

# Introgression across semipermeable species boundaries within the *Sebastes inermis* complex (#87932)

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First submission

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# Introgression across semipermeable species boundaries within the *Sebastes inermis* complex

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Introgression can have important implications for speciation either by promoting the emergence of novel adaptations or reinforcing the boundaries between parent species. The semipermeable nature of species boundaries, as supported by the occurrence of introgression, indicates that it typically does not occur in genomic regions under strong divergent selection, which are crucial to speciation. In this sense, we assessed the dynamics of introgression and genetic divergence within the *Sebastes inermis* complex (*Sebastes cheni*, viz. *Sebastes inermis*, *Sebastes ventricosus*, and their putative morphological hybrids in sympatry) using a dataset of 10 microsatellite loci, mitochondrial DNA (D-loop), and the intron-free rhodopsin gene (RH1). The analyses revealed the presence of three distinct genetic clusters, large genetic distances in the D-loop region, and the presence of RH1 mutations, which align with the description of each species. Two of the microsatellite loci showed evidence of divergent selection indicating that they are linked to genomic regions crucial for speciation. Furthermore, nonsynonymous RH1 mutations detected in *S. cheni* and the "Kumano" morphotype, a putative morphological hybrid, suggest specific adaptations related to visual perception in dim light environments. The occurrence of introgression was confirmed through individual admixture coefficients and significant migration rates between species. The admixture coefficients were effective in distinguishing genetically pure individuals and first-generation hybrids, but they were unable to identify backcrosses. The presence of nonsynonymous RH1 mutations and the admixed genetic ancestry of the "Kumano" morphotype, along with the independent divergence of each species highlight the significant role of introgression in relation to speciation within the *Sebastes inermis* complex. Our findings emphasize the need for further studies to assess the relative fitness of hybrids and parentals, particularly in the context of stock enhancement programmes for the three species since they can potentially increase the chances of introgression and its consequences within the species complex.

1 **Introgression across semipermeable species boundaries within the *Sebastes inermis***  
2 **complex**

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25 **Abstract**

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27 of novel adaptations or reinforcing the boundaries between parent species. The semipermeable  
28 nature of species boundaries, as supported by the occurrence of introgression, indicates that it  
29 typically does not occur in genomic regions under strong divergent selection, which are crucial  
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33 microsatellite loci, mitochondrial DNA (D-loop), and the intron-free rhodopsin gene (RH1). The  
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46 *inermis* complex. Our findings emphasize the need for further studies to assess the relative

47 fitness of hybrids and parentals, particularly in the context of stock enhancement programmes for  
48 the three species since they can potentially increase the chances of introgression and its  
49 consequences within the species complex.

## 50 **Introduction**

51  
52 Natural hybridization involves the exchange of genetic material between different populations or  
53 taxa. Introgression refers to the transfer of alleles from one genetically distinct taxon into the  
54 gene pool of another taxon through subsequent backcrossing (Anderson, 1949). Introgression  
55 challenges the traditional biological species concept, which defines species as reproductively  
56 isolated from one another (Mayr, 1963). However, a "genic view" of species proposed by Wu  
57 (2001) offers an alternative perspective. According to this view, gene flow can occur among  
58 species if the parent species maintain their divergence upon contact (*i.e.*, speciation-with-gene-  
59 flow). In this framework, reproductive isolation is only applied to genes involved in speciation  
60 rather than being considered a whole-genome phenomenon.

61 In the process of speciation-with-gene-flow, species divergence primarily occurs in specific  
62 genomic containing genes that are under strong divergent selection and play a crucial role in  
63 local adaptation and speciation (Via, 2001). Conversely, other genomic regions that are weakly  
64 selected or neutral and not essential for maintaining species boundaries can be freely exchanged  
65 during gene flow between species (Shaw & Mullen, 2011; Feder, Egan & Nosil, 2012). The  
66 differential patterns of introgression observed in these genomic regions highlight the  
67 semipermeable nature of species boundaries (Harrison & Larson, 2014). By studying these  
68 patterns, we can gain insights into the dynamics of speciation and the factors shaping species  
69 boundaries.

70 Possible outcomes of introgression into speciation primarily depend on the fitness of hybrids  
71 related to parent species in specific environments, and their reproductive success (Via, 2001;  
72 Baskett & Gomulkiewicz, 2011). A higher fitness of hybrids may have significant evolutionary  
73 potential to generate novel lineages and/or adaptations (Arnold, 1992; Arnold & Fogarty, 2009;  
74 Abbott et al., 2013). Conversely, if hybrids have lower fitness than the parent species,  
75 introgression can contribute to increasing the reproductive isolation of the hybridizing lineages  
76 (*i.e.*, reinforcement) (Dobzhansky, 1940; Servedio & Noor, 2003). In this sense, the occurrence  
77 of introgression in a single clade offers the possibility of directly assessing the hybrids fitness  
78 and the significant contribution of both possible outcomes of introgression on diversification.

79 The species complex *Sebastes inermis* encompasses three species: viz. *Sebastes inermis*  
80 Cuvier, 1829 (red-coloured), *Sebastes cheni* Barsukov, 1988 (brown to golden-brown rockfish,  
81 known as “white” in Japan), and *Sebastes ventricosus* Temminck & Schlegel, 1843 (greenish- to  
82 black-coloured), which present extensive sympatry along coastal waters of Japan (Kai &  
83 Nakabo, 2008). Apart from their colouration patterns, the morphological identification of these  
84 species relies on meristic, and morphometric proportions (Kai & Nakabo, 2008), although  
85 additional morphological differences in otolith descriptors and body shape can ease their  
86 identification (Deville et al., 2023). These morphological divergences also suggest asymmetric  
87 depth distributions for these species, which can reduce their interspecific competition and allow  
88 their coexistence in sympatry (Deville et al., 2023). Genetic identification of these rockfishes can  
89 be accomplished by examining differences in allele patterns of Amplified Fragment Length  
90 Polymorphisms (AFLP) (Kai, Nakayama & Nakabo, 2002; Kai & Nakabo, 2008), and two  
91 microsatellite loci (Deville et al., 2023). Dissimilar allele patterns in these molecular markers  
92 suggest reproductive isolation between these species (Kai, Nakayama & Nakabo, 2002), which

Have there been any reports of DNA barcoding? Please include citations (if any).



93 aligns with differences in acoustic and visual communication systems that can be important for  
94 the recognition of conspecifics during reproductive seasons (Deville et al., 2023). Due to the  
95 economic significance of these species for local communities, thousands of juveniles from all the  
96 three species are annually released into coastal waters of Japan to enhance local stocks  
97 (Nakagawa, 2008). However, this practice might increase chances of introgression among these  
98 species. Given that introgression can alter estimates of genetic population structure within  
99 species (Berntson & Moran, 2009; Artamonova et al., 2013; Saha et al., 2017), its detection is  
100 crucial to implement fishery management policies aimed at preserving the genetic diversity of  
101 these species (Buonaccorsi et al., 2005; Berntson & Moran, 2009).

102 Introgression within *Sebastes* has been inferred through various methods. Morphological  
103 analyses have been used to identify hybrids based on intermediate morphotypes of the parent  
104 species (Valentin, Sévigny & Chanut, 2002; Muto et al., 2013). In other cases, migration rates  
105 between species have been estimated using isolation with migration models under a coalescent  
106 approach (Saha et al., 2017; Schwenke, Park & Hauser, 2018). In addition, introgression events  
107 have been detected through population genetic surveys using highly polymorphic markers such  
108 as microsatellite loci, which were analysed through Bayesian clustering methods (Roques,  
109 Sévigny & Bernatchez, 2001; Buonaccorsi et al., 2005; Burford, 2009; Saha et al., 2017),  
110 because these methods can determine the number of different genetic clusters and estimate the  
111 contribution of each genetic cluster to an individual's ancestry (Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly,  
112 2000; Corander et al., 2008). Moreover, analyses of microsatellite loci have served as a baseline  
113 for further characterization of genome-wide patterns of divergence between closely related  
114 species (Buonaccorsi et al., 2011; Behrens et al., 2021) even though the high mutation rate of  
115 these markers can possibly lead to the convergence of alleles between species (Estoup, Jarne &

116 Cornuet, 2002; Morales et al., 2021). The detection of high “outlier” genetic divergences  
117 between species in contrast to low intraspecific divergences can indicate that these loci are under  
118 adaptive (divergent) selection (*i.e.*, FST “outlier” approach) (Beaumont & Balding, 2004). When  
119 a locus is under divergent selection, alleles of any locus near linked regions will also be under  
120 divergent selection; thus, that selection will prevent gene flow of all nearby genomic regions,  
121 leading to a reduction in the migration rate (*i.e.*, gene flow) of that region (Feder, Egan & Nosil,  
122 2012).

123 In the *S. inermis* complex, putative morphological hybrids displaying intermediate colouration  
124 and meristic counts, but with otolith weight ~ age relationships resembling *S. cheni*, have been  
125 categorized into any of the three species based on allele patterns of two microsatellite loci  
126 (Deville et al., 2023). Additionally, an endemic intermediate morphotype of *S. cheni* and *S.*  
127 *inermis* (colloquially called “big red”) has been reported by local fishermen in Kumano Nada  
128 (Wakayama Prefecture), but without any genetic information. The presence of these putative  
129 morphological hybrids in sympatry, along with females’ behaviour leading to assortative mating  
130 for larger males during reproductive seasons (Shinomiya & Ezaki, 1991), urge the need to  
131 confirm whether hybridization is occurring among these species.

132 To investigate the dynamics of introgression and genetic divergence within the *Sebastes*  
133 *inermis* complex, we employed genetic information from the mitochondrial control region (D-  
134 loop), the introgression-free rhodopsin gene (RH1), and 10 microsatellite loci. Our study aimed  
135 to address the following objectives: The mt DNA D-loop in fishes encompasses conserved sequence blocks (CSB)  
that can be used to infer matrilineage.

136 1. Assess the genetic divergences between species in sympatry, with a particular focus on  
137 identifying nonsynonymous mutations in the intro-free rhodopsin gene (RH1). Such  
138 mutations can indicate differences in depth distribution and adaptation to environments with

139 varying levels of downwelling light (Bowmaker, 2008; Sivasundar & Palumbi, 2010; Shum  
140 et al., 2014).

141 2. Detect introgression events through clustering analyses and isolation with migration models  
142 based on a coalescent approach. These methods allow us to evaluate the extent and direction  
143 of gene flow between species.

144 3. Investigate whether any of the microsatellite loci show signs of divergent selection, which  
145 can provide insights into recent and local adaptation within the complex.

146 4. Evaluate the level of genetic divergence of the putative morphological hybrids.

147 Our expectations were that each species would maintain its genetic divergence even in the  
148 presence of introgression, as gene flow is typically restricted in genomic regions under divergent  
149 selection that are responsible for driving speciation. We also anticipated that the intermediate  
150 morphotypes would exhibit genetic signatures consistent with admixture of the parent species.  
151 The occurrence of introgression in sympatry would provide further evidence supporting the  
152 potential role of introgression in the diversification of *Sebastes* rockfishes.

## 153 **Materials & Methods**

### 154 **Sampling**

155 We examined a total of 360 rockfishes collected through bank and rock fishing activities along  
156 the coast of Japan (**Table 1, Fig. 1**). Species identification was carried out following the criteria  
157 established by Kai & Nakabo (2008), starting from colour alive and fresh, meristic counts, and  
158 body proportions. In addition, the otolith weight ~ age relationship was used to ensure correct  
159 identification of specimens older than 4 years old, as suggested by Deville et al. (2023).

160 Individuals were categorized into six different morphological groups considering whether  
161 they present all the diagnostic traits of any species without overlap or only some of them (**Table**  
162 **1, Fig. 2**). The categories were as follows: (1) white *S. cheni*, (2) red *S. inermis*, (3) black *S.*

DNA barcoding of the mtDNA cytb can provide information on cryptic speciation as well as identification of the species.

163 *ventricosus*, (4) intermediate black-white (BW) *S. cheni* – *S. ventricosus*, with some individuals  
164 having colouration from one species while their meristic counts and body proportions resemble  
165 the other species, (5) intermediate red-white (RW) *S. cheni* – *S. inermis*, with intermediate  
166 colouration and meristic counts, but otolith weight ~ age relationship of *S. cheni*, and (6)  
167 “Kumano” or “big red” morphotype collected in sandy and rocky shorelines in East Wakayama  
168 Prefecture. It is considered a hypothetical intermediate form between *S. inermis* and *S. cheni* that  
169 displays intermediate colouration and meristic counts, but an otolith weight ~ age relationship  
170 similar to *S. cheni*.

### 171 DNA isolation, sequencing, and genotyping

172 Total DNA of specimens was isolated from a small piece of fin tissue using the TNES-Urea  
173 buffer (Asahida et al., 1996) followed by the standard phenol-chloroform isolation. A set of 10  
174 microsatellite loci isolated from *Sebastes schlegelii* Hilgendorf, 1880 (SSC12, SSC23, KSs2A,  
175 KSs6A, KSs7, and CGN1) (Yoshida, Nakagawa & Wada, 2005; An et al., 2009; Gao et al.,  
176 2018), *S. inermis* (Sebi1, Sebi2, and Sebi3) (Blanco Gonzalez et al., 2009), and *Sebastes*  
177 *rastregiller* (Jordan & Gilbert, 1880) (SRA7-7) (Westerman et al., 2005), were cross-amplified  
178 in all samples through two multiplex PCRs. The four universal primers proposed by Blacket et  
179 al., (2012) were labelled with 6-FAM (Tail A), VIC (B), NED (C), and PET (D), while the  
180 forward primers of all loci were modified at their 5' ends with the same universal primers (**Table**  
181 **S1**). Multiplex PCR standardization for these loci was performed as described in Deville et al.,  
182 (2021). Each multiplex PCR was carried out in a volume of 5 µL containing 2.5 µL of 2X KOD  
183 Fx Neo buffer, 1 µL of dNTP 2µM, 0.1 µL of 1U KOD polymerase (Toyobo Co., Ltd., Osaka,  
184 Japan), 1 µL of DNA, and 0.1 µL of a primer mix (5mM labelled universal primers and modified  
185 forward primers, and 10 mM reverse primers). Multiplex PCRs were performed in a

state the fin: e.g. pectoral

e

186 Mastercycler Gradient 96-well system (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) with initial denaturation  
187 at 94°C for 4 min followed by a touchdown (10 cycles at 94 °C/1 min, annealing from 63 °C to  
188 54 °C/ 1 min and 72 °C/ 1 min), 20 cycles with the same conditions but annealing at 55° C and a  
189 final step of 72°C during 10 min. Then 1 µL of PCR products was mixed with 18.8 µL of Hi-  
190 DiTM Formamide (Applied Biosystem) and 0.2 µL of GeneScan™-600 LIZ ® size standard  
191 (Applied Biosystem). This mixture was denatured at 95 °C for 3 min and run on an ABI 3130×1  
192 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Genotyping was performed using GeneMarker v.2.6 ®  
193 (Soft Genetics).

Which NCBI GenBank mtDNA sequence did you use to design the D-loop primers?  
Accession number of the sequence.

194 D-loop and the RH1 gen were amplified in 130 specimens, including: (1) 25 individuals of  
195 each species identified through morphological and genetic analyses (clustering analysis, see  
196 below); (2) eight individuals morphologically assigned to a species but genetically classified as  
197 putative hybrids; (3) 22 individuals with BW morphotype, (4) 19 specimens showing RW  
198 morphotype, and (5) six “Kumano” specimens from Wakayama. D-loop was amplified using the  
199 forward (MebTD1F, 5'→3': ACCTGAATCGGAGGAATGCC) and reverse (MebTD1R,  
200 5'→3': GGGTTTACAGGAGCGTTAGC) primers designed in this study. RH1 was amplified  
201 using the Rh193 (5'→3': CNTATGAATAYCCTCAGTACTACC) and Rh1039r (5'→3':  
202 TGCTTGTTTCATGCAGATGTAGA) primers (Chen, Bonillo & Lécointre, 2003). Both genetic  
203 regions were amplified in a total volume of 8 µL containing 4 µL of 2X KOD buffer, 1.2 µL of  
204 dNTP 2µM, 0.1 µL of each primer, 0.1 µL of 1U KOD Taq polymerase, and 1 µL of DNA. PCR  
205 conditions for both regions were: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 4 min and then 35 cycles of 94  
206 °C for 20 seg, 55 °C for 30 seg and 68 °C for 45 seg, and a final extension at 68 °C for 5 min.  
207 Each PCR product was cleaned up with ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix/USB Corporation, Cleveland,  
208 OH) and then sequenced using BigDye v3.1 Terminator Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems)

209 on a Genetic Analyzer ABI 3130x1 (Applied Biosystems). D-loop amplicons were sequenced in  
210 one direction, whereas RH1 amplicons were sequenced in both directions whenever an  
211 • Which primer? State the code  
211 ambiguous nucleotide was found in the chromatograms. Chromatograms were visualized and  
212 manually edited using Chromas lite v2.6.6 (Technelysium Pty. Ltd.) and the sequences were  
213 aligned using Clustal X2 (Larkin et al., 2007). RH1 sequences were phased into two sequences  
214 per individual using the program PHASE implemented in DNAsp v6 (Rozas et al., 2017) with a  
215 Markov chain Monte Carlo of 100,000 iterations, burn-in of 10,000 steps, and 10 step thinning  
216 intervals. Note: all sequences must be deposited at NCBI GenBank and assigned accession numbers

### 217 **Descriptive statistics and genetic divergences**

218 We estimated the number of alleles ( $N_a$ ), observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ), and expected  
219 heterozygosity ( $H_e$ ) for each species. Exact tests for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) and  
220 linkage disequilibrium were performed for each locus and pair of loci, respectively. These tests  
221 were performed per species and only in eight populations (two populations of *S. cheni* and three  
222 populations of *S. inermis* and *S. ventricosus*) containing more than 25 individuals. Pairwise  
223 genetic divergences between species were estimated based on the number of different alleles  
224 (Weir & Cockerham, 1984) only using individuals from Hiroshima whose identity was  
225 confirmed through morphological and genetic analyses (see clustering analysis). All these  
226 analyses were performed using Arlequin v3.5 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2010).

227 D-loop and phased RH1 haplotypes were collapsed into haplotypes, and the number of  
228 haplotypes, haplotype diversity, and nucleotide diversity were estimated using DNAsp v6. Citation  
229 Genetic distances between species from frequencies of D-loop haplotypes were estimated using  
230 the K2P model (Kimura, 1980) in Arlequin v3.5. Networks of D-loop and RH1 haplotypes were  
231 constructed using the TCS method (Clement, Posada & Crandall, 2000) implemented in PopArt

232 v1.7 (Leigh & Bryant, 2015). To determine the position of mutations occurring in the RH1 gene  
233 and their possible relationship with changes in the protein function, we selected the individual  
234 with the longest sequences in each species and pooled them together with the publicly available  
235 RH1 sequences of 36 *Sebastes* rockfishes (EF212407–EF212438, KM013899, KM013904,  
236 KM013924, KM013927), using as reference the complete amino acid sequence of the bovine  
237 RH1 (GenBank accession NM\_001014890).

What was the outgroup used to root your phylogenetic tree?

### 238 **Detection of outlier loci**

239 Outlier loci with very low or high divergence among species were detected using BayeScan v2.1.  
240 (Foll & Gaggiotti, 2008). The analysis was performed only with the allele frequencies of  
241 individuals assigned to a species based on their morphology. The parameters for the analysis  
242 were as follows: 100,000 burn-in steps, a thinning interval of 100, a sample size of 10,000, 50  
243 pilot runs, a pilot length of 10,000, and a value of 10 for prior odds. The analysis assesses  
244 selection by decomposing  $F_{ST}$  coefficients into a population-specific component (beta) shared  
245 by all loci and a locus-specific component (alpha) shared by all populations using logistic  
246 regression. Loci under selection are inferred when  $F_{ST}$  coefficients are largely explained by the  
247 locus-specific component (*i.e.*, alpha is significantly different from 0). Positive alpha values  
248 indicate divergent selection, whereas negative values suggest balancing or purifying selection.  
249 The significance of each alpha value per locus was evaluated using corrected  $P$  values calculated  
250 using the False Discovery Rate method (FDR) (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995).

### 251 **Genetic clusters and individual admixture analysis from microsatellite loci**

252 Genetic clustering was assessed using STRUCTURE v2.3.4 (Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly,  
253 2000). The analysis estimated the number of different genetic clusters and individual admixture  
254 proportions (Q-score = genome ancestry coefficient) to identify possible hybrids. Two analyses



255 were performed: the first using all microsatellite loci and the second excluding loci under  
256 putative divergent selection. The analyses were run with a Markov chain Monte Carlo of  
257 1,000,000 steps, 10% burn-in, independent allele frequency model, K (number of possible  
258 clusters) values from 1 to 7, and 10 replicates for each K value. The most likely number of  
259 genetic clusters was inferred using the Evanno method (Evanno, Regnaut & Goudet, 2005), as  
260 implemented in STRUCTURE HARVESTER (Earl & vonHoldt, 2012). Putative genetic hybrids  
261 were identified through individual admixture proportions (hereafter Q-scores) considering values  
262 lower than 0.9 (Sanz et al., 2009).

263 Thirty individuals with unequivocal morphological definition and Q-scores higher than 0.99  
264 were used as reference populations for simulating pure, first-generation (F1) hybrids, and  
265 backcross individuals using HYBRIDLAB v1.0 (Nielsen et al., 2006). A total of 810 pure  
266 parental genotypes were simulated by simple mechanical mixing of the alleles from each pure  
267 reference population. For F1 hybrids, we simulated 30 individuals for each parent cross: *S. cheni*  
268 – *S. inermis*, *S. cheni* – *S. ventricosus*, and *S. inermis* – *S. ventricosus*. For the backcrosses, 30  
269 individuals were simulated for each pure parental and F1 cross, resulting in six groups of  
270 backcrosses. Each group was labelled with three letters following the colour pattern of each  
271 parent species (*i.e.*, black: B, red: R, and white: W) to ease their distinction. The first and second  
272 letters indicate the origin of the F1 hybrid parental, and the third letter indicates the parental of  
273 pure origin. The six groups of backcrosses were BRB, BRR, BWB, BWB, RWR, and RWW.  
274 The number of simulated individuals in the pure, F1 hybrid, and backcrossing groups was set to  
275 ensure 10% of hybrids in our simulated dataset as a requirement to effectively infer hybrids  
276 using clustering analyses (Vähä & Primmer, 2006). We pooled the simulated individuals in a  
277 single dataset and estimated the number of genetic clusters and Q-scores using STRUCTURE



278 with the same parameters as the analysis including only our collected samples. The maximum Q-  
279 scores of all the individuals included in the observed and simulated datasets were plotted to  
280 detect possible F1 hybrids and backcrosses.

### 281 **Isolation with migration coalescent models**

282 Isolation with migration coalescent models (Hey & Nielsen, 2004) were performed using IMa2  
283 (Hey & Nielsen, 2007) to estimate migration rates, population sizes, and divergence times  
284 between species from individuals collected off Hiroshima. Pairwise comparisons were performed  
285 to ease the estimation of parameters. Preliminary analyses were performed to select adequate  
286 priors for long runs. The final priors used for migration rates (m), divergence time (t), and  
287 population mutation rate (q) were 10, 15.5, and 80, respectively. The performance of each  
288 analysis was evaluated by checking the swapping rates, autocorrelation values between the first  
289 and second sets of analysis, and trend-line points. Final runs were carried out with a burn-in of  
290 200,000 steps, 2,000,000 steps of Markov Chain Monte Carlo, and saving 20,000 genealogies for  
291 each pairwise comparison. Analyses were performed with 40 chains and heating schemes (“-  
292 ha0.975 -hb0.75”), as suggested in the manual. Migration rates independent of mutation rate  
293 were estimated as the effective number of migrants per generation (2NM). In contrast, estimates  
294 of population size and divergence time were only inferred between species, given the absence of  
295 mutation rate estimates.

## 296 297 **Results**

### 298 299 **Descriptive statistics from microsatellite loci**

300 All loci were polymorphic in each species, with the number of alleles per locus ranging from six  
301 to 21 in *S. cheni*, six to 41 in *S. inermis*, and five to 70 in *S. ventricosus* (Table 2). The mean  $H_o$   
302 values were 0.664, 0.725, and 0.726 for *S. cheni*, *S. inermis*, and *S. ventricosus*, respectively. The

303 mean value of  $H_e$  was 0.691 for *S. cheni*, 0.766 for *S. inermis*, and 0.754 for *S. ventricosus*.  
304 Significant differences in allele distributions (**Fig.S1**) were detected in 9 out of 10 microsatellite  
305 loci ( $P$  values  $< 0.005$ ), with 23 out of 30 pairwise comparisons being statistically significant ( $P$   
306 values  $< 0.002$ ). Significant deviations from HWE expectations were detected in six tests, three  
307 of them occurring in the locus CGN1 ( $P$  values  $< 0.005$ ) (**Table S2**). Only one out of 360  
308 pairwise comparisons of loci (SSC23-Sebi2 in *S. inermis* from Hiroshima) showed significant  
309 linkage disequilibrium ( $P$  value  $< 0.001$ ).

### 310 **Outlier microsatellite loci**

311 Two out of the 10 loci (KSS7 and CGN1) were under putative divergent selection ( $\alpha$ -KSS7 =  
312 1.38,  $\alpha$ -CGN1 = 1.50, adjusted  $P$  values using FDR  $< 0.002$ ). In addition, Sebi2 presented  
313 some signal of putative divergent selection ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ), but without statistical significance  
314 (adjusted FDR  $P$  value  $< 0.09$ ). The FST values among species calculated from these loci were  
315 0.233 and 0.215 in CGN1 and KSS7, respectively, 0.15 in Sebi2, in contrast to a mean value of  
316 0.06 in the other seven microsatellite loci (**Table S3**).

### 317 **Genetic clusters and individual admixture analysis**

318 The most likely number of genetic clusters was three as suggested by the Evanno Method ( $\Delta k =$   
319 795.07) (**Fig. S2**), clearly separating the three species (**Fig. 3**). However, clustering analyses  
320 inferring four genetic clusters, separated the three species, and lumped RW and “Kumano”  
321 specimens in a single cluster (**Fig. 3**). Meanwhile, clustering analyses excluding the two loci  
322 under significant divergent selection, identified two clusters ( $\Delta k = 1224.42$ ) (**Fig. S3**), which  
323 only allowed the discrimination of *S. ventricosus* from the other two species (**Fig. 3**). Given that  
324 we aimed to discriminate species and detect hybrids between them, we extended the explanation  
325 of the results using all microsatellite loci. A total of 331 individuals were assigned as pure ( $Q >$

326 0.90), and 29 as putative genetic hybrids. Among the BW individuals, two and 21 were  
327 genetically assigned to *S. cheni* and *S. ventricosus*, respectively. The RW group contained 20 and  
328 six individuals that genetically qualified as *S. cheni* and hybrids, respectively.

329 The distribution of maximum Q-scores from the simulated samples indicated that pure and F1  
330 hybrids could be clearly discriminated; however, backcrosses presented overlapping Q-scores  
331 with pure and F1 hybrids (Fig. 4). Indeed, F1 hybrids presented maximum Q-scores ranging  
332 from 0.5 to 0.80, while backcrosses varied from 0.5 to 1 (Fig. 4).

### 333 Isolation with migration models

334 Statistically significant rates of introgression were detected from *S. ventricosus* to *S. cheni*  
335 (likelihood ratio test  $P$  value  $< 0.001$ , mean 2NM = 2.013, 95% highest posterior density (HPD)  
336 = 0.613–2.933) and from *S. inermis* to *S. ventricosus* ( $P$  value  $< 0.05$ , mean 2NM = 0.305,  
337 95%HPD = 0.0425–1.379). The coalescent-based analysis suggested that the divergence between  
338 *S. cheni* and *S. ventricosus* occurred later ( $t_0 = 0.329$ , 95% HPD = 0.10–0.63) than the  
339 divergence of the former and *S. inermis* ( $t_0 = 0.669$ , 95% HPD = 0.147–1.294), and the split of *S.*  
340 *inermis* and *S. ventricosus* ( $t_0 = 0.686$ , 95% HPD = 0.07–1.558). Population size estimations  
341 differed between species, with *S. cheni* presenting lower values ( $q = 3.372$ , 95% HPD = 1.64–  
342 5.24), followed by those of *S. ventricosus* ( $q = 4.815$ , 95% HPD = 2.2–7.96), and *S. inermis* ( $q =$   
343 5.946, 95% HPD = 2.92–9.40).

### 344 Species divergence inferred from microsatellite loci, D-loop and RH1 sequences

345 Genetic divergences between species were estimated only using specimens from Hiroshima  
346 presenting unequivocal morphology and non-admixed genetic ancestry in clustering analyses.  
347 Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  distances between species ranged from 0.11 (*S. cheni* vs. *S. inermis*) to 0.134 (*S.*  
348 *cheni* vs. *S. ventricosus*) ( $P$  values  $< 0.001$ ) (Table 3). The D-loop alignment contained 616 bp

349 and was collapsed into 82 haplotypes. All three species and intermediate morphotypes presented  
350 haplotype and nucleotide diversity higher than 0.9 and 0.05, respectively (**Table S4**). D-loop  
351 haplotypes were not segregated in separate areas within the haplotype network, in agreement  
352 with the assignment of individuals to their respective origin within a species or putative hybrid  
353 group (**Fig. 5A**). However, all the pairwise K2P distances estimated from species and putative  
354 morphological hybrids were statistically significant ( $P$  values  $< 0.002$ ) except for the comparison  
355 *S. ventricosus* and BW (**Table 3**). The shortest interspecific difference occurs between *S. inermis*  
356 and *S. ventricosus* ( $F_{ST} = 0.119$ ) and the largest between *S. cheni* and *S. ventricosus* ( $F_{ST} =$   
357  $0.358$ ) (**Table 3**).

358 The 480bp-alignment of the RH1 gene, including samples from the three species, intermediate  
359 morphotypes, and genetically putative hybrids, was collapsed into four haplotypes. All *S.*  
360 *ventricosus* individuals were collapsed into a single haplotype (the main haplotype) highly  
361 present in the *S. inermis* (60 % of haploid sequences), BW (90%), RW (100%), and “Kumano”  
362 (50%) groups (**Fig. 5B**). Approximately 88% of *S. cheni* individuals had a haplotype differing  
363 from the main haplotype by one single mutational step, while 40% of *S. inermis* samples carried  
364 a different haplotype with variation in one mutation from the main one. The fourth haplotype  
365 was exclusively found in “Kumano” specimens and was derived from the *S. inermis* haplotype.  
366 The alignment of rhodopsin sequences including other *Sebastes* helped us to infer that the three  
367 species and the “Kumano” morphotype presented eight common amino acid replacements (*i.e.*,  
368 nonsynonymous mutations) at positions 119, 133, 158, 205, 213, 274, 277, and 286 of the  
369 rhodopsin protein, with two of them occurring only in this species complex (133 and 286) (**Table**  
370 **S5**). The mutations exclusively present in *S. cheni*, and some “Kumano” individuals were found  
371 to cause amino acid replacements in the positions 165 (from serine to alanine) and 217 (from

372 methionine to threonine) of the protein sequence, respectively. In contrast, the mutation observed  
373 in some *S. inermis* individuals did not change the amino acid sequence of the rhodopsin protein  
374 (*i.e.*, synonymous replacement).

## 375 Discussion

DNA barcoding using the standard DNA barcodes would have resolved the issue of cryptic speciation

### 376 Divergences within the species complex

Reclassification of the species as a subspecies

377 Kai & Nakabo (2008) proposed the splitting of *S. inermis* into three species based on differences  
378 in colouration, meristic counts, body proportions, and significant genetic divergences estimated

379 from D-loop sequences and AFLP. Our findings support the significant genetic differences in the

380 D-loop sequences of individuals occurring in sympatry and confirm them as genetically pure

D-loop sequences are hypervariable within a single species. Caveat.

381 based on the Q-scores obtained from microsatellite loci. Although we did not use AFLP, the

382 concomitant large genetic divergences estimated from D-loop sequences in both studies

383 highlights the usefulness of these microsatellite loci as additional references for species

384 identification. Moreover, the haplotype network aligns with the lack of reciprocal monophyly

385 described by Kai, Nakayama & Nakabo (2002) in samples from the Seto Inland Sea, Noto

386 (Ishikawa Prefecture), and Wakasa Bay (Kyoto Prefecture). The temporal and geographic

387 extension of these interspecific differences highlights the spatio-temporal stability of the species

388 boundaries delimited through D-loop sequences, despite the likely incomplete lineage sorting

389 or introgressive hybridization suggested by these authors and occurring in other closely related

390 rockfishes (Hyde & Vetter, 2007; Schwenke, Park & Hauser, 2018). The large  $F_{ST}$  estimated

391 from microsatellite loci are concordant with divergences between other rockfishes in large

392 sympatry (Roques, Sévigny & Bernatchez, 2001; Narum et al., 2004). The existence of

393 significantly different allele distributions between sympatric species (**Fig. S1**) and the genetic

394 clusters inferred through STRUCTURE analysis in concordance with the taxonomic description

395 of the three species suggests that our dataset of microsatellite loci is sufficiently informative to  
396 separate them despite the confounding effect of high mutation rates and the multi-step mutation  
397 model of these markers, possibly leading to congruences in allele sizes (Estoup, Jarne &  
398 Cornuet, 2002; Morales et al., 2021).

399 The maximum absorption spectra ( $\lambda_{MAX}$ ) of downwelling light among vertebrates is greatly  
400 determined by the type of chromophore bound to the opsin proteins, including RH1, as well as  
401 amino acid combinations at specific spectral tuning sites (Yokoyama & Takenaka, 2004).  
402 Changes in the amino acid composition of the RH1 protein can impact the visual sensitivity to  
403 dim light, as they alter the structural composition of the protein and, consequently, the absorption  
404 spectra (Bowmaker, 2008). Given the decreasing trend of downwelling light intensity along the  
405 water column, nonsynonymous mutations in RH1 suggest that species inhabit environments with  
406 different levels of downwelling light due to divergences in distribution depth (Jerlov, 1976). Our  
407 RH1 alignment including other *Sebastes* species revealed seven amino acid replacements at  
408 positions under positive selection (**Table S5**). These replacements coincidentally occurred in our  
409 focal species and other rockfishes inhabiting shallow environments (Sivasundar & Palumbi,  
410 2010; Shum et al., 2014). For example, a replacement of isoleucine with leucine at position 119  
411 of the RH1 protein has been associated with shifts into shallower environments (Sivasundar &  
412 Palumbi, 2010), with a punctual variation at this position occurring in the “deep” (isoleucine)  
413 and “shallow” (valine) groups within the beaked redfish *Sebastes mentella* Travin, 1951 (Shum  
414 et al., 2014).

415 The mutations identified in the RH1 gene of our focal species provide insights into their  
416 ecological differences in distribution, consistent with recent ecomorphological analyses (Deville  
417 et al., 2023). In the case of *S. inermis*, it shares the same amino acid sequence as *S. ventricosus*,

418 because the distinctive mutation found in the former does not cause an amino acid replacement  
419 in the RH1 protein. Thus, the adaptations of *S. inermis* to deeper environments with lower light  
420 intensity are likely manifested through other mechanisms, such as larger relative eye sizes  
421 (Deville et al., 2023), which enable them to capture more photons (Warrant, 2000). The  
422 congruence in amino acid sequences in both species may represent a common adaptation to  
423 shallower environments with low light intensity, such as *Zostera L.* and *Sargassum C.* Agardh,  
424 1820 beds, where *S. inermis* is usually found (Kai & Nakabo, 2008) and *S. ventricosus* can  
425 occasionally incur (Shoji et al., 2017). On the other hand, *S. cheni* exhibits a nonsynonymous  
426 mutation that leads to an amino acid replacement from serine to alanine at position 165. This  
427 nonsynonymous mutation has not been reported in any of the 35 *Sebastes* species with available  
428 rhodopsin sequences but has been observed in certain cichlid with  $\lambda_{MAX}$  between 498 and 503  
429 nm that inhabit rocky environments in shallow waters of the Tanganyika Lake (Sugawara et al.,  
430 2005). Structural analysis of the rhodopsin protein has revealed that the position 165 is in the 4<sup>th</sup>  
431 transmembrane domain (Palczewski et al., 2000; Sivasundar & Palumbi, 2010), with any amino  
432 acid replacement at this position possibly altering the dimerization interface of the functional  
433 protein, and thereby changing the  $\lambda_{MAX}$  (Schott et al., 2014; Ito et al., 2022). Thus, it is likely that  
434 the amino acid replacement at position 165 position in *S. cheni* results in changes to its  $\lambda_{MAX}$  in  
435 response to a different downwelling light intensities compared to the other two species. Although  
436 the specific  $\lambda_{MAX}$  ranges for these species would provide a deeper understanding of their visual  
437 adaptations to environments with dim light conditions (e.g., Sugawara et al., 2005), the presence  
438 of an amino acid replacement in *S. cheni* underscores the significance of selective pressures  
439 driving ecological diversification within the species complex, supporting its previous split into  
440 independent species.

Hill, J., Enbody, E. D., Petterson, M. E., Sprehn, C. G., Bekkevold, D., Folkvord, A., ... & Andersson, L. (2019). Recurrent convergent evolution at amino acid residue 261 in fish rhodopsin. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(37), 18473-18478.

#### 441 Hybridization within the species complex

442 Hybridization was inferred from intermediate morphotypes, population genetic assessment, and  
443 coalescent analyses. Although the first method eased the identification of hybrids in the second  
444 method, it reduced the possibility of obtaining significant migration rates between species  
445 because putative morphological hybrids could not be assigned to any species in the coalescent  
446 analyses.

447 A total of 29 putative hybrids were detected in our population genetic surveys using clustering  
448 analyses with the full set of microsatellite loci. The performance of our STRUCTURE analysis  
449 to detect these hybrids relies on a confidence rate of 90%, because our number of loci, genetic  
450 divergences between the parent species ( $F_{ST} > 0.12$ ), and the proportion of hybrids in the  
451 samples (~8.33%) are close to the ones necessary to attain this rate considering a Q-score  
452 threshold value of 0.9 to classify an individual as genetically putative pure or hybrid (Vähä &  
453 Primmer, 2006; Sanz et al., 2009). Based on Q-scores, 14 individuals were classified as putative  
454 genetic hybrids of *S. cheni* – *S. ventricosus*, 13 as *S. cheni* – *S. inermis*, and 2 as *S. inermis* – *S.*  
455 *ventricosus* hybrids. However, it is important to note that the percentage of hybrids inferred from  
456 clustering analyses may be underestimated, as some genetically pure individuals with  
457 intermediate morphotypes may be backcrosses, as indicated by our simulations (Fig. 4).

458 Considering this, a total of 50 potential backcrosses could be inferred in our samples.

459 Migration estimates from coalescent models only indicate significant asymmetric rates of  
460 migration from *S. ventricosus* to *S. cheni*, and from *S. inermis* to *S. ventricosus*. The lack of  
461 significance in the highest migration rate between *S. cheni* and *S. inermis*, estimated as  $2NM =$   
462  $0.763$  (95% HPD = 0–1.607) from the latter to the former, is due to the exclusion of intermediate  
463 morphotypes in the coalescent models. Additionally, the inclusion of two loci under divergent



Was there any evidence of "private alleles"?

464 selection (Ks7 and CGN1) that allow discrimination of *S. cheni* and *S. inermis*, may lead to  
465 lower estimates of migration rates as introgression of alleles at these loci is reduced between  
466 species, resulting in an overall reduction in migration rate estimates (Feder, Egan & Nosil, 2012).  
467 These asymmetric migration rates align with theoretical expectations, where smaller populations  
468 receive introgression from larger populations over time (Arnold, Hamrick & Bennett, 1993).  
469 Therefore, introgression of new alleles from the other species counteracts the lower genetic  
470 diversity observed in *S. cheni* (**Tables 2 and S3**), which may be attributed to a stronger effect of  
471 genetic drift resulting from its smaller effective population sizes (Allendorf, 1986).

472 Putative morphological hybrids exhibit intermediate colouration and meristic patterns, but  
473 with otolith weight ~ age relationships resembling *S. cheni*. The presence of intermediate color  
474 polymorphisms, along with hybridization events, suggests that coloration patterns alone may not  
475 be sufficient for maintaining reproductive isolation between species (Gray & McKinnon, 2007).  
476 It is possible that other factors, such as specific environmental conditions and assortative mating,  
477 play a role in determining the relevance of coloration patterns for reproductive isolation (Fuller,  
478 Houle & Travis, 2005).

Does this species involve in mating aggregations?  
If yes, then mating may involve multiple sets of gametes from  
diverse individuals

479 Introgression driven by females is expected to occur in this species complex because females  
480 approach the male territories during reproductive seasons and can decide whether to initiate  
481 copulation (Shinomiya & Ezaki, 1991). The network of D-loop haplotypes did not show any  
482 shared haplotype between either intermediate morphotypes or putative genetic hybrids and any  
483 species, indicating no evidence of introgression driven by females. However, several factors  
484 suggest that intermediate morphotypes, specifically the BW, RW, and "Kumano" morphotypes,  
485 are more likely to have originated from mating pairs where a male *S. cheni* mated with a female  
486 *S. ventricosus* (BW morphotype) or *S. inermis* (RW and "Kumano" morphotypes). These mating

487 pairs are supported through the larger genetic divergences between intermediate morphotypes  
488 and *S. cheni* (**Table 3**), along with the otolith weight ~ age relationships of intermediate  
489 morphotypes resembling those of *S. cheni* (**Fig. 2**), and *in situ* observations indicating that  
490 females tend to copulate with males larger than them (Shinomiya & Ezaki, 1991). These types of  
491 mating pairs might occur since at same ages *S. cheni* males attain larger sizes than males from  
492 the other two species, and males are larger than females, except for *S. ventricosus* (Kamimura et  
493 al., 2014). This size difference may provide a selective advantage during reproductive seasons,  
494 as larger males establish larger territories, engage in agonistic behaviours, patrol their territories,  
495 and perform courtship when encountering females (Shinomiya & Ezaki, 1991). On the other  
496 hand, smaller males have smaller territories, do not exhibit agonistic behaviour, and do not  
497 perform courtship (Shinomiya & Ezaki, 1991). Hence, the hypothesis that introgression occurs  
498 through females in this species complex is supported by a relative higher fitness of *S. cheni*, BW,  
499 RW, and “Kumano” males during reproductive seasons due to their larger size and the size-  
500 assortative mating behaviour driven by females.

501 All genetically putative hybrids detected in individuals with intermediate morphotypes  
502 exhibited the same RH1 haplotype as *S. ventricosus*. This observation may indicate introgression  
503 of RH1 haplotypes between species with positive frequency-dependent selection in favour of the  
504 haplotype present in *S. ventricosus* (Sinervo & Calsbeek, 2006). Considering that hybridization  
505 is mediated by females and that the two RW intermediate morphotypes slightly differing in  
506 colouration (**Fig. 2**) were only found in two specific sampling sites (Osaki-Shimozima East and  
507 Etajima Islands) off Hiroshima, this selection process may be particularly influential in the  
508 perception of male coloration by females in dim light environments (Fuller, Houle & Travis,  
509 2005), such as seagrass beds where *S. inermis* and *S. cheni* engage in foraging activities (Shoji et

510 al., 2017). In these environments, the persistence of intermediate colour morphotypes in RW  
511 individuals is not only explained through the synergy of size-assortative mating and colour  
512 preferences of females, but also through their higher fitness at foraging and performing defensive  
513 responses against predators, since a red-brown colouration may provide camouflage within  
514 seagrass beds, making it more difficult to detect compared to the red coloration of *S. inermis*  
515 against the seagrass background (Fuller, Houle & Travis, 2005; Deville et al., 2023).

516 Despite the advantages conferred by assortative mating and selective traits of RW hybrids in  
517 specific environments, hybridization rates can be reduced due to polygamy (Shinomiya & Ezaki,  
518 1991). Females generally can mate with males of the same species, limiting interbreeding to  
519 special circumstances. The selective advantage of other hybrids, along with assortative mating,  
520 and polygamy, can also explain the lack of intermediate morphotypes between *S. inermis* and *S.*  
521 *ventricosus* with lower growth rates and potential fitness disadvantages, which can be  
522 contributing to the reproductive isolation between these species (*i.e.*, reinforcement)  
523 (Dobzhansky, 1940; Servedio & Noor, 2003). Furthermore, considering the increased probability  
524 of hybridization events due to stock enhancement programmes releasing thousands of juveniles  
525 from the three species along the coastal waters of Japan (Nakagawa, 2008), assortative mating,  
526 polygamy, and reinforcement gain significance in maintaining species integrity and preventing  
527 further hybridization.

### 528 **Speciation-with-gene-flow in the species complex**

529 The patterns of hybridization observed in these rockfish species provide strong evidence for the  
530 semipermeable nature of their species boundaries (Harrison & Larson, 2014), indicating that they  
531 fall into the second and third stages of speciation described by Wu (2001). In these stages,  
532 introgression can only occur in genomic regions not crucial for maintaining species boundaries,

533 parent species can hybridize forming hybrid swarms consisting of fertile hybrids with  
534 intermediate morphotypes (Mayr, 1963; Wu, 2001), and their independent evolution in sympatry  
535 is maintained through competitive exclusion (Wu, 2001; Deville et al., 2023). The occurrence of  
536 two loci under putative directional selection (Ks7 and CGN1, **Table S3**), with “outlier” high  
537  $F_{ST}$  values along with hybrids and independent divergence of each species support the scenario  
538 of speciation-with-gene-flow whereby these two loci are linked to genomic regions of  
539 divergence, which contain genes crucial for maintaining species boundaries that may not be  
540 exchanged during hybridization (Nosil, Funk & Ortiz-Barrientos, 2009).

541 In a scenario of speciation-with-gene-flow, species divergence is greatly driven by divergent  
542 selection related to specific habitats or environments (Feder, Egan & Nosil, 2012), as supported  
543 by their ecomorphological divergences in sympatry (Deville et al., 2023). The anomalously high  
544 interspecific divergence in loci under putative directional selection ( $F_{ST} > 0.21$ ), along with low  
545 diversity values within each species and deviations from the HWE (especially in the CGN1  
546 locus) (**Table S2**), further support the occurrence of a purely ecological selective sweep  
547 (Schlötterer 2002, 2003; Buonaccorsi et al. 2011). This type of selective sweep occurs when a  
548 genomic region’s variation is reduced or eliminated due to its proximity to a new beneficial  
549 mutation that is increasing in frequency through recent adaptation (Hermisson & Pennings,  
550 2017). Other findings suggestive of an ecologically selective sweep are the absence of  $F_{ST}$   
551 outliers in Ks7 scored in other rockfishes inhabiting the same area, which are genetically close  
552 to the *S. inermis* species complex (An et al., 2009), since new advantageous mutations causing  
553 adaptive divergence and linked to the Ks7 loci might have appeared more recently. Similar  
554 cases of selective sweeps have been observed in closely related rockfishes occupying different  
555 depths (Buonaccorsi et al., 2011; Behrens et al., 2021; Olivares-Zambrano et al., 2022) and in

556 depth-related ecotypes within the same species (Saha et al., 2021). The occurrence of  
557 ecologically selective sweeps across *Sebastes* rockfishes indicates that recent adaptation to new  
558 environments is contributing to the ongoing diversification of species. Therefore, further  
559 characterization of the genomic variation surrounding the Ks7 and CGN1 loci is necessary to  
560 determine the conditions that promote diversification within the *S. inermis* complex.

### 561 **The “Kumano” morphotype**

562 The "Kumano" specimens exhibit a brown-red colouration and meristic patterns that overlap  
563 between *S. cheni* and *S. inermis*, but their otolith weight ~ age relationships are more similar to  
564 *S. cheni* (Fig. 2). This combination of morphological features explains why local fishermen  
565 consider this morphotype as a "big variant" of the red-coloured rockfish *S. inermis*. Although  
566 genetic divergences were not estimated due to the low number of individuals, the D-loop  
567 haplotypes indicate that the "Kumano" specimens are part of the species complex. Analysis of  
568 the Seb1 locus, used by Deville et al. (2023) to discriminate *S. ventricosus*, suggests that this  
569 morphotype does not possess the typical alleles of *S. ventricosus* (>160 bp) (Fig. S1). In terms of  
570 the two loci under putative directional selection, the "Kumano" specimens carry the most  
571 frequent allele of *S. inermis* in the CGN1 locus and some exclusive alleles in the Ks7 locus  
572 (Fig. S1). STRUCTURE analysis suggests a possible hybrid origin for the "Kumano" specimens,  
573 with approximately 75-82% of their ancestry corresponding to *S. inermis*, along with fractions of  
574 10-16% *S. cheni* in three individuals, and 16% *S. ventricosus* in one specimen. However, when  
575 four genetic clusters were inferred using STRUCTURE analysis, "Kumano" specimens and the  
576 RW morphotype were grouped together in a separate category with high Q-scores (Fig. 2).  
577 Additionally, a Consistent punctual amino acid replacement was observed at position 217 in some  
578 individuals, causing an amino acid replacement from threonine to methionine across the three

579 species of the complex (**Table S5**). This amino acid replacement has been associated with shifts  
580 into shallower waters in other rockfishes (Sivasundar & Palumbi, 2010). The position 217 falls  
581 under the 5th transmembrane domain, and possible changes in this position are related to  
582 modifications in the  $\lambda_{MAX}$ , which relates to visual sensitivity (Schott et al., 2014). These findings  
583 suggest that the endemic “Kumano” morphotype might present exclusive alleles in loci  
584 responsible for maintaining species divergence in the presence of sympatry and gene flow within  
585 the species complex. Considering this evidence, a hypothetical hybrid origin of this morphotype  
586 aligns with theoretical models predicting that introgression, combined with intermediate  
587 assortative mating and low variation in reproductive success, can act as a potential mechanism  
588 for rapid evolution in specific environments (Baskett & Gomulkiewicz, 2011). The first  
589 condition, intermediate assortative mating, is fulfilled in this species complex, while the second  
590 depends on the level of preference of females for the “Kumano” morphotype, which is  
591 considered “rare”. A comprehensive morphological and genetic characterization of more  
592 individuals is necessary to assess this hypothetical hybrid origin and support the emergence of  
593 “Kumano” as an incipient species resulting from the ongoing process of speciation-with-gene-  
594 flow within the *S. inermis* complex.

## 595 **Conclusions**

596

597 The dynamics of introgression and genetic divergences was assessed within the *Sebastes inermis*  
598 (*Sebastes cheni*, viz *Sebastes inermis*, *Sebastes ventricosus*, and their putative morphological  
599 hybrids) by using sequences of the mitochondrial control region (D-loop), the intron-free  
600 rhodopsin (RH1) gene, and 10 microsatellite loci. We hypothesize that each species would  
601 maintain its genetic divergence even in the presence of introgression, and that putative  
602 morphological hybrids would exhibit genetic admixed ancestry of the parent species. We found

603 large genetic divergences in D-loop, along with mutations in the RH1 gene, and three genetic  
604 clusters obtained from microsatellite loci, that are concordant with the morphological description  
605 of each species. Of the three species, *S. cheni* is the unique with a nonsynonymous mutation in  
606 the RH1 gene, which suggest differential adaptations of this species to dim light conditions.  
607 Introgression was confirmed through significant migration rates between species and admixed  
608 genetic ancestry. Two microsatellite loci under divergent selection suggest that they are possibly  
609 linked to genomic regions whereby interspecific gene flow is typically restricted because they  
610 are crucial for maintain species boundaries. A further characterization of genomic regions  
611 surrounding these loci is pending. Additionally, the genetic admixed ancestry, nonsynonymous  
612 mutation in the RH1 gene, and exclusive alleles in loci under divergent selection within one  
613 putative morphological hybrid known as “Kumano”, along with the independent divergence of  
614 each species point out the potential role of introgression regarding speciation within the *Sebastes*  
615 *inermis* complex. Our findings urge the need for further studies aimed to assess the relative  
616 fitness of hybrids and parentals in sympatry, specifically in the context of stock enhancement  
617 programmes, which can potentially increase chances of introgression within the species complex.

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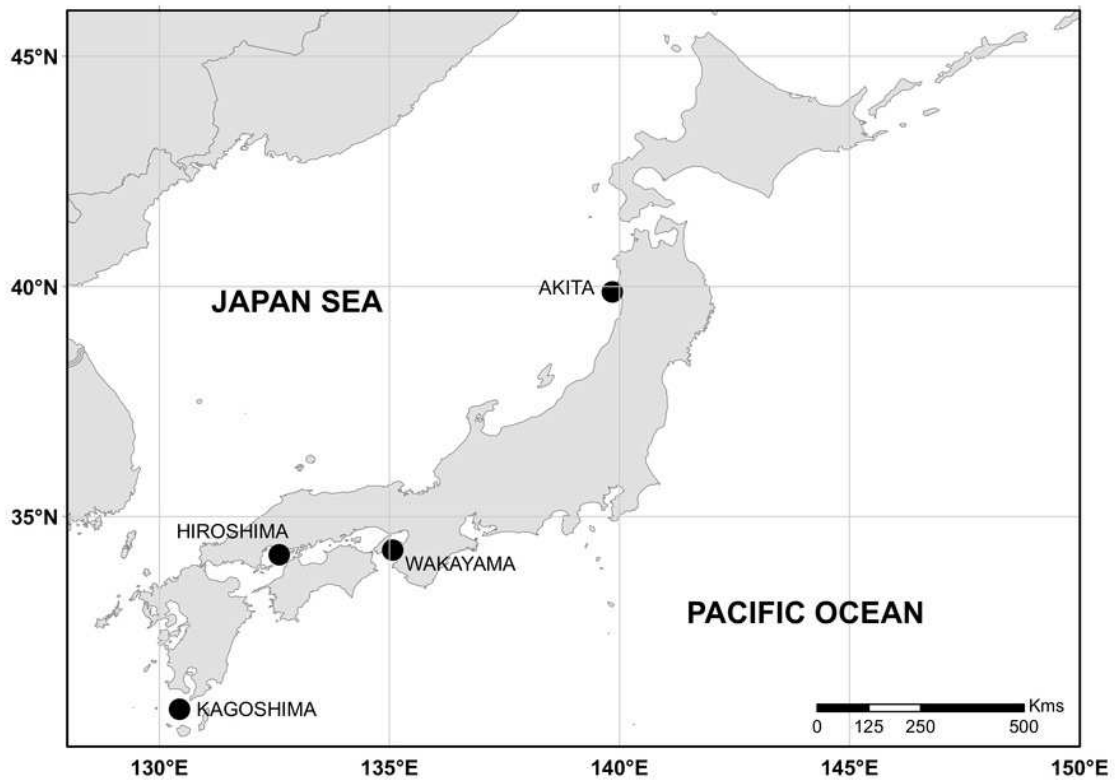
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870

# Figure 1

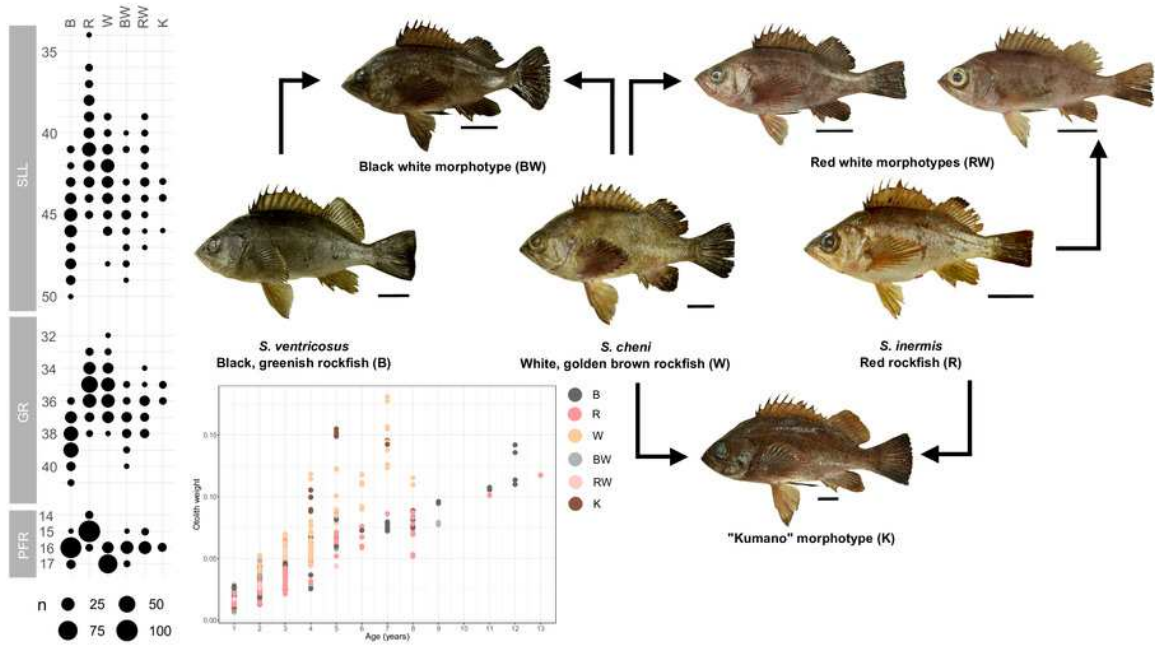
Sampling sites along coastal waters of Japan. Black points represent sampling sites.



## Figure 2

Colouration patterns, meristic counts, and otolith weight ~ age relationships of the three rockfishes *Sebastes cheni*, *Sebastes inermis*, and *Sebastes ventricosus*, and the putative morphological hybrids between them.

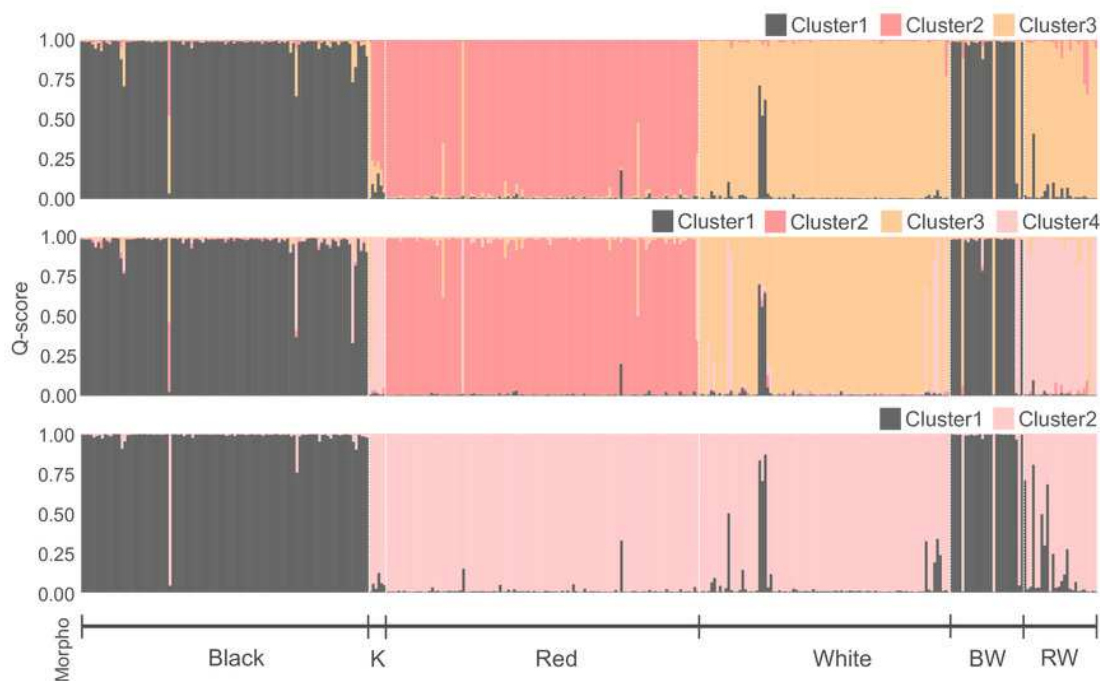
The frequency distributions of the number of pored lateral line scales (SLL), number of gill rakers of the first arch (GR), and number of radials of the pectoral fin (PFR) are indicated in each species and putative morphological hybrid. Reference sizes for frequencies are indicated below the three variables. Points in the otolith weight ~ age plot were coloured to ease distinction of species and putative morphological hybrids. Arrows connecting specimens indicate the hypothetical origin of each putative morphological hybrids. A scale of 3 cm was added next to each specimen as reference for size.



## Figure 3

Genetic clusters inferred in the *Sebastes inermis* complex using ten (above and middle) and eight microsatellite loci (above).

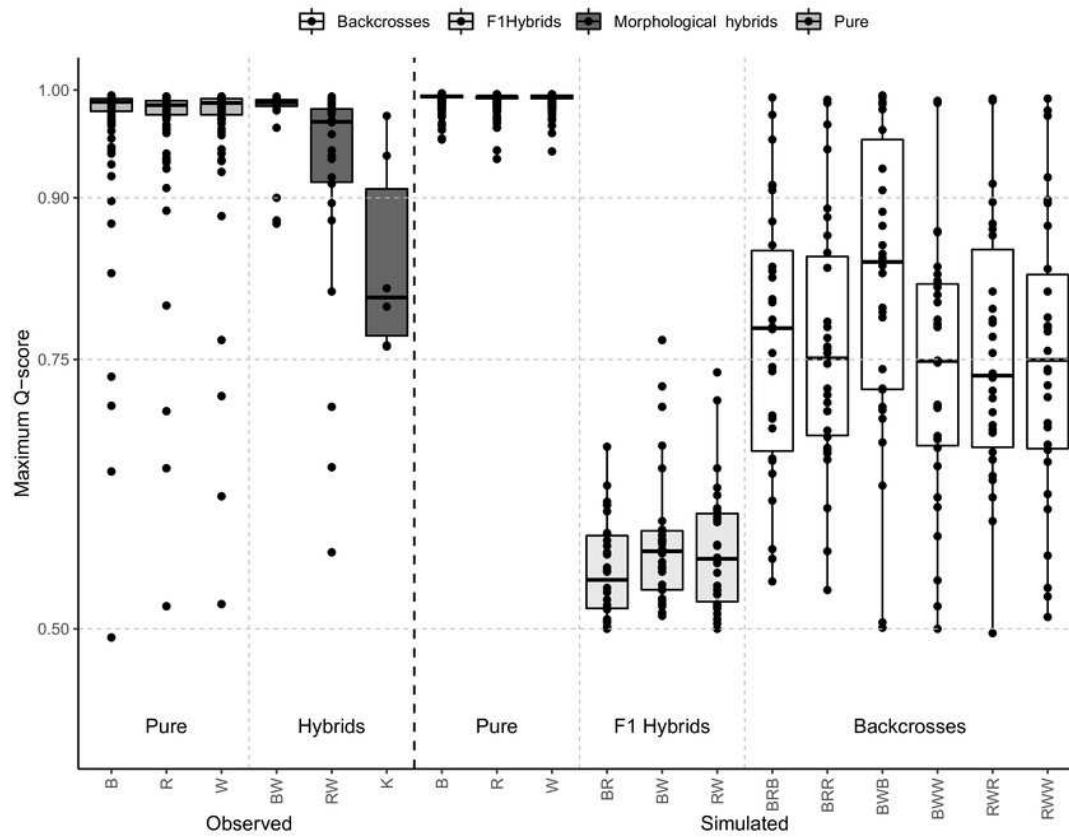
Individuals are coloured based on the percentage of their ancestry coefficients (Q-score) for each genetic cluster. Putative morphological hybrids are indicated as K (“Kumano”), BW (*S. cheni* - *S. ventricosus* morphotype), and RW (*S. cheni* - *S. inermis* morphotype).



## Figure 4

Distribution of maximum Q-scores calculated by STRUCTURE from the observed and simulated individuals separated by the bold vertical dashed line.

Central bold lines in the box plot indicate the medians; box limits represent the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quartiles; Q-scores are drawn as black circles. Different colours indicate whether boxplots are from pure, hybrids, or backcrosses as represented in the legend above. B: black rockfishes (*S. ventricosus*), R: red rockfishes (*S. inermis*), W: white rockfishes (*S. cheni*), K: “Kumano” morphotype, BW: black-white hybrids, BR: black-red hybrids, and RW: red-white hybrids. Backcrosses are represented with three letters, the first two indicate the F1 hybrid parental and the third one the pure parental. Thus, for example BRB: backcrosses from black-red F1 hybrids and pure black individuals.

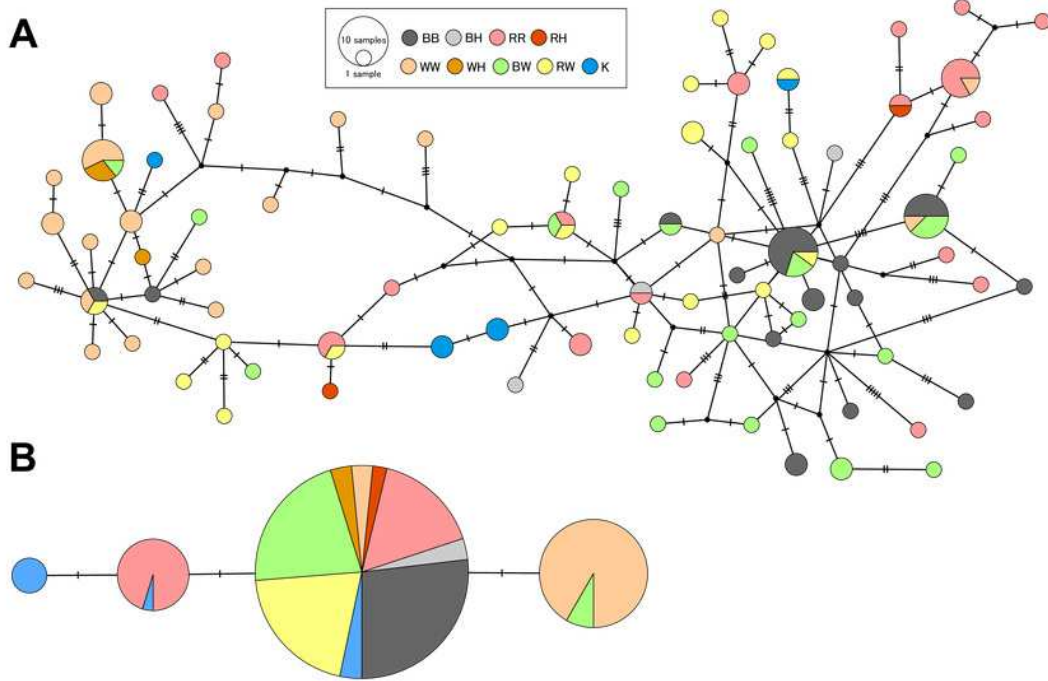




## Figure 5

Haplotype networks constructed from partial sequences of the mitochondrial control region (A) and the intron-free rhodopsin gene (B).

Colours indicate individuals assigned to a single species considering morphological and genetic information. BB, RR, and WW designate individuals identified as *S. ventricosus* (black rockfish), *S. inermis* (red rockfish) and *S. cheni* (white rockfish), respectively, in morphological and genetic analyses. BH, RH, and WH indicate individuals morphologically identified as black, red, and white rockfishes, respectively, but genetically classified as putative hybrids. BW and RW indicate specimens classified as putative morphological hybrids of black-white and red-white rockfishes based on their intermediate morphotypes. K designate to individuals from the “Kumano” morphotype collected off Wakayama.



**Table 1** (on next page)

Number of samples of each species and putative morphological hybrid collected in each sampling location.

Black-white and red-white putative morphological hybrids are indicated as *S. cheni* - *S. ventricosus* and *S. cheni* - *S. Inermis*, respectively.

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Morphotype	Akita	Hiroshima	Kagoshima	Wakayama	Total
<i>S. ventricosus</i>		41	28	33	102
<i>S. inermis</i>		42	32	37	111
<i>S. cheni</i>	30	43	3	13	89
<i>S. cheni</i> – <i>S. ventricosus</i>		22	1	3	26
<i>S. cheni</i> – <i>S. inermis</i>		19	7		26
Kumano				6	6
Total	30	167	71	94	360

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**Table 2** (on next page)

Descriptive statistics for each microsatellite locus in the three species.

N: sample size, Na: number of alleles, Ho: observed heterozygosity, and He: expected heterozygosity. Loci in bold font are under putative divergent selection.

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Locus	<i>S. cheni</i> (N = 86)			<i>S. inermis</i> (N = 111)			<i>S. ventricosus</i> (N = 102)		
	Na	Ho	He	Na	Ho	He	Na	Ho	He
SSC12	7	0.539	0.531	8	0.703	0.743	6	0.725	0.726
Seb1	8	0.730	0.672	26	0.631	0.654	70	0.951	0.971
KSs2	17	0.719	0.746	41	0.730	0.931	22	0.775	0.903
Sebi3	18	0.888	0.893	11	0.838	0.855	15	0.912	0.889
SSC23	8	0.629	0.605	14	0.838	0.798	9	0.696	0.727
<b>KSs7</b>	6	0.494	0.581	10	0.622	0.722	7	0.657	0.485
Sebi2	6	0.348	0.366	6	0.559	0.551	5	0.500	0.558
SRA7-7	16	0.876	0.873	15	0.793	0.830	15	0.804	0.838
KSs6	21	0.831	0.895	14	0.892	0.898	15	0.765	0.848
<b>CGN1</b>	11	0.584	0.752	8	0.649	0.679	6	0.480	0.594
Mean	11.8	0.664	0.691	15.3	0.725	0.766	17	0.726	0.754

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**Table 3**(on next page)

Genetic distances ( $F_{ST}$ ) estimated from D-loop sequences (below diagonal) and 10 microsatellite loci (above diagonal) using genetically pure individuals of each species and putative morphological hybrids collected off Hiroshima

Bold values indicate statistical significance ( $P$  value < 0.005).

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	<i>S. ventricosus</i>	<i>S. inermis</i>	<i>S. cheni</i>	Black-white	Red-white
<i>S. ventricosus</i>		<b>0.149</b>	<b>0.158</b>	0.011	<b>0.136</b>
<i>S. inermis</i>	<b>0.119</b>		<b>0.118</b>	<b>0.127</b>	<b>0.138</b>
<i>S. cheni</i>	<b>0.358</b>	<b>0.235</b>		<b>0.111</b>	<b>0.091</b>
Black-white	0.003	<b>0.104</b>	<b>0.254</b>		<b>0.087</b>
Red-white	<b>0.204</b>	<b>0.113</b>	<b>0.187</b>	<b>0.124</b>	

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