Adaptation of the eyes of grass puffer (*Takifugu niphobles*) to the riverine and

marine environments

Misa Osada and Yohey Terai*

Institutions

SOKENDAI (The Graduate University for Advanced Studies), Department of Evolutionary

Studies of Biosystems, Shonan Village, Hayama, Kanagawa 240-0193, Japan.

*Corresponding author:

Yohey Terai: Email: terai_yohei@soken.ac.jp

Abstract

Since fish inhabit heterogeneous light environments, fish vision is known as a prime example of adaptive evolution. Many species of marine fish migrate to rivers, but little is known about whether these species switch their vision when inhabiting rivers or whether they are adapted to the environment of both rivers and the sea. Grass puffer (*Takifugu niphobles*) is a marine fish species that frequently migrate to the rivers. In this study, we investigate grass puffers from both riverine and marine populations and analyzed the gene expression in the eyes. Phylogeny and population genetics of riverine and marine grass puffers indicated that riverine and marine grass puffers are from the same population. High-throughput RNA sequencing was used to compare expression levels of two marines and one riverine pufferfish species, as well as riverine and marine glass puffers. The results suggest that the grass puffers are estimated to be adapting their visual system to two environments, the river and the sea, rather than switching their visual system by changing the expression of vision-related genes. Four of the six genes with higher expression in riverine populations than in marine populations of grass puffer were heat shock proteins and related genes. The expression levels of these genes were higher in riverine grass puffer than in other marine and river pufferfish species, suggesting that the grass puffer individuals are adapting to the environmental difference that they face when they migrate to the river by increasing the expression levels of heat shock protein and related genes.

Introduction

The environments in the rivers and the sea differ in many aspects, including salinity, light intensity, and wavelength of light. For example, in freshwater with low transparency, water with micro-particles scatters short wavelength light, and the light in turbid water is dominated by long wavelengths (Maan, et al. 2006; Seehausen, et al. 2008; Terai, et al. 2017). In contrast, long-wavelength light is absorbed by water in the clear ocean, and short-wavelength light is predominant (Kirk 1994). Since fish species inhabit this heterogeneous light environment, they have adapted their vision to the light environment (Terai, et al. 2006; Seehausen, et al. 2008; Nagai, et al. 2011; Terai, et al. 2017). Accordingly, fish vision is known as a prime example of adaptive evolution.

Vertebrate visual pigments consist of light-absorbing chromophores and the protein component, opsin (Shichida 1999). Spectral sensitivity is determined by the type of chromophore [with 11-*cis* retinal (A1-) or 11-*cis* 3-dehydroretinal (A2-derived retinal)] and by interactions between chromophores and amino acid residues of opsin (Yokoyama 2000). The replacement of A1- with A2-derived retinal in the visual pigments shifts the absorption to a longer wavelength (Harosi 1994; Parry and Bowmaker 2000).

The enzyme CYP27c1 is known to be involved in the switch from A1 to A2, and the expression level of this gene correlates with the amount of A2 (Enright, et al. 2015; Morshedian, et al. 2017). Fish species use A1 retinal and A2 retinal, with freshwater fish mainly using A2 and marine fish using A1 retinal (Toyama, et al. 2008). At different stages of the life cycle, A1 and A2 retinal are known to be differentially used. Salmon use A1 retinal when living in the sea, and switch to A2 when they migrate up the river to

spawn (Beatty 1966). In lamprey, A1 and A2 are differentially used for juveniles and

upstream migrating adult lamprey (Morshedian, et al. 2017). Interestingly, marine fish

species migrating to the river use both A1 and A2 retinal (Toyama, et al. 2008). This

represents a characteristic of both riverine and marine environments, but little is known

about whether these species mainly use A2 retinal when they live in rivers or whether

they have both A1 and A2 retinal in both rivers and the sea. Furthermore, little is known

about whether these species express different levels of opsin genes between the rivers and

the sea.

Grass puffer (*Takifugu niphobles*) is a marine fish species that frequently migrate to the

rivers. Grass puffers are abundant both in rivers and in the sea during the same season.

Grass puffer possesses both A1 and A2 retinal (Toyama, et al. 2008). In this study, we

analyzed the phylogeny and population genetics of riverine and marine populations of

grass puffer, and also analyzed gene expression levels in the eye of grass puffer from both

riverine and marine populations. In addition, the gene expression levels in the eyes of

marine and riverine pufferfish species were compared with those of two populations of

grass puffer to show how grass puffer can inhabit two environments, one in the river and

the other in the sea.

Result

No genetic differentiation between the riverine and marine populations of *T.*

niphobles

Riverine grass puffers were collected 1.3 km upstream from the mouth of the river (Fig.

S1, Table S1). This is an environment where the water becomes brackish when the tide

rises and freshwater when the tide recedes. Based on our observations, the grass puffers

are not seen in the rivers during midwinter (mid-January through the end of February),

but many individuals were observed in the rivers from March through December. Many

grass puffers were also found in rivers that became freshwater at low tide. Marine grass

puffers were collected on a beach 10 km from the river grass puffer collection site. Since

this beach is more than 3 km from the nearest river, we expected less direct migration

with the river grass puffers to the marine population.

As a first step, we investigated the genetic relationships between the river and marine

populations of the grass puffer. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were extracted

from short reads of grass puffer from the riverine and marine populations (see Methods),

mapped to coding regions of a reference genome (*Takifugu rubripes*), and the mean of

Fst was calculated for a total of 172,214 SNPs. The mean Fst value was almost 0 (-

0.00026635), indicating no genetic differentiation between the riverine and marine

populations.

T. rubripes and *T. synderi*, the same genus as grass puffer, are marine species. SNPs

were extracted from individuals of these species collected from the sea (Fig. S1, Table

S1) in the same method as grass puffer individuals (see Methods). The SNPs were

combined with the grass puffer SNPs and a phylogenetic tree was constructed using the

ML method with a total of 266,954 sites. A phylogenetic tree showed that grass puffer

formed a monophyletic group, but the riverine and marine populations were not

differentiated (Fig. 1). Using the same data set, a principal component analysis (PCA)

showed similar results, with no differentiation between the riverine and marine

populations of grass puffer (Fig. 2A). Furthermore, ADMIXTURE analysis using the

same data set showed that the grass puffers formed either a single cluster (K=2, 3) or

multiple clusters (K=4-6), but the riverine and marine populations did not differentiate

(Fig. 2B). These results indicate that riverine and marine grass puffers are from the same

population. Grass puffer is known to spawn simultaneously in the surf on the beach in

June, and subpopulations are presumed to mix at this time, which may prevent genetic

differentiation.

Expression differences in the eyes between the riverine and marine populations of *T.*

niphobles

RNA sequencing was performed to compare gene expression levels in the eyes of grass

puffer from the riverine and marine populations. Total RNAs were extracted and 10-15

Gb sequences were determined from four individuals each of grass puffer from the river

and marine populations. These high-throughput sequences were mapped to a reference

genome sequence of *T. rubripes* to compare gene expression levels between the riverine

and marine populations of grass puffer. As a result, we found 25 differentially expressed

genes with statistical significance (Fig. 3, Table S2). Among the 25 genes, 6 genes were

highly expressed in the riverine population and 19 genes were highly expressed in the

marine population (Fig. 3, Table S2). In this study, we focused on six of the 25 genes that

are highly expressed in the riverine population to reveal how marine grass puffer

individuals can inhabit a freshwater environment. Three of these six genes were heat

shock protein genes (Hsp 9, 47, 90) (Sørensen, et al. 2003; Abumourad 2009). unc45b

has also been reported to be part of a chaperone system that interacts with Hsp90 (Hansen,

et al. 2014).

Next, we examined whether the expression levels of genes related to vision varied

between the riverine and marine populations. The photosensitivity of visual pigments is

tuned by the amino acid sequence of opsins and the type of chromophores (Yokoyama

2000). Therefore, we first searched for the opsin genes and the CYP27c1 gene for

switching chromophores in the genome of *T. rubripes*. The green-sensitive opsin gene,

RH2, and the long-wavelength sensitive opsin gene, *LWS*, were present as color vision

opsins in the annotation of the genome of *T. rubripes*. In addition, the *RH1* gene for

scotopic vision and *CYP27c1* were also present in the annotation. Many fish species have

the *SWS* gene, a blue-sensitive opsin, in their genome and are sensitive to blue light.

Therefore, we searched for the *SWS* gene in the genome sequence of *T. rubripes* using

the cichlid *SWS* sequence as a query but did not find any sequences with high similarity.

We also searched for the *SWS* gene in the assembled RNA sequences of the grass puffer

but did not find any homologous sequence. Based on these results, the grass puffer has

an opsin repertoire of *RH2*, *LWS*, and *RH1*. Comparisons of gene expression levels of the

three opsin genes and *CYP27c1* between the river and marine populations of grass puffer

showed no difference in gene expression levels with statistical significance (Fig. 4C, 4D,

4F).

Comparisons of gene expression between species in Tetraodontidae

The opsin repertoire was examined for *T. rubripes* and *T. synderi*, as well as *Dichotomyctere nigroviridis*, which is a Tetraodontidae species inhabiting rivers and ponds in Southeast Asia (Rainboth 1996). We also searched for the *SWS*, *RH2*, *LWS*, and *RH1* genes in the assembled RNA sequences of *T. rubripes*, *T. synderi*, and *D. nigroviridis*, and found the homologs of these genes, while we did not find any homologous sequence of the *SWS* gene. Based on these results, we infer that the genus *Takifugu*, including grass puffer, and *D. nigroviridis* have an opsin repertoire of *RH2*, *LWS*, and *RH1* and use a dichromatic color vision system.

The expression levels of three opsin genes, *CYP27c1*, and genes with higher expression levels in the riverine population than in the sea population of the grass puffer were compared with that of *T. rubripes*, *T. synderi*, and *D. nigroviridis*, and the grass puffer populations. The relative expression of *RH*2 in marine *T. rubripes* and *T. synderi* exceeded 50% of all opsins, and the expression of *LWS* was also relatively higher than in the grass puffer (Fig. 4A, 4B). Therefore, these two marine species primarily express color vision opsin genes. In contrast, the relative expression of *RH1* in riverine *D. nigroviridis* exceeded 95%, indicating that a scotopic vision opsin gene was predominantly expressed in this species (Fig. 4E). *RH1* was predominantly expressed in the grass puffer, but less than in *D. nigroviridis*, with 67% and 84% in the riverine and marine populations, respectively (Figs. 4C, 4D). *RH2* and *LWS* were highly expressed in grass puffer than in *D. nigroviridis*. *CYP27c1* was expressed at lower levels in the marine species *T. rubripes* and *T. synderi* than in the grass puffer, and at a higher level in *D.*

nigroviridis compared to grass puffer (Fig. 4F). Among the six genes with higher

expression levels in the riverine population than in the marine population of the grass

puffer, we focused on four genes with higher expression (TPM > 5). These four genes

expressed higher levels in the river population of the grass puffer than in the other species

(Fig. 5).

Discussion

When marine fish migrate to a river, they face a riverine environment that differs from

that of the sea. Therefore, we expected that marine fish that migrate to the river may

respond to a different environment. This study investigated mRNA expression in the eyes

of the grass puffer, which inhabit both the river and the sea. As for vision, the repertoire

of opsin genes and their expression levels, were comparable between the riverine and

marine populations of the grass puffer. The expression levels of *CYP27c1*, representing

the amount of A2 retinal, were also comparable. Thus, grass puffers are presumed to have

the same usage of vision in both marine and riverine environments. In contrast, *RH1* was

predominantly expressed in the river species *D. nigroviridis*, while cone opsins were

predominantly expressed in the marine species *T. rubripes* and *T. synderi*. Comparing the

expression of the opsin genes of all species used in this study, the grass puffer showed an

expression pattern intermediate between that of marine and river species. The expression

of *CYP27c1* was also intermediate between marine and riverine species. Based on these

results, the grass puffers were inferred to be using a visual system that functions in both

the river and the sea. In other words, the grass puffers are estimated to be adapting their

visual system to two environments, the river and the sea, rather than switching their visual

system by changing the expression of vision-related genes depending on the ambient

environments.

Unlike the vision-related genes, the expression levels of the six genes were

significantly upregulated in the riverine population compared to the marine population of

grass puffer. Focusing on the four genes with the higher expression among these six genes,

the expression levels were upregulated in the riverine grass puffer population compared

to the marine *T*. *rubripes* and *T*. *synderi*. Interestingly, the expression levels of these four

genes were higher in the riverine grass puffer population than in the riverine *D*.

nigroviridis. These four genes were heat shock proteins (Hsp), Hsp 90, Hsp47, Hsp9, and

unc45b. Hsp functions in protein folding, maintenance of structural integrity, and proper

regulation for a wide range of proteins (Sørensen, et al. 2003). Hsp90 has been reported

to play a role in lens formation in the eye (Hooven, et al. 2004). In addition, unc45b is

known to interact with Hsp90 and is involved in lens formation (Hansen, et al. 2014).

Hsp47 is a molecular chaperone specific to collagen and plays an important role during

ocular development, especially in corneal morphogenesis (TANAKA, et al. 1996).

Considering that these three chaperone-related genes are involved in lens and cornea

formation, these three genes may be involved in normal eye formation and maintenance

in freshwater environments, with lower salt concentrations than in seawater. *D*.

nigroviridis also inhabits the river, but the expression levels of these three genes were not

upregulated. This species is adapted to the river, thus the riverine environment is probably

not a major stressor for them. Hsp9 has been proposed to be involved in the immune

response against pathogenic bacteria (Abumourad 2009). The grass puffer individuals

that have migrated to the river likely face a different type of pathogenic bacteria than

those in the sea and have upregulated expression of Hsp9.

Taken together, we hypothesize that the grass puffer individuals are adapting to the

environmental difference (low salinity and pathogenic bacteria) that they face when they

migrate to the river by increasing the expression levels of heat shock protein and related

genes.

Conclusion

In this study, we investigated how the grass puffer inhabits two different environments,

the river and the sea, based on gene expression in the eyes. Opsin and *CYP27c1* genes

were expected to be adapted to two environments, riverine and marine, by making their

expression patterns intermediate between those of riverine and marine species. On the

other hand, the high expression of Hsp genes in the riverine grass puffer population

suggests that they are adapted to the river environment through the expression of heat

shock proteins. Future studies of other marine fish migrating to rivers will reveal whether

these two adaptive strategies to different environments are shared by other fish species.

Methods

Sampling

Grass puffers were collected from Tagoe river and Tateishi park (Fig. S1) by fishing. *T.*

rubripes and *T. synderi* individuals were collected from Tokyo bay (Fig. S1) by fishing.

D. nigroviridis individuals were obtained from a tropical fish dealer. The information on

each species used in this study is listed in Table S1. The guidelines for experimental

animal management of SOKENDAI were followed throughout the study. The

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of SOKENDAI approved the animal

protocols and procedures.

RNA sequencing and comparison of expression levels

Total RNAs were extracted from the eyes of *T. rubripes*, *T. synder*i, *D. nigroviridis*, and

grass puffer using TRIzol RNA Isolation Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham,

MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA libraries were constructed

using the NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module and the NEBNext Ultra

RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Bio Labs, Ipswich, MA) following the

manufacturer's instructions. Short cDNA sequences (paired-end 150 bp) were determined

from the libraries using the Illumina HiseqX platform (RNA-seq). RNA-seq reads from

each of three of four individuals of *T. rubripes*, *T. synder*i, and grass puffer (10-15 Gbp)

were trimmed to remove adaptor sequences and mapped to the reference genome of *T.*

rubripes. Reads showing similarity (90%) with 90% read lengths were mapped to the

reference genome and expression levels were calculated using CLC Genomics

Workbench ver. 21 (https://www.qiagenbioinformatics.com/). TPM (Transcript Per

Million) was used for normalized expression values. The average TPM of the four

individuals of the grass puffer was compared. Differential expression was assessed using

the TMM (trimmed mean of M values) method (Robinson and Oshlack 2010)

implemented in the CLC genomics workbench using default parameters. False Discovery

Rate (FDR) correction was applied to the calculated p-values and differentially expressed

genes with corrected p-value < 0.05 were considered significant. For *D. nigroviridis*, the

short reads were assembled by the CLC genomics workbench using "Auto" parameters,

then short reads were mapped to the assembled contigs. TPM was used for normalized

expression values. The TPM values of *D. nigroviridis* were normalized with that of the

grass puffer using the TPM values of the GAPDH gene. The average TPM values of

Hsp90, Hsp47, Hsp9, and unc45b were compared using a t-test with Bonferroni

correction.

Phylogenetic, principal component, and ADMIXTURE analyses

The mapping data of eight grass puffers as well as two outgroup *Takifugu* species (three

individuals each) were exported in bam file format and sorted and indexed using samtools

(Li, et al. 2009). The duplicated reads in bam files were marked by the MarkDuplicates

algorithm in GATK v4.2 (https://gatk.broadinstitute.org/hc/en-us). We performed

genotype calling using the HaplotypeCaller algorithm in GATK v4.2. Genotypes of all

individuals were output as gvcf format (-ERC GVCF option) and filtered by the

VariantFiltration algorithm in GATK v4.2 with default parameters. All gvcf files were

combined into a single gvcf format file by the CombineGVCFs algorithm in GATK v4.2.

The combined file was genotyped by the GenotypeGVCFs algorithm in GATK v4.2. We

removed all indels, singleton, and doubleton sites to eliminate PCR and sequencing errors,

and extracted bi-allelic sites with coverage equal to or more than five in all individuals

and with GQ values equal to or more than ten in all individuals.

The variants in a vcf file were converted to PHYLIP format. 10 kb sequences from the

5' end of the PHYLIP format file were extracted and a model for the Maximum Likelihood

method was selected using MEGA ver. X (Kumar, et al. 2018). A phylogenetic tree was

constructed using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method using PhyML ver. 3.2

(Guindon, et al. 2010) with a model selection option "-m GTR" and with 100 bootstrap

replications (Fig. 1: 266,954 sites).

Using the same data set, we performed a principal component analysis (PCA) using

PLINK ver. 1.9 (Purcell, et al. 2007) with an option "--indep-pairwise 50 10 0.1" to

explore the genetic relationship among all individuals (Figure 2A).

ADMIXTURE ver. 1.3 (Alexander and Lange 2011) was run on the same dataset

(Figure 2B) assuming 2 to 6 clusters (K=2-6).

References

Abumourad I. 2009. Tilapia Heat Shock Protein: Molecular Cloning and Characterization.
Science 7:46-57.

Alexander DH, Lange K. 2011. Enhancements to the ADMIXTURE algorithm for
individual ancestry estimation. BMC Bioinformatics 12:1-6.

Beatty DD. 1966. A study of the succession of visual pigments in Pacific salmon
(Oncorhynchus). Canadian Journal of zoology 44:429-455.

Enright JM, Toomey MB, Sato S-y, Temple SE, Allen JR, Fujiwara R, Kramlinger VM,
Nagy LD, Johnson KM, Xiao Y. 2015. Cyp27c1 red-shifts the spectral sensitivity
of photoreceptors by converting vitamin A1 into A2. Current Biology 25:3048-
3057.

Guindon S, Dufayard J-F, Lefort V, Anisimova M, Hordijk W, Gascuel O. 2010. New
algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing
the performance of PhyML 3.0. Systematic Biology 59:307-321.

Hansen L, Comyn S, Mang Y, Lind-Thomsen A, Myhre L, Jean F, Eiberg H, Tommerup
N, Rosenberg T, Pilgrim D. 2014. The myosin chaperone UNC45B is involved in
lens development and autosomal dominant juvenile cataract. European Journal of
Human Genetics 22:1290-1297.

Harosi FI. 1994. An analysis of two spectral properties of vertebrate visual pigments.
Vision research 34:1359-1367.

Hooven TA, Yamamoto Y, Jeffery WR. 2004. Blind cavefish and heat shock protein
chaperones: a novel role for hsp90alpha in lens apoptosis. International Journal of
Developmental Biology 48:731-738.

Kirk JT. 1994. Light and photosynthesis in aquatic ecosystems: Cambridge university
press.

Kumar S, Stecher G, Li M, Knyaz C, Tamura K. 2018. MEGA X: molecular evolutionary
genetics analysis across computing platforms. Molecular Biology and Evolution
35:1547.

Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G,
Durbin R. 2009. The sequence alignment/map format and SAMtools.
Bioinformatics 25:2078-2079.

Maan ME, Hofker KD, van Alphen JJ, Seehausen O. 2006. Sensory drive in cichlid
speciation. The American Naturalist 167:947-954.

Morshedian A, Toomey MB, Pollock GE, Frederiksen R, Enright JM, McCormick SD,
Cornwall MC, Fain GL, Corbo JC. 2017. Cambrian origin of the CYP27C1-
mediated vitamin A1-to-A2 switch, a key mechanism of vertebrate sensory
plasticity. Royal Society Open Science 4:170362.

Nagai H, Terai Y, Sugawara T, Imai H, Nishihara H, Hori M, Okada N. 2011. Reverse
evolution in RH1 for adaptation of cichlids to water depth in Lake Tanganyika.
Molecular Biology and Evolution 28:1769-1776.

Parry JW, Bowmaker JK. 2000. Visual pigment reconstitution in intact goldfish retina
using synthetic retinaldehyde isomers. Vision Research 40:2241-2247.

Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira M, Bender D, Maller J, Sklar P,
de Bakker P, Daly M, et al. 2007. PLINK: a toolset for whole-genome association
and population-based linkage analyses. American Journal of Human Genetics
81:559-575.

Rainboth WJ. 1996. Fishes of the Cambodian Mekong: Food & Agriculture Org.

Robinson MD, Oshlack A. 2010. A scaling normalization method for differential
expression analysis of RNA-seq data. Genome biology 11:1-9.

Seehausen O, Terai Y, Magalhaes IS, Carleton KL, Mrosso HD, Miyagi R, van der Sluijs
I, Schneider MV, Maan ME, Tachida H, et al. 2008. Speciation through sensory

drive in cichlid fish. Nature 455:620-626.

Shichida Y. 1999. Visual pigment: photochemistry and molecular evolution. In: Toyoda
J, editor. The Retinal Basis of Vision. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science.

Sørensen JG, Kristensen TN, Loeschcke V. 2003. The evolutionary and ecological role of
heat shock proteins. Ecology Letters 6:1025-1037.

TANAKA Y, KOBAYASHI K, KITA M, MASUDA H, KINOSHITA S, NAGATA K,
IMANISHI J. 1996. Expression of 47 kDa heat shock protein (HSP47) during
development of mouse cornea. Experimental eye research 63:383-393.

Terai Y, Miyagi R, Aibara M, Mizoiri S, Imai H, Okitsu T, Wada A, Takahashi-
Kariyazono S, Sato A, Tichy H, et al. (Terai2017 co-authors). 2017. Visual
adaptation in Lake Victoria cichlid fishes: depth-related variation of color and
scotopic opsins in species from sand/mud bottoms. BMC Evolutionary Biology
17:200.

Terai Y, Seehausen O, Sasaki T, Takahashi K, Mizoiri S, Sugawara T, Sato T, Watanabe
M, Konijnendijk N, Mrosso HD, et al. 2006. Divergent selection on opsins drives
incipient speciation in Lake Victoria cichlids. PLoS Biology 4:e433.

Toyama M, Hironaka M, Yamahama Y, Horiguchi H, Tsukada O, Uto N, Ueno Y,
Tokunaga F, Seno K, Hariyama T. 2008. Presence of rhodopsin and porphyropsin
in the eyes of 164 fishes, representing marine, diadromous, coastal and freshwater
species—a qualitative and comparative study. Photochemistry and Photobiology
84:996-1002.

Yokoyama S. 2000. Molecular evolution of vertebrate visual pigments. Prog Retin Eye
Res 19:385-419.

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Phylogenetic relationships between *Takifugu* species.

Maximum likelihood tree based on 266,954 SNPs. Node labels indicate bootstrap

replicates.

Fig. 2 Genetic relationships between *Takifugu* species.

Principal Components Analysis (PC1 versus PC2) based on 266,954 SNPs (A). Colored

circles correspond to the names of species or populationss in the panel. (B) ADMIXTURE

results based on the same SNP data with (A) for K = 2-6.

Fig. 3 A volcano plot for the gene expression differences between the riverine and marine

grass puffer populations

Each blue dot represents the gene expressed in the eye. The log2 fold changes of average

TPM values of the marine grass puffer population compared to those of the riverine grass

puffer population and the -log10 p-values resulting from a t-test comparing average TPM

values between the riverine and marine grass puffer populations for each gene are plotted

on the x- and y-axis, respectively.

Fig. 4 Expression of opsin and CYP27c1 genes

The relative expression of opsin genes in (A) *T. rubripes*, (B) *T. synderi*, (C) riverine

population of grass puffer, (D) marine population of grass puffer, and (E) *D. nigroviridis*.

(F) the expression of the CYP27c1 gene.

Fig. 5 Expression of heat shock protein and related genes

The expression of (A) Hsp 90, (B) Hsp47, (C) Hsp 9, and (D) unc45b in *T. rubripes*, *T.*

synderi, riverine and marine populations of grass puffer, and *D. nigroviridis*. Asterisks

indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.05$ after Bonferroni correction) of differences in

expression levels between riverine grass puffer and *T. rubripes* and *T. synderi*.

Fig. 1 Phylogenetic relationships between *Takifugu* species.
Maximum likelihood tree based on 266,954 SNPs. Node labels indicate bootstrap replicates.

Fig. 2 Genetic relationships between *Takifugu* species.
Principal Components Analysis (PC1 versus PC2) based on 266,954 SNPs (A). Colored circles correspond to the names of species or populationss in the panel. (B) ADMIXTURE results based on the same SNP data with (A) for K = 2-6.

Fig. 3 A volcano plot for the gene expression differences between the riverine and marine grass puffer populations
Each blue dot represents the gene expressed in the eye. The log2 fold changes of average TPM values of the marine grass puffer population compared to those of the riverine grass puffer population and the -log10 p-values resulting from a t-test comparing average TPM values between the riverine and marine grass puffer populations for each gene are plotted on the x- and y-axis, respectively.

Fig. 4 Expression of opsin and CYP27c1 genes
The relative expression of opsin genes in (A) *T. rubripes*, (B) *T. synderi*, (C) riverine population of grass puffer,
(D) marine population of grass puffer, and (E) *D. nigroviridis*. (F) the expression of CYP27c1 gene.

Fig. 5 Expression of heat shock protein and related genes
The expression of (A) Hsp 90, (B) Hsp47, (C) Hsp 9, and (D) unc45b in *T. rubripes*, *T. synderi*, riverine and marine populations of grass puffer, and *D. nigroviridis*. Asterisks indicate statistical significance (p < 0.05 after Bonferroni correction) of differences in expression levels between riverine grass puffer and *T. rubripes* and *T. synderi*.