

Genome / Génome

Whole-genome sequencing reveals the extent of heterozygosity in a preferentially self-fertilizing hermaphroditic vertebrate

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1	Title: Whole-genome sequencing reveals the extent of heterozygosity in a preferentially self-
2	fertilizing hermaphroditic vertebrate
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25 Abstract:

26 The mangrove rivulus, *Kryptolebias marmoratus*, is one of only two self-fertilizing 27 hermaphroditic fish and inhabits mangrove forests. While selfing can be advantageous, it reduces 28 heterozygosity and decreases genetic diversity. Studies using microsatellites found that there are 29 variable levels of selfing among populations of K. marmoratus but overall there is a low rate of 30 outcrossing and therefore, low heterozygosity. In this study, we used whole-genome data to 31 assess the level of heterozygosity in different lineages of the mangrove rivulus and infer the 32 phylogenetic relationships among those lineages. We sequenced whole genomes from 15 33 lineages that were completely homozygous at microsatellite loci and used single nucleotide 34 polymorphisms (SNPs) to determine heterozygosity levels. More variation was uncovered than 35 in studies using microsatellite data due to the resolution of full genome sequencing data. 36 Moreover, missense polymorphisms were found most often in genes associated with immune 37 function and reproduction. Inferred phylogenetic relationships suggest that lineages largely 38 group by their geographic distribution. The use of whole-genome data provided further insight 39 into genetic diversity in this unique species. Although this study was limited by the number of 40 lineages that were available, these data suggest that there is previously undescribed variation 41 within lineages of K. marmoratus that could have functional consequences and/or inform us 42 about the limits to selfing (e.g., genetic load, accumulation of deleterious mutations) and 43 selection that might favor the maintenance of heterozygosity. These results highlight the need to 44 sequence additional individuals within and among lineages.

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47 Introduction:

48 Self-fertilization is a mode of reproduction employed by many plants and invertebrates. 49 and comes with inherent advantages and disadvantages (reviewed in Shimizu and Tsuchimatsu 50 2015). Selfing assures reproduction when few mating partners are available. While selfing can 51 result in coadapted suites of alleles that confer high fitness in a given environment (Allard 1975), 52 it can also drive populations quickly toward extinction and dampen responses to selection (Noel 53 et al. 2017). Many selfing species also can outcross (i.e., a mixed mating system), which 54 introduces genetic diversity at the individual and population levels. Recent studies have shed 55 light on the genomic and evolutionary consequences of selfing (Burgarella et al. 2015; Noel et al. 56 2017) but the extent to which genetic diversity is maintained in mixed-mating species remains an 57 open question.

58 Mangrove rivulus fish (Kryptolebias marmoratus) are an excellent model in which to 59 address such a question because individuals can exist as hermaphrodite or male (Mackiewicz et 60 al. 2006a). The most common mode of hermaphrodite reproduction for K. marmoratus is self-61 fertilization (Harrington 1961), which can generate isogenic lineages characterized by complete 62 homozygosity (at 32 neutral markers; Mackiewicz et al. 2006a). Predominant self-fertilization in 63 K. marmoratus has both disadvantages and advantages. Selfing can create barriers to gene flow 64 between adjacent populations, resulting in varying levels of differentiation among populations. 65 For example, a study utilizing microsatellite data found that the genetic differentiation among 66 populations only 112 kilometers apart was high, with differentiation values (measured by F_{ST}) 67 approaching 0.26 between some populations (Tatarenkov et al. 2012). Rare outcrossing events 68 occur between males and hermaphrodites and result in a burst of heterozygosity, which is then 69 reduced through subsequent generations of selfing (Mackiewicz et al. 2006b). Additionally,

previous studies have highlighted the impact self-fertilization has on the immune system and body size of these fish, with a reduction in heterozygosity (measured via microsatellites) leading to an increased parasite load (Ellison et al. 2011) and smaller adult male size (Molloy et al. 2011). Alternatively, selfing can maintain locally well-adapted genotypes (Avise and Tatarenkov 2012). Selfing can also potentially have a positive fitness effect in individuals by saving energy otherwise invested in courtship.

76 This species has a broad geographic distribution ranging from Florida, the Bahamas, the 77 Caribbean and Central America (Davis et al. 1990). Preferentially inhabiting mangrove forests, 78 mangrove rivulus are particularly well-adapted for this constantly changing habitat (Davis et al. 79 1990). Individuals are able to survive a wide range of environmental conditions, including high 80 hydrogen sulfide levels, low oxygen levels, and a large range of salt concentrations (Taylor 81 2012). Individuals can also leave the water (emersion) for extended periods of time to avoid 82 these extreme conditions (Abel et al. 1987). The ability to survive such extreme environmental 83 fluctuations coupled with their preference for self-fertilization allows for genetic variation to be 84 maintained within a location as subpopulations with distinct genotypes.

85 There is substantial evidence that outcrossing occurs in most mangrove rivulus 86 populations (Lubinski et al. 1995; Mackiewicz et al. 2006a), which is likely driven by male-87 hermaphrodite matings. Crossing between hermaphrodites has not been observed either in the 88 laboratory or in the wild and therefore, it is likely that males must be present for an outcrossing 89 event to occur (Turner et al. 2006; Furness et al. 2015). Males can arise in a population of K. 90 *marmoratus* in two ways: either via temperature-dependent sex determination during 91 embryogenesis or via temperature-dependent sex change (Harrington 1961; Harrington 1967; 92 Harrington 1968; Turner et al. 2006; Ellison et al. 2015). Both mechanisms can lead to the

93 spontaneous occurrence of males in a population. The percentage of males varies among wild 94 populations, with males making up between 2% (Florida) to 25% (Twin Cayes, Belize) of the 95 population (Davis et al. 1990). This difference in sex ratios may lead to varying outcrossing rates 96 among populations (Turner et al. 2006; Tatarenkov et al. 2015). While outcrossing events appear 97 to be rare in most populations, the amount of outcrossing varies drastically by site, with some 98 sites having a selfing rate of 80-90% (Florida populations) and others roughly 40% (Twin Cayes 99 population), which further contributes to the varying levels of differentiation among populations 100 (Mackiewicz et al. 2006a).

101 There are high levels of homozygosity within populations of *K. marmoratus* but high 102 levels of differentiation among lineages, as shown by previous studies utilizing DNA 103 fingerprinting (Turner et al. 1990) and microsatellite data (Tatarenkov et al. 2010). To date, no 104 study has combined both mitochondrial and full genome sequencing data to study genomic 105 variation in this species. These types of data are essential to determine whether diversity seen in 106 only a few markers (e.g. microsatellites) adequately describes genetic diversity and, ultimately, 107 to explore whether and through which evolutionary mechanisms heterozygosity produced 108 through male-hermaphrodite outcrossing is maintained in the genome. This study utilizes high-109 throughput sequencing data to infer genetic relationships among 14 laboratory-reared lineages of 110 K. marmoratus and one laboratory-reared lineage of the sister species Kryptolebias 111 *hermaphroditus*, the only other preferentially self-fertilizing vertebrate. Additionally, this study 112 aims to determine the levels of intra-individual heterozygosity using single nucleotide 113 polymorphisms (SNPs) in lineages that have been maintained in the laboratory for as short as 114 one and as many as 11 generations. 115

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116 Material and Methods

117 Sample Collection

118 One sample from each of 14 isogenic lineages of *Kryptolebias marmoratus* and one 119 sample from the sister species *Kryptolebias hermaphroditus* were included in the study (Table 120 S1). It should be noted that recent genetic and taxonomic analyses showed that earlier names -K. 121 *bonairensis* and *K. heyei* – are available for Caribbean populations of species designated here as 122 K. hermaphroditus (Tatarenkov et al. 2017a). As a result, the GITMO sample will ultimately 123 bear one of these names. However, because taxonomy of this species is still in a state of flux, 124 here we chose to use the recognized name K. hermaphroditus. Data from the lineage RHL is the 125 same as that used by Kelley et al. (2016) to construct the reference genome used in this study. 126 All samples were obtained from laboratory stocks in the Earley laboratory. The lineages were 127 sampled from throughout the species range (Figure 1, Table S1). Representative samples from 128 each of the isogenic lineages were genotyped for 32 microsatellites (Figure S1); note that 129 samples genotyped were not the same individuals as those used in this study. Individuals were 130 euthanized with a lethal dose of sodium bicarbonate-buffered Finquel[®] (MS-222, tricaine 131 methanesulfonate) and muscle tissue was dissected and flash frozen at -80°C.

132

133 Library Preparation and Sequencing

DNA was extracted from ~50 mg flash frozen tissue using the Qiagen Gentra Puregene Tissue kit with the following modifications: samples were placed in Covaris TT1 bags, immersed in liquid nitrogen then pulverized using a Covaris CryoPrep system. The pulverized tissue was then incubated at 56°C for 3 hours in 300 µl cell lysis buffer with 1.5 µl Proteinase K to complete cell lysis. All steps following cell lysis were performed per the Gentra Puregene

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protocol. Genomic DNA was checked for high molecular weight content by running on a 2%

157	protocol. Ochonne DTVA was checked for high molecular weight content by fullning on a 270
140	agarose Invitrogen E-gel, and concentration was determined using a Thermo Fisher Qubit
141	Fluorometer.
142	Sequencing libraries were fragmented using either sonication or Illumina Nextera
143	tagmentation technology (Table S2). For the libraries prepared using sonication, 500 nanograms
144	of genomic DNA was sheared to an average size of ~500 base pairs (bp) using a Covaris
145	sonicator. The KAPA BioSystems Library Preparation Kit for Illumina was used for end repair,
146	adapter ligation and amplification. Libraries were amplified with eight cycles of PCR using
147	KAPA's recommended standard cycling conditions. Size selection was performed using a 0.6X
148	Agencourt AMPure bead cleanup to select for an average fragment size of 400 bp. For the
149	libraries prepared using the Illumina Nextera tagmentation technology, the standard protocol was
150	followed except that the tagmentation was followed by size selection on a PerkinElmer Labchip
151	XT 750. The quality of all libraries was assessed using an Agilent Bioanalyzer, and
152	concentration was determined by Qubit. Libraries were then pooled to achieve an equimolar
153	concentration of each library prior to sequencing at the Stanford Genome Sequencing Service
154	Center on a HiSeq 2000 with the paired read 101 bp option.
155	

155

156 Nuclear Genome Analysis – Data Processing and Analysis

Prior to mapping, raw reads were inspected using FastQC (Andrews 2010). The adaptors were trimmed with a minimum overlap of 5 bp, and the reads were trimmed based on the quality with a minimum value of 28 PHRED score, additionally depending on base composition the reads were trimmed at the 5'end of both reads using TrimGalore! (Table S2) (Krueger 2015).

161 Coverage was estimated based on the mapped reads using Picard Tools

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162 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard) (Table S2). Reads from each sample were mapped to the 163 reference genome (GCA 001663955.1, (Kelley et al. 2016)) including the mitochondrial genome 164 (Tatarenkov et al. 2017b) using the Burrows-Wheeler aligner algorithm BWA-MEM (Li 2013). 165 The resulting SAM files were converted to BAM format using SAMTOOLS 1.2 (Li et al. 2009), 166 and read group information was added using Picard Tools. Variants were called on each sample 167 using the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK version 3.7) (Li 2013) HaplotypeCaller module. The 168 files were combined using the combineGVCFs module, and then joint genotyping was performed 169 across samples using GATK module GenotypeGVCFs. Sites for which a genotype could be 170 determined (callable loci) across the genome were identified utilizing the GATK module 171 CallableLoci, with minimum coverage of 4 and maximum coverage of 250. Single nucleotide 172 polymorphisms (SNPs) were extracted using the GATK module SelectVariants. The SNPs were 173 flagged using VariantFiltration in GATK using the following criteria: QD < 2.0, FS > 60.0, MQ 174 < 40.0, MQRankSum < -12.5, ReadPosRankSum < -8.0. Sites that passed the filter criteria were 175 kept using vcftools (v0.1.15) (Danecek et al. 2011). Sites missing more than 15% of genotypes 176 were excluded from the analysis, which is equivalent to excluding sites where at least two 177 individuals are missing genotypes. Summary statistics were calculated using vcf-stats (Danecek et al. 2011). To calculate the 178

ratio of heterozygous to homozygous sites, the number of heterozygous sites were divided by the number of homozygous non-reference sites for each lineage. A custom SnpEff (Cingolani et al. 2012) database was built utilizing the reference genome and associated exon annotations (Kelley et al. 2016). The VCF containing filtered variable sites was reannotated using SNPeff with locations (e.g. coding, noncoding) and putative impacts of SNPs (e.g., silent, missense, nonsense). Additionally, the transition to transversion ratio (Ts/Tv) and the missense to silent

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185 mutation ratio were determined using SnpEff. Nucleotide sequences for the reference coding 186 sequences were obtained with gffread v0.9.9 (Trapnell et al. 2010). Sequences were then 187 annotated by BLASTx (Altschul et al. 1990) to the Swiss-Prot database (accessed 11/2016) (The UniProt 2017) with an e-value of 10⁻⁵ and the top 20 hits were retained. Overrepresented Gene 188 189 Ontology (GO) terms were identified using Blast2GO (Gotz et al. 2008) Fisher's Exact Test, 190 with a false discovery rate (FDR) less than 0.01 and using only genes that had greater than one 191 SNP resulting in a missense mutation. 192 Runs of homozygosity (ROH) using the whole genome data were calculated using 193 vcftools (Danecek et al. 2011) The runs of homozygosity were separated in three classes using k-194 means clustering in R. Only the regions with runs longer than 526 bp (first quartile) were used 195 for the inference of the clusters. The classes were defined as: class 1 (greater than 526 bp and 196 less than 64,626 bp), class 2 (greater than 65,476 bp and less than 242,872 bp), and class 3 197 (greater than 244,848 bp to the maximum value of 974,281 bp). Only runs in class 3 (244,848 -198 974,281 bp) were considered as long runs of homozygosity. Because our reference genome has a

199 large number of contigs and some of them were smaller than the runs of homozygosity in class 3,

201 length (minimum length of class 3). Equation 1 from (Szpiech et al. 2013) was used to calculate

we limited our runs of homozygosity analyses to the contigs that were longer than 244,848 bp in

202 the total fraction of the genome covered by any ROH in each of the classes for each individual

using the sum of bp in contigs longer than 244,848 bp as the total length of the genome. We

204 estimated the correlation between the proportion of heterozygous sites (total number of

205 heterozygous sites divided by callable sites per sample) and the number of generations that

206 lineages were maintained in the laboratory (Table S2). Additionally, long ROH were correlated

207 with generations maintained in the laboratory. For analyses that rely on the number of

208	generations in the laboratory, we excluded DAN2K, SLC8E and UNK because we were not able
209	to confirm the number of generations.
210	We also performed a principal component analysis (PCA) using PLINK (1.07) (Purcell et
211	al. 2007) with data that were thinned to exclude SNPs that were within 5 kb of each other using
212	vcftools (Danecek et al. 2011) to minimize the effect of linkage disequilibrium. A final set of
213	140,081 SNPs was included in the PCA analysis. Identity by decent relatedness was calculated
214	using vcftools (Manichaikul et al. 2010; Danecek et al. 2011).
215	
216	Inference of Population Splits and Migrations from the Nuclear Genome
217	The VCF file containing filtered SNPs was converted to plink format using vcftools
218	(Danecek et al. 2011). PLINK was used to determine allele frequencies for each lineage at each
219	site (Chang et al. 2015). The allele frequencies were used to create TreeMix formatted file
220	utilizing the plink2treemix python script included in the TreeMix package (v1.13) (Pickrell and
221	Pritchard 2012). TreeMix was run using SNPs grouped in windows of 500, sample size
222	correction was turned off, and GITMO was specified as the root. A bootstrap analysis with 1000
223	replicates was performed; bootstrap support (bs) throught the manuscript is presented as
224	percentage. The TreeMix analysis was also performed with samples grouped by location.
225	
226	Mitochondrial Phylogenetic Analysis
227	Mitochondrial genomes were assembled for 14 lineages of K. marmoratus and 1 lineage
228	of K. hermaphroditus with ARC (Hunter et al. 2015), subsampling the raw genomic sequence
229	reads to achieve approximately 30x coverage as per the ARC user manual (Table S2). Sequences

230 for the 13 protein-coding genes were identified using MitoAnnotator (Iwasaki et al. 2013).

231	Mitochondrial phylogenetic analyses were performed using the 13 protein coding genes. The 15
232	samples from this study were combined with 4 samples obtained from GenBank (Kim et al.
233	(2016) (accession number: NC_032387.1), Lee et al. (2001) (accession number: AF283503),
234	Rhee et al. (2017) (accession number: PRJNA317650), and Tatarenkov et al. (2017b) (accession
235	number: KT893707)). Nucleotide sequences for each gene were aligned using the default options
236	in MUSCLE (Edgar 2004). Alignment files were concatenated using FASCONcat (Kück and
237	Meusemann 2010). Two K. hermaphroditus samples were used as an outgroup: a new sequence
238	from this study (GITMO) and one sequence from GenBank (accession number: NC_032387.1)
239	(Kim et al. 2016). We assigned an independent model of nucleotide substitution to each gene,
240	chosen using PartitionFinder 2.1.1 (Lanfear et al. 2016): Model K81+I (for position 1 in all
241	genes), Model HKY+I (for position 2 in all genes), and Model TRN+G (for position 3 in all
242	genes). We performed both maximum likelihood and Bayesian analyses on the mitochondrial
243	genome dataset. Maximum likelihood analysis was performed using RAxML 8.2.9 (Stamatakis
244	2014). Node support was estimated using 1000 rapid bootstrap replicates. Bayesian analysis was
245	conducted in MrBayes 3.2.6 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003) using default priors. The Markov
246	chain Monte Carlo was run for 10 million generations sampling every 1000 generations, with
247	two parallel runs each with four chains (three hot and one cold). Convergence was considered
248	reached on the basis of the standard deviation of split frequencies (<0.01). The first 10% of trees
249	were discarded as burn-in.

250

251 **Results**

There were 2,106,131 SNPs in the entire whole-genome resequencing dataset, 1,168,538
of which are variable in *K. marmoratus*. Using these SNPs, we determined the level of

heterozygosity present in K. marmoratus lineages that were identified as being completely

254

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255 homozygous using 32 microsatellite markers. The percent of heterozygous sites per individual 256 ranged from 0.0305% (RHL) to 0.0554% (LION2) per callable region of the genome (Table S3). 257 For K. marmoratus, the count of private alleles (alleles that are only found in one lineage) varied 258 between 7,279 (UNK) and 46,557 (R2) and for K. hermaphroditus (GITMO) there were 914,466 259 private alleles (Table S3). The heterozygous to homozygous ratio ranged from 0.83 (R2) to 1.54 260 (SLC8E) (Figure S2). As the data for RHL was used to assemble the reference genome (Kelley 261 et al. 2016), there are very few homozygous non-reference sites and RHL was excluded from the 262 analysis of heterozygous to homozygous ratios. 263 The correlation between the percent of heterozygous sites and the number of generations in the laboratory was not significant (Figure S3; $R^2 = 0.14$, p = 0.23). There were 1,468,846 264 265 predicted effects of the variants determined by SnpEff from the 1,168,538 SNPs specific to K. 266 marmoratus. While 9.8% of the genome is coding, only 3.5% of the predicted effects were found 267 within coding regions. Additionally, 54.4% of the SNPs found within coding regions were 268 missense and 44.7% were silent. The number of heterozygous sites in each individual ranged 269 from 126,649 (VOL) to 251,480 (UNK) and the percent of heterozygous sites found within 270 coding regions ranged from 4.417% (RHL) to 3.970% (Vol). Finally, the Ts/Tv ratio was 271 calculated to be 1.76, which is slightly lower than the expected 2.0. There were 13 272 overrepresented Gene Ontology (GO) terms associated with genes that had greater than one SNP 273 resulting in a missense mutation present (Table S4). The lineage with highest proportion of its 274 genome covered by long runs of homozygosity (class 3) was RHL (Figure S4). The proportion of 275 long runs of homozygosity in the genome shows a positive correlation with the number of generations in the laboratory (Figure S5; $R^2 = 0.67$, p = 0.025). 276

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277	To investigate the genetic structure of the lineages we performed principal component
278	analysis (PCA) using the nuclear SNPs and phylogenetic analyses, with both nuclear SNPs and
279	mitochondrial sequences. The principal component analysis (PCA) separated the sister species K .
280	hermaphroditus (GITMO) from K. marmoratus on PC1 (Figure S6; percentage of variance
281	explained by $PC1 = 17.21\%$, $PC2 = 2.47\%$). In the PCA performed with only populations of <i>K</i> .
282	marmoratus, the populations clustered by geographic location except for DAN2K (Figure 2; PC1
283	= 2.57% , PC2 = 1.6%). Additionally, this study found one mislabeled lineage, a problem which
284	has been previously noted (Tatarenkov et al. 2010); based on the PCA, the lineage clusters
285	closely with the Belizean lineage DAN2K. Lineages from Florida clustered closely together in
286	the PCA space and therefore we estimated relatedness among the Florida lineages. The identity
287	by descent probability relatedness (Φ) among only Florida K. marmoratus lineages shows that
288	BBSC, FDS1, LION2, and SLC8E are closely related (Figure S7).
289	The maximum likelihood topology for the genomic SNP data given by TreeMix (Figure
290	S8) groups the Florida lineages with the Bahamas lineage (bootstrap (bs) = 100). The lineage
291	labeled UNK grouped with the lineage from Belize DAN2K (bs = 100). The Honduran lineages
292	did not group together; HON grouped with the lineages from Belize (DAN2K, FW2, BWN3) and
293	the lineage labelled UNK (bs = 100). R2 appeared as an early branching lineage, however there
294	was no support for this position. Additionally, when grouping individuals by sampling location,
295	Belize and Honduran lineages clustered together ($bs = 95$) and the lineage from the Bahamas is
296	the first branch to appear ($bs = 100$) (Figure S9).
297	The topologies of the maximum likelihood and the Bayesian analyses of the
298	mitochondrial genomes were identical based on 13 protein-coding genes with 11,436 sites, of
299	those 579 are variable and 487 are parsimony informative (Figure 3, Figure S10). There were

300 several samples that were identical to each other (FW2 and BWN3; UNK and DAN2K; FDS1 301 and FDS08). All seven lineages from Florida (including FDS08 from Tatarenkov et al. (2017b)) 302 and one from the Bahamas (RHL) grouped together in a single clade (bs = 57, Posterior 303 Probability (pp) = 0.78). Samples from the studies by Lee et al. (2001) and Rhee et al. (2017) 304 grouped together (bs = 100, pp = 1). The lineage labeled UNK grouped with the lineage from 305 Belize (DAN2K; bs = 100, pp = 1). The sister lineage of all above mentioned lineages (BBSC, 306 FDS1, LION1, LION2, LK1, VOL, RHL, Tatarenkov et al. (2017b), Lee et al. (2001), Rhee et 307 al. (2017), UNK, and DAN2K) is the clade with the Honduran lineage HON9 and the two 308 Belizean lineages FW2 and BWN3. R2 did not group with the other Honduran lineage (HON9), 309 and instead was an early branching lineage among K. marmoratus lineages. 310

311 **Discussion**

312 *Kryptolebias marmoratus* has always been regarded as having high rates of selfing in the 313 wild meaning that outcrossing has been considered as a minor component of the mating strategy, 314 with the exception of lineages in Twin Cayes, Belize (Lubinski et al. 1995). These conclusions 315 have been drawn by the fact that males exist at very low frequencies (Vrijenhoek 1985) and that 316 microsatellite markers are often highly homozygous in wild populations (Turner et al. 1990). 317 Given the homozygous nature of the microsatellites for lineages used in this study, the 318 heterozygosity results show that there is previously undescribed variation in individuals of K. 319 marmoratus. This variation is rare, as most SNPs were found as singletons and were found 320 mainly in intergenic regions of the genome, with only 3.5% of the SNPs found in coding regions 321 even though 9.8% of the genome is made up of coding sequences. Looking closer at the SNPs 322 within the coding region, specifically focusing on genes that have greater than one missense

323 mutation, we found that SNPs resulting in a missense mutation are more likely to fall within 324 genes associated with the immune system. This is the first genomic evidence in K. marmoratus 325 of the importance of genetic variation in genes associated with the immune system and supports 326 the findings of Ellison et al. (2011), which showed that outcrossed fish had a lower parasitic load 327 than selfing lineages. Other studies showed that there appears to be considerable heterozygosity 328 in major histocompability complex (MHC) genes and maintenance of diverse MHC supertypes, 329 despite persistent homozygosity at neutral markers and non-MHC loci (Sato et al. 2002; Ellison 330 et al. 2012). Collectively, these data suggest the potential for parasite and/or pathogen-mediated 331 selection on the maintenance of genetic diversity within some regions of the genome. Many of 332 the remaining genes that were enriched for more than one SNP resulting in a missense mutation 333 are associated with reproduction and merit further study to determine the role they play in this 334 self-fertilizing species.

335 The ratio of heterozygous to homozygous sites for some lineages indicates that 336 outcrossing may be frequent among individuals of K. marmoratus and that it may play a role in 337 maintaining variation within and among lineages (Figure S2). Although the ratios in K. 338 marmoratus were lower than in a randomly mating population (expected heterozygous to 339 homozygous ratio in randomly mating populations is 2 (Jun et al. 2012)), the values for several 340 of these lineages were greater than 1.25. A possible interpretation is that rare outcrossing events 341 occur between distant lineages, which is supported by the findings of Lomax et al. (2017) 342 showing that in some seasons, egg laying increased as a function of increased genetic 343 dissimilarity in K. marmoratus. Additionally, Ellison et al. (2013) showed that males prefer 344 genetically dissimilar hermaphrodites, which should promote more outcrossing between 345 genetically distinct versus genetically similar lineages. The extensive number of variable sites

provided by whole-genome data allowed us to uncover this heterozygosity that was not identifiedpreviously by studies using microsatellites.

348 Similarly, we found that inbreeding, when estimated by the percentage of the genome 349 covered by long runs of homozygosity (ROH), was lower than expected. Long ROH are the 350 result of processes that reduce effective population size and increase homozygosity (Szpiech et 351 al. 2013; Curik et al. 2014), such as selfing. Because K. marmoratus has high levels of selfing, 352 we expected to find a large portion of the genome covered by long ROH. However, only a 353 maximum of 9.5% of the genome that is contiguous enough to determine long ROH was covered 354 by long ROH, which is lower than the values found in human populations that range between 1-355 19% of the genome (Szpiech et al. 2013). Our reference genome is fragmented, with an N50 356 scaffold length of 111,539 bp (Kelley et al. 2016), which inherently decreases our ability to 357 identify ROH in this species, especially long ROH.

358 This study shows that Florida was colonized in one event, and indicates that the lineage 359 present in the Bahamas is closely related to the populations in Florida. The lineages from the 360 geographically close locations, Belize and Honduras, did not form a monophyletic clade in either 361 mitochondrial or individual nuclear analysis, suggesting a complex colonization of the region. 362 Although the swimming abilities of adult *K. marmoratus* are limited, and they typically live their 363 entire life within a short distance from where they hatched (Davis et al. 1990; Taylor 2012), 364 adults have been found within log hollows that presumably can float to distant areas during 365 storms (Mackiewicz et al. 2006a; Tatarenkov et al. 2007). Additionally, eggs are resistant to 366 desiccation making them capable of long distance dispersal on floating material, which could 367 explain how K. marmoratus can colonize new areas and explains how movement between 368 Florida and Bahamas can occur.

369	The phylogenetic distribution of K. marmoratus lineages derived from protein-coding
370	mitochondrial sequences is quite consistent with lineages having dispersed with the Caribbean
371	and Florida currents (see Figure 1). Indeed, several studies have identified migration events that
372	are likely explained by prevailing ocean currents (Tatarenkov et al. 2017b). Given the currents in
373	the Gulf of Honduras, it is thus not surprising to find complex phylogenetic relationships among
374	the Belizean and Honduran lineages. The strong Florida current might explain why lineages from
375	the Florida Keys (LION1, LION2, LK1), Bahamas (RHL), and the east coast of Florida (SLC8E,
376	VOL) are closely related; it seems quite reasonable that eggs and fish could disperse on flotsam
377	from southern Florida to the eastern peninsular coast and Bahamas. Lineages from western
378	Florida (BBSC, FDS1) are most derived and most closely related to lineages from the Florida
379	Keys, which might be explained by the relatively weak surface currents that move northward
380	from the Keys to places like Fort Myers (BBSC) and Tampa (FDS1).
381	Inferences of population splits from the nuclear data provide additional insights into the

complexity of the phylogeographic relationships. The population split inference when grouping 382 383 samples from the same location, showed Belize and Honduras in the same clade. Moreover, even 384 with the individual nuclear analysis, relationships among Florida lineages do not follow the 385 prevailing currents as clearly. Discrepancies between the mitochondrial and nuclear data could 386 suggest biased migration, incomplete lineage sorting, or a combination of the two. The overall 387 relationship among individuals sampled in Florida, Bahama, Honduras, and Belize are 388 concordant with topologies estimated in other studies such as Tatarenkov et al. (2017b) that used 389 different lineages to the ones in this study.

390 Earlier studies suggested that the low levels of heterozygosity were due to the fact that 391 there are few naturally occurring males, however, there was evidence for multiple isogenic

392 lineages at a specific sampling site and the identity of those varied from year to year. As 393 additional data have been collected, there is clear evidence for outcrossing in the wild. Although 394 our study has only examined one specimen per lineage, we were able to uncover variation at a 395 finer scale than has been achieved by microsatellites. This result and the discrepancies in our 396 phylogenetic analyses are strong motivation for further collection of whole genome data from 397 more specimens throughout the K. marmoratus range. This will enable genome-wide 398 comparisons within and among populations, which will elucidate whether outcrossing is as rare 399 as previously thought (Vrijenhoek 1985) and/or whether outcrossing preferentially occurs 400 between genetically dissimilar lineages as suggested by Ellison et al. (2013). 401

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576 Figure Captions

577

- 578 Figure 1. Sampling locations for lineages of Kryptolebias marmoratus (BBSC, BWN3, DAN2K,
- 579 FDS1, FW2, HON9, LION1, LION2, LK1, R2, RHL, SLC8E, and VOL), and Kryptolebias
- 580 *hermaphroditus* (GITMO). Prevailing ocean currents are indicated by colored arrows.
- 581 The Caribbean current (green arrows) pushes northward from South America to the eastern tip of
- 582 Honduras and, further, to the Yucatan peninsula. The Gulf of Honduras lies to the west of the
- 583 Caribbean current and is characterized by a circular pattern of surface water movement that
- heads southward along the coast and barrier islands of Belize and eastward toward Roatan and
- 585 Utila islands (black arrows). The Caribbean current extends northward and transitions to the
- 586 Florida current (red arrows), which rips along the Florida Keys and along the eastern coast of the
- 587 peninsula. The Gulf of Mexico current (blue arrows) also extends from the Caribbean current.

588

Figure 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of genetic variation among samples of *K*. *marmoratus*. PCA performed using PLINK (Purcell et al. 2007). To minimize the effects of
linkage disequilibrium, the data was thinned to exclude SNPs that were within 5 kb of each other
using vcftools (Danecek et al. 2011). A total of 140,081 SNPs were included in the analysis.
Principal component 1 explains 2.57 % of the variation and principal component 2 explains
1.60 % of the variation.

595

596 **Figure 3.** Mitochondrial maximum likelihood phylogenetic estimation of 13 protein coding

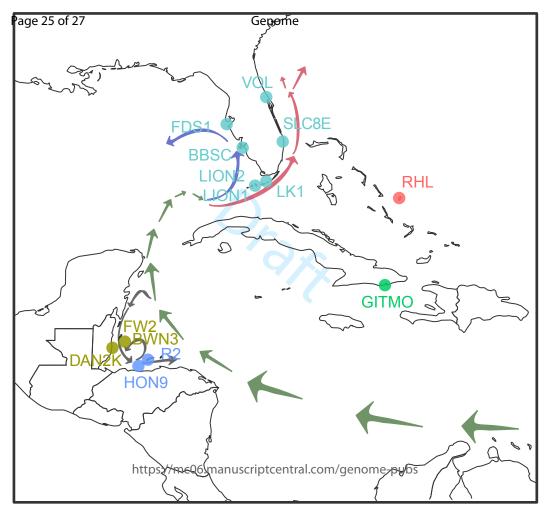
597 genes of the lineages of *K. marmoratus*; the sister species *K. hermaphroditus* was used as

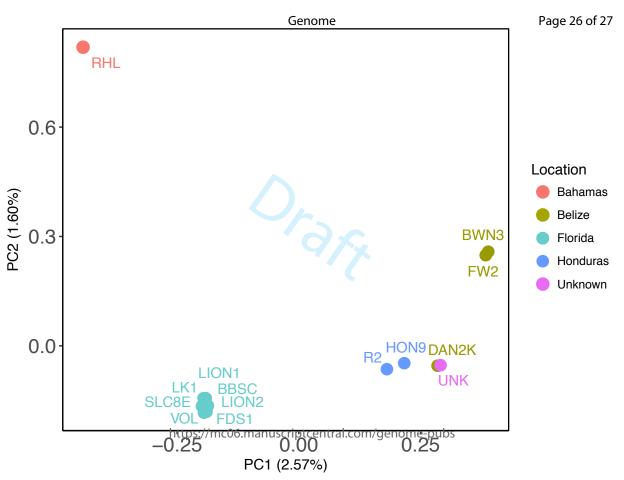
598 outgroup (GITMO and Kim *et al.* 2016). Lineages are colored according to sampling location.

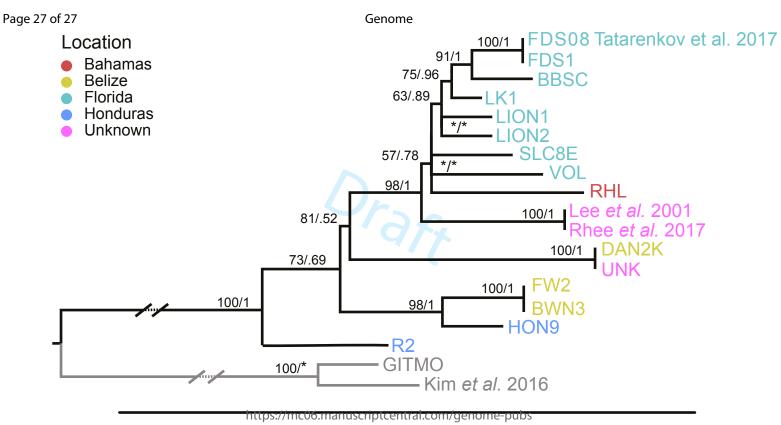
599 Node values are bootstrap and posterior probabilities, respectively. Posterior probabilities were

600 calculated for a Bayesian phylogentic inference and mapped to this maximum likelihood tree.

601 Bootstrap values below 50 and posterior probabilities below 0.5 are represented by *.







^{0.005}