

**Title:** Effect of sampling proportion of parents on parentage assignment

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## Abstract

1  
2 Parentage analysis based upon few sampled parents can result in low effective sample sizes and a  
3 lack of statistical power to address experimental hypotheses regarding fitness differences  
4 between groups. Uncertainty about the utility of results of parentage and fitness analyses when  
5 only a proportion of parents are sampled motivated us to conduct parentage simulations. We  
6 used the popular parentage analysis program *CERVUS* to simulate parentage analysis to  
7 determine how many offspring would be assigned to parent pairs for different sampling  
8 proportions and two stray rate scenarios. We found an exponential increase in the number of  
9 offspring assigned to parent pairs with an increase in the proportion of parents sampled. Very  
10 few offspring were assigned to hatchery-hatchery parent pairs in the low stray rate scenario,  
11 regardless of proportion of parents sampled. These results stress the need to prioritize sampling  
12 as high a proportion of parents as practicable in order to obtain a large number of offspring  
13 assigned to parent pairs when broken out by cross type. Future simulations will explore how  
14 different sampling proportions affect statistical power to test for differences in fitness between  
15 hatchery and natural stocks.

## Background of AHRP

16  
17 Extensive ocean-ranching salmon aquaculture is practiced in Alaska by private non-profit  
18 corporations (PNP) to enhance common property fisheries. Most of the approximately 1.7B  
19 juvenile salmon that PNP hatcheries release annually are pink salmon in Prince William Sound  
20 (PWS) and chum salmon in Southeast Alaska (SEAK; Vercessi 2013). The large scale of these  
21 hatchery programs has raised concerns among some that hatchery fish may have a detrimental  
22 impact on the productivity and sustainability of natural stocks. Others maintain that the potential  
23 for positive effects exists. ADF&G convened a Science Panel for the Alaska Hatchery Research  
24 Program (AHRP) whose members have broad experience in salmon enhancement, management,  
25 and natural and hatchery fish interactions. The AHRP was tasked with answering three priority  
26 questions:

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<sup>1</sup> This document serves as a record of communication between the Alaska Department of Fish and Game Commercial Fisheries Division and other members of the Science Panel of the Alaska Hatchery Research Program. As such, these documents serve diverse ad hoc information purposes and may contain basic, uninterpreted data. The contents of this document have not been subjected to review and should not be cited or distributed without the permission of the authors or the Commercial Fisheries Division.

- 27 I. *What is the genetic stock structure of pink and chum salmon in each region (PWS and*  
28 *SEAK)?*
- 29 II. *What is the extent and annual variability in straying of hatchery pink salmon in PWS and*  
30 *chum salmon in PWS and SEAK?*
- 31 III. *What is the impact on fitness (productivity) of natural pink and chum salmon stocks due*  
32 *to straying of hatchery pink and chum salmon?*

33

## Introduction

34

### *Measuring the Impact on Fitness*

35

36 To answer the third question, we need to know the origin and pedigree of each fish captured in  
37 select streams across multiple generations. **Origin** refers to the type of early life-history habitat  
38 (hatchery or natural) that a fish experienced. **Pedigree** refers to the family relationship among  
39 parents and offspring. ‘**Ancestral origin**’ refers to the origin of an individual’s ancestors (e.g.,  
40 two parents of a single origin [hatchery/hatchery or natural/natural] or two parents of mixed  
41 origin [hatchery/natural]). These ancestral origins can be determined by combining information  
42 from three sources: identification of hatchery origin from otolith marks, pedigree from genetic  
43 data, and age from scales (for chum salmon from SEAK). By pairing these data within fish and  
44 across generations, we can estimate **reproductive success (RS)** among cross types (i.e. hatchery-  
45 hatchery, hatchery-natural, and natural-natural origin crosses). The AHRP is using the **relative**  
46 **reproductive success (RRS)** of hatchery-origin fish to natural-origin fish as the measure of  
47 *fitness in this study* (Tech Doc 1 – Shedd et al. 2014).

47

### *Concerns about Sampling a Low Proportion of Parents*

48

49 Pedigree construction for the AHRP will be based upon parentage assignments where offspring  
50 are assigned to parents based upon molecular data. The use of molecular techniques to  
51 determine parentage and address ecological, evolutionary and quantitative genetic questions  
52 grew rapidly with the availability of hypervariable microsatellite genetic markers (Jones and  
53 Ardren 2003, Jones et al. 2010; Mobley 2011). Similarly, the rapid development of single  
54 nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and their many positive laboratory qualities has made their  
55 use for parentage analyses both accepted and widespread (Anderson and Garza 2006, Hauser et  
56 al. 2011).

56

57 Parentage analysis utilizes the principle of Mendelian inheritance to assign offspring to one or  
58 more parents. While there are six different methodological approaches to parentage analysis (see  
59 Box 1 below, reproduced from Jones et al. 2010), all are built on the basic exclusion-based  
60 method. According to Mendelian inheritance, diploid offspring receive one allele from the  
61 mother and the other from the father for all loci. The exclusion method determines parent-  
62 offspring relationships by screening offspring against all potential parents to exclude potential  
63 parents that fail to share at least one allele at all loci. Offspring then may be assigned to non-  
64 excluded potential parents (i.e. those that share at least one allele at all loci). In practice,  
65 assigning offspring to parents that mismatch at one or more loci may be permitted in order to

65 accommodate for genotyping errors or mutations (Kalinowski et al. 2007, Jones et al. 2010). Of  
66 the six approaches to parentage analysis (Box 1; Jones et al. 2010), the GCL has explored and  
67 will likely adopt a Bayesian or likelihood-based categorical allocation method, pending future  
68 review. Other more complex techniques have significant drawbacks in terms of 1) computational  
69 speed and 2) applicability to tests of fitness differences between hatchery and natural-origin  
70 groups. Other researchers have found that sibship reconstruction with programs such as  
71 *COLONY2* (Wang 2004) can be computationally prohibitive with large data sets of SNP markers  
72 (Hauser et al. 2011). While full-probability parentage analysis appears to be a promising  
73 approach given that it simultaneously models population-level parameters while performing  
74 parentage analysis, it has not been widely used by researchers and may require additional  
75 unknown assumptions to be made (Jones et al. 2010). The GCL will continue to explore other  
76 parentage analysis methods as they become available.

### **Box 1: Six approaches to parentage analysis (reproduced from Jones et al. 2010)**

**Exclusion** – The exclusion method takes advantage of the fact that in diploid, sexually reproducing organisms, each parent shares at least one allele per locus with each of its offspring. In this approach, the genotypes of candidate parents are compared with that of a focal offspring. Any candidate parent who fails to share at least one allele with the offspring at any locus is eliminated from consideration. In practice, most exclusion studies actually require at least two mismatching loci between the candidate and the offspring to account for typing errors or mutations.

**Categorical Allocation** – If complete exclusion is impossible, then a parentage allocation approach (also known as parentage assignment) can be used to choose among the remaining nonexcluded candidate parents. In categorical assignment, the entire offspring is assigned to the candidate parent with the highest likelihood or posterior probability of being the true parent. Categorical assignment approaches can handle scoring errors or mutations and can include methods for determining confidence in parentage assignment.

**Fractional Allocation** – In the fractional allocation approach, likelihoods or posterior probabilities are determined in the same way as in the categorical assignment methods. Each offspring is then assigned partially to each of the nonexcluded candidate parents on the basis of their relative likelihoods of parentage. Even though a fractional assignment has no biological meaning, from a statistical standpoint, this approach may have better properties than categorical allocation.

**Full Probability Parentage Analysis** – The full probability approach estimates patterns of parentage in a modelling framework. Many different models are possible, but this approach has the potential to estimate simultaneously patterns of parentage and other population-level variables of interest. This approach makes better use of the data by incorporating any uncertainty in the parentage analysis into the estimation of the variables of interest.

**Parental Reconstruction** – The parental reconstruction technique uses the genotypes of offspring in full- or half-sib families to reconstruct parental genotypes. For full- or half-sib progeny arrays, all of the offspring will share at least one parent. The genotype of the shared parent may be available from the sampling scheme or can be reconstructed by identifying a pair of alleles, for which every offspring inherited at least one of the members of the pair. The genotypes of the unknown parents can be determined by examining associations of alleles originating from the unknown parents across loci. Available techniques are based on parsimony (i.e. assuming the minimum number of parents), maximum likelihood or Bayesian approaches. Once the genotypes are reconstructed, they can be compared with the genotypes of candidate parents to assign parentage.

**Sibship Reconstruction** – If no parents are available and known groups of full- or half-sibs cannot be sampled, then sibship reconstruction is the last resort in the realm of parentage analysis. This technique requires a sample of individuals, some of which are full- or half-sibs. The algorithms use patterns of relatedness or maximum likelihood techniques to group individuals into different classes of relationship, often full-siblings, half-siblings and unrelated individuals. Once half-sib or full-sib groups are identified by these approaches, the parental genotypes can be reconstructed and used for parentage analysis.

*Source: Jones et al. 2010*

78 Regardless of the method of parentage analysis, sampling only a portion of parents is  
79 problematic as offspring cannot be assigned to parents that are not sampled (Nielsen et al. 2001).  
80 While this issue has been noted in the literature and modeled by some researchers (Hinrichsen  
81 2003, Anderson et al. 2011), it remains uncertain how missing parents and/or offspring may  
82 affect rates of parentage assignments, estimates of fitness, and tests of differences in fitness  
83 among cross types (Araki and Blouin 2005).

84 Many likelihood-based parentage programs that produce categorical assignments (i.e. offspring  
85 are fully assigned to parent[s], as opposed to fractional assignments) rely on an accurate estimate  
86 of the sampled proportion of parents. This is required to put bounds on the space to analyze for  
87 making parentage assignments based upon the estimate of the proportion of potential parents that  
88 have been sampled (e.g., *CERVUS*; Kalinowski et al. 2007). Newer Bayesian approaches do not  
89 require precise estimation of demographic parameters that may influence parentage assignments  
90 (Christie 2010) and have been implemented in *SOLOMON* (Christie et al. 2013).

91 In order to better understand how sampling only a proportion of parents will affect parentage  
92 analyses and the sample sizes available for subsequent tests of fitness differences between cross  
93 types, we used *CERVUS* to simulate data for different sampling proportions and conduct  
94 parentage analysis.

95 These initial analyses are not comprehensive. Nonetheless, we feel the take-home messages will  
96 hold true after more in-depth analyses. We felt it was important to provide the Science Panel  
97 some timely analyses to help inform decisions regarding field sampling methods and to get  
98 direction from the Panel on future simulations.

## 99 **Methods**

100 Allele frequencies were simulated by sampling 96 SNPs from 1,000 randomly generated SNPs  
101 from a normal distribution of minor allele frequencies (MAF;  $\mu=0.3$ ,  $SD=0.05$ ). A mean minor  
102 allele frequency of 0.3 was chosen given that 1) SNPs with a MAF of  $< 0.2$  have limited utility  
103 in parentage analysis (Anderson and Garza 2006), and 2) we expect that our SNP discovery  
104 process will produce SNPs with a similar range of minor allele frequencies given previous  
105 experiences with SNP discovery in other salmonids (DeCovich et al. 2012). We assumed that  
106 the allele frequencies were the same among groups of different ancestral origins (hatchery vs.  
107 natural).

108 We conducted simulations in the widely used parentage analysis program *CERVUS* (Kalinowski  
109 et al. 2007). In order to generate simulated genetic data for parentage analysis, *CERVUS*  
110 requests input for many parameters, including numbers of female and male parents, the  
111 proportion of parents sampled, information about the genetic markers used for parentage,  
112 proportion of loci mistyped and others. The simulation parameters we used are summarized in  
113 Table 1. In the interest of time, we did not include replicates for each simulation scenario.  
114 Hatchery and natural origin was assigned randomly. We assumed random mating among

115 individuals of different ancestral origins (hatchery vs. natural). Thus, the proportions of  
116 offspring by cross type follow Hardy-Weinberg expectations.

117 We summarized results from *CERVUS* output files in *R* (R Core Team 2014) to determine the  
118 number of individuals with parental pair assignments for different scenarios under both relaxed  
119 (80% confidence) and strict (95% confidence) assignment criteria by cross type. Different  
120 scenarios assumed 1) the two hatchery:natural fish ratio scenarios described in the RFP [low  
121 stray rate – 15% of individuals (or 450 of 3,000) in the stream are of hatchery origin, and high  
122 stray rate – 50% of individuals (or 1,500 of 3,000) in the stream are of hatchery origin], and 2)  
123 sampling proportions of parents ranging from 1/6 to 6/6 in increments of 1/6.

## 124 **Results**

125 The sample of 96 SNPs had MAF that ranged from 0.17 to 0.40 (mean=0.31, SD=0.05). This  
126 sample is representative of what we expect from the pink salmon SNP development that has been  
127 contracted to the Seeb Laboratory at the University of Washington.

128 There was an exponential increase in proportion of offspring assigned to a parent pair with an  
129 increase in the proportion of parents sampled (Figure 1). For a given proportion of parents  
130 sampled, the relaxed assignment threshold in *CERVUS* provided on average a 20% increase in  
131 the proportion of assignments relative to the strict assignment threshold (Figure 1). The number  
132 of offspring assigned to a cross type was lower for natural x natural and hatchery x hatchery  
133 pairs than for natural x hatchery hybrid pairs in the high stray rate (50% hatchery-origin)  
134 scenario (Table 2; Figure 2). The low stray rate scenario (15% hatchery-origin scenario) resulted  
135 in very few hatchery x hatchery pairs, regardless of the proportion of parents sampled in the  
136 previous generation (Table 2; Figure 3).

## 137 **Discussion**

138 The *CERVUS* analysis reported here was an initial step to evaluate potential success expected for  
139 parent-pair assignments for given proportions of parents sampled. Note that these simulations  
140 assumed random mating between the ancestral-origin groups (hatchery and natural), equal  
141 reproductive success among all cross types, and that all (100%) of the returning adult offspring  
142 were sampled. Given these assumptions, these simulations represent a “best-case” scenario, as  
143 all returning offspring will not be sampled. Regardless, the major findings are that:

- 144 1. the number of offspring assigned to parent pairs increases exponentially with the number  
145 for parents sampled (Figure 1);
- 146 2. the relaxation in confidence in assignment thresholds from 95% to 80% confidence  
147 increased the proportion of offspring assigned to parent pairs by about 20% (Figure 1);  
148 and
- 149 3. both hatchery cross types are better represented for assigned parent pairs in the higher  
150 stray rate streams (Table 2; Figure 2 and 3).

151 These results mean that sampling a low proportion of parents will result in a high number of  
152 unassigned offspring which represent “lost” effort (i.e. fish that were sampled in the field, but are  
153 not available for the statistical analysis of fitness differences between hatchery and natural  
154 groups). The statistical power to test for differences in reproductive success will largely be  
155 governed by the sample size of the smallest group (cross type), keeping in mind that sample size  
156 refers to the number of families assigned to that group, not the number of individual offspring.  
157 The distribution of RS in salmonids had been shown to be highly variable and best approximated  
158 by the negative binomial distribution (Williamson et al. 2010; Anderson et al. 2011; Anderson et  
159 al. 2013; Christie et al. 2014). Given the high variability in RS, it is important to be able to  
160 assign a large number of offspring to a given cross type in order to accurately characterize the  
161 distribution of RS for that cross type. Other simulation work has shown that sampling only a  
162 portion of parents or offspring will result in a truncated distribution of RS, as it is unlikely to  
163 adequately represent very large families (Hinrichsen 2003, Araki and Blouin 2005).

164 The increased number of assignment with relaxation of confidence in assignment thresholds  
165 suggests that further analysis of the costs of this relaxation is warranted. Finally, although both  
166 hatchery cross types are best represented in the high stray rate stream scenario, the low stray rate  
167 streams provided high proportions of NxN and NxH cross type progeny. These low stray rate  
168 streams might offer the most insight into genetic effects of hatchery-natural interactions because  
169 the natural fish are less likely to have been as heavily influenced by introgression of hatchery  
170 fish from previous generations.

### 171 **Proposed Guidelines for Future Simulation Work**

172 Future simulations, to be completed by November 1, 2014 will expand upon these results to  
173 manipulate not only the stray rate and the proportion of parents sampled, but also:

- 174 1. parameterize the proportion of offspring sampled;
- 175 2. parameterize the effect size (difference in reproductive success between ancestral  
176 groups);
- 177 3. examine the trade-offs between relaxation of confidence in assignment thresholds and  
178 errors in assignment; and
- 179 4. determine the statistical power to detect known differences given the proportion of  
180 parental sampling, proportion of offspring sampling, stray rate, and difference in  
181 reproductive success of hatchery and natural-origin fish.

### 182 **Questions for the Science Panel**

- 183 1. Do the guidelines for future simulations seem appropriate? Are there additional  
184 parameters to consider?

185

## Science Panel Review and Comments

186 *This technical document was discussed at the December 12, 2014 meeting of the AHRG. In*  
187 *addition it was reviewed by email exchange prior to the meeting.*

188 The AHRG found the guidelines appropriate and did not offer any additional parameters.

189

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245

**Tables**

246 Table 1.—Parameter values used in simulations in the program *CERVUS*. Parameters were the  
 247 same for all simulations with the exception that the proportions of female and male parents  
 248 sampled ranged from  $1/6^{\text{th}}$  to  $6/6^{\text{th}}$  in increments of  $1/6^{\text{th}}$ .

Parameter	Value
Number of offspring	3,000
Number of candidate mothers	1,500
Number of candidate fathers	1,500
Proportion of candidate mothers/fathers sampled	$1/6 - 6/6$
Number of potential parent pairs	2,250,000
Proportion of loci genotyped	0.95
Proportion of loci mistyped	0.01
Error rate in likelihood calculations	0.01
Minimum number of genotyped loci per individual	77 (80% of markers)

249 Table 2.– Number of offspring out of the 3,000 offspring produced in the simulations assigned to  
 250 a parent pair among cross types for different sampling proportions of parents for a strict  
 251 assignment threshold (95% confidence) in *CERVUS* under both a low stray rate (15% hatchery-  
 252 origin fish) and high stray rate (50% hatchery-origin fish) scenario. Note that these simulations  
 253 assume random mating with respect to ancestral origin (hatchery and natural) and 100%  
 254 sampling of offspring.

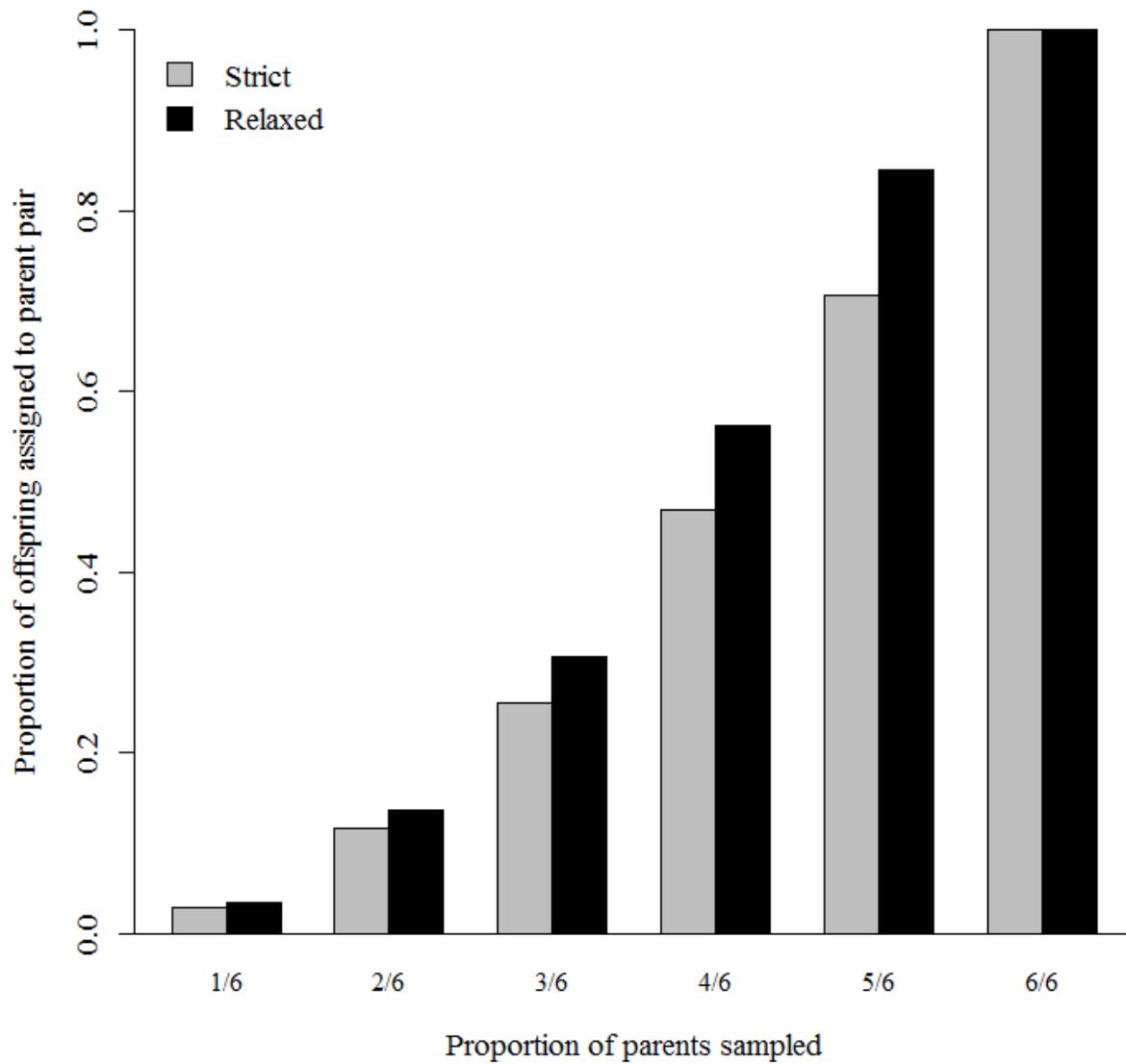
		Number of offspring assigned to a parent pair for a given proportion of parents sampled					
Stray rate	Cross type	1/6	2/6	3/6	4/6	5/6	6/6
Low (15%)	NxN	60	251	551	1017	1532	2168
	NxH / HxN	21	88	195	359	540	765
	HxH	2	8	17	32	48	67
	Total	83	347	763	1408	2120	3000
High (50%)	NxN	21	87	191	352	530	750
	NxH / HxN	41	173	381	704	1060	1500
	HxH	21	87	191	352	530	750
	Total	83	347	763	1408	2120	3000

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### Figures

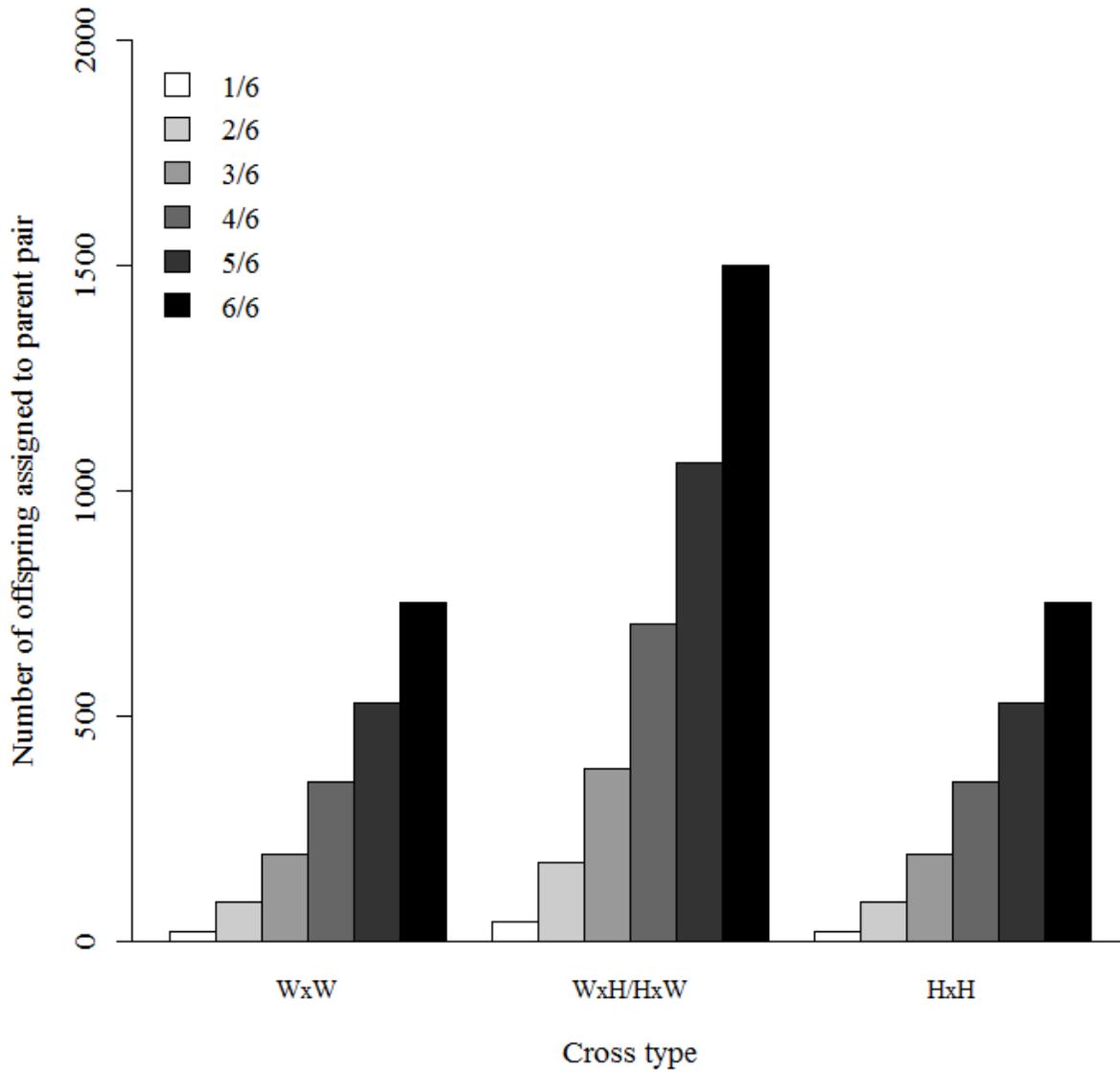
256 Figure 1.—Proportion of offspring assigned to a parent pair for different sampling proportions of  
257 parents for both strict (95% confidence) and relaxed (80% confidence) assignment thresholds in  
258 *CERVUS*. Sampling of offspring was 100%.

259



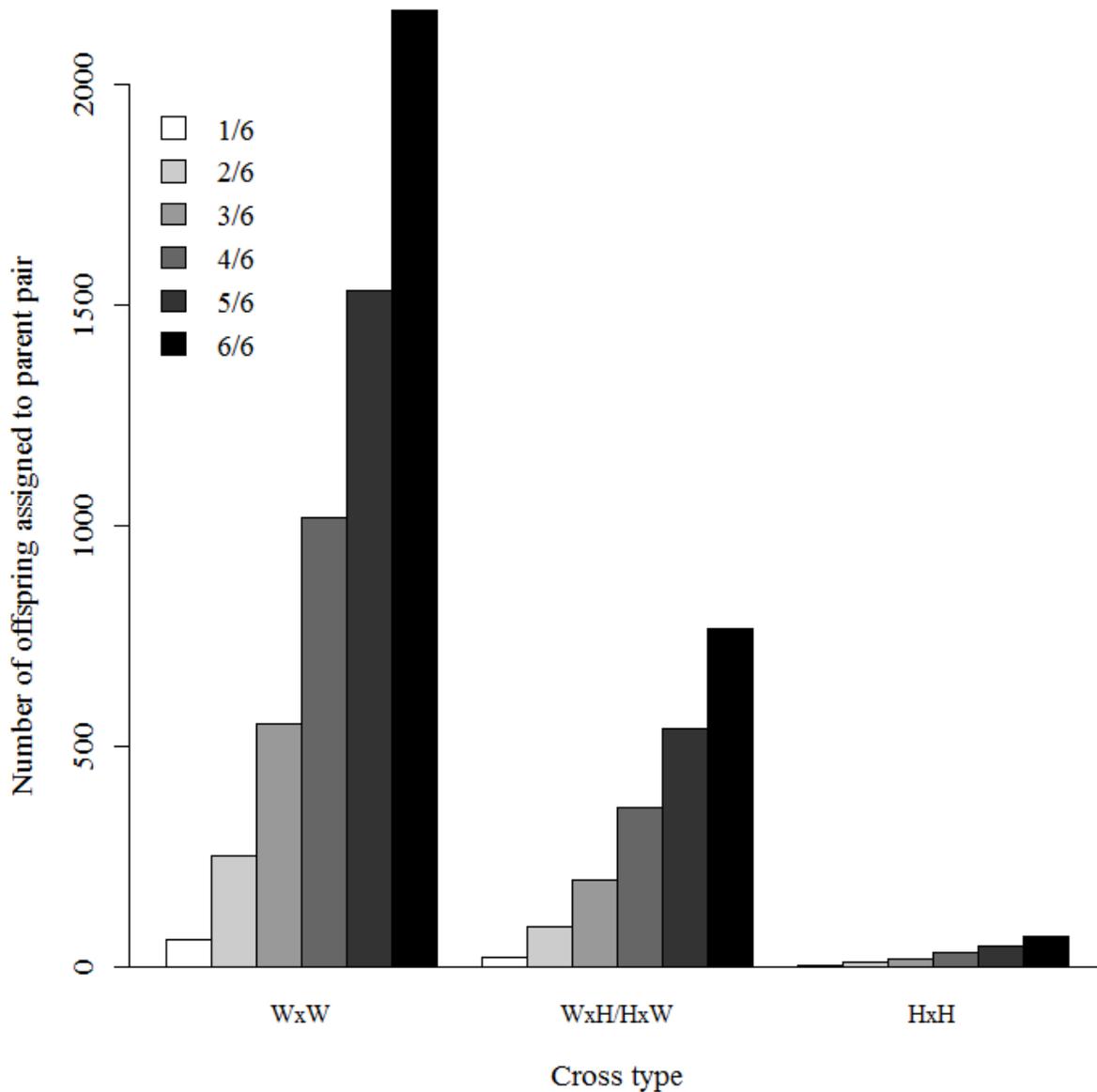
260

261 Figure 2.—Number of offspring assigned to a parent pair among cross types for different  
 262 sampling proportions of parents for a strict assignment threshold (95% confidence) in *CERVUS*  
 263 under a high stray-rate scenario (50% hatchery-origin fish). Note that these simulations assume  
 264 random mating without respect to ancestral origin (hatchery [H] and natural [N]). Cross types  
 265 are indicated by an “x”, e.g., HxH indicates mating of two hatchery-origin parents. Sampling of  
 266 offspring was 100%.



267

268 Figure 3.—Number of offspring assigned to a parent pair among cross types for different  
 269 sampling proportions of parents for both strict and relaxed assignment thresholds (95%  
 270 confidence) in *CERVUS* under a low stray-rate scenario (15% hatchery-origin fish). Note that  
 271 these simulations assume random mating without respect to ancestral origin (hatchery [H] and  
 272 natural [N]). Cross types are indicated by an “x”, e.g., HxH indicates mating of two hatchery-  
 273 origin parents. Sampling of offspring was 100%.



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