

Inter-chromosomal coupling between vision and pigmentation genes during genomic divergence

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Recombination between loci underlying mate choice and ecological traits is a major evolutionary force acting against speciation with gene flow. The evolution of linkage disequilibrium between such loci is therefore a fundamental step in the origin of species. Here, we show that this process can take place in the absence of physical linkage in hamlets—a group of closely related reef fishes from the wider Caribbean that differ essentially in colour pattern and are reproductively isolated through strong visually-based assortative mating. Using full-genome analysis, we identify four narrow genomic intervals that are consistently differentiated among sympatric species in a backdrop of extremely low genomic divergence. These four intervals include genes involved in pigmentation (*sox10*), axial patterning (*hoxc13a*), photoreceptor development (*casz1*) and visual sensitivity (*SWS* and *LWS* opsins) that develop islands of long-distance and inter-chromosomal linkage disequilibrium as species diverge. The relatively simple genomic architecture of species differences facilitates the evolution of linkage disequilibrium in the presence of gene flow.

How new species may arise and persist in the presence of gene flow is a fundamental and unresolved question in our understanding of the origins of biological diversity. This issue is particularly relevant in the ocean, where physical barriers are often poorly defined and pelagic larvae provide potential for extensive gene flow, but which nonetheless harbours some of the most diverse communities on Earth¹. Indeed, diversity on coral reefs rivals the diversity seen in tropical forests², and coral reef fish communities are among the most species-rich assemblages of vertebrates. The origin of coral reef fish families and functional groups dates back to the Palaeocene (66 million years ago); however, the vast majority of species arose within the past 5.3 Myr, with closely related species often differing primarily with respect to colour and patterning³.

The hamlets (*Hypoplectrus* species; Serranidae)—a complex of 18 closely related reef fishes from the wider Caribbean (Fig. 1a)—provide an excellent context to explore speciation in the sea. Hamlets differ most notably in colour pattern, a trait that has been suggested to have direct ecological implications in terms of crypsis^{4,5} and mimicry^{4,6–8}. Additionally, colour pattern plays a central role for reproductive isolation in this complex. Individuals mate assortatively with respect to colour pattern^{5,7,9,10} and it has been experimentally established that mate choice is driven by visual cues¹¹. Nonetheless, spawnings between different species are observed at a low frequency (<2%) in natural populations^{5,7,9,10}. Larvae from inter-specific crosses grow and develop normally¹²; those that have been raised past the juvenile stage show intermediate colour pattern phenotypes¹¹, and individuals with intermediate phenotypes are also observed in natural populations at a low frequency¹³. Patterns of genetic divergence among species indicate that the radiation encompasses the entire range of genomic divergence (referred to as the speciation continuum¹⁴), from species that are nearly genetically indistinguishable^{7,9,10,15,16} to those that are well diverged^{17,18}. There is extensive sympatry among hamlet species, with up to nine species co-occurring on Caribbean reefs¹⁰ with a high degree of overlap in feeding ecology and habitat^{19,20}.

Here, we focus on the lower end of the speciation continuum and examine patterns of genomic divergence among the three most abundant, widespread and genetically similar hamlets—the black hamlet (*H. nigricans*), barred hamlet (*H. puella*) and butter hamlet (*H. unicolor*) (Fig. 1a). We take advantage of their extensive and overlapping distributions to sample the three species in three reef systems in Panama, Honduras and Belize. This sampling design provides the opportunity to identify the genomic regions that are consistently differentiated among sympatric species across locations. Furthermore, microsatellite and restriction site-associated DNA (RAD) sequencing data from the same species and locations indicate that the levels of genetic differentiation among sympatric species are similar to the levels of differentiation among populations within species^{13,16,21}, providing an opportunity to contrast between-species and between-population genetic architectures.

Given the slight genetic differences among species and the link between colour pattern, natural selection and mate choice, we made two predictions regarding genome-wide patterns of differentiation and divergence among the three species. First, we predicted that regions showing elevated and consistent differentiation between species would contain loci with strong functional links to either the development or the perception of colour pattern. Second, we reasoned that linkage disequilibrium (the non-random association of alleles at different loci) among these regions would develop as species diverge. Our second prediction derives from an influential theoretical paper by Felsenstein²², who identified recombination between loci underlying mate choice and ecological traits as a major evolutionary force acting against speciation with gene flow, with the corollary that the evolution of linkage disequilibrium between such loci is a fundamental step in the origin of species²². Empirical studies have shown that pleiotropy or physical linkage provide a direct way to generate associations between mate choice and ecology^{23–25}, but it remains unclear whether and how long-distance linkage disequilibrium or inter-chromosomal linkage disequilibrium (ILD) between

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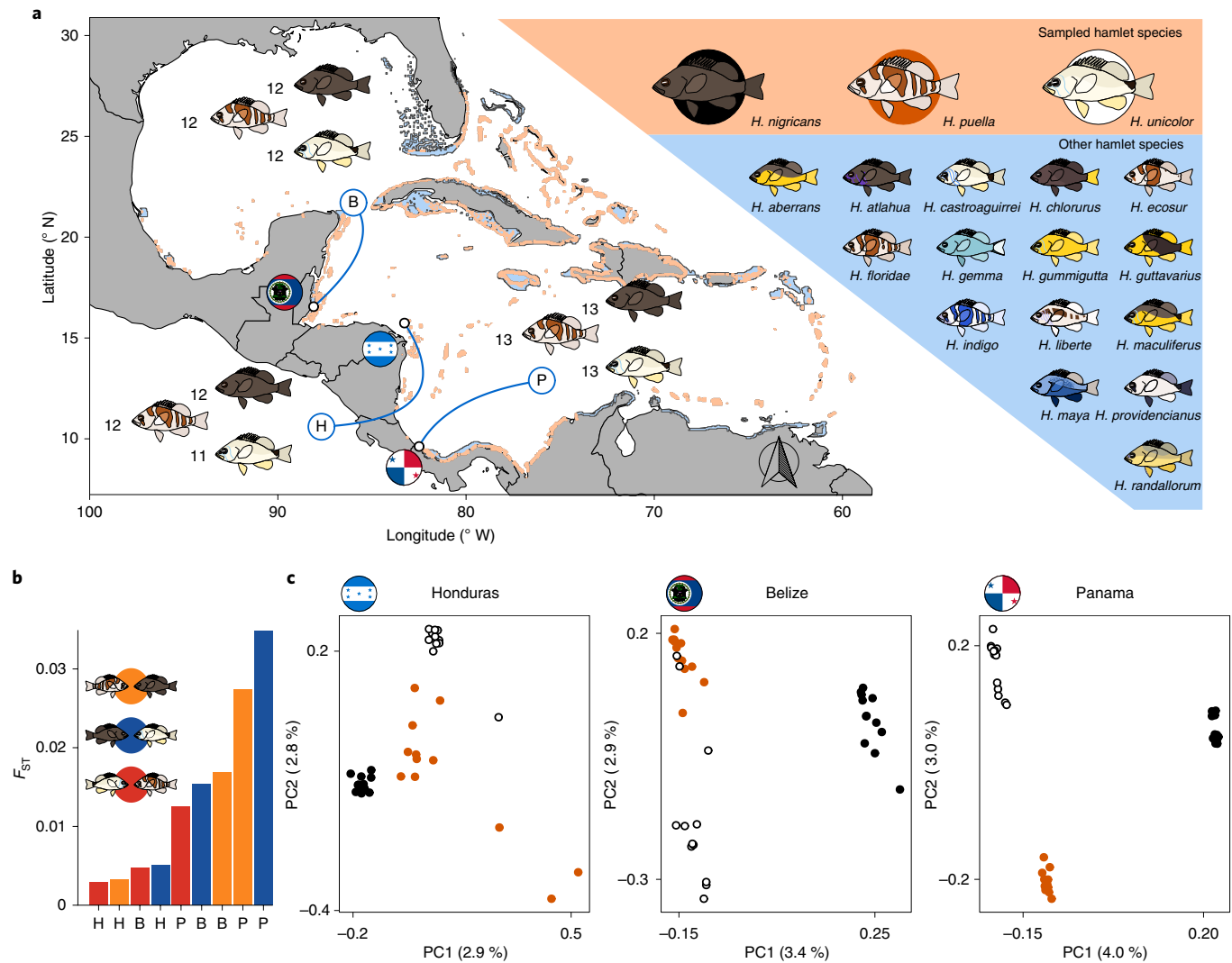


Fig. 1 | Sampling design and whole-genome population genetic patterns. **a**, Three sympatric species from three locations. (B, Belize; H, Honduras; P, Panama) were targeted for resequencing. The area of sympatry among the three sampled species is highlighted in orange, and the distribution of the whole genus is shown in blue¹⁴². The three sampled species are the most common and widely distributed, but they represent just a fraction of the full hamlet diversity. Numbers indicate sample sizes. **b**, F_{ST} estimates among pairs of sympatric species, in order of increasing F_{ST} . Colours indicate the species pair, and labels on the x axis the location. **c**, PCA within each location, including genomic data from a total of 8,247,395 SNPs. PC, principal component.

loci underlying mate choice and ecological traits may develop in the presence of gene flow¹⁴.

Results and discussion

Genome assembly and resequencing. To test these hypotheses, we assembled a reference genome for the hamlets. We used a combination of Illumina (245×) and PacBio (10×) data to assemble scaffolds, which were then anchored to a high-density linkage map including 24 linkage groups (denoted by ‘LG’ followed by a number)²⁶, matching the 24 chromosomes expected in serranids²⁷. The resulting assembly was 612 megabases (Mb) long with 92% of scaffolds anchored to the linkage map, resulting in a super-scaffold n50 of 24 Mb. We annotated 27,469 genes using a combination of ab initio gene predictions and RNA sequencing data from a variety of tissue types. Overall, there was broad synteny between the hamlet genome and the genome of the most closely related species with a similar high-quality genome—the three-spined stickleback *Gasterosteus aculeatus* (Supplementary Fig. 1).

Whole-genome analysis of 110 individuals (Fig. 1a) confirmed the striking genetic similarity among species and revealed

differences in patterns of genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) among species in the three locations. Pairwise F_{ST} values among sympatric species ranged from 0.003 between *H. puella* and *H. unicolor* in Honduras to 0.035 between *H. unicolor* and *H. nigricans* in Panama (Fig. 1b). In all three locations, principal component analysis (PCA) clustered individuals by species; however, overall genetic differentiation among species showed differences among locations and was lowest in Honduras (F_{ST} among the three species = 0.004), intermediate in Belize (F_{ST} = 0.012) and highest in Panama (F_{ST} = 0.025) (Fig. 1c). PCA also suggested that some individuals might be of hybrid origin (for example, the two butter hamlets from Belize that clustered with barred hamlets). This hypothesis was corroborated by additional analyses based on Mendelian inheritance patterns of a small subset of highly differentiated single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). A total of 8 high-probability hybrids or backcrosses were identified out of the 110 samples (5 in Belize, 2 in Honduras and 1 in Panama; Supplementary Fig. 2), establishing that gene flow is ongoing among species.

Similar to previous studies in other taxa^{28–30}, differentiation was highly heterogeneous across the genome in local comparisons

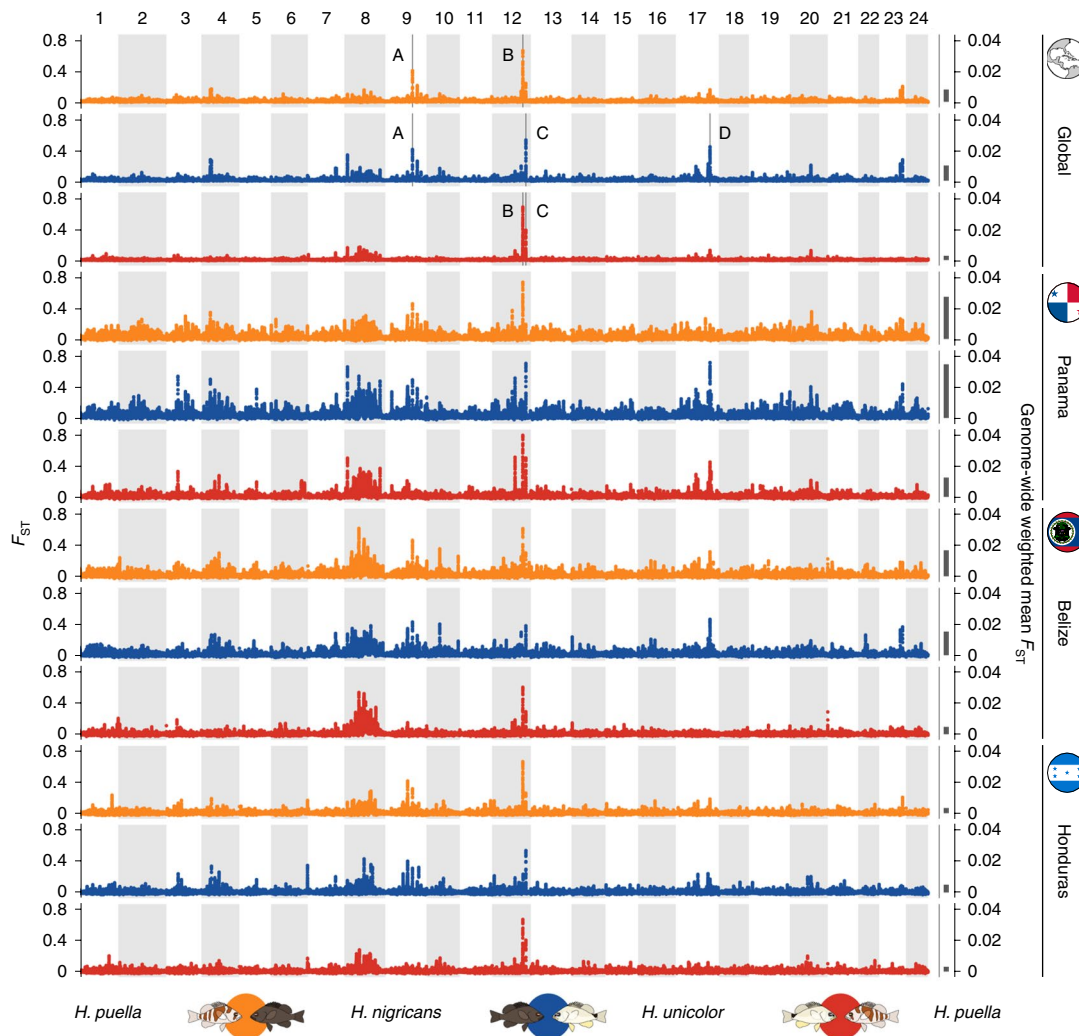


Fig. 2 | Patterns of genomic differentiation among black (*H. nigricans*), barred (*H. puella*) and butter (*H. unicolor*) hamlets. The alternating white and grey blocks represent the 24 linkage groups. Each species pair is represented by one colour, pooled across locations (global) and within each location (Belize, Honduras and Panama). F_{ST} values correspond to the weighted mean per 50-kb window with 5-kb increments. Vertical bars on the right indicate the genome-wide weighted mean F_{ST} (note the different scale). The four genomic intervals above the 99.98th F_{ST} percentile in the global comparison are highlighted with a vertical line and labelled A–D.

(Fig. 2), and a similar pattern was also evident when considering genotype \times phenotype (G \times P) associations (Supplementary Fig. 3). Notably, a large section of LG08 exhibited generally elevated levels of differentiation in all local comparisons. This may be explained by low levels of recombination along this linkage group (Supplementary Fig. 4), which might harbour a large chromosomal inversion. Nevertheless, patterns of differentiation in LG08 were not entirely consistent across locations or species, resulting in relatively weak differentiation in our global comparisons where samples were pooled across locations (Fig. 2, top panel).

Vision and pigmentation genes. In contrast with the pattern in LG08, four small (50–100-kilobase (kb)) genomic intervals were strongly and consistently differentiated among species, forming sharp ‘genomic islands’³¹ that stood out above the 99.98th percentile in the global comparisons considering either F_{ST} (Fig. 2) or G \times P association (Supplementary Fig. 3). In agreement with our first hypothesis, each contained at least one candidate gene with a strong functional connection to either the development of colour pattern or sensory processes involved in pattern perception.

The sharp peak on LG09 (A in Fig. 2) contained *sox10* (Fig. 3a). This gene encodes a transcription factor that has been shown to be involved in the development of melanophores in zebrafish^{32,33}. The role of this gene in melanization is consistent with the finding of strong differentiation at this locus between the melanic species (*H. nigricans*) and the other two non-melanic species (*H. puella* and *H. unicolor*). Similarly, a strongly differentiated interval on LG12 (C in Fig. 2) was centred on the *hoxca* gene cluster (Fig. 3c). This region was identified in a previous genome scan using RAD sequencing¹⁶, but our new reference genome allowed us to localize the interval far more precisely. Hox genes code for homeodomain-containing transcription factors that play a central role in the patterning of tissues along the body axis, with 3’ genes expressed anteriorly and 5’ genes expressed posteriorly³⁴. Hox genes can also be involved in the development of colour pattern phenotype. For example, they have been shown to play a role in the regulation of body pigmentation in birds³⁵ and *Drosophila*³⁶, as well as in eyespot formation on butterfly wings³⁷. The strongest F_{ST} signal was positioned on *hoxc13a* specifically—the most 5’ gene of the *hoxca* cluster. This gene is known to be expressed in the caudal peduncle and at the pigment appearance stage in fishes^{38,39}. Again, the specific role of this locus

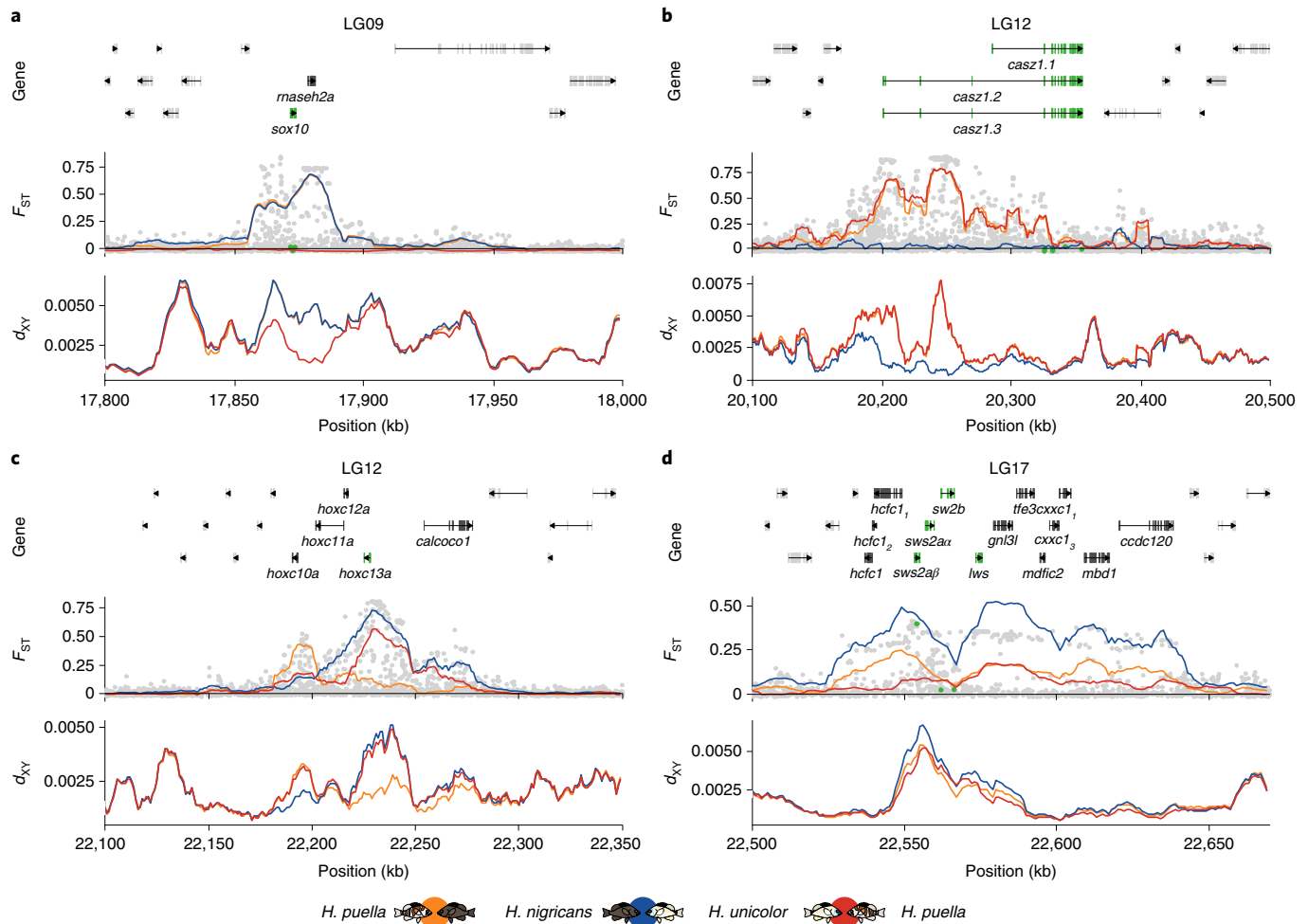


Fig. 3 | Closer investigation of the candidate intervals. a–d. Linkage group, annotation, F_{ST} , d_{XY} and genomic position for each of the four intervals above the 99.98th F_{ST} percentile (A–D, respectively, in Fig. 2). For clarity, only the genes in high F_{ST} regions are labelled, with candidate genes and non-synonymous SNPs within these genes highlighted in green. Coloured lines correspond to pairwise species comparisons (weighted mean; 10-kb window and 1-kb increments), and dots correspond to global F_{ST} values among the three species on a SNP basis. In all comparisons, species samples are pooled across the three locations.

in patterning is consistent with pattern differences among hamlet species. This interval strongly differentiated *H. unicolor*, which has a prominent dark saddle on the caudal peduncle, from the other two species that lack this pattern. The possibility that hox genes may be involved in the development of colour pattern differences at a very shallow phylogenetic level in hamlets is intriguing and may provide an opportunity to better understand the links between micro- and macroevolutionary processes.

The remaining two highly differentiated genomic intervals contained candidate loci with strong functional connections to vision. One of these two intervals was on LG12 (B in Fig. 2) and fell in an apparently non-genic region upstream of *casz1* that strongly differentiated *H. puella* from the other two uniformly coloured species (Fig. 3b). The protein encoded by *casz1* is a castor zinc finger transcription factor involved in a number of processes through development, including the development of photoreceptors⁴⁰. Given that the visual system grows continuously in teleost fishes, we examined RNA expression in the retinas of 24 adult black, barred and butter hamlets from Panama. We confirmed that *casz1* is consistently and strongly expressed in the retina, and also identified two splice variants of *casz1* that extend the coding region across a large part of this peak (Fig. 3b). The other interval, on LG17 (D in Fig. 2), contained a cluster of short- and long-wave sensitive opsin genes (*sws2a β* , *sws2a α* ,

sws2b and *lws*; Fig. 3d) that play a key role in the fine-tuning of visual sensitivity⁴¹. Unlike the previous intervals, which each differentiated a particular species from the other two, differentiation at this interval was not clearly species-specific. It was strongest in the comparison between the melanic (*H. nigricans*) and white (*H. unicolor*) species, where it presented a peak–valley–peak pattern that may reflect parallel adaptation from standing genetic variation^{42,43}.

These four highly differentiated genomic intervals were narrow, and our highlighted candidate genes were not selectively picked from a large set of loci: the first peak on LG12 (B) contained only *casz1*; the second one (C) contained only hox genes (except for the *calcoco1* locus) and was centred on *hoxc13a* specifically; and the peak on LG09 (A) contained only two genes, *sox10* and *maseh2a* (Fig. 3). The last highly differentiated interval on LG17 (D) contained more genes, but the peak–valley–peak pattern was centred on the opsin genes specifically, with *sws2b* in the valley, and *sws2a β* , *sws2a α* and *lws* in the two flanking peaks (Fig. 3). In line with ref.⁴⁴, simulations indicate that a combination of large effective population size ($N_e = 10,000$), intermediate migration rate ($m = 0.01$) and strong selection ($s = 0.1–0.5$) may generate sharp peaks of differentiation as observed in the hamlets (Supplementary Fig. 5).

It is noteworthy that all but one of the diverged SNPs in the four regions are either in non-coding regions or synonymous, suggesting

that species differences are mainly driven by regulatory mechanisms. The only exception was one diverged, non-synonymous SNP on *sws2aβ* that corresponds to the bovine rhodopsin amino acid 200. Although not a known spectral tuning site, the location of this amino acid suggests that it might possibly be involved in spectral tuning⁴¹. We also note that only three genes (*chac1_1*, *sema4b* and *cyp3a27*) showed significant differences in expression among species in the retinal tissue (Supplementary Fig. 6), yet our methodology does not allow for the capture of differences in expression that may occur during development, in specific light environments (for example, at dusk at the time of spawning) or in specific cell types.

Additional vision and pigmentation genes were identified by extending our analyses to the genomic regions above the 99.90th F_{ST} percentile that presented weaker or less consistent differentiation among species. This less stringent selection identified 14 additional intervals across 7 linkage groups (Supplementary Figs. 7 and 8 and Supplementary Table 1), 4 of which contained further vision or pigmentation genes (Supplementary Fig. 9). *ednrb* on LG04 (E in Supplementary Fig. 7) is involved in zebrafish melanophore and iridophore development⁴⁵ and again differentiated *H. nigricans* from the other non-melanic species. One interval on LG08 (F in Supplementary Fig. 7) presented a non-species-specific peak–valley–peak pattern centred on *foxd3*, which encodes a transcription factor also involved in melanophore differentiation in zebrafish⁴⁶. A further interval on LG08 (G in Supplementary Fig. 7) included *orb*, which plays a critical role during photoreceptor differentiation in mice⁴⁷. Similar to *casz1* (the other gene involved in photoreceptor development), *orb* singled out *H. puella* and was consistently and strongly expressed in the retina (Supplementary Fig. 6). Finally, *invs* on LG20 (H in Supplementary Fig. 7) is involved in the transport of opsins into the outer segment of photoreceptors⁴⁸.

Long-distance linkage disequilibrium and barrier genes. The four intervals that showed marked differentiation in our genome-wide comparison were either on different linkage groups or 2 Mb apart on the same linkage group (B and C), which is well beyond physical linkage in hamlets (Supplementary Fig. 10d). The four candidate intervals are therefore not physically linked. Nevertheless, in line with our second hypothesis, these intervals showed islands of elevated long-distance linkage disequilibrium and ILD in a backdrop of nearly zero genome-wide ILD (Fig. 4a,b). In addition, there was a build-up of ILD with increasing genome-wide differentiation, with the weakest ILD in Honduras, intermediate in Belize and most pronounced in Panama (Fig. 4c,d). As expected, there was no ILD among these intervals within species (Fig. 4e). The same patterns were observed when considering the four additional vision and pigmentation genes above the 99.90th F_{ST} percentile (Supplementary Fig. 11).

Local regions of strong differentiation can arise for a number of reasons^{49,50}, including processes unrelated to speciation such as background selection⁵¹ or the sorting of ancestral polymorphisms⁵². These processes are almost certainly operating within hamlet species. Indeed, we see an expected build-up of genetic differentiation across a large region on LG08 with very low recombination. This region may be a large chromosomal inversion and is exceptional as it contains 6 of the 14 intervals that showed moderate levels of differentiation among species. Nonetheless, the sharp erosion in overall levels of differentiation among species in our global comparisons, coupled with the elevated differentiation among populations of the same species (Supplementary Fig. 12), suggests that this region does not contain loci that are essential for the maintenance of species differences and that, if it does contain an inversion, it is polymorphic both within and between species.

In contrast, there are a number of compelling reasons to argue that the four intervals that showed much stronger and consistent differentiation among species contain the loci responsible for reproductive isolation. Foremost, all of them contain genes involved in

vision, pigmentation or patterning in vertebrates, fitting our initial expectations about the types of loci involved in speciation based on the ecology and reproductive biology of these species. This pattern is even more compelling when considering that variation at the candidate loci for pigmentation (*sox10*) and patterning (*hoxc13a*) parallels the specific colour pattern differences that characterize hamlets (melanization and marking on the caudal peduncle). Moreover, our sampling design permits us to isolate genomic intervals that are consistently differentiated among species across locations, effectively filtering out processes acting within populations, and to establish that differentiation is specific to between-species comparisons. In contrast with the low-recombining region on LG08, differentiation in the four intervals was weaker or absent when comparing populations within species (Supplementary Fig. 12). Furthermore, the effects of background selection are unlikely to be important in the earliest stages of differentiation studied here⁵³. This is confirmed by the weak genome-wide correlation between recombination rate and differentiation, and by the fact that our four candidate intervals do not show particularly low recombination rates (Supplementary Fig. 10). Finally, patterns of differentiation (F_{ST}) across these intervals were paralleled by genetic divergence (d_{xy} ; Fig. 3). This is the expected genomic signature of so-called barrier genes⁵⁴ that maintain species differences in the face of gene flow⁵⁵.

Linkage disequilibrium, gene flow and speciation in the sea. In the presence of gene flow, the extent of selection that is required to maintain long-distance linkage disequilibrium or ILD increases with the number of loci involved⁵⁶. This is because the number of possible genotypes in backcrosses increases exponentially with the number of loci⁵⁷. Thus, disproportionately stronger selection is required to filter species-specific genotypes as the number of loci increases⁵⁵. In hamlets, a small number of genomic intervals are strongly and consistently differentiated among species. This simple genetic architecture is expected to facilitate the build-up of ILD. Furthermore, differentiation is species specific at three of these genomic intervals. Accordingly, long-distance linkage disequilibrium and ILD are not systematically observed among all pairs of intervals in all species pairs (Supplementary Fig. 13).

Once gene flow is sufficiently reduced through strong assortative mating, divergence and linkage disequilibrium can accumulate rapidly by a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic forces⁵⁶. This is exactly the pattern we capture within the three hamlet species, which show a gradient of increasing differentiation and linkage disequilibrium among populations (Figs. 1b,c and 4c,d and Supplementary Fig. 11b). The build-up of more pervasive ILD might be aided by epistatic interactions among loci. For example, *foxd3* on LG08 and *sox10* on LG09 both regulate the expression of *mitf*, a transcription factor involved in the development of melanophores in zebrafish^{33,46}. *ednrb* on LG04 (ref. 45) is also involved in the development of melanophores in zebrafish, and these three intervals show strong ILD when compared between the melanic (*H. nigricans*) and white (*H. unicolor*) species (Supplementary Fig. 14).

Our data provide a compelling scenario where speciation is driven by a combination of assortative mating and natural selection acting on a small number of large-effect loci, among which long-distance linkage disequilibrium and ILD are maintained in the presence of gene flow. The relatively simple genomic architecture underlying species differences in hamlets parallels that observed in parapatric bird subspecies²⁹, parapatric butterflies races³⁰ and depth-segregated cichlid ecomorphs²⁸, and we suggest that such a simple genomic architecture may be an important initial condition for the origin of many new species. Hamlets stand out from these other case studies by being fully sympatric at both the macro (overlapping distributions) and micro (overlapping habitats) geographic scales. In this respect, they provide a counter-example to the idea that divergence tends to be genomically widespread among

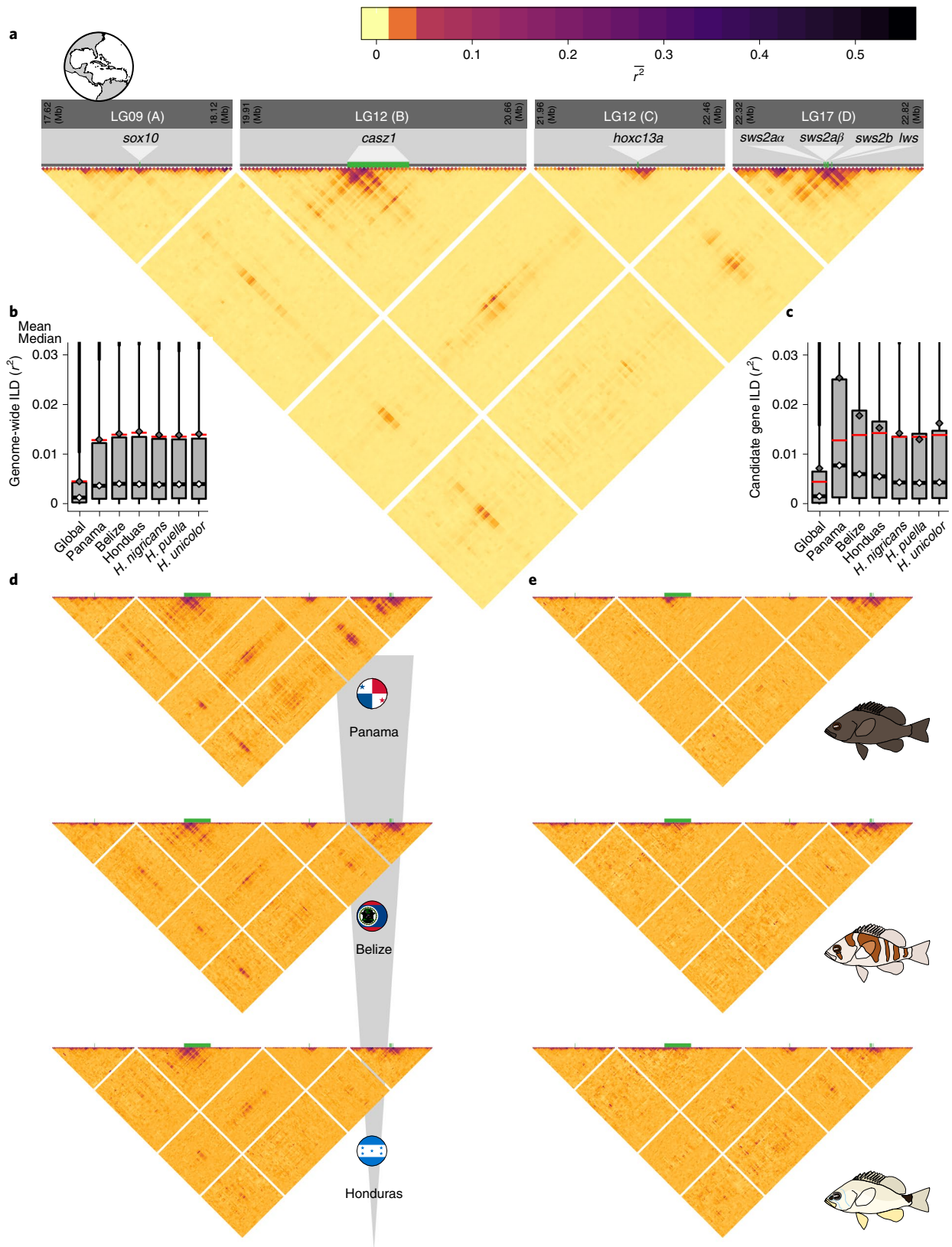


Fig. 4 | Long-distance linkage disequilibrium and ILD among the four candidate intervals. a, The four intervals displayed islands of increased linkage disequilibrium. **b**, Genome-wide ILD. Box edges represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, whiskers show 1.5x the interquartile range, dots are outliers, and red lines represent the r^2 expectation for the mean ($1/2n$, where n is the sample size). Genome-wide ILD was lower for the global dataset due to the larger sample size ($n=110$) compared with the location- and species-specific datasets ($n=35-39$). **c**, ILD among the four candidate intervals. **d**, Linkage disequilibrium among the four intervals increased with increasing differentiation among species (grey gradient). **e**, In contrast, linkage disequilibrium among the four intervals was low or absent within species. r^2 values are shown on a SNP basis in **b** and **c** and averaged over two-dimensional bins of 10×10 kb in **a, d** and **e**.

species that are fully sympatric¹⁴. The relatively simple genomic architecture observed in hamlets also contrasts with other systems in which differentiation is more widespread across the genome^{58–60}. Factors contributing to this difference may include recent divergence, relatively high levels of gene flow associated with extensive sympatry, and a simple genetic basis of the traits involved in reproductive isolation in hamlets. In addition, the two-week planktonic larval stage of hamlets provides potential for long-distance dispersal¹¹. Nonetheless, our genomic data show that local evolutionary processes are operating in three communities separated by only a few hundred kilometres, despite this dispersal phase. For example, *H. puella* and *H. unicolor* present two marked peaks of differentiation on LG17 in Panama that are not observed in Belize and Honduras for the same species pair. Marine speciation can therefore be characterized by local, heterogeneous and complex processes, as observed in terrestrial and freshwater systems notwithstanding the apparent homogeneity of the marine environment.

Methods

Sampling. The majority of samples considered in this study were already available from previous studies^{7,10}. New samples were only collected in Bocas del Toro (Panama) for RNA expression analysis (following methods published previously⁶¹ and relevant ethical regulations under Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute (STRI) Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee protocol 2017-0101-2020-2 and Panamanian Ministry of Environment permits SC/A-53-16 and SEX/A-35-17). Samples for expression analysis were collected in the early afternoon, kept in tanks overnight under natural light conditions and processed at noon on the following day. Only samples that could be unambiguously assigned to species on the basis of their colour pattern were considered.

Software versions, parameter settings and scripts. Software versions and parameter settings were omitted from the text for readability. Software versions are instead listed in Supplementary Table 2. All software parameter settings and scripts needed to reproduce our results, from raw data to figures, are provided in the accompanying repository (https://doi.org/10.3289/SW_2_2018; hereafter, git).

De novo genome assembly. Library preparation and sequencing. Genome assembly was based on a single barred hamlet (*H. puella*) from Panama (ID: 27678; Supplementary Table 3). Genomic DNA was extracted from gill and muscle tissue using Qiagen MagAttract kits. Four paired-end 2 × 151-base pair (bp) libraries with insert sizes ranging from roughly 250 to 320 bp were prepared, as well as one paired-end 2 × 251-bp PCR-free library with a 580-bp insert size (Supplementary Table 4). Furthermore, two mate-pair libraries with insert sizes of about 2.5 and 4.3 kb were prepared. All paired-end and mate-pair libraries were sequenced on Illumina HiSeq 2000/2500 platforms. Finally, Illumina data were complemented with longer PacBio reads from 20 single molecule, real-time (SMRT) sequencing cells. All sequencing for genome assembly was done at the Duke Center for Genomic and Computational Biology.

For annotation, RNA was extracted from gill, liver and muscle tissue from a single individual (ID: 16_2130; Supplementary Table 3) with an Invitrogen PureLink mRNA Mini Kit and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq at the STRI in Panama. Additionally, RNA was extracted from the retinal tissue of 24 hamlets from Bocas del Toro, Panama (Supplementary Table 5), and sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq platform by Novogene.

Illumina sequencing data preparation. Before assembly, the sequencing data were preprocessed to remove low-quality reads and possible contamination. As a first step, Illumina adaptors and low-quality reads were trimmed or filtered using Trimmomatic⁶² (paired-end and mate-pair libraries; git 1.1.1.1) and NextClip⁶³ (mate-pair libraries; git 1.1.1.2 and 1.1.1.3).

To check for contamination, the filtered data were screened for bacterial and viral content using Kraken⁶⁴ (default database and settings; git 1.1.1.4 and 1.1.1.5), and classified reads were discarded using seqtk (<https://github.com/lh3/seqtk>; git 1.1.1.6). To remove possible human contamination, a two-step approach was applied. First, the reads were mapped against the human genome (GRCh38.p5) using Bowtie2 (ref. ⁶⁵) and hits were removed from the sample (git 1.1.1.7). The discarded reads were then mapped against the genome of the Asian seabass *Lates calcarifer*⁶⁶ (git 1.1.1.8). The aim was to identify reads from conserved regions shared between the hamlet and the human genome. These reads were then merged back into the original samples (git 1.1.1.9).

PacBio sequencing data preparation. Preparation of the PacBio data was done with proovread⁶⁷ and Trimmomatic (git 1.1.2.0–1.1.2.5). The first 25 bp of all reads were trimmed to remove PacBio adaptors. Then, a subset (~40×) of the filtered 2 × 251-bp PCR-free Illumina library (number 5 in Supplementary Table 4) was mapped

against the PacBio data. The mapping results were used to correct the PacBio reads and break apart chimeric reads. The whole process was parallelized using the SeqChunker script distributed with proovread. The results of every step were monitored with FastQC⁶⁸ and MultiQC⁶⁹ throughout the preparation phase.

De novo genome assembly. After exploring a number of assemblers, Platanus⁷⁰ was chosen due to its good performance with the relatively heterozygous hamlet genome, using only the Illumina data in a first step. The contigging was based on the paired-end libraries, and both paired-end and mate-pair libraries were used for scaffolding and gap closing (git 1.2.1–1.2.3). The resulting scaffolds were additionally gap closed with the Illumina-corrected PacBio data using PBjelly⁷¹ (git 1.2.4.1–1.2.4.6). Finally, the twofold gap-closed scaffolds were anchored and oriented to two RAD-based hamlet linkage maps³⁶ using Allmaps⁷². Briefly, the linkage map RAD tags were mapped onto the assembly scaffolds using Bowtie2 and the physical positions of the markers on the scaffolds were retrieved. Using custom R⁷³ scripts, the physical positions (bp) from the mapping were combined with the linkage map positions (cM) (git 1.2.5). The resulting maps were merged into a single file and used for anchoring with Allmaps (git 1.2.6).

Manual curation. The anchored assembly was unmasked to capitalize lower-case sections resulting from PBjelly. The mitochondrial scaffold was identified by mapping the mitochondrial genome of the blue hamlet (*Hypoplectrus gemma*; GenBank accession number: FJ848375) to the assembly. Finally, scaffolds smaller than 500 bp were removed from the assembly using SAMtools⁷⁴ and bedtools⁷⁵ (git 1.2.7). At this point, the assembly was considered complete and used as a reference throughout the study (hereafter, the hamlet reference genome).

Quality assessment. The final assembly was aligned with the stickleback genome⁷⁶ (*G. aculeatus*; <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.846nj>)—the most closely related high-quality genome—using LAST⁷⁷ (git 1.2.8). The alignments were visualized using Circos⁷⁸ based on matches larger than 5 kb (git 2.2.0.1). The large-scale synteny among the two genomes (Supplementary Fig. 1) was interpreted as a validation of the general structure of the hamlet genome assembly, and the hamlet linkage groups were numbered following the numbering of the homologous stickleback linkage groups. Furthermore, the presence of genes highly conserved in vertebrates was assessed using BUSCO⁷⁹, and summary statistics for the assembly were generated with the summarizeAssembly.py script provided in the PBjelly suite.

Recombination landscape. To assess the large-scale recombination landscape, the RAD tags from the linkage map were mapped with Bowtie2 to the final assembly (git 1.2.9). A rough estimate of the recombination density was provided by dividing linkage (cM) by physical distances (Mb) using R.

Annotation. The RNA libraries were assembled into a combined transcriptome as a basis for genome annotation. To prepare the reference genome, it was screened for specific repeat families using RepeatModler⁸⁰ (git 1.3.1), and repeats were masked for mapping using RepeatMasker⁸¹ (git 1.3.2). Scaffolds that contained only masked sequences were removed from the assembly. The RNA sequences were quality checked using FastQC, quality filtered using Trimmomatic (git 1.3.3) and mapped onto the masked version of the reference genome using HISAT2 (git 1.3.4)⁸². The transcriptome was assembled from the mapped sequences using Trinity⁸³ in genome_guided mode (git 1.3.5). Preliminary gene models were constructed using the MAKER package⁸⁴, combining the information from de novo assembled transcripts with evidence-based, full-length protein sequences from zebrafish and stickleback (UniProt⁸⁵). Functional inferences were generated using similarity searches of the annotated gene models against UniProt/Swiss-Prot and InterProScan⁸⁶, followed by manual curation of selected genes of interest with the WebApollo platform⁸⁷.

Resequencing and variant calling. Resequencing. The black (*H. nigricans*), barred (*H. puella*) and butter (*H. unicolor*) hamlets from Panama, Honduras and Belize were considered for resequencing. A total of 11–13 individuals were sequenced per species and location, adding up to a total of 110 samples (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Table 3). An additional golden hamlet (*H. gumigutta*) was genotyped but excluded before analysis. Genomic libraries were prepared at the STRI in Panama (Belize and Honduras samples) and Institute of Clinical Molecular Biology in Kiel, Germany (Panama samples) and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 (paired end, 2 × 151) by Novogene (Belize and Honduras samples) and the Institute of Clinical Molecular Biology in Kiel (Panama samples) at a mean sequencing depth of 24× (Supplementary Table 3).

Variant calling. The genotyping procedure followed the best practice recommendations for the GATK⁸⁸ work flow provided by the Broad Institute^{89,90}. We describe here the general work flow, while the exact parameters used for each step are specified in git 2.1.1–2.1.12. Note that the samples from Panama were sequenced first and prepared independently of the Belize and Honduras samples, but processed together from the variant calling stage onwards (git 2.1.7).

Picard Tools⁹¹ was used to transform the sequences from fq to uBAM format, assign read groups, mark adaptors and back-transform into fq format (git

2.1.1–2.1.3). They were then mapped to the hamlet reference genome using BWA⁷⁴ and merged with the uBAM files containing the read group information with Picard Tools (git 2.1.3). Afterwards, duplicated reads were removed (git 2.1.4). Then, using GATK, genotype likelihoods were called (git 2.1.6) and all 110 samples were genotyped jointly (git 2.1.7.1). This step was duplicated, generating one dataset with variant sites only (git 2.1.7.1.call_variants.sh) to be used for phasing and another dataset including every callable site (even invariant ones; git 2.1.7.all_Variants_temp.sh) to calculate π and d_{xy} . SNPs were extracted from the raw genotypes and hard filtered with respect to quality (git 2.1.8). Furthermore, SNPs with missing data in more than 11 genotypes, as well as multiallelic SNPs, were removed using VCFtools⁹² (git 2.1.8).

For the 'all callable sites' dataset, the genotypes (VCF) were subset by linkage group (git 2.1.9) and transformed to a custom genotype format required for popgenWindows.py⁹³ (git 2.1.10.vcf_2_genotype_temp.sh).

The SNPs-only dataset was subset by linkage group as well (git 2.1.9.subset_LGs.sh). Phase-informative reads were extracted (git 2.1.10.loop_extractPIRS.sh) and the genotypes were phased (git 2.1.11) using SHAPEIT⁹⁴. As a final step, SNPs with a minor allele count of 1 (minor allele frequency < 0.9%) were removed from the dataset (git 2.1.12).

Population genomics. Most population genomic statistics were calculated within sliding windows along the genome. This was done at two resolutions. For a genome-wide overview, a window size of 50 kb with 5-kb increments was chosen. For more fine-scale analysis, a window size of 10 kb with 1-kb increments was applied. In the following, these two resolutions are referred to as broad and fine scale.

PCA. For the PCA, the SNPs-only dataset was subset by location using VCFtools, and the subsets were reformatted. The three PCAs were then run independently using the R package pccapt⁹⁵ (git 2.2.4). Similar results were obtained when considering physically unlinked SNPs only (Supplementary Fig. 15).

π . Nucleotide diversity was based on the 'all callable sites' dataset and computed with VCFtools. It was calculated for each species, as well as each species pair within each population at fine-scale resolution (git 2.2.2 and 2.2.3).

d_{xy} . Genetic divergence⁹⁶ was based on the reformatted 'all callable sites' dataset. It was calculated for each population pair within each location in both resolutions using popgenWindows.py⁹³ (git 2.2.1).

F_{ST} . Genetic differentiation⁹⁷ was based on the SNPs-only dataset and computed with VCFtools, using the weighted mean following Weir and Cockerham⁹⁷. It was calculated at both resolutions for each species pair, both within each location and globally, as well as on a SNP basis among the three species pooled over locations. Additionally, it was calculated in broad resolution for every pair of locations within each species and globally (git 2.2.5).

G × P. G × P associations were based on the SNPs-only dataset and estimated using a linear model (-lm) with GEMMA⁹⁸. For this, the dataset was transformed to the PLINK format using VCFtools and PLINK⁹⁹. G × P association was calculated on a SNP basis for every species pair, both within each location and globally, as well as for every pair of locations both within each species and globally (git 2.2.6.2 and 2.2.6.3). The results were then averaged over windows at both resolutions for the species comparisons, and at broad resolution for the location comparisons using custom shell scripts (git 2.2.6.4–2.2.6.6). Note that Wald-test *P* values were $-\log_{10}$ transformed before averaging, so that $-\log_{10}(P)$ was reported for every window. GEMMA was additionally run under the linear mixed model, which provided similar results (Supplementary Fig. 16). Note also that the G × P association, when applied to discrete phenotypes as done here, introduces some degree of redundancy with respect to F_{ST} .

r^2 . Linkage disequilibrium (r^2) was calculated using VCFtools (git 2.2.8.1) at four different levels. First, to estimate the decay of linkage disequilibrium with physical distance, the pairwise r^2 for all SNPs within 20 randomly selected windows of 15 kb was calculated. Second, to establish a baseline, genome-wide levels of linkage disequilibrium were estimated from a random subset of 570 SNPs separated by at least 1 Mb (to rule out physical linkage) and considering inter-chromosomal pairs of SNPs only (ILD). Third, r^2 was calculated for all SNPs in and between broad regions around the candidate intervals. Fourth, considering only SNPs within the candidate intervals (exact regions: git LD.bed and extendedLD.bed). The SNPs within the regions considered were then collated to allow continuous visualization (git 2.2.8.2 and 2.2.9.2). The pairwise r^2 values were sorted into two-dimensional bins of 10 × 10 kb each, and the average r^2 value for each bin was then calculated using R (git 2.2.8.3 and 2.2.9.3). Note that $r^2 = 0$ when there is no linkage, as opposed to the recombination rate *r* (not considered here), which equals 0.5 in the absence of linkage.

Hybrids and backcrosses. The approach implemented in NewHybrids¹⁰⁰ was used to test our hypothesis that some individuals might be of hybrid origin. This method does not require the a priori identification of pure individuals and relies on an explicit genetic model based on Mendelian inheritance. These analyses were run on

small subsets of the SNPs-only dataset. First, for every pairwise species comparison within each location, the 800 SNPs with highest F_{ST} values were selected. These SNP subsets were further filtered to include only SNPs that are separated by at least 5 kb, to limit the effect of physical linkage among SNPs. From the resulting SNPs, 80 were randomly chosen to ensure that all analyses are based on the same number of markers. Note that the results were robust to alternative SNP selection strategies. Subsetting was done using a combination of R, VCFtools and unix commands (git 2.2.10.1 and 2.2.10.2). The SNP subsets were transformed to the NewHybrids input format using PGDSpider¹⁰¹ (git 2.2.10.2). NewHybrids¹⁰⁰ was run in parallel using the R package parallelnewhybrid¹⁰² with a burn-in of 10⁶ iterations and 10 × 10⁶ sweeps (git 2.2.10.3).

ρ . The population recombination rate was estimated using the machine learning R package FastEPRR¹⁰³. It was based on the SNPs-only dataset and calculated within non-overlapping windows of 50 kb using 250 parallel jobs (git 2.2.11.1–2.2.11.3). For visualization, the results were reformatted using a custom bash script (git 2.2.11.4).

RNA expression. A FASTA version of the transcriptome was created from the genome annotation file (GFF in combination with the hamlet reference genome using gffread¹⁰⁴ (git 2.3.1)). The reference transcriptome was then indexed (git 2.3.2) and transcript abundances of the filtered retina RNA samples (also used for annotation) were estimated using kallisto¹⁰⁵ (git 2.3.3). Expression was analysed using the R package DSeq2 (git 3_figures and docs/index.html)¹⁰⁶.

Simulations. Simulations were conducted to explore which combination of parameters may generate patterns of differentiation as sharp as the ones observed in the four candidate regions. Several demographic scenarios were simulated using the coalescent simulator msms¹⁰⁷, considering a selected site located in the middle of a 500-kb chromosome. The simulations consisted of two populations of constant size N_e that split *t* generations ago and experienced constant and symmetrical migration (*m*) since then. The selected site was a single codominant locus with two alleles, A and a, that are advantageous in populations 1 and 2, respectively, with a fitness of 1 + *s* for homozygotes and 1 + *s*/2 for heterozygotes, where *s* is the selection coefficient. We explored the parameter space spanned by the combinations of $N_e \in \{1,000, 10,000, 100,000\}$, $t \in \{10,000, 100,000, 1,000,000\}$, $m \in \{0.00001, 0.0001, 0.001, 0.01, 0.10\}$ and $s \in \{0.05, 0.1, 0.5\}$. The simulations were conducted with a recombination rate *r* of 0.02, providing a population recombination rate $4N_e r$ similar to the one estimated from the empirical data with FastEPRR.

Sequences were simulated on the basis of the simulated genealogies using Seq-Gen¹⁰⁸, and variable sites were exported to the VCF format using ms2vcf¹⁰⁹. The VCF files were then used to calculate F_{ST} with VCFtools over 10-kb windows with 1-kb increments. NextFlow¹¹⁰ was used to manage the simulations and analysis across the entire parameter space. Visualization of the results was done within R (git 3_figures and docs/index.html).

Visualization. All of the results were plotted using R, with the exception of the synteny plot (Supplementary Fig. 1, Circos) and LG08 low-recombination plot (Supplementary Fig. 4, Allmaps and Inkscape). Details of the visualization are provided in the R scripts and their documentation (git 3_figures and docs/index.html). Within those R scripts, the following packages were used: bookdown (0.7)¹¹¹, colorspace (1.3–2)¹¹², cowplot (0.9.2)¹¹³, DSeq2 (1.16.1)¹⁰⁶, dplyr (0.7.4)¹¹⁴, FastEPRR (1.0)¹⁰³, gdata (2.18.0)¹¹⁵, ggforce (0.1.2)¹¹⁶, ggmap (2.6.1)¹¹⁷, ggplot2 (3.0.0)¹¹⁸, ggrepel (0.7.0)¹¹⁹, gplots (3.0.1)¹²⁰, grConvert (0.1–0)¹²¹, grid (3.4.3)⁷³, gridExtra (2.3)¹²², gridSVG (1.6.0)¹²³, grImport2 (0.1–4)¹²⁴, gtable (0.2.0)¹²⁵, hrbrthemes (0.1.0)¹²⁶, knitr (1.20)^{127–129}, maptools (0.92)¹³⁰, marmap (0.9.6)¹³¹, parallelnewhybrid (0.0.0.9002)¹⁰², PBSmapping (2.7.0.4)¹³², pccapt (3.0.4)⁹⁵, RColorBrewer (1.1–2)¹³³, rtracklayer (1.36.6)¹³⁴, scales (0.5.0.9000)¹³⁵, scatterpie (0.0.9)¹³⁶, sp (1.27)^{137,138}, tidyverse (1.2.1)¹³⁹, txmlport (1.4.0)¹⁴⁰ and vsn (3.44.0)¹⁴¹.

Reporting Summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

The raw sequencing data and genome assembly (FASTA format) are deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (project accession number PRJEB27858). Accession numbers for all of the sample sequences are provided in Supplementary Tables 3 and 5. Additional data underlying this study, including the genome annotation (GFF format), genotypes (VCF format), and per-locus F_{ST} and G × P results, are deposited in Dryad (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.pg8q56g>).

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Author contributions

O.P., W.O.M. and K.H. designed the study and participated in the sampling. K.H., M.V. and O.P. contributed to the DNA extractions. M.V. prepared part of the DNA and all of the RNA libraries. K.H. assembled the hamlet genome and conducted the data analyses, in collaboration with O.P. and W.O.M. M.P.H. annotated the genome and contributed to the sequencing. All authors contributed to the writing, with major input from K.H., O.P. and W.O.M.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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No particular software was used for data collection (raw sequencing data was provided by the sequencing centers).

Data analysis

All softwares used for data analysis are included in Suppl. Table 2: Allmaps (Version 1), bedtools (v2.27.1), Bowtie2 (version 2.3.4.1), BUSCO (2), BWA (0.7.12-r1044), Circos (v 0.69), FastQC (v0.11.3), GATK (v3.7-0-gcfedb67), GEMMA (0.97.2), gffread (v0.9.12), HISAT2 (2.0.4), Inkscape (0.91 r13725), kallisto (0.43.1), Kraken (0.10.6-unreleased), LAST (737), Maker (v 3.0), msa2vcf (98d97d07d6101fab1b0bef757b4ceee279e171d9), MSMS (3.2rc), MultiQC (Version 0.8), NextClip (v1.3.1), NextFlow (0.31.1), NewHybrids (2.0+ Developmental), PBJelly (v14.1), PGDSpider (2.1.1.5), Picard Tools (2.9.2-SNAPSHOT), Platanus (1.2.4), plink (v1.90b4 64-bit), proovread (2.13.13), R (3.4.1 calculations), R (3.4.3 visualisations), RepeatMasker (Open-4.0.6), RepeatModler (open-1-0-8), SAMtools (1.7), selscan (v1.2.0a), SeqChunker (v0.22.2), seqtk (1.2-r94), SHAPEIT (v2.r837), Trimmomatic (0.33), Trinity (v2.2.0), VCFtools (0.1.15).
All software parameter settings and scripts needed to reproduce our results from raw data to figures are provided in the accompanying, publicly available git repository (doi:10.3289/SW_2_2018).

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The raw sequencing data and genome assembly (fasta format) are deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA, project accession number PRJEB27858). Accession numbers for all sample sequences are provided in Suppl. Table 3 and Suppl. Table 5. Additional data underlying this study, including the genome annotation, the genotypes (vcf format) and the per locus Fst and G x P results are deposited in Dryad (doi:10.5061/dryad.pg8q56g).

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Study description	De novo genome assembly (based on a single sample) and whole-genome re-sequencing experiment on three sympatric species, replicated in three locations, with a sample size of 11-13 individuals per species and location (total 110 samples).
Research sample	Hamlets (<i>Hypoplectrus</i> spp, Serranidae), a group of reef fishes from the wider Caribbean, from Belize (Carrie Bow Cay), Honduras (Cayos Becerro) and Panama (Bocas del Toro). This group of reef fishes constitute an excellent model for the study of marine speciation. The fact that they are sympatric over most of their distribution allowed us to replicate our sequencing experiment in three locations to isolate the genomic intervals that are consistently differentiated among species and effectively filter out processes acting within populations. Previous genetic data (Puebla et al. 2008, Mol. Ecol. 17, 1405–1415; Picq et al. 2016, Ecol. Evol. 6, 2109–2124) indicated that the three locations correspond to three distinct genetic populations for the three species. The majority of samples considered in this study were collected for previous studies (Puebla et al. 2007, Proc. R. Soc. B-Biol. Sci. 274, 1265–1271; Puebla et al. 2012, Proc. R. Soc. B-Biol. Sci. 279, 1085–1092) in 2004-2006 and were therefore already available. New samples were only collected in Bocas del Toro (Panama) for RNA expression analysis. All samples are from adults, from both sexes since the hamlets are simultaneous hermaphrodites.
Sampling strategy	Whole-genome re-sequencing experiment on three sympatric species, repeated in three locations, with a sample size of 11-13 individuals per species and location (total 110 samples) at a mean sequencing coverage of 24x. This sample size, empirically determined, was largely sufficient to capture patterns of genomic differentiation among the three species in the three locations and globally. We also present a small RNA expression dataset based on 10 barred, 9 black and 5 butter hamlets (total 24 individuals). This sample size, also empirically determined, was here again largely sufficient to make the point that there are not important expression differences among species and that our candidate genes are strongly expressed in the tissues of interest.
Data collection	The data are whole genomes and transcriptomes, generated by the Duke Center for Genomic and Computational Biology, the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Novogene, and the Institute of Clinical Molecular Biology (Kiel University) using Illumina and PacBio platforms.
Timing and spatial scale	The 110 samples for re-sequencing were collected between 2004 and 2006, with the exception of three samples (one per species in Panama) collected between 2013 and 2016. We did not expect important temporal variation among the 107 samples from 2004-2006 since hamlets live for several years. This was confirmed by the fact that that all samples from 2013-2016 clustered with the 2004-2006 samples from the same species and location. The spatial scale includes Belize (Carrie Bow Cay), Honduras (Cayos Becerro) and Panama (Bocas del Toro). Previous genetic data (Puebla et al. 2008, Mol. Ecol. 17, 1405–1415; Picq et al. 2016, Ecol. Evol. 6, 2109–2124) indicated that the three locations correspond to three distinct genetic populations for the three species.
Data exclusions	One golden hamlet sample from Panama was genotyped with the other samples but not considered in the analyses. This is explicitly stated in the manuscript. This sample was initially sequenced as a potential outgroup, but in the end we did not apply analyses that require such an an outgroup.
Reproducibility	All the scripts needed to reproduce our results from raw data to figures are provided in a publicly accessible Git repository.
Randomization	Within each sequencing experiment (Panama and Honduras/Belize), samples were blinded (using cryptic ID numbers) and randomized for library preparation and sequencing. For data analysis, samples were attributed to species on the basis of their colour pattern (which is a diagnostic character in this group) and to populations on the basis of their geographic origin. Only samples that could be unambiguously assigned to species on the basis of their colour pattern were considered.

Blinding Within each sequencing experiment (Panama and Honduras/Belize), samples were blinded (using cryptic ID numbers) and randomized for library preparation and sequencing.

Did the study involve field work? Yes No

Field work, collection and transport

Field conditions Fieldwork was conducted for the RNA expression analysis only (in Bocas del Toro, Panama). Conditions were typical of the dry season at this location and time of year (February).

Location Bocas del Toro, Panama. Longitude/latitude: 09.318/82.222, 09.301/82.294, 09.367/82.291. Depth: 5-20ft.

Access and import/export An effort was made to leverage the samples that we already had and collect as few new samples as possible. New samples were collected for RNA expression analysis only, because we did not have the specific target tissues in our collection. Sampling was done under the collecting permit SC/A-53-16 issued by the Panamanian Ministry of the Environment on December 13 2016. This permit granted us 33 samples (11 per species) yet we collected only 24 in the end. We also have an export permit (SEX/A-35-17) issued by the Panamanian Ministry of the Environment on March 31st 2017, yet we did not need it in the end since we ended processing the samples at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute in Panama.

Disturbance Samples were collected with hook-and-line, which is highly selective and does not affect the reef and other species (as opposed to e.g. nets or chemicals).

Reporting for specific materials, systems and methods

Materials & experimental systems

n/a Involved in the study

Unique biological materials

Antibodies

Eukaryotic cell lines

Palaeontology

Animals and other organisms

Human research participants

Methods

n/a Involved in the study

ChIP-seq

Flow cytometry

MRI-based neuroimaging

Animals and other organisms

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Laboratory animals No Laboratory animals were involved in the study

Wild animals An effort was made to leverage the samples that we already had and collect as few new samples as possible. New samples were collected for RNA expression analysis only, because we did not have the specific target tissues in our collection. This concerns 10 adult barred hamlets, 9 black hamlets and 5 butter hamlets. Following our IACUC protocol, individuals were captured with hook-and-line while scuba diving. Our previous experience with tagged individuals has shown that this method is highly efficient and selective and minimizes disturbance to the reef and other species. Fishes were brought to the Bocas del Toro field station (which is 10 minutes away by boat from the collecting location) in a large cooler filled with seawater, kept in tanks (with flowing sea water and oxygenation) at the Bocas del Toro field station overnight (two individuals per tank) and processed on the following day. It was necessary to sacrifice the fish to analyze the tissues of interest. Fish were sacrificed in an ice bath following our IACUC protocol.

Field-collected samples See above (wild animals)