

# Genetic variability in wild and hatchery populations of commercially important fish: The common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*)

MARYAM AHMADI<sup>1</sup>, HADISEH KASHIRI<sup>2\*</sup>, ALI SHABANI<sup>3</sup>, ABASALI AGHAEI MOGHADAM<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Faculty of Fisheries and Environment, Gorgan University of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources, Gorgan, Iran

<sup>2</sup>Department of Fisheries, Faculty of Fisheries and Environment, Gorgan University of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources, Gorgan, Iran.  
Tel.: +98-9112738246, \*email: hadiskashiri@gmail.com

<sup>3</sup>Department of Fisheries, Faculty of Fisheries and Environment, Gorgan University of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources, Gorgan, Iran

<sup>4</sup>Inland Waters Aquatic Stocks Research Center, Gorgan, Iran

Manuscript received: 17 June 2018. Revision accepted: 6 July 2018.

**Abstract.** Ahmadi M, Kashiri H, Shabani A, Moghadam AA. 2018. Genetic variability in wild and hatchery populations of commercially important fish: The common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*). *Biodiversitas* 19: 1468-1474. Common carp, *Cyprinus carpio*, is considered as one of the most important bony fish with high economic value in the Caspian sea. Since the population size of common carp has decreased during recent decades, restocking of the populations is done through releasing the hatchery-produced larvae into the Caspian Sea. In the present study, the genetic diversity of hatchery and wild populations of *C. carpio* was investigated using eight microsatellite loci (MFW7, MFW9, MFW13, MFW16, MFW17, MFW20, MFW26 and MFW28). A total of 145 different alleles were observed across all loci, with some of them being unique to each population. Although the allelic and gene diversity of hatchery populations tended to be lower compared to the wild populations, no significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) in genetic diversity parameters were observed among the wild and hatchery populations. In most cases, significant departure from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was observed, mainly because of the heterozygosity deficiency. Results from  $F_{ST}$ ,  $R_{ST}$  and UPGMA analysis showed that the hatchery-reared population was the most differentiated and distant group. The results from this study are anticipated to provide important information for setting up more efficient strategies in conservation and restocking of *C. carpio*.

**Keywords:** Allelic diversity, *Cyprinus carpio*, hatchery, population, microsatellite

**Abbreviations:**  $A_E$ : Effective number of alleles,  $A_O$ : Number of alleles,  $A_U$ : Unique alleles, GRR: Gorganroud River,  $H_E$ : Expected heterozygosity,  $H_O$ : Observed heterozygosity, HWE: Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, QR: Qaresou River, S: Allele size

## INTRODUCTION

Common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) belongs to the family Cyprinidae which is regarded as the largest family of freshwater teleosts (Nelson 1994). The common carp is native to Asia and Eastern Europe. This species has introduced throughout the world but the wild stocks are only present naturally in rivers draining to the Black, Aral and Caspian Sea (Kottelat and Freyhof 2007). It is believed that anthropogenic activities including damming on the rivers, overfishing as well as degradation of natural spawning grounds have caused considerable decline in natural populations of wild common carp through the world so that this fish is regarded as a vulnerable or endangered species in many places including the Caspian Sea basins (Kottelat and Freyhof 2007; Vazirzadeh and Yelghi 2015). To promote *C. carpio* population recovery, Iranian Fisheries Organization has proceeded to restock through releasing the hatchery-produced larvae in to the Caspian Sea basins since the late 1994. In this regard, at the Sijeval Bony Fishes Breeding Center in Golestan province, the hatchery-produced individuals from the breeders originated from Gorganroud River have been released annually in to the rivers of Gorganroud and Qaresou during the months of June and July. Although restocking by using hatchery-

produced organisms is known as a common strategy for conservation of threatened wild populations, there is still uncertainty that whether this procedure is really efficient to improve the population size or not. However, despite the potential benefits, restocking through the supportive breeding may lead to possible problems including increase in genetic divergence between sites due to genetic drift and decrease in genetic variability (Roodt-Wilding 2007). Such adverse genetic effects on natural population restoration have been previously reported by Araki et al. 2007; Cheng et al. 2011 and Li et al. 2016. Nevertheless, there have also been reports on maintaining genetic variability in hatchery populations of other fish species (Pan and Yang 2010; An et al. 2013).

Since the genetic quality of hatchery-produced larvae may have a great impact on the efficiency of restocking programs (Li et al. 2016), conservation management strategies without the knowledge of genetic structure can have deleterious impacts on the gene pools of natural populations (Laikre et al. 2005). Food and Agricultural Organization of the nations also recommends genetic assessment of the populations used for restocking programs as well as the target ones to monitor any changes for sustainable management of populations. Therefore assessing the genetic diversity of hatchery-produced

compared to natural populations of common carp is urgently needed to produce high-quality individuals for successful management and sustainable use. More than 23 years have passed from the beginning of the massive release of common carp larvae into the Caspian Sea and natural spawning has decreased during this period. Unfortunately, despite that restocking programs have been widely implemented for common carp populations in southeast parts of the Caspian Sea, reports on the current genetic variation in hatchery populations are not available and the previous studies are limited to the wild populations in some regions of the Caspian Sea (Yousefian and Laloei 2011; Fallahbagheri et al. 2013; Laloei et al. 2013; Ghelichpour et al. 2013).

In the present study, we used eight microsatellite markers to evaluate the genetic diversity of wild and hatchery populations of *C. carpio*. The results from our study could help to provide important information for setting up more effective breeding strategies and appropriate management in conservation and restocking of *C. carpio*.

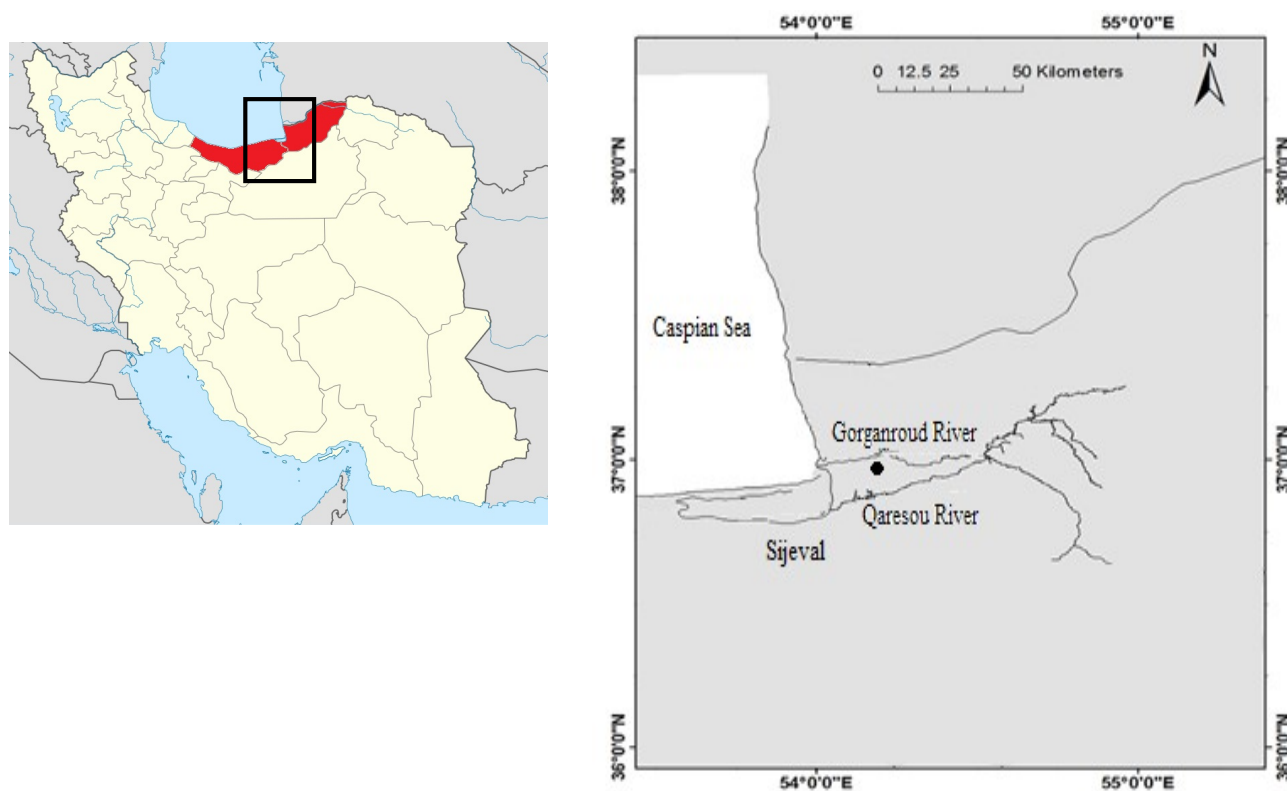
## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Sample collection and DNA extraction

A total of 64 wild specimens of *C. carpio* were caught from southeast parts of the Caspian Sea, Iran, i.e., Qaresou

River (QR) and Gorganroud River (GRR) (32 individuals for each group) (Figure 1) during April and May 2017. Similarly a further 64 hatchery-produced fish were obtained from two different groups in Sijeval Bony Fishes Breeding Center, Golestan province, Iran (32 individuals for each group). At this facility, two groups of wild and hatchery-reared breeders are used for restocking program: hatchery-reared population was established from the animals of Gorganroud River in the 2013s. The larvae produced from hatchery-reared breeders have been released annually into the Caspian Sea from 2015. The wild breeders are also caught annually from Gorganroud River during migration season and the larvae produced from these breeders have been released into the nature. Approximately  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  of caudal fin was excised from each specimen and preserved in 96% ethanol at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  for subsequent DNA extraction.

Total DNA was extracted from fin tissues using DNA extraction kit (GeneAll, Korea) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The quantity and quality of the extracted DNA were determined using a Biophotometer Spectrophotometer (Eppendorf, Germany) and 1% agarose gel electrophoresis, respectively. The genomic DNA was stored at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  until PCR reactions.



**Figure 1.** *Cyprinus carpio* sampling locations in Qaresou River (QR) and Gorganroud River (GRR), southeast parts of the Caspian Sea, Iran

**Table 1.** Characteristics of microsatellite loci used for screening of *Cyprinus carpio* genetic diversity.

Locus	Sequence	No. of alleles	Allele size	Anneal (°C)
MFW7	F: TACTTTGCTCAGGACGGATGC; R: ATCACCTGCACATGGCCACTC	20	168-244	62
MFW9	F: GATCTGCAAGCATATCTGTCG; R: ATCTGAACCTGCAGCTCCTC	14	144-196	58
MFW13	F: ATGATGAGAACATTGTTTACAG; R: TGAGAGAACAATGTGGATGAC	16	176-236	56
MFW16	F: GTCCATTGTGTCAAGATAGAG; R: TCTTCATTTTCAGGCTGCAAAG	16	124-184	57
MFW17	F: CTCAACTACAGAGAAATTTTCATC; R: GAAATGGTACATGACCTCAAG	23	216-304	57
MFW20	F: CAGTGAGACGATTACCTTGG; R: GTGAGCAGCCCACATTGAAC	20	208-284	60
MFW26	F: CCCTGAGATAGAAACCACTG; R: CACCATGCTTGGATGCAAAAAG	19	120-192	60
MFW28	F: GATCCCTTTTGAATTTTCTAG; R: ACAGTGAGGTCCAGAAGTCG	17	184-248	58

### Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

Eight nuclear microsatellite loci were used to measure genetic diversity among the common carp populations; MFW7, MFW9, MFW13, MFW16, MFW17, MFW20, MFW26 and MFW28 (Crooijmans et al. 1997). The characteristics of the applied loci are presented in Table 1. The PCR reaction was performed in 12.5 µL reaction mixture containing 2 µL DNA, 6.25 µL Red Load Taq Master (Jena Bioscience, Germany), 1 µL of each primer and 2.25 µL PCR grade water. PCR program consisted of a pre-denaturation for 3 min at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation for 30 sec at 95°C, annealing (Table 1) for 30 sec and extension for 30 sec at 72°C as well as a final extension for 3 min at 72°C. The PCR products were separated on 10% polyacrylamide gel. A 100 bp ladder (Fermentas, USA) was applied as the indices for determining allelic size. The obtained gels were stained using silver nitrate method (Benbouza et al. 2006). After recording the gel images using a gel documentation system (Gel Doc XR, Bio-Rad, USA), the allele size was determined using Gel Pro Analyzer 3.9 software.

### Data analysis

The possibility of the presence of null alleles, scoring errors and dropout of large alleles were checked using Microchecker program (Oosterhout et al. 2004). Cervus program 3.03 (Kalinowski et al. 2007) was used to determine the number of unique alleles ( $A_U$ ). The genetic diversity parameters of each sample including the number of alleles ( $A_O$ ), the effective number of alleles ( $A_E$ ), allele size (S), the observed heterozygosity ( $H_O$ ) and the expected heterozygosity ( $H_E$ ) were calculated by Genealex 6.3 (Peakall and Smouse 2006). Differences in genetic diversity parameters were assessed using Wilcoxon-Mann-Witney test implemented in the SPSS software. Linkdis method implemented in Genetix was applied to investigate linkage disequilibrium (Belkhir et al. 1999). The probability of bottleneck in the populations was investigated using Bottleneck 1.2.02 (Cornuet and Luikart 1996) under TPM. This procedure is applied to analyze the deviation from mutation-drift equilibrium on the basis of excess or deficiency in heterozygosity. Deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) was tested by Genepop 3.4 software (Raymond and Rousset 1995).

HWE tests were also carried out for each locus in each population to test if deviations from HWE were in the

direction of deficit or excess of heterozygosity. The sequential Bonferoni correction was applied to adjust the significance levels for multiple tests (Rice 1989). The inbreeding indices ( $F_{IS}$ ) and its significance were determined using FSTAT 2.9.3 program (Goudet 2001). Rstcalc (Goodman 1997) and FSTAT (Goudet 2001) were used to determine  $R_{ST}$  (Slatkin 1995) and  $F_{ST}$  (Weir and Cockerham 1984), respectively. Analysis of molecular variance (Ampova) was run to determine the partitioning of genetic diversity within and among populations in Arlequin 3.1 (Excoffier et al. 2005). The significance estimates were obtained using 1000 permutations. The gene flow ( $N_M$ ) among populations, unbiased genetic identity (GI) and genetic distance (GD) based on Nei (1978) were determined by Genealex 6.3 (Peakall and Smouse 2006). UPGMA dendrogram was constructed based on Nei's genetic distance using Population program 1.2.30 (Oliver Langella, CNRS UPR9034). The bootstraps levels were calculated by 10000 replicate across loci. The Treeview program 1.6.6 (Page 1996) was applied to visualize the constructed dendrogram.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Population genetic diversity

Microchecker didn't show any evidence for large allele dropout and stutter-band scoring at the applied loci, but null alleles were observed at the loci MFW7 and MFW28. The estimated frequencies of null alleles in these loci were 0.208 and 0.173, respectively. All the applied loci showed polymorphism in all samples of common carp, and the polymorphism level varied depending on the locus. A total of 145 different alleles were observed across all loci, with some of them being unique to each population. Allelic diversity was 18.1, with the number of alleles per locus ranging from 14 (MFW9) to 23 (MFW17) (Table 1). The measures of genetic diversity parameters are presented in Table 2. The observed and expected heterozygosity values ranged from 0.573 to 1 (mean  $H_O$ : 0.836) and 0.0.865 to 0.956 (mean  $H_E$ : 0.92), respectively. No significant differences in actual and effective number of alleles as well as expected and observed heterozygosity were observed between the wild samples (Wilcoxon:  $P > 0.05$ ). In comparing the wild and hatchery populations, the mean

number of actual alleles was slightly higher in the wild samples which was not statistically significant ( $A_O$ : 14 for the wild samples versus 13.2 for the hatchery samples) (Wilcoxon:  $P>0.05$ ). The average  $H_O$  and  $H_E$  of the wild samples also tended to be higher in comparison to the hatchery samples ( $H_O$ : 0.850 and  $H_E$ : 0.928 for the wild samples versus  $H_O$ : 0.821 and  $H_E$ : 0.912 for the hatchery samples) (Wilcoxon:  $P>0.05$ ). 49 alleles were found to be unique to four groups: 15, 16, 10 and 8 in GRR, QR, Hatchery1 and Hatchery2, respectively (Table 2). To analyze the deviation from mutation-drift equilibrium in the studied populations, the bottleneck test was done under TPM. According to the results, no significant heterozygosity excess ( $P>0.05$ ) was observed via the applied test, suggesting any of the populations have not experienced a recent bottleneck.

Significant departure from HWE was detected at most of the loci (Table 2). After adjusting the P values across 8 loci using the sequential Bonferroni method for multiple observations, 21 of the 32 tests (8 loci $\times$ 4 populations) showed significant departure from HWE. A significant deficit of heterozygosity was noticed at some of the loci in

the studied populations ( $P<0.05$ ) (Table 2). The largest deficit was for Hatchery2 with the  $F_{IS}$  value of 0.389 at the locus MFW7. The average  $F_{IS}$  across all loci were 0.095 and 0.109 for the wild and hatchery samples, respectively. The heterozygosity excess detected at some loci was not significant in either population at any of the loci. No significant linkage disequilibrium was also noticed at any of eight loci after Bonferroni correction ( $P>0.05$ ).

#### Genetic relationship among populations

The global  $F_{ST}$  over all samples was 0.017 ( $P<0.01$ ).  $F_{ST}$  was in accordance with  $R_{ST}$  so that the lowest  $F_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  were detected between GRR and Hatchery1 populations (Table 3). The Hatchery2 was the most divergent and differentiated group from all other populations ( $P<0.01$ ). The Amova of all eight microsatellites revealed that most of the variations were found within individuals (96%;  $P=0.010$ ). The levels of genetic variation between individuals within populations and between populations were also 1.84 ( $P=0.024$ ) and 2.16 ( $P=0.000$ ), respectively.

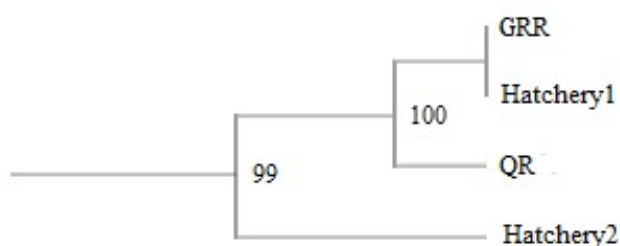
**Table 2.** Genetic diversity parameters for eight microsatellite loci in *Cyprinus carpio*

		MFW7	MFW9	MFW13	MFW16	MFW17	MFW20	MFW26	MFW28	Mean
GRR	$A_O$	11	9	12	15	19	17	15	14	14
	$A_E$	18.87	15.17	9.48	8.79	13.91	16.96	15.61	14.74	14.19
	$H_O$	0.628	1.00	1.00	0.712	0.866	0.801	1.00	0.753	0.845
	$H_E$	0.947	0.934	0.895	0.886	0.928	0.941	0.936	0.932	0.925
	$A_U$	0	1	2	2	5	2	1	2	1.9
	$F_{IS}$	<b>0.341</b>	-0.062	-0.105	0.216	0.081	0.165	-0.059	0.211	0.098
	HWE	***	ns	ns	*	*	**	ns	**	
QR	$A_O$	12	9	12	14	19	17	16	14	14.1
	$A_E$	22.68	16.14	11.90	9.38	19.25	14.71	16.92	13.71	15.59
	$H_O$	0.654	1.00	1.00	0.683	0.871	0.856	0.968	0.816	0.856
	$H_E$	0.956	0.938	0.916	0.893	0.948	0.932	0.941	0.927	0.931
	$A_U$	1	1	2	1	5	2	2	2	2
	$F_{IS}$	<b>0.326</b>	-0.051	-0.08	<b>0.241</b>	0.096	0.097	-0.027	0.136	0.092
	HWE	***	ns	ns	**	*	**	**	*	
Hatchery1	$A_O$	11	9	11	13	17	17	15	14	13.4
	$A_E$	15.18	12.53	10.77	9.35	7.97	15.36	11.36	20.34	12.86
	$H_O$	0.584	1.00	1.00	0.683	0.837	0.834	1.00	0.695	0.829
	$H_E$	0.934	0.92	0.907	0.893	0.874	0.935	0.912	0.951	0.916
	$A_U$	0	1	1	0	3	2	1	2	1.2
	$F_{IS}$	<b>0.381</b>	-0.062	-0.091	<b>0.243</b>	0.064	0.109	-0.078	<b>0.273</b>	0.105
	HWE	***	ns	ns	*	*	***	ns	**	
Hatchery2	$A_O$	11	9	10	13	17	16	15	14	13.1
	$A_E$	13.89	13.53	9.44	10.11	7.44	14.50	8.86	14.70	11.56
	$H_O$	0.573	1.00	1.00	0.632	0.812	0.852	1.00	0.647	0.814
	$H_E$	0.928	0.926	0.894	0.901	0.865	0.931	0.887	0.932	0.908
	$A_U$	0	1	0	0	3	1	1	2	1
	$F_{IS}$	<b>0.389</b>	-0.063	-0.112	<b>0.306</b>	0.090	0.102	-0.114	<b>0.308</b>	0.113
	HWE	***	ns	ns	***	*	**	ns	***	

Note: GRR: Gorganroud River; QR: Qaresou River; Significant amounts of  $F_{IS}$  are shown in bold; HWE = Hardy-Weinberg probability test after correction with sequential test of Bonferroni (Rice, 1989); ns = not significant; \*  $P\leq 0.05$ ; \*\*  $P\leq 0.001$ ; \*\*\*  $P\leq 0.0001$ .

**Table 3.** Genetic relationships among *Cyprinus carpio* populations

Comparison	F <sub>ST</sub>	R <sub>ST</sub>	N <sub>M</sub>	Nei's GD	Nei's GI
GRR vs. QR	0.012	0.025	20.59	0.203	0.814
GRR vs. Hatchery1	0.011	0.023	22.51	0.184	0.835
GRR vs. Hatchery2	0.023	0.043	10.63	0.296	0.717
QR vs. Hatchery1	0.013	0.027	18.97	0.221	0.793
QR vs. Hatchery2	0.025	0.044	9.78	0.327	0.685
Hatchery1 vs. Hatchery2	0.018	0.035	13.66	0.288	0.731

**Figure 2.** UPGMA dendrogram based on the Nei's (1978) genetic distance from 8 loci for the wild and hatchery populations of common carp

*Cyprinus carpio* populations presented high levels of gene flow (Table 3). The highest value of N<sub>M</sub> (30.98) was observed between GRR and Hatchery1 samples. Nei (1978) unbiased genetic identity and distance among all samples are presented in Table 3. The highest GD and lowest GI were between Hatchery2 and QR while the lowest GD and highest GI were noticed among GRR and Hatchery1. According to the population relationships depicted in UPGMA cluster constructed from Nei's genetic distances, Hatchery2 was the most distant population while the nearest groups were GRR and Hatchery1 (Figure 2).

## Discussion

No significant differences in genetic diversity parameters were observed among the wild samples of common carp. The genetic diversity observed in our study was higher than that previously reported by Laloei et al. (2013) for wild populations of common carp in south of the Caspian Sea (Guilan, Mazandaran and Golestan coasts) (H<sub>O</sub>: 0.85 vs. 0.49 and H<sub>E</sub>: 0.928 vs. 0.67) which could be related to the difference in applied loci, various sample size and sampling sites. In another studies by Yousefian and Laloei (2011) and Fallahbagheri et al. (2013) by RFLP, low genetic variation was reported for wild populations of common carp in southern Caspian Sea. In addition to the mentioned possible explanation, the fact that microsatellites are more efficient in detecting genetic diversity compared to RFLP (Shaw et al. 1999), may explain the lower concordance between our results and RFLP data. However, our results are in accordance with the study by Ghelichpour et al. (2013) who reported a

considerable level of genetic diversity in the wild populations of common carp in southeast of the Caspian Sea. The observed genetic diversity in this study was higher than that reported by DeWoody and Avise (2000) for 13 other freshwater (A<sub>O</sub>: 9.1, H<sub>O</sub>: 0.46, H<sub>E</sub>: 0.54) and 7 anadromous species (H<sub>O</sub> and H<sub>E</sub>: 0.68). We, therefore, suggest that the wild populations of *R. caspius* in the investigated regions showed a proper level of genetic diversity.

In comparing the hatchery samples with the wild samples of *C. carpio*, despite non significant differences (Wilcoxon:  $P > 0.05$ ), the genetic diversity of hatchery samples was somewhat lower than that in the wild samples. A reduction in the number of unique alleles was also observed in the hatchery samples. Genetic diversity reduction in fish hatchery populations has been previously demonstrated (Li et al. 2016; Wenne et al. 2016). Selection, breeding with limited number of parents and consequently inbreeding depression appeared to be the main explanations for the decrease in genetic diversity of hatchery populations (Li et al. 2016). Tessier et al. (1997) also reported high genetic drift and 50% reduction of effective population size in hatchery populations of Atlantic salmon due to the very small number of parents used for establishing hatchery population. In our study, when two hatchery populations were compared with each other, the Hatchery2 population exhibited a very slightly lower level of genetic diversity which was not significant (Wilcoxon:  $P > 0.05$ ). However, the level of genetic variation in Hatchery2 was at an appropriate level. Also, according to the results from bottleneck test, the Hatchery2 population has not experienced a recent bottleneck. This was not surprising because less than 5 years have passed from the establishment of Hatchery2 population and the stocks have renewed annually from the wild during two recent years. However, the Hatchery2 showed the lowest level of genetic diversity compared to the other populations. Although the differences were not statistically significant, even the slightly lower level of genetic variation noticed in the hatchery-produced population should not be ignored because the risk of enhanced inbreeding, subsequent homozygosity and loss of alleles might be arisen over time (Wang et al. 2002). High rate of hatchery larvae release with decreased genetic diversity might produce negative effects on adopted gene pools and subsequently reducing the growth and survival fitness of wild populations (Thanh

et al. 2015). Therefore, to produce healthy young larvae of common carp for the effective hatchery release, it will be critical to maintain and promote the observed genetic variation in hatchery fish using well-organized broodstock management strategies.

Significant departures from HWE were observed in the both hatchery and wild populations after sequential Bonferoni correction. Additionally, significant heterozygosity deficit were detected at some of the loci. The biological reasons for such deficiency are not well detected (Raymond et al. 1997) and several factors are considered to explain it. In our study, the appearance of null alleles is suggested as an important reason for the observed deficiency at the loci MFW7 and MFW28. This has also been the reason for heterozygosity deficit suggested by Berdugo and Barandica (2014) and Biba et al. (2016). We also observed a high level of gene flow between the studied populations which can be a potential explanation for heterozygosity deficiency and deviation from HWE (Bhassu et al. 2004). In recent years, despite the massive release of hatchery-produced larvae in restocking programs, *C. carpio* populations have decreased mainly due to heavy fishing activity and increasing entrance of pollution. This would cause a corresponding decrease in population size which together with overfishing might increase the possibility of inbreeding in some populations (An et al. 2013). Therefore, inbreeding may be a potential explanation for heterozygosity deficiency observed in our study. In hatchery populations, founder effect is considered as a common reason for heterozygosity deficit (Lundrigan et al. 2005). However, only one factor cannot explain the deficit in heterozygosity as the interaction of various factors may contribute to it.

Genetic differentiation among the *C. carpio* populations was measured by  $F_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  indices.  $R_{ST}$  is considered as more effective measure than  $F_{ST}$  due to using allelic size information in estimating population differentiation (Wachirachaikarn et al. 2009). For microsatellites,  $R_{ST}$  can be higher than  $F_{ST}$  under assumption of SMM as mutation model (Slatkin 1995). However, when differentiation is not dependent on mutation model under short time population separation and high rate of migration among populations, the  $F_{ST}$  values could be close to the  $R_{ST}$  ones (Slatkin 1995). In our study, there was no significant difference in  $F_{ST}$  and  $R_{ST}$  levels. However, although the  $R_{ST}$  values among the populations were slightly higher than those of  $F_{ST}$ , the  $R_{ST}$  levels were in accordance with those of  $F_{ST}$ . We found a low level of differentiation between the studied wild populations, GRR and QR. In addition to the life history, this low level of differentiation may be related to the stock enhancement strategies. The common carp larvae produced from the wild breeders in the hatchery are released yearly in to the rivers of Gorganroud and Qaresou while their breeders are caught only from the Gorganroud River. In this regard, high level of gene flow was observed between these two populations. So, beside the natural migration, releasing the hatchery produced-larvae into the nature without any attention to their parental catch location may be an important explanation for the observed high gene flow and subsequent low

differentiation. In comparing the wild and hatchery populations, the lowest differentiation was observed among the Hatchery1 and GRR populations. This was not unexpected because the breeders were originated from the Gorganroud River. However, the highest levels of differentiation were noticed among the Hatchery2 and wild populations. The genetic distance and identity values were also in accordance with the differentiation measures so that the highest genetic distance and the lowest identity were among the Hatchery2 and QR while the lowest genetic distance and the highest identity were observed between the GRR and Hatchery1 samples. Similarly, closer genetic relationship among the GRR and Hatchery1 was revealed by UPGMA dendrogram in which these two samples were the nearest groups while the Hatchery2 was the most distant population which may be related to the hatchery operations such as artificial selection of contributing breeders.

In conclusion, more than 23 years have passed from the beginning of restocking programs for common carp populations. Unfortunately, there is not any information on genetic structure of *C. carpio* wild populations before starting the restocking programs to determine the effect of restocking on genetic diversity of the wild populations. However, according to the comparing our results with those reported for freshwater and anadromous species (Dewoody and Avise 2000), it can be said that despite some problems such as pollution, overfishing and restocking programs, the genetic diversity of *C. carpio* in the studied regions is at a proper level. According to our results, no significant differences have observed in genetic variation parameters among the wild and hatchery populations. But since long time has not passed from the establishment of hatchery2 population, even the slightly lower genetic diversity observed in this population should not be ignored. Therefore, we suggest an effort be undertaken to establish adequate broodstock strategies to promote and preserve the observed diversity.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by Gorgan University of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources, Iran [Grant no. 9521033101]. The authors are also grateful to Reza Khaleghi for his kind help in the Laboratory of Aquatics Biotechnology, Faculty of Fisheries and Environment, Gorgan University of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources.

## REFERENCES

- Aguiar J, Schneider H, Gomes F, Carneiro J, Santos S, Rodrigues LR, Sampaio I. 2013. Genetic variation in native and farmed populations of Tambaqui (*Colossoma macropomum*) in the Brazilian Amazon: regional discrepancies in farming systems. *An Acad Bras Cienc* 85 (4): 1439-1447.
- Araki H, Waples RS, Arden WR, Cooper B, Blouin MS. 2007. Effective population size of steelhead trout: influence of variance in reproductive success, hatchery programs, and genetic compensation between life-history forms. *Mol Ecol* 16 (5): 953-966.

- Belkhir K, Borsa P, Goudet J, Bonhomme F. 1999. Genetics: Software for windows for population genetics, Version 4.02. Montpellier (France): Laboratory Genome and Pollution, CNRS-UPR, University of Montpellier II, Montpellier. [French].
- Benbouza H, Jacquemin JM, Baudoin JP, Mergeai G. 2006. Optimization of the reliable, fast, cheap and sensitive silver staining method to detect SSR markers in polyacrylamide gels. *Biotechnol. Agron Soc Environ* 10: 77-81.
- Berdugo GO, Barandica JCN. 2014. Genetic diversity and population structure of bocachico *Prochilodus magdalenae* (Pisces, Prochilodontidae) in the Magdalena River basin and its tributaries, Colombia. *Genet Mol Biol* 37 (1): 37-45.
- Bhassu S, Yusoff K, Panandam JM, Embong WK, Oyyan S, Tan SG. 2004. The genetic structure of *Oreochromis* spp. (*Tilapia*) populations in Malaysia as revealed by microsatellite DNA analysis. *Biochem Genet* 42: 217-229.
- Biba A, Hoda A, Bozg V, Mali S. 2016. Genetic diversity of *Cyprinus carpio* of natural lakes in Albania estimated by microsatellite loci. *Endocytobiosis Cell Res* 28 (1): 1-8.
- Cheng F, Wu Q, Liu M, Radhakrishnan KV, Murphy BR, Xie S. 2011. Impacts of hatchery release on genetic structure of rock carp *Procypris rabaudi* in the upper Yangtze River, China. *Fisheries Sci* 77: 765-771.
- Cornuet JM, Luikart G. 1996. Description and power analysis of two tests for detecting recent population bottlenecks from allele frequency data. *Genetics* 144: 2001-2014.
- Crooijmans RPMA, Bierbooms VAF, Komen J, Van der poal JJ, Groenen MAM. 1997. Microsatellite markers in common carp (*Cyprinus carpio* L.). *Anim Genet* 28: 129-134.
- DeWoody JA, Avise JC. 2000. Microsatellite variation in Marin, freshwater and anadromous fishes compare with other animal. *J Fish Biol* 56: 461-473.
- Excoffier L, Laval G, Schneider S. 2005. Arlequin ver. 3.0: an integrated software package for population genetics data analysis. *Evol Bioinform Online* 1: 47-50.
- Fallahbagheri F, Dorafshan S, Pourkazemi M, Keivany Y, Chakmedouz Qasemi F. 2013. Genetic analysis of wild common carp, *Cyprinus carpio* L. in the Anzali wetland, the Caspian Sea. *Iranian J Fish Sci* 12 (1) 1-11.
- Ghelichpour M, Shabani A, Shabanpour B. 2013. Microsatellite variation and genetic structure of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) populations in Gomishan bay and Gorganroud River (Southeast of the Caspian Sea). *Intl J Aquat Biol* 1 (1): 22-27.
- Goodman SJ. 1997. RSTCalC: a collection of computer program for calculating estimates of genetic differentiation from microsatellite data and determining their significance. *Mol Ecol* 6: 881-885.
- Goudet J. 2001. FSTAT, a program to estimate and test gene diversities and fixation indices (version 2.9.3). Available from <http://www.unil.ch/izea/software/fstat.html>.
- Kalinowski ST, Taper ML, Marshall TC. 2007. Revising how the computer program CERVUS accommodates genotyping error increases success in paternity assignment. *Mol Ecol* 16: 1099-1106.
- Kottelat M, Freyhof J. 2007. Handbook of European freshwater fishes. Publications Kottelat, Cornol and Freyhof, Berlin.
- Laikre L, Palm S, Ryman N. 2005. Genetic population structure of fishes: implications for coastal zone management. *Ambio* 34: 111-119.
- Laloei F, Rezvani Gilkolaei S, Taghavi M J. 2013. Genetic diversity and differentiation of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio* L.) in the southern part of Caspian Sea by using microsatellite markers. *Asian Fish Sci* 26: 115-127.
- Li X, Deng Y, Yang K, Gan W, Zeng R, Deng L, Song Z. 2016. Genetic Diversity and Structure Analysis of *Percocypris pingi* (Cypriniformes: Cyprinidae): Implications for Conservation and Hatchery Release in the Yalong River. *PLoS One* 11 (12): e0166769. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0166769.
- Lundrigan TA, Reist JD, Ferguson MM. 2005. Microsatellite genetic variation within and among Arctic char (*Salvelinus alpinus*) from aquaculture and natural populations in North America. *Aquaculture* 244: 63-75.
- Man A, Law R, Polunin NVC. 1995. Role of marine reserves in recruitment to reef fisheries: a metapopulation model. *Biol Conserv* 71: 197-204.
- Nelson JS. 1994. Fishes of the world, 3rd ed., John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.
- Oosterhout CV, Hutchinson WF, Wills DPM, Shipley P. 2004. Microchecker: software for identifying and correcting genotyping errors in microsatellite data. *Mol Ecol Notes* 4: 535-538.
- Page RDM. 1996. TREEVIEW: an application to display phylogenetic trees on personal computers. *Comput Appl Biosci* 12: 347-358.
- Peakall R, Smouse P E. 2006. GENALEX 6: genetic analysis in excel. Population genetic software for teaching and research. *Mol Ecol Notes* 6: 288-295.
- Pan G, Yang J. 2010. Analysis of microsatellite DNA markers reveals no genetic differentiation between wild and hatchery populations of Pacific threadfin in Hawaii. *Intl J Biol Sci* 6: 827-833.
- Pereira JC, Lino PG, Leitao A, Joaquim S, Chaves R, Pousaao-Ferreira P, Guedes HP, dos Santos MN. 2010. Genetic differences between wild and hatchery populations of *Diplodus sargus* and *D. vulgaris* inferred from RAPD markers: implications for production and restocking programs design. *J Appl Genet* 51 (1): 67-72.
- Raymond M, Rousset F. 1995. Genepop (Version 1.3): Population genetic software for exact tests and ecumenicisim. *J Hered* 86: 248-249.
- Raymond M, Vaanto RL, Thomas F, Rousset F, De Meeus T, Renaud F. 1997. Heterozygote deficiency in the mussel *Mytilus edulis* species complex revisited. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 156: 225-237.
- Rice WR. 1989. Analyzing tables of statistical tests. *Evolution* 43: 223-225.
- Roodt-Wilding R. 2007. Abalone ranching: A review on genetic considerations. *Aquac Res* 38: 1229-1241.
- Shaw PW, Turan C, Wright JM, O'Connell M Carvalho GR. 1999. Microsatellite DNA analysis of population structure in Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*), with direct comparison to allozyme and mtDNA RFLP analyses. *Heredity* 83: 490-499.
- Slatkin M. 1995. A measure of population subdivision based on microsatellite allele frequencies. *Genetics* 139: 457-462.
- Thanh HN, Liu QG, Zhao LJ, Zhang H, Liu J. 2015. Genetic diversity of the cultured giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) in China based on microsatellite markers. *Biochem Syst Ecol* 59: 144-154.
- Tessier N, Bernatchez L, Wright JM. 1997. Population structure and impact supportive breeding inferred from mitochondrial and microsatellite DNA analyses in landlocked Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* L. *Mol Ecol* 6: 735-750.
- Vazirzadeh A, Yelghi S. 2015. Long-term changes in the biological parameters of wild carp (*Cyprinus carpio carpio*) from the south-eastern Caspian Sea. *Iranian J Sci Technol* 39 (A3): 391-397.
- Wachirachaikarn A, Rungsin W, Srisapoom P. 2009. Crossing of African cat fish (*Clarias gariepinus*) strains based on strain selection using for microsatellite loci. *Aquaculture* 290 (1-2): 53-60.
- Wang SZ, Hard JJ, Utter F. 2002. Salmonid inbreeding: a review. *Rev Fish Biol Fish* 11 (4): 301-319.
- Weir BS, Cockerham CC. 1984. Estimating F-statistic for the analysis of population structure. *Evolution* 38: 1358-1370.
- Wenne R, Bernas R, Pokwierz-Kotus A, Drywa A, Was A. 2016. Recent genetic changes in enhanced populations of sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) in the southern Baltic rivers revealed with SNP analysis. *Aquat Living Resour* 29: 103-116.
- Yousefian M, Laloei F. 2011. Genetic variations and structure of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) populations by use of biochemical, mitochondrial and microsatellite markers. *Middle-East J Sci Res* 7 (3): 339-345.