

1 **Otolith microchemistry identifies diadromous populations of Patagonian river** 2 **fishes**

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24

25 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

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30 All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of
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35

36 **Abstract**

37 Coastal habitats in Chile are hypothesized to support a number of diadromous fishes. The objective of
38 this study was to document migratory life histories of native galaxiids and introduced salmonids from a
39 wide latitudinal range in Chilean Patagonia (39-48°S). Otolith microchemistry data were analysed
40 using a recursive partitioning approach to test for diadromy. Based on annular analysis of Sr:Ca ratios,
41 a diadromous life history was detected for populations of native *Aplochiton taeniatus*, *A. marinus*, and
42 *Galaxias maculatus*. Lifetime residency in freshwater was suggested for populations of *A. zebra* and *G.*
43 *platei*. Among introduced salmonids, populations of *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha* and *O. kisutch*
44 exhibited anadromous migratory patterns, whereas the population of *O. mykiss* screened appeared
45 restricted to freshwater. *Salmo trutta* exhibited variable habitat use consistent with establishment of an
46 ocean-type life history in some populations. The capacity and geographic scope of hydropower
47 development is increasing and may disrupt migratory routes of diadromous fishes. Identification of
48 diadromous species is a critical first step for preventing their loss due to hydropower development.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 Only 47 native and 27 non-native inland fish species are currently recognized in Chile, and
52 about 30% of these are thought to exhibit some tolerance for shifting between saline and freshwater
53 habitats (Dyer, 2000; Habit & Victoriano, 2005; Habit et al., 2006; Vila et al., 2011; Ministerio del
54 Medio Ambiente, 2013; Vargas et al., 2015). Furthermore, roughly 15% of these fishes are
55 hypothesized to display diadromous migratory behaviour (Table S1), compared to less than 1% for
56 fishes worldwide (Nelson, 2006).

57 The term diadromy describes regular, predictable, and physiologically mediated movements
58 between freshwater and the sea. Diadromy necessitates profound physiological changes (i.e.,
59 osmoregulation) when shifting from marine to freshwater habitats and vice versa (Gross et al., 1988).
60 Diadromy is obligatory for many populations within a species, but also can be facultative (Dingle &
61 Drake, 2007). The direction of migration depends on life history stages and habitats where reproductive
62 and feeding events occur. The combination of these factors defines three different types of diadromy:
63 anadromy, catadromy, and amphidromy (Myers, 1949; Gross, 1987; Gross et al., 1988; McDowall,
64 1992, 1997; Limburg et al., 2001) (in particular refer to McDowall 1997 for a review of the
65 terminology and a visual aid).

66 Given the high percentage of fishes in Chile hypothesized to exhibit some form of diadromy,
67 migration might play an important, yet unrecognized role in establishing national priorities of aquatic
68 biodiversity conservation. At present, a high percentage of the continental ichthyofauna in Chile is
69 categorized with some degree of conservation threat by Chilean environmental agencies and other
70 authors, although conservation categories can be incongruent and threats underestimated (Habit &
71 Victoriano, 2005; Diario Oficial de la Republica de Chile, 2008; Ministerio del Medio Ambiente, 2013;
72 IUCN, 2015; Vargas et al., 2015).

73 Coastal habitats in Chile appear well suited to support establishment of diadromous species.
74 Andean rivers that flow into the Pacific Ocean include a variety of different habitats in a limited

75 longitudinal distance (average 145 km), spanning from areas of rocky substrates, high gradient, clear
76 waters and low temperatures, to areas of low flow, sandy substrates, and aquatic vegetation (Habit &
77 Victoriano, 2005; Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2015). Spatial habitat heterogeneity is essential for
78 maintenance and completion of diadromous life cycles, and for maintaining evolutionary potential (i.e.,
79 genetic diversity) for life history variation (Pulido, 2007; Dingle, 2014). Therefore, fragmentation
80 events imposed by human-made barriers may affect fish fitness and restrict movement between habitats
81 more so than in other areas (Waples et al., 2007).

82 Patagonian fishes offer a unique opportunity to understand migration patterns in relatively
83 pristine habitats, and establish a baseline against which future potential impacts associated with river
84 impoundments can be compared. Despite strong economic growth and efforts to develop hydroelectric
85 potential to meet the country's high-energy requirements (Joo et al., 2015), many rivers in southern
86 Chile are still free-flowing, offering opportunities to study pre-impoundment patterns of diadromous
87 migration. For example, galaxiid fishes are distributed across the Southern Hemisphere and diadromy
88 seems to be a recurrent trait among many of the species (McDowall, 1971, 1988). Likewise, salmonids
89 are among some of the best-studied diadromous fishes in the Northern Hemisphere and are now well-
90 established in southern Chile (McDowall, 2002; Correa & Gross, 2008).

91 Using micro-geochemical data obtained from otoliths, this study sought to determine whether
92 native galaxiids and introduced salmonids exhibit diadromy in Chilean rivers. Otoliths are calcified
93 deposits in the inner ear of fishes that accumulate in ring-like fashion over ontogenetic growth.
94 Elemental analysis of otoliths can help to distinguish origins of marine and freshwater fishes among
95 locations with variable water chemistry. Differing chemical composition of the otolith from the
96 primordium (core) to the edge indicates the different environments in which a fish has lived and allows
97 for hypothesis tests related to patterns of fish movement. When analysed sequentially across an otolith
98 sagittal section, changes in elemental ratios can indicate fine-scale patterns of movement, connectivity,
99 dispersal, and the location of natal habitats (Halden et al., 2000; Howland et al., 2001; Kraus, 2004;

100 Ashford et al., 2005; Campana, 2005; Arkhipkin et al., 2009). To quantify these changes in Patagonian
101 fishes, we applied univariate recursive partitioning approaches based on Classification and Regression
102 Trees (CART) to detect discontinuities in ratios that indicate habitat shifts (Vignon, 2015).

103

104 **Methods**

105 **Fish Collections**

106 Between 2004 and 2011, specimens of *Aplochiton zebra*, *A. taeniatus*, *A. marinus*, *Galaxias*
107 *maculatus*, *G. platei*, *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*, *O. kisutch*, *O. mykiss*, and *Salmo trutta* were collected
108 using various methods from 6 locations across a large latitudinal range (39.5–48.0° S) in western
109 Patagonia, Chile (Fig. 1, Table 1). At each location, fish specimens were euthanized by an overdose of
110 anaesthetic solution (tricaine-methanesulfonate MS-222 or clove oil). Due to the difficulties in
111 morphological identification, genetic data were used to identify individuals in the genus *Aplochiton* to
112 the species level (Alò et al., 2013).

113 **Otolith preparation**

114 Prior to specimen preservation, sagittal otoliths were extracted and either stored dry in test tubes
115 or in 95% ethanol, as elemental compositions and structures of otoliths are not strongly affected by
116 ethanol for the elements assayed (Proctor & Thresher, 1998).

117 In the laboratory, otoliths were polished, cleaned, and mounted individually on clean glass
118 slides using a thermoplastic cement (Crystalbond™). In order to expose growth rings, 3M™ (fine) and
119 Nanolap® Technologies (coarse) diamond lapping film wetted with deionized water was used to
120 polish otoliths by hand until a satisfactory sagittal section of annuli was visible. For *Aplochiton* spp.,
121 *Galaxias* spp., *S. trutta*, *O. kisutch* and *O. mykiss* otoliths, a 30-µm and then 3-µm lapping film was
122 used to expose annuli and get a finished polish. *O. tshawytscha* otoliths required larger lapping film (45
123 and 60 µm) to reach an appropriate view, but were finished with 3 µm film for increased clarity. After
124 the initial polish, and where necessary (largely for *O. tshawytscha*), the adhesive was melted and the

125 otolith flipped for double polishing to produce a thinner section.

126 Following polishing, the mounting adhesive was dissolved in 100% acetone bath and sonicated
127 for 10 minutes. Larger otoliths were cleaned a second time with acetone as needed. Each otolith was
128 then sonicated twice in Milli-Q water for 5 to 10 minutes each. Following cleaning, otoliths were rinsed
129 a final time in Milli-Q water, transferred to clean vials and placed in a positive laminar flow hood for
130 24-48 hours to dry.

131 Acid-washed porcelain forceps were used to mount clean, dry otoliths on acid-washed
132 microscope slides. Otoliths were grouped according to diameter and mounted 10-28 per slide
133 accordingly. Each otolith was placed within one small drop of fresh Crystalbond melted onto a single
134 slide.

135 Slides were securely kept in acid-washed, sealed petri dishes for transport to Woods Hole
136 Oceanographic Institute (Woods Hole, MA, U.S.A.). There, laser ablation was conducted from October
137 8th to 11th, 2012 (*Aplochiton* spp., *S. trutta*, *Galaxias* spp., *O. kisutch*, and *O. mykiss*) and again from
138 February 4th to 5th, 2013 (*O. tshawytscha*). Laser ablation was performed with a large format laser
139 ablation cell on a New Wave UP193 (Electro Scientific Industries, Portland, Oregon) short pulse width
140 excimer laser ablation system. This was coupled with a Thermo Finnigan Element2 sector field argon
141 plasma spectrometer (Thermo Electron Corporation, Bremen, Germany) for elemental analysis. The
142 laser was configured for single pass, straight line scanning at a speed of 5 μm per second. The laser
143 beam spot size was 50 μm at 75% intensity and 10 Hz pulse rate. Concentrations were determined for
144 elemental Strontium (Sr) and Calcium (Ca) since strontium has been identified as a useful trace
145 element to reconstruct environmental history of fishes and discern habitat shifts across salinity
146 gradients (Secor & Rooker, 2000; Campana, 2005; Pracheil et al., 2014).

147 Certified standards FEBS-1 and NIES-022 were run before and after each block of 10 to 28
148 otoliths to account for quality assurance in the measurements (Yoshinaga et al., 2000; Sturgeon et al.,
149 2005). Each otolith was visualized on screen and the intended ablation transect of each sample was

150 plotted digitally and analysed by ablation with a laser beam (refer to Fig. 2 for a visual example). For
151 accuracy of readings, each data point was produced from an average of ten consecutive reads. The ideal
152 double life-history transect ran across each sagittal otolith and through the primordium, thus providing
153 two similar (redundant) patterns related to life history variation, one on either side of the primordium.
154 Interpretations were based on the analyses of both sides of each double transect, if possible. However,
155 in a number of cases, transects were imperfect due to damaged otoliths or inaccurate ablation pathways
156 (Table S2). In such cases, data were analysed as partial transects that can still be used to differentiate
157 diadromous or resident signals (Fig. 2).

158

159 **Data Analysis**

160 Classification and Regression Trees (CART, Breiman et al. 1984)) were used to detect shifts in
161 elemental ratios across the otolith transect. CART is an alternative to qualitative methods traditionally
162 used to interpret the chronological signal in otolith microchemistry transects (Vignon, 2015). The
163 position along the otolith transect (predictor variable) was recursively partitioned using regression trees
164 in order to differentiate segments of the transect that shared similar mean Sr:Ca values (response
165 variables) (Breiman et al., 1984; Therneau & Atkinson, 1997; De'ath, 2002; Strobl, 2009). CART was
166 implemented in the Tampo library (version 1.0) for R Statistical Software 3.0.2 (Vignon, 2015).

167 Elemental data and otolith transects were rigorously checked, and outliers caused by recording
168 errors were removed (additive outliers, R Package "tsoutliers" v: 0.6–5, L'opez-de-Lacalle 2016).
169 Summary statistics of Sr:Ca ratios were calculated across all individuals. Since the main goal of this
170 work was to represent movement patterns at a broad scale, CART analysis was used in a semi-
171 supervised manner to identify the presence or absence of sudden discontinuities in the Sr:Ca otolith
172 signal (Vignon, 2015). This was done by introducing three progressively relaxed conditions to the
173 splitting procedure, which required setting a minimum difference in mean values in order to allow a
174 split in elemental signals. The minimal differences required to allow regression tree pruning were set to

175 condition =1.0, cond.=0.7 and cond. =0.5. The detection of one or more discontinuities or splits in the
176 Sr:Ca signal was interpreted as evidence for diadromy, or otherwise, evidence for residency. When
177 diadromy was detected, the direction of ontogenetic movements was inferred from differences in
178 segment means; increasing values indicated movements towards the sea, and vice versa. Further
179 inference about habitat occupancy (freshwaters, estuaries, or the sea) required a visual, heuristic
180 examination of Sr:Ca profiles in relation to published reference values. Finally, all evidence was
181 assembled to make individual inferences about specific migration patterns (amphidromous,
182 catadromous, or anadromous). In this process, otolith transect quality affected our confidence on
183 interpretations; from maximum confidence on inferences from transects that conformed to the model in
184 Fig. 2, to uncertain interpretations from incomplete or faulty transects.

185 Reference values for the three major habitat types (freshwater, estuarine, and marine) were
186 obtained from a meta-analysis of Sr:Ca profiles from otoliths of 41 fish species in three salinity
187 regimes, and were summarised as follows (extracted from Fig. 7 in Secor and Rooker 2000):
188 Freshwater (salinity 0-5 ppt): 10 species screened, mean Sr:Ca (10-90th percentile range) 0.9 (0.3-1.8)
189 mmol mol⁻¹; Estuarine (5-25 ppt): 11 spp., 2.0 (0.9-3.1) mmol mol⁻¹; Marine (>25 ppt): 20 spp., 3.4
190 (1.9-5.2) mmol mol⁻¹.

191

192 **Results**

193 Observed variation in Sr:Ca ratios was generally bounded within previously reported reference
194 ranges determined by meta-analysis (Fig. 3; Secor & Rooker 2000). CART analysis identified patterns
195 of change in Sr:Ca elemental ratios consistent with the different migratory life histories proposed in the
196 schematic representation in Fig. 2, and some representative individuals for each species are shown in
197 Fig. 4. Details on the splitting results of all individuals under different stringency conditions are given
198 in Fig. 5 whereas Table S2 reports details on the mean and standard deviation at each split. A summary
199 of the inferred migratory strategy for each species is shown in Table 1.

200

201 **Native galaxiids.**

202 Large elemental shifts in otolith profiles indicated a catadromous life-history for most *A.*
203 *taeniatus* analysed (Table 1 and Fig. 5). Even when confined to strictly freshwater habitats, as in Lake
204 Caro, *A. taeniatus* juveniles showed patterns of habitat mobility (Fig. 5, cond.= 0.5), as contrasted with
205 *A. zebra* or *O. mykiss*, which showed long-term residency in the same environment.

206 Otolith profiles (Fig. 4 and 5) suggested that *A. marinus* copes with high levels of salinity
207 variation in the Baker River system. Otolith primordia of all specimens of *A. marinus* showed evidence
208 of higher Sr:Ca ratios at early stages of growth, presumably before the fish entered the estuary (site of
209 capture). Taken together, these data suggest that *A. marinus* is catadromous.

210 Results indicated that *A. zebra* uses a chemically uniform habitat at both collection localities
211 (Fig. 4), although results should be corroborated by future studies because *A. zebra* individuals assayed
212 were juveniles. Nevertheless, specimens from Tocoihue River appear to have been exposed to higher
213 salinity levels than those from Lake Caro (Table S2), suggesting preference for freshwater residency,
214 but capacity for osmoregulation when salinity levels increase.

215 *G. maculatus* individuals were sampled from the same site as some specimens of *A. zebra*
216 (Tocoihue). However, among the four specimens assayed, three showed exposure to higher salinity
217 than any other galaxiid species analysed (Fig. 3) with evidence of both catadromous and
218 amphidromous transitions from brackish to saltwater (Table 1). The *G. maculatus* specimen in Fig. 4
219 was caught in the lower reach of Tocoihue River, an area with strong tidal influence. It shows an
220 amphidromous life-cycle with intermediate salinity influence in the primordium followed by a period
221 of residency in higher salinity and subsequent migration back into brackish and freshwater (as also
222 observed by McDowall (1968)). A fourth specimen of *G. maculatus* showed no major Sr:Ca
223 fluctuations across the otolith transect (Table S2), suggesting that this individual did not drift out to the
224 ocean during its larval stage and it was likely a resident of the estuarine area in Tocoihue.

225 Only one specimen from the low-elevation coastal Palos Lake was assayed for *G. platei*, and
226 results indicate freshwater residency as revealed by uniformly low Sr:Ca ratios across the entire otolith
227 transect (Fig. 3 and 4).

228

229 **Introduced salmonids**

230 This study supports established anadromy in *O. tshawytscha*, as previously shown by other
231 authors (Ciancio et al., 2005; Correa & Gross, 2008; Arismendi & Soto, 2012; Araya et al., 2014). Data
232 are consistent with regularly timed changes in Sr:Ca concentration levels that suggest hatching in
233 freshwater, migration to areas with higher salinity concentrations and a return to inland, freshwater
234 areas to spawn (Fig. 4). *O. tshawytscha* specimens collected from the Simpson River do not show as
235 much variation as other *O. tshawytscha* from this study as these fish were all juveniles that had not yet
236 migrated.

237 The two parr *O. kisutch* analysed revealed one large scale habitat shift between birth and time of
238 capture. Both otolith profiles were characterized by a relatively high Sr:Ca signature around the core
239 which diminished substantially towards the edges (Fig. 4). These specimens were caught during the
240 summer, about 55 km upstream of the Baker River's mainstream. Thus, observed patterns could
241 plausibly be induced by maternal effects (Kalish, 1990; Volk et al., 2000; Zimmerman & Reeves,
242 2002). Additionally, there is already some evidence pointing to young-of-the-year *O. kisutch* recruits in
243 remote freshwater fjords of southern Chile (Górski et al., 2016). Accordingly, these specimens were
244 interpreted as anadromous by maternal origin. Conversely, *O. mykiss* exhibited a pattern consistent
245 with freshwater residency and minor salinity fluctuations within their habitat over the entire life cycle
246 (Fig. 3 and 5).

247 Evidence of at least two different life cycle patterns emerged for *S. trutta* specimens caught at
248 three different locations. The Sr:Ca transect of juveniles from Lake Caro and adults from Lake Palos
249 showed a pattern consistent with continuous residency in freshwater (Fig. 3 and 5) whereas *S. trutta*

250 from Baker River showed higher values at the primordium (Fig. 4).

251

252 **Discussion**

253 This study quantitatively identified significant transitions across otolith profiles using regression
254 trees on Sr:Ca ratios. Native galaxiids showed considerable variation in habitat shifts when compared
255 across species, with some species exhibiting differences at the population and individual levels,
256 indicating a high degree of plasticity. Of five native galaxiids examined, evidence was found for one
257 catadromous (*A. marinus*) and two facultatively amphidromous or catadromous species (*G. maculatus*
258 and *A. taeniatus*). Nonnative salmonids have established populations with a broad array of migratory
259 life histories, reflective of those found in their native ranges. Patterns consistent with anadromy were
260 present in three (*O. tshawytscha*, *O. kisutch*, *S. trutta*) of four species included in this study.

261 Overall, several species appear to regularly use habitats with different salinity levels. Otolith
262 profiles that showed variation under the most restrictive analytical conditions were those most likely to
263 exhibit large-scale habitat shifts between different environments and salinity levels (*A. taeniatus*, *A.*
264 *marinus*, *G. maculatus*, *O. tshawytscha*). Otolith profiles that varied under less stringent conditions
265 provided information about subtler shifts within habitat types.

266 Results suggest a preponderance of euryhaline and facultative diadromous species among native
267 galaxiids and introduced salmonids in Patagonia. The inferences on species migratory status by
268 population reported in Table 1 suggest that some species display a diverse range of life history
269 strategies (facultative diadromy), coinciding with an increasing number of studies reporting flexibility
270 in diadromous patterns for numerous fishes. These studies, which also include some Southern
271 Hemisphere fishes, evidenced the extent of variability of resident/migratory life histories within single
272 species, often shifting from the classical view that tended to categorize species as either exclusively
273 resident or migratory (Hicks et al., 2010; Augspurger et al., 2015; Górski et al., 2015).

274 Observed otolith microchemistry for introduced salmonids showed that some species have

275 established movement strategies similar to those in their native ranges. The successful establishment of
276 anadromous exotic salmonids in Chile reinforces the hypothesis that the biotic and abiotic conditions
277 required for diadromy to be maintained (Gross et al., 1988) are present in Chilean waters.

278 Temperate areas of southern Chile may be considered a favourable environment for the
279 development and maintenance of migratory strategy in fishes. While a limited number of fishes around
280 the world are considered to exhibit some form of diadromy (Nelson, 2006), most are confined to areas
281 such as islands (in Iceland, Hawaii, Falklands, Chathams the entire freshwater fish fauna exhibits
282 diadromy) and temperate areas with recent geological origin (McDowall, 1988). Comparative otolith
283 microchemistry analysis suggests that fishes of southern Chile may require a heterogeneous and
284 spatially connected environment to complete their life-cycles. Many species may also have
285 physiological adaptations or plasticity that allow for osmoregulation in a wide range of saline and
286 freshwater environments (euryhaline life history).

287

288 **Limitations and further studies**

289 Some otolith results may have been influenced by maternal effects or induced by local temporal
290 variation in water chemistry. Further studies may indicate whether the higher Sr:Ca ratios in primordia
291 observed in some species could be attributable to maternal effects or other causes. For example,
292 although the mechanisms are not completely understood, physiological constraints in early ontogeny
293 could increase the rate of Sr absorption into the calcium carbonate matrix of the otolith (de Pontual et
294 al., 2003). Also, as the Baker corridor is influenced by a large ice field (Campo de Hielo Norte), high
295 amounts of glacier flour (suspended solids) can contribute to increased salinity levels in water that
296 flows into the estuary (Vargas et al., 2011; Marín et al., 2013). These seasonal salinity changes may
297 promote the uptake of Sr into the otolith matrix and confound the assumption of low Sr in freshwater
298 environments (Zimmerman, 2005). Therefore, even though Sr has been traditionally recognized as a
299 very robust marker to discriminate between saline and freshwater environments, several recent studies

300 have indicated that factors as species-specific variation, environmentally-mediated physiological
301 processes and individual variation can influence Sr uptake into the otolith matrix (Sturrock et al.,
302 2015).

303 This study suggests that considerable variation in migratory life history may exist in Chilean
304 fishes, but its inferential scope is restricted by the limited number of samples which were collected for
305 other research purposes (see Correa & Hendry, 2012; Correa et al., 2012; Alò et al., 2013). Species-
306 specific reference values for Sr:Ca ratios and a more comprehensive sampling will be needed to
307 effectively characterize and quantify the extent of fish movements within Chilean continental waters.
308 Ideally, a variety of different field techniques (natural markers such as stable isotopes, otoliths,
309 statoliths for lampreys, or scales, as well as molecular markers, tagging, trapping and tracking) and
310 laboratory methods (movement physiology, swimming performance, metabolism) (see Dingle, 2014)
311 could be used to characterize daily and seasonal migration patterns. Indeed, experimental methods
312 related to swimming performance and unidirectional movement propensity are now employed in design
313 of fish passage structures to benefit Chilean native fishes (Laborde et al., 2016).

314

315 **Conservation issues**

316 This study could help refine the conservation priorities for freshwater fishes in southern Chile.
317 Given high endemism and the likelihood of dependence on diadromous behaviour, potential threats to
318 fishes from fragmentation of river-to-estuary networks are correspondingly high. Hydroelectric power
319 development causes loss of hydrological connectivity and alteration of river flows, disproportionately
320 affecting fishes with migratory life histories.

321 Comparative otolith microchemistry results underscore the variation in life history strategies
322 that should be accounted for when planning to manipulate water-flow for hydroelectric developments.
323 Diadromous species depend on the habitat diversity and complexity created by unobstructed
324 watersheds and are locally extirpated when barriers preclude movement to essential habitat.

325 Additionally, anthropogenic barriers and alterations to water flow (e.g., hydropeaking) may also
326 negatively affect landlocked populations because such structures disrupt successful reproduction,
327 recruitment and habitat quality (Alò & Turner, 2005; Fullerton et al., 2010; Garcia et al., 2011). Current
328 hydropower capacity in Chile, now ~6.000 megawatts of energy connected to the central grid, is
329 expected to nearly double to ~ 11.000MW by the year 2020 in the southern sector of the country
330 (Santana et al., 2014). Development is slated in basins that harbour the majority of native fish species
331 diversity.

332 Ongoing spread of exotic species threatens native species through negative interactions
333 including predation, competition, behavioural inhibition and homogenization (Correa & Gross, 2008;
334 Penaluna et al., 2009; Correa & Hendry, 2012; Correa et al., 2012; Habit et al., 2012; Arismendi et al.,
335 2014; Vargas et al., 2015). In particular, establishment of migration runs of *O. tshawytscha* and *O.*
336 *kisutch* could trigger additional threats such as the shift of significant amounts of marine-derived
337 nutrients to previously oligotrophic environments (Helfield & Naiman, 2001; Arismendi & Soto, 2012)
338 and increased competition for limited resources with the native diadromous species. Ironically, non-
339 native salmon and trout are also likely to be negatively affected by future hydroelectric dams.
340 Additional hydropower development will almost certainly impact a flourishing tourism industry
341 supported by salmonid recreational fisheries (Arismendi & Nahuelhual, 2007; Vigliano et al., 2007).

342 The evolutionary processes that allowed dispersal and colonization of Patagonian fishes are
343 influenced by the region's unique geography, climate, and geological processes. To ensure proper
344 conservation of native freshwater, diadromous, and commercially relevant sport fisheries, managers
345 will have to carefully designate and protect critical habitats, and in many cases mitigate obstruction of
346 river flows imposed by dams with appropriate fish passage structures (Wilkes et al., 2017). Long-term
347 monitoring should also be a priority to understand the broad impacts of hydropower development on
348 aquatic biodiversity.

349

350 **Supporting Information**

351 All elemental data will be provided in a data dryad file (<http://datadryad.org/>) upon publication of this
352 manuscript. The following additional tables and figures are provided as supplement to this manuscript
353 and are available for review:

354 Table S1: A list of Continental Native Fishes of Chile, including life histories and/or habitat.

355 Table S2: Description of the samples analysed and CART Splitting means and standard deviations.

356 S3: Pictures of each otolith associated with a graph reporting Sr:Ca transect data.

357

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1 Estimated distribution range for native Chilean galaxiids (shaded and dash lined polygons) and the sampling locations of specimens used in this study (dots) for a) genus *Aplochiton*, b) genus *Galaxias*, c) non-native fishes examined in this study

Fig. 2 The uppermost image depicts a schematic representation of an otolith, showing how growth rings accrue over time around the core and culminate at the edge. The number of distinct layers in the otolith depends on the age of the individual. The images below represent idealized time series data obtained by repeatedly measuring (via laser ablation and spectrometry) elemental strontium to calcium (Sr:Ca) ratios across the otolith. Each box shows an expected time series for each life-history strategy. The blue dashed line represents the average Sr:Ca for freshwater as $0.9 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, the orange dashed line for estuarine areas at $2.0 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, and the black dashed line is drawn at $3.4 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ as the saltwater mean (Secor & Rooker, 2000)

Fig. 3 a) Violin plot of Sr:Ca values for otoliths grouped by species. Black dot = median, White line = first to third quartile. Grey areas = kernel density plot. b) Extracted reference values from Fig. 7 in Secor and Rooker 2000. Average values of Sr:Ca ratios for freshwater, brackish and marine water are represented as dashed blue, orange, and black lines, respectively. Fading shades around each mean correspond to 10-90th percentiles for each average value

Fig. 4 Detection of discontinuities by semi-supervised CART employed on Sr:Ca ratios for representative individuals of native and exotic fishes in southern Chile. Numbers after taxonomic names refer to the individual ID of each fish. The mean and standard deviation are delimited for each cluster in a grey box. Vertical dashed lines indicate splitting points induced by the condition used to fit the regression trees, which is reported for each individual graph as "cond". Reference values from Secor and Rooker (2000) are reported on the right-hand

side of the graph; see legend of Fig. 3

Fig. 5 Total number of splits obtained by semisupervised CART on univariate Sr:Ca otolith data for all the species included in the study. Original data for native *A. taeniatus*, *A. marinus*, and *G. maculatus* and introduced *O tshawytscha* was divided in more than one homogenous cluster by semisupervised regression trees and led to rejection of the hypothesis of freshwater residency. Details for each individual and split reported in this graph are available in the supplementary material Table S2. "Trans" refers to the quality of the otolith transect, that is: "F" is a full or good quality transect, edge – core – edge, "H" is a half transect, edge – core; "P" is a partial transect, edge – core – extra data without reaching the next otolith edge; "O" is a flagged transect which failed to go through the core and may have some missing data. "St" refers to each fish's ontogenetic phase at the time of capture, where "J" is for juveniles and "A" for adult specimens; "Loc" indicates the sampling locality where AC: Aysén-Caro, CT: Chiloé-Tcoihue, VS: Valdivia-Santo Domingo, VL: Valdivia-Lingue, AP: Aysén-Palos, BE: Baker-estuary, AN: Aysén-Ñireguao, BJ: Baker-Jaramillo, PP: Petrohué-Patos, TP: Toltén-Peuco, TT: Toltén-Triful, AS: Aysén-Simpson, BV: Baker-Vargas; "ID" is the unique identification of each fish

Table 1 Description of the samples studied and summary of results of migration pattern determination. Values correspond to the percentage of individuals assigned to one of five possible patterns: freshwater resident (FW), brackish water resident (B), anadromous (ANA), catadromous (CAT), amphidromous (AMPH) or else omitted from interpretation due to uncertainties in the otolith transects (O). For individual results, see Table S2

	Species	N	Location	Year	Latitude	Longitude	Inferred Migratory Strategy (%)					
							FW	B	ANA	CAT	AMPH	O
Native Galaxiids	<i>A. zebra</i> (Jenyns, 1842)	5	Aysén-Caro	2009	-45.80	-72.55	100					
	<i>A. zebra</i>	3	Chiloé-Tocoihue	2011	-42.30	-73.44		100				
	<i>A. taeniatus</i> (Eigenmann, 1928)	8	Valdivia-Santo Domingo	2010	-39.91	-73.14		12.5		50	25	12.5
	<i>A. taeniatus</i>	2	Valdivia-Lingue	2011	-39.46	-73.09				100		
	<i>A. taeniatus</i>	3	Aysén-Palos	2007	-45.32	-72.70				66.7		33.3
	<i>A. taeniatus</i>	2	Aysén-Caro	2009	-45.80	-72.55	100					
	<i>A. marinus</i> (Jenyns, 1842)	7	Baker-estuary	2007	-47.79	-73.52				100		
	<i>G. platei</i> (Steindachner, 1898)	2	Aysén-Palos	2007	-45.32	-72.70	100					
	<i>G. maculatus</i> (Jenyns, 1842)	4	Chiloé-Tocoihue	2011	-42.30	-73.44		25		50	25	
Introduced Salmonids	<i>S. trutta</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	4	Aysén-Palos	2007	-45.32	-72.70	100					
	<i>S. trutta</i>	4	Aysén-Caro	2009	-45.80	-72.55	100					
	<i>S. trutta</i>	1	Baker-estuary	2007	-47.79	-73.52			100			
	<i>O. tshawytscha</i> (Walbaum, 1792)	8	Aysén-Ñireguao	2004	-45.17	-72.12			75			25
	<i>O. tshawytscha</i>	8	Baker-Jaramillo	2004	-47.70	-73.05	12.5		50			37.5
	<i>O. tshawytscha</i>	6	Petrohué-Patos	2004	-41.18	-72.46			66.7			33.3
	<i>O. tshawytscha</i>	4	Toltén-Peuco	2004	-38.85	-71.76			50			50
	<i>O. tshawytscha</i>	4	Toltén-Triful	2004	-38.85	-71.67			50			50
	<i>O. tshawytscha</i>	5	Aysén-Simpson	2008	-45.73	-72.10	80					20
	<i>O. kisutch</i> (Walbaum, 1792)	2	Baker-Vargas	2007	-47.68	-73.04			100			
<i>O. mykiss</i> (Walbaum, 1792)	3	Aysén-Caro	2009	-45.80	-72.55	100						









