# Genetic Diversity and Population Structure of a Pelagic Fish, Jack Mackerel (*Trachurus japonicus*), Based on AFLP Analysis

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**Abstract.** *Trachurus japonicus* is a commercially important species in the East Asia, especially in China, Japan and Korea. We estimated the gene flow among six populations of *T. japonicus* from Chinese and Japanese coastal waters by using amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) technology. A total of 531 bands were amplified for 81 individuals of 6 populations by 4 pair selective primers, 89.27% of which were polymorphic bands. The population Miyazaki showed the highest Nei genetic diversity and Shannon genetic diversity. The topology of UPGMA tree was very shallow and no significant genealogical branches or clusters corresponding to sampling localities. The pairwise *F*<sub>st</sub> between populations ranged from 0.016 to 0.107 and most were not significant after sequential Bonferroni correction. The results of AMOVA showed that 95.61% of genetic variation existed within populations and 4.39% existed among populations, which indicated low level of genetic differentiation among populations and high level of gene flow between populations. The results suggested that *T. japonicus* around distribution area should be considered to be a single panmictic population.

Keywords: Trachurus japonicas; AFLP; genetic diversity; gene flow.

# **INTRODUCTION**

L he jack mackerel, *Trachurus japonicas*, is a pelagic fish belonging to Carangidae which is widely distributed on the continental shelf waters along the subtropical Kuroshio Current and the Tsushima Warm Current in the western North Pacific (Zhu et al., 1963). T. japonicus is a commercially important species in the East Asia, especially in China, Japan and Korea (Zhang and Lee, 2001). However, few studies on this species were conducted in China because the market landing was little before 2003 and fishing was not paid enough attention (Cao and Gao, 2006). Some analysis on market landing about T. japonicus was performed in China recently (Cao and Gao, 2006). In Japan, the resource of T. japonicus had been seriously destroyed due to recent overfishing. Until now studies have primarily focused on the distribution of T. japonicus larvae, juveniles, early growth and development (Sassa and Konishi 2006; Xie and Watanabe 2007; Kasai et al., 2008), and so Niu et al. (2011) and Zhang et al. on.

(2014) analyzed genetic polymorphism of T. *japonicus* from Fujian coastal waters based on mitochondrial control region, cyt b and AFLP, respectively. No further population genetic studies were conducted for this species except that Song *et al.* (2013) reported the population genetic structure based on mitochondrial DNA.

Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) is a PCR-based, multi-locus fingerprinting technique that can detect genetic variations effectively. It combines the strengths and overcomes the weaknesses of the RFLP and RAPD methods (Vos et al., 1995). For instance, McCusker and Bentzen (2011) studied the population genetic structure of Atlantic wolffish throughout its North Atlantic range by AFLP loci and microsatellites, and AFLP loci revealed slightly higher  $F_{st}$  values but similar patterns of differentiation and isolation-bydistance estimates, compared to microsatellites. The significant population genetic structure of Sardinella zunasi in the Northwest Pacific has been detected successfully by AFLP marker (Ying et al., 2011). Moreover, AFLP marker has been used to analyze the genetic differentiation between wild and cultured populations of Pseudosciaena crocea, and the results showed that genetic variation of cultured populations was obviously lower than wild (Wang et

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al., 2002). Until now, AFLP has been proven to be successful in studying population genetic structure and differentiation of plants (Li *et al.*, 2012), animals (Zhu *et al.*, 2013; Kai *et al.*, 2002; Takami *et al.*, 2004) and some fish species such as *Carassius auratus* (Jung, 2013), *Pleuronectes yokohamae* (Zhang *et al.*, 2012) and *Synechogobius ommaturus* (Song *et al.*, 2010).

In the present study, AFLP was used to analyze the genetic structure of six populations which were collected from South China Sea and Japanese coastal waters and the results may provide useful information on the development of appropriate fishery management strategies.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Sample collection

Five populations were collected from Japanese coastal waters and one population was collected from Beihai coastal water of South China Sea during Feb. 2009 to Sept. 2009 for this study (Fig. 1, Table I). All individuals were identified based on morphological characteristics, and a piece of muscle tissue was obtained from each individual and preserved in 95% ethanol or directly extracted from frozen samples.



Fig.1. Sample sites of *T. japonicus* in the present study.

## Genomic DNA extraction and AFLP method

Genomic DNA was isolated from the muscle tissue by proteinase K digestion followed by a

standard phenol-chloroform method. Procedures of AFLP were essentially based on Vos et al. (1995) and Wang et al. (2000). About 100 ng genomic DNA was digested with 1 unit of EcoR I and Mse I (NEB) at 37°C for 6 h. Double-stranded adapters were ligated to the restriction fragments at 20°C overnight after adding 1 µL 10×ligation buffer, 5 pmol EcoR I adapter (EcoR I-1/EcoR I-2; Table II), 50 pmol Mse I adapter (MseI-1/MseI-2; Table II), 0.3 unit of T4 DNA ligase (Takara) with a final volume of 10 µL. Preamplification PCR was conducted using an Takara Thermocycler with a pair of primers containing a single selective nucleotide. Amplification was performed at an annealing temperature of 53°C for 30s. The 20 µL PCR product mixture was diluted 10-fold with distilled water and used as templates for the subsequent selective PCR amplification. The selective amplifications were carried out in 20 µL PCR reaction volume containing 1 µL productions of preamplifications,  $1 \times PCR$  reaction buffer, 150 µM of each dNTP, 30 ng of each selective primer, and 0.5 unit of Taq DNA polymerase on a gradient thermocycler with a touchdown cycling profile of 9 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 65°C (-1°C at each cvcle), and 30 s at 72°C followed by the cvcling profile of 28 cycles, each of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 56°C, and 1 min at 72°C. The final step was a prolonged extension of 7 min at 72°C. PCR products were run on 6.0% denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) for 2.5 h at 50°C on the Sequi-Gen GT Sequencing Cell (Bio-Rad, USA), and finally detected using the silver staining technique modified from Merril et al. (1979). Sequences of AFLP adapters and primers are listed in Table II. Four primer combinations (E-AAG/M-CTC, E-AGG/M-CTC, E-AGA/M-CTC, E-ACG/M-CTT) were chosen for AFLP analysis (Table II).

#### Data analysis

Clear and unambiguous bands in length ranging from 50 to 1200 bp were considered as usable. AFLP bands were scored for presence (1) or absent (0) excluding the smeared and weak ones by visual inspection, and transformed into 0/1 binary character matrix. Percentages of polymorphic loci, Nei's genetic diversity and Shannon diversity index

ID	Sampling site	Date of collection	Sample size	Number of loci	Number of polymorphic loci	Proportion of polymer- phic loci	Nei's gene diversity	Shannon's information index
		2000.05	16	20.4	105	50.00.0/	0.107.0.154	0.156 0.000
Eh	Ehime, Japan	2009.06	16	394	197	50.00 %	$0.10/\pm0.156$	$0.176\pm0.222$
Ку	Kyoto, Japan	2009.03	17	407	325	79.85 %	$0.179 \pm 0.170$	$0.288 \pm 0.234$
То	Toyama, Japan	2009.05	14	385	298	77.40 %	$0.185 \pm 0.168$	$0.296 \pm 0.235$
Bbw	Beihai, China	2009.09	13	390	300	76.92 %	$0.175 \pm 0.166$	$0.283 \pm 0.231$
Ch	Chiba, Japan	2009.06	14	374	288	77.01 %	0.191±0.172	$0.305 \pm 0.239$
Mi	Miyazaki, Japan	2009.06	7	357	253	70.87 %	$0.210 \pm 0.182$	$0.325 \pm 0.255$
Total		\	81	531	465	87.57%	$0.144 \pm 0.151$	$0.244 \pm 0.210$

 Table I. Sample information of *T. japonicus* including sampling sites, date of collection, sample size and several genetic diversity indices.

Table II	Adapters and primer combinations sequences
	used in the study.

Primers		Sequence			
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Adapter	EcoRI- adapter	5'-CTCGTAGACTGCGTACC-3' 5'-AATTGGTACGCAGTCTAC-			
	MseI- adapter	3' 5'-GACGTGAGTCCTGAG-3'			
		5'-TACTCAGGACTCAT-3'			
Pre- amplification	EcoRI- preprimer	5'-GACTGCGTACCAATTC-3'			
primer	MseI- preprimer	5'-GATGAGTCCTGAGTAA-3'			
Selective amplification	E-AAG/M- CTC	5'-GACTGCGTACCAATTCAAG -3'			
primer		5'-GATGAGTCCTGAGTAACTC -3'			
	E-AGG/M- CTC	5'-GACTGCGTACCAATTCAGG -3'			
		5'-GATGAGTCCTGAGTAACTC -3'			
	E-AGA/M- CTC	5'-GACTGCGTACCAATTCAGA -3'			
		5'-GATGAGTCCTGAGTAACTC			
	E-ACG/M-	5'-GACTGCGTACCAATTCACG			
		5'-GATGAGTCCTGAGTAACTT -3'			

were calculated by POPGENE (Yeh *et al.*, 1999). Similarity indices were calculated using the formula  $S=2N_{ab}/(N_a+N_b)$  (Nei and Li, 1979), where  $N_a$  and  $N_b$  are the number of bands in individuals a and b, respectively and  $N_{ab}$  is the number of sharing bands. Genetic distances between individuals were computed using the formula D=-ln S (Nei and Li, 1979). Genetic relationships among individuals

were constructed based on unweighted pair-group method analysis (UPGMA; Sokal and Michener, 1958) by Mega 3.0 based on Nei's genetic distance (Nei and Li, 1979). Genetic differentiation between pairs of population samples was evaluated by pairwise fixation index  $F_{st}$  and the significance of the  $F_{\rm st}$  was tested by 10,000 permutations for each pairwise comparison in ARLEQUIN (Excoffier et al., 1992). When multiple comparisons were performed, P values were adjusted using the sequential Bonferroni procedure (Rice, 1989). Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) (Excoffier et al., 1992) was employed to further examine hierarchical population structure as well as the geographical pattern of population subdivision (Excoffier et al., 1992). The gene flows were estimated using the equation:  $N_m = (1-F_{st})/4F_{st}$ (Wright, 1951), where Nm is the number of effective immigrants per generation.

### RESULTS

A total of 531 bands were amplified for 81 individuals of 6 populations by 4 pair selective primers. Four hundred and seventy-four polymorphic sites were detected and the percentage was 89.27%. The average polymorphic sites for 4 pair primers were 119 with a range of 103-147 (Table III). The percentage of polymorphic sites for 6 populations was 50.0%-77.0%. The population Mi showed the highest Nei genetic diversity and Shannon genetic diversity, the population Eh showed the lowest Nei genetic diversity and Shannon genetic diversity.

Table V.-

	No. of loci	No. of poly- morphic loci	Proportion of poly- morphic loci
E-AAG/M-CTC	128	106	82.81%
E-AGG/M-CTC	142	118	83.10%
E-AGA/M-CTC	154	147	95.45%
E-ACG/M-CTT	107	103	96.26%
Total	531	474	89.27%

 Table III.
 Number of bands generated by four primer combinations.

Table IV.- Pairwise  $F_{st}$  (below diagonal) and gene flow (above diagonal) among populations of *T. japonicus*.

	Eh	Ky	То	Bbw	Ch	Mi
Eh Ky To Bbw Ch	0.038 0.036 0.049* 0.057*	6.417 0.016 0.038 0.028	6.693 15.326 0.017 0.032	4.838 6.269 14.702 0.024	4.164 8.609 7.485 10.167	2.087 2.764 2.914 2.352 5.329
Ch Mi	0.057* 0.107*	0.028 0.083	0.032 0.079	0.024 0.096	0.045	5.52

The pairwise  $F_{st}$  was ranged from 0.016 to 0.107, the largest being between populations Ky and To and the lowest between population Eh and Mi (Table IV). Most  $F_{st}$  value was not significant after sequential Bonferroni correction. The results of AMOVA showed that 95.61% of genetic variation existed within populations and 4.39% among populations. which indicated that genetic differentiation among populations was low (Table V). The population pairwise gene flow estimates (Nm) among the five populations (Eh, Ky, To, Bbw and Ch) were very high (ranged from 4.164 to 15.326), suggesting frequent gene flow. The population Mi showed weak genetic differentiation with other populations, but the value of N<sub>m</sub> was still more than 1, which indicated that there still was gene flow between population Mi and other populations. The result of the Mantel test did not reveal a significant association between the geographic and genetic distances. The genetic differentiation between Chinese population and Japanese populations was not obviously larger than that among Japanese populations.

	Among populations	Within populations
Degrees of freedoms	5	75
Sum of squares	355.904	3311.355
Variance components	2.02496 Va	44.15140 Vb
Percentage of variation (%)	4.39	95.61

The results of AMOVA for T. japonicus.

The UPGMA tree based on genetic distance among 81 individuals showed that there were no significant genealogical branches or clusters corresponding to sampling localities. The topology

of UPGMA tree was very shallow (Fig. 2).



Fig. 2. UPGMA tree of 81 individuals of *T. japonicus* based on Nei's genetic distance.

# DISCUSSION

AFLP marker has been widely used in population genetic studies and reflected the genetic status of some species sensitively, because it is easy, fast, inexpensive, robust and owns large numbers of polymorphisms, high reproducibility and so on (Dorenbosch *et al.*, 2006; Liu *et al.*, 2009). In the present study, 531 loci have been detected by 4 pair primers for *T. japonicus* and the percentage of polymorphism and high sensitivity for this nuclear marker. The percentage of polymorphic sites for 6 populations was 50.0-77.0%, which was in accordance with the results of two Fujian

populations based on AFLP markers (63.28% and 61.89%, respectively) (Zhang *et al.*, 2014). Compared with other fishes reported, *T. japonicus* showed high level of polymorphism (Wang *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2009; Lin *et al.*, 2009; Song *et al.*, 2010). The results indicated that the genetic diversity of *T. japonicus* in the present study is above the middle level and the population genetic structure had not been destroyed.

The shelf-break regions of the East China Sea were the primary spawning ground of T. japonicas. The eggs and larvae of T. japonicus can be transported by Kuroshio Current and Tsushima Current over large distance within 2 months (Kasai et al., 2008). The results of mitochondrial DNA for T. japonicus showed that no significant genetic differentiation was detected among populations from East China Sea, Japanese Sea and the west coastal waters of Japanese Sea (Song et al., 2013). The results of AMOVA in the present study also revealed that most of genetic variation existed within populations. Low genetic differentiation index was detected among the different populations and indicated strong gene flow existed along the western North Pacific. Compared with freshwater and anadromous fishes, marine fish usually do not have strong population partitions due to the high dispersal potential of different life-history stages coupled with an absence of physical barriers to movement (Ward et al., 1994; Grant and Bowen, 1998). The Kuroshio Current and its branch play an important part in gene exchange of T. japonicus because it can transport large numbers of egg and larvae which spawned in the East China Sea to their nursery grounds (Kasai et al., 2008). The shallow waters off the west coast of Kyushu and the Pacific coast of southern Japan would be full of larvae and juveniles that spawned in the Southern East China Sea within one month (Katoh et al., 1996; Ichikawa and Beardsley, 2002; Lie and Cho, 2002). The recruitment from East China Sea to the coastal waters of Japan was estimated to be larger than that from the local areas (Sassa et al., 2008; Kasai et al., 2008). Our results suggested genetic homogeneity among different populations and it may be closely related with the transport of eggs and larvae. The results of mitochondrial DNA also supported this deduction (Song et al., 2013).

According to the value of gene flow, population MI showed weak genetic differentiation other populations while genetic with no differentiation among other populations was detected. It was confusing to get this conclusion because the other five populations from Chinese coastal waters and Japanese coastal waters showed high genetic homogeneity with each other. In the present study we deduced that less individuals of MI may lead to particularity of this population. Moreover, no genetic differentiation was detected by mitochondrial DNA (Song et al., 2013). More sensitive molecular markers like microsatellite DNA should be used to do further study to examine this population in the future.

The results of mitochondrial DNA and AFLP implied that around distribution area should be considered to be a single panmictic population, which is opposed to the conclusion of sagittal otoliths analysis by Xie and Watanabe (2007). Different answers of genetic studies and early life character suggested different management strategy for *T. japonicus*. More sensitive molecular markers should be used to investigate the genetic variation among populations to make a proper strategy for this species.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We are grateful to Mr. Dianrong Sun for collecting samples. This work was supported by the Public Science and Technology Research Funds Projects of Ocean (201305043) and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (201213014, 201262022). The authors report no conflicts of interest.

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(Received 26 December 2014, revised 1 February 2015)