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### Dense SNP panels resolve closely related Chinook salmon populations

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Complete List of Authors:	<p>McKinney, Garrett; University of Washington, School of Aquatic and Fishery Sciences          Pascal, Carita; University of Washington, School of Aquatic and Fishery Sciences          Templin, William; Alaska Department of Fish and Game,          Gilk-Baumer, Sara; Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Gene Conservation Laboratory 333 Raspberry Road Anchorage, AK, USA 99518 (907) 267-2201          Dann, Tyler; Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Gene Conservation Laboratory          Seeb, Lisa; University of Washington, School of Aquatic and Fishery Sciences          Seeb, James; University of Washington, School of Aquatic and Fishery Sciences</p>
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5 Garrett J. McKinney<sup>1a\*</sup>, Carita E. Pascal<sup>1b</sup>, William D. Templin<sup>2c</sup>, Sara E. Gilk-Baumer<sup>2d</sup>, Tyler H. Dann<sup>2e</sup>,6 Lisa W. Seeb<sup>1f</sup>, James E. Seeb<sup>1g</sup>7 <sup>1</sup> School of Aquatic and Fishery Sciences, University of Washington, 1122 NE Boat Street, Box 355020,

8 Seattle WA 98195-5020, USA.

9 <sup>2</sup> Alaska Department of Fish and Game, 333 Raspberry Road, Anchorage, AK, USA 9951810 \*Corresponding author: Garrett J. McKinney (email: [gjmckinn@uw.edu](mailto:gjmckinn@uw.edu), phone: 1-765-430-3272)11 .Emails: <sup>a</sup> [gjmckinn@uw.edu](mailto:gjmckinn@uw.edu); <sup>b</sup> [cpascal@uw.edu](mailto:cpascal@uw.edu); <sup>c</sup> [bill.templin@alaska.gov](mailto:bill.templin@alaska.gov); <sup>d</sup> [sara.gilk@alaska.gov](mailto:sara.gilk@alaska.gov);12 <sup>e</sup> [tyler.dann@alaska.gov](mailto:tyler.dann@alaska.gov); <sup>f</sup> [lseeb@uw.edu](mailto:lseeb@uw.edu); <sup>g</sup> [jseeb@uw.edu](mailto:jseeb@uw.edu)

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14 **Running head:** SNP markers for Chinook salmon15 **Key words:** Chinook salmon, genetic stock identification, amplicon sequencing, RADseq, GT-seq,

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**19 Abstract**

20 Chinook salmon are migratory fish that are highly valued for subsistence, sport, and commercial fisheries  
21 throughout their native range. Populations of Chinook salmon in Western Alaska have exhibited long-term  
22 declines, leading to restrictions on harvests. Management priorities require greater resolution for genetic  
23 stock identification (GSI) than is available with current methods. We leveraged RADseq, TaqMan, and GT-  
24 seq data originating from multiple sources, collected through time, to develop a set of GT-seq panels  
25 containing 1,092 SNPs that improved GSI resolution in Western Alaska for at-sea and in-river sampling. We  
26 generated a dense linkage map with to ensure that markers selected for panels spanned the entire genome. In  
27 addition, we identified multiple RADseq markers that were associated with sex; these aligned to a 5cM  
28 region on the sex chromosome. Finally, we developed a bioinformatic pipeline to streamline analysis of GT-  
29 seq data that is capable of genotyping microhaplotypes and paralogs, both of which can improve GSI  
30 resolution over traditional single-SNP data. Our panels and pipeline provide tools for management agencies  
31 to rapidly and easily analyze large-scale genotyping projects.

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33

## 34 **Introduction**

35

36 Genomic data have become a central feature of management and conservation of fish populations (e.g.,  
37 Bernatchez et al. 2017, Sylvester et al. 2017). Conservation applications enabled by genome-wide data sets  
38 include studies of adaptation, genotype-by-environment interactions, inbreeding and outbreeding depression,  
39 or loss of adaptive variation (Allendorf et al. 2010). Genomic data enable traceability of escapees from fish  
40 farms (Pritchard et al. 2016, Holman et al. 2017), important because such escapees provide a major threat to  
41 genetic variability and sustainability of wild populations (Bolstad et al. 2017, Forseth et al. 2017). Finally,  
42 effective harvest management of migratory species such as salmon requires accurate identification of unique  
43 populations as they mix along their migratory corridors (Dann et al. 2013, Meek et al. 2016), and SNP  
44 panels identified from genome-wide data sets frequently provide management and conservation solutions  
45 (McKinney et al. 2017, Beacham et al. 2018).

46

47 It is now relatively easy to generate thousands of markers to address conservation and management questions  
48 either through whole-genome or reduced representation sequencing; however, high-throughput genotyping of  
49 thousands of samples is still prohibitive in terms of cost and time. One solution is to distill these datasets to  
50 subsets of informative loci that can be genotyped using amplicon sequencing. This allows a rapid and cost-  
51 effective method for genotyping thousands of individuals for hundreds of loci.

52

53 Chinook salmon are migratory fish that are important for ceremonial, subsistence, sport, and commercial  
54 fisheries throughout their native range in Pacific Rim drainages from the Kamchatka Peninsula, in the  
55 western Pacific Ocean, to Central California, USA, in the eastern Pacific Ocean (Healey 1991). The species  
56 is culturally significant among indigenous tribes; some celebrate the first Chinook salmon caught each year

57 with spiritual ceremonies. Their large size (up to 50 kg) and fighting ability make Chinook salmon a prized  
58 sportfish, and their size and flesh quality make them a highly valued commercial and sport fish. These  
59 factors have collided to complicate management and allocation of migrating Chinook salmon among user  
60 groups (Miller 1993, Lin et al. 1996, Gisclair 2009) and among nations (deReynier 1998, Walsh 1998).

61

62 Many populations of Chinook salmon have exhibited long-term declines throughout their native range (e.g.,  
63 Schoen et al. 2017, Siegel et al. 2017). Population declines in the Eastern Bering Sea have led to restrictions  
64 on both subsistence and commercial harvest, and individuals are becoming smaller and younger at maturity  
65 (Ohlberger et al. 2018). These conservation challenges are compounded by the fact that many fisheries  
66 harvest multiple populations (i.e., mixed stock fisheries) of Chinook salmon of differing abundances.  
67 Effective management requires the ability to identify the components of individual stocks harvested in  
68 mixtures so that less productive stocks can be protected and harvest can target concentrations of productive  
69 stocks (Beacham et al. 2008). In addition to management of mixed stock fisheries, a main driver for  
70 distinguishing stocks of Western Alaska Chinook salmon is the desire to characterize the composition of  
71 bycatch in the walleye pollock fishery (Templin et al. 2011); up to 60% of the Chinook salmon bycatch can  
72 originate from Western Alaska Chinook salmon (Myers and Rogers 1988, Myers et al. 2009).

73

74 Populations of Chinook salmon throughout the coastal areas of the eastern Bering Sea show little genetic  
75 differentiation when genotyped by traditional panels of up to 96 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs)  
76 and subdivide into only five genetically identifiable reporting groups for mixture analysis or genetic  
77 assignment tests (Larson et al. 2014a). These reporting groups consist of Norton Sound and three reporting  
78 groups related to differentiation within the Yukon River (Upper Yukon River, Middle Yukon River, Lower  
79 Yukon River); the final reporting group combines all populations from the Kuskokwim Drainage/Bristol Bay

80 region. Analyses that genotype 1000s of SNPs demonstrate that larger panels of SNPs show promise for  
81 further resolving these populations (restriction site associated DNA sequencing or RADseq; Larson et al.  
82 2014b, see also Sylvester et al. 2017). At the same time, techniques have emerged that enable high-  
83 throughput genotyping of 100s of information-rich SNPs (e.g., GT-seq; Campbell et al. 2015), suitable for  
84 conservation and management applications. Our objective was to use RADseq to discover and screen 1000s  
85 of SNPs to find informative markers and then use them to construct GT-seq panels to provide further  
86 resolution of Chinook salmon populations in Western Alaska.

87

88 We report the development and testing of a set of marker panels containing a total of 1,092 existing and  
89 newly ascertained SNPs for discriminating stocks of Chinook salmon. Existing SNPs, already tested in other  
90 applications, originated from three sources: a 299-SNP GT-seq panel adapted for use with Columbia River,  
91 USA, populations (Hess et al. 2016) and developed in part from SNPs ascertained in Western Alaska (Smith  
92 et al. 2005a, Smith et al. 2005b, Smith et al. 2005c); a 96 SNP TaqMan panel developed for genetic stock  
93 identification in Western Alaska (Larson et al. 2014a); and 178 RADseq SNPs developed for population  
94 discrimination in Cook Inlet, Alaska (Dann et al. 2018). Newly ascertained SNPs originated from a dense  
95 RADseq screen of individuals from populations spanning the Kuskokwim and Nushagak river drainages in  
96 Western Alaska. The final set of 1,092 SNPs increased resolution for identifying components of potential  
97 harvest mixtures, providing a total of eight reporting groups for Chinook salmon in Western Alaska where  
98 only five existed before. In addition, simulations of sampling local fisheries supported the discrimination of  
99 three reporting groups each within the Kuskokwim and Nushagak drainages.

100

101 Finally, we developed a computational pipeline for processing and genotyping of GT-seq data that is able to  
102 genotype multiple-SNP haplotypes and markers with different levels of ploidy. Data handling is increasingly

103 challenging with increasing numbers of SNPs; early interest suggests that the computational pipeline will  
104 expedite processing of GT-seq, RAPTURE (Ali et al. 2016), and similar data sets.

105

106 Our work demonstrates how an increasingly large number of SNPs can be collated and evaluated for high  
107 throughput analyses; we also present recommendations for further streamlining the discovery and evaluation  
108 phases that should be widely applicable to species of management and conservation interest. These new  
109 SNP panels will aid in management of Alaska Chinook salmon by improving the ability of managers to  
110 discriminate among stocks of interest during harvest. Lessons learned in this study will be widely applicable  
111 to other studies where genetic stock identification is applied to mixtures of migrating populations.

112

## 113 **Materials and Methods**

### 114 *RADseq data*

115 We conducted SNP discovery on RADseq data from 13 populations (Figure 1, Figure 2A-C; Figure 3; Table  
116 1). Raw data for five of the populations were available from previous studies (Larson et al. 2014b (2  
117 populations), McKinney et al. 2018 (3 populations)) and downloaded from Dryad (doi:10.5061/dryad.rs4v1)  
118 and NCBI (SRA SRP129894) (Table 1). Additional RAD sequencing was conducted on 48 fish per  
119 population from 8 new populations (Table 1). In total, nine populations from the Kuskokwim drainage and  
120 four populations from Bristol Bay (Togiak River and Nushagak drainage) were used for SNP discovery.  
121 Full materials and methods for RAD sequencing are available in supplemental file S1.

122 We upgraded the McKinney et al. (2016) genetic map for Chinook salmon to provide a framework to help  
123 ensure that markers chosen for our panels were distributed across the genome. Genetic maps improve the

124 power to identify genes and gene regions important in population differentiation and adaptation. The  
125 McKinney et al. (2016) map was a consensus of maps derived from populations from Puget Sound,  
126 Washington, and likely missed variation present in northern stocks (see Templin et al. 2011). We mapped  
127 additional variation detected in five haploid families that were created from females sampled from Ship  
128 Creek (Anchorage, Alaska) to produce a new consensus map (supplemental file S2).

### 129 *Sex Locus*

130 We attempted to incorporate loci that could be used to determine the sex of immature fish into our SNP  
131 panels. Knowledge of sex of individual fish and sex ratios in migrating cohorts provides useful demographic  
132 information, but identification of reliable DNA sex markers has been elusive (Von Bargen et al. 2015). Sex  
133 data were only available from 23 fish from the Togiak River, so putative sex-associated loci were instead  
134 identified by examining population-level genotype patterns. In salmon, males are the heterogametic sex and  
135 females are the homogametic sex (Thorgaard 1977), and in Chinook salmon the sex-determining region is  
136 on chromosome 17 (Ots17, Phillips et al. 2013). Assuming equal numbers of males and females in a  
137 population, a sex locus should be revealed by the presence of high heterozygosity (~50%) but only two  
138 genotypic classes, one heterozygous and one homozygous, with a resulting minor allele frequency of 0.25.  
139 We identified putative sex-associated loci as those with heterozygosity between 45% and 55%, minor allele  
140 frequency between 0.20 and 0.30. Up to 5% of individuals with the alternate homozygous genotype were  
141 allowed to account for genotyping error. Putative sex loci were placed on the linkage map (below) to  
142 determine if they co-locate with a previously identified sex-associated locus from Chinook salmon  
143 originating from the Marblemount Hatchery, Skagit River drainage, in Washington State (University of  
144 Washington, unpublished data).

### 145 *GT-seq panel construction*



146 The populations examined in this study collapsed into a single reporting group with marker panels currently  
147 used for management. We simulated mixed stock analyses from the RADseq dataset using *GSIsim*  
148 (Anderson et al. 2008, Anderson 2010) to determine the number of markers necessary to subdivide the  
149 existing Kuskokwim/Bristol Bay reporting group into major river drainages. A training holdout leave-one-  
150 out (THL) approach was used to minimize bias in assignment accuracy (Anderson 2010). Samples within a  
151 population were randomly assigned to training and holdout datasets. The training set was used to choose  
152 high  $F_{ST}$  loci for panel testing; the holdout set was used to evaluate panel accuracy against the baseline  
153 (training plus holdout samples). Simulations were done in intervals of 250 markers, up to 1,500 markers,  
154 after which they were done in intervals of 1,000. Simulation results showed that approximately 1,000  
155 markers were necessary to resolve reporting groups into major river drainages. GT-seq panel development  
156 targeted a final set of 1,000 SNPs for population analyses.

157 We chose to partition SNPs into four GT-seq panels of about 300 SNPs each. Experience has shown that up  
158 to 300 amplicons is a workable number to optimize panel performance (Beacham et al. 2018, McKinney et  
159 al. 2018). Also, compartmentalizing SNPs allowed us to potentially capture existing data genotyped on other  
160 platforms and shape modular panels for downstream applications on subsets of SNPs.

161 A panel of 299 existing SNPs (Panel 1) was available from Idaho Fish and Game that was originally  
162 developed by the Columbia River Inter-Tribal Fish Commission (CRITFC, Hess et al. 2016). This panel  
163 includes the majority of the 192 loci from Warheit et al. (2013) that form the basis for data collection for  
164 Pacific Salmon Commission applications from California to Southeast Alaska (e.g. Clemento et al. 2014).  
165 Panels 2-4 were developed by this study. Panel 2 originated from other currently available SNPs, either in  
166 use by Alaska Department of Fish and Game (ADF&G) or proposed for use by ADF&G in Cook Inlet,  
167 Alaska (Dann et al. 2018) to facilitate comparison to pre-existing data (including the  $F_{ST}96$  SNPs of Larson  
168 et al. (2014a) that were ascertained in western Alaska). Panels 3 and 4 originated from novel RADseq loci

169 ascertained in this project to specifically improve resolution within and between the closely related  
170 populations in Kuskokwim and Nushagak river drainages in western Alaska.

171 Informative markers were identified using both outlier analysis and  $F_{ST}$  for panels 3 and 4 (Figure 2C).  
172 Outlier loci were identified using *BayeScan* with default settings (Foll and Gaggiotti 2008) as those with  $Q <$   
173  $0.05$ .  $F_{ST}$  was estimated using Genepop (Rousset 2008). Initial testing showed many outliers with very low  
174  $F_{ST}$ . These loci were likely false positives; they were generally only variable in one or a few populations,  
175 and their absence in other populations was likely due to sampling error. Loci were re-filtered to include only  
176 loci with a minimum minor allele frequency of 0.05 in three or more populations and then reanalyzed with  
177 *BayeScan*.

178 High  $F_{ST}$  markers from both within and between the Kuskokwim and Nushagak river drainages were  
179 considered. Excess candidate markers, to allow for dropouts, were chosen as follows (Figure 2C): 1) 500  
180 markers with highest  $F_{ST}$  within the Kuskokwim drainage for Panel 3 ( $F_{ST}$  range: 0.051-0.005, 2) 500  
181 markers with highest  $F_{ST}$  within the Nushagak drainage and Togiak River for Panel 4 ( $F_{ST}$  range: 0.106-  
182 0.006), and 3) 500 highest  $F_{ST}$  markers between the Kuskokwim and Nushagak drainages ( $F_{ST}$  range: 0.620-  
183 0.004) for incorporation into either Panel 3 or Panel 4. Loci were split between panels 3 or 4 based on  $F_{ST}$   
184 within regions; panel 3 contained loci with greater  $F_{ST}$  in the Kuskokwim Bay/River while panel 4 contained  
185 loci with greater  $F_{ST}$  in Togiak Bay/Nushagak drainage. Outlier loci identified using *BayeScan* were  
186 contained within the high  $F_{ST}$  locus set.

187 These 1500 loci underwent additional filtering to meet design criteria for GT-seq analysis (Figure 2D). Loci  
188 with SNPs within 16 bp of the 3' end and 20 bp of the 5' end of the RAD locus were excluded to allow room  
189 for primer design. Where matches were available, paired-end contigs from Larson et al. (2014b) were used  
190 to extend the 5' end of the RAD locus for primer design. Loci with low complexity or transposable element  
191 sequence were identified using RepeatMasker (Smit et al. 2013) and removed. Primers were designed using

192 Primer3 (You et al. 2008) with default settings for loci that passed initial filters. Primers were then aligned  
193 to all loci using bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) to identify and remove cases where primers may  
194 amplify multiple loci. A total of 706 loci passed filters and were retained for panel optimization; 350 loci for  
195 panel 3 and 356 loci for panel 4. In combination with panels 1 and 2, a total of 1,343 loci were passed  
196 forward for the initial optimization (Figure 2D).

### 197 *GT-seq Genotyping*

198 For panel optimization and population genotyping we developed a bioinformatic pipeline, *GTscore*  
199 (<https://github.com/gjmckinney/GTscore>) to score both multiple SNP haplotypes (also referred to as  
200 microhaplotypes; Baetscher et al. 2018) and duplicated loci; both of these locus types have been shown to  
201 increase power for resolving closely related populations (Limborg et al. 2017, McKinney et al. 2017, Waples  
202 et al. 2017) and were included in the GT-seq panels. Multi-SNP haplotypes occur when multiple SNPs are  
203 in the same sequence tag, resulting in haplotypes with > two alleles. This pipeline incorporates the *polyGen*  
204 algorithm (McKinney et al. 2018) that uses a maximum likelihood method for genotyping and is capable of  
205 genotyping loci with any number of alleles and any level of ploidy.

206

### 207 *Panel Optimization*

208 Optimization of Panel 2, Panel 3, and Panel removed loci that did not amplify properly in the PCR reaction  
209 and perfected PCR performance for each of the retained primer pairs (Figure 2 E). Panel 1 had already  
210 undergone extensive optimization by Hess et al. (2016) but was included in panel optimization to keep PCR  
211 conditions consistent for the final sequencing run and ensure there were no interactions with loci from other  
212 panels.

213 Optimization was done with 100bp paired-end sequencing in two rounds on an Illumina MiSeq (Figure 2E).  
214 DNA was extracted, and sequencing libraries prepared following the methods of Campbell et al. (2015). The  
215 first round of sequencing used 48 individuals from four populations (Kogrukluk, Koptuli, Necons, and  
216 Togiak rivers). Primer performance was evaluated in this first round (see below); however, read depth for  
217 most loci was too low to allow accurate genotyping. The sample size was reduced in the second round of  
218 sequencing to 24 samples from two populations (Kogrukluk and Koptuli rivers, 12 samples each) to ensure  
219 adequate read depth to evaluate genotype concordance between RADseq and GT-seq.

220 After each round of sequencing, we eliminated loci that were over-amplifiers, off-target amplifiers, or cross-  
221 amplifiers. Over-amplifying loci generate excessive sequences relative to other loci in the panel and can be  
222 identified by examination of ranked number of sequence reads per locus. Off-target amplifiers generate  
223 sequences that do not match the target sequence; these sequences contain either the forward primer or the  
224 reverse primer (sometimes both) but do not contain the bioinformatic probe that identifies allelic variation  
225 within the target sequence. Total read counts for each locus were used to identify over-amplifiers, and  
226 counts of primer and probe alignments were used to identify off-target amplifiers. Paired-end sequencing  
227 generates sequence reads from both ends of a DNA sequence. With GT-seq, both reads in a pair should be  
228 from the same locus, and the R1 read should start with the forward primer while the R2 read should start  
229 with the reverse primer. Cross-amplification occurs when a product is amplified by the forward and reverse  
230 primers of two different loci. This could occur when multiple loci are physically close or when multiple  
231 regions of the genome are genetically similar. Cross-amplifiers are identified where the R1 and R2 reads of  
232 an amplicon align to different loci. We used a custom pipeline for identifying cross-amplifiers. Reference  
233 sequence for each locus was generated by trimming the RAD consensus sequence to contain only the  
234 sequence between each primer. For each individual, GT-seq sequences were aligned to the reference  
235 sequence using *GATK* (McKenna et al. 2010) and *SAMtools* (Li et al. 2009). The resulting alignments were

236 processed with custom perl scripts to quantify cross-amplification per locus. Patterns of cross-amplification  
237 were visualized using network plots in R.

238 Validation of genotyping accuracy is necessary when combining results between different technologies  
239 because loci do not always genotype consistently across technologies. After the second round of sequencing,  
240 we excluded loci with discordant genotypes that could not be explained by low read depth in either the  
241 RADseq or GT-seq genotyping. Extensive cross validation between RADseq and single SNP data (assayed  
242 by 5'-nuclease reaction with TaqMan chemistry) genotypes was already done by Hess et al. (2016) for loci in  
243 Panel 1) and Larson et al. (2014a) for loci in Panel 2.

244

#### 245 *Baseline Data Set for Performance Testing and Mixture Analyses*

246 For final testing and mixture analyses, we prepared a baseline data set that targeted a sample size of 95 in  
247 each of 17 major populations, spanning the Kuskokwim drainage, Kuskokwim Bay, and Bristol Bay  
248 (Nushagak drainage and Togiak River) (Table 1, Figure 3), for all of the GT-seq loci that passed filters. We  
249 took three genotyping steps to accomplish this: (1) we added TaqMan data to the RADseq data available for  
250 the 48 individuals in the original 13 populations used for RADseq discovery (to account for TaqMan-origin  
251 loci present in Panel 1 and Panel 2); (2) we used the four GT-seq panels to genotype up to 49 additional  
252 individuals in each of the 13 discovery populations to approach the target sample size; and (3) we used the  
253 four GT-seq panels to genotype 95 individuals in each of four new populations.

254 TaqMan methods were identical to those described in (Larson et al. 2014a), and GT-seq sequencing as  
255 described above was conducted on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 with 1,190 loci and 270 samples per lane. The  
256 RADseq, TaqMan, and GT-seq datasets were combined and filtered in R. Samples shared between datasets  
257 allowed further cross-validation of genotypes, ensuring genotype concordance across datasets.

258 A final GT-seq filtering step, examining allele ratio plots, was conducted following genotyping of all  
259 samples (Figure 2F). A histogram of allele ratios was plotted for each SNP for visual examination.  
260 Singleton loci should have up to three peaks, depending on allele frequency, that are centered at 0, 0.5, and 1  
261 (Figure S1A). Duplicate loci should have up to five peaks centered at 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, and 1 (Figure S1B).  
262 Diverged duplicate loci should have up to three peaks either centered on 0, 0.25, and 0.5 or on 0.5, 0.75, and  
263 1 (Figure S1C). Loci that did not display distinct peaks associated with each genotype class are likely  
264 amplifying off-target sequence (Figure S1D); we attempted to recover these loci by extending the  
265 bioinformatic probe to exclude off-target sequence. Loci that could not be recovered were removed from  
266 further analysis.

267 A final filtering step prior to mixed-stock analysis (MSA) was necessary due to the nature of the combined  
268 data and the fact that some data types were not present or scorable in the original RADseq data from the 13  
269 populations. Loci excluded for these reasons could be included in analysis of future GT-seq only datasets.  
270 Duplicate and diverged duplicate loci were removed prior to MSA evaluation because they could not be  
271 reliably genotyped in the RADseq data due to inadequate read depth (McKinney et al. 2018). Allele  
272 frequencies of RADseq and GT-seq data were also compared, and loci with allele frequency discrepancies  
273 were removed. Loci were also removed if their genotype rate was less than 70% or if they were  
274 monomorphic. Following locus filtering, samples with a genotype rate less than 90% were removed prior to  
275 MSA evaluation.

276

### 277 *Modelling Mixed Stock Analysis*

278 The potential resolution of MSA was assessed using the full RADseq dataset while the accuracy of the four  
279 GT-seq panels for MSA was assessed using the combined RADseq and GT-seq sample set. For loci that

280 contained multiple SNPs, haplotypes were used to further improve accuracy (McKinney et al. 2017).  
281 Populations were divided into reporting groups based on genetic affinities and management objectives. The  
282 desired reporting groups included Upper Kuskokwim River, Kuskokwim Bay, Togiak Bay, and Nushagak  
283 River. These groups are highly productive, important to stakeholders, are managed separately, and have  
284 responded differently to environmental conditions responsible for recent declines throughout this region.  
285 Mixture analysis and individual assignment was performed in *GSIsim* to explore alternative reporting group  
286 configurations including region-wide and in-region MSA. Mixture analysis included 100% simulations to  
287 evaluate correct allocations of population to reporting group of origin and accuracy and precision among  
288 reporting groups. Individual assignment was conducted at the population level, with individuals assigned to  
289 a population if they met a threshold of 80% probability assignment to that population; an 80% threshold has  
290 been shown to provide a balance between a low false positive assignment rate and a successful assignment  
291 rate (Griffiths et al. 2013).

292

## 293 **Results**

### 294 *Sequencing and Mapping Results*

295 We retained 19,435 loci that were scored in 761 individuals to evaluate utility for population discrimination.  
296 Final sample size per population ranged from 32 to 56 with 46-48 in most populations (Table 1). Population  
297 pairs showed low overall  $F_{ST}$  (average 0.003) consistent with previous studies in this region (Templin et al.  
298 2011). Results for all pairwise  $F_{ST}$  comparisons are listed in Table S1.

299 Three putative sex loci were identified (Table 2). Previously, we identified a sex-associated RAD locus  
300 (*RAD93920*) for Chinook salmon in the Marblemount Hatchery in Washington State within the Pacific  
301 Northwest of North America (University of Washington, unpublished data); this locus was located 8 cM

302 from the centromere of *Ots17* which is the sex chromosome in Chinook salmon (Phillips et al. 2013). Two  
303 of the three loci identified in this study (*RAD67724*, *RAD29719*) co-located with the previously identified  
304 sex-locus near the centromere of *Ots17* at 4.7 cM and 9.4 cM. The other putative sex locus (*RAD27492*)  
305 could not be placed on the linkage map. The accuracy of the three putative sex loci varied from 78% to 91%  
306 when compared to observed sex for 23 Togiak River samples (Table 2). The SNP associated with sex in the  
307 Marblemount population (*RAD93920*) was invariant in all Alaska populations.

308 A total of 15,930 loci that were scored in 233 individuals were retained for linkage mapping in the five  
309 families. Sample size per family ranged from 31 to 62 (Supplementary File S1). The population and linkage  
310 mapping datasets require different filtration steps so there are loci that were unique to each dataset. A total  
311 of 12,140 loci were common to both datasets. The Alaska linkage map was 2,874.02 cM long and contained  
312 15,798 loci; 13,084 were singleton (non-duplicated) and 2,714 were duplicate (Supplemental File S2). A  
313 total of 7,946 loci mapped in the Alaska families were present on the previous map of McKinney *et al.*  
314 (2016) that originated from Washington State; the low degree of shared markers is likely a due to a  
315 combination of both the different pools of standing genetic variation in the source populations (Templin et al.  
316 2011) and the low number of families. The combined linkage map was 3,003.36 cM long and contained  
317 23,715 loci; 19,762 loci were singleton and 3,953 loci were duplicate (Table 3; Supplemental File S2). A  
318 total of 630 of the newly ascertained RADseq loci that passed filters for inclusion in GT-seq panels (see  
319 below) were present on the linkage map. These were distributed approximately evenly across the linkage  
320 groups with an average of 18.5 GT-seq markers per linkage group and a range of 4-34 markers per linkage  
321 group (Supplemental File S3). Linkage groups differed in size; the proportion of markers on each linkage  
322 group that were included in GT-seq panels averaged 2.1% with a range of 1.1%-5.7%.

323

324 *GT-seq Marker Selection and Optimization*



325 We followed several steps of marker selection leading to GT-seq panel optimization. SNP location within  
326 the RAD tag was a limiting factor. Approximately 25% of the 1,500 RAD markers originally selected for  
327 panel design had to be discarded; the requirement of 16 bp on the 3' end of the SNP or 20 bases on the 5'  
328 end was a major limiting factor for primer design from the original sequence of 94bp in length. For SNPs  
329 that were within 20 bp of the 5' end of the sequence, paired-end contigs allowed primer design past the  
330 original 94 base limitation. Minor losses of SNPs to the panels were also due to transposable element  
331 annotation (4%) and identification as repetitive elements (3%).

332 A total of 1,343 loci passed initial filtering criteria and were developed into GT-seq loci for panels 2-4  
333 (Figure 2) including 18 of 54 loci identified as outliers by *BayeScan*. Two rounds of test sequencing and  
334 optimization followed to remove loci due to over-amplification, excessive off-target sequence or cross-  
335 amplification between primers, or genotype discrepancies between RADseq and GT-seq genotyping. A total  
336 of 1,204 loci originating from the three new panels and that of Hess et al. (2016) were genotyped for all GT-  
337 seq samples (Figure 2F).

338

### 339 *GT-seq Genotyping and Standardization of Datasets*

340 Two additional filtering steps were conducted following genotyping. Individuals were removed from the  
341 analysis if they likely originated from a different population of origin (detailed in File S1). The genotype  
342 data also allowed us to examine the allele ratio plots for fit to expected genotype distributions; a total of 112  
343 loci were removed if allele ratios did not fit the expected distributions (e.g. Figure S1D). The final set of  
344 GT-seq panels contained 1,092 loci (Figure 2G).

345 Because our study comparisons required standardization among three sources of genotypes (RADseq, GT-  
346 seq, TaqMan), a final quality control step to combine the datasets prior to MSA was necessary. Loci were

347 excluded if they were absent in one of the datasets (84), were duplicate or diverged duplicate loci (70),  
348 exhibited greater than expected allele frequency differences between RADseq and GT-seq datasets (17),  
349 exhibited a low genotype rate (34) (Figure S2), or were monomorphic (40) (Table 4). Finally, samples were  
350 excluded if they exhibited a low genotype rate (Figure S3). A total of 847 loci and 1,545 individuals were  
351 available for evaluation with *GSIsim* following the standardization steps; 14% of these loci contained  
352 haplotype data.

353

#### 354 *Mixture Analysis*

355 We first evaluated the power of the full set of more than 15,000 RAD loci. The full dataset increased  
356 resolution for Chinook salmon demonstrating > 95% accuracy to five reporting groups (Figure 3A).  
357 Individuals were proportionally assigned to populations and proportional assignments were summed for  
358 populations within a reporting group. The Kuskokwim and Nushagak drainages could be resolved with the  
359 full RADseq dataset. The Kuskokwim drainage could be split into three reporting groups: Upper  
360 Kuskokwim, Kuskokwim River, and Kuskokwim Bay (Figure 3A). Additional reporting groups included a  
361 combined Togiak/Goodnews reporting group and a Nushagak drainage reporting group.

362 We then evaluated the subset of 847 loci in the four GT-seq panels. We evaluated accuracy of four different  
363 reporting group scenarios of varying scales based on management objectives. Scenarios include: 1) all  
364 populations with reporting groups of Upper Kuskokwim, Kuskokwim River/Bay, Togiak/Goodnews, and  
365 Nushagak rivers (fine-scale bycatch scenario, Figure 3B), 2) all populations with reporting groups of Upper  
366 Kuskokwim River, combined Kuskokwim/Nushagak, and combined Togiak/Goodnews rivers (broad-scale  
367 bycatch scenario, Figure 3C). In-region scenarios include: 3) Kuskokwim drainage populations with  
368 reporting groups of Upper Kuskokwim River, Kuskokwim River, and Kuskokwim Bay (Kuskokwim

369 Bay/River scenario, Figure 3D), and 4) Togiak Bay/Nushagak drainage populations with reporting groups of  
370 Togiak, Iowithla/Stuyahok, and Kaktuli rivers (Togiak Bay/Nushagak River scenario, Figure 3E). For some  
371 scenarios Togiak and Goodnews rivers were combined into a reporting group on the basis of genetic  
372 similarity even though they are not part of the same drainage. Reporting groups in each scenario had >90%  
373 accuracy with two exceptions, the Nushagak River reporting group in the fine-scale bycatch scenario (72%)  
374 and the Kuskokwim Bay reporting group in the Kuskokwim Bay/River scenario (87%) (Figure 3). Mean  
375 accuracy and 95% range for mixture estimates under each reporting group scenario are listed in Table S2 for  
376 reporting groups as a whole and for populations within reporting groups.

### 377 *Individual Assignment*

378 Individual assignment using the full RADseq dataset showed >95% self-assignment accuracy for all  
379 populations with the exception of Kwethluk and Togiak rivers (Table S3). Individual assignment using the  
380 GT-seq panels revealed that upriver populations for both the Kuskokwim and Nushagak drainages had >90%  
381 self-assignment accuracy with the exception of the Takotna River population (Table S4, S5, S6).  
382 Populations in the lower reaches of the Kuskokwim and Nushagak drainages misassigned to populations  
383 both within and between drainages while Togiak and Goodnews rivers tended to assign to themselves or to  
384 each other. Pitka Fork, Tatlawiksuk, Necons, Togiak, and Kaktuli river populations all exhibited >90%  
385 accuracy for either at-sea or in-region sampling.

386

### 387 **Discussion**

388 Genotype data are now routinely a centerpiece in the mosaic of tools used by conservation practitioners for  
389 population assessment and sustainability planning. Until recently, the limited number of genetic markers  
390 available often limited the power of genotype data to resolve populations even though other biological

391 information suggested that more resolution should be possible. The introduction of RADseq and other  
392 reduced-representation sequencing (RRS) protocols greatly increased the availability of genetic markers,  
393 followed in many situations by improved resolution of closely related populations after genotyping hundreds  
394 or thousands of loci (see RADseq data in Larson et al. 2014b, Candy et al. 2015). But the cost, limited  
395 analysis pipelines, and relatively slow throughput of RRS data often preclude their use in management  
396 situations where data from thousands of individuals (cf., Gilbey et al. 2017) or real-time data (cf., Dann et al.  
397 2013) are needed. Amplicon sequencing approaches promise an intermediate solution where hundreds of  
398 loci may be rapidly and cost-effectively genotyped in thousands of individuals, offering conservation  
399 alternatives unavailable until now (Campbell et al. 2015, Beacham et al. 2018).

400 To evaluate resolution of populations we opted to build a baseline data set by adding GT-seq genotypic data  
401 to the RADseq data available from SNP discovery efforts from this study and from two previous studies  
402 (Larson et al. 2014b, McKinney et al. 2018). This approach appeared to be a practical use of a large amount  
403 of existing data when we started; however, two of the GT-seq panels incorporated data originating from  
404 TaqMan derived loci, requiring new TaqMan genotyping to backfill those same loci missing in the RADseq  
405 data sets. While robust data emerged after careful cross validation, a better and ultimately more cost-  
406 efficient choice would have been to re-genotype all samples with identical GT-seq panels.

407 Genetic maps have become increasingly common and can be used as a foundation to integrate genomic  
408 resources for gene annotation and population genomic analyses (McKinney et al. 2016). However, genetic  
409 maps originating from one lineage or geographic location often don't include a high proportion of  
410 polymorphic markers informative for a distant lineage or geographic region. We were able to leverage  
411 existing map resources for Chinook salmon from the Pacific Northwest and add variation from families that  
412 originated from Alaska to create a much denser map with much improved coverage for Alaska. As a result,

413 74% of the markers could be placed on the combined linkage map generated in this study while only 39%  
414 could be placed on the previous Washington-based linkage map.

415 The dense genetic map also allowed us to investigate the location of sex-associated loci. The sex-associated  
416 loci identified in this study were located in a 5 cM window of chromosome 17 which has been previously  
417 identified as the sex chromosome in Chinook salmon (Phillips et al. 2013). These loci flank a previously  
418 identified sex marker from Marblemount Hatchery Chinook salmon (University of Washington, unpublished  
419 data). The co-location of sex associated markers from multiple projects suggest that the sex determining  
420 gene is near this region of chromosome 17; however, the markers identified herein showed a maximum  
421 accuracy of 91% suggesting incomplete linkage between these SNPs and the true sex determining region.  
422 This is consistent with results from other molecular markers developed to assign sex to immature Chinook  
423 salmon which have displayed inconsistent accuracy when tested in populations throughout the species range  
424 (Nagler et al. 2001, Nagler et al. 2004, Chowen and Nagler 2005, Von Bargen et al. 2015).

425

#### 426 *GT-seq panel*

427 The GT-seq panels increased MSA accuracy for Western Alaska Chinook salmon compared to earlier  
428 analyses. We were able to split the Kuskokwim/Bristol Bay reporting group identified by Larson et al.  
429 (2014a) into three reporting groups (Upper Kuskokwim, Kuskokwim/Nushagak, Togiak/Goodnews) with  
430 >95% accuracy. These panels also show utility for regional population discrimination with three reporting  
431 groups for the Kuskokwim Bay/River scenario and three reporting groups for the Togiak Bay/Nushagak  
432 River scenario. Individual assignment accuracy was generally >90% for upper river populations in both the  
433 Kuskokwim and Nushagak rivers.

434 A primary goal for fisheries management in the Kuskokwim River/Bristol Bay region is the discrimination of  
435 populations from the Kuskokwim and Nushagak drainages. Splitting the Kuskokwim/Nushagak reporting  
436 group by drainage yielded MSA accuracy of 93% for Kuskokwim drainage populations but only 72% for  
437 Nushagak drainage populations. A potential cause of this inaccuracy is the large difference in sample size  
438 between the two reporting groups. The Kuskokwim River reporting group contained eight populations and  
439 728 samples, representing most of the production from the drainage, while the Nushagak River reporting  
440 group contained three populations and 252 samples. Differences in sample size can cause bias where some  
441 fish from low-sample reporting groups may assign to higher-sample reporting groups (Moran and Anderson  
442 2018).

443 We were also unable to utilize the full panel in testing MSA accuracy. The panels included paralogs which  
444 may increase accuracy of genetic stock identification (Gilbey et al. 2016). We were able to successfully  
445 genotype paralogs in the GT-seq portion of the dataset, and the program we used for GSI (*GSIsim*) is capable  
446 of including paralogs in analysis. However, paralogs were excluded from MSA evaluation because read  
447 depth in the RADseq dataset was too low for reliable genotypes (McKinney et al. 2018). In addition, many  
448 loci from Panel 1 were excluded either due to monomorphic genotypes (34) or absence of baseline data (61).  
449 Genotyping additional Nushagak River populations would help determine if the low resolution we observed  
450 in that drainage is an artifact of unbalanced sampling or a true limitation of the panel. Sequencing of  
451 additional baseline samples using GT-seq will also obviate the need to include the RADseq samples in  
452 analysis, allowing paralogs to be incorporated as well as the Panel 1 loci missing in the baseline.

453 It may be possible to improve the efficiency observed in this study by working to design fewer panels with  
454 higher resolution loci. The primary source of high- $F_{ST}$  marker loss was the use of SNP position thresholds at  
455 both ends of the marker sequence to allow space for primer design. Two Chinook salmon genome  
456 assemblies have now been deposited in NCBI (accessions: GCA\_002872995.1, GCA\_002831465.1); these

457 can be used to design primers for these high- $F_{ST}$  loci that were otherwise lost due to SNP position. Also, the  
458 additional power gained from haplotype loci, even when  $F_{ST}$  is reduced (McKinney et al. 2017, Baetscher et  
459 al. 2018), was recognized after our marker selection had concluded. The current panels include only 114 loci  
460 with haplotypes. Locus selection that enriches for haplotypes will allow smaller panels that achieve the same  
461 resolution as the current four panels and may yield further increases in resolution.

462

### 463 *Recommendations*

464 We leveraged RADseq, TaqMan, and GT-seq data originating from multiple sources, collected through time,  
465 to develop a comprehensive baseline of population data. While ultimately successful, this involved  
466 considerable effort to standardize datasets and ~20% of the loci were discarded from analysis due to  
467 incompatibilities among datasets. Regenotyping all populations using a consistent laboratory method would  
468 have been a better solution to develop a standardized dataset.

469 As genomic resources expand, conservation practitioners are faced with the problem of translating large  
470 amounts of available data into useful management applications. Challenges to enabling these applications  
471 include reducing the number of markers to a level easily assayed in a cost-effective manner, working with  
472 differing baseline datasets and missing loci, developing efficient analysis pipelines, and identifying  
473 appropriate accuracy and precision for particular applications. The method we employed in this study,  
474 RADseq SNP discovery followed by GT-seq panel development, is a straightforward pathway to develop  
475 genetic tools for fisheries management. The panels we developed increased resolution of reporting groups in  
476 Western Alaska Chinook salmon, a region with low population structure that has been historically difficult  
477 for stock discrimination. These panels offer a cost-effective method for improving genetic stock  
478 identification for fisheries management. During the study, we also realized the difficulty in not only handling

479 large amounts of data with increasing numbers of SNPs but also leveraging data from varying laboratory  
480 techniques. We anticipate that computational pipelines such as *GTscore* will expedite processing of both  
481 RADseq, RAPTURE (Ali et al. 2016), and similar data sets and assist researchers in sharing and  
482 standardizing data not only across techniques, but among researchers and laboratories.

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497



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651 **Table 1.** Number of samples sequenced and retained per population for RADseq and GT-seq analyses.

Population	Region	RADseq		GT-seq		Total	Source <sup>1</sup>
		Sequenced	Retained	Sequenced	Retained		
Pitka Fork	Upper Kuskokwim River	0	0	95	95	95	1
Takotna	Upper Kuskokwim River	0	0	95	94	94	1
Tatlawiksuk	Upper Kuskokwim River	0	0	95	56	56	1
Necons	Upper Kuskokwim River	48	47	48	48	95	2
George	Kuskokwim River	48	32	49	40	72	2
Kogrukluuk	Kuskokwim River	64	48	47	47	95	3
Aniak	Kuskokwim River	48	47	48	48	95	1
Kisaralik	Kuskokwim River	48	48	47	47	95	1
Kwethluk	Kuskokwim River	48	35	52	52	90	1
Eek	Kuskokwim River	0	0	95	93	93	1
Kanektok	Kuskokwim Bay	48	44	49	49	95	1
Arolik	Kuskokwim Bay	48	46	47	47	93	1
Goodnews	Goodnews Bay	48	47	48	48	95	2
Togiak	Togiak Bay	48	46	47	45	91	1
Iowithla	Nushagak River	48	47	47	17	64	1
Stuyahok	Nushagak River	48	48	47	45	93	1
Koktuli	Nushagak River	56	56	39	39	95	3
Total		648	591	995	910	1506	

652 <sup>1</sup> Sources: 1) this study, 2) McKinney et al. (2018), 3) Larson et al. (2014b).

**Table 2.** Putative sex loci identified by the presence of a two genotype classes (heterozygote and one homozygote) at approximately even frequencies in the population. Location of each locus on the Chinook salmon linkage map is listed for mapped loci. Accuracy was calculated by comparing genotypes with observed sex of 23 individuals from the Togiak River population.

Locus	Chromosome	Position (cM)	Accuracy
<i>RAD67724</i>	<i>Ots17</i>	4.7	83%
<i>RAD29719</i>	<i>Ots17</i>	9.4	78%
<i>RAD27492</i>	NA	NA	91%

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**Table 3.** Size of Chinook salmon linkage groups and number of loci for Washington linkage map, Alaska linkage map, and combined linkage map.

Linkage Group	Washington Map			Alaska Map			Combined Map					
	Size (cM)	Singleton Loci	Duplicated Loci	Total Loci	Size (cM)	Singleton Loci	Duplicated Loci	Total Loci	Size (cM)	Singleton Loci	Duplicated Loci	Total Loci
Ots01	125.85	669	103	772	107.72	674	107	781	117.24	1066	159	1225
Ots02	120.4	428	140	568	119.94	491	155	646	118.78	729	231	960
Ots03	129.64	507	140	647	109.09	517	161	678	125.78	788	236	1024
Ots04	126.21	417	168	585	104.63	434	196	630	112.29	681	275	956
Ots05	116.49	499	15	514	107.42	592	19	611	107.80	868	31	899
Ots06	119.09	604	116	720	98.14	650	118	768	108.89	958	175	1133
Ots07	134.24	538	113	651	110.29	577	157	734	120.00	850	216	1066
Ots08	106.38	584	11	595	103.54	614	18	632	109.02	921	30	951
Ots09	126.14	560	183	743	127.46	590	205	795	116.79	890	295	1185
Ots10	122.51	410	23	433	106.76	504	22	526	111.70	739	37	776
Ots11	103.84	378	53	431	108.11	432	137	569	104.64	627	168	795
Ots12	127.67	462	159	621	102.06	511	195	706	120.69	780	268	1048
Ots13	114.07	574	21	595	110.24	596	29	625	111.91	901	43	944
Ots14	123.57	374	123	497	105.84	396	154	550	118.43	610	208	818
Ots15	96.29	295	139	434	107.36	288	156	444	98.24	453	232	685
Ots16	114.35	414	13	427	116.55	469	15	484	115.76	702	23	725
Ots17	66.53	164	129	293	64.20	166	122	288	70.34	260	194	454
Ots18	66.47	277	15	292	53.51	305	13	318	60.63	464	20	484
Ots19	73.98	445	18	463	85.89	449	14	463	79.15	677	25	702
Ots20	74.7	354	10	364	77.28	374	19	393	79.07	556	23	579
Ots21	70.02	223	12	235	52.24	260	8	268	60.58	391	18	409
Ots22	66.77	306	11	317	72.21	292	14	306	66.90	444	25	469
Ots23	60.51	131	148	279	64.51	156	148	304	60.35	235	218	453

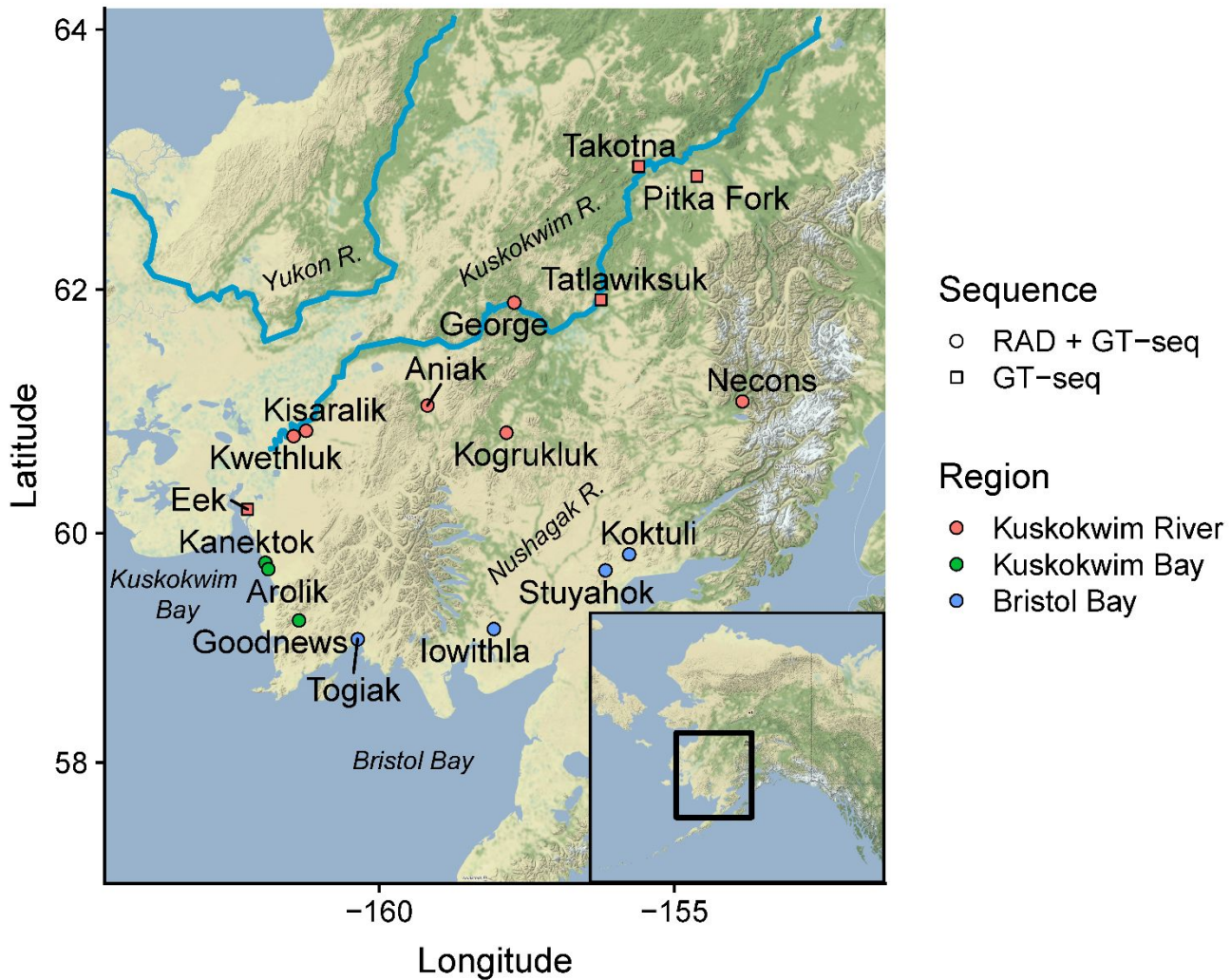


Linkage Group	Washington Map			Alaska Map			Combined Map					
	Size (cM)	Singleton Loci	Duplicated Loci	Total Loci	Size (cM)	Singleton Loci	Duplicated Loci	Total Loci	Size (cM)	Singleton Loci	Duplicated Loci	Total Loci
Ots24	56.61	217	2	219	55.31	245	9	254	56.30	333	11	344
Ots25	73.55	303	14	317	70.35	311	16	327	69.16	482	25	507
Ots26	66.66	342	13	355	56.62	332	15	347	66.16	522	24	546
Ots27	69.63	145	150	295	56.01	152	166	318	62.69	231	250	481
Ots28	64.39	280	10	290	55.12	323	8	331	65.15	467	14	481
Ots29	57.75	234	6	240	51.66	265	8	273	55.40	378	11	389
Ots30	70.21	343	12	355	58.71	342	7	349	63.50	536	18	554
Ots31	48.8	239	9	248	55.18	227	6	233	50.89	365	13	378
Ots32	68.42	122	139	261	52.10	110	159	269	61.98	182	237	419
Ots33	77.29	335	3	338	88.48	337	6	343	79.96	508	9	517
Ots34	80.74	111	115	226	59.49	103	132	235	77.19	168	191	359
Total	3119.77	12,284	2,336	14,620	2874.02	13,084	2,714	15,798	3003.36	19,762	3,953	23,715

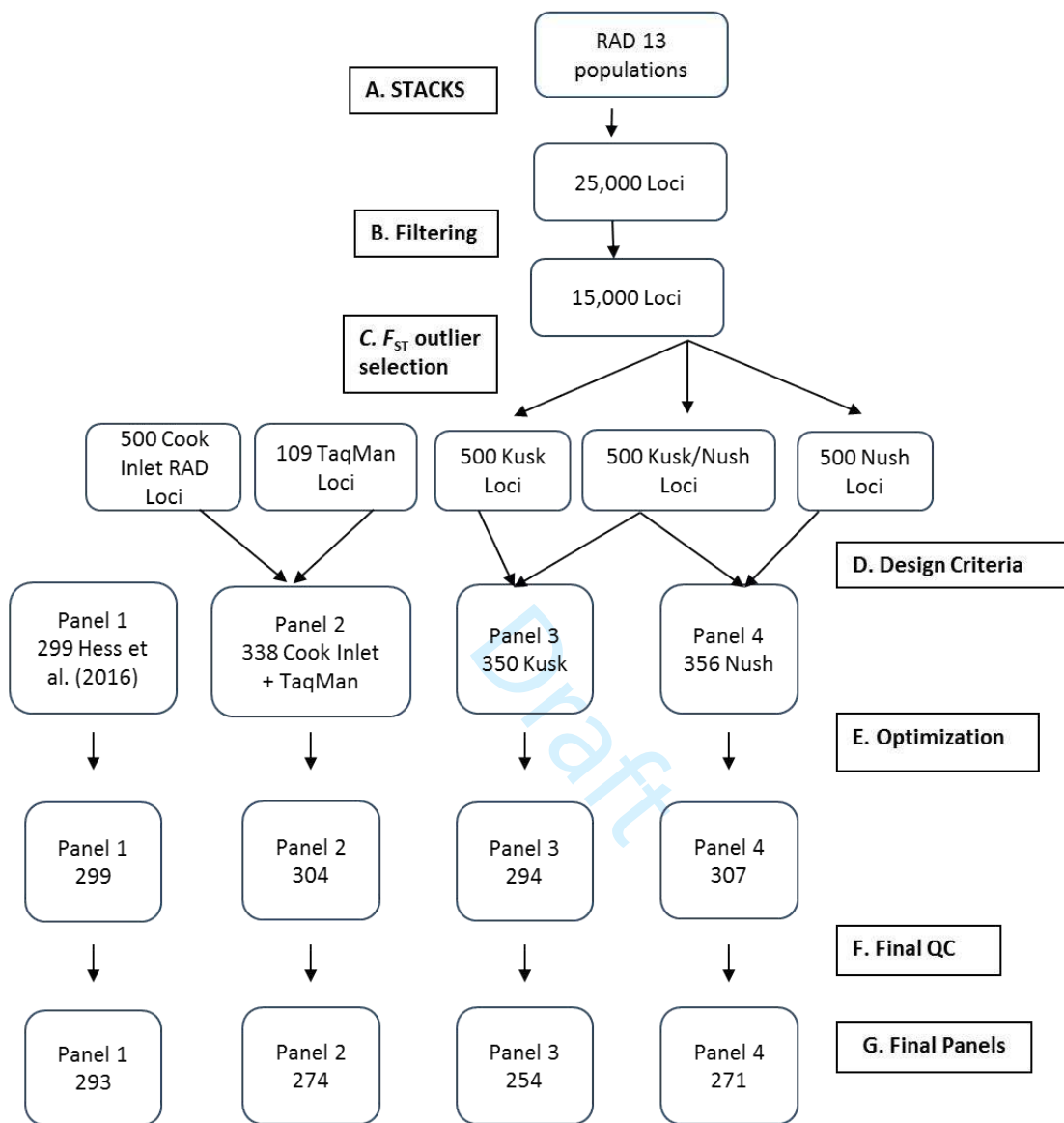
**Table 4.** Results of locus filtering prior to mixed-stock analysis (MSA). The number of total loci for each panel are in the Panel Loci column; the number of loci retained after filtering are in the *GSIsim* Loci column. The number of loci filtered at each step are listed in the remaining columns. The retained 847 singleton loci were evaluated for MSA using *GSIsim*.

Panel	Panel Number	Panel Loci	No data for		Allele Frequency Discrepancies	Genotype Rate <70%	Mono-morphic	<i>GSIsim</i> Loci
			RADseq samples	Duplicate				
Hess et al. (2016)	1	293	61	6	2	33	34	157
Cook Inlet + TaqMan	2	274	23	13	4	1	4	232
Kuskokwim	3	254	0	24	6	0	2	219
Nushagak	4	271	0	27	5	0	0	239
Total		1,092	84	70	17	34	40	847

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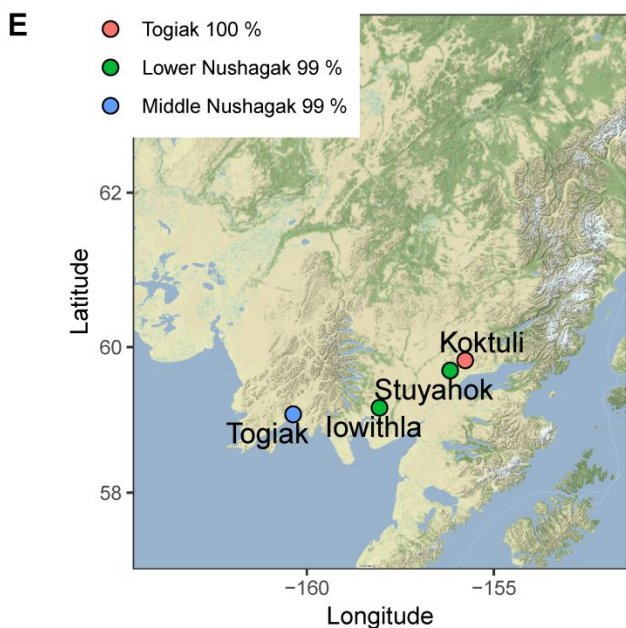
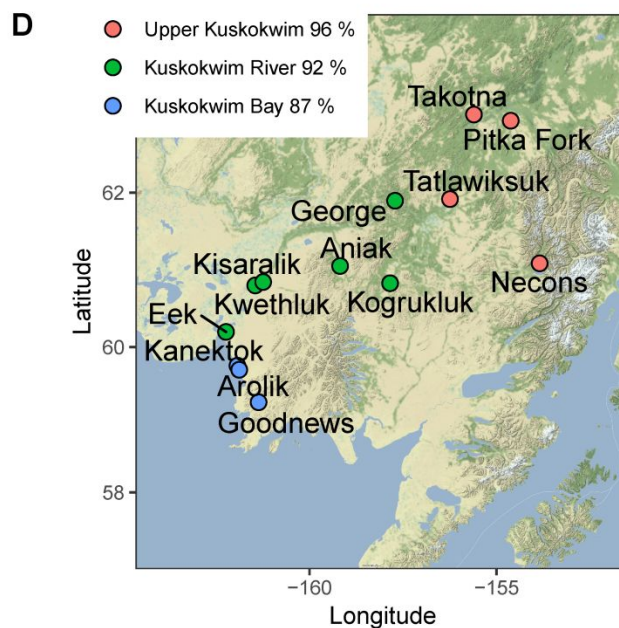
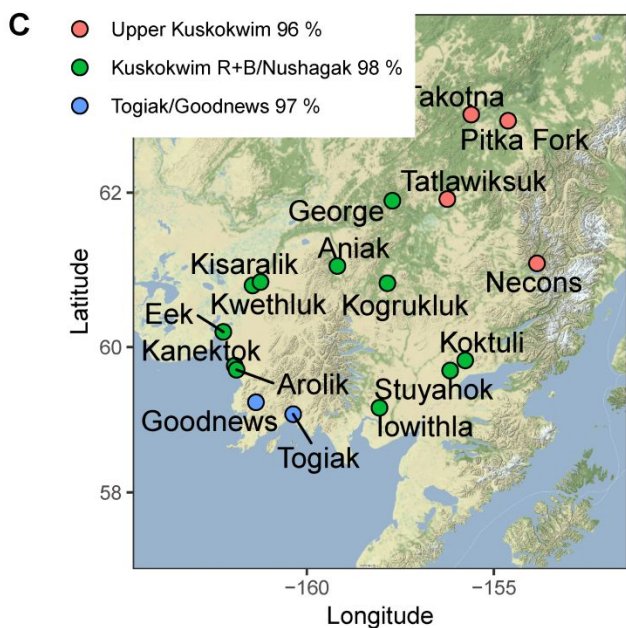
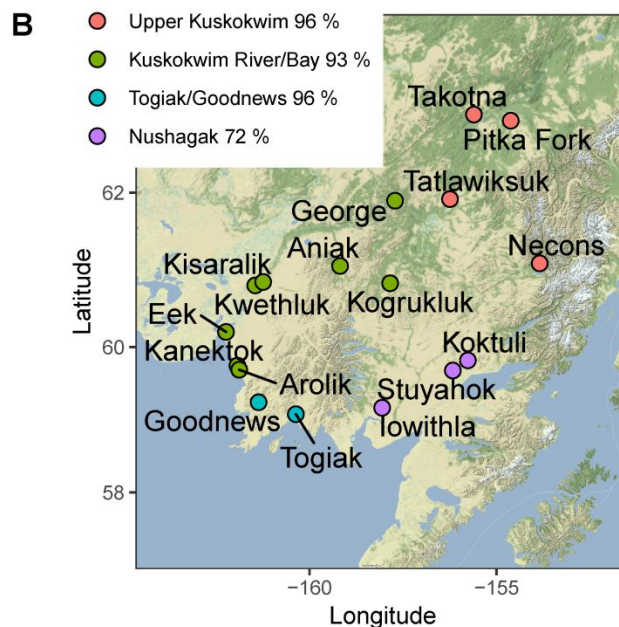
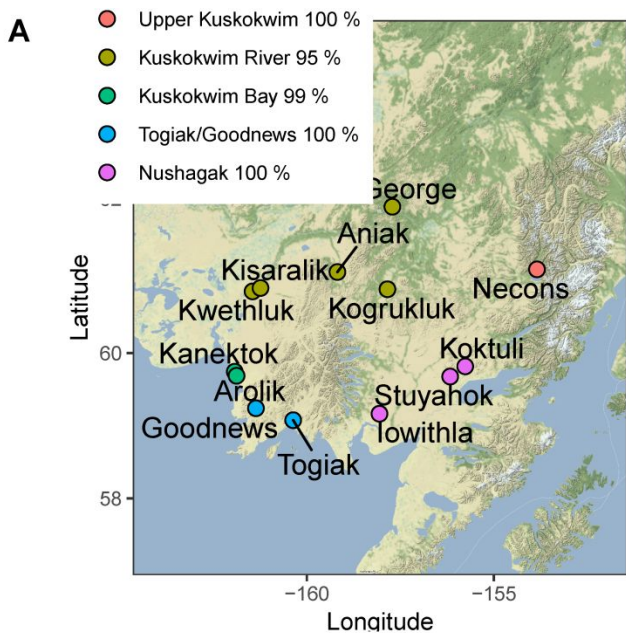


**Figure 1.** Sample sites for populations used in this study. Shapes denote type of sequencing done on the population; populations are color coded by region. Map tiles by Stamen Design, under CC BY 3.0.



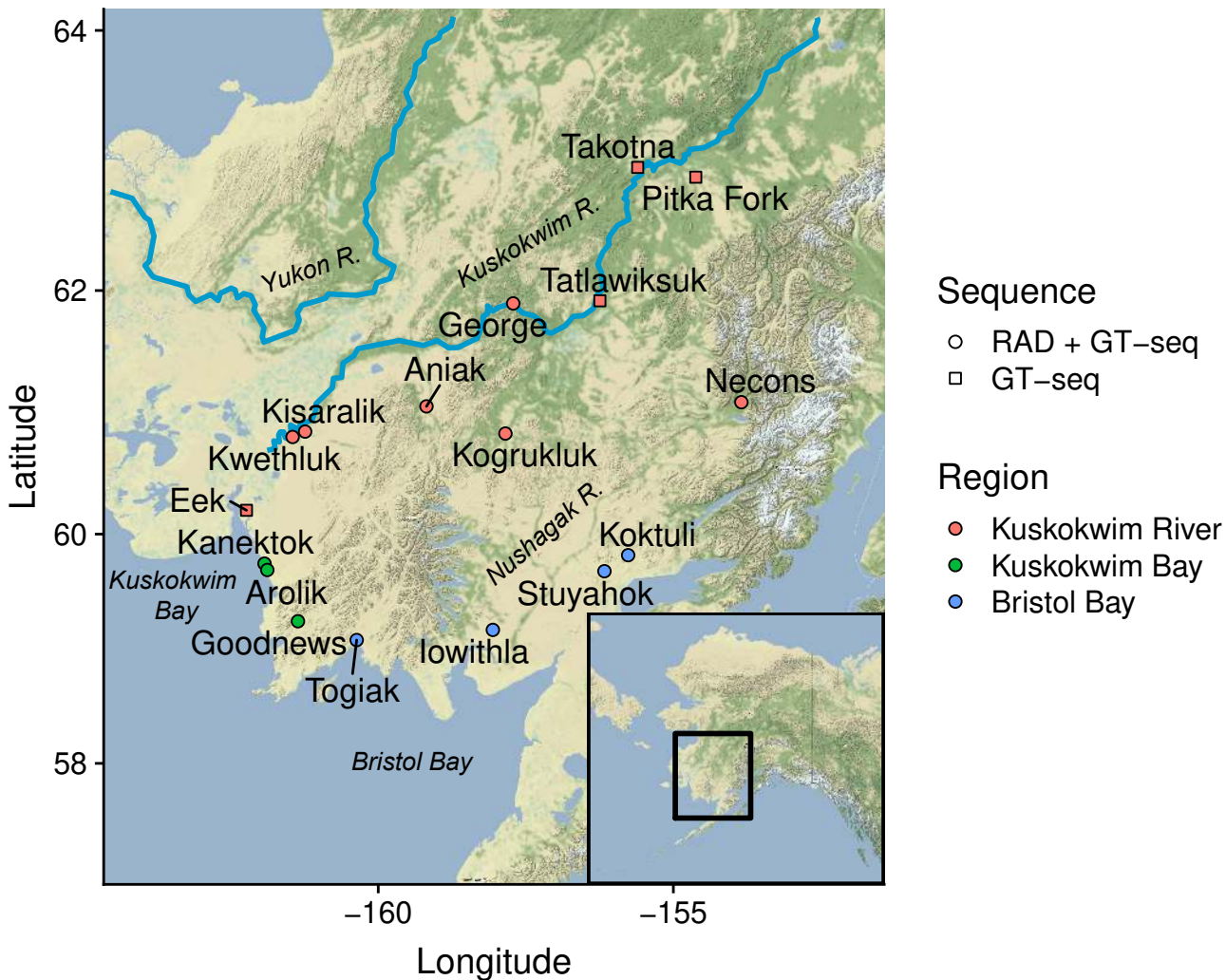
**Figure 2.** Flowchart of GT-seq panel development.





**Figure 3.** Map of populations used in this study and reporting groups tested. SNP discovery was conducted on ascertainment populations using RADseq. All RADseq populations were used for genetic stock assignment along with additional populations and individuals genotyped using GT-seq. For each reporting group scenario, populations on the map are color coded by reporting group, and mean accuracy of reporting groups are shown in the legend. The maximum possible resolution using the full RADseq dataset (>15,000 loci) is shown in A. Reporting group scenarios for GT-seq panel (847 loci) resolution are B) fine-scale resolution, C) broad-scale resolution, D) resolution within Kuskokwim Bay/River, and E) resolution within Togiak Bay/Nushagak River. Map tiles by Stamen Design, under CC BY 3.0.

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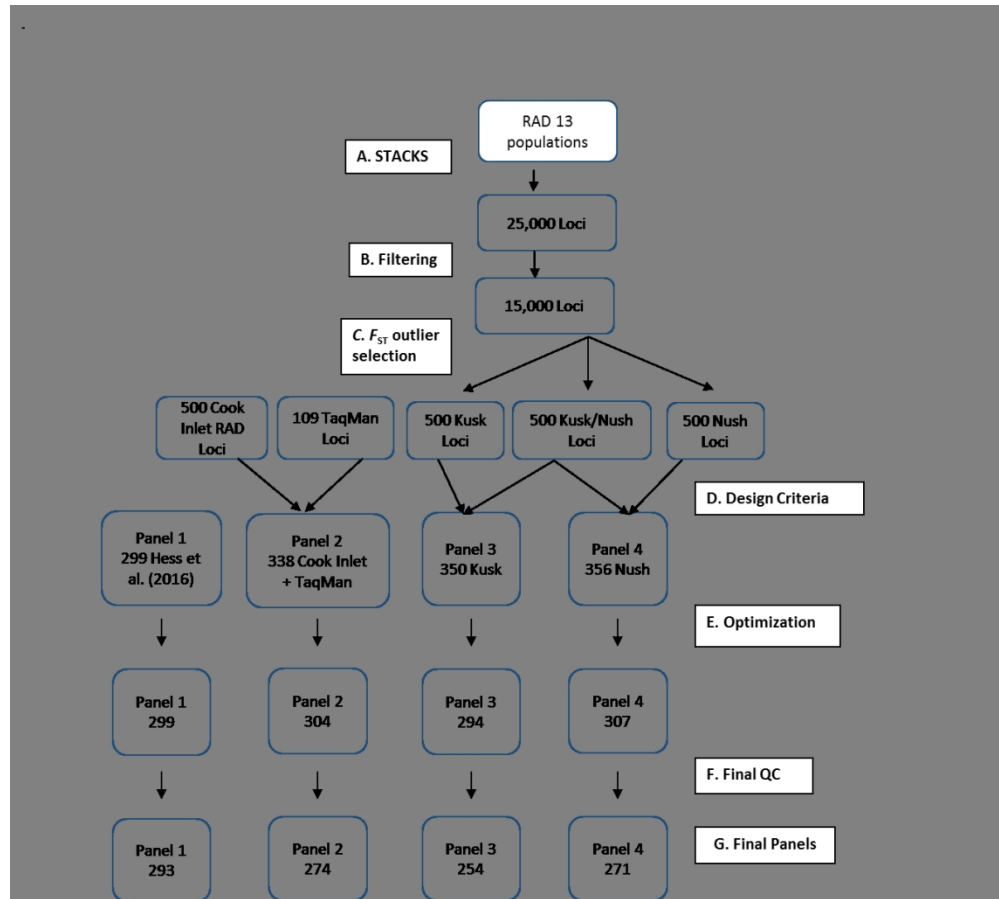


Figure 2. Flowchart of GT-seq panel development.



