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[Dammannagoda, Sudath T.](#), [Hurwood, David](#), & [Mather, Peter](#) (2011) Genetic analysis reveals two stocks of skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) in the north western Indian Ocean. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences (CJFAS)*, 68(2), pp. 210-223.

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1 **Genetic analysis reveals two stocks of skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*)**
2 **in the north western Indian Ocean**

3

4 **Sudath T. Dammannagoda, David A. Hurwood and Peter B. Mather**

5 *Biogeosciences Discipline, Faculty of Science & Technology, Queensland University of*
6 *Technology, GPO Box 2434, Brisbane Q 4001, Australia.*

7 Correspondence: Sudath T. Dammannagoda Email: s.dammannagoda@qut.edu.au

8 Tel: +61 7 31385051 Fax: +61 7 31382330

9

10 **Abstract**

11 Skipjack (SJT) (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) is a medium sized, pelagic, highly dispersive tuna
12 species that occurs widely across tropical and subtropical waters. SJT constitute the largest
13 tuna fishery in the Indian Ocean, and are currently managed as a single stock. Patterns of
14 genetic variation in a mtDNA gene and 6 microsatellite loci were examined to test for stock
15 structure in the northwestern Indian Ocean. 324 individuals were sampled from five major
16 fishing grounds around Sri Lanka, and single sites in the Maldivian Islands and the Laccadive
17 Islands. Phylogenetic reconstruction of mtDNA revealed two coexisting divergent clades in
18 the region. AMOVA (Analysis of Molecular Variance) of mtDNA data revealed significant
19 genetic differentiation among sites ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.2029$, $P < 0.0001$), also supported by SAMOVA
20 results. AMOVA of microsatellite data also showed significant differentiation among most
21 sampled sites ($F_{ST} = 0.0256$, $P < 0.001$) consistent with the mtDNA pattern. STRUCTURE
22 analysis of the microsatellite data revealed two differentiated stocks. While the both two
23 marker types examined identified two genetic groups, microsatellite analysis indicates that the
24 sampled SJT are likely to represent individuals sourced from discrete breeding grounds that
25 are mixed in feeding grounds in Sri Lankan waters.

26

27 **Key words:** Skipjack tuna, *Katsuwonus pelamis*, Indian Ocean, mtDNA, microsatellites

28 **Introduction**

29 A widely accepted view among many fisheries managers is that most tuna species are wide-
30 ranging, dispersive species that given their cosmopolitan distributions, large population sizes,
31 high fecundity and production of pelagic eggs and larvae, most probably constitute essentially
32 homogeneous populations over oceanic spatial geographical scales. General characteristics of
33 the open ocean environment combined with tuna life history traits have led to the expectation
34 that most tuna species will show little, if any, population structure even at very large spatial
35 scales (inter-oceanic) (Ward et al. 1994; Chow and Ushiyama 1995; Ely et al. 2005). In this
36 context, populations of most tuna species are currently managed as single stocks (e.g.
37 yellowfin tuna and bigeye tuna in the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian Oceans). Given this
38 background, skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) (SJT) are currently considered, like most
39 tuna species, to constitute a single panmictic population and hence are managed as single
40 stocks at an ocean-wide scale in all oceans by the respective international commissions (i.e.
41 IOTC-Indian Ocean Tuna Commission; WCPFC-Western and Central Pacific Fisheries
42 Commission; IATTC- Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission; and ICCAT-International
43 Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tuna). This approach is not based however, on
44 experimental stock delineation studies but largely on preconceptions about general tuna life
45 history traits (LHTs), and fishery data.

46 Stock delineation studies of large tuna species have most often been based on
47 sampling designs at oceanic scales due to an expectation that, populations are unlikely to
48 show structure at finer spatial scales. Indeed, a population genetic study of SJT carried out at
49 an oceanic scale in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans that employed mtDNA RFLP data could
50 not detect any SJT differentiation between these water bodies (Graves et al. 1984). A more
51 recent oceanic-scale study of SJT from the Atlantic and Indian Oceans that employed mtDNA
52 D-loop sequence data also could not differentiate SJT from the two oceans (Ely et al. 2005).

53 However, a recent study of SJT from the east coast of India and from the Pacific Ocean near
54 Japan could differentiate the two samples using mtDNA RFLP markers (Menezes et al. 2005),
55 it failed however, to differentiate the Japanese sample and an SJT sample from the west coast
56 of India using microsatellite markers (Menezes et al. 2008). The scale of these studies,
57 perhaps combined with a lack of sensitivity in the molecular markers used, may have
58 hindered potential for detecting real population differentiation, if it was present. In contrast,
59 earlier allozyme studies, that employed relatively fine scale sampling detected population
60 structure at both inter- and intra ocean spatial scales (e.g. Sharp 1978, Fujino et al. 1981).

61 Evidence for heterogeneous intra-specific stocks of tuna species and other large
62 marine pelagic fishes have increased in recent times (Atlantic cod: Ruzzante et al. 1998;
63 Knutsen et al. 2003; Atlantic bluefin tuna: Carlsson et al. 2004, Carlsson et al. 2006, Boustany
64 et al. 2008; yellowfin tuna: Dammannagoda et al. 2008; swordfish: Kotoulas et al. 1995; Reeb
65 et al. 2000; flounder: Florin and Hoglund 2008; wahoo: Garber et al. 2005; sailfish: Hoolihan
66 et al. 2004). Most have employed sampling at relatively fine geographical scales and have
67 considered ocean current patterns, historical geomorphological factors, bathymetry of the
68 ocean basin, salinity gradients, and specific LHTs characteristics of individual species. Thus,
69 simplistic assumptions about a species' general life history traits (e.g. large-size, fast-
70 swimming, highly mobile, pelagic larvae etc.) used to define the scale at which sampling is
71 conducted, may inadvertently miss real population subdivision and hence potentially mislead
72 management decisions.

73 SJT constitute the largest tuna fishery in the world and this is also the case in the
74 Indian Ocean (FAO 2008). Substantial increases however, in the fishing effort employed by
75 purse-seiners over the last decade in the western Indian Ocean, have suggested that the
76 relative abundance of SJT in these areas may have declined. As the western Indian Ocean is
77 considered to be an important SJT recruitment area, authorities are concerned about the health

78 of the fishery there (IOTC 2007). Importantly, unlike other industrial tuna fisheries around the
79 world, the SJT fishery is the principal animal protein resource for many coastal communities
80 in developing nations in the Indian Ocean and provides important employment and livelihood
81 opportunities for many poor communities. A collapse of SJT stocks in the region, could
82 compromise not only food security of many poor people, but also important employment
83 opportunities for coastal populations.

84 The IOTC currently considers that Indian Ocean SJT stocks are resilient. In addition,
85 IOTC tagging studies have shown rapid, large scale movements of SJT in the western Indian
86 Ocean and they have used these data to argue that SJT is a single stock for management
87 purposes there (IOTC 2007), and as such SJT are currently managed as a single stock in the
88 Indian Ocean. In reality however, little is known about SJT stock delineation, or maximum
89 sustainable yield, in this region (IOTC 2007).

90 Managing any fishery does not simply mean managing total fish numbers. While non-
91 genetic methods of stock assessment including morphological/meristic or fishery based
92 methods can only infer fish breeding units, a population genetics approach can directly test
93 the hypothesis that genetically different breeding units may be present (Ward 2000). If one or
94 more of the genetically distinct breeding units is at low abundance, equal fishing pressure on
95 both groups, can lead to extinction of one or more of the low abundance groups. Furthermore,
96 a number of marine fisheries around the world consist of mixtures of genetically discrete
97 stocks in commercial fishing grounds, where individuals have originated from discrete
98 spawning sites (e.g. salmon fisheries in the northwest Pacific (Shaklee et al. 1999)). Evidence
99 has also increased that some tuna fisheries consist of mixed stocks in fishing grounds (e.g.
100 Atlantic bluefin tuna (ABT) in the Mediterranean Sea (Carlsson et al. 2006) and the Gulf of
101 Mexico (Boustany et al. 2008).

102 Uncontrolled harvesting of wild populations can perturb natural genetic subdivision
103 among populations and reduce overall stock productivity. This may not be recognised
104 however, unless subpopulations have been identified independently, and individuals from
105 population mixtures are assigned to their correct subpopulations (Allendorf et al. 2008).
106 Consequently, to manage populations in a sustainable way, we need to understand ‘real’ stock
107 structure (Waples et al. 2006; Palsboll et al. 2007). It is likely therefore, that a lack of detailed
108 population genetic studies of Indian Ocean SJT stocks has constrained development of
109 appropriate and effective scientific management strategies for this species.

110 Here we examine the extent of genetic differentiation in both mtDNA and
111 microsatellite markers among SJT samples collected between 2001 and 2004 in waters of the
112 north western Indian Ocean around Sri Lanka including the Maldive Islands and Laccadive
113 Islands. The aim was to test for population structure among major fishing grounds around Sri
114 Lanka and to evaluate whether SJT catches in this region could represent heterogeneous
115 stocks.

116

117 **Materials and methods**

118 *Sampling*

119 SJT samples were collected from commercial fishing operations from five sites around Sri
120 Lanka and single sites in the Maldivic Islands and the Laccadive Islands (Figure 1). Sampling
121 sites were selected to represent major fishing grounds in Sri Lankan waters, and two
122 collections (Maldivic Islands and the Laccadive Islands) as outgroups to compare the levels of
123 genetic differentiation in SJT populations from geographically remote regions in the
124 northwestern Indian Ocean. Samples were collected between 2001 and 2004, with white
125 muscle tissue collected from approximately 50 individuals per site (Table 1). Muscle tissue
126 samples were removed from fish and stored in 95% ethanol for later genetic analyses.

127 (insert Figure 1)

128 *DNA extraction, PCR and screening for variation*

129 Total genomic DNA was extracted from each sample using either a phenol-chloroform
130 (Sambrook et al. 1989) or a modified salt extraction method (Miller et al. 1988). The whole
131 mtDNA ATP-*synthase* subunits 6 and 8 region (ATPase 6, 8) was targeted using the ATP 8.2
132 L (5'AAA GCR TYR GCC TTT TAA GC 3') and COIII.2H (5' GTT AGT GGT CAK GGG
133 CTT GGR TC 3') primers (<http://striweb.si.edu/bermingham/research/primers/index.html>)
134 resulting in a ~950bp fragment. Subsequently, two ATPase internal primers were designed to
135 produce a 540bp fragment, a size more appropriate for Temperature Gradient Gel
136 Electrophoresis (TGGE) analysis (Forward primer: 5' CCT AGT GCT AAT GGT GCG ATA
137 AA 3'; Reverse primer: 5' TTC CTC CAA AAG TTA TAG CCC AC 3') that was used in
138 further analyses. MtDNA PCR reactions consisted of 2.5µL Roche 10X buffer, 0.5µL 25mM
139 Fisher MgCl₂, 1µL Roche deoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTP), 1µL 10 mM primer, 0.2µL
140 Roche Taq DNA polymerase, 1µL DNA template (~200ng) adjusted to a final volume of
141 25µL with 16µL ddH₂O. MtDNA PCR conditions were, 5 minutes at 94⁰C for initial

142 denaturation, then 30 cycles of 40 seconds at 94⁰C, 40 seconds at 52⁰C, 40 seconds at 72⁰C,
143 with the final extension step 8 minutes at 72⁰C. MtDNA variation was assayed using
144 Temperature Gradient Gel Electrophoresis with outgroup heteroduplex analysis
145 (TGGE/OGHA) as described in Lessa and Applebaum (1993) and Campbell et al. (1995).
146 Each unique haplotype identified using TGGE/OGHA was sequenced. A few unique
147 haplotypes were sequenced in both directions, and as forward and reverse sequences were
148 perfectly complementary, remaining haplotypes were then sequenced only in the forward
149 direction. All sequencing was performed at the Australian Genome Research Facility (AGRF)
150 using an ABI 3730xl sequencing platform. PCR products from each unique haplotype were
151 purified using ethanol precipitation, and sequenced using the forward primer and the BigDye
152 terminator Sequencing Ready Reaction v3.1 kit (Applied Biosystems, California, USA)
153 following manufacturer's specifications. Sequences were uploaded to GenBank under
154 accession numbers FJ481378-FJ481426.

155 SJT genomic libraries were developed specifically for the current study using a
156 radioisotopic method as described in Chand et al. (2005). Microsatellite markers were
157 targeted, isolated and trialed to produce polymorphic loci that were optimised to screen for
158 variation in the sampled populations. Two tri- (UTD328, UTD203) and four tetra-nucleotide
159 microsatellite loci (UTD73, UTD535, UTD523, and UTD172) were amplified and analysed
160 here (Electronic Appendix S3). Microsatellite PCR reaction mix consisted of ~50ng/ μ L DNA
161 1 μ L, 1.25 μ L of 10X PCR buffer (Roche), 0.25 μ L of 25mM MgCl₂, 0.5 μ L of 10mM dNTP
162 (Roche), 0.5 μ L of each 10mM forward and reverse primers, 0.1 μ L of Taq (Roche) and
163 ddH₂O to a final volume of 10 μ L. PCR conditions were; 5 minutes at 94⁰C for initial
164 denaturation, then 30 cycles of 30 seconds at 95⁰C, 30 seconds at relevant annealing
165 temperature (Electronic Appendix S3), 30 seconds at 72⁰C and a final extension step at 72⁰C
166 for 8 minutes. Microsatellite polymorphisms were analysed on a Gelscan2000 System

167 (Corbett Research) in 5% acrylamide gels run according to the manufacturer's instructions. A
168 50-350bp size standard (Tamra 350) was run at both ends of each gel and in two additional
169 lanes to confirm allele size. In addition to the size standard, an allele reference standard was
170 generated for known SJT allele sizes and this standard was run in two additional lanes to
171 ensure consistent allele scoring across all gel runs. Microsatellite allele sizes were scored
172 using One D-scan 2.05 (Scanalytics, Inc., 1998).

173

174 *Statistical analysis*

175 *mtDNA variation*

176 MtDNA haplotype sequences were edited and aligned in BioEdit version 7.0.1 (Hall 1999)
177 and sequence data then tested for deviation from neutral expectations using both Tajima's D
178 (Tajima 1989) and Fu's F_S (Fu 1997) tests implemented in Arlequin version 2.00 (Schneider
179 et al. 2005). Significance for both tests was determined using the coalescent simulation
180 process in DnaSP 4.10 (Rozas et al. 2003) with 1000 replicates. P values of multiple
181 neutrality tests were adjusted using the Bonferroni correction (Rice 1989).

182 A mtDNA parsimony cladogram of haplotypes was constructed (at 95% level
183 connectivity) using TCS version 1.18 (Clement et al. 2000). Haplotype networks reconstruct
184 the genealogical history of haplotypic variation and illustrate the evolutionary relationship
185 among unique haplotypes. Under coalescent principles, internal haplotypes in a network are
186 assumed to be ancestral, while tip haplotypes are considered younger, more recently derived
187 types (Templeton et al. 1987; Templeton and Sing 1993; Crandall 1996). Frequency and site
188 information were incorporated into the SJT network here to illustrate the distribution of
189 haplotypes among locations.

190 Genetic variation was examined using several standard diversity indices including; the
191 number of segregating (polymorphic) sites (S), haplotype diversity (H_d), and molecular

192 diversity indices including nucleotide diversity (π) (Nei, 1987), the average number of
193 pairwise nucleotide differences (k) (Tajima, 1983), and expected heterozygosity based on
194 number of segregating sites (θ_s) (Watterson, 1975) implemented in Arlequin for the total SJT
195 sample collection and for individual samples.

196 Population genetic analyses were performed using Arlequin and DnaSP. Spatial
197 differentiation was estimated using the fixation index (Φ_{ST}) (Excoffier et al. 1992) that
198 includes information on mitochondrial haplotype frequency (Weir and Cockerham 1984), and
199 genetic divergence among unique haplotypes. For all Φ_{ST} analyses, the Tamura and Nei
200 (1993) distance method was used as it accounts for mutational rate heterogeneity among
201 nucleotides within the gene fragment. Using Φ statistics, analysis of molecular variance
202 (AMOVA) was performed to examine the amount of genetic variability partitioned within and
203 among SJT populations (Excoffier et al. 1992). Hierarchical AMOVA was used to investigate
204 the effects of temporal and spatial sampling. Hierarchical AMOVA partitions total genetic
205 differentiation (Φ_{ST}) among pre-defined groups, and yields two measures of genetic
206 differentiation; Φ_{SC} that describes variation among sample populations within groups, and at a
207 higher level in the hierarchy, Φ_{CT} that describes differentiation among groups (Excoffier et al.
208 1992). In the current study, first, the entire sample collection was tested for genetic
209 differentiation to test the null hypothesis of panmixia among collections. Secondly,
210 hierarchical AMOVA analysis was undertaken to determine if any observed structure was
211 partitioned temporally or spatially. Hierarchical groups were organised as year groups. For
212 year groups, sites were grouped based on year of sampling (i.e. 4 groups - 2001, 2002, 2003,
213 and 2004). Genetic variation was therefore partitioned among year (Φ_{CT}), among sites within
214 years (Φ_{SC}), and within sites. Using this hierarchical grouping, we tested the stability of any
215 inferred structure among sampling sites that remained stable over time, and simultaneously,
216 assessed genetic differentiation among sites within years. All other mtDNA analyses were

217 carried out for pooled temporal samples from each site as there was no temporal variation.
218 The significances of variance components for each hierarchical comparison were tested using
219 a nonparametric permutation procedure incorporating 1000 iterations.

220 Spatial population structure was also examined by estimating genetic differentiation
221 between all pairs of sites (pair wise Φ_{ST} analysis). Significance of pair site comparisons were
222 tested using the permutation process, as above. In all instances with multiple tests, P values
223 were adjusted using the Bonferroni correction (Rice 1989).

224 Spatial structure was investigated further via Spatial Analysis of Molecular Variance
225 (SAMOVA) (Dupanloup et al. 2002). This analysis identifies groups of sample sites that are
226 most similar and that are geographically meaningful. SAMOVA uses the statistics derived
227 from an AMOVA, and incorporates geographical information on sampling sites (i.e.
228 geographical distances among sites) with a simulated annealing approach to maximise the
229 Φ_{CT} among groups of populations as well as identifying possible genetic barriers between
230 them, without pre-defining populations (Dupanloup et al. 2002). Thus, SAMOVA defines
231 groups of samples that are geographically homogeneous and also maximally differentiated
232 from each other (Dupanloup et al. 2002).

233

234 *microsatellite variation*

235 Microsatellite data were checked for presence of null alleles, large allele dropout and errors in
236 scoring due to stutter bands using Micro-Checker software version 2.2.3 (Oosterhout et al.
237 2004). Each locus and each site was also tested for deviation from Hardy-Weinberg
238 equilibrium (HWE) in Arlequin with significance of deviations in observed vs expected
239 heterozygosity tested using Exact tests (Guo and Thompson 1992). Inbreeding coefficient

240 (F_{IS}) for each locus and each site were tested using FSTAT version 2.9.3.2 (Goudet 1995).
241 The possibility of linkage disequilibrium (LD) among loci was investigated using the method
242 of Slatkin and Excoffier (1996) in Arlequin with 1000 permutations ($\alpha = 0.05$). P values were
243 adjusted using the Bonferroni correction. Measures of genetic variation including; number of
244 alleles and expected and observed heterozygosities were calculated in Arlequin. An analysis
245 of molecular variance (AMOVA) was used to examine the amount of genetic variation
246 partitioned within and among populations (Excoffier et al. 1992). AMOVA and hierarchical
247 AMOVA tests for the microsatellite data set were organised in a similar way to the mtDNA
248 analysis described above. Further analyses of microsatellite data were carried out for the
249 pooled temporal samples from each site as there was also no temporal variation for
250 microsatellite data also.

251 We assessed the microsatellite data set for sufficient statistical power to detect genetic
252 heterogeneity (i.e. estimating the potential for Type II error) at various true levels of
253 divergence using POWSIM software as described by Ryman et al. (2006). This program uses
254 sample sizes, number of loci, and allele frequencies, and simulates genetic sampling from
255 multiple populations that have drifted apart to a predefined expected degree of divergence
256 defined as F_{ST} . Samples from these populations are used to test the hypothesis of genetic
257 homogeneity and to estimate the α error at each locus separately, using both Fisher's exact
258 test and traditional chi-square approaches, respectively.

259 Presence of multiple SJT breeding units was first tested using the multi-locus
260 microsatellite data set in STRUCTURE version 2.2 (Pritchard et al. 2000). STRUCTURE
261 uses a model-based full Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach that clusters
262 individuals to minimise Hardy-Weinberg disequilibrium and gametic phase disequilibrium
263 between loci within groups. For each value of K , (i.e. the number of genetically distinct
264 populations), the MCMC scheme was run with a burn-in period of 100,000 steps and a chain

265 length of 1,000,000 replicates following the admixture model. Multiple runs were performed
266 to evaluate the reliability of the results, and the number of populations was then determined
267 from posterior probabilities of K estimated, assuming that they originated from 1 to 7
268 populations (i.e. $K = 1$ to 7). In the case of migration rates between populations not being
269 equal, K values may be incorrectly estimated, so values of ΔK following Evanno et al. (2005)
270 were also calculated for each value of K . Individuals were assumed to have been correctly
271 assigned to a population when their q -value (i.e. their posterior probability of belonging to an
272 original population) was at least 80% for the population (Pritchard et al. 2000).

273

274

275 **Results**

276 **Mitochondrial DNA variation**

277 *Genetic variation*

278 Genetic analyses were conducted on 324 individuals sampled from five fishing grounds
279 around Sri Lanka (NE, WE, TA, KM and TR), and single sites from the Maldivian Islands
280 (MD) and Laccadive Islands (LC) (Figure 1 and Table 1). MtDNA haplotype sequence data
281 produced alignment of a 488 bp fragment that included partial *ATPase 6* and the *ATPase 8*
282 gene regions. A total of 52 nucleotide sites were variable (segregating sites) (Table S1,
283 Electronic Appendix). Statistical tests of neutrality, Fu's F_S and Tajima's D tests for each
284 sample population, showed that sample populations did not deviate from the expected neutral
285 model of evolution (data not shown).

286 Polymorphic sites defined a total of 49 unique haplotypes (Table S1 and S2 in the
287 Electronic Appendix). Analysis of variable sites showed that all mutations were synonymous.
288 29 haplotypes were singletons, and the most abundant haplotype (haplotype 6, frequency
289 23.46%) was present at 6 out of 7 sample sites (absent from site MD) (Table S2, Electronic
290 Appendix). The second most abundant haplotype (haplotype 37, frequency 8.33%) was
291 present at 5 sites. Overall nucleotide diversity, and the average number of pairwise nucleotide
292 differences were 0.007 and 3.855, respectively. Population genetic summary statistics are
293 presented in Table 1.

294 (Insert Table 1)

295

296 *Phylogenetic relationships*

297 Haplotypes grouped into two distinct, divergent clades (Tamura and Nei corrected mean
298 divergence among clades was 0.015). Haplotypes belonging to both clades were found at all
299 sample sites. Clade I contained 37 of the 49 haplotypes identified while only 12 haplotypes

300 were present in Clade II. The parsimony network (Figure 2) shows that the most common
301 haplotype (Ht6), was ancestral in Clade I (occurs in the centre of network) while Ht37 was
302 ancestral in Clade II. Uncorrected pairwise divergence among haplotypes in the parsimony
303 cladogram ranged from 0 to 3.7%. Collections at all sample sites represent mixtures of
304 haplotypes from both clades that are independent of year of collection or relative sample size
305 at a site.

306 (Insert Figure 2)

307 *Population differentiation*

308 The pattern of SJT mtDNA haplotype diversity observed at all sites (Electronic Appendix S2
309 and Figure 2) consisted of a single haplotype (sites TA and MD) or two haplotypes (sites NE,
310 WE, KM, TR, and LC) present at high frequency. Common haplotype frequencies however,
311 varied widely among sites. A large number of singleton haplotypes were also present at
312 individual sites (29 of 49 possible haplotypes).

313 Hierarchical analysis that incorporate Tamura and Nei's genetic distance in AMOVA
314 is summarised in Table 2. Across the total sample collection, there was significant genetic
315 differentiation among sites (global $\Phi_{ST} = 0.2029$, $P < 0.001$) when collections over years
316 within sites were pooled. The entire sample collection, when grouped into year classes to
317 assess the impact of temporal collections, showed no significant genetic differentiation among
318 groups for years (among year collections in 2001, 2002, 2003, and 2004) ($\Phi_{CT} = 0.0002$, $P =$
319 0.8739). As no significant genetic variation was evident among year total collections (i.e.
320 among 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 collections, irrespective of sampling site), this implied that
321 overall genetic composition of sampled SJT populations remained temporally stable across
322 the study period. Significant genetic differentiation was evident however, among sites within
323 all sample years indicating that sampled populations showed consistent spatial heterogeneity
324 for genetic variation ($\Phi_{SC} = 0.2030$, $P < 0.001$) over years. Clade-wise hierarchical AMOVA,

325 while predictably showing significant differentiation among clades ($\Phi_{CT} = 0.563$, $P < 0.001$),
326 also detected significant structure among samples within clades ($\Phi_{SC} = 0.295$, $P < 0.001$).

327 (Insert Table 2)

328 Further analysis of individual clades revealed that among site genetic differentiation
329 was limited only to Clade I individuals ($\Phi_{SC} = 0.2136$, $P < 0.001$) (data not shown), while no
330 significant genetic variation was evident for Clade II individuals. Thus, overall genetic
331 differentiation among sites resulted essentially from spatial variation in the distribution of
332 Clade I individuals among sites. This may have been influenced however, by the relatively
333 low numbers of Clade II ($n = 43$) individuals in the total sample and hence there may have
334 been insufficient power to reject the null hypothesis of panmixia for this Clade.

335 Spatial genetic variation among SJT sampling sites was tested at higher resolution
336 using pairwise Φ_{ST} analysis. Pairwise Φ_{ST} estimates for the entire collection are shown in
337 Table 3. Highly significant genetic differentiation was evident between the majority of pairs
338 of sites. After Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, 16 pairs of sites were
339 significantly differentiated. AMOVA analyses overall, showed that while significant spatial
340 genetic differentiation was evident among sampled SJT populations, in general, the entire SJT
341 collection remained genetically stable over time (i.e. the same haplotypes remained in similar
342 frequencies within sites across years).

343 (Insert Table 3)

344 Genetic differentiation among sampled sites not only resulted from relative admixture
345 of the two clades at individual sites, but was also influenced by divergent frequencies of
346 Clade I haplotypes among sites. As a consequence, Spatial Analysis of Molecular Variance
347 (SAMOVA) analysis was employed for the total SJT sample and Clade I to assess whether
348 genetically homogeneous SJT groups were present across the study area.

349 As the best significant homogeneous grouping, SAMOVA indicated three genetically
350 differentiated SJT population groups (Table 4). Specifically, the analysis recognised; KM and
351 MD as discrete populations, and all remaining sites (NE, WE, TA, TR, LC) together as a third
352 discrete population. Similarly, SAMOVA analysis of Clade I individuals also showed
353 additional structuring within the clade, with three genetically differentiated groups identified
354 as i) TR, ii) MD, and iii) all other sites (NE, WE, TA, KM, and LC), that appear to lack any
355 strong geographical pattern.

356 (Insert Table 4)

357

358 **microsatellite variation**

359 *Genetic variability estimates, Hardy-Weinberg and linkage equilibrium*

360 No null alleles, large allele drop out or error scoring were detected using Micro-Checker (95%
361 confidence interval) for the six SJT microsatellite loci (UTD73, UTD203, UTD328, UTD535,
362 UTD523, and UTD172), except at locus UTD328. The analysis showed that locus UTD328
363 results could have been affected by null alleles. Subsequent analyses in AMOVA both
364 including, then excluding locus UTD328 data however, produced similar outcomes. All six
365 loci were therefore included in all further analyses. Descriptive statistics for the six loci are
366 summarised in Table 5. A small number of individuals could not be scored at specific loci due
367 to amplification problems.

368 Sample populations were then tested for conformation to Hardy-Weinberg
369 equilibrium. Significant heterozygote deficiencies ($P < 0.001$) were observed in some
370 comparisons particularly at UTD328 (in all 7 collections) supporting the hypothesis of the
371 presence of null alleles at this locus. Other loci (except for locus UTD203) also showed
372 significant heterozygote deficiencies at two to six sites (Table 5).

373 (Insert Table 5)

374 In addition to heterozygote deficiencies, some loci showed linkage disequilibrium but
375 after Bonferroni correction this constituted only two out of 15 comparisons (data not shown).
376 Heterozygote deficiencies with evidence for linkage disequilibrium, in combination, is a
377 pattern consistent with admixture of genetically heterogeneous SJT groups among the
378 sampled populations (e.g. So et al. 2006).

379

380 *Population structure*

381 Hierarchical AMOVA analysis results for SJT microsatellite data are summarised in Table 6.
382 The result for the entire data set showed significant genetic differentiation among sites ($F_{ST} =$
383 $0.025, P < 0.001$). Pairwise F_{ST} analysis of microsatellite data identified that NE, TR, KM, and
384 LC populations were significantly genetically differentiated from most other populations, a
385 result in concord with mtDNA pairwise Φ_{ST} data (Table 3 and Table 7).

386 (Insert Table 6)

387 Hierarchical AMOVA was conducted to determine temporal and spatial variation
388 among sites. No significant temporal genetic differentiation was evident among year groups
389 sampled from 2001 to 2004 ($F_{CT} = -0.0096, P = 0.861$). Significant spatial genetic variation
390 was detected however, among sites within years ($F_{SC} = 0.0326, P < 0.001$) (Table 6). These
391 results were also consistent with mtDNA hierarchical AMOVA results.

392 (Insert Table 7)

393 As two divergent clades were identified in the mtDNA analysis, microsatellite data
394 were tested to assess the pattern of differentiation for nDNA among clades. No significant
395 differentiation was observed when individuals were grouped by their mtDNA clade type,
396 although significant differentiation was evident among populations within clades (Table 6).
397 The very high within population variation (>97%) and moderate among population within
398 clade variation (2%) could have contributed to a lack of significant differentiation among

399 clades. Therefore, we carried out analysis of the microsatellite data using POWSIM, to test
400 whether the microsatellite data set possessed sufficient statistical power to detect true genetic
401 differentiation, if it were present, that may have gone undetected in hierarchical AMOVA
402 analysis.

403 Separate POWSIM analyses of the seven sampled sites and two mtDNA clades
404 showed clearly that our nDNA data set had high statistical power for detecting true genetic
405 differentiation among populations, but insufficient power to differentiate the two
406 (microsatellite) clades. The microsatellite data set from 7 sample sites was capable of
407 detecting a true F_{ST} estimate of as low as 0.0025 with a probability of 98%, and a true
408 differentiation of 0.005 with a probability of 100%. However, the probability of detecting a
409 true F_{ST} estimate of as low as 0.0005 (from AMOVA analysis) of microsatellite data among
410 mtDNA clades was >42.0%. The α error (corresponding with the probability of obtaining
411 false significance when the true $F_{ST} = 0$) was close to 5% in all cases.

412 We further tested the nDNA data for admixture using the program STRUCTURE
413 (Pritchard et al. 2000). STRUCTURE analysis recognised two distinct groups among the
414 samples using only the ‘Log probability of data [$L(K)$]’ approach (as described in Pritchard et
415 al. 2000). The number of clusters that fitted our data best was not clear because the $L(K)$ did
416 not reach a plateau after $K = 1$ (Table 8). The ΔK statistic described by Evanno et al. (2005)
417 however, showed clearly presence of two distinct groups (the highest ΔK was obtained with K
418 = 2). All seven sample sites were mixtures of the two identified groups in different
419 proportions (Figure 3a) with the vast majority of individuals assigned with 80% or greater
420 probability to one microsatellite group or the other.

421 (Insert Table 8)

422 The fact that two well-supported and genetically identifiable groups were detected
423 using both mtDNA and nDNA markers would strongly suggest that the samples from each

424 site represented a mixture of two separate breeding units. However, for this to be true, cyto-
425 nuclear disequilibrium among the two marker systems should be evident. We therefore tested
426 this hypothesis by repeating the microsatellite assignment analysis in STRUCTURE for $K = 2$
427 but separating samples into groups based on their respective mtDNA clades. In this analysis,
428 Clade I individuals had an approximate 50/50 split of confidently assigned individuals from
429 both microsatellite groups. The pattern was different for Clade II individuals where the split
430 was approximately 75/25 (Figure 3b). From this result, it appears that there is little evidence
431 to suggest that the two groups identified by both marker systems have resulted from the same
432 evolutionary/demographic processes.

433 (Insert Figure 3)

434

435 **Discussion**

436 Harvesting fish populations has the potential to cause three types of genetic change: alter
437 population subdivision, cause genetic variation levels to decline, and produce selective
438 genetic changes (Allendorf et al. 2008). To sustain the productivity of any harvested fish
439 population, it is crucial to incorporate genetic considerations into their management.
440 Management plans should be developed by applying basic genetic principles combined with
441 molecular genetic monitoring to minimise any harmful genetic change (Allendorf et al. 2008).
442 Understanding the genetic changes and evolutionary responses of exploited populations is
443 also crucial for design of management strategies aimed at sustainable exploitation of natural
444 biological resources (Walsh et al. 2006). SJT in the Indian Ocean are currently managed as a
445 single stock yet results presented in this study strongly suggest that mixed stocks exist in
446 waters surrounding Sri Lanka.

447

448 ***Phylogenetic relationships***

449 Phylogenetic analyses provide strong support for presence of two divergent mtDNA clades in
450 the north western region of the Indian Ocean. Pairwise divergence among haplotypes in the
451 parsimony cladogram (based on the *ATPase* region) ranged from 0 - 3.7% while Tamura and
452 Nei corrected mean divergence among clades was 1.5%. Recent studies of other tuna and
453 billfish species have also reported multiple highly divergent intra-specific mtDNA lineages
454 both within or among ocean basins notably for, Atlantic bigeye tuna (Martinez et al. 2005),
455 Atlantic bonito (Vinas et al. 2004), and several billfishes (Scombroidei: Xiphidae) including
456 blue marlin (Buonnacorsi et al. 2001), sailfish (Graves and McDowell 2003), and swordfish
457 (Buonnacorsi et al. 2001; Graves and McDowell 2003; Alvarado Bremer et al. 2005). Two
458 sympatric clades have also been recognised for Atlantic bonito in the Mediterranean Sea
459 (Vinas et al. 2004) while for some billfishes (Buonnacorsi et al. 2001; Graves and McDowell

460 2003; Alvarado Bremer et al. 2005) and bigeye tuna (Alvarado Bremer et al. 1998; Martinez
461 et al. 2005), multiple sympatric clades were reported in the Atlantic Ocean. MtDNA
462 heterogeneity observed in these studies and in the present study may have been caused by
463 common vicariance events during Pleistocene glacial maxima that resulted in isolation of
464 populations by reduction in availability of tropical marine habitats due to decreases in ocean
465 water temperature (e.g. Graves and McDowell 2003; Vinas et al. 2004; Alvarado Bremer et al.
466 2005). Further, potential unidirectional gene flow of formerly allopatric populations during
467 interglacial periods providing secondary contacts may have resulted in asymmetrical
468 distribution of clades (Alvarado Bremer et al. 2005). While few studies have focused their
469 attention on SJT, two divergent mtDNA lineages of SJT were detected in the Atlantic and
470 Pacific Oceans (Ely et al. 2005), although not specifically reported at the time. The level of
471 divergence shown by the Ely et al. (2005) study for mtDNA control region sequence is
472 consistent with that of *ATPase* divergence reported here.

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474 ***Population structure***

475 Both mtDNA and nDNA microsatellite data show strong evidence for spatial genetic
476 heterogeneity among the SJT sample sites around Sri Lanka and adjacent areas in the north
477 western Indian Ocean. In addition, evidence for fine geographical scale genetic heterogeneity
478 was confirmed by pairwise analysis of both mtDNA and microsatellite data. It appears
479 however, that fine scale structuring was influenced primarily by differing frequencies of
480 Clade I and II individuals and nDNA genetic group individuals identified in the mtDNA and
481 microsatellite analyses, respectively. It is possible that this is a random sampling effect.

482 From a fisheries management perspective, it was important to determine whether
483 individuals belonging to the two mtDNA clades, interbreed. This however, requires analysis
484 of nDNA because information is only available from the maternal parent for mtDNA.

485 STRUCTURE analysis of nDNA microsatellite data identified the existence of two
486 genetically distinct groups and hence this suggests that individuals belonging to the two
487 mtDNA clades may not interbreed. This depends however, on their being a relatively close
488 association between an individual's mtDNA clade membership and their nDNA group
489 identified in the cluster analysis. If we assume that the divergent mtDNA clades have arisen
490 in allopatry (i.e. there are two geographically distinct breeding grounds and there is a high
491 degree of natal site philopatry over a long evolutionary period), and that individuals of two
492 distinct breeding units mix only after reproduction, then there should be a strong correlation
493 between their individual mtDNA clade and the alleles they carry at nDNA loci. This was not
494 the case here. A simple explanation for this pattern is that there was some historical secondary
495 contact thereby admixing the mtDNA clades. More recently however, there has been a
496 constraint on gene flow between breeding grounds resulting in nuclear allele frequencies
497 diverging due to genetic drift which has provided the signature of differentiated stocks seen in
498 the microsatellite analysis.

499 The two different stocks may spawn in distant areas of the Indian Ocean, following
500 which, juveniles may disperse towards Sri Lanka because this area is a highly fertile feeding
501 ground. Satellite images have shown very high primary productivity/chlorophyll 'a'
502 concentrations around Sri Lanka during the southwest monsoon period (Wiggert et al. 2006).
503 High primary productivity will lead to high zooplankton levels and large schools of bait fish
504 on which SJT feed. As evidence for this relationship, the Wadge Bank near to Sri Lanka is
505 recognised as an important tuna fishing ground. Other explanations for physical mixture of
506 the two SJT clades at sampling sites include; differential passive transport of larvae belonging
507 to the different clades to fishing grounds in Sri Lanka by monsoonal currents in the Indian
508 Ocean.

509 It should be recognized however, that there was no strong pattern in the geographical
510 distribution of the groups to provide insight into the regions for respective breeding grounds
511 (i.e. there is no discernable genetic group frequency cline for either group from east to west).
512 Therefore, while we can be confident that all samples in this study are a mixture of two
513 discrete breeding units, there is no evidence to suggest that the fishing grounds around Sri
514 Lanka represent a zone of admixture *per se*. Furthermore, as the present study only analysed
515 data on SJT samples from the north western Indian Ocean, the results do not preclude
516 presence of additional SJT spawning stocks and spawning areas in other regions of the Indian
517 Ocean. More work is warranted therefore, aimed at confirming the natal homing of the two
518 SJT stocks, identification of potential spawning sites in the Indian Ocean and more extensive
519 genetic stock structure analysis of SJT populations across the region.

520 It is obvious from the results presented here that SJT stock structure is more complex
521 than had originally been thought, i.e. that SJT populations within ocean basins are not
522 necessarily homogeneous. Given the importance of SJT as a regional food resource to
523 millions of people in the Indian Ocean, effective management of this resource in the future,
524 will require developing a better understanding of the scale at which populations in the region
525 should be managed and secondly, conserving unique areas where discrete stocks may
526 reproduce (spawning grounds).

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534 **Table 1** Descriptive statistics for SJT samples. No. of haplotypes (*h*), No. of polymorphic
 535 sites (*S*), Gene diversity (H_d), mean pairwise nucleotide difference (*k*), Nucleotide diversity
 536 (π), Equilibrium heterozygosity per site estimated from *S* (θ_s)

Population	Location	n	h	S	H_d	<i>k</i>	π	θ_s
Negombo (NE)	79°18', 6°057'	53	11	22	0.706	2.506	0.005	1.646
Weligama (WE)	80°18', 5°034'	52	12	18	0.800	3.165	0.006	1.409
Tangalle (TA)	81°14', 5°042'	41	10	20	0.431	1.404	0.002	1.667
Kalmunei (KM)	82°29', 7°008'	54	15	20	0.797	5.420	0.011	1.513
Trincomalee (TR)	81°51', 8°058'	49	7	14	0.669	2.622	0.005	1.181
Laccadive (LC)	72°31', 11°01'	48	7	17	0.733	3.531	0.007	1.383
Maldives (MD)	73°09', 4° 20'	27	9	23	0.649	5.096	0.010	2.207
Clade I		281	37	38	0.959	2.639	0.005	6.115
Clade II		43	12	28	0.773	4.686	0.009	6.471
Total collection		324	49	52	0.965	3.855	0.007	8.180

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549 **Table 2** Results of AMOVA testing genetic structuring of SJT samples based on
 550 mitochondrial ATPase region sequence data.

Structure tested	Observed partition		Φ statistics
	% of		
	Variance	Total	
1 Total collection (2001,2002,2003,2004) – one gene pool			
Among populations	0.6286	20.29	$\Phi_{ST} = 0.2029^{***}$
Within populations	2.4689	79.71	
2 Among years			
Among years (TEMPORAL)	0.0007	0.02	$\Phi_{CT} = 0.0002$
Among populations within years (SPATIAL)	0.6280	20.30	$\Phi_{SC} = 0.2030^{***}$
Within populations	2.4647	79.68	$\Phi_{ST} = 0.2032$
3 Clade-wise			
Between two clades	1.9336	56.35	$\Phi_{CT} = 0.5635^{***}$
Among samples within clades	0.4457	12.86	$\Phi_{SC} = 0.2945^{***}$
Within populations	1.0677	30.80	$\Phi_{ST} = 0.6920$

551 (***, $P < 0.001$)

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559 **Table 3** MtDNA pairwise Φ_{ST} among SJT sampling sites after Bonferroni correction for
 560 entire collection. ($\alpha = 0.05/21 = 0.002$)

	NE	WE	TA	KM	TR	LC	MD
NE							
WE	0.116**						
TA	0.081**	0.059					
KM	0.271**	0.186**	0.237**				
TR	0.171**	0.069*	0.117*	0.229**			
LC	0.187**	0.070	0.142**	0.267**	0.111**		
MD	0.142**	0.065	0.071	0.116	0.112**	0.116**	

561 (*, $P < 0.002$; **, $P < 0.0001$)

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575 **Table 4** Population structure based on mtDNA differentiation of SJT (in SAMOVA). The row
 576 in bold type indicates the details of geographically meaningful groups with maximum genetic
 577 differentiation

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No. of Groups	Structure	Variation			
		among groups	Variation %	Φ_{CT}	<i>P</i>
2	(KM) (NE,WE,TA,TR,LC,MD)	0.328	14.95	0.149	0.135
3	(KM) (MD) (NE,WE,TA,TR,LC)	0.269	12.68	0.126	0.048
4	(KM) (MD) (NE,TA) (WE,TR,LC)	0.234	11.54	0.115	0.003
5	(KM) (MD) (TR) (NE,TA) (WE, LC)	0.230	11.52	0.115	0.006
6	(KM) (MD) (TR) (NE) (LC) (WE,TA)	0.261	13.13	0.131	0.046

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592 **Table 5** Descriptive statistics for six microsatellite loci among SJT collections. Significant
 593 probability values after Bonferroni correction ($\alpha = 0.05/42 = 0.0011$). Number of samples (n),
 594 Number of alleles (a).

Sample		Locus						Average across loci
		UTD535	UTD523	UTD172	UTD328	UTD203	UTD73	
NE	n	36	36	40	45	43	37	39
	a	14	21	7	22	5	7	12.67
	H_e	0.916	0.949	0.725	0.935	0.344	0.727	0.77
	F_{is}	0.122	0.124	-0.139	0.140*	0.343	-0.041	0.09
WE	n	44	52	43	52	39	41	45
	a	26	25	9	16	8	12	16.00
	H_e	0.962	0.951	0.725	0.904	0.423	0.809	0.80
	F_{is}	0.175*	0.028*	-0.287*	0.189*	-0.049	0.143	0.03
TA	n	33	33	38	44	35	24	34
	a	15	23	11	18	8	6	13.50
	H_e	0.914	0.951	0.845	0.899	0.459	0.738	0.80
	F_{is}	0.107	0.045	-0.027*	0.101*	0.05	0.291*	0.09
KM	n	45	36	42	47	47	45	43
	a	14	21	8	16	5	13	12.83
	H_e	0.912	0.931	0.681	0.861	0.464	0.845	0.78
	F_{is}	0.075	0.046	-0.37*	0.263*	-0.245	0.145*	-0.01
TR	n	35	32	32	46	46	33	37
	a	15	20	6	20	3	15	13.17
	H_e	0.913	0.938	0.558	0.903	0.231	0.881	0.74
	F_{is}	0.094	0.43*	0.088	0.420*	0.291	0.000*	0.22
LC	n	33	35	44	48	48	47	42
	a	16	22	7	24	7	8	14.00
	H_e	0.916	0.946	0.672	0.932	0.409	0.751	0.77
	F_{is}	0.176*	0.157*	-0.323*	0.213*	0.072	-0.02	0.05
MD	n	41	43	45	49	51	51	46
	a	16	27	10	13	7	11	14.00
	H_e	0.914	0.961	0.826	0.853	0.463	0.72	0.79
	F_{is}	0.175	0.422*	-0.131*	0.224*	-0.006	0.047	0.12

595 (*, $P < 0.0001$)

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601 **Table 6** AMOVA results testing spatial and temporal genetic structuring of SJT samples
 602 based on microsatellite data.

Structure tested	Observed partition		<i>F</i> statistics
	Variance	% Total	
1 Total collection (2001,2002,2003,2004)			
Among populations	0.045	2.56	$F_{ST} = 0.0256^{***}$
Within populations	1.728	97.44	
2 Year-wise collection (2001, 2002, 2003, 2004)			
Among groups	-0.0171	-0.97	$F_{CT} = -0.0096$
Among populations (of the same year)			
within groups	0.0583	3.30	$F_{SC} = 0.0326^{***}$
Within populations	1.7278	97.67	$F_{ST} = 0.0233$
3 Clade-wise			
Between two clades	0.0009	0.05	
Among samples within clades	0.0404	2.28	$F_{CT} = 0.0005$
Within populations	1.7321	97.66	$F_{SC} = 0.0228^{***}$

603 (***) $P < 0.001$

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613 **Table 7** Microsatellite pairwise F_{ST} among SJT collections after Bonferroni correction (initial
 614 $\alpha = 0.05/21 = 0.002$)

	NE	WE	TA	KM	TR	LC	MD
NE							
WE	0.0080**						
TA	0.0193***	0.0062					
KM	0.0266***	0.0018	0.0048				
TR	0.0722***	0.0605***	0.0618***	0.0744***			
LC	0.0101	0.0003	0.0127***	0.0132***	0.0778***		
MD	0.0218***	0.0046	-0.0034	0.0174***	0.0559***	0.0159***	

615 (***) $P < 0.001$

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635 **Table 8** Log probability and ΔK for clusters using Bayesian assignment test in STRUCTURE

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K (Number of clusters)	$L(K)$ Average of log probability	Standard deviation	$L'(K)$	$ L''(K) $	ΔK
1	-8412.7	8.94			
2	-8246.5	21.20	166.2	161.2	7.60
3	-8085.3	25.25	161.2	102.2	4.05
4	-7983.1	28.79	102.2	22	0.76
5	-8005.1	33.82	-22	135.7	4.01
6	-7869.4	33.83	135.7	30.3	0.90
7	-7899.7	37.64			

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655 **Figure 1** SJT sampling sites. Abbreviations correspond to sampling localities; (NE), Negombo;
656 (WE), Weligama; (TA), Tangalle; (KM), Kalmunei; (TR), Trincomalee; (LC), Laccadive;
657 (MD), Maldives

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659 **Figure 2** Parsimony cladogram of SJT haplotypes showing the evolutionary relationships
660 among haplotypes. Each circle represents a unique haplotype in the sample, and the size of
661 each circle represents the relative frequency of each haplotype (see legend). Patterns and their
662 percentage in each circle represent the presence of each haplotype at individual sites and their
663 relative abundance respectively. Black dots between haplotypes represent haplotypes that
664 were not sampled in the study

665

666 **Figure 3(a)** A Bar plot of Bayesian clustering analysis ($K = 2$) for SJT microsatellite data set
667 (364 individuals; 6 loci) performed using STRUCTURE. Each bar represents proportional
668 probability of assignment to each genetic group. Abbreviations correspond to sampling
669 localities; (NE), Negombo; (WE), Weligama; (TA), Tangalle; (KM), Kalmunei; (TR),
670 Trincomalee; (LC), Laccadive; (MD), Maldives

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672 **Figure 3(b)** A Bar plot of Bayesian clustering analysis ($K = 2$) for SJT two mtDNA clades
673 (364 individuals; 6 loci) performed using STRUCTURE.

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683 **Acknowledgements**

684

685 This paper forms a component of the PhD research of Sudath T. Dammannagoda on
686 population genetic structure and migratory patterns of yellowfin tuna and skipjack tuna in Sri
687 Lankan waters (Indian Ocean). We acknowledge Dr. Robert D. Ward, Marine and
688 Atmospheric Research Division, CSIRO, Hobart, Australia for helpful comments and support
689 as the external associate supervisor for this PhD program. We thank Maria Menezes and an
690 anonymous reviewer for comments and suggestions that greatly improved the manuscript. All
691 samples were collected and all experiments were performed in compliance with relevant laws
692 and requirements.

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903 **Electronic Appendix**

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905 **Table S1** Variable nucleotide sites in the SJT mtDNA ATP region

	1111	1111111222	2222233333	3333333334	4444444444	44	GenBank
	25580245	5666789255	5667901122	4556788990	0112335477	88	Accession
	3946967532	3147051714	7035684806	1092739564	7065781369	01	Number
Ht1	TATGACCAAT	TTAAACACCC	ATTTGCAAGT	CCGGCATACA	TTCCAGCATT	AT	FJ481378
Ht2C	.T.....	CC....T...	..	FJ481379
Ht3T...T...C	.T.....	.C....T...	..	FJ481380
Ht4CC	.T.....	.C....T...	..	FJ481381
Ht5G...A....	.T.....	.CT.....	..	FJ481382
Ht6T....C	.T....G...	.C....T...	..	FJ481383
Ht7T....C...	.C.....	..	FJ481384
Ht8C	.T.....	AC....T...	..	FJ481385
Ht9	TT.....	FJ481386
Ht10T.T...C	.T.....	.C....T...	..	FJ481387
Ht11T.AT...C	.T.....	.C....T...	..	FJ481388
Ht12C.....	.T.....	FJ481389
Ht13	.G.....C	.T.....T...	.C	FJ481390
Ht14	.G.....C	.T.....T...	..	FJ481391
Ht15	C....T...T	.C.....	.T.....T	CC....T.A.	..	FJ481392
Ht16	C....T...T	.C.....	.T....A.T	CC....T...	..	FJ481393
Ht17	C.....C	G.....	.TA.....	.C.....	..	FJ481394
Ht18C	.T.....	FJ481395
Ht19	CC...T...T	.CC.....	.T.....T	CC....T.A.	..	FJ481396
Ht20C	.T.....	.C....T..C	..	FJ481397
Ht21C.....C	.T.....	.C....T...	..	FJ481398
Ht22	C....A...T	.C.....	.T.....T	CC....T.A.	..	FJ481399
Ht23G..T..T.....	FJ481400
Ht24T.....	.C.....	..	FJ481401
Ht25T...T	.C.....	.T.....T	CC....T.A.	..	FJ481402

Ht26G.....G...TA.....C.....	FJ481403
Ht27C...T...T..C.....A..TA.....T..CC....T.A..	FJ481404
Ht28T...C..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481405
Ht29T..... ..	FJ481406
Ht30T.....C..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481407
Ht31C..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481408
Ht32C...T...T..C.....T.....T..CC....T.A..T.	FJ481409
Ht33C...T...T..C.....T...G..TG..CC....T.A..	FJ481410
Ht34G.....C..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481411
Ht35C.....T.....C..... ..	FJ481412
Ht36G.....C..T.....G..C...AT..C..	FJ481413
Ht37	...C.....C..G.T...T..C.....TA.....T..CC.T..T.A..	FJ481414
Ht38C...T...T..C.....TA.....CC....T.A..	FJ481415
Ht39C...T...T..C.....TA.....T..CC....T.A..	FJ481416
Ht40C...T...T..C.....T.....T..CC..T.T.A..	FJ481417
Ht41	..C.....T..... ..	FJ481418
Ht42C.....T..... ..	FJ481419
Ht43T.....G.. ..	FJ481420
Ht44G..T..... ..	FJ481421
Ht45T.....G..C..... ..	FJ481422
Ht46C..T.A.....C...T... ..	FJ481423
Ht47C..T..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481424
Ht48G.....C..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481425
Ht49	..C.....C..T.....C...T... ..	FJ481426

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912 **Table S2** SJT Haplotype distribution among sampling sites
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Haplotype	Site							Total	Haplotype Frequency %
	NE	WE	TA	KM	TR	LC	MD		
Ht1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0.31
Ht4	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	5	1.54
Ht5	0	0	2	0	0	0	16	18	5.56
Ht6	3	17	31	3	3	19	0	76	23.46
Ht7	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	15	4.63
Ht8	21	0	0	1	0	0	0	22	6.79
Ht9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.31
Ht10	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht11	0	0	0	0	22	0	0	22	6.79
Ht12	20	1	0	2	0	0	0	23	7.10
Ht13	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht14	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht15	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0.62
Ht16	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht17	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0.93
Ht18	3	5	1	1	0	0	0	10	3.09
Ht19	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5	1.54
Ht20	0	0	1	0	0	15	1	17	5.25
Ht21	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0.31
Ht22	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht23	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht24	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht25	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht26	0	0	0	2	18	0	0	20	6.17
Ht27	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht28	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht29	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.31

Ht30	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0.31
Ht31	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0.31
Ht32	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.31
Ht33	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.31
Ht34	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.31
Ht35	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht36	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0.62
Ht37	1	3	0	20	2	1	0	27	8.33
Ht38	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht39	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht40	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht41	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	4	1.23
Ht42	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	6	1.85
Ht43	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0.62
Ht44	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	0.62
Ht45	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht46	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	14	4.32
Ht47	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht48	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.31
Ht49	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.31
Samples	53	52	41	54	49	48	27	324	

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915 **Table S3** Characteristics of six SJT microsatellite loci

Locus	Repeat motif	primer sequence (5'-3')	Expected product size	Anneal. Temp. °C
UTD203	(GAA) ₇ CT(GAA) ₂	F CCC TGT GCT GTC TGT GAA G R TTG AAT CAA TGG CAA CTG GA	157	50
UTD73	(AACT) ₆	F TGT GTG ATG AAG CTA AAG R CAA AAA TAT AGC CTT CGT	135	50
UTD328	(GCT) ₈	F GAG AGA GAA GCG GAC AGG ATA GG	143	50

		R	TGA GTA ATA GAG AGT GGG AAT GG		
UTD535	(AGAT) ₉	F	CAC TGA AGA TAT AGG CAG CCT TG	193	55
		R	TTT CTC CAG CGG CAT TAC AT		
UTD523	(GATA) ₁₈	F	TTT GAA TGG GAG ACA TGC AG	247	55
		R	TGT CCT GCA CTT GTG TTC ACT		
UTD172	(GACT) ₅	F	GTT GTG TAT TTT TGG CTG GAC C	145	55
		R	CAA CAG CTA ACG GGC AAA TTC C		

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