATT)n	60	37	132 - 279	0.949	0.670	0.956	0.000	0.295
Pma01 ^a	F: TTGTCATTTCCCGGTTTTCC R: TGGCCCAGCTGTAATTTGG	(ATCT)n	58	25	216 - 344	0.938	0.753	0.947	0.000	0.200
Pma40 ^a	F: CTGGTTACCCACCACTGTCG R: CACATTGCCATTTGGAGACG	(ATCT)n	58	25	236 - 344	0.932	0.686	0.941	0.000	0.266
Pma46 ^a	F: TTGATGTAAACATCTCATTGCCG R: TTGCTGGAGGTTCTGTCCG	(ATCT)n	56	19	126 - 198	0.918	0.830	0.929	0.005	0.102
Pma36 ^a	F: TCATGATGAAATGCCACACC R: TGCACGTGAACTTAGGCACC	(ATCT)n	58	24	119 - 219	0.925	0.674	0.935	0.000	0.275
Pma18 ^a	F: ACTGAGACAAAACCCGGAGG R: CTTCATACACCCACCATCAGG	(ATT)n	62	13	209 - 251	0.728	0.471	0.755	0.000	0.373
Pma13 ^a	F: CCGAAGCTATTTACCCAGCG R: TGAAATATGCTCGTGCTCCC	(AAAT)n	62	11	154 - 194	0.815	0.670	0.841	0.007	0.198
Pma14 ^a	F: GTTCAGGGTCCTGCTGTTCC R: TTTCGGTGTTGGAACATTGC	(TTC)n	58	21	146 - 209	0.907	0.605	0.919	0.000	0.338
Pma42°	F: TTACACAGCGTCCCAATTCC R: GCTGCAGGGATTGTCCTACC	(ATCT)n	58	25	146 - 254	0.933	0.759	0.942	0.000	0.190
Pma26°	F: TGATGTTTCCTCCCCTCACC R: GTGTTTCCTGCTCTCTGCCC	(ATCTC)n	58	20	141 - 281	0.888	0.553	0.902	0.000	0.383
Pma34 ^{d,e}	F: GAGTGCCGATGACAGAGACG R: CAAGATGCCCTGTAGTGCCC	(ATCT)n	58	24	202 - 406	0.919	0.363	0.930	0.000	0.608
Pma50°	F: GATTCCTTCCTACCGGAGCC ATGAGCACCACCCTCAATCC	R: (ATCT)n	58	30	171 - 299	0.942	0.565	0.950	0.000	0.402

Pma32 ^f	F: GAAAAGACACAACAGCGCCC GTCGCTAATAGCCATGCCG	R:	(ATCT)n	58	13	146 - 294	0.399	0.375	0.430	0.006	0.124
Pma57 ^b	F: ATGGCAATGGTTAAGGGTCG CTGAAAGCCCCTGTTTGTGC	R:	(AAC)n	58	11	191 - 230	0.838	0.306	0.861	0.000	0.643
Pma08 ^{b,e}	F: TTTTATTATTCCCCATTTTCTCCC R: TGGGTTTTGAGCTGTTCTGC		(AAAG)n	58	12	254 - 298	0.833	0.257	0.856	0.000	0.697
Pma17 ^b	F: CTGTGGGCAGCAAAGTGC CTTTGAGCCACTTCAAACGG	R:	(ATT)n	58	36	151 - 346	0.892	0.595	0.904	0.000	0.338
Pma47 ^b	F: TGGCTGCTAAATTAAATCCTTTGG AAGCAAAACCGTTCCACAGC	R:	(ATCT)n	58	21	176 - 280	0.915	0.413	0.928	0.000	0.552
Across loci					20.619	119 - 353	0.867	0.589	0.876	0.000	0.324

^a Satisfied selection criteria, ^b inconsistent amplifications, ^c low definition peaks, ^d dropout, ^e stuttering, ^f > 50% are a single allelic size class.



Table 2(on next page)

Genetic diversity of *Prochilodus magdalenae* in main rivers of the range distribution of the species in Colombian hydrographic areas

N: sample size; Na: number alleles per locus; H_o and H_E : observed and expected heterozygosity, respectively; P: statistical significance for tests of departure from Hardy Weinberg equilibrium. Values in bold represent significance after sequential Bonferroni correction.

River (N)	Diversity	Pma39	Pma25	Pma02	Pma35	Pma01	Pma40	Pma46	Pma36	Pma18	Pma13	Pma14	Across loci
Cauca	Na	19.000	15.000	25.000	25.000	34.000	28.000	21.000	25.000	17.000	13.000	25.000	22.455
(308)	H_{O}	0.662	0.805	0.883	0.591	0.756	0.708	0.818	0.688	0.552	0.821	0.685	0.725
	H_{E}	0.889	0.855	0.935	0.935	0.941	0.944	0.920	0.932	0.775	0.842	0.926	0.898
	P	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	F	0.253	0.056	0.054	0.367	0.195	0.249	0.109	0.260	0.287	0.023	0.259	0.192
Magdalena	Na	15.000	12.000	21.000	22.000	31.000	26.000	18.000	21.000	15.000	12.000	21.000	19.455
(232)	H_{O}	0.664	0.891	0.861	0.642	0.781	0.679	0.818	0.745	0.599	0.854	0.803	0.758
	$H_{\rm E}$	0.874	0.865	0.930	0.941	0.943	0.944	0.925	0.926	0.784	0.833	0.929	0.896
	P	0.000	0.001	0.510	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.058	0.002	0.000
	F	0.237	-0.034	0.071	0.315	0.169	0.278	0.113	0.193	0.234	-0.029	0.132	0.153
San Jorge	Na	10.000	11.000	16.000	19.000	16.000	18.000	14.000	14.000	9.000	9.000	13.000	13.545
(20)	H_{O}	0.850	1.000	0.950	0.700	0.950	0.750	0.900	0.800	0.850	0.700	0.450	0.809
	H_{E}	0.881	0.878	0.947	0.951	0.947	0.942	0.918	0.914	0.831	0.851	0.912	0.884
	P	0.650	0.299	0.645	0.000	0.638	0.002	0.531	0.307	0.009	0.318	0.000	0.000
	F	0.010	-0.168	-0.028	0.245	-0.028	0.184	-0.006	0.102	-0.049	0.157	0.494	0.083
Cesar	Na	10.000	9.000	15.000	16.000	21.000	15.000	13.000	17.000	9.000	8.000	14.000	13.364
(20)	H_{O}	0.500	0.950	1.000	0.750	1.000	0.650	1.000	0.800	0.600	0.800	0.550	0.782
	H_{E}	0.867	0.874	0.940	0.949	0.954	0.940	0.924	0.927	0.815	0.776	0.883	0.873
	P	0.000	0.890	0.947	0.033	0.208	0.002	0.484	0.148	0.097	0.846	0.000	0.000
	F	0.408	-0.114	-0.091	0.189	-0.075	0.291	-0.110	0.115	0.245	-0.058	0.361	0.106
Nare	Na	13.000	13.000	19.000	18.000	25.000	19.000	14.000	20.000	8.000	8.000	15.000	15.636
(41)	H_{O}	0.610	0.780	0.902	0.415	0.780	0.439	0.927	0.805	0.341	0.756	0.488	0.659
	H_{E}	0.887	0.877	0.931	0.930	0.952	0.931	0.912	0.934	0.708	0.781	0.912	0.876
	P	0.002	0.200	0.619	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.792	0.001	0.000	0.357	0.000	0.000
	F	0.304	0.099	0.019	0.549	0.170	0.523	-0.029	0.128	0.512	0.020	0.458	0.250
Sinú	Na	13.000	12.000	19.000	19.000	23.000	18.000	14.000	15.000	8.000	10.000	17.000	15.273
(34)	H_{O}	0.441	0.912	0.912	0.647	0.647	0.824	0.824	0.882	0.735	0.824	0.794	0.767
	H_{E}	0.916	0.867	0.939	0.919	0.936	0.906	0.884	0.921	0.827	0.823	0.904	0.882
	P	0.000	0.064	0.129	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.074	0.004	0.143	0.089	0.036	0.000
	F	0.511	-0.067	0.014	0.285	0.299	0.077	0.055	0.028	0.098	-0.015	0.108	0.127

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Atrato	Na	11.000	9.000	17.000	20.000	22.000	21.000	15.000	15.000	7.000	6.000	18.000	14.636
(30)	$H_{\rm O}$	0.300	0.933	0.900	0.600	0.700	0.700	0.900	0.933	0.667	0.500	0.767	0.718
	H_{E}	0.817	0.849	0.933	0.945	0.946	0.946	0.912	0.920	0.849	0.788	0.933	0.879
	P	0.000	0.409	0.257	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.511	0.995	0.010	0.003	0.002	0.000
	F	0.627	-0.118	0.019	0.354	0.248	0.248	-0.003	-0.032	0.202	0.354	0.164	0.187
Fish Hatchery	Na	11.000	9.000	19.000	16.000	23.000	18.000	14.000	18.000	9.000	8.000	18.000	14.818
(40)	H_{O}	0.750	0.750	0.925	0.500	0.800	0.625	0.725	0.625	0.600	0.675	0.625	0.691
	H_{E}	0.887	0.825	0.940	0.925	0.943	0.919	0.927	0.922	0.795	0.799	0.920	0.880
	P	0.030	0.014	0.625	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.137	0.000	0.000
	F	0.144	0.079	0.004	0.453	0.141	0.312	0.208	0.314	0.236	0.145	0.312	0.213



Table 3(on next page)

Genetic diversity and inbreeding coefficient of *Prochilodus magdalenae* per site and per genetic stock suggested by Structure in the main rivers of the range distribution of the species in Colombian hydrographic areas

N: sample size; Na: number of alleles per locus; H_o and H_E : observed and expected heterozygosity, respectively; F: fixation index; F_{ls} : inbreeding coefficient; P: statistical significance for tests of departure from Hardy Weinberg equilibrium. Values in bold represent significance after sequential Bonferroni correction. ¹ Sampling site on the main stream. ² Sampling site on floodplain lakes .



River	Sampling Site (N)	Na	Но	Не	P	F	Fis	P
	S1 (33)	15.273	0.667	0.878	0.000	0.242	0.255	0.000
	$S2^{1}(30)$	15.727	0.773	0.885	0.000	0.128	0.143	0.000
	S3 (28)	14.182	0.740	0.886	0.000	0.163	0.182	0.000
	S4 (38)	14.818	0.732	0.885	0.000	0.173	0.186	0.000
Cauca	S51 (40)	15.636	0.700	0.885	0.000	0.207	0.221	0.000
	$S6a^{2}(34)$	14.455	0.706	0.864	0.000	0.187	0.197	0.000
	$S6b^{2}(26)$	14.364	0.752	0.881	0.000	0.145	0.165	0.000
	S6c (34)	15.364	0.719	0.879	0.000	0.181	0.196	0.000
	$S8^2 (45)$	15.909	0.743	0.887	0.000	0.158	0.173	0.000
	Pijinio ² (19)	12.273	0.780	0.865	0.000	0.098	0.125	0.000
	Mompox ¹ (19)	13.091	0.770	0.882	0.000	0.126	0.154	0.000
	Palomino ¹ (20)	13.182	0.759	0.869	0.000	0.127	0.152	0.000
	Río Viejo ² (24)	13.909	0.739	0.883	0.000	0.162	0.184	0.000
	Llanito ² (31)	15.000	0.774	0.879	0.000	0.117	0.135	0.000
Magdalena	Barrancabermeja ¹ (24)	13.636	0.727	0.872	0.000	0.164	0.186	0.000
Maguaicha	Chucurí(Ch) ² (32)	15.000	0.699	0.882	0.000	0.212	0.223	0.000
	Puerto Berrío(B) ¹ (28)	14.818	0.714	0.883	0.000	0.197	0.208	0.000
	Palagua $(P)^2$ (35)	17.182	0.792	0.895	0.000	0.117	0.129	0.000
	ChBP Stock1 (28)	13.000	0.698	0.851	0.000	0.213	0.198	0.000
	ChBP Stock2 (48)	18.636	0.759	0.895	0.000	0.197	0.162	0.000
	ChBP Stock3 (14)	9.909	0.695	0.833	0.000	0.122	0.202	0.000
Cauca +	Stock1 (241)	21.182	0.723	0.893	0.000	0.190	0.192	0.000
Magdalena- (ChBP)	Stock2 (285)	21.727	0.742	0.895	0.000	0.179	0.172	0.000
, ,	Caño Grande ¹ (16)	11.000	0.744	0.845	0.000	0.118	0.151	0.000
Sinú	Doctrina ¹ (18)	11.545	0.788	0.867	0.000	0.090	0.120	0.001
A 4 4	Palo Blanco ¹ (19)	12.727	0.722	0.869	0.000	0.173	0.195	0.000
Atrato	Beté ¹ (11)	9.273	0.711	0.791	0.000	0.089	0.149	0.000



Table 4(on next page)

Tests to detect recent genetic bottleneck in *Prochilodus magdalenae* populations

Wilcoxon test probability (one tail for H excess) (Luikart & Cornuet, 1998) calculated by Bottleneck v.1.2.02 (Piry, Luikart, & Cornuet, 1999). M ratio value (Garza & Williamson, 2001), calculated by Arlequin v.3.5.2.2 (Excoffier, Laval, & Schneider, 2005).



River/Stock	IAM	SMM	TPM	M ratio value
Cauca (C)	0.000	0.958	0.027	0.254 ± 0.037
Magdalena (M)	0.000	0.517	0.008	0.219 ± 0.032
Sinú	0.000	0.183	0.000	0.155 ± 0.026
Atrato	0.000	0.584	0.062	0.151 ± 0.022
Fish Hatchery	0.000	0.382	0.001	0.173 ± 0.022
Chucurí (Ch)	0.000	0.232	0.001	0.156 ± 0.067
Puerto Berrío (B)	0.000	0.074	0.000	0.154 ± 0.067
Palagua (P)	0.000	0.740	0.005	0.175 ± 0.051
ChBP Stock1	0.000	0.958	0.103	0.160 ± 0.239
ChBP Stock2	0.000	0.551	0.000	0.228 ± 0.050
ChBP Stock3	0.002	0.551	0.160	0.126 ± 0.021
CM Stock1	0.000	0.997	0.027	0.240 ± 0.044
CM Stock2	0.000	0.966	0.003	0.245 ± 0.025



Table 5(on next page)

Parameters estimated using Bayesian likelihood method for searching candidate loci under selection

P: posterior probability of the model including selection; $Log_{10}(PO)$: the logarithm of posterior odds to base 10 for the model including selection; qval: minimum false discovery rate at which a locus may become significant; alpha: locus-specific component shared by all populations using a logistic regression, indicating the strength and direction of the selection; F_{ST} coefficient to measure the difference in allele frequency between the common gene pool and each subpopulation, calculated as a posterior mean using model averaging.



Locus	Prob.	$Log_{10}(po)$	Qval	Alpha	F_{st}
Pma39	0.883	0.880	0.017	-1.470	0.008
Pma25	0.987	1.890	0.002	-2.062	0.004
Pma02	0.999	3.220	0.000	-2.002	0.004
Pma35	0.998	2.660	0.000	-1.862	0.005
Pma01	0.122	-0.860	0.141	0.078	0.028
Pma40	1.000	1000	0.000	1.210	0.082
Pma46	0.048	-1.300	0.215	0.000	0.026
Pma36	1.000	1000	0.000	-2.589	0.002
Pma18	0.599	0.170	0.059	0.416	0.039
Pma13	1.000	1000	0.000	1.384	0.095
Pma14	1.000	1000	0.000	-2.116	0.004



Table 6(on next page)

Pairwise Jost's Dest (upper diagonal) and F'_{ST} (below diagonal) of *Prochilodus* magdalenae samples among rivers of the range distribution of the species in Colombian hydrographic areas

Values in bold denote statistical significance after Bonferroni correction.



River/Deme	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Cauca		0.065	0.009	0.010	-0.003	0.020	0.146	0.146	0.105
2. Magdalena	0.004		0.033	0.052	0.047	0.086	0.219	0.182	0.134
3. Magdalena-ChBP	0.002	0.003		0.019	-0.007	0.013	0.152	0.134	0.103
4. Cesar	0.008	0.010	0.009		-0.010	0.025	0.104	0.139	0.042
5. San Jorge	0.008	0.010	0.008	0.014		0.007	0.108	0.156	0.114
6. Nare	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.013	0.012		0.156	0.132	0.097
7. Sinú	0.013	0.016	0.014	0.017	0.018	0.017		0.202	0.209
8. Atrato	0.014	0.015	0.014	0.020	0.021	0.017	0.021		0.149
9. Fish Hatchery	0.010	0.011	0.011	0.013	0.018	0.014	0.020	0.018	

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Table 7(on next page)

Pairwise Jost's Dest (upper diagonal) and F'_{ST} (below diagonal) of *Prochilodus magdalenae* samples among sites of the rivers Cauca and Magdalena.

Values in bold denote statistical significance after Bonferroni correction.



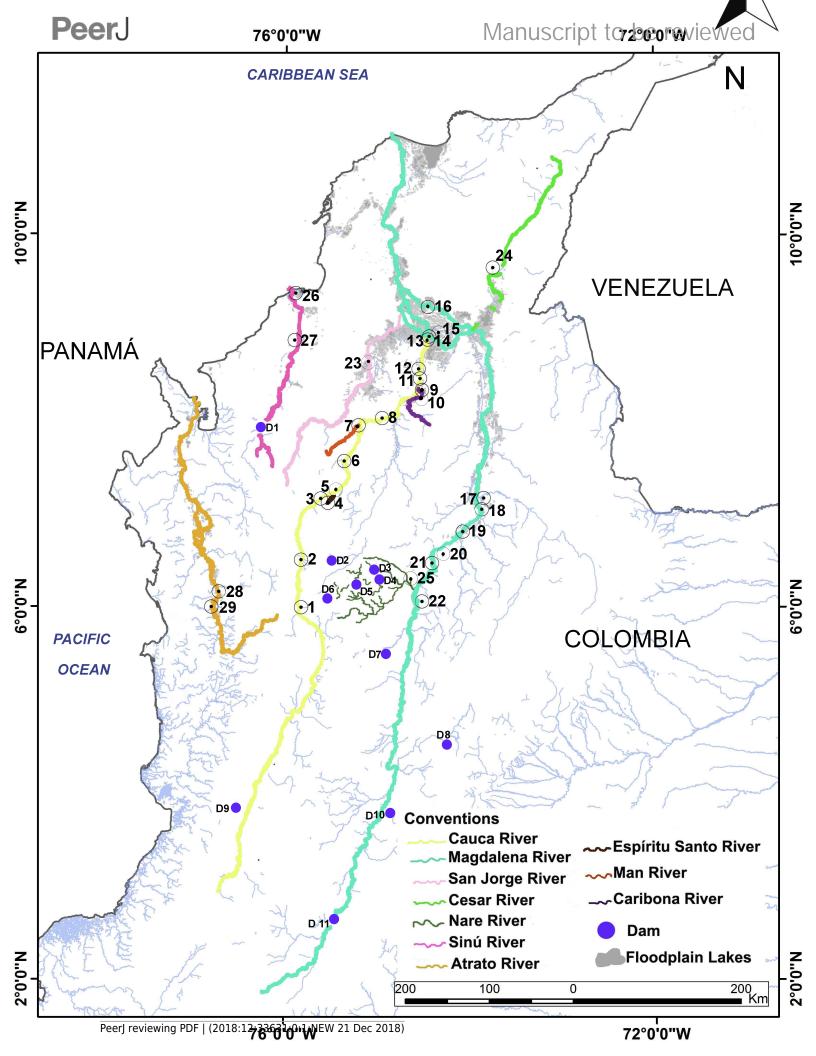
River	Sampling site	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	1. S1		0.023	0.069	0.050	0.000	0.066	0.014	0.056	0.023
	2. S2	0.011		0.059	0.006	0.007	0.020	0.020	0.036	-0.003
	3. S3	0.014	0.013		0.023	0.018	0.096	0.043	0.060	0.001
	4. S4	0.012	0.009	0.010		0.007	0.062	0.045	0.056	0.018
Cauca	5. S5	0.009	0.009	0.010	0.008		0.050	0.013	0.021	0.015
	6. S6a	0.013	0.010	0.016	0.012	0.011		0.052	0.038	0.044
	7. S6b	0.011	0.012	0.013	0.012	0.010	0.013		0.073	0.002
	8. S6c	0.013	0.011	0.013	0.012	0.010	0.011	0.014		0.003
	9. S8	0.009	0.008	0.009	0.008	0.008	0.010	0.009	0.008	
	1. Pijiño		0.046	0.081	0.092	0.039	0.038	0.414	0.387	0.312
	2. Mompox	0.018		0.014	0.027	-0.001	0.006	0.325	0.358	0.216
	3. Palomino	0.020	0.016		0.082	0.006	-0.019	0.416	0.373	0.273
	4. Rio Viejo	0.019	0.015	0.018		-0.005	0.013	0.400	0.411	0.277
Magdalena	5. Llanito	0.014	0.012	0.012	0.011		-0.041	0.381	0.395	0.245
	6. Barrancabermeja	0.016	0.014	0.012	0.013	0.008		0.356	0.350	0.238
	7. Chucurí	0.036	0.029	0.035	0.032	0.031	0.031		0.018	0.059
	8. Puerto Berrío	0.035	0.031	0.033	0.033	0.032	0.031	0.011		-0.006
	9. Palagua	0.028	0.022	0.026	0.024	0.022	0.023	0.012	0.009	



Figure 1(on next page)

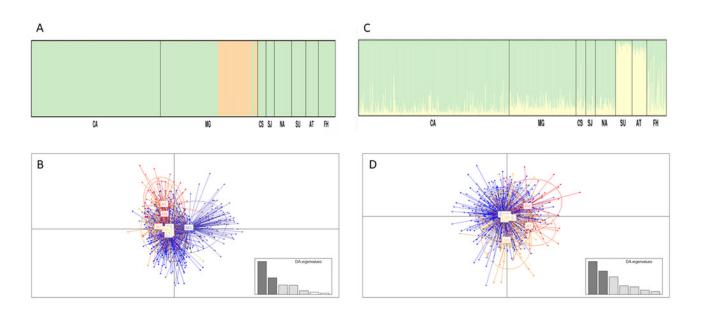
Prochilodus magdalenae sampling sites (numbers) in the Colombian Magdalena-Cauca and Caribe hydrographic areas.

Cauca River: Antioquia Department: Bolombolo (1), Puente Real (2), Gurimán (3), Espíritu Santo River (4), Valdivia Stream (5), Cáceres (6), Man River (7), Margento (8). Bolívar Department: Floodplain Lakes Grande (9), Caimanera (10) and Panela (13), Achí (12). Sucre Department: Guaranda (11). Magdalena River: Bolívar Department: Palomino (14), Mompox (16). Magdalena Department: Pijiño Floodplain Lake (15). Santander Department: Barrancabermeja (18), Floodplain Lakes Llanito (17), Chucurí (19), Río Viejo (20). Antioquia Department: Puerto Berrío (21). Boyacá Department: Palagua Floodplain Lake (22). San Jorge River: San Marcos River, Sucre Department (23). Cesar River: Mata de Palma Floodplain Lake, El Paso, Cesar Department (24). Nare River: Samaná Norte River, Antioquia Department (25). Sinú River: Córdoba Department: Caño Grande (26), Doctrina (27). Atrato River: Antioquia Department: Palo Blanco (29). Chocó Department: Beté (28). Dams: D1: Urra I, D2: Ríogrande, D3: San Lorenzo, D4: Playas, D5: El Peñol, D6: La Fe, D7: Miel, D8: Muña, D9: Calima, D10: Río Prado, D11: Betania.



Bar plot of population ancestry coefficients as estimated by Structure (A, C) and discriminant analysis of principal components (B, D) of *Prochilodus magdalenae* from the Colombian hydrographic areas Magdalena-Cauca and Caribe.

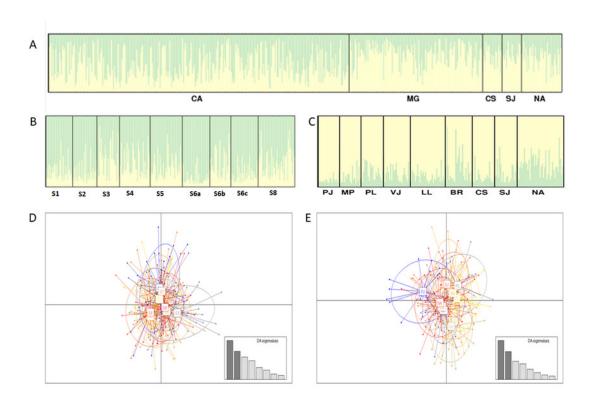
Plots are provided for the whole sample including (A, B) and excluding (C, D) populations with outlier loci, Magdalena River and tributaries, Sinú River, and Atrato River (C). Q-matrixes were consensus estimates produced by CLUMPP across 20 iterations of Structure. CA: Cauca River; MG: Magdalena River; CS: Cesar River, SJ: San Jorge River; NA: Nare River; SU: Sinú River; AT: Atrato River; FH: fish hatchery.





Bar plot of population ancestry coefficients as estimated by Structure (A, B, C) and discriminant analysis of principal components (D, E) of *Prochilodus magdalenae* from different sites of the Magdalena River and tributaries

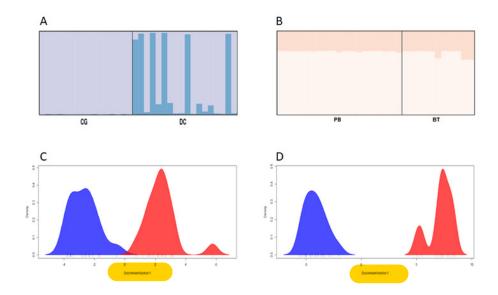
CA: Cauca River; MG: Magdalena River; CS: Cesar River; SJ: San Jorge River; NA: Nare River; S1–S9: sections of Cauca River (Table 1); PJ: Pijiño; MP: Mompós; PL: Palomino; VJ: Viejo River; LL: Llanito; BR: Barrancabermeja.





Bar plot of population ancestry coefficients as estimated by Structure (A, B, C) and discriminant analysis of principal components (D, E) of *Prochilodus magdalenae* from the rivers Sinú and Atrato

CG: Caño Grande; DC: Doctrina; PB: Palo Blanco; BT: Beté.



Bayesian phylogenetic tree of Prochilodus based on partial sequences of cox1 gene

Color denotes different clusters. Node supports indicate posterior probability > 0.95. Red and yellow circles denote haplotypes shared with the population that exhibit outlier loci.

