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**Microgeographic genetic diversity of wild steelhead trout  
(*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) in a conservation hatchery operated coastal  
river: How wild are they?**

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Running title: Microgeographic genetic diversity in wild and hatchery steelhead

Key words: Steelhead, wild, hatchery, population structure, genetic impact, conservation

32 *Abstract* - Allelic variation at 10 microsatellite loci was assayed in potentially wild *Oncorhynchus mykiss*  
33 collected from 11 tributaries and three upper main stem river sites (n=547), and compared to steelhead  
34 trout from the hatchery operated in the lower main stem river (n=333). The objective was to investigate  
35 microgeographic genetic structure of wild *O. mykiss*, in the face of large-scale hatchery stocking since  
36 1984. Measures of genetic diversity within wild samples indicated diversity were similar to what has  
37 previously been documented for wild populations. The level of microgeographic site subdivision ( $\theta$ ) was  
38 significant ( $\theta = 0.031$ ), indicating moderate structure, and much higher than among sites located in the  
39 lower river where the hatchery operates ( $\theta = 0.004$ ). Bayesian assignment clustering was used to infer  
40 genetic ancestry without relying on prior information about sampling sites of individuals, and indicated  
41 the existence of five or more, wild *O. mykiss* populations. The overall spatial pattern, however, identified  
42 no clearly separate sites, but what appeared as an overlapping mosaic of modestly genetically divergent  
43 localities. We conclude that wild *O. mykiss* populations exist in the tributaries and the upper main stem  
44 river and its tributaries. These upper river populations appear to have retained genetic diversity and  
45 differentiation in the face of extensive hatchery releases.

## Introduction

46  
47  
48 Natural animal populations may be influenced negatively by introduction of domesticated individuals.  
49 Nowhere has this management practice been of the same scale as in fisheries. Releases of cultured fish and  
50 their subsequent potential interbreeding with wild populations may have complex genetic effects (e.g.  
51 Hindar et al. 1991; Utter 1998; Reisenbichler 2005), and the precautionary principle dictates caution with  
52 such management practices. If genetic effects on performance traits are documented they tend to be  
53 negative and related to the genetic introgression of non-native and/or hatchery reared fish with the wild  
54 stocks (e.g. Chilcote et al. 1986; Reisenbichler and Rubin 1999; Kostow et al. 2003). A better option is to  
55 use native brood stock, presumably genetically similar to the wild fish, and in sufficient numbers to guard  
56 against genetic drift (conservation hatcheries; e.g. Heggenes et al. 2006, Taylor et al. 2006), although  
57 hatchery production problems related to the potential for altered directional or “relaxed” selection (Lynch  
58 and O’Hely 2001, Ford 2002) and phenotypic changes (Kostow 2004; Kostow and Zhou 2006) are still  
59 potential problems. Regardless of the kind of hatchery operation, a major concern remains: the  
60 conservation of population structure and diversity of wild fish populations in watersheds influenced by  
61 hatchery operation. An understanding of under what ecological conditions and conservation schemes wild  
62 populations may be sustained in the face of hatchery operations is of considerable scientific and  
63 management interest (Brannon et al. 2004; Reisenbichler 2005, Narum et al. 2006a,b).  
64  
65 In North America and throughout the world where it has been widely naturalized, there is extensive  
66 hatchery production of steelhead trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) a genetically variable species (Busby et al.  
67 1996; Beacham et al. 1999, 2004; Heath et al. 2001, 2002; Hendry et al. 2002). In a previous study there  
68 was little genetic effect from twenty years of extensive conservation hatchery operation in the boreal  
69 coastal Kitimat River (Heggenes et al. 2006). This river contains one population in the lower main stem  
70 river that is directly influenced by stocking (Fig. 1). There were, however, indications in the data that the  
71 watershed might sustain additional wild populations particularly in the upper river that was not extensively

72 sampled by Heggenes et al. (2006). Relatively little is known about potential micro-geographic genetic  
73 differentiation in steelhead trout (Hendry et al. 2002; Narum et al. 2006a,b; Olsen et al. 2006), even  
74 though this is crucial for conservation and management programmes to maintain natural biodiversity.  
75 Other well studied salmonids tend to show extensive micro spatio-temporal genetic differentiation in  
76 particular when resident (e.g. Carlsson et al. 1999; Wofford et al. 2005; Yamamoto et al. 2004), but also  
77 for anadromous populations in small (e.g. Carlsson and Nilsson 2000; Wenburg and Bentzen 2001;  
78 Ostergaard et al. 2003) as well as larger systems (e.g. Hansen et al. 2002; see review in Youngson *et al.*  
79 2003). These studies tended to focus on small scale spatial structure among small streams and little work  
80 has examined spatial structure within individual streams, e.g. in steelhead trout (Beacham et al. 2004;  
81 Aguilar and Garza 2006). Therefore, we addressed the conservation issue of identifying the structure and  
82 diversity of potentially wild *O. mykiss* populations remaining in the Kitimat River watershed after more  
83 than 20 years of extensive stocking in the lower main stem river. The objectives were to use DNA  
84 obtained from *O. mykiss* in all major tributaries and the upper main stem river to (1) test if wild genetic  
85 variation remained in the watershed, (2) identify microgeographic genetic structure of wild *O. mykiss*  
86 populations in the Kitimat River, and (3) compare with the previously collected hatchery data to assess a  
87 potential impact of more than 20 years of large-scale hatchery operation on natural genetic structure and  
88 molecular variation in *O. mykiss* in regions of the enhanced stream that are more distant from the main  
89 operations of the hatchery.

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## Methods and materials

93

94 The Kitimat River on the north coast of British Columbia (Fig. 1; watershed approximately 217 000  
95 hectares, water discharge range 19.4 - 1 670.7 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>; mean annual discharge 148.8 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) is approximately  
96 65km long and with ten major tributaries (Fig. 1; Wedeene and Little Wedeene Rivers, Hirsch, Nalbeelah,

97 Humphrys, Cecil, Chist, McKay, Hunter, and Davies creeks). The fish fauna is dominated by Pacific  
98 salmon (chinook (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*), coho (*O. kisutch*), pink (*O. gorbuscha*), chum (*O. keta*),  
99 and sockeye salmon (*O. nerka*) and kokanee), winter and summer run steelhead including non-  
100 anadromous rainbow trout, and coastal cutthroat trout (*O. clarki clarki*). Also found are Dolly Varden char  
101 (*Salvelinus malma*), threespine stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*), prickly (*Cottus asper*) and staghorn  
102 (*Leptocottus armatus*) sculpins, eulachon (*Thaleichthys pacificus*), Rocky Mountain whitefish (*Prosopium*  
103 *williamsoni*), and Pacific lamprey (*Lampetra tridentata*). The annual steelhead hatchery release, since  
104 1984, is  $50\,932 \pm \text{SD } 8107$  smolts (range 34 420 - 64 297) at seven to eight localities in the lower main  
105 stem Kitimat River (Fig. 1; see Heggenes et al. 2006 for details). It is the only hatchery in the region.

106

#### 107 *Field sampling*

108 Samples from potentially wild steelhead trout were collected in the fall 2004 and spring 2005 by  
109 electrofishing (Smith-Root, Inc. – Model 12-B POW, Vancouver, WA., USA) one site in each of 11  
110 tributaries where they could be accessed (Fig. 1, Appendix; Hirsch Creek, Wedeene and Little Wedeene  
111 Rivers, Nalbeelah, Humphrys, Deception, Cecil, Chist, McKay/Boulton, Tatlock, and Davies creeks), and  
112 three sites in the upper main stem Kitimat River (Fig. 1, Appendix; upstream Chist Creek confluence,  
113 downstream Hunter Creek confluence, and upstream Davies Creek confluence). Total fish length (mm)  
114 was recorded and tissue was clipped from the adipose fin and stored individually in 96% ethanol. Sampled  
115 steelhead trout were 1+ or older (9 of 14 sites), to avoid family effects, which may cause more genetic  
116 differentiation in 0+ than for older fish (Carlsson and Carlsson 2002). Exceptions where additional 0+  
117 (<60mm) were used to obtain a sufficiently large sample size for powerful statistical analysis, were:  
118 Wedeene and Little Wedeene rivers (42% and 17%, respectively), Nalbeelah Creek (12%), Tatlock Creek  
119 (57%), and mainstem Kitimat River downstream of Hunter Creek (44%). To provide some reference for  
120 our comparisons within the Kitimat River, wild steelhead trout population samples were also collected  
121 from the upper Kasiks River (at Huckleberry Creek, 17.5 km upstream of the Kasiks/Skeena river  
122 confluence), a tributary in the neighboring Skeena River watershed.

123

124 *Microsatellite DNA*

125 Total genomic DNA was extracted using Qiagen DNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen Inc.), and further analysis

126 followed the same standard procedures as in Heggenes et al. (2006). Genetic variation was assayed at 10

127 polymorphic microsatellite DNA loci previously used for *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Heggenes et al. 2006;

128 Taylor et al. 2007).

129

130 *Data analysis*

131 Descriptive statistics of microsatellite loci and populations included number of samples (N), allelic

132 richness ( $A_r$ ), number of alleles ( $N_a$ ), expected heterozygosity ( $H_e$ ), and observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ) and

133 which were compiled using Genepop version 3.4 (Raymond and Rousset 1995) and Fstat version 2.9.3

134 (Goudet 1995, 2002). These computer packages were also used to test for deviations from Hardy-

135 Weinberg equilibrium (HWE), genotypic linkage disequilibrium, and pair-wise population differentiation.

136

137 Genetic differentiations among sites were quantified using  $F_{ST}$  as estimated by  $\theta$  (Weir and Cockerham

138 1984) and the 95% confidence intervals and partitioning of differentiation (sig w = within individuals, sig

139 a = among sites, sig b = within sites) were obtained using Fstat (version 2.9.3; Goudet 2002, with 5000

140 permutations). To guard against inflated Type I error rates in multiple comparisons, critical significance

141 levels for simultaneous tests were evaluated using the conservative standard and also sequential

142 Bonferroni adjustments (Rice 1989, but see Moran 2003). Fstat was also used to group data to compare

143 contrasts.

144

145 Genetic distances among pairs of sites were estimated with Cavalli-Sforza and Edward's (1967) chord

146 distance (C-S chord distance) calculated in the Phylip software package (Felsenstein 1993). Cavalli-

147 Sforza and Edward's chord distances were used to build an unrooted neighbor-joining tree to visualize the

148 genetic relationships among sites (1000 bootstraps). Isolation by distance was investigated by regressing  
149 microgeographic distance on pairwise genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$ ; Rousset 1997).

150  
151 As an independent control, the Bayesian assignment program Structure (Pritchard et al. 2000) provided  
152 inference of genetic ancestry without relying on information about sampling sites of individuals. It places  
153 individuals into  $K$  clusters (representing potential populations), where  $K$  is chosen in advance but can be  
154 varied across independent runs of the algorithm. Individuals can have membership in multiple clusters,  
155 with membership coefficients summing to 1 across clusters. The log likelihood of our data set ( $\ln P(X$   
156  $| K)$ ) was estimated given different numbers of  $K$  genetic clusters, and Bayes' theorem was used to  
157 calculate the probability ( $\alpha$ ) of each  $K$ -value. We used an admixture model with uniform priors, correlated  
158 allele frequencies, 100 000 burning cycles and 500 000 MCMC iterations. For each  $K$ -value we used the  
159 mean log likelihood of our data set ( $\ln P(D | K)$ ) from several runs. To verify the most probable  $K$  value,  
160 we checked the variance among runs since runs with higher  $K$  values than the true value often involve  
161 higher posterior probabilities, but with a higher variance.

162  
163 Using PCA-Gen (Goudet 1999), principal components analysis (PCA) was conducted on allele frequency  
164 data as a comparative method to summarize genetic differentiation among all samples. Microsatellite allele  
165 frequencies were also tested for evidence of recent bottlenecks in steelhead trout. The mode-shift test with  
166 default values as implemented in Bottleneck (Cornuet and Luikart 1997). The TPM (Two-Phased Model  
167 of Mutation) mode shift test assumes that the populations are near mutation-drift equilibrium and is  
168 intermediate to mutation model (infinite alleles or stepwise mutation) for microsatellite loci (Luikart et al.  
169 1998).

170

171

172

## Results



173  
174 Microsatellite variation across 477 individuals from 14 different sites in the Kitimat River watershed and  
175 at 10 microsatellite loci amplified collectable results. An additional 9 individuals were from the outlying  
176 upper Kasiks River in the Skeena watershed.

177  
178 *Genetic variation within populations*  
179 The number of alleles observed across all individuals in the Kitimat River watershed ranged from 2  
180 (*Ssa197*) to 35 (*Okia3*) with an average of  $12.9 \pm \text{SD } 9.3743$  alleles per locus (Appendix) and 139 alleles in  
181 total. Mean allelic richness ( $A_r$  in Appendix) across sites and loci was  $4.81 \pm \text{SD } 2.52$ . It did not vary much  
182 among sites, from the mean  $4.46 \pm \text{SD } 2.46$  in the main stem Kitimat River downstream of the Hunter Creek  
183 confluence to  $4.95 \pm \text{SD } 2.55$  in Deception Creek (2-way ANOVA,  $P = 0.2682$ ), but varied considerably  
184 among loci, from 1.27 for *Ots103* to 10.68 for *Okia3* (2-way ANOVA,  $P < 0.0001$ ; Appendix). Observed  
185 heterozygosity ( $H_o$  in Appendix) averaged  $0.5488 \pm \text{SD } 0.2216$  across all sites and loci, with no significant  
186 differences across sites (2-way ANOVA,  $P = 0.1755$ ; range from  $0.4852 \pm \text{SD } 0.2251$  at mainstem Kitimat  
187 River downstream of the Hunter Creek confluence to  $0.6118 \pm \text{SD } 0.2381$  at Davies Creek). Differences  
188 were, however, substantial among loci (2-way ANOVA,  $P < 0.0001$ ; range from  $0.1091 \pm \text{SD } 0.0684$  for  
189 *Ots103* to  $0.8803 \pm 0.1017$  for *Okia3*; Appendix). The diversity measures  $H_o$  and  $A_r$  were significantly  
190 correlated with each other (simple linear Model 2 regression,  $r^2 = 0.57$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ).

191  
192 All ten microsatellites were in linkage equilibrium for all locus pairs across all sites ( $P > 0.05$ ; except  
193 *Oneu8* x *Ssa197*,  $P = 0.0128$ ) suggesting that loci segregate independently from one another. Loci and  
194 sites were generally in HWE (Appendix). Out of 150 probability tests (15 sites and 10 loci), seven  
195 significant departures from HWE were found, about as expected under a 5% Type I error (Bonferroni  
196 adjusted, sequential; 9 departures). Four of these exceptions were found at the *Oneu8* locus, while the  
197 remaining three were spread among three separate loci and sites (Appendix).

198

199 *Genetic differentiation*

200 The number and frequencies of alleles ( $N_a$  in Appendix) per locus, as a measure of genetic diversity,  
201 differed significantly among sites (G-like tests;  $P < 0.0005$ ) for each of the ten loci independently, except  
202 for *Ots3* and *Ssa197* ( $P = 0.0976$  and  $0.6427$ , respectively), and for all loci combined across sites  
203 ( $P < 0.0001$ , Fishers' method).

204  
205 Similarly, there was genetic differentiation among sites sampled in the Kitimat River watershed, as  
206 expressed by  $\theta$  (Table 1). When the 14 different Kitimat sites and the Kasiks River sample were analyzed,  
207 the overall subdivision was  $\theta = 0.032$  (95% C.I. 0.009-0.070). Most of the genetic variation resided within  
208 individual fish (i.e. heterozygosity; 86.4%). Of the remaining variation, the variation among sites (3.2%)  
209 constituted about one third of the variation within sites (10.5%). More than half of the pair-wise site  $\theta$   
210 comparisons for differences in allele frequencies summed across all 10 loci were significant (55 of 105  
211 comparisons; Table 1). Non significant results were spread among site comparisons. *O. mykiss* in the  
212 Wedeene and Little Wedeene rivers, and Nalbeelah, Cecil and Tetlock creeks, appeared to be the most  
213 distinct populations (Table 1), comparable to the Kasiks River sample which was significantly different  
214 from nine of the fourteen sites sampled in the Kitimat River watershed (Table 1). Power in the Kasiks  
215 River tests was limited due to the few fish ( $n = 9$ ) captured. All the larger  $\theta$  values, however, were  
216 associated with the Kasiks River outgroup (Table 1). Unique alleles ( $n = 20$ ) were spread among ten sites  
217 (1 to 7 per site).

218  
219 Including the previously analyzed Kitimat River lower main stem hatchery population (for details see  
220 Heggenes et al. 2006) in this analysis did not change our results substantially. The overall  $\theta$  increased  
221 slightly to 0.038 (95% C.I. 0.007-0.096). As before, about half of the pair-wise site  $\theta$  comparisons for  
222 differences in allele frequencies summed across all 10 loci were significant (59 of 121 comparisons). The  
223 lower main stem hatchery population itself, however, was distinct from all the other sites, except

224 Nalbeelah and Cecil creeks ( $\theta = 0.006$  and  $0.005$ , respectively). Somewhat fewer alleles were found  
225 among the lower main stem population than among the wild *O. mykiss* (115 and 131, respectively).

226  
227 A contrasting group comparison between wild *O. mykiss* from the upper Kitimat River and hatchery lower  
228 main stem steelhead, indicated significant differentiation for gene diversity measures ( $A_r = 3.99$  and  $3.78$   
229  $P = 0.0006$ ;  $\theta = 0.031$  and  $0.004$ ,  $P = 0.0044$ ; but not  $H_o$ ,  $P = 0.6392$ ; one sided tests). Three alleles were  
230 only found in the lower main stem river, whereas 34 alleles were unique to the wild *O. mykiss* sites.

231  
232 The Cavalli-Sforza genetic chord distances corroborated with results obtained from pair-wise sample site  
233 tests for genetic differences. There was genetic divergence among wild *O. mykiss* with overall mean  
234 genetic distance  $0.0422 \pm SD 0.0201$ . The most divergent sites (populations) among the wild Kitimat River  
235 *O. mykiss* samples were Little Wedeene River and Tatlock Creek (C-S genetic distance  $0.0696$ ). The  
236 Neighbor-Joining (N-J) generated tree indicated a rather evenly distributed grouping of the Kitimat River  
237 wild *O. mykiss* (Fig. 2, upper panel). No striking distinctions with high bootstrap support were found to  
238 distinguish specific sites and there was no obvious pattern of isolation-by-distance ( $P = 0.8788$ ) or that  
239 populations tended to get more distinct the farther away there were from hatchery stocking sites ( $P =$   
240  $0.8403$ ). With the lower main stem hatchery population included (Fig. 2, lower panel), it constituted a  
241 modest outgroup, and with the highest bootstrap support of all ( $0.658$ ).

242  
243 Clustering the wild Kitimat steelhead data without relying on information about sampling sites using the  
244 Structure algorithm corroborated these results (Fig. 3), i.e. some population structuring, but less than  
245 number and distance among sampling sites may suggest. The analysis suggested  $K \sim 5$ , i.e. partitioning of  
246 the genetic variation into five clusters was probable (Fig. 3). More clusters would improve the model fit  
247 slightly, but at the cost of increased variance, i.e. uncertainty.

248

249 Spatial ordination of samples of wild steelhead using PCA (Fig. 4) on the microsatellite allele frequencies  
250 did not indicate any clear groupings of sites. The results were not influenced when the Kitimat River lower  
251 main stem hatchery population was included in the analysis, did not influence this result.

252  
253 Testing for potential bottlenecks indicated that none of the sampled sites had allele frequency class  
254 distributions consistent with having undergone recent bottlenecks (all loci fit the TPM-model, Wilcoxon  
255 two-tailed tests,  $p > 0.1934$ ).

256

257

## 258 **Discussion**

259

### 260 *Genetic variation within samples*

261 Average observed heterozygosities of 0.49 to 0.61 (mean 0.55) for the upper Kitimat River wild *O. mykiss*  
262 is similar to that previously documented for the lower main stem hatchery influenced steelhead population  
263 (mean 0.58, range 0.51-0.62 across years; Heggenes et al. 2006), and consistent with values reported for  
264 steelhead from other regions in British Columbia (Beacham et al. 2000, 2004; Heath et al. 2001; Hendry et  
265 al. 2002; Taylor et al. 2006) and in other North American portions of the species range (e.g. Aguilar and  
266 Garza 2006; Narum et al. 2006a,b; Olsen et al. 2006). Allelic richness was higher for the upper Kitimat  
267 River wild *O. mykiss* than that previously observed for the hatchery influenced lower main stem  
268 population across loci and years (mean  $A_r = 4.81$  and  $3.78$ , respectively, Heggenes et al. 2006), but not  
269 when lower main stem steelhead were pooled as one population ( $A_r = 4.56$ ).

270

### 271 *Genetic differentiation among samples*

272 Examination of microsatellite variation indicated population differentiation among the wild samples  
273 (overall subdivision  $\theta = 0.032$ ), and much higher than previously found among year-classes for the

274 hatchery influenced lower Kitimat River adult steelhead (overall  $\theta = 0.004$ , not significantly different from  
275 0; Heggenes et al. 2006). Including the previously analyzed lower Kitimat River hatchery population,  
276 increased subdivision only slightly (overall  $\theta = 0.038$ ). The lower main stem hatchery population itself,  
277 however, differentiated from all the other sites, except Nalbeelah and Cecil creeks ( $\theta = 0.006$  and  $0.005$ ,  
278 respectively). Therefore, the presumably wild upper Kitimat river *O. mykiss* populations show, and appear  
279 to have retained, considerable genetic differentiation, including many unique alleles, in spite of hatchery  
280 operations in the lower river. This is likely to reflect still intact natural population differentiation.  
281 Unfortunately, no temporal analysis is possible to indicate any changes in this natural population  
282 subdivision, because no tissue material has previously been collected from the upper Kitimat River.

283  
284 The microgeographic within river population differentiation among wild *O. mykiss* in the upper Kitimat  
285 River, is higher than found in some other recent and more limited studies, e.g. between two adjacent sites  
286 (15km) in the Gulkana River, Alaska ( $F_{ST} = 0.019-0.028$ ) indicating “moderate population structure”  
287 (Olsen et al. 2006). Narum et al. (2004) inferred genetic structuring based on samples from the main stem  
288 Walla Walla River, Washington, and a major tributary (Touchet River) with a calculated  $F_{ST} = 0.023$ , i.e.  
289 also lower than in the upper Kitimat River. In the Klickitat River in the same area, a non-native hatchery  
290 strain differentiated from native stocks ( $F_{ST} = 0.078$ ), but differentiation among native fish was lower ( $F_{ST}$   
291  $\leq 0.057$ , except a divergent population above a waterfall; Narum et al. 2006a). Mixture analysis indicated  
292 six to seven populations. In the Grande Ronde River, Oregon, differentiation among three wild and one  
293 hatchery population was much smaller than in the Kitimat River ( $F_{ST} = 0.005-0.016$ ; Narum et al. 2006b).  
294 Hendry et al. (2002) concluded that early and late run steelhead in the Dean River, BC, constituted  
295 separate populations with an  $F_{ST} = 0.007$ , i.e. much lower than we found in the upper Kitimat River.

296  
297 On a larger stream scale, Beacham et al. (2000, 2004) reported “moderate differentiation” among steelhead  
298 populations for nine rivers in the neighboring Skeena watershed, with overall  $F_{ST} = 0.066$ . This is

299 comparable to differentiation found among separate river systems in coastal California (overall  $F_{ST}$  =  
300 0.075; Aguilar and Garza 2006).

301  
302 On a temporal scale, Heath et al. (2002) found little change in genetic diversity and structure over 40 years  
303 in three wild steelhead populations from separate rivers in the Skeena River watershed, BC, but reported  
304 substantial among-year variation within localities ( $F_{ST}$  ranged from 0.028 to 0.056, samples sizes 24-30;  
305 Heath et al. 2002). Contrary to this, Narum et al. (2006b) reported more variation among sites than  
306 between years, but in smaller spatio-temporal samples (4 sites, 2 years).

307  
308 *Wild populations*  
309 Previous samples from the lower Kitimat River were generally in HWE with a notable exception for the  
310 year 1977, which suggested that the sample included individuals from more than one population. These  
311 1977 samples were collected from steelhead caught by anglers along the entire Kitimat River up to Hunter  
312 Creek (i.e. about 45 km above the lower mainstem Kitimat River; Fig. 1). Detection of unique alleles  
313 found only during the year of 1977 ( $n = 8$ ) also supported the idea that more than one population had been  
314 sampled. Of 16 alleles previously found to be unique to pre-hatchery steelhead in the lower river (Heggnes  
315 et al 2006), eight were found in the wild samples. The present genetic study confirms that significant  
316 genetic structuring in *O. mykiss* exists in the upper Kitimat River. The lower Kitimat River steelhead  
317 appeared to be quite distinct from the upper river. Pairwise site comparisons and Bayesian assignment  
318 model-based clustering indicated population subdivision with the most likely population structure being  
319 five distinct populations.

320  
321 *Genetic variation in sympatric wild and hatchery steelhead*

322 A variety of genetic effects of releasing hatchery-reared progeny into the wild have been reported (e.g.  
323 Utter 1998; Brannon et al. 2004; Reisenbichler 2005). Most such studies, however, involve release of non-  
324 native stocks of fish (e.g. Chilcote 2003; Kostow et al. 2003; Narum et al. 2006a,b). By contrast, Kitimat

325 River steelhead brood stock was always collected annually from indigenous unclipped fish, i.e.  
326 presumably wild steelhead dating back to pre-hatchery enhancement. In a ‘worst’ case they could be  
327 second generation hatchery fish.

328  
329 Depending on number of brood fish used, release of cultured fish from local brood stock may also have  
330 negative effects on genetic variation in wild fish populations through changes in allele frequencies and  
331 loss of rare alleles via random sampling error and genetic drift. Recent temporal studies have not detected  
332 genetic effects in steelhead (Heggenes et al. 2006; Taylor et al. 2006). These results do not, however,  
333 necessarily indicate there have been no genetic changes of any kind. Relatively few microsatellites have  
334 been studied (10), out of thousands that occur in the genome, although we may reasonably assume that  
335 they reflect genome-wide variation. However, other loci may be more variable, and thus more sensitive to  
336 genetic changes. The studied microsatellite loci represent neutral genetic loci, which may not necessarily  
337 be a relevant proxy measure for genetic variation responsible for phenotypic traits. However, a recent  
338 study of California coastal steelhead found that microsatellites and a major histocompatibility complex  
339 class II gene were correlated with each other both for allelic richness and  $F_{ST}$ , and that contemporary  
340 selection was relatively weak and difficult to detect (Aguilar and Garza 2006).

341  
342 In streams where wild fish are relatively abundant and productive, and which offer areas of refuge  
343 upstream from the area of hatchery fish release and return, as in the Kitimat River, release of hatchery  
344 steelhead appear to be compatible with wild fish conservation, at least within the relatively short time  
345 scales studied (Slaney et al. 1993; Nelson et al. 2005; Narum et al. 2006a). The reproductive contribution  
346 by upper river wild spawners to total population production, in a situation with lower river hatchery  
347 spawners, may have important positive conservation effects. They may buffer against loss of rare alleles,  
348 fluctuations in genetic variation, cumulative negative effects on genetic variation, and provide the  
349 presence of multiple year classes in the spawning population.

350

351 In conclusion, the results from the upper Kitimat River indicated higher genetic differentiation than in the  
352 lower river hatchery population, reflecting retained genetic microgeographic variation among local wild  
353 *O. mykiss* populations, which appear to constitute a mosaic or patchwork of genetically distinct  
354 populations rather than follow a strict isolation-by-distance model. Such a mosaic population structure  
355 may be a common characteristic of situations where multiple localities are samples across relatively small  
356 spatial scales. Our study further emphasizes the complexity of population structure in large river systems  
357 and, in particular, that the contribution by upper river wild spawners is likely to have important positive  
358 conservation effects.

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361

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368

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### 3 **Figure legends**

4

5 Figure 1. The Kitimat River study area on the northwest Pacific Coast of Canada. Small stars  
6 indicate sampling sites for wild *O. mykiss* in the Kitimat River watershed. Large stars indicate  
7 stocking sites for hatchery steelhead in the lower main stem of the Kitimat River. Inset location in  
8 British Columbia, western Canada.

9

10 Figure 2. Neighbour-joining tree based on Cavalli-Sforza and Edward's (1967) chord distances  
11 calculated in Phylip. Bootstrap values are labeled in lower panel. Note that the cladogram  
12 indicates clustering pattern and distances are not to scale.

13

14 Figure 3. Clustering without relying on information about sampling sites (Bayesian  
15 STRUCTURE algorithm). The simulations suggest the material may represent  $K = 5$  populations.  
16 Although there is a slightly improved model fit with more structuring, the variation (lower panel)  
17 increases.

18

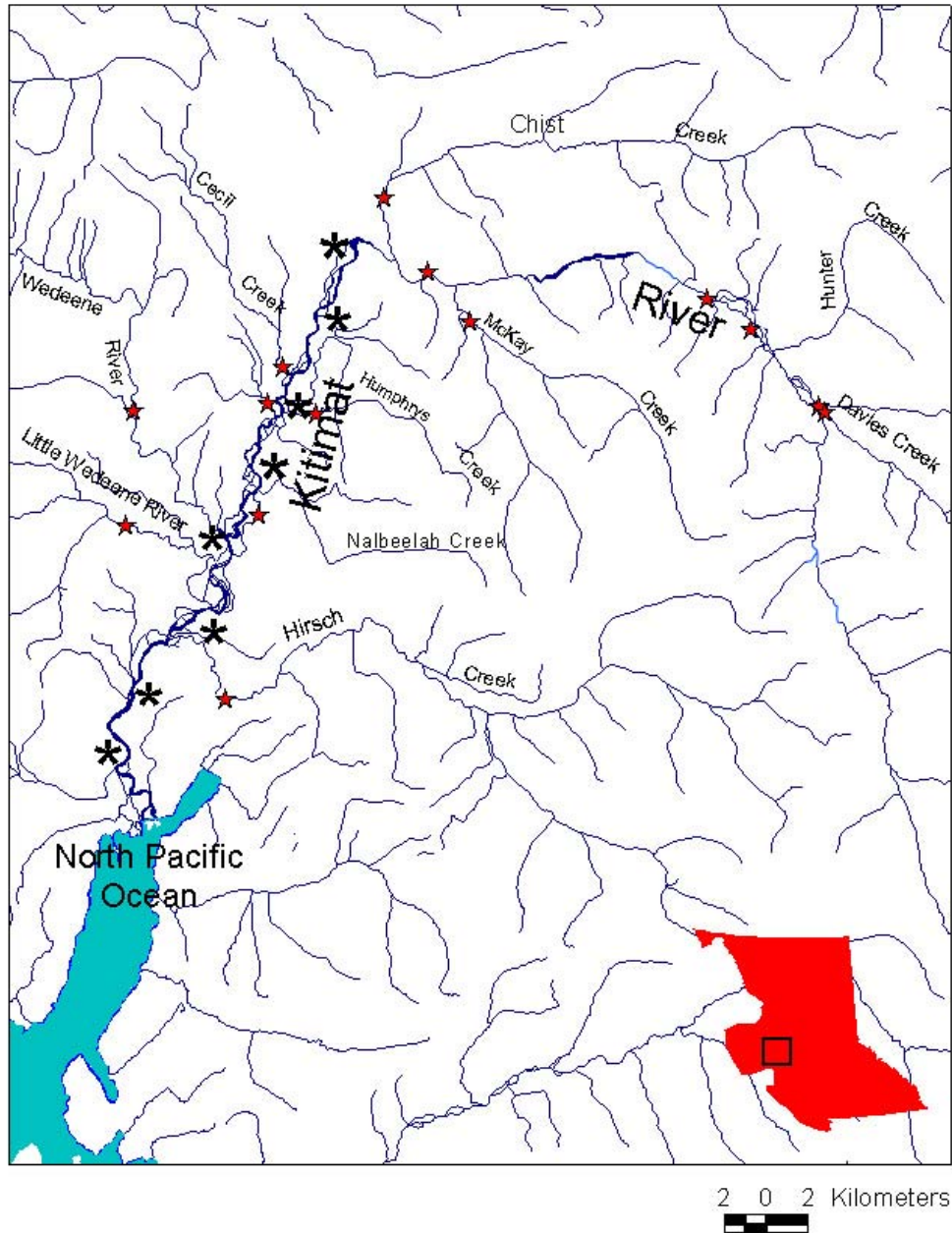
19 Figure 4. Principal component analysis based on allele frequency data to summarize genetic  
20 differentiation among all sites sampled for wild *O. mykiss* in the Kitimat River watershed. The  
21 analysis summarizes the variation across 10 loci (131 alleles) explaining the differentiation of  
22 individual sites at each axis. Only the first principal component was significant.

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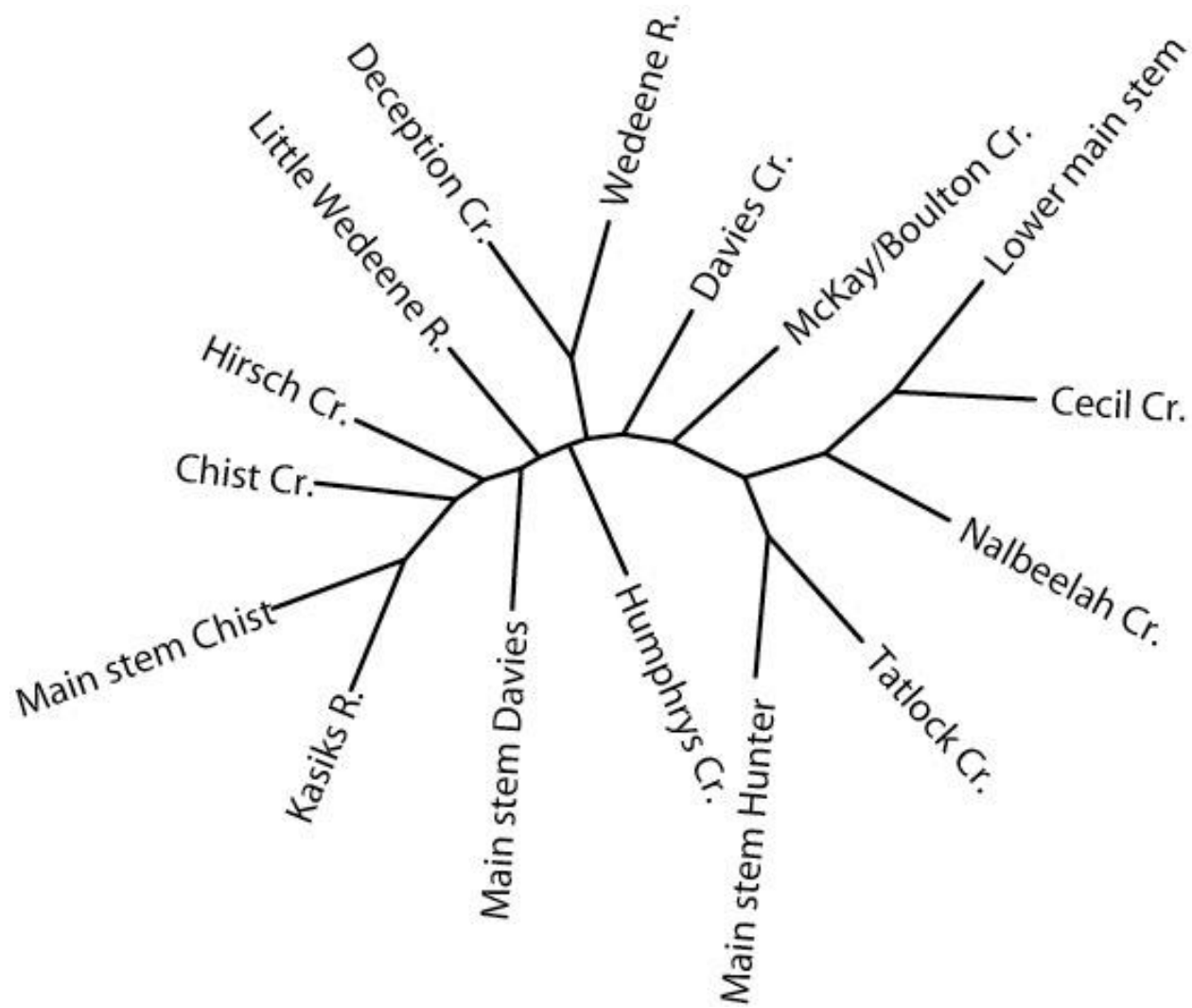
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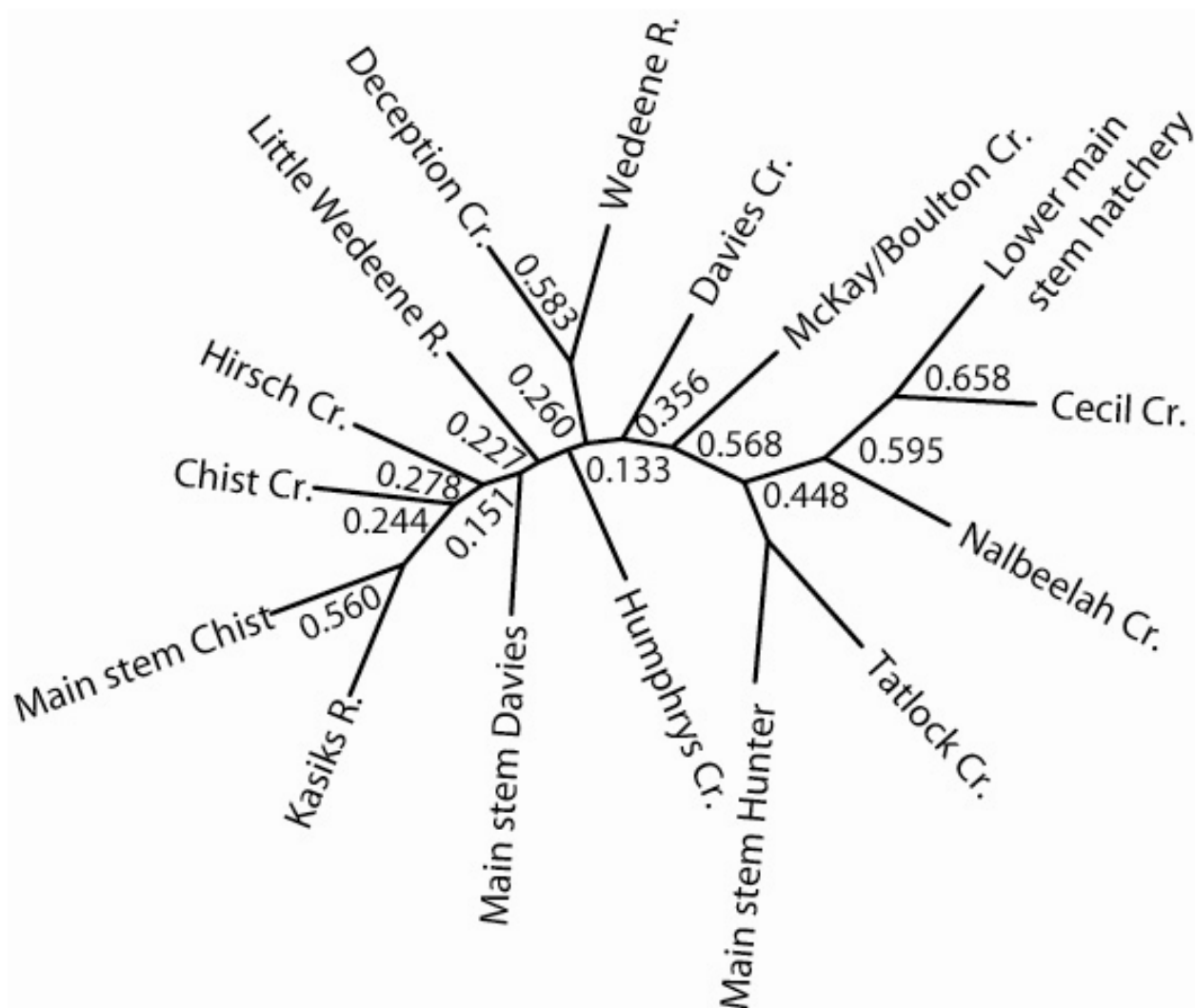
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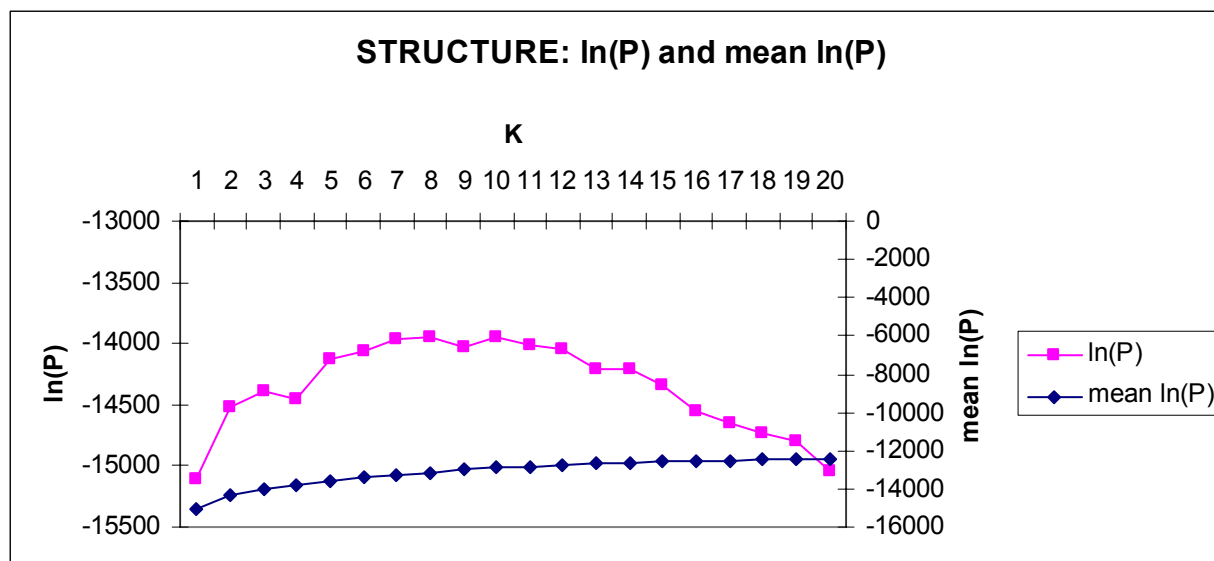
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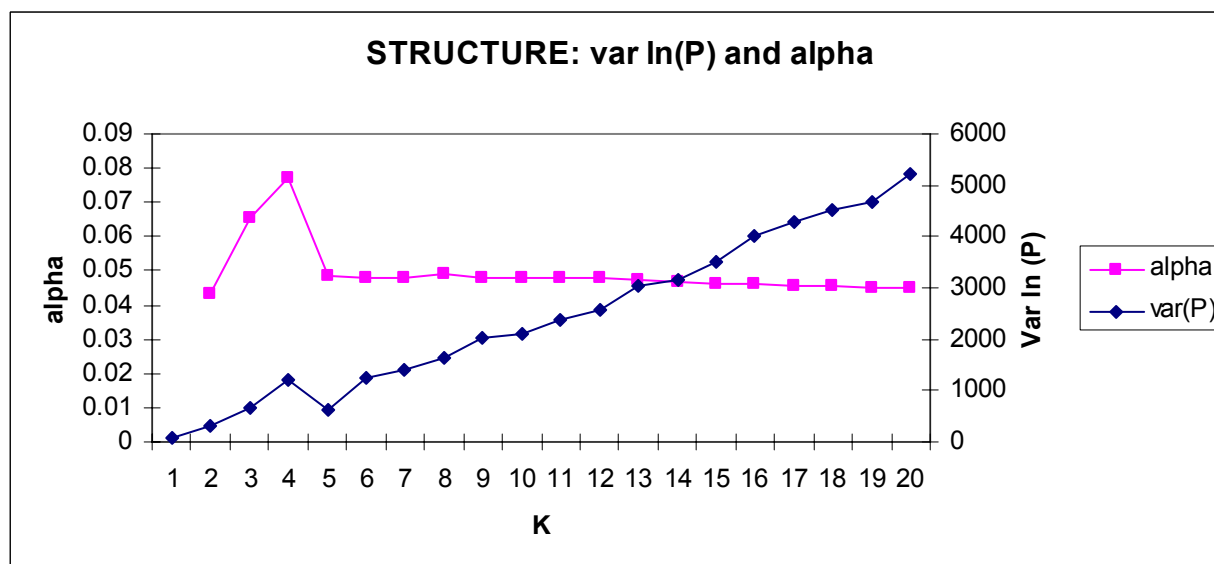


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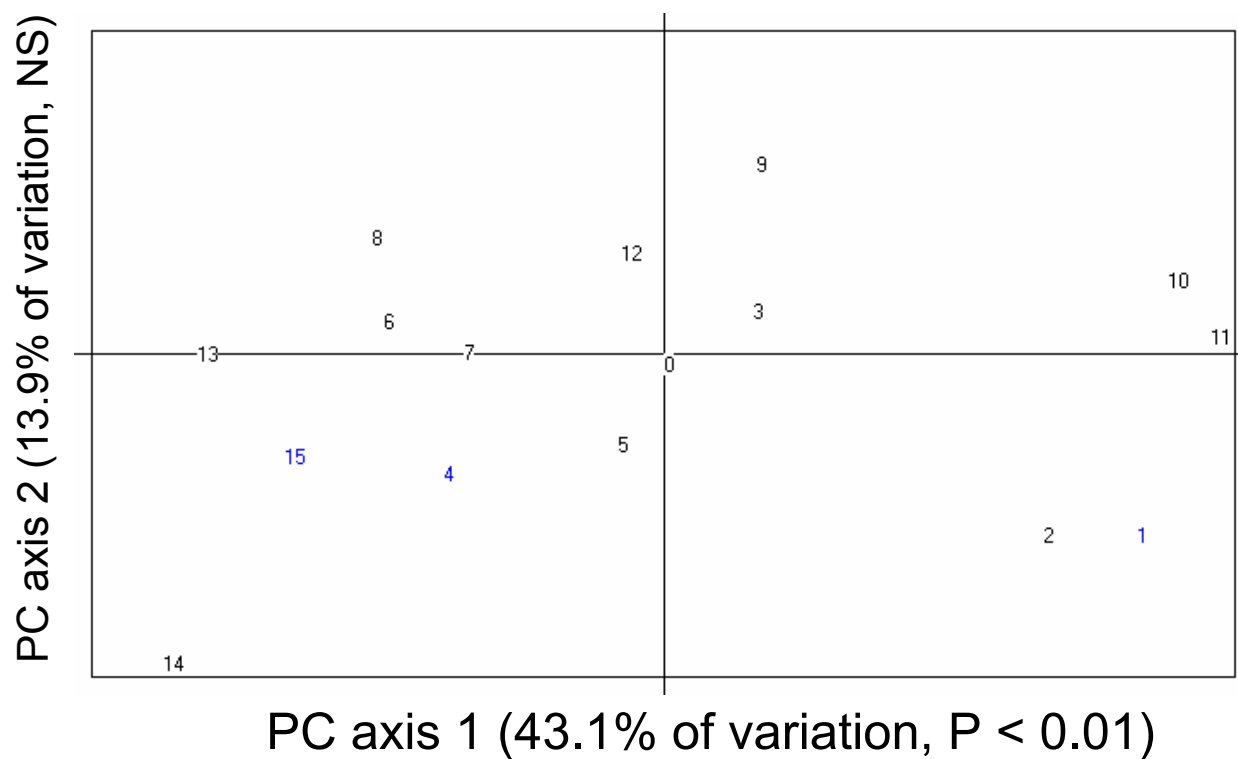
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## 71 Appendix

72 Summary of allelic variation at 10 microsatellite loci for 15 sites sampled for *Oncorhynchus mykiss* in the Kitimat River watershed. Number of samples  
 73 which amplified results (N), allelic richness ( $A_r$ ), number of alleles per locus ( $N_a$ ), and observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ) are given for each population.  
 74 Significant departures from Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium are denoted by asterisk "\*" (using Bonferroni correction for 15 sites and 10 loci;  $p=$   
 75  $0.05/150=0.0003$ ).

	<b>Oneu8</b>	<b>Ssa85</b>	<b>Ots103</b>	<b>Ots3</b>	<b>Ssa456</b>	<b>Omy77</b>	<b>Oneu14</b>	<b>Ssa197</b>	<b>Ots100</b>	<b>Okia3</b>	<b>Results over all loci, mean±SD</b>
<b>Hirsch Creek</b>											
N	40	38	40	38	39	39	40	40	37	35	38.6±1.6466
Ar	3.559	5.992	-	4.148	2.821	5.947	4.592	2.000	5.599	10.947	4.6605±2.7723
Na	6	8	1	5	4	9	6	2	8	19	6.8±5.0067
He	0.3538	0.7561	-	0.6101	0.5475	0.7876	0.7336	0.5060	0.7856	0.9321	0.6680±0.1778
Ho	0.2750	0.5526	-	0.6579	0.4359	0.6667	0.7500	0.4250	0.8649	0.8286	0.6063±0.1993
<b>Weedene River</b>											
N	30	31	32	32	32	30	31	31	31	31	31.1±0.7379
Ar	2.963	5.278	2.792	4.420	3.307	4.887	3.975	2	5.383	12.361	4.7366±2.9060
Na	4	8	4	6	4	6	4	2	8	22	6.8±5.6726
He	0.5689	0.6938	0.2813	0.6285	0.6047	0.7147	0.7356	0.5034	0.7287	0.9514	0.6411±0.1752
Ho	0.2333*	0.6774	0.2500	0.5625	0.4688	0.7000	0.6129	0.5161	0.7419	1.0000	0.5763±0.2293
<b>Little Weedene River</b>											
N	31	31	31	30	30	29	31	31	31	31	30.6±0.6992
Ar	5.205	5.785	1.650	4.447	2.513	5.870	4.362	2	6.005	9.940	4.7777±2.4371
Na	7	8	2	4	3	7	6	2	9	16	6.4±4.1952
He	0.6822	0.7631	0.0936	0.6802	0.4842	0.7683	0.6811	0.4892	0.6854	0.9175	0.6245±0.2258
Ho	0.5807	0.6129	0.0968	0.6000	0.4667	0.5172	0.4194	0.4839	0.7419	0.8710	0.5391±0.2057

**Nalbeelah Creek**

N	42	33	33	33	42	41	42	42	37	43	38.8±4.3153
Ar	4.577	5.537	-	3.881	3.139	5.078	3.955	2.000	5.201	10.264	4.8480±2.3136
Na	7	9	1	5	5	8	4	2	9	21	7.1±5.6065
He	0.5083	0.6791	-	0.5535	0.5829	0.6899	0.7301	0.4773	0.7383	0.9201	0.6533±0.1384
Ho	0.1905*	0.5581	-	0.5116	0.6190	0.5610	0.4286*	0.4286	0.8108	0.9767	0.5650±0.2273

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**Humphrys Creek**

N	40	40	39	37	28	25	37	40	38	40	36.4±5.3996
Ar	3.647	5.913	1.961	4.422	2.865	5.601	3.747	2.000	4.870	9.635	4.4661±2.2699
Na	5	10	3	5	4	8	4	2	8	18	6.7±4.6916
He	0.5775	0.7658	0.1235	0.6890	0.5589	0.7657	0.6594	0.5035	0.6449	0.8968	0.6185±0.2086
Ho	0.4750	0.6250	0.0769	0.6487	0.5357	0.6400	0.6756	0.5250	0.6842	0.8750	0.5761±0.2072

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**Deception Creek**

N	17	22	23	23	23	21	22	21	23	21	21.6±1.8379
Ar	3.845	5.498	2.419	5.007	3.419	5.771	4.470	2.000	5.949	11.069	4.9447±2.5456
Na	5	8	3	7	4	9	6	2	8	16	6.8±3.9665
He	0.6168	0.6892	0.2039	0.7034	0.5691	0.6702	0.7167	0.5110	0.7478	0.9373	0.6365±0.1902
Ho	0.2941	0.5909	0.1304	0.6957	0.3913	0.6667	0.6364	0.4762	0.6087	0.9524	0.5443±0.2312

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**Cecil Creek**

N	35	34	35	36	35	36	36	36	20	34	33.7±4.8774
Ar	4.728	5.459	1.451	4.665	3.697	6.004	4.022	2.000	5.698	10.630	4.8354±2.5291
Na	8	9	2	6	5	11	5	2	7	20	7.5±5.2334
He	0.4816	0.6422	0.0563	0.6624	0.5909	0.7977	0.7121	0.4930	0.8013	0.9267	0.6164±0.2411
Ho	0.2571*	0.5588	0.0571	0.5833	0.5429	0.7222	0.5556	0.5000	0.7500	0.8824	0.5409±0.2385

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**Chist Creek**

N	39	40	38	34	38	38	38	39	39	39	38.2±1.6193
Ar	4.167	5.567	1.657	3.993	2.989	5.599	4.280	2	4.681	11.167	4.6100±2.6612
Na	4	8	3	5	4	9	5	2	7	21	6.8±5.4528
He	0.5545	0.7044	0.0775	0.5975	0.5733	0.7421	0.7407	0.5035	0.7033	0.9297	0.6127±0.2245
Ho	0.4615	0.5750	0.0790	0.5588	0.5000	0.6842	0.6053	0.5128	0.6923	0.8718	0.5541±0.2052

---

**McKay/Boulton****Creek**

N	34	33	33	27	33	33	27	32	33	31	31.6±2.5473
Ar	5.118	5.200	1.273	4.264	3.081	4.893	5.250	2	5.871	10.513	4.7463±2.5331
Na	7	7	2	6	4	8	6	2	10	18	7.0±4.6188
He	0.7353	0.7380	0.0303	0.5933	0.5730	0.5706	0.7848	0.4955	0.7553	0.9281	0.6204±0.2441
Ho	0.5588	0.4546*	0.0303	0.5556	0.6364	0.4849	0.5556	0.4688	0.6364	0.8710	0.5129±0.2203

---

**Tatlock Creek**

N	29	29	29	27	28	28	23	27	28	27	27.5±1.7795
Ar	4.756	5.010	-	4.619	2.861	4.115	3.970	2.000	5.651	9.151	4.6814±2.0114
Na	6	7	1	7	3	5	4	2	8	16	5.9±4.2282
He	0.7235	0.7139	-	0.5381	0.4513	0.7110	0.7082	0.5066	0.7312	0.8595	0.6604±0.1317
Ho	0.4138	0.6897	-	0.4444	0.3571	0.6071	0.6522	0.6296	0.8572	0.6296	0.5867±0.1561

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**Davies Creek**

N	24	24	24	20	24	24	23	24	24	22	23.3±1.3375
Ar	3.974	6.191	1.859	5.171	3.905	4.831	4.418	2	5.725	9.427	4.7501±2.1713
Na	5	9	2	6	5	6	5	2	9	13	6.2±3.3599
He	0.6764	0.7819	0.1560	0.7192	0.5966	0.7057	0.7411	0.5027	0.7766	0.9123	0.6569±0.2074
Ho	0.4583	0.6250	0.1667	0.8500	0.4583	0.6667	0.6087	0.4583	0.9167	0.9091	0.6118±0.2381

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**Main stem upstream****Chist confluence**

N	37	40	38	36	33	36	36	38	22	36	35.2±4.9844
Ar	4.146	5.148	2.230	4.630	3.227	4.588	4.515	2	5.516	8.683	4.4683±1.8890
Na	6	7	3	6	4	7	7	2	7	16	6.5±3.8079
He	0.5183	0.7114	0.1737	0.6953	0.5930	0.7046	0.7085	0.5067	0.7347	0.8858	0.6232±0.1932
Ho	0.4865	0.7000	0.1842	0.5556	0.4546	0.6389	0.6111	0.5790	0.5455	0.9722	0.5728±0.1986

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**Main stem****downstream Hunter****confluence**

N	36	34	35	34	35	34	25	32	34	33	33.2±3.0840
Ar	3.846	5.601	1.596	3.937	2.704	4.464	5.009	2.000	5.060	10.338	4.4555±2.4609
Na	6	8	2	6	3	6	7	2	7	18	6.5±4.5765
He	0.5227	0.7634	0.0832	0.5224	0.5105	0.6769	0.6482	0.5060	0.7261	0.9224	0.5882±0.2234
Ho	0.1944*	0.5588	0.0287	0.5588	0.3714	0.6471	0.5600	0.5000	0.7059	0.7273*	0.4852±0.2251

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**Main stem upstream****Davies confluence**

N	30	29	30	29	30	30	30	30	30	29	29.7±0.4831
Ar	4.284	5.831	2.178	5.036	2.514	5.171	4.324	2.000	5.331	11.142	4.7811±2.6287
Na	5	8	3	7	3	8	6	2	8	19	6.9±4.8178
He	0.6011	0.7647	0.1588	0.6534	0.5130	0.7452	0.6898	0.4520	0.7701	0.9310	0.6279±0.2145
Ho	0.4667	0.6552	0.1000	0.6552	0.4637	0.7000	0.5667	0.5333	0.7333	0.9655	0.5839±0.2252

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**Results over all****populations**

N											477
Ar	4.503	5.910	1.751	4.442	3.116	5.647	4.529	2.000	5.516	10.682	4.8096±2.5237

Na	10	16	8	9	6	15	8	2	20	35	12.9±9.3743
He	0.5801 ±0.1038	0.7262 ±0.0416	0.1307 ±0.0731	0.6319 ±0.0644	0.5535 ±0.0465	0.7179 ±0.0583	0.7136 ±0.0358	0.4969 ±0.0157	0.7378 ±0.0412	0.9224 ±0.0170	0.63131±0.1947
Ho	0.3818 ±0.1357	0.6024 ±0.0667	0.1091 ±0.0684	0.6027 ±0.0966	0.4787 ±0.0830	0.6359 ±0.0703	0.5884 ±0.0875	0.5026 ±0.0550	0.7426 ±0.1030	0.8809 ±0.1017	0.5488±0.2216

**Kasiks River,****outgroup**

N	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9±0
Ar	3.000	8.000	-	4.000	3.000	4.000	5.000	2.000	6.000	8.000	4.4±2.3664
Na	3	8	1	4	3	4	5	2	6	8	4.4±2.3664
He	0.2157	0.8758	-	0.6471	0.5229	0.6994	0.7255	0.5229	0.6994	0.8693	0.6420±0.2031
Ho	0.2222	0.8889	-	0.7778	0.6667	0.7778	0.4444	0.4444	0.6667	1.0000	0.6543±0.2450