GENETIC DIVERSITY OF WILD POPULATIONS AND BROODSTOCKS OF CURIMBA FOR RESTOCKING PROGRAMS IN THE TIETÊ, GRANDE, PARDO AND MOGI-GUAÇU RIVERS (BRAZIL)

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ABSTRACT

Prochilodus lineatus is a tropical fish that in recent years as shown a decrease in the number of wild populations. Restocking programs have been developed as a conservation method, and the genetic monitoring of populations and broodstocks is important to ensure the viability of such programs. The objective of the current study was to evaluate the genetic diversity of wild samples (WSamp) and broodstocks of P. lineatus in restocking programs in the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers (São Paulo - Brazil) using microsatellite markers. High intra-population genetic variability was observed. The number of alleles per locus ranged from three to seven, and was detected the differentiation of alleles among WSamp and the broodstocks. This differentiation was confirmed using a dendrogram analysis. Positive values of the FIS indicated the presence of endogamy in seven of 10 WSamp. The AMOVA and FST indicated small and moderate genetic differentiation among these WSamp and high genetic differentiation in comparison to the broodstocks. This differentiation was confirmed by the values of the genetic distance, genetic identity and number of migratory individuals. The results indicated that there was high intra-population genetic variability, genetic similarity in WSamp and broodstocks and differentiation between WSamp and broodstocks. We intend that this work could be used to assist restocking programs in of P. lineatus in the studied region and serve as a model of monitoring for other programs conducted in Brazil.

Keywords: Prochilodus lineatus; genetic differentiation; genetic conservation; microsatellites

DIVERSIDADE GENÉTICA DE POPULAÇÕES NATURAIS E ESTOQUES DE REPRODUTORES DE CURIMBA PARA PROGRAMAS DE REPOVOAMENTO DOS RIOS TIETÊ, GRANDE, PARDO E MOGI-GUAÇU (BRASIL)

RESUMO

Prochilodus lineatus é um peixe tropical que nos últimos anos tem apresentado uma redução no número de populações selvagens. Programas de repovoamento foram desenvolvidos como método de conservação, e o monitoramento genético das populações e reprodutores é importante para assegurar a viabilidade de tais programas. O objetivo do estudo foi avaliar a diversidade genética de amostras selvagens (WSamp) e reprodutores de *P. lineatus* do programa de repovoamento nos rios Tietê, Grande, Pardo e Mogi-Guaçu (São Paulo - Brasil), utilizando marcadores microssatélites. Alta variabilidade genética intra-populacional foi observada. O número de alelos por loco variou de três a sete e foi detectada a diferenciação dos alelos entre WSamp e os reprodutores. Essa diferenciação foi confirmada por meio da análise do dendrograma. Os valores positivos da FIS indicaram a presença de endogamia em sete das 10 WSamp. A AMOVA e o FST indicaram pequena e moderada diferenciação genética entre as WSamp e alta diferenciação genética em comparação com os reprodutores. Esta diferenciação foi confirmada pelos valores de distância e

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identidade genética e pelo número de indivíduos migrantes. Os resultados indicaram que houve alta variabilidade genética intra-populacional, similaridade genética em WSamp e reprodutores e diferenciação entre WSamp e reprodutores. Pretende-se que este trabalho possa ser usado para auxiliar os programas de repovoamento de *P. lineatus* na região estudada e sirva como modelo de monitoramento para outros programas realizados no Brasil.

Palavras-chave: Prochilodus lineatus; conservação genética; diferenciação genética; microssatélites

INTRODUCTION

The Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers are important hydrological resources in São Paulo State (Brazil) because they are water sources and supply labor work and food to the established rural communities along the rivers. According to MARCENIUK et al. (2011), the headwaters of the Tietê River alone are habitat to at least 56 fish species (7 orders, 16 families and 40 genera). Despite this diversity, these rivers have been subject to modifications from a variety of human activities. According to BUCKUP et al. (2007) and AGOSTINHO et al. (2008), water pollution, alluvial sedimentation, deforestation, habitat destruction, overfishing, introduction of exotic species and dam building are the main threats to the wild populations of freshwater fish in Brazil.

The threat from hydroelectric power plants merits highlighting. Dams allow for local and regional energy development but cause serious and irreversible biological and ecological modifications by changing the natural hydrological regime of these rivers and predation (AGOSTINHO *et al.*, 2008; 2012). All of these modifications, therefore, have changed the habitat quality and dynamics of the biota decreasing the wild populations of migratory fishes and/or reducing their genetic variability (LAROCHE and DURAND, 2004). This result has increased the risk of extinction for at least 10 species that have been evaluated in the headwaters of the Tietê River (MARCENIUK *et al.* 2011).

Pioneering studies by GODOY (1975) and TOLEDO-FILHO (1981) had already verified the decrease of curimba, *Prochilodus lineatus* (Valenciennes 1836, Prochilodontidae, Characiformes) wild populations in Mogi-Guaçu, Pardo and Grande Rivers, mainly due to human activities that produce environmental change and reducing food availability. These migratory species are part of several South American hydrographic basins and are an important part of the Brazilian fishery economy (GARCEZ *et al.*, 2011). In the last decade, despite the population and genetic alterations that wild stocks are showing (RAMELLA *et al.* 2006; RUEDA *et al.* 2013), this species is the main fishery resource in these water sources.

One of the strategies to increase the stocks of these species has been restocking programs. Although these restocking programs have been conducted for several decades in Brazil and for more than 15 years in the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers, there is a gap in the research about their genetic and environmental efficiency (AGOSTINHO et al., 2005; POVH et al., 2010). Some of these programs were unsuccessful because of broodstock mismanagement (BORREL et al., 2007; LOPERA-BARRERO, 2009) and the absence of monitoring of the wild populations. These factors can lead to endogamy depression (AGUIAR et al., 2013), which reduces the performance and survivorship and increases the viral susceptibility of the released animals. Therefore, information must be collected to achieve the best conservation responses and to determine the risks and actions needed to improve the success of these programs.

Thus, there is a need for the genetic evaluation of wild populations and broodstocks used in restocking programs. For the neutral nature, microsatellite markers are one of the best techniques for genetic evaluations, and they are useful in collecting information on the diversity and genetic structure of various wild fish and other populations (AUNG *et al.*, 2010; LOPERA-BARRERO *et al.*, 2010a; POVH *et al.*, 2011; PETERSEN *et al.*, 2012; ABDUL-MUNEER, 2014).

The objective of the current study was to evaluate the genetic diversity of wild samples and broodstocks of *P. lineatus* from the restocking programs in the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers using microsatellite markers.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sample collection

Samples of the caudal fins of *P. lineatus* were collected from 10 sampling sites in the reservoir of the Hydroelectric power plants (HPP) Bariri – Tietê River (BAR), Nova Avanhandava – Tietê River (NAV), Mogi-Guaçu – Mogi-Guaçu River (MOG), Caconde – Pardo River (CAC), Euclides da Cunha – Pardo River (EUC), Limoeiro – Pardo River (LMO), Barra Bonita – Tietê River (BAB), Ibitinga – Tietê River (IBI), Promissão – Tietê River (PRO) and Água Vermelha – Grande River

(AGV), and is supervised by the AES company of Brazil. Samples were also collected from four broodstocks raised in the HPP of Promissão (fish farm) that have been used in the restocking program conducted by the AES (Figure 1, Table 1). These broodstocks were the results of individuals that had been collected from the Parana River 15 years previously and new individuals that were occasionally added from fish collected in the Tietê and Pardo Rivers. The restocking program has been realized for more than 20 years (more than 100,000 *P. lineatus* fingerlings annually) (Personal communication).



Figure 1. Mapping the sampling locations. 1, HPP Bariri – Tietê River (BAR); 2, HPP Nova Avanhandava – Tietê River (NAV); 3, HPP Mogi-Guaçu – Mogi-Guaçu River (MOG); 4, HPP Caconde – Pardo River (CAC); 5, HPP Euclides da Cunha – Pardo River (EUC); 6, HPP Limoeiro – Pardo River (LMO); 7, HPP Barra Bonita – Tietê River (BAB); 8, HPP Ibitinga – Tietê River (IBI); 9, HPP Promissão – Tietê River (PRO); 10, HPP Água Vermelha – Grande River (AGV); 11, Broodstock A (BSA); 12, Broodstock B (BSB); 13, Broodstock C (BSC); and 14, Broodstock D (BSD).

DNA extraction and quantification

The DNA extraction followed the NaCl based protocol found in the study of LOPERA-BARRERO *et al.* (2008). DNA was quantified in a Shimadzu spectrophotometer (UV 1601, Columbia, USA) with an absorbance of 260 nm. The samples were diluted to 10 ng μ L⁻¹. The quality of the DNA was assessed by electrophoresis in agarose gel at 1%, using a buffer of TBE 1X (500 mM⁻¹ Tris-HC1, 60 mM⁻¹ boric acid and 83 mM⁻¹ EDTA) for 1 h at 70 V. The gel was examined under UV radiation after exposure to ethidium bromide (0.5 μ g mL⁻¹) for 1 h. Images were then photographed using Kodak® EDAS (Kodak 1D Image Analysis 3.5, New York, USA).

WSamp and Broodstocks	Codes	Sampling size	Operating year	Latitude	Longitude
HPP Bariri	BAR	30	1965	22°09′11′′S	48°45'08''W
HPP Nova Avanhandava	NAV	30	1982	21°07′05″S	50°12'02''W
HPP Mogi Guaçu	MOG	30	1999	22°22′46′′S	46°54'01''W
HPP Caconde	CAC	30	1966	21°34′36″S	46°37′27′′W
HPP Euclides da Cunha	EUC	30	1960	21°36′11″S	46°56′56′′W
HPP Limoeiro	LMO	30	1958	21°37′30′′S	47°00'34''W
HPP Barra Bonita	BAB	30	1963	22°31′10′′S	48°32′00′′W
HPP Ibitinga	IBI	30	1969	21°45′33″S	48°59′26′′W
HPP Promissão	PRO	30	1975	21°17′52′′S	49°47′20′′W
HPP Água Vermelha	AGV	30	1978	19°52′04″S	50°20'43''W
Broodstock A	BSA	30	1997	21°17′52′′S	49°47′20′′W
Broodstock B	BSB	30	1997	21°17′52′′S	49°47′20′′W
Broodstock C	BSC	30	1997	21°17′52′′S	49°47′20′′W
Broodstock D	BSD	30	1997	21°17′52′′S	49°47′20′′W

Table 1. Chara	cteristics of 10	wild samp	les and four	broodstocks	of Prochilodus I	lineatus.
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Amplification and electrophoresis

The DNA was amplified to the reaction final volume of 20 μ L, using a solution of 1 X buffer of Tris-KCl, 2.0 mM⁻¹ of MgCl₂, 0.8 μ M⁻¹ of each primer (Forward and Reverse), 0.4 mM⁻¹ of each dNTP, 1 U de Platinum Taq DNA Polymerase and 20 ng of DNA. First, the DNA was denatured at 94 °C for 4 min, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing for 30 s with a different temperature for each primer (Table 2), extension at 72 °C for 1 min, and the final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. Four loci described by HATANAKA *et al.* (2002) – *Pl01* – and YAZBECK and KALAPOTHAKIS (2007) – *Pli30*, *Pli43*, *Pli60* - were amplified (Table 2).

The amplified samples were submitted to electrophoresis in 10% polyacrylamide gel (acrylamide: bisacrylamide – 29: 1), denatured (6 M urea), and conducted in buffer TBE 1X (90 mM⁻¹

of Tris-Borate and 2 mM⁻¹ of EDTA) at 320 V and 250 mA for 7 h. The microsatellite alleles were visualized using silver nitrate following the modified BASSAM *et al.* (1991) method. The gel was submitted to the fixing solution (10% ethanol and 0.5% acetic acid) for 20 min, stained (6 mM⁻¹ of silver nitrate) for 10 min, visualized (0.75 M of NaOH and 0.22% of phormol-40%), and photographed using the Nikon CoolPix® (5200, New York, USA).

Data analysis

The allele size was calculated with Kodak EDAS-290, using DNA ladders (Invitrogen, USA) of 10, 50 and 100 bp. The type and size of the alleles in the populations of *P. lineatus* (50 - 300 bp) were organized in data matrices using the microsatellite loci, which were analyzed with computer software to estimate the parameters of intra and inter-population genetic diversity.

Loci	Repeat motifs	Primer sequence 5' – 3'	Ta (°C)*			
D101	(A A 'T'T'T')	F: TGACTGTGAACACGGTCACGC	(0			
P101	$(AA111)_{10}$	R: ACACAGTAGAACATACCTCTG	60			
DUO	(GTCT) _n Complex core.	F: GATGTCGGTTCTTGTACAGTGGTG	(0)			
Pl130	116 bp long	16 bp long R: AGCTGCTGAGGATTCTGGGTCAC				
DIVIO		F: AGTCCACTCCTTAGGCGAGTGAG	(0)			
Pli43	(GT) ₁₃	R: ATAGACGGGCATGTGTCACAGCT	60			
DECO		F: GCTAGGACGGTTAGCGTCCACTG	(0			
Pli60	$(GA)_{13}$	R: CGACACGTACATCATTACCTCGG	69			

Table 2. Characterization of the four loci used in this study.

**Ta* = *annealing temperature*.

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The number of alleles, the observed (Ho) and expected (He) heterozygosity, the test of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE), the migratory number (Nm) and the inbreeding index (F_{IS}) of WRIGHT (1978) were calculated for every locus using the GENEPOP 4.0.6 Software (ROUSSET, 2008). In the HWE test, the deficiency or excess of heterozygotes at the loci was based on the Fisher Exact Test calculated by a Markov chain analysis (Markov chain length: 100,000; dememorizations: 10,000). The allelic frequency, distance (GD) and genetic identity (GI) were calculated using the PopGene 1.31 Software (YEH et al., 1999). The allelic richness (A_R) was calculated using the FSTAT 2.9.3.2 Software (GOUDET, 2002). The presence of null alleles was verified using the Micro-Checker 2.2.3 Software (VAN OOSTERHOUT et al., 2004). The values of fixation index (F_{ST}) (WEIR and COCKERHAM, 1984), the linkage disequilibrium and the Analysis of Molecular variance (AMOVA) were calculated using the Arlequim 3.1 Software (EXCOFFIER et al., 2005). In these final analyzes, the wild samples (WSamp) and broodstocks were discriminated by all of the combinations allowed (91 combinations of populations). Using the discriminatory method for the FST values, we followed WRIGHT (1978), where the values from 0.00 to 0.05; 0.051 to 0.15; 0.151 to 0.25 and > 0.25 indicate small, moderate, highest differentiation, high and genetic respectively. An unweighted pair-group mean analysis (UPGMA) tree was constructed based on Nei's genetic distance (NEI, 1978) of pairwise locations using MEGA Software, version 5.0 (TAMURA et al., 2011). The reduction of the effective population size was calculated with Bottleneck Software 1.2.02 (CORNUET and LUIKART, 1996) using the I.A.M. (infinite allele model) and S.M.M (step-wise mutation) mutation models, and the Wilcoxon sign-rank test. The significance of P-values was adjusted following Bonferroni sequential corrections for multiple simultaneous statistical tests (RICE, 1989).

RESULTS

A total of 44 alleles were detected for the four loci examined in 420 individuals from 10 wild samples (WSamp) and four broodstocks. These loci were polymorphic and the amplified microsatellite alleles were consistent and reproducible with sizes ranging from 50 bp (*Pl01*) to 300 bp (*Pli30*). The locus with the highest number of alleles was *Pli30* (14 alleles), followed by *Pli60* (11 alleles), *Pl01* (10 alleles) and *Pli43* (9 alleles) (Table 3). The average number of alleles in each locus and samples ranged from 4.25 (BSC) to 6.25 (MOG and EUC).

Alleles with a low frequency (lower than 0.1) were observed in all of the WSamp, but the highest number was found in BAR (10 alleles), EUC (10 alleles) and LMO (9 alleles). The lowest allelic frequency (0.0167) was found at the Pl01 locus (100 bp) in BAR and IBI, and the highest frequency (0.5714) was observed at the Pli43 locus (210 bp) in the IBI. All of the broodstocks had low frequency alleles, with the highest numbers in BSD (five alleles) and BSB (four alleles). The lowest frequency (0.0167) was observed at the Pl01 (50 bp) and Pli30 (130 bp) loci in BSA, and the highest frequency (0.5000) was at the Pli43 locus (110 bp) for all broodstocks (Table 3). Neither the presence of null alleles nor linkage disequilibrium was observed.

The observed heterozygosity (Ho) differed from the expected heterozygosity (He) at loci in all of the WSamp and broodstocks (P<0.01). These data were characterized by the Hardy-Weinberg disequilibrium (HWD). The average of *He* and *Ho* at each locus had values from 0.683 (Pli43) to 0.789 (Pl01: 0.738; Pli30: 0.789; Pli60: 0.744) and from 0.671 (Pli30) to 0.845 (Pl01: 0.692; Pli43: 0.793; Pli60: 0.845), respectively. At Pli30 (BSC), Pli43 (BSA, BSB, BSC and BSD) and Pli60 (AGV, BSA and BSC), there was 0.990 and 1.000 observed heterozygosity. According to research in Prochilodus wild populations (HATANAKA et al. 2006; CARVALHO-COSTA et al. 2008; RUEDA et al. 2011) the average Ho was high (> 45%) for all groups (WSamp and broodstocks) featuring a high genetic variability intra-population. However, in comparison, the lowest values were observed in CAC (0.723), EUC (0.548), LMO (0.476), BAB (0.669) and PRO (0.728). The allelic richness (A_R) was different between groups (P < 0.05), and it was lower in the broodstocks than in the WSamp after the Bonferroni adjustment (Table 4).

Table 3. Characterization of loci investigated and frequency of alleles in *Prochilodus lineatus* Wsamp and Broodstocks.

Loci	\mathbf{A}^{1}	S^2					Popula	tions				
			BAR	NAV	MOG	CAC	EUC	LMO	BAB	IBI	PRO	AGV
Pl01	10	210	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.02	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.04
		198	0.18	0.11	0.07	0.04	0.19	0.15	0.02	0.13	0.03	0.09
		188	0.13	0.26	0.25	0.26	0.15	0.25	0.36	0.32	0.42	0.24
		170	0.43	0.26	0.34	0.24	0.25	0.29	0.12	0.28	0.28	0.46
		110	0.20	0.28	0.12	0.28	0.27	0.25	0.45	0.20	0.17	0.13
		100	0.02	0.02	0.16	0.17	0.08	0.02		0.02	0.03	0.04
			BSA	BSB	BSC	BSD						
	04	91	0.12	0.20	0.17	0.26						
		80	0.25	0.45	0.45	0.26						
		73	0.45	0.33	0.23	0.29						
		50	0.18	0.02	0.15	0.19						
			BAR	NAV	MOG	CAC	EUC	LMO	BAB	IBI	PRO	AGV
Pli30	07	300	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.09	0.06	0.25	0.39	0.15	
		270	0.45	0.18	0.18	0.32	0.05	0.02	0.07	0.06	0.17	0.22
		240	0.02	0.33	0.08		0.09	0.15	0.04	0.21	0.08	0.11
		210	0.35		0.20	0.40	0.31	0.07	0.36	0.11	0.28	0.17
		190	0.03	0.26	0.20	0.10	0.11	0.26	0.09	0.13	0.15	0.20
		188	0.07	0.11	0.20	0.10	0.22	0.33	0.12	0.06	0.10	0.15
		170	0.05	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.11	0.11	0.07	0.04	0.07	0.15
			BSA	BSB	BSC	BSD						
	07	200	0.30	0.30	0.32	0.22						
		180	0.28	0.17	0.32	0.29						
		164	0.18	0.18	0.12	0.22						
		160		0.13	0.05	0.05						
		150	0.13	0.13		0.08						
		143	0.08	0.03	0.05	0.05						
		130	0.02	0.05	0.13	0.10						
			BAR	NAV	MOG	CAC	EUC	LMO	BAB	IBI	PRO	AGV
Pli43	06	210	0.07	0.13	0.15	0.21	0.02		0.25	0.57	0.46	0.50
		192	0.28	0.35	0.22	0.11	0.27	0.10	0.37	0.07	0.24	0.15
		190	0.25	0.07	0.21	0.21	0.46	0.43	0.19	0.25	0.20	0.12
		140	0.17	0.25	0.19	0.36	0.14	0.44	0.10	0.11	0.06	0.18
		130	0.23	0.20	0.12		0.09	0.02	0.08		0.04	0.06
		120			0.10	0.10	0.02	0.02				
			BSA	BSB	BSC	BSD						
	03	110	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50						
		100	0.15	0.15	0.13	0.07						
		90	0.35	0.35	0.37	0.43						
DUCO			BAR	NAV	MOG	CAC	EUC	LMO	BAB	IBI	PRO	AGV
<i>Pl</i> 160	06	228	0.03	0.24	0.14	0.21	0.02	0.04		0.07	0.35	0.15
		204	0.21	0.09	0.21	0.11	0.09	0.50		0.24	0.23	0.38
		188	0.19	0.07	0.12	0.21	0.26	0.19	0.35	0.21	0.15	0.25
		156	0.29	0.39	0.23	0.36	0.41	0.27	0.39	0.17	0.27	0.22
		140 124	0.21	0.11	0.12	0.10	0.06		0.19	0.19		
		134	0.07	0.09	0.16		0.15		0.06	0.12		
	05	150	BSA	BSB	BSC	BSD						
	05	150	0.37	0.42	0.45	0.42						
		130	0.18	0.19	0.29	0.20						
		121	0.20	0.17	0.02	0.12						
		100	0.15	0.19	0.23	0.22						
		100	0.11	0.01		0.00						

For the population names see Table 1; ¹ Numbers of alleles; ² Size of alleles (bp).

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Locus	BAR	NAV	MOG	CAC	EUC	LMO	BAB	IBI	PRO	AGV	BSA	BSB	BSC	BSD
Pl01														
Ho^1	0.70	0.81	0.67	0.59	0.84	0.61	0.57	0.70	0.50	0.73	0.83	0.83	0.66	0.65
He ²	0.73	0.78	0.78	0.78	0.81	0.78	0.66	0.77	0.73	0.72	0.69	0.65	0.70	0.75
F_{IS^3}	0.04	-0.03	0.14	0.24	-0.04	0.21	0.14	0.09	0.32	-0.02	-0.19	-0.27	0.05	0.13
HW4	**	NS	**	**	NS	**	**	**	**	NS	NS	NS	**	**
N_{A^5}	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	5.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
A_{R^6}	5.4	5.6	5.9	5.4	5.9	5.5	4.5	5.4	5.8	5.8	3.9	3.5	4.0	4.0
Pli30														
Но	0.72	0.33	0.70	0.76	0.51	0.44	0.60	0.69	0.76	0.70	0.73	0.70	0.99	0.76
He	0.68	0.78	0.84	0.72	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.78	0.83	0.84	0.78	0.82	0.77	0.81
Fis	-0.06	0.58	0.17	-0.05	0.37	0.44	0.23	0.11	0.08	0.16	0.06	0.15	-0.29	0.06
HW	NS	**	**	NS	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	NS	**
NA	7.0	6.0	7.0	6.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	6.0	7.0
A_R	6.2	5.6	6.9	5.7	6.9	6.5	6.8	6.8	6.9	5.9	5.5	6.7	5.8	6.8
Pli43														
Но	0.73	0.93	0.96	0.72	0.39	0.42	0.79	0.75	0.68	0.76	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00
He	0.78	0.76	0.83	0.74	0.69	0.62	0.76	0.60	0.70	0.70	0.61	0.61	0.60	0.56
Fis	0.06	-0.22	-0.15	0.02	0.44	0.33	-0.04	-0.24	0.02	-0.09	-0.64	-0.64	-0.66	-0.78
HW	**	NS	NS	**	**	**	NS	NS	**	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
N_A	5.0	5.0	6.0	5.0	6.0	5.0	5.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
A_R	4.9	4.9	5.9	4.9	5.2	4.3	4.9	3.9	4.8	5.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9
Pli60														
Но	0.89	0.96	0.89	0.80	0.43	0.42	0.70	0.93	0.96	0.99	0.99	0.92	0.99	0.96
He	0.80	0.77	0.83	0.76	0.74	0.65	0.69	0.82	0.74	0.73	0.77	0.73	0.66	0.73
FIS	-0.12	-0.25	-0.06	-0.05	0.42	0.35	-0.02	-0.12	-0.31	-0.37	-0.30	-0.27	-0.51	-0.32
HW	NS	NS	NS	NS	**	**	NS							
N_A	6.0	6.0	6.0	5.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.0	5.0
A_R	5.8	5.9	5.9	4.9	5.7	3.8	3.9	5.9	4.0	4.0	4.9	4.6	3.6	4.9
Mean														
Но	0.76	0.76	0.80	0.72	0.54	0.47	0.66	0.76	0.72	0.80	0.89	0.86	0.91	0.84
He	0.75	0.77	0.82	0.75	0.76	0.71	0.72	0.74	0.75	0.74	0.71	0.70	0.68	0.71
Fis	-0.01	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.29	0.33	0.07	-0.04	0.03	-0.08	-0.26	-0.25	-0.35	-0.22
HW	NS	**	**	**	**	**	**	NS	**	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
N_A	6.0	5.7	6.2	5.5	6.2	5.5	5.2	5.7	5.5	5.2	4.5	4.7	4.2	4.7
A_R	5.6	5.5	6.2	5.3	5.9	5.0	5.0	5.5	5.4	5.2	4.3	4.4	4.1	4.6

Table 4. Statistics of microsatellite loci of *Prochilodus lineatus* Wsamp and broodstocks.

For the population names see Table 1; ¹ observed heterozygosity; ² expected heterozygosity; ³ inbreeding index; ⁴ equilibrium test of Hardy-Weinberg; ⁵ number of alleles per locus; ⁶ Allelic richness. NS = Not significant; ** P<0.01 after Bonferroni adjustment (nominal a = 0.05).

The average negative values of the F_{IS} index from BAR, IBI, AVG, BSA, BSB, BSC and BSD (from -0.019 to -0.354) showed the absence of endogamy. Conversely, the positive values from NAV, MOG, CAC, EUC, LMO, BAB and PRO (from 0.014 and 0.336) showed the presence of heterozygote deficiencies, and these data were characterized by a HWD in all cases (Table 4). The results, obtained using the I.A.M. and S.M.M mutation models, indicate the presence of a drifting, which is evidence of a recent bottleneck in the NAV, MOG, CAC, EUC, LMO, BAB and PRO.

Based on the AMOVA, the highest genetic variability (P<0.05) was observed within the individuals denoting a small and highest genetic

differentiation among WSamp, broodstocks and WSamp vs. broodstocks (Table 5). The results from the distance and genetic identity analysis indicated the genetic similarity of the WSamp. The values ranged from 0.112 (MOG x EUC) to 0.603 (NAV x EUC) and from 0.547 (NAV x EUC) to 0.892 (MOG x EUC) for distance and identity, respectively (Table 6).

The F_{ST} from all combinations of WSamp (45 combinations) ranged from 0.011 (MOG x EUC) to 0.151 (NAV x EUC), which is evidence of small to moderate genetic differentiation. Similarly, the results from the Nm analysis indicated high gene flow among the populations, with values from 2.97 and 12.91 individuals per generation (Table 6).

	VC1	PV^2	F_{ST}^3	Wright ⁴						
WSamp										
AS ⁵	0.10424	6.43	0.0643	Moderate						
AIS ⁶	0.09489	5.85								
WI7	1.42236	87.72								
Total	1.62149	100								
]	Broodstocks								
AS	0.01270	1.20	0.0120	Small						
AIS	0.22809	21.61								
WI	1.27083	77.19								
Total	1.51162	100								
	WSam	p vs. Broodstocks								
AS	0.29492	16.58	0.1658	High						
AIS	0.04091	2.30								
WI	1.52484	85.72								
Total	1.86067	100								

Table 5. AMOVA (analysis of molecular variance), F_{ST} and Wright classification for the *Prochilodus lineatus* WSamp and broodstocks.

¹ Variance components; ² Percentage variation; ³ Fixation index; ⁴ Wright classification; ⁵ Among samples; ⁶ Among individuals within samples; ⁷ Within individuals.

Groups	BARxNAV	BARxMOG	BARxCAC	BARxEUC	BARxLMO	BARxBAB	BARxIBI	BARxPRO
F _{ST} ¹	0.019	0.026	0.040	0.020	0.098	0.115	0.071	0.066
Wright ²	Small	Small	Small	Small	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
GI/GD ³	0.752/0.285	0.875/0.134	0.860/0.151	0.841/0.173	0.679/0.388	0.754/0.283	0.632/0.459	0.731/0.314
Nm ⁴	5.55	11.25	8.80	8.03	3.76	4.97	3.62	4.87
Groups	BARxAGV	BARxBSA	BARxBSB	BARxBSC	BARxBSD	NAVxMOG	NAVxCAC	NAVxEUC
Fst	0.052	0.285	0.285	0.283	0.267	0.030	0.117	0.151
Wright	Moderate	Highest	Highest	Highest	Highest	Small	Moderate	Moderate
GI/GD	0.776/0.254	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.871/0.138	0.757/0.279	0.547/0.603
Nm	5.64	1.29	1.25	1.20	1.30	11.23	5.73	2.97
Groups	NAVxLMO	NAVxBAB	NAVxIBI	NAVxPRO	NAVxAGV	NAVxBSA	NAVxBSB	NAVxBSC
Fst	0.081	0.073	0.097	0.052	0.093	0.163	0.264	0.266
Wright	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Highest	Highest
GI/GD	0.717/0.332	0.741/0.300	0.674/0.395	0.779/0.250	0.763/0.271	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000
Nm	4.43	4.97	4.28	6.13	5.66	1.58	1.34	1.28
Groups	NAVxBSD	MOGxCAC	MOGxEUC	MOGxLMO	MOGxBAB	MOGxIBI	MOGxPRO	MOGxAGV
F_{ST}	0.263	0.046	0.011	0.018	0.033	0.042	0.019	0.013
Wright	Highest	Small						
GI/GD	0.000/0.000	0.865/0.145	0.892/0.112	0.830/0.186	0.779/0.250	0.778/0.251	0.875/0.133	0.887/0.114
Nm	1.38	10.09	12.91	7.14	6.13	6.59	10.41	11.21
Groups	MOGxBSA	MOGxBSB	MOGxBSC	MOGxBSD	CACxEUC	CACxLMO	CACxBAB	CACxIBI
Fst	0.241	0.241	0.244	0.327	0.096	0.103	0.053	0.146
Wright	High	High	High	Highest	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
GI/GD	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.781/0.248	0.702/0.354	0.751/0.286	0.751/0.286
Nm	1.57	1.52	1.46	1.10	6.14	4.08	4.98	3.02
Groups	CACxPRO	CACxAGV	CACxBSA	CACxBSB	CACxBSC	CACxBSD	EUCxLMO	EUCxBAB
Fst	0.020	0.046	0.277	0.277	0.279	0.288	0.051	0.034
Wright	Small	Small	Highest	Highest	Highest	Highest	Moderate	Small
GI/GD	0.726/0.320	0.703/0.352	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.813/0.207	0.862/0.149
Nm	4.86	4.45	1.31	1.28	1.22	1.32	6.26	8.38
Groups	EUCxIBI	EUCxPRO	EUCxAGV	EUCxBSA	EUCxBSB	EUCxBSC	EUCxBSD	LMOxBAB
F_{ST}	0.088	0.072	0.084	0.271	0.260	0.277	0.276	0.124
Wright	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Highest	Highest	Highest	Highest	Moderate
GI/GD	0.670/0.400	0.721/0.327	0.682/0.382	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.610/0.495
Nm	4.16	4.88	4.28	1.35	1.31	1.25	1.35	5.75

Groups	LMOxIBI	LMOxPRO	LMOxAGV	LMOxBSA	LMOxBSB	LMOxBSC	LMOxBSD	BABxIBI
Fst	0.106	0.057	0.072	0.205	0.183	0.214	0.187	0.042
Wright	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	High	High	High	Small
GI/GD	0.655/0.422	0.663/0.411	0.760/0.274	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.766/0.267
Nm	3.51	3.61	4.88	1.18	1.15	1.37	1.19	5.17
Groups	BABxPRO	BABxAGV	BABxBSA	BABxBSB	BABxBSC	BABxBSD	IBIxPRO	IBIxAGV
F _{ST}	0.057	0.097	0.263	0.264	0.265	0.238	0.073	0.040
Wright	Moderate	Moderate	Highest	Highest	Highest	High	Moderate	Small
GI/GD	0.804/0.218	0.678/0.388	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.868/0.141	0.848/0.165
Nm	6.06	3.84	1.22	1.19	1.14	1.23	9.02	7.83
Groups	IBIxBSA	IBIxBSB	IBIxBSC	IBIxBSD	PROxAGV	PROxBSA	PROxBSB	PROxBSC
F_{ST}	0.230	0.327	0.303	0.290	0.023	0.215	0.167	0.244
Wright	Highest	Highest	Highest	Highest	Small	High	High	High
GI/GD	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.887/0.114	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000
Nm	1.28	1.25	1.20	1.29	11.03	1.30	1.27	1.21
Groups	PROxBSD	AGVxBSA	AGVxBSB	AGVxBSC	AGVxBSD	BSAxBSB	BSAxBSC	BSAxBSD
F_{ST}	0.264	0.218	0.218	0.249	0.221	0.004	0.016	0.018
Wright	Highest	High	High	High	High	Small	Small	Small
GI/GD	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.000/0.000	0.962/0.039	0.935/0.067	0.977/0.023
Nm	1.31	1.28	1.25	1.20	1.29	27.94	20.07	13.27
Groups	BSBxBSC	BSBxBSD	BSCxBSD					
F _{ST}	0.009	0.015	0.006					
Wright	Small	Small	Small					
GI/GD	0.968/0.032	0.968/0.033	0.975/0.025					
Nm	21.68	22.58	25.14					

Table 6. (cont.) Statistics used in the combination of *Prochilodus lineatus* Wsamp and broodstocks.

For the population names see Table 1; ¹ fixation index; ² genetic differentiation of WRIGHT (1978); ³ genetic identity and genetic distance; ⁴ migratory number.

When assessing the broodstock values, the results of the distance (from 0.023 to 0.067) and genetic identity (from 0.935 to 0.977) analyzes indicated high genetic similarity. A similar pattern was observed in the results from the AMOVA for the broodstocks, with small differentiation between broodstocks ($F_{ST} = 0.0120$) (Table 5). The F_{ST} from all combinations of broodstocks (six combinations) had values ranging from 0.004 (BSA x BSB) to 0.018 (BSA x which indicates a small BSD), genetic differentiation. Similarly, the results from the Nm analysis indicated a high gene flow among the groups, with values ranging from 13.27 to 27.94 individuals per generation (Table 6).

Finally, when comparing WSamp with broodstocks, the results of the distance and genetic identity indicated high genetic differentiation, which confirms the results from the allelic frequencies. Based on the AMOVA, the highest genetic variation (p<0.05) was observed within groups where F_{ST} value of 0.1658 indicated high genetic differentiation (Table 5). Conversely, for all combinations (40 combinations), the FST values ranged from 0.163

(NAV x BSA) to 0.327 (MOG x BSD), suggesting a high and highest genetic differentiation. Similarly, the results from the Nm analysis indicate a low gene flow among the WSamp and broodstocks, with values ranging from 1.10 to 1.58 individuals per generation. The dendrogram from the UPGMA confirmed these results, indicated two specific clusters: one for the WSamp and the other for the broodstocks (Figure 2).



Figure 2. The unweighted pair-group mean analyzes (UPGMA) tree from ten WSamp and four broodstocks of *Prochilodus lineatus*. For the population names see Table 1.

DISCUSSION

Genetic variability

The loci were highly polymorphic, and they amplified the microsatellites alleles consistently. According to FOPP-BAYAT et al. (2010), a high degree of polymorphism indicates informative loci that can be used in population studies. The 44 alleles observed were distributed among several loci (Pli30: 14 alleles, Pli60: 11 alleles, Pl01: 10 alleles and Pli43: 9 alleles). The number of alleles from Pl01 was similar to the results reported by HATANAKA et al. (2006). Otherwise, Pli30, Pli43 and *Pli60* contained fewer alleles than reported by YAZBECK and KALAPOTHAKIS (2007) (Table 3). This difference may be a result of different geographic location of each sample (i.e., different rivers) because each sampling site has a pool of adapted alleles that are specific to each region or location. This condition has been observed in several researches (BRADIC et al., 2012; OROZCO BERDUGO and NARVÁEZ BARANDICA, 2014). Other factors, such as the difference in length of repeat microsatellite (microsatellite with longer repeats showed higher polymorphism) and the methods used to detecting polymorphism (automatic DNA sequencer vs. polyacrylamide gel) may cause this difference (GOLDSTEIN and SCHLOTTERER, 1999). Allele number is positively related to sample size (GOLDSTEIN and SCHLOTTERER., 1999; MU et al., 2011), however, according to HALE et al. (2012), 25 to 30 per individuals population is enough to accurately estimate allele frequencies.

The difference (*P*<0.01) between *Ho* and *He* in most of the wild samples (WSamp) and broodstocks was characterized by deficits of heterozygotes, according to the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (Table 4). These deficits are typical in fish and may arise from Wahlund effect, endogamy or bottleneck effect (CAMP, 1998; GARCÍA DE LEÓN et al., 1997; O'CONNELL and WRIGHT, 1997). Despite the presence of alleles with a low frequency (BAR, LMO, EUC, BSB and BSD) and the deficit of heterozygotes, the genetic variability was high in all groups (WSamp and broodstocks). The average Ho values were high for the WSamp and broodstocks, indicating high intra-population genetic variability. In similar work, HATANAKA et al. (2006) and

CARVALHO-COSTA *et al.* (2008) used microsatellite markers to assess populations of *Prochilodus argenteus* and *Prochilodus costatus* collected in the Três Marias dam (São Francisco River, Brazil) the average *Ho* and *He* value were high (>0.450) for all groups (WSamp and broodstocks), which is a characteristic of high intra-population genetic variability, despite the heterozygosity deficit detected in four of the six loci.

Comparatively, the lower Ho values were detected in three WSamp from the Pardo (CAC, EUC and LMO) and two WSamp from the Tietê River (BAB and PRO), which was in agreement with the presence of low-frequency alleles (EUC and LMO), with deviation in HWE (heterozygous deficiency) and with the positive values of F_{IS}. All samples taken from the old HPPs (in operation since 1958 and 1975) had lower genetic variability (CAC, EUC, LMO and BAB). The same results could be explained by the reduction in the number of individuals in the WSamp (the bottleneck effect). This reduction was potentially influenced by: 1) the impacts of dams and HPP on wild populations of migratory fish that prevented the movement of individuals to appropriate locations during the reproduction cycle and the fragmentation of the aquatic habitat by the power plants (DEHAIS et al., 2010). Studies on the migratory performance of Prochilodus indicate that this genus of fish can migrate distances of 400 to 600 km (AGOSTINHO et al., 1993; ESPINACH-ROS and DELFINO, 1993). GODINHO and KYNARD (2006) analyzed the migration of *P. argenteus* downstream in the HPP Três Marias in the São Francisco River, Minas Gerais State, Brazil, and detected a maximum migratory distance of 127 km. In addition, a study of P. lineatus. PESOA and SCHULZ (2010) found an individual displacement of 102.7 km in the Sinos River, Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil. This fragmentation and the geographic isolation affect the gene flow, thus causing smaller populations and leading to the erosion and loss of genetic variability. These effects are also exacerbated by the number of generations that have become isolated (FALCONER, 1989; RIBOLLI et al., 2012). 2) Overfishing may be another factor that has a significant influence on the number of individuals in these populations, exacerbating the genetic bottleneck and reducing the genetic variability. 3) The Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers have faced several environmental changes, including pollution, riverbed siltation, deforestation along river banks, habitat destruction and introduction of exotic species. These changes in habitat quality have also affected the food chain, which can cause mortality and reduce the effective size of the population and consequently the genetic variability. 4) All of these factors that impact the population can also interact to cause a greater impact than they would alone.

The allelic richness, which characterizes the number of segregating alleles in each population (CABALLERO et al., 2010) was lower in the broodstocks than in the WSamp. This result indicates the presence of historical fluctuations in broodstock size, which was likely influenced by the founder effect. This result was not unexpected because the genetic background of broodstocks is characterized by lower genetic variability than wild populations (FOPP-BAYAT, 2010) possibly caused by founder effect (ALLENDORF and PHELPS, 1980; LACY, 1987) and inappropriate reproductive management (POVH et al., 2011). reproductive management Thus, is of fundamental importance to preserve the genetic diversity of juveniles used in restocking programs (LOPERA-BARRERO, 2009).

The WSamp of BAR, IBI and AVG and the broodstocks - BSA, BSB, BSC and BSD, showed the absence of endogamy based on the F_{IS} value. In the broodstocks, this result confirms the role of the founder effect in causing the lower allelic richness. Otherwise, we found the presence of endogamy in the NAV, MOG, CAC, EUC, LMO, BAB and PRO. The deficit of heterozygotes at one or more loci and the losses alleles indicate null alleles (AUNG et al., 2010), Wahlund effect, or both (HATANAKA et al., 2006) in addition to the presence of the Bottleneck effect (GONZÁLEZ-WANGUEMERT et al., 2012). The analysis by the Micro-Checker 2.2.3 did not find the presence of null alleles, which indicates that the null alleles had no influence. The Wahlund effect, defined as deviations from HWE than may arise from inadvertent grouping of multiple populations into one, or from analyzing a large number of related individuals (HARTL and CLARK, 2007; O'LEARY et al., 2013), did not influence the values found

the samples were taken because from geographically different locations along river fragments that had been caused by the presence of HPP. However, we found that these populations are in drifting, which shows evidence of a recent bottleneck, i.e., a significant reduction in the size of the population in a short time. Usually, a bottleneck shows an excess of homozygotes (NA-NAKORN and MOEIKUM, 2009), causing allele losses, increases in the genetic drift and reductions in genetic variability. Thus, the deficit of heterozygotes from NAV, MOG, CAC, EUC, LMO, BAB and PRO and the lower average of Ho from CAC, EUC, LMO, BAB and PRO was the consequence of bottlenecks.

Genetic structure

The analysis of the presence and distribution of alleles indicates genetic similarities among WSamp from the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers. Similarly, the values of distance and genetic identity highlight the genetic similarities among these populations, as confirmed by the AMOVA ($F_{ST} = 0.0643$) and by the values of F_{ST} and Nm for all the combined populations (Table 6). The dendrogram highlights one cluster for the WSamp and another for broodstocks. The cluster of the WSamp also highlighted genetic relationships among the different rivers. The WSamp BAB, IBI, NAV and PRO (Tietê River) formed a small group, followed by EUC and MOG (Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu Rivers, respectively). Another group was formed by CAC and MOG (Pardo River) and finally AGV (Grande River). This explains the small and moderate genetic differentiation found through the F_{ST}.

There are previous studies on no microsatellites of P. lineatus in this region to provide a comparison. There are only two studies presented by ALMEIDA et al. (2003) and GARCEZ et al. (2011) used RAPD and PCR-RFLP markers, respectively. In the study of ALMEIDA, who analyzed populations of Pimelodus maculatus in the upper, middle and low Tietê River was observed genetic similarity of the populations (using genetic diversity, gene flow and genetic identity) as a result of the movement of fishes through sluiceways built to allow the movement of boats through the BAB, BAR, IBI, PRO and

NAV HPP (hydroway Tietê-Paraná rivers). Similarly, when analyzing wild populations of *P. lineatus* of HPP located in Mogi-Guaçu and Grande rivers, GARCEZ found no significant differentiation between populations (using F_{ST} , Mantel test, AMOVA, nucleotide and haplotype diversities).

BARROCA et al. (2012) analyzed wild populations of *P. costatus* downstream and upstream of the Gafanhoto and Cajuru dams in the Pará River - Minas Gerais, Brazil (built in 1940) and found genetic differentiation when comparing these populations. The explanation of this differentiation could be the lack of migration because of the dam, restocking since 1983, the length of the river, or all these factors. These results obtained in the present study could be explained by three hypotheses: 1) the continuous movement of fishes between the rivers could explain the genetic similarity, since that the Mogi-Guaçu River is upstream of the Pardo, which itself is upstream of the Grande River. The Grande River flows into the Paraná River, which also receives water from the Tietê River (which is some kilometers away). 2) Subpopulations may have been formed, clustering new groups with similar genetic pools in each reservoir after building the HPP in the rivers studied (Pardo = three HPP -Limoneiro, Euclides da Cunha and Caconde; Grande = eight HPP - Peixoto, Estreito, Jaguara, Igarapava, Volta Grande, Porto Colômbia, Marimbondo and Agua Vermelha; Mogi-Guaçu: HPP Mogi-Guaçu; Tietê = five HPP - Nova Avanhandava, Bariri, Barra Bonita, Ibitinga and Promissão), which impeded the natural gene flow. Currently, there is link only between the HPP of the Tietê (BAB, BAR, IBI, PRO and NAV) throughout artificial sluiceways. 3) The continuous restocking of these populations for more than 15 years in the sampling areas may have homogenized the genetic pool of these wild populations.

On the first hypothesis, the pioneering study by TOLEDO-FILHO *et al.* (1987) revealed that the range of *Prochilodus scrofa* population in the Grande river basin corresponds to 1072 km of the river extension, being reported migratory distances 400-600 km for *Prochilodus* genus in other basins (AGOSTINHO *et al.*, 1993; ESPINACH-ROS and DELFINO, 1993). However,

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other researches has shown that *P. lineatus* has a mixed performance migratory (resident and migratory fish), with a small migration of 102-127 km (GODINHO and KYNARD, 2006; PESOA and SCHULZ, 2010). Moreover, TOLEDO-FILHO et al. (1987) in the Grande river basin observed that four dams were barriers to migration (Socorro, Salto de Pinhal, HPP Mascarenhas de Moraes and HPP Limoeiro) and two dams (Itaipava and Emas Novas) equipped with passage ladders, allowed the movement upstream. Thus, despite the connection among the rivers, the migratory performance of *P. lineatus* populations is being affected. Therefore, the genetic similarity among the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu rivers cannot be completely explained by this hypothesis.

For the second hypothesis, it is important to highlight that several studies analyzing the genetic impact of dams and HPP on wild populations of fish strongly demonstrate the creation of genetic structuration, which is reinforced by the generations under isolation. For example, YAMAMOTO et al. (2004) evaluated the genetic differentiation of 11 wild populations of Salvelinus leucomaenis in Japanese Rivers that were affected by dams and observed the genetic differentiation among all population combinations and the reduction in genetic variability in proportion to the time under isolation. Similarly, ESGUÍCERO and ARCIFA (2010) analyzed the morphological characteristics of Salminus hilarii upstream and downstream of the Gavião Peixoto dam on the Jacaré-Guaçu River, Brazil (built in 1913), and reported fragmentation and interpopulational structuration. BARROCA et al. (2012) analyzed wild populations of P. costatus downstream, between and upstream of the Gafanhoto and Cajuru dams in the Pará River (built in 1940) and detected genetic differentiation, suggesting a small amount of or no gene flow between the dams. In contrast, RIBOLLI et al. (2012) analyzed the impact of three dams built in 2000, 2002 and 2005 on the genetic variability of 11 wild populations of *P. maculatus* in the Alto Uruguay River and found low differentiation and genetic structure. Considering the results from these studies and that BAR, NAV, CAC, EUC, LMO, BAB, IBI, PRO and AGV have been operating for more than 30 years, the formation

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of subpopulations and genetic population structuration are to be expected. Therefore, the genetic similarity among the Wsamp of the current rivers cannot be sustained using the second hypothesis, although historical similarities may persist over time, influenced by the size of subpopulations, the number of generations after the separation and the breeding with individuals from other subpopulations (natural movement or restocking). Thus, the influence of sluiceways could be the explanation for the genetic similarity among the Wsamp of the Tietê River (BAR, NAV, BAB, IBI and PRO). Similarly, the latest HPP (MOG = established 14 years ago) could be the only one without such structuration.

Finally, studies have noted that a well-run restocking program can effectively increase the number of fish in wild populations (BLANCO GONZALEZ et al., 2009; LOPERA-BARRERO et al., 2010a; BARROCA et al., 2012). Additionally, reports from ARAKI and SCHMID (2010), MARIE et al. (2010) and SATAKE and ARAKI (2012) have shown that the genetic homogeneity of wild populations is possible after generations of restocking. Despite these results, the lack of genetic similarity among the WSamp and the broodstocks evaluated in the current study showed that this hypothesis was not sustained by itself. It is likely that the broodstock sampling was not representative of the sampled wild populations, because the ancestries were collected from the Paraná River (not studied in the current work), with later addition of individuals from Tietê and Pardo Rivers. Thus, it is believed that a combination of all these factors (historical movement of P. lineatus in the investigated region, the presence of sluiceways and restocking) is the best explanation for the current results and the genetic similarity of the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu rivers.

In the four current broodstocks, we also found genetic similarities after analyzing the presence and distribution of alleles, AMOVA, genetic distance and identity, F_{ST} and Nm values for all of the population combinations, which were considered to be only one genetic cluster. This result could have been expected because the broodstocks were formed using the same ancestries collected from the Paraná River and

had individuals added from the same populations from the Tietê and Pardo Rivers. Other factors, such as breeding systems (i.e., small groups of broodstocks, sexual proportion of reproductive dominance, endogamy, high individual variation during reproduction) and size fluctuations across time can result in changes to and losses of allelic diversity (BORREL *et al.*, 2007; FOPP-BAYAT *et al.*, 2010; LOPERA-BARRERO *et al.*, 2010b; POVH *et al.*, 2010), which could be the case in the current broodstocks.

Genetic conservation

Information about the variability and genetic structure of wild populations is essential to reduce the genetic decline, improve conservation programs such as restocking, and guarantee the survivorship of ichthyologic resources. According to GARDNER *et al.* (2010), insights into restocking programs along with study of the ecology and monitoring of released stocks is important to verify the potential of biological and genetic impacts of broodstocks on wild populations.

The correct use of restocking programs requires several conditions. First, establish broodstocks with genetic variability must be established to increase the initial genetic variability through the choice of individuals that better represent the genetic pool of the wild populations, offer an important basis to formulate reproductive strategies (BORREL et al., 2007; minimise LOPERA-BARRERO, 2009), and adaptation to captivity (WILLIAMS and HOFFMAN, 2009). Mating related individuals can reduce the effective size of the broodstocks, which favours endogamic depression (GONZÁLEZ-WANGUEMERT et al., 2012).

The genetic diversity in the wild populations is the raw material for maintaining species diversity and evolutionary capacity, which allows adaptation to environmental changes (SANFORD and KELLY, 2011). Thus, the wild populations must also be genetically analyzed. If individuals are released into the wild, these individuals must be genetically representative of these populations (LOPERA-BARRERO, 2009). Therefore, genetic adaptation to captivity must be minimized by reducing the number of generations in captivity (WILLIAMS and HOFFMAN, 2009) and modifying reproductive management to preserve the genetic variability (RODRIGUEZ-RODRIGUEZ *et al.*, 2010).

CONCLUSION

The genetic variability in the WSamp and broodstocks was high. Within all ten HPP and four broodstocks, there was genetic similarity observed in contrast to the differentiation that was found between both. The combination of historical movement of P. lineatus in the investigated region, the presence of sluiceways and restocking is the best explanation for the genetic similarity in the WSamp. Genetic monitoring using molecular markers of broodstocks, progenies and wild populations is fundamental to maintain the genetic variability and prevent inbreeding effects in populations. Therefore, the current experiment study has great importance in assist restocking programs of P. lineatus in the Tietê, Grande, Pardo and Mogi-Guaçu rivers, and serve as a model of monitoring for other programs conducted in Brazil.

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