1	Genomic divergence, introduction history and latitudinal adaptation of grass carp
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41 Abstract

42 Understanding the genomic signatures of population differentiation is fundamental to obtain a 43 comprehensive view of the evolutionary process of organisms. Grass carp is one of the most 44 important fish species in the world due to its significant value in aquaculture and world-wide 45 vegetation biocontrol. However, little is known about the contemporary population structure 46 and also the genetic basis of adaptation to a wide range of latitudinal environments. Using 47 43310 SNPs generated by genotyping by sequencing in 197 grass carps from nine 48 populations, we examined the patterns of population differentiation, historical introduction 49 and evidence of local selection. The overall genetic differentiation across all native 50 populations was unexpectedly low. Nevertheless, these native populations were clearly 51 differentiated into three genetic clusters, corresponding to the Yangtze River, the Pearl River 52 and the Heilongjiang River System, respectively. Populations in Malaysia, India and Nepal, 53 with the earliest introduction records, most likely have an origin from the Pearl River System. 54 Using conceptually different approaches, 451 loci were detected under potential local 55 selection, among which 84 were annotated to have a gene feature. 19.0% of the genes under 56 putative selection were involved in immune responses, while 42.9% of the annotated loci 57 showed a signature of latitudinal variation. This study provides valuable information for 58 application of genomic tools in addressing questions concerning population differentiation 59 that was influenced by both neutral and adaptive forces, as well as human activities.

60 Introduction

Grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*), belonging to the family Cyprinidae, is a large
herbivorous freshwater fish species (Froese and Pauly 2015). It is of great importance as a
food fish species as well as a species for world-wide aquatic vegetation control (Cross 1969;
Lembi *et al.* 1978). Grass carp is native to eastern Asia and broadly distributed from the

65 Heilongjiang River System (Amur River) southward to northern Vietnam (Froese and Pauly 66 2015). According to literature records, grass carp has a culture history of more than 1300 67 years since the Tang Dynasty (FAO 2014). The aquaculture practices are mainly conducted 68 within the geographical regions of the Yangtze and the Pearl River Systems of China (FAO 69 2014). Recent success in artificial breeding has significantly promoted the aquaculture 70 industry of this species (Stanley 1976; Boney et al. 1984; Allen Jr and Wattendorf 1987; 71 Peter et al. 1988). The annual global production has been over 5 million tons since 2013 with 72 an estimated economic value of 5 billion US dollar (FAO 2014). Grass carp is of the highest 73 production yield among all the farmed fish species around the world and accounts for 74 approximately 15.6% of global freshwater aquaculture production (FAO 2014).

75 Due to herbivorous habits, grass carp has been broadly introduced to more than 40 countries 76 around the world to control the undesirable and/or invasive aquatic plants of freshwater 77 systems (Skelton 2001). Artificial introductions were intensively conducted since the 1960s 78 (Welcomme 1988). The earliest introduction of grass carp was documented from Southern 79 China to Malaysia by Chinese immigrants in the 1800s (Welcomme 1988). However, which 80 native populations these introduced grass carp originated from is unclear. Recently, many studies have reported that introduced/invasive grass carp have endangered native ecological 81 82 systems and caused great economic loss because they can completely eliminate vegetation 83 from freshwater systems, destroy the populations of native fish species and introduce 84 parasites (Moyle 1986; Chilton II and Muoneke 1992; Bain 1993).

Within its native distribution range, grass carp mainly lives in three independent river systems: the Heilongjiang River, the Yangtze River and the Pearl River System (Fu *et al.* 2013). Understanding range-wide population structure is critical to conserve and utilize the genetic resources (Avise 1992). However, it is still not clear, due to a lack of genetic studies (Zhang *et al.* 2001; Liu *et al.* 2009; Fu *et al.* 2013). In particular, grass carp has been cultured 90 for more than 1300 years (FAO 2014). It is also not known if aquaculture practices with such 91 long history have left significant imprints on the contemporary population structure. 92 Importantly, a geographical pattern of population differentiation is the genetic basis to trace 93 the introduction from native habitats to foreign environments (Cornuet et al. 1999; Paetkau et 94 al. 2004). Investigation on the environments of both native and foreign habitats can provide 95 critical biological information for setting up effective introduction plans (Lande 1988; Bain 96 1993). It can also mitigate the adverse effects on the foreign habitats that were caused by 97 grass carp as an agent of biological invasion (Cross 1969; Bain 1993).

98 Local selection is of critical importance in the evolution of species (Savolainen et al. 2013). 99 Genetic studies focusing on different environments can provide crucial information for 100 understanding the selective forces driving local adaptation (Sultan and Spencer 2002). In 101 some cases, however, local selection acts along certain geographical gradients, e.g. latitude, 102 longitude and altitude, and shows the same direction as the overall neutral forces (Storz 2002; 103 Vasemägi 2006). Thus, it is more challenging to discriminate adaptive evolutionary forces 104 from background neutral forces (McKay and Latta 2002; Storz 2002). Nevertheless, these 105 environmental factors are of great interest in studying the selective forces that shape adaptive 106 divergence (Gilchrist and Partridge 1999; Alberto et al. 2013). Significant associations 107 between environmental variables and genetic markers are typically investigated and 108 considered as footprints of local selection (Sezgin et al. 2004; Vasemägi 2006; Antoniazza et 109 al. 2010). Although adaptive variation can be consistent with "isolation-by-distance" in 110 geographical pattern and also explained by neutral forces like gene flow, genetic drift and 111 admixture between adjacent populations, the footprints of local selection still can be inferred 112 by comparing the relative pattern and strength of population differentiation against 113 environmental variables between candidate loci of adaptive divergence and neutral markers 114 (Storz 2002; McKown *et al.* 2014).

115 Grass carp are naturally distributed in a wide range from Southern Siberia to northern 116 Vietnam spanning approximately 30 latitudinal degrees and is tolerant of extreme 117 temperature from 0° to 38°C (Froese and Pauly 2015). The distribution is much likely limited 118 by habitat temperature, and even correlated to the latitudinal variation of temperature. Due to 119 the small number of markers, e.g. microsatellites, however, previous studies only focused on 120 identifying the neutral genetic variations and population structure (Zhang et al. 2001; Liu et 121 al. 2009; Fu et al. 2013). The lack of useful high-density genetic markers limited our 122 understanding on adaptive population differentiation, particularly along latitude (Narum et al. 123 2013).

124 Here, a total of 197 grass carp, including both wild populations throughout the whole 125 distribution range and populations with the earliest introduction history were analyzed using 126 ddRAD-Seq approach (Peterson et al. 2012). First, the aim was to identify range-wide population structure and examine the pattern of gene flow, which can help understand the 127 128 geographic and demographic factors that have played crucial roles in population 129 differentiation of grass carp. Furthermore, we intended to test if the level of population 130 differentiation is sufficient to trace the introduction of grass carp by using the populations 131 with the earliest introduction history. The results can provide useful information for tracing 132 global introduction of grass carp and better utilizing this species in the biocontrol of aquatic 133 vegetation. In addition, as the native populations show a significant latitudinal distribution 134 pattern, our goal was to detect the footprints of local selection and discuss if such divergence 135 was correlated to specific environmental factors, particularly temperature. Finally, we aimed 136 to identify candidate genes under potential directional selection, which help understand the 137 mechanism of evolution under selection. In total, this study can disentangle the effects of 138 demographic history, gene flow and local selection on the contemporary population 139 differentiation and provide important information for both utilizing this species as a tool in

- 140 biocontrol and understanding the adaptive divergence of freshwater fish species in the
- 141 presence of complicated gene flow and demographic history.

142 Materials and Methods

143 Sampling and data collection

144 Grass carp including six wild and three introduced populations consisting of 197 individuals 145 were collected between 2007 and 2008. The wild populations were from the three river 146 systems: the Heilongjiang River, the Yangtze River and the Pearl River System, across this species' distribution range, while the three introduced populations were sampled from 147 148 Malaysia, India and Nepal, respectively (**Table 1 & Figure 1**). The annual average 149 temperature of each sampling site was retrieved from weather.sina.com.cn (Table 1). 150 Population Malaysia was documented as being introduced in the1800s from southern China, 151 while population India was recorded as being introduced from Hong Kong, China (the Pearl 152 River System), in 1959 and 1968 (Welcomme 1988). Population Nepal was set up by 153 introduction from India in 1966-1967 (Shireman and Smith 1983). All samples were 154 estimated as more than one year old. Fin tissue was collected and preserved in 95% ethanol at 155 -20°C. Genomic DNA was isolated using DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Germany) 156 and quantified using Qubit® assays (Life Technologies, USA).

157 Genotyping by sequencing

Genotyping by sequencing (GBS) was conducted using the ddRAD-Seq approach (Peterson *et al.* 2012). Restriction enzymes PstI-HF and MspI (New England Biolabs, USA) were selected for library construction. 200 ng genomic DNA was fully digested with two enzymes. Digested fragments were ligated with barcoded adaptors using T4 ligase (New England Biolabs, USA) and then pooled for cleanup with QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Germany). The cleaned products were size selected and purified (300-500 bp) by running
gels and using QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Germany), respectively. The recovered
libraries were then amplified using Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England
Biolabs, USA). After a final cleanup using QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen,
Germany), the libraries were sent to a NextSeq 500 platform (Illumina, USA) for 2x150 bp
paired-end sequencing.

169 The program *process_radtags* (Catchen *et al.* 2011) was employed to filter the raw 170 sequencing reads with default parameters and reads with any uncalled base were removed. 171 Clean reads were then demultiplexed and trimmed to 100 bp for in silico mapping. First, 172 reads were mapped to the reference genome of grass carp v1.0 (Wang *et al.* 2015b) using the 173 program BWA-MEM with default parameters (Li and Durbin 2010). Reads with multiple 174 targets in the reference were excluded from further analysis. Reference-aligned reads were 175 then assembled into stacks for each individual using *pstacks* implemented in the package 176 Stacks v1.34 (Catchen et al. 2011). A total of 54 individuals randomly selected from each 177 population were used to construct a catalogue of stacks using *cstacks*. Stacks from each 178 individual were then matched against the catalogue for SNP discovery using *sstacks*. Finally, 179 genotyping was conducted across all populations using the program *populations* with a 180 minimum of $10 \times$ sequence depth. SNPs were further filtered to meet the following criteria: 181 present in > 70% of the individuals in each population, have no more than two alleles and 182 show an observed heterozygosity of < 0.5 (Hohenlohe *et al.* 2010). Only one SNP was 183 retained for each RAD locus. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) for each locus was 184 examined using Genepop v4.2 (Raymond and Rousset 1995) and loci that deviated from 185 HWE in a single population at the significance level of 0.01 were excluded from further 186 analysis.

187 **Population structure and phylogenetic relationship**

188 Genetic diversity for each population was measured by observed heterozygosity (H_0) , 189 expected heterozygosity (H_E) and nucleotide diversity (Π), while genetic divergence for each 190 individual locus was estimated using *F-statistics* (Weir and Cockerham 1984). All these 191 calculations were performed using the program *populations* (Catchen *et al.* 2011). Population 192 genetic divergence was estimated in the form of pairwise F_{ST} using the program Arlequin 3.5 193 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010). Statistical significance was examined using an exact test with 194 10 000 permutations. Population structure at both the population and individual levels was 195 investigated by principle component analysis using the program Eigenstrat v5.1 (Price et al. 196 2006). The pattern of population differentiation was examined in the form of isolation-by-197 distance (IBD) using Mantel tests with the program IBD v1.52 (Bohonak 2002). The genetic 198 distance was measured using $F_{ST}/1$ - F_{ST} , while the geographical distance was estimated as the 199 linear distance between sampling localities.

200 The phylogenetic relationship among populations was constructed using a Neighbor-Joining 201 approach with the program Populations v1.2.33 (Langella 1999) by bootstrapping over loci 202 for 1000 times. The origins of introduced populations from native populations were 203 determined using ancestral alleles. The software fastStructure v1.0 (Raj et al. 2014) was 204 employed to infer the ancestral alleles between one introduced population and two native 205 populations. The two selected native populations were from the Yangtze River and the Pearl 206 River systems, respectively, and had the closest phylogenetic relationship with the introduced 207 population. The program was run 10 times for each K value (from 1 to 6) with default 208 parameters. The most likely number of genetic clusters (K) was estimated by plotting the 209 marginal likelihood value.

210 Identifying footprints of selection

211 In order to identify evidence of latitudinal variation at SNP loci, we independently estimated 212 the association between allele frequencies for each SNP and latitude at the population level 213 using a liner correlation method. Pairwise genetic distance based on allele frequencies of 214 individual locus was estimated according to the method by Reynolds et al. (1983). Genetic 215 distance was then correlated to geographical distance among populations using Mantel tests 216 to discriminate neutral mutations from the loci showing latitudinal variation in allele 217 frequencies. By removing the loci under putative neutral processes, a set of candidate SNPs 218 showing latitudinal variation but not isolation-by-distance in genetic divergence was obtained.

219 Evidence of local adaptation was detected for individual locus using a Bayesian generalized 220 linear mixed model involving covariance of allele frequencies and environmental variables 221 with the program Bayenv (Coop et al. 2010). A Bayes factor (BF) was calculated for each 222 SNP to measure the strength of the correlation between SNP variation and environmental 223 variables. According to the method by Coop *et al.* (2010), a BF > 3 was considered as a 224 substantial evidence for selection. The program was run for five times with an independent 225 variance-covariance matrix of population genetic variation to achieve consistency among the 226 runs.

227 F_{ST} -based outlier tests were also performed to identify signatures of spatial purifying 228 selection. Outlier loci under directional selection are expected to show higher levels of 229 divergence, while loci under balancing selection would show lower levels of genetic 230 divergence compared to the putative neutral loci (Beaumont and Nichols 1996; Foll and 231 Gaggiotti 2008). Firstly, a Bayesian simulation-based test implemented in BayeScan (Foll 232 and Gaggiotti 2008) was used to identify outlier SNPs. Loci with Bayes factor > 3 were 233 considered as substantial outliers. Considering that grass carp are distributed in different river 234 systems and that there is among-group genetic structure, a hierarchical island model 235 (Beaumont and Nichols 1996) for identifying outlier loci was also employed using the program Arlequin 3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010) with the following parameters: 50 000
simulations, 10 simulated groups, and 100 demes per group. Only outliers above the 99%
quantile of the null distribution were considered as candidates under spatial purifying
selection.

240 Analysis of the genes under putative selection

241 Loci under putative directional selection were functionally annotated by Blast2Go (Conesa et al. 2005) against all available nucleotide databases with an E-value cutoff of 10^{-6} . SNPs 242 243 within both exons and introns were considered to have a gene feature. Enrichment of Gene 244 Ontology (GO) terms was conducted using the program WEGO (Ye et al. 2006) with default 245 parameters. Loci were also mapped to the reference genome of zebrafish (GRCz10) using 246 Blastx to retrieve the corresponding Ensembl gene IDs. A more detailed functional 247 annotation of these genes were then performed by mapping to the Kyoto Encyclopedia of 248 Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway database (Kanehisa and Goto 2000) using the program 249 David (Huang et al. 2009). The signaling pathways of at least two genes in default were 250 enriched for further analysis.

251 Results

252 SNP discovery and genotyping

In total, NGS produced an average of 10.17 million raw reads for each individual. After quality control, 9.21 million reads per individual were obtained for sequence mapping and SNP discovery. A total of 280544 SNPs were discovered across all nine populations. After removing the loci that failed to meet the filtering criteria, 43310 SNPs were genotyped across all populations, among which 35844 (82.8%) showed minor allele frequency (MAF) of > 0.05.

259 Genetic diversity and population structure

The measures of genetic diversity, including H_o , H_E and Π , estimated based on all variant SNPs were shown in **Table 1**. For the six wild populations, Vietnam showed slightly lower genetic diversity than the others. We also observed that the genetic diversity of the introduced populations including Malaysia, India and Nepal were significantly lower than that of the wild populations (P < 0.001, one-way ANOVA test).

265 Pairwise F_{ST} analysis revealed significant genetic differentiation between the wild 266 populations and the introduced populations with F_{ST} ranging from 0.1126 between Zhaoqing 267 and India to 0.2399 between Vietnam and Malaysia (Table 2). However, genetic differentiation between each pair of wild populations was shallow with F_{ST} ranging from 268 269 0.0073 between Jiujiang and Shishou to 0.0515 between Hanjiang and Vietnam, although 270 significantly different from 0. The wild population Zhaoqing from the Pearl River System 271 showed slightly lower genetic differentiation with the three introduced populations: Malaysia, 272 India and Nepal, compared to the other wild populations (P < 0.05, paired *t-test*). For wild 273 populations, genetic divergence at individual locus was estimated between the most divergent 274 populations (Hanjiang vs Vietnam) and also between the most distant populations (Nenjiang vs Vietnam). We observed that no loci showed $F_{ST} > 0.5$ and only < 15 % of loci had $F_{ST} >$ 275 276 0.1 for both population pairs (**Figure 2**). Loci showing $F_{ST} > 0.1$ were found more frequently 277 between Nenjiang and Vietnam (14.5%) than between Hanjiang and Vietnam (5.6%). 278 Principle component analysis revealed that the wild populations were strikingly differentiated 279 from the introduced populations (Figure 3a). For the wild populations, Zhaoqing and 280 Vietnam from the Pearl River System were clearly differentiated from the populations from 281 both the Yangtze River System (Hanjiang, Jiujiang and Shishou) and the Heilongjiang River 282 System (Nenjiang), although there was some mixture of individuals between the Yangtze 283 River and the Heilongjiang River Systems (Figure 3b). The pattern of genetic differentiation across all wild populations rejected the model of isolation-by-distance ($R^2 = 0.187$, P = 0.16; **Figure 4a**). Considering that some individuals of the Heilongjiang River System very likely have an origin from the Yangtze River System (**Figure 3b**), the population Nenjiang was further removed from Mantel tests. Interestingly, we identified a strong correlation between population differentiation and geographical distance ($R^2 = 0.876$, P < 0.001; **Figure 4b**).

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Population introduction history

290 The phylogenetic tree showed that native populations from the Yangtze River (Hanjiang, 291 Jiujiang and Shishou), the Heilongjiang River (Nenjiang) and the Pearl River (Zhaoqing and 292 Vietnam) Systems formed three independent clusters, respectively, with the Heilongjiang 293 River System cluster located between the Yangtze River System and the Pearl River System 294 clusters (Figure 5a). For the introduced populations, India and Nepal formed one subcluster 295 and joined into the Pearl River System cluster. Although joined into the Pearl River System, 296 the introduced population Malaysia showed a relatively long genetic distance with the other 297 populations within this cluster and was relatively close to the Heilongjiang River System. 298 Considering the results of the principle component analysis, population Nenjiang and 299 Malaysia might have an origin of admixture between the Yangtze River and the Pearl River 300 System lineages (Figure 5a). We further inferred the origin of the two populations separately 301 using ancestral alleles with the program fastStructure. Two populations of the closest genetic 302 relationship, Jiujiang and Zhaoqing from the Yangtze River and the Pearl River System, 303 respectively, were selected as the potential ancestral populations. Considering most of the SNPs have a very low level of genetic divergence (Figure 2), only loci of $F_{ST} > 0.05$, 304 305 numbering 5986, were used for these analyses. The most likely K values for estimation of the 306 origins of the populations Nenjiang and Malaysia were inferred as 2 and 3, respectively 307 (online supporting Figure S1). We found that many more ancestral alleles in the Nenjiang 308 population in the Heilongjiang River System originated from the Yangtze River System than from the Pearl River System (Figure 5b). However, for the introduced population Malaysia,

only ancestral alleles from the Pearl River System (Zhaoqing) were observed (Figure 5c).

311 Identifying loci under putative selection

312 Among all the SNPs with MAF > 0.05, 5197 (14.4%) were found to have significant linear 313 regression (P<0.05) between latitudinal gradients and allele frequencies. Mantel tests revealed that 3351 (9.4%) SNPs showed significant patterns of isolation-by-distance ($R^2 >$ 314 315 0.514, P < 0.05) for individual locus. As stated above, the Nenjiang population showed a 316 signature of admixture, and this produced decisive effects on the pattern of isolation-by-317 distance (Figure 3 & Figure 4). Therefore, we further removed this population from Mantel 318 tests. Using five native populations, 3710 (10.4%) SNPs were observed to have significant patterns of isolation-by-distance ($R^2 > 0.632$, P < 0.05). After removing loci with any 319 320 evidence of isolation-by-distance, a total of 2700 loci that showed significant latitudinal 321 variation in allele frequencies were obtained for further analysis (Figure 6).

The Bayesian generalized linear mixed model identified 768 SNPs that showed significant association between genetic variations and latitudinal gradients across all six populations at individual locus (BF > 3). In F_{ST} based outlier tests, BayeScan detected 263 SNPs as substantial outliers (BF > 3), while the hierarchical island model identified 744 SNPs as significant outliers at the significance level of 0.99. A total of 791 (2.2%) unique loci were revealed to be outliers by the two F_{ST} based tests.

Within the 2700 loci that showed correlation to latitudinal gradients, 132 were candidates under directional selection as revealed by the program Bayenv and both F_{ST} based outlier tests (**Figure 6**). Moreover, Bayenv and the outlier tests identified 265 and 285 unique candidates under spatially purifying selection, respectively (**Figure 6**). We observed that the loci under putative selection revealed by the two outlier tests and Bayenv had much higher

333 genetic divergence with mean F_{ST} values of 0.198 and 0.104, respectively. However, the loci 334 correlated to latitudinal gradients showed a much lower mean F_{ST} (0.034) than the loci with 335 the pattern of IBD (F_{ST} , 0.065) and also the whole dataset (F_{ST} , 0.037) (Figure 7). Low 336 genetic divergence much likely suggests that selection pressure is weak on these loci. In order 337 to reduce false positives, only loci that were revealed to be under potentially directional 338 selection by outlier tests, Bayenv or allele frequencies association study, and also showed F_{ST} 339 of more than the 95% quantile (0.121) of the whole dataset, were retained, which produced 340 451 loci for further analyses.

341 Functional annotation of genes under putative selection

342 Among the 451 loci, 84 (18.6%) were annotated as having a gene feature and were further 343 investigated (Table S1). 42.9% (36) of the annotated genes were indicated to be significantly 344 associated with latitudinal gradients as revealed by Bayenv or allele frequency correlation 345 study. GO enrichment revealed that these genes covered a wide range of functions in 346 biological processes: biological regulation, cellular process, developmental process, immune 347 system process, metabolic process, pigmentation and response to stimulus (online 348 supporting Figure S2). Three KEGG pathways: Focal adhesion, Vascular smooth muscle 349 contraction and the Toll-like receptor signaling pathway, were enriched with each containing 350 two genes (**Table S2**). Interestingly, by searching for literature, we found 16 (19.0%) genes 351 that play important roles in immune responses (e.g. MHC I UAK and MHC II DAB) and/or 352 antiviral responses (e.g. Myxovirus resistance proteins and Mitochondrial antiviral signalling 353 protein) (Table 3). Among these immune-related genes, 8 (50.0%) showed a pattern of 354 latitudinal variation as revealed by Bayenv or allele frequency correlation study, while the 355 other 8 genes were suggested to be under spatially purifying selection (**Table 3**).

356 Discussion

In this study, we investigated range-wide population structure of native populations and origin of introduced populations in the South and Southeast Asia, as well as latitudinal variation and local selection of grass carp using population genomic approaches. This study provides important implications for future application of grass carp in the biocontrol of aquatic vegetation and understanding the mechanism of local adaptation, particularly adaptive latitudinal variation for freshwater fish species with a wide range of geographical distribution.

364 High gene flow among native populations

365 Typically, freshwater fishes are more isolated by various geographical factors than marine 366 fishes and thus have a lower level of gene flow (Ward et al. 1994). In this study, we observed 367 that pairwise population genetic differentiation was very low (F_{ST} , 0.0073-0.0515), 368 comparable to a previous study using microsatellites (Liu et al. 2009). This level of gene flow 369 across the native populations of grass carp is much higher than the average for freshwater 370 species (Gyllensten 1985; Ward et al. 1994; Cooke et al. 2012) and even higher than some 371 fishes living in the open marine environment, e.g. the Chinook salmon (Oncorhynchus 372 tshawytscha) (Larson et al. 2014), Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) (Bourret et al. 2013) and 373 Asian seabass (Lates calcarifer) (Wang et al. 2015a). Further investigation on genetic 374 differentiation at individual locus revealed that only < 15 % of total loci showed $F_{ST} > 0.1$ 375 and no loci had $F_{ST} > 0.5$. Considering the geographical isolation among the three river 376 systems, such results are rather unexpected. The genetic distance between the Pearl River 377 System (Vietnam) and the Yangtze River System (Hanjiang) was closer than between the 378 Pearl River System (Vietnam) and the Heilongjiang River System (Nenjiang), although the 379 latter showed a rather longer geographical distance. Nevertheless, we observed that the 380 number of loci with $F_{ST} > 0.1$ was much more between Nenjiang and Vietnam than between 381 Hanjiang and Vietnam. Considering the long aquaculture history of more than 1300 years, 382 these contradicting results strongly suggest that the high gene flow among the three river 383 systems is not only naturally occurring but also induced by human activities. Interestingly, 384 the observed pattern of population differentiation did not conform to isolation-by-distance 385 across the whole data set. However, after removal of the Nenjiang population that was 386 suggested to have an admixture origin between the Yangtze River and the Pearl River 387 Systems, the remaining populations showed a strong signal of isolation-by-distance. This 388 indicates that although human-induced gene flow might have played important roles in 389 shaping the overall population structure of grass carp, it only showed overwhelming 390 importance in the Heilongjiang River System.

391 According to historical records, grass carp was abundant in both the Yangtze River System 392 and the Pearl River System, and was widely captured from the wild as seeds for aquaculture 393 locally (FAO 2014). There was no practical need to introduce grass carp between the two 394 river systems. On the other hand, it is reasonable that gene flow can be high between the two 395 river systems because they partially overlap in geography (Zhu 1993). For these reasons, the 396 migration occurred much more naturally and thus the population differentiation showed a 397 strong pattern of isolation-by-distance. However, we cannot exclude the possibility that 398 human activities played important roles in dispersal of grass carp. Such gene flow might be 399 merely induced so randomly with no directional purpose that it has much less effects on 400 shaping genetic structure than the natural gene flow.

In contrast to the Yangtze and the Pearl River systems, the distribution and culture of grass carp in the Heilongjiang River System have never been abundant nor considered as a major aquaculture practice according to both historical records and current official fishery statistics (FAO 2014; Liu and Li 2015). Geographically, the Heilongjiang River System is completely isolated with the other two river systems. On the other hand, the Nenjiang population was mixed with alleles originating from both the Yangtze River and the Pearl River Systems as 407 inferred from fastStructure. Hence, the low genetic differentiation between this river system 408 and the other river systems strongly indicates that human-induced dispersal played more 409 important roles than natural introgression. In fact, grass carp in the Heilongjiang River 410 System grow slower than in the other river systems due to low water temperature (Cui et al. 411 1995). Therefore, seeds from the other river systems, particularly from the Yangtze River 412 system, were commonly introduced for aquaculture purposes because of geographical 413 adjacency. This is the most likely explanation for the low genetic differentiation of grass carp 414 between the Heilongjiang River System and the other river systems.

415 Origins of the early introduced populations

416 Both in terms of genetic diversity and differentiation, we observed significant genetic 417 heterogeneity between all of the native populations and the introduced populations including 418 Malaysia, India and Nepal, suggesting significant founder effects in the introduction of these 419 populations (Barton and Charlesworth 1984). It is likely that the introduction of grass carp 420 was not initiated under planned programs or that not all the introduced fish can adapt to the 421 new habitats. Genetic differentiation among the native populations is the basis to trace the 422 origins of the introduced populations (Cornuet et al. 1999; Paetkau et al. 2004). As expected, 423 we identified significant genetic differentiation and also a clear geographical pattern of 424 population differentiation among the three river systems in a background of high gene flow. 425 Native populations from the Heilongjiang River, the Yangtze River and the Pear River 426 Systems were separately clustered into independent genetic lineages, although there was 427 evidence of population admixture for the Heilongjiang River System. These results provided 428 critical clues to trace back population origins. Both pairwise F_{ST} and phylogenetic analyses 429 indicated that all three introduced populations, Malaysia, India and Nepal originated from the 430 Pearl River System, which was also supported by the data inferred from ancestral alleles.

431 First, the Pearl River System is geographically more adjacent to Malaysia, India and Nepal 432 than the Yangtze River and the Heilongjiang River Systems. Therefore, it is reasonable that 433 the Pearl River System was preferred as the source for introduction to these countries. In 434 contrast, the Yangtze River and the Heilongjiang River Systems are not only distant from 435 Southeast and the South Asia, but also isolated by various continental barriers, e.g. the 436 Himalaya Mountains. It is a great challenge to introduce fish from these two river systems to 437 Southeast and the South Asia. Most importantly, it was recorded that grass carp was first 438 introduced into Malaysia from Southern China with the large-scale migration of Chinese 439 people in the 1800s, although it is not clear which river system the Malaysia population 440 originated from (Welcomme 1988). The introduction history could be inferred from the 441 routes of Chinese migration during that time. As revealed by history studies, most of the 442 Chinese people in Southeast Asia were from Guangdong and Fujian provinces (Pan 1999), 443 which geographically overlap with the Pearl River System. Thus, the Malaysia population 444 very likely has an origin in the Pearl River System, consistent with the results of the genetic 445 data.

In total, our data suggest that the native populations might have accumulated enough genetic divergence for population origin assignment of the recently introduced populations of grass carp, e.g. the populations introduced to Europe, North America and also some Southern Hemisphere countries (Mitchell 1986). These results are very valuable for studying the production and physiological adaptation, as well as the living environments and habitat preferences, of both native and introduced populations. Such information can be referenced to construct comprehensive introduction plans in the future.

453 Local selection and latitudinal variation

454 It is a great challenge to discriminate local selection from neutral processes for organisms that 455 have experienced complicated demographic history. Neutral processes can generate the same 456 marks on genomic architecture as local selection does (Storz 2002; Vasemägi 2006; 457 Savolainen et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2013; McKown et al. 2014; Hornoy et al. 2015). In some 458 cases, adaptive traits show a specific distribution pattern along specific environmental factors. 459 If the estimates of neutral forces are coincidentally varying along the same environmental 460 factors, the difficulty of disentangling the roles of adaptive driving forces would be greatly 461 enhanced (Merilä and Crnokrak 2001; McKay and Latta 2002; Storz 2002). Under this 462 condition, a single association test between an individual locus and an environmental factor is 463 obviously not enough to determine if one locus has experienced spatially divergent selection, 464 particularly in the background of genome-wide patterns of isolation-by-distance (Vasemägi 465 2006). Grass carp is such a species, which has a significant signature of latitudinal 466 distribution. Thus, the adaptive traits might vary in parallel with the pattern of neutral 467 processes along specific geographical gradients, like latitude. These evolutionary processes 468 limited the potential to identify the molecular mechanism underlying adaptive evolution 469 (McKay and Latta 2002; Chen et al. 2012). Here, we used conceptually different approaches 470 to differentiate the footprints of local selection from the currents of neutral evolutionary 471 processes (Hansen et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2013).

Our main purpose was to identify individual loci of higher genetic divergence than can be explained by random genetic drift and gene flow (Storz 2002). As discussed above, grass carp from different river systems very likely have unique demographic history. Grass carp originated from the Yangtze River System and expanded into the Pearl River and the Heilongjiang River Systems during the Pleistocene and Pliocene, respectively (Li and Fang 1990). Nevertheless, the contemporary population structure was significantly shaped by high levels of gene flow due to both natural and artificial factors. As the Pearl River System and 479 the Heilongjiang River System cover the southernmost and the northernmost distribution 480 ranges, respectively, such contrasting environments have likely posed strong selective 481 pressure on the distribution of grass carp (Gardner and Latta 2006). Gene flow within the 482 Pearl River and the Yangtze River Systems might be seldom influenced by human activities, 483 as population differentiation still shows a significant pattern of isolation-by-distance. 484 However, gene flow between the Heilongjiang River System and the other two river systems 485 were profoundly influenced by recent human activities, which overall changed the 486 geographical pattern of population differentiation such that the pattern of isolation-by-487 distance was no longer observed. Although influenced by human activities, the extreme 488 northernmost environmental condition of the Heilongjiang River System can pose strong 489 selective pressure on the introduced grass carp. Such a process of natural selection provides 490 important clues to discriminate footprints of natural selection from genome-wide patterns of 491 isolation-by-distance.

492 Consistent with the overall neutral evolutionary process, a large number of loci, 6489 (18.1%) 493 of the total loci, were indicated to show a pattern of isolation-by-distance in genetic 494 divergence. Although 14.4% (5197) were revealed to have significant correlations between 495 latitudinal gradients and allele frequencies, some of them would be false positives because 496 these loci also showed significant correlations between pairwise geographical distance and 497 genetic divergence. In total, these results suggest a strong background of isolation-by-498 distance in the overall population differentiation of grass carp. After removing the loci which 499 were potential false positives by application of a series of conceptually different approaches, 500 only 451 loci were suggested to be under putative directional selection, accounting for 1.3% 501 of the total loci. This ratio is much less than in previous studies (2.3%-10%) using fish 502 species that showed weak or non-significant genome-wide patterns of isolation-by-distance, 503 like Atlantic salmon (Bourret et al. 2013), Chinook salmon (Larson et al. 2014) and

504 yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) (Grewe et al. 2015). Such results likely suggest that it is 505 much less efficient to identify loci under putative directional selection with a genome-wide 506 pattern of isolation-by-distance (Beaumont and Nichols 1996). Among the loci under putative 507 directional selection, 18.6% were revealed to be associated with functional genes. 508 Interestingly, 42.9% (36) of the annotated genes were indicated to be significantly correlated 509 to latitudinal gradients, indicating clinally adaptive divergence at these loci (Storz 2002; 510 Vasemägi 2006; Chen et al. 2012). Although these genes are involved in various functions, 511 we observed a significant cluster of genes (16, 19.0%) playing important roles in immune 512 responses (e.g. MHC I UAK and MHC II DAB) (Benacerraf 1981) and/or antiviral responses 513 (e.g. Myxovirus resistance proteins and Mitochondrial antiviral signalling protein) (Seth et al. 514 2005; Gao et al. 2011). Among these immune-related genes, 8 (50.0%) showed a pattern of 515 latitudinal adaptive variation. This result further suggests that the distribution of grass carp 516 spanning approximately 30 latitudinal degrees was also the consequence of clinal adaptation 517 along latitude. In the case of grass carp, the annual average temperature was observed to be highly correlated to the latitude of the sampling sites ($R^2 = 0.992$, P < 0.001). However, we 518 519 did not find any evidence that the enriched genes were associated to thermal adaptation. This 520 result might suggest that the latitudinal adaptive distribution of grass carp was not directly 521 selected by the temperature. Because the enriched genes were observed to have functions in 522 defense against various pathogens and the diversity of pathogens were strongly related to the 523 environmental temperature (Cashdan 2001; Mitchell et al. 2005; Dionne et al. 2007), our 524 results might suggest that the latitudinal adaptation or clinal adaption of grass carp along 525 latitude was the consequence of selection by pathogens and indirectly by temperature of the 526 habitats.

527 In total, the joint application of different approaches identified a promising set of loci that 528 were under putative directional selection. Many of them have a pattern of latitudinal variations. The latitudinal distribution of grass carp likely has an adaptive genetic basis, although the underlying causes remain to be elucidated. Nevertheless, spatially purifying selection has played important roles in shaping the contemporary population structure of grass carp. Our data shed light on the genetic basis of local adaptation of grass carp with a large distribution range.

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539 Authors' contributions

YS, LW, JL and GHY conceived the study and finalized the manuscript. YS and LW designed the experiments. YS, JF and XX carried out the lab experiments. LW and YS performed bioinformatics, analysed the molecular data and drafted the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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761 Supporting information

762	Table S1 Summary statistics of annotated genes under putative directional selection and their
763	potential functions in grass carp
764	Table S2 Enriched KEGG pathways and the candidate genes under potential selection in
765	grass carp
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768	Tables

Table 1 Sampling information of six native and three introduced grass carp populations including river systems of origin, numbers of samples, sampling localities and dates, and the annual average temperature of each sampling locality. Measures of genetic diversity including observed heterozygosity (H_o), expected heterozygosity (H_E) and nucleotide diversity (Π) are also indicated.

Samples	Origin	Ν	Longitude	Latitude	Date	Temperature	H _o	$H_{\rm E}$	П
Nenjiang	Heilongjiang River System	22	125.22	49.21	2007	4.3	0.197	0.202	0.207
Hanjiang	Yangtze River System	26	119.43	32.35	2007	15.4	0.200	0.201	0.205
Jiujiang	Yangtze River System	23	115.96	29.72	2007	17.7	0.202	0.205	0.210
Shishou	Yangtze River System	11	112.39	29.74	2007	16.9	0.210	0.204	0.214
Zhaoqing	Pearl River System	21	112.53	23.08	2007	22.7	0.203	0.201	0.206
Vietnam	Pearl River System	26	105.98	21.12	2008	24.8	0.190	0.191	0.195
Malaysia	Introduced	18	101.15	4.58	2008	Na.	0.136	0.126	0.130
India	Introduced	25	83.37	26.76	2008	Na.	0.171	0.168	0.171
Nepal	Introduced	25	85.03	27.42	2008	Na.	0.161	0.152	0.155

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Table 2 Pairwise F_{ST} values among each pair of populations of grass carp. Genetic

differentiation that was non-significant after Bonferroni corrections (P < 0.001) is denoted in

778 bold.

	Nenjiang	Hanjiang	Jiujiang	Shishou	Zhaoqing	Vietnam	India	Nepal	Malaysi
Nenjiang	-								
Hanjiang	0.0260	-							
Jiujiang	0.0228	0.0154	-						
Shishou	0.0196	0.0123	0.0073	-					
Zhaoqing	0.0272	0.0351	0.0337	0.0279	-				
Vietnam	0.0448	0.0515	0.0484	0.0449	0.0238	-			
India	0.1265	0.1307	0.1282	0.1289	0.1126	0.1297	-		
Nepal	0.1540	0.1580	0.1532	0.1596	0.1384	0.1592	0.1814	-	
Malaysia	0.2295	0.2255	0.2224	0.2336	0.2205	0.2399	0.3167	0.3501	-

- 790 Table 3 Enriched candidate genes under putative directional selection and their potential
- functions in grass carp. Approaches, including F_{ST} outlier tests, Bayenv and allele frequency
- correlations (AFC), that were used to determine if one gene was under putative selection, are
- also indicated.

Locus	Gene name	Function	Approaches		
Lca7796	Toll-like receptor 5b	Immune response	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca7927	Chemokine (C-C motif)-like	Immune response			AFC
Lca15228	DEXH (Asp-Glu-X-His) box polypeptide 58	Antiviral signaling	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca33879	Phosphofurin acidic cluster sorting protein 2	Antiviral signaling		Bayenv	
Lca52319	Myxovirus (influenza virus) resistance E	Antiviral signaling	F_{ST} outlier	Bayenv	AFC
Lca57825	Integrin alpha FG-GAP repeat containing 1	Antiviral signaling		Bayenv	AFC
Lca79226	Interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 1	Immune response	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca88973	Major histocompatibility complex class I antigen UKA	Immune response	F_{ST} outlier	Bayenv	AFC
Lca110035	Grass carp reovirus (GCRV)-induced gene 21	Antiviral signaling	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca152085	Interferon induced with helicase C domain 1	Immune response	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca152284	PC4 and SFRS1 interacting protein 1	Antiviral signaling	F_{ST} outlier		AFC
Lca159757	Major histocompatibility complex class II DAB	Immune response	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca175136	Lymphocyte cytosolic protein 1	Immune response			AFC
Lca183026	Myxovirus (influenza) resistance A	Antiviral signaling	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca202544	Baculoviral IAP repeat containing 2	Immune response	F_{ST} outlier		
Lca285612	Mitochondrial antiviral signalling protein	Antiviral signaling			AFC

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800 Figures





Figure 1 Sampling sites of six native grass carp populations distributed in the three river systems: the Heilongjiang River, the Yangtze River and the Pearl River Systems, and three introduced populations from Malaysia, India and Nepal. The wild and introduced populations are denoted as black and red solid circles, respectively. Detailed sampling information is listed in Table 1.

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Figure 2 Distribution of F_{ST} values in different categories between Nenjiang and Vietnam, with the longest geographical distance, and between Hanjiang and Vietnam, with the largest genetic distance, based on all genotyped SNPs with MAF > 0.05.





Figure 3 Principal component analyses for (a) all nine populations and (b) six native





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Figure 4 The overall pattern of isolation-by-distance for (a) all six native populations and (b) five native populations excluding population Nenjiang, examined using Mantel tests based on all genotyped SNPs. Genetic distance was estimated as $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$, while geographical distance was the linear distance between sampling localities.

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Figure 5 (a) Phylogenetic relationships among all nine populations of grass carp constructed using the Neighbor-Joining approach. Bootstrap supports over loci for 1000 times are indicated. (b) Genetic assignment of the native population Nenjiang to the Yangtze River System and the Pearl River System and (c) genetic assignment of the introduced population Malaysia to the Yangtze River System and the Pearl River System, respectively. The most likely K value for both assignment tests in the program Structure was inferred as 5. Each vertical line represents one individual, while each colour shows the genetic composition that is assigned into a distinct genetic cluster.



Figure 6 Venn diagrams showing the number of loci under putative selection and isolationby-distance as revealed by F_{ST} outlier tests, Bayenv association tests, Allele frequency correlations and Mantels tests for Isolation-by-distance. The numbers of overlapping loci among the different approaches are also illustrated.



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Figure 7 Distribution of F_{ST} values for the SNPs that were identified as outliers for putative directional selection, associated with latitude as revealed by Bayenv, had allele frequencies correlated to latitude and agreed with the pattern of isolation-by-distance, as well as for the whole dataset. The highest and lowest error bar indicates the 95% quantile, while the median horizontal line denotes the mean F_{ST} value. Individual locus with F_{ST} over the upper 95% quantile is shown.

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Figure S1 Plotting of K values inferred from the program fastStructure.



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Figure S2 Gene ontology annotations of the candidate genes under potential local selection
in grass carp. Three categories: Cellular Component, Molecular Function and Biological
Process, were used to visualize the potential functions of enriched genes