Divergence in the Pelagic Zone: Genomic Signatures of Speciation and Adaptation

in the Ctenophore *Mnemiopsis*

Authors: Remi N. Ketchum[1,2]*, Edward G. Smith[3], Leandra M. Toledo[1], Whitney B. Leach[4],

Natalia E. Padillo-Anthemides[1], Andreas D. Baxevanis[5], Adam M. Reitzel[6], Joseph F. Ryan[1]*

Affiliations:

[1] Whitney Laboratory for Marine Bioscience, University of Florida, St. Augustine, Florida, USA

[2] Department of Genetics, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North

Carolina, USA

[3] School of Life Sciences, The University of Warwick, Coventry, UK

[4] Department of Biology, DeSales University, Center Valley, PA, USA

[5] Center for Genomics and Data Science Research, Division of Intramural Research, National

Human Genome Research Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA

[6] Department of Biological Sciences, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, Charlotte, North

Carolina, USA

*Corresponding authors. Email: rketchum@ad.unc.edu, joseph.ryan@whitney.ufl.edu

Abstract

Background

Understanding how populations diverge is one of the most compelling questions in evolutionary biology but our grasp on the genomic mechanisms underpinning divergence is limited to a handful of species. Indeed, we know even less about divergence in the pelagic zone, where barriers to gene flow are seemingly absent. The holopelagic ctenophore *Mnemiopsis leidyi* is the most widely used ctenophore in experimental biology and has become an important model system in studies ranging from developmental biology to neurobiology. In addition, its relatively small and tractable genome provides a powerful foundation for genomic and evolutionary analyses. However, we still lack a clear understanding of species boundaries, population structure, and the evolutionary forces shaping divergence within *Mnemiopsis*, limiting both evolutionary and ecological interpretations. To expand our general understanding of divergence across novel environments as well as resolve a long-standing taxonomic debate, we generated the most comprehensive genomic study to date of the holopelagic ctenophore *Mnemiopsis* across a large expanse of its native range.

Results

By leveraging multiple analytical approaches and generating two near-chromosome level genomes, we identify two distinct species of *Mnemiopsis* with high levels of genome-wide divergence along the US Atlantic coast, which correspond to *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni*. Our demographic analyses suggest that *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni* began to diverge during the mid-to-late Pleistocene climate transitions and were later shaped by post-glacial oceanographic changes. We highlight substantial genomic rearrangements and copy number variation between species as well as uncover key genes under selection that are likely important for environmental adaptation.

Conclusions

Together, these findings provide compelling evidence that the ctenophore currently recognized

as *M. leidyi* represents more than one species. Recognizing cryptic species boundaries is critical

for future study designs, environmental monitoring, and developing targeted management

strategies. Altogether, we connect microevolutionary processes with macroevolutionary patterns

and provide new insights into how ocean dynamics drive speciation and adaptation in pelagic

ecosystems.

Keywords: *Mnemiopsis,* pelagic invertebrate, structural variation, speciation, population

genomics

Background

Speciation, the process through which populations diverge into groups that no longer

exchange alleles [1], is a fundamental evolutionary process responsible for generating much of the

biodiversity on earth. Understanding how populations diverge and eventually become

reproductively isolated has been a central question in evolutionary biology for decades [2–4]. Two

primary models have traditionally been invoked to explain this process. In the first, allopatric

speciation, geographic barriers restrict gene flow, allowing populations to diverge independently.

In the second, which includes parapatric and sympatric speciation, divergence occurs despite

partial or complete geographic overlap [5, 6]. Although allopatric speciation is widely regarded as

the predominant mode of speciation [3, 5, 7], its prevalence in marine environments is questionable

given the scarcity of physical barriers and the high dispersal potential of many organisms, which

can lead to patterns of extensive connectivity [8–11]. Indeed, understanding how species arise and

become established is particularly challenging in marine environments, although many examples

of coexisting marine sibling species suggest that marine speciation may often be sympatric. This

process could be driven either by rapid adaptation to different ecological niches, genomic features

that limit recombination and restrict introgression at specific loci (termed barrier loci; [12–15]),

and/or hidden barriers to gene flow. While the development and spread of incompatible genotypes

is central to both sympatric and allopatric speciation, the exact genomic regions and architecture

which mediate this incompatibility, and the chronology of these genetic changes is still widely

debated [11, 16].

The genomic patterns associated with speciation depend largely on whether divergence

happens in the presence or absence of gene flow, either during the initial split or following

secondary contact [12, 17, 18]. In allopatric speciation scenarios, divergence can proceed

unfettered by the homogenizing effects of migration [18, 19]. Meanwhile, in speciation-with-gene-

flow scenarios, divergence is constrained by the balance between the degree of genetic linkage and

recombination versus the strength of selection or drift [17]. In this scenario, regions of low

recombination (e.g., centromeric regions or structurally complex loci), can facilitate divergence

by maintaining linkage among locally adapted alleles despite ongoing gene flow [20, 21]. In

marine species where physical barriers to dispersal can be weak, genomic features which reduce

recombination are likely strong drivers of genomic divergence. However, most studies to date have

focused on single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and while informative, this has left the

contribution of structural variants to speciation comparatively unexplored (although see [6, 20–

23]). Structural variants (SVs – insertions, deletions, and other genomic changes affecting >50 bp)

can occupy more of the genome than SNPs, have the potential to dramatically change phenotypes,

and are often more likely to impact organismal fitness than SNPs because they are big enough to

contain entire genes and other functional elements [21, 24]. SVs have been shown to lead to

reproductive isolation through several mechanisms [25], including: underdominance of

heterokaryotypes [26], suppression of recombination [27, 28], gene duplications causing intrinsic

postzygotic isolation [29], and SVs acting as mutations of large effect [21]. Despite their potential

to drive speciation, structural variants have remained understudied due to challenges in detecting

and genotyping them with short-read sequencing [30]. Recent methodological advances, however,

now enable the generation of chromosomal- or near-chromosomal-level genome assemblies,

providing new opportunities to comprehensively investigate SVs and their evolutionary

significance to speciation [12].

In addition to methodological biases, the vast majority of speciation literature is based on

terrestrial species with small population sizes, clear physical barriers to gene flow, and internal

fertilization, all traits which are expected to facilitate the emergence of reproductive isolation [31–

33]. To fully understand the mechanisms driving speciation, we must broaden the range of studied

organisms to include animals with diverse life history strategies, particularly pelagic invertebrates

that spend their entire life in the water column and are characterized by high fecundity [34], large

population sizes [35], and high dispersal potential. These traits are expected to produce weak

genetic differentiation and promote panmixia [36] and indeed, this pattern is observed in many

marine species [37–40]. Holopelagic species, such as *Mnemiopsis* (A. Agassiz, 1865), remain

particularly understudied in this regard.

Mnemiopsis is a genus within the phylum Ctenophora with a native range that extends

continuously along more than 25,000 km of the Atlantic coast of the Americas, from Kittery,

Maine to the Valdes Peninsula in Argentina [41–43]. These comb jellies are considered to be one

of the 100 most invasive species in the world [44] and their introductions into European waters

have triggered community trophic cascades and collapse of fisheries [45]. The extensive

geographic distribution and invasive abilities of *Mnemiopsis* are driven in part by its broad

environmental tolerance [46], flexible planktivorous diet [47], extensive regeneration abilities

[48], high fertility levels [49], and a capacity for self-fertilization [50]. Risk management for

invasive species requires genetic information to establish management units and accurate

taxonomic classification is a fundamental component of effective control measures. Further, many

invasive species have the capacity for rapid adaptation [51] which, in turn, may make them more

likely to speciate following a biological invasion although relatively few studies have examined

this phenomenon [52].

Despite its rich 100-year history as an evo-devo model [53] and the availability of extensive

genomics resources [54–57], our understanding of species boundaries in *Mnemiopsis* is subject to

debate [58–62]. The World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS) currently divides *Mnemiopsis*

into two accepted species: *Mnemiopsis leidyi* (A. Agassiz, 1865; type location Massachusetts) and

Mnemiopsis gardeni (L. Agassiz, 1860; type location South Carolina). A third species, *Mnemiopsis*

mccradyi (Mayer, 1900; type location South Carolina), is currently recognized as a synonym for

Mnemiopsis leidyi [63]. However, there is much confusion as to the ranges and differences in

morphology between these two named species which is further complicated by anthropogenic

range expansion. Most modern literature considers all ctenophores along the Atlantic and Gulf

coasts of the United States as a single species, specifically *Mnemiopsis leidyi* [64]. Earlier studies

have raised the possibility of multiple *Mnemiopsis* species [58–62], but the molecular data

available at the time were limited in either marker number or population sampling, making it

difficult to resolve this question conclusively. With the compact genome of *Mnemiopsis* and the

rapid democratization of next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies, we can now examine

population relationships at unprecedented resolution and address this long-standing controversy

more comprehensively than was previously possible.

We conducted whole genome short read sequencing of 118 individuals from 13 populations

within *Mnemiopsis'* native range along the United States Atlantic coast and generated two near-

chromosomal length genome assemblies of a northern and southern representative of each genus.

We applied a suite of genomic approaches to understand holopelagic population dynamics,

demographic histories, changes in genomic architecture, and adaptation to new environments.

Taken together, these findings highlight barriers to gene flow in holopelagic species, illuminate

mechanisms that may underlie invasion success, and address a critical knowledge gap in marine

speciation research, which has historically focused on a relatively narrow subset of species.

Results and Discussion

Whole-genome sequencing of Mnemiopsis populations

We collected and sequenced the genomes of 118 *Mnemiopsis* individuals from 13 populations

from their native range along the US Atlantic coast (Figure 1A, Additional file 1: Table S1). All

samples were collected from < 10m surface waters and preserved in ethanol within an hour of

collection. We generated a total of 730 Gb of Illumina reads and an average genome depth of

18.89x. This sequence data was used to generate datasets for subsequent genomic analyses (see

Methods).

We also produced two high-quality, near chromosome-level genome assemblies of one sample

from Massachusetts (*M. leidyi*; northern lineage) and one sample from Florida (*M. gardeni*;

southern lineage) using PacBio HiFi sequencing technology (Additional file 1: Table S2). When

assembled, the *M. gardeni* genome was 206.6 Mb in length, with half of the genome assembled

into contigs 3.6 Mb or larger (N50). The *M. gardeni* assembly was comprised of 174 contigs, with

the 100 largest contigs making up 98% of the assembly. The *M. leidyi* genome was 215.8 Mb in

length, with half of the genome assembled into contigs 2 Mb or larger. The *M. leidyi* assembly was

comprised of 207 contigs, with the 100 largest contigs making up 89% of the assembly. We

identified 27,570 and 26,046 protein-coding genes within the *M. gardeni* and *M. leidyi* genomes,

respectively, and were able to functionally annotate 27,476 genes within the *M. gardeni* genome

(Additional file 2: Table S3). Analyses using the Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs

program [65] revealed that our assemblies exhibit a similar degree of completeness to other

ctenophore genomes ([54, 66], (Additional file 1: Table S2). We recovered 91% (83% complete

and 8% partial) of the expected core genes for *M. leidyi* with 9% of them missing. For *M. gardeni*,

we recovered 92% (84% complete and 8% partial) of the expected core genes, with 8% of them

missing.

Population genomic evidence of two Mnemiopsis species

We performed phylogenetic analyses using nuclear and mitochondrial markers from our

Mnemiopsis samples collected along the Atlantic Coast. Our nuclear phylogenetic tree (Figure 1B)

revealed the presence of two distinct clades that corresponded to the northern lineage (Woods

Hole, MA to Roanoke Island, NC) and the southern lineage (Pivers Island, NC to Panacea, FL).

We observed a similar two-clade pattern in our phylogenetic analysis of the complete

mitochondrial genomes (published mitogenome is 10,326 bp [67]), driven largely by ~100 nearly

fixed nucleotide differences (Figure 1C). However, we identified six individuals from populations

near the geographic interface of these two clades that exhibit mitonuclear discordance.

Specifically, we observed one individual collected at Gloucester Point, Virginia (VAV10) and four

individuals collected in Roanoke Island, North Carolina (NCX3–5,8) that had northern nuclear

and southern mitochondrial genotypes. Likewise, we observed one individual collected from

Wrightsville Beach, North Carolina (NCW15) that had a southern nuclear and northern

mitochondrial genotype. This level of mitonuclear discordance could be consistent with

hybridization in a secondary contact zone and early generation hybrids [62, 68].

Fig. 1. Mitonuclear discordance in *Mnemiopsis*. A) Sampling map showing all *Mnemiopsis* collection
sites (site abbreviations in parentheses). The outer circle indicates the lineage assigned to each population
(blue = northern; red = southern). Roanoke Island, NC is shown without an outer ring because it is later
identified as a hybrid population. Stars denote populations also used for long-read PacBio HiFi genome
sequencing and assembly. **B)** Nuclear phylogeny inferred from 1,302 SNPs using ngsDist and FastME,
rooted with *Bolinopsis infundibulum*. Circle size at each branch reflects bootstrap support; both the northern
and southern lineages showed 100% support. Sample ID colors correspond to sampling locations (matching
panel A), and the colored bars to the right of each ID denote lineage membership (blue = northern; red =
southern). **C)** Mitochondrial phylogeny generated from a whole-mitogenome alignment using IQ-TREE
v2.3.2. Sample ID colors indicate lineage assignment.

To further investigate these admixture patterns, we evaluated the presence of 2–7 populations (by

adjusting the K parameter) within our dataset using ngsADMIX [69]. Setting K=2 separates

individuals into northern and southern lineages with the Roanoke Island, NC (NCX) and

Gloucester Point, VA (VAV) samples showing signs of admixture (Figure 2A). When K=3, the

Roanoke Island samples form their own subpopulation and, at higher K values, more substructure

within the two lineages becomes evident (Additional file 1: Fig. S1). MDS plots (Figure 2B)

support the results obtained using ngsADMIX, with the first principal component congruent with

the patterns observed by setting K = 2 and accounting for 39.4% of the variance in the data. The

average F_{ST} between the northern and southern lineage was 0.278 when Roanoke Island, NC was

included in the northern lineage, and 0.315 when it was removed from the comparison. Our

pairwise F_{ST} comparisons also highlight two distinct lineages (Additional file 1: Table S4). Due to

these cumulative results, we also tested for evidence of hybridization in our data using f_3 statistics

[70]. We compared the Roanoke Island, NC (NCX) population to the most northern population

(Woods Hole, MA; MAW) and most southern population (Panacea, FL; FLP) and, notably, this

resulted in a negative $f3$ statistic and an absolute Z score >= 3 (threshold used for significance),

highlighting a significant degree of admixture in the Roanoke Island, NC population (Additional

file 1: Table S5). In line with a recent study which detected evidence of admixture in Virginia [62],

we also observed signatures of admixture in Virginia (Gloucester Point, VA; VAV), as well as

other northern populations (including in populations ~450 km away, namely NJR and MDA). In

contrast, there is no admixture observed in any populations south of Roanoke Island, even though

Pivers Island, NC (NCB) is comparatively close (~180 km south).

Our analyses reveal two divergent genetic lineages in US Atlantic *Mnemiopsis*. These results are

consistent with previous studies that reported genetic differentiation between Massachusetts and

Florida populations [58] and identified a population breakpoint near Cape Hatteras, NC [59].

Building on this earlier work, our high-resolution spatial and genomic sampling further

demonstrates that the genetic breakpoint between the two lineages is a narrow hybrid zone. There

is cumulative evidence of admixture observed from Roanoke Island, NC up to Gloucester Point,

VA (~170 km north) but little evidence of admixture observed at Pivers Island, NC, which is

located only ~180 km to the south. Although $f3$-statistics suggest evidence of admixture in Little

Egg Harbor Township, NJ (NJR), and Berlin, MD (MDA), this result contrasts with the other

population genetic results and is therefore more likely explained by a counterintuitive property of

f-statistic computations known as sister repulsion [71]. Sister repulsion can occur when there is

unidirectional gene flow between study regions or when populations experience gene flow from

an unsampled genetically distant source. Extending our approach to new geographic locations

across the reported range of *Mnemiopsis* would make discerning between these two processes

possible. However, we posit that this pattern is most likely explained by unidirectional gene flow

given our demographic modeling results (see next section). Taken together, our findings indicate

that the genetic breakpoint is located where the Gulf Stream leaves the coast and moves offshore

into the open Atlantic Ocean, and we find evidence of a hybrid zone potentially resulting from

recent secondary contact. We also see high levels of genome-wide divergence, which tends to be

more typical of species that experienced geographic isolation during the early stages of speciation

[72, 73], however demographic analyses are required to explore this further. With this in mind, we

will hereafter refer to the northern lineage as *M. leidyi* and the southern lineage as *M.*

gardeni (following the naming scheme employed in WoRMS).

Fig. 2: *Mnemiopsis* exhibits strong population structuring along the US Atlantic Coast. A) Admixture plots for the 118 *Mnemiopsis* samples for K = 2 to K = 4 where each bar represents a single individual, and the colors represent each of the K components. **B)** MDS plot for PC1 and PC2 with the percent of total variance explained by each component shown above the plot in parentheses. Samples are colored according to their sampling location with *M. leidyi* samples (northern lineage) clustering on the left and *M. gardeni* samples (southern lineage) clustering on the right. **C)** Stairway plot results show different demographic histories of the two species with a generation time of one year and a mutation rate of 6.85×10^{-8} per base pair per year.

Demographic history of Mnemiopsis

We employed a Stairway Plot analysis [74] to reconstruct the demographic histories of

Mnemiopsis, assuming a generation time of 1 year (see Methods). The two species show strikingly

different population size trajectories beginning roughly 10,000 years ago (Figure 2C). Around this

time frame, *M. gardeni* exhibits sustained population growth whereas *M. leidyi* displays a more

complex history with two population bottlenecks, one around 10,000 years ago and a second

between 2,000 - 3,000 years ago, followed by a recent recovery and expansion. The divergence

between the effective population size curves for *M. gardeni* and *M. leidyi* that begins ~10,000

years ago coincides with major post-glacial events. Around this time, the Laurentide Glacier

retreated (~8,000 years ago), and the sudden drainage of Lake Agassiz released a large influx of

cold freshwater into the northern Atlantic [75]. This influx of cold freshwater likely reduced the

current in the ocean conveyor belt and resulted in a decrease in the amount of warm seawater

traveling northward, subsequently causing temperatures to drop in the Northern Hemisphere [75,

76]. The population expansion that followed may have been a result of a reduction in the Gulf

Stream current following the Lake Agassiz flood which would have allowed *Mnemiopsis* to

migrate northward. It is unclear what would have caused the population bottleneck ~ 2,000 – 3,000

years ago in *M. leidyi*. It is possible that it was caused by the Little Ice Age – a cooling period in

the northern hemisphere, although this occurred roughly between 1300 – 1850 [77, 78] and

therefore does not line up perfectly with our estimated bottleneck.

Our results differ from the sequentially Markovian coalescent (PSMC) results reported in Jaspers

et al. 2021 [58], which were based on a pairwise comparison of populations from Massachusetts

and Florida. While both studies identify population expansions about ~50,000 generations ago and

a population bottleneck ~10,000 generations ago, their *M. leidyi* samples did not show oscillating

population size changes. Additionally, their *M. gardeni* samples showed a steady increase in

population size from ~500,000-50,000 generations ago and then a decrease in population size from

then onwards. In contrast, ours has shown a steady increase in population size from 100,000

generations ago to present day. The difference in findings can likely be explained by the increased

geospatial resolution in our study. In addition, while the PSMC method [79] performs well for

inferring ancient histories, the Stairway Plot method is more accurate for inference of more recent

population histories and we see the greatest discordance in our results when looking at more recent

population histories [74, 80].

Our demographic analysis using *Moments* further refined our understanding [81]. The best-fit

demographic model (sc3ielsm1, Additional file 1: Fig. S2-4) included secondary contact and three

epochs in each species following their initial divergence. The split between *M. leidyi* and *M.*

gardeni occurred approximately 223 Kya, followed by ~107 Kya of low-to-moderate bidirectional

gene flow. The second epoch began around 116 Kya and was characterized by genetic

isolation lasting roughly 89 Kya. The most recent epoch started approximately 27 Kya, during

which asymmetrical migration occurred predominantly from *M. gardeni* to *M. leidyi*. Across these

epochs, *M. leidyi* experienced an initial population expansion, followed by a sustained decline,

whereas *M. gardeni* displayed the opposite pattern, an initial contraction followed by consistent

population growth.

Together, Stairway Plot and *Moments* analyses reveal broadly consistent demographic patterns.

Moments infers a reasonably ancient divergence time, perhaps because incorporating migration

into the model allows some population differences to be explained by a more ancient split rather

than recent divergence. Both approaches recover evidence of pronounced population size

reductions in *M. leidyi*. The magnitude and number of contractions differ between methods, likely

because *Moments* is limited to modeling a maximum of three population size changes, whereas

Stairway Plot can recover more complex histories. These methods also concur that *M. gardeni* has

undergone a recent expansion, though they differ on whether *M. leidyi* has rebounded or continues

to experience a population contraction. Overall, the demographic models suggest that divergence

likely began in the mid-to-late Pleistocene, potentially caused by distant colonization events,

geological change, sea level changes or changes in prevailing currents [82]. However, it remains

unclear whether genetic isolation was initiated by glacially driven flooding and subsequent re-

strengthening of the Gulf Stream, or whether divergence predates these events, with post-glacial

oceanographic changes instead facilitating secondary contact and asymmetric migration from *M.*

gardeni to *M. leidyi*.

Structural genomic evidence of speciation

Chromosome-scale linkages of orthologous genes tend to be conserved even over very long time

frames [83–87]. As such, chromosomal rearrangements are major evolutionary events that can

either cause speciation events and/or provide evidence of long periods of isolation between

lineages. To investigate structural differences between *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni* genomes, we

produced two high-quality, near chromosome-level genome assemblies of one *M. leidyi* sample

from Massachusetts and one *M. gardeni* sample from Florida. We conducted macrosynteny

analyses to check for evidence of chromosomal rearrangements between the two species' near-

chromosomal length genome assemblies. In addition, we compared both genomes to the recently

published chromosome-level genome assembly of *Bolinopsis microptera* [86], a lineage that is

closely related to *Mnemiopsis* [88], in order to infer ancestral chromosomal states. We identified

at least one chromosomal rearrangement between the *M. gardeni* and *M. leidyi* genomes (Figure

3A-C). The *M. leidyi* scaffold L006 maps to two *M. gardeni* scaffolds: G002, which maps

completely to chromosome one of *B. microptera*, and G004, which maps completely to

chromosome eight of *B. microptera*. The fact that this linkage group is present in both *M. gardeni*

and *B. microptera* suggests that the genomic rearrangement occurred in *M. leidyi*. There are

potentially other rearrangements involving the *M. leidyi* scaffolds L012 and L018, but a

chromosome-scale assembly is needed to confirm or refute those possibilities.

As copy number variants (CNVs) can drive genome evolution [89] and contribute to both

speciation events [90] and environmental adaptation [91], we examined CNV patterns between the

two species. Genome-wide patterns of CNV across samples largely mirror that of SNP variation,

with separation of samples into clusters associated with *M. leidyi*, samples south of the Outer

Banks, and the Floridian samples (Additional file 1: Fig. S5). We assessed the 67 genes in the top

1% of fixation index values (V_{ST}; Additional file 3: Table S6). Of these 67 genes, only 21 (31%)

were assigned a gene ontology (GO) category [92] based on sequence similarity (Additional file

1: Table S7). We ran a Monte Carlo analysis and showed that this is significantly less ($P = 0.0006$)

than would be expected by chance. On average, a random set of 67 genes would produce 32 (48%)

genes within an associated GO category. These data suggest that the CNV outliers are enriched in

so-called "orphan" genes. This is not unexpected, as "orphan" genes are often associated with

effector functions (e.g., [93]) rather than highly conserved functions that are often critical to

survival.

The top V_{ST} CNV gene (jg9426 in the *M. gardeni* genome) is a putative G-protein coupled receptor

(GPCR), a class of cell surface receptors that detect molecules (e.g., light energy, lipids, proteins)

and activate cellular responses. This GPCR gene copy is missing from *M. leidyi* and appears to be

the result of either a species-specific duplication in *M. gardeni* or from a deletion of an ancestrally

duplicated gene in *M. leidyi* (*M. gardeni* gene IDs: jg9426 and jg9432, *M. leidyi* gene ID:

ML07987a; Figure 3D, Additional file 1: Fig. S6). It is one of four predicted GPCRs in these 67

genes (Additional file 1: Table S8). These GPCRs are all part of GPCR clades that have

independently radiated in ctenophores and have a many-to-many relationship with non-ctenophore

GPCRs, making it difficult to infer function. Loss or duplications in these genes would likely lead

to changes in sensory capabilities or cellular responses downstream of sensory inputs, changes that

are widely hypothesized to facilitate ecological speciation (speciation caused by divergent

selection; [94, 95]). These microevolutionary changes are consistent with the macroevolutionary

pattern of loss and expansion observed in GPCRs, offering insight into mechanisms that underly

the independent radiation commonly seen in phylogenetic analyses of channel and receptor genes

from multiple species. These observations are consistent with the "accordion model" of gene

evolution, where rounds of extensive loss are followed by rounds of extensive duplication [96].

Overall, patterns in the CNV data mirror those seen at the single nucleotide level and, although

gene loss in *M. leidyi* may be a result of severe bottlenecks or selective pressures, it may also stem

from reference bias, highlighting the need for pangenomic approaches [97, 98].

Fig. 3: Large-scale genomic rearrangements between species. (A) Chord diagram of macrosynteny on a near-chromosome scale between *Mnemiopsis leidyi* (top), *M. gardeni* (middle), and *Bolinopsis microptera* (bottom). The coordinates of 12,134 orthologs (based on reciprocal best BLAST hits) are plotted. **(B)** Plot of macrosynteny between *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni*. **(C)** Oxford dot plot between *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni*. Each dot represents an ortholog. **(D)** The genomic landscape neighboring the top copy

number variation outlier gene based on fixation index values (V_{ST}). Normalized read depth plot for short-
read sequences from *M. leidyi* (blue) and *M. gardeni* (red) for *M. gardeni* scaffold 001 from position
9,278,170 – 9,378,170.

Genomic signatures of selection in genes mediating environmental sensing

To investigate signatures of selection and local adaptation, we used the cross-population

composite-likelihood ratio (XP-CLR) test [99]. We observed key sensory related and neural genes

found in regions within the top 10% of XP-CLR values (Additional file 4: Table S9). These

included 79 GPCR's, four TRP channels, five glutamate receptors, the single *Mnemiopsis* voltage-

gated calcium channel, one of the two *Mnemiopsis* voltage-gated sodium channels, 10 voltage-

gated potassium channels, three acid-sensing ion channels (ASIC), two calcium-activated

potassium channels, a voltage-gated chloride channel, and a DEG/ENaC channel (Additional file

1: Tables S10-11). Our outlier dataset also contains many other genes that are relevant for nutrient

sensing and metabolism; these include the mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR), acetyl

coenzyme A synthase, malate dehydrogenase, and cytochrome c oxidase subunit 2 genes.

The top XP-CLR outlier region contains the *syntaxin-6* gene (jg7623), which promotes the

movement of transport vesicles to target membranes. We also observe the *O-GLcNAcase* (jg8681)

gene in the outlier dataset, which codes for a post-translational modifier of serine and threonine

residues on a wide range of proteins [100]. We highlight these two genes in Figure 4 as they have

both been implicated in modulating autophagic flux in response to nutrient status in

Caenorhabditis elegans [101, 102]. Both sweep regions show multiple signatures of selection,

including reduced nucleotide diversity in *M. leidyi*, elevated F_{ST} values, and an excess of rare

alleles (as evidenced by the more negative Tajima's *D* values for *M. leidyi*). We hypothesize that

overwintering in northern populations may be a driver of these selective sweeps, as organisms are

likely nutrient-deficient during this time. Interestingly, *M. gardeni* populations have significantly

lower Tajima's *D* values than *M. leidyi* populations across the entire genome (W=1.16×10^9; *P* <

0.01). However, this pattern breaks down at the target of selective sweeps. This may be consistent

with overall genomic patterns highlighting a population expansion in *M. gardeni* and population

contractions in *M. leidyi* that is disrupted at the site of selective sweeps.

To highlight functional categories of these genes, we conducted gene ontology (GO) analysis [92]

of the 2,093 genes that overlap with the genomic windows ranked in the top 10% of XP-CLR

values (Additional file 1: Table S12). These genes were significantly enriched (*P* <= 0.05) for GO

molecular function categories, including those associated with sensory processing, neural activity,

or diet, such as GPCR signaling pathways (*P* = 0.0136), GPCR activity (*P* = 0.0152), Golgi vesicle

transport (*P* = 0.0399), neurotransmitter transport (*P* = 0.0424), and chitin metabolic processes (*P*

= 0.0056). The chitin metabolic processes category includes two chitinase genes, which are critical

for digesting prey. These findings suggest that recent selection has acted on genes involved in

environmental sensing and resilience to nutrient deficiency and provide important candidate genes

for future functional verification.

Fig. 4: **Genes involved in autophagic flux are under strong positive selection between species.** The two genes: *syntaxin-6* (left) and *O-GlcNAcase* (right) that are under putative positive selection. The (A) XP-CLR, (B) F_{ST}, (C) D_{XY}, (D) nucleotide diversity (π), and (E) Tajima's *D* values were calculated with nonoverlapping windows and step sizes. The locations of the two sweeping windows are shown with gray boxes. For panels D and E, blue lines indicate *Mnemiopsis leidyi* and red lines indicate *M. gardeni*.

Conclusions

Both the population genomic and structural genomic evidence are consistent with there being two species of *Mnemiopsis* on the US Atlantic coast. We report high levels of genome-wide divergence, as well as mitonuclear discordance. Demographic modeling suggests that these species diverged in the mid-to-late Pleistocene, with long-term genetic isolation followed by secondary contact and asymmetric migration from *M. gardeni* into *M. leidyi*, a scenario supported by the hybrid zone we identify along the North Carolina coast. We highlight large-scale genomic rearrangements between species that are consistent with a history of population contractions or small founder populations. We find evidence of selection on sensory and nervous system genes, with similar trends being reported in other species following speciation events [88, 103–106].

Further research is needed to investigate morphological, reproductive, and life-history traits that

may help provide further evidence for multiple species, as well as to examine the possibility that

more *Mnemiopsis* species exist in Central and South America, as the mitochondrial results of

Bayha et al. suggest [59]. More broadly, our knowledge of evolution is heavily biased across the

tree of life, and this study reinforces the importance of expanding taxon sampling as a means

towards gaining a much richer understanding of how evolutionary forces shape the genomic

variation between populations and species.

Methods

Sampling

One individual was collected from each of two locations for genome assembly: Woods Hole, MA

and Flagler Beach, FL. These samples were collected in August 2023 from surface waters (<2m)

using a cteno-dipper [49]. Samples were preserved in ethanol and placed in a -20°C freezer until

further processing.

A total of 118 *Mnemiopsis* samples were collected from thirteen locations along the Atlantic and

Gulf coast of the United States. These locations included: Woods Hole, MA, Little Egg Harbor

Township, NJ, Berlin, MD, Gloucester Point VA, Roanoke Island, NC, Pivers Island, NC,

Wrightsville Beach, NC, Charleston, SC, Skidaway Island, GA, Skidaway Island offshore, GA,

Flagler Beach, FL, Fort Pierce, FL, and Panacea, FL (Figure 1). Samples were collected between

August 2021 and November 2022 from surface waters (<10m) using either a cteno-dipper or a tow

net. Samples were immediately preserved in ethanol and placed in a -20°C freezer until further

processing.

DNA Extraction and Sequencing

High molecular weight DNA was extracted according to the CTAB/chloroform protocol detailed in Erlich et al. 2017 [107]. DNA extractions were visualized on a 1% agarose gel for quality control and quantified using a Qubit dsDNA High Sensitivity Assay Kit on a Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer. For the genome assemblies, sequencing was performed on a Pacific Biosciences Sequel IIe platform, in the Circular Consensus sequencing (CCS) mode. A total of 17.7 - 20.2 Gb of HiFi reads were generated using CCS for the two individuals. PacBio library preparation and sequencing were performed at NIH Intramural Sequence Center (NISC) in Rockville, MD.

For short-read whole genome sequencing, all DNA extractions were visualized on a 1% agarose gel for quality control. One hundred and eighteen individually indexed, paired-end libraries with an approximate insert size of 550 bp were constructed using the NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA Library Preparation kit. Whole-genome sequencing was performed at the University of Florida's ICBR Bioinformatics Core Facility on a single flowcell lane of a NovaSeq6000.

De novo *Genome Assembly*

Hifiasm v0.19.8 [108] was used to assemble the two genomes. For the Flagler Beach, FL individual, the `--hom-cov` flag was set to 90. To reduce the amount of duplication, PurgeHaplotigs v1.1.2 [109] was run with the 'contigcov' option for low coverage, low point between the peaks, and high coverage cutoffs set to 10, 70, and 175 respectively. The percent cutoff for identifying a contig as a haplotig (`-a` flag) was set to 50% and this assembly was subsequently run through PurgeHaplotigs 'clip' option that identifies and trims overlapping contig

ends. For the Woods Hole, MA individual, the `--hom-cov` flag was set to 101, the 'contigcov'

options were set to 25, 70, and 155, and the `-j` and `-s` flags were both set to 55. The percent

cutoff `-a` flag was set to 60% and the final assembly was also clipped to remove overlapping

contig ends.

Gene Prediction and Annotation

Genomic repetitive elements were identified with RepeatModeler v1.0.11 [110] to generate a

Mnemiopsis-specific repeat element library. Repetitive regions were soft masked prior to gene

prediction and annotation using RepeatMasker v4.0.8. We aligned previously published bulk

RNA-Seq reads from tissues (PRJEB28334; [111]) to the above genome assembly using Bowtie2

[112]. Aligned RNA-seq data and gene models for *M. leidyi* (ML2.2.aa) were input into Braker

v2.1.5 [113]. Assembled gene/protein models were functionally annotated using BLASTP v2.9.0+

with three protein databases: UniProt Knowledgebase Swiss-Prot protein models v2021-03,

RefSeq invertebrate protein models, and the *M. leidyi* protein models [54]. Finally, BUSCO v5

[65] was used to measure the completeness of the genome assembly and protein sequences using

the Eukaryota database.

Macrosynteny Analysis

We analyzed conserved chromosome-scale synteny (macrosynteny) between these new Florida

and Massachusetts *Mnemiopsis* assemblies, as well as the published *Bolinopsis microptera*

genome assembly. To identify conserved genes, we performed diamond BLAST [114] to compute

the reciprocal best BLAST hits between the 2013 ML2.2 *Mnemiopsis* gene models and the gene

models of each of the new *Mnemiopsis* assemblies and the published *B. microptera* gene models.

These reciprocal best BLAST hits were used to identify significantly conserved macrosyntenic

blocks in MacrosyntR (version 0.3.3; [115]).

Copy Number Analysis

Copy number variation between the two species was assessed using the GATK germline CNV

(gCNV) pipeline in cohort mode [116]. The pipeline was run using the exome approach to focus

specifically on genic regions and gene intervals were padded by 250 bp. Intervals with fewer than

50 reads in greater than 50% of individuals were excluded and samples from Roanoke Island in

North Carolina were excluded due to their admixture. Denoised copy number ratios were

processed in R to remove copy number invariant loci, perform principal component analysis, and

to calculate the V_{ST} statistic. Loci with the top 1% of V_{ST} values were considered outliers.

Microsynteny plots for CNV loci were generated by performing contig alignments in MUMmer

[117]. SYRI was subsequently used to identify synteny and structural rearrangements, with plots

generated using Plotsr [118, 119] and read depth was calculated using Samtools v.1.9 [120].

Data Processing and Filtering of Short-Read Data

Raw sequence data was trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.39 [121] with a minimum phred score of

33. Once the data was filtered and adaptors were removed, the paired sequences were aligned to

the Flagler Beach, FL genome using BWA-mem v0.7.12 [79]. Sequence alignments were filtered

using Samtools for a minimum quality score of 30, Sambamba v0.6.6 [122] was used to filter

duplicate reads with default parameters, and bamutil v1.0.15 [123] was used to clip overlapping

read pairs.

We generated three datasets for our different analyses: LD-Filtered (89,750 SNPs), Lineage-

Specific Filtered (3.8 million SNPs), and the All-Sites Filtered (81 million positions). For each

dataset, we used the Flagler Beach, FL genome as our reference and ancestral genome as it was

the most contiguous assembly.

<u>LD-Filtered Dataset.</u> This dataset was produced by using ANGSD v0.921 [124] to call SNPs and

estimate genotype likelihoods using the Samtools model (`-GL 1`). We filtered the SNP data for

1) positions that were present in at least 94 out of 118 samples, 2) a maximum coverage of 2,360x

per site across all individuals to avoid calling sites in highly repetitive regions, 3) a minimum of

354x coverage per site across all individuals, 4) a minimum base quality score >20, 5) a *P*-value

cut off of 10^{-6} for calling polymorphic loci and 6) retained only SNPs with a global minor allele

frequency >5%. The ANGSD output was then subsampled for one SNP out of every 50 and

pairwise linkage disequilibrium (LD) was estimated with ngsLD v1.1.1 [125] on this subsampled

dataset. Linked sites were pruned with the script 'prune_graph.pl' with a maximum distance of 10

kb between SNPs and a minimum weight of 0.5 [126]. The final LD-Filtered dataset was used to

generate phylogenetic trees, ngsADMIX and MDS plots, and to calculate population pairwise F_{ST}

statistics.

<u>Lineage-Specific Filtered Dataset.</u> The second dataset was filtered using the same ANGSD flags

as the first dataset (excluding the LD filtering steps) but then underwent a second round of lineage-

level filtering. Specifically, sampling locations from Woods Hole, MA to Roanoke Island, NC

were included in the 'northern lineage' group and sampling locations from Pivers Island, NC to

Panacea, FL were included in the 'southern lineage' group. These two groups were filtered

separately and then later recombined. For the northern lineage, we filtered the dataset for 1)

positions that were present in at least 36 out of 45 individuals, 2) a maximum coverage of 900x

coverage per site across all individuals, 3) a minimum of 108x coverage per site across all

individuals. For the southern lineage we filtered the dataset for 1) positions that were present in at

least 58 out of 73 individuals, 2) a maximum coverage of 1,460x coverage per site across all

individuals, 3) a minimum of 175x coverage per site across all individuals. We restricted the

secondary lineage-specific filtering step to the subset of positions that were retained in the first

round of filtering using the sites option in ANGSD. Filtering in this manner guarantees that sites

with an allele that is fixed in one lineage will be retained. The final lineage-specific filtered dataset

was used to generate sliding window F_{ST} values, XP-CLR values, and to calculate f_3 statistics.

<u>All-Sites Filtered Dataset.</u> The third dataset was filtered with the same method as the Lineage-

Specific Filtered dataset, but we included all non-polymorphic sites. This dataset was used as input

to our demographic analyses and to calculate nucleotide diversity [127], Tajima's D [128] and D_{XY}

values.

Population Structure Analysis

We used the ngsDist option in ngsTools [129] on the LD-Filtered dataset to compute genetic

distances between individuals and perform multiple dimensional scaling (MDS). We then looked

for signatures of admixture using ngsADMIX [69] with runs ranging from K = 2 to K = 7.

Weighted pairwise F_{ST} values were estimated between the individuals from the North (Woods

Hole, MA to Roanoke Island, NC) and the individuals from the South (Pivers Island, NC to

Panacea, FL) using ANGSD with the `-doSaf 1` flag. We then used realSFS to estimate the 2D

site frequency spectrum for each population and calculated the average pairwise weighted F_{ST}

using `realSFS fst`. Weighted pairwise F_{ST} estimates were also calculated between each

sampling location using ANGSD with the same parameters.

NgsDist was used to compute genetic distances from genotype probabilities with *Bolinopsis*

infundibulum as the outgroup (PRJNA818620; [86]). Raw *Bolinopsis* sequences were filtered

according to the same protocol as was applied to *Mnemiopsis* and then we ran ANGSD with

Bolinopsis included, a minor allele frequency filter of 0.05 and a SNP *P*-value cut off of 1×10^{-6}.

This set of filters resulted in 1,302 SNPs that were used to generate the phylogenetic tree based on

the nuclear genome. NgsDist was run with 100 bootstrap replicates and a boot block size of 20.

Finally, FastME v2.1.6.1 [130] was used to visualize the pairwise genetic distances and RAxML-

NG v0.9.0 [131] was used to place bootstrap supports onto the tree. Final figures were generated

using the Interactive Tree of Life tool v6.9.1 [132].

Novoplasty v4.3.1 [133] was used to extract the mitochondrial genome from each trimmed sample

using the published *Mnemiopsis leidyi* COI sequence (KF435121.1 [134]) as the seed. When this

was unsuccessful, we instead used the published *Bolinopsis microptera* (PRJNA716277 [88])

whole genome sequences and ran Novoplasty with the published *B. microptera* COI seed

(MW735734.1 [135]) to extract the complete mitochondrial genome. The complete *B. microptera*

mitochondrial genome was then used as a seed for the remaining samples that initially failed

Novoplasty. Using this approach, we were able to successfully assemble 112 out of 118 complete

Mnemiopsis mitochondrial genomes. Next, we used MARS [136] to ensure that each

mitochondrial genome began at the same location using the branch and bound method and the

block length set to 100. We used MAFFT v7.480 [137] to generate an alignment and IQ-TREE

v2.3.2 [138] to generate a phylogenetic tree.

Demographic Analysis

To infer the demographic history of these species, we used two approaches based on allele

frequency spectra. First, StairwayPlot v2 [74] was used to reconstruct effective population size

estimates based on the folded SFS generated from the All-Sites Filtered dataset. Stairway Plot is

an unsupervised analysis method that does not require prespecified demographic models. We used

a mutation rate of 6.85×10^{-8} per base pair per year [58] and a generation time of 1 year [139]. The

hermaphroditic *Mnemiopsis* can reproduce within the first month of its lifespan [140], its lifespan

is approximately 2 years [139], and there is no information indicating that they ever lose the ability

to reproduce. As such, the mean age of reproduction was set to 1 year but due to the surrounding

uncertainty, we plotted the results in generations.

Second, we used the *Moments* Python library [81] based on the two-dimensional AFS to estimate

population size changes and the timing and magnitude of introgression between each pair of

genetic lineages. We subsampled our data so that we only included four populations, two *M. leidyi*

populations (Woods Hole, MA and Little Egg Harbor, NJ) and two *M. gardeni* populations (Fort

Pierce, FL and Panacea, FL), to conservatively remove putative hybrids and for computational

efficiency. This dataset returned approximately 21 million sites in total. Unlike the Stairway Plot

analysis, the *Moments* workflow requires demographic models to be specified at the start of the

analysis. Here, we explicitly tested 102 demographic models (described in detail at

https://github.com/z0on/AFS-analysis-with-moments/) that represent a wide range of possible

demographic histories. Following the *Moments* pipeline described in Rippe et al., 2021, we first

generated 100 bootstrapped two-population AFS datasets [141]. For a subset of 10 of these

bootstrapped AFS, each of the 102 models was run six times using randomized starting parameters.

Model log likelihoods were converted to Akaike's information criterion (AIC) which were then

used to find the best-fit run out of the six runs for each bootstrapped replicate. From the resulting

set of AIC values, the demographic model with the lowest median AIC value across all 10

bootstrapped AFS replicates was chosen. Finally, the 'winning' demographic model was fitted to

all 100 bootstrapped AFS to evaluate parameter uncertainties. As with the Stairway plot analysis,

we assumed a mutation rate of 6.85×10^{-8} per base pair per year and a generation time of 1 year.

F_3 Statistics

We used f_3 statistics, included as part of the ADMIXTOOLS package v.7.0.2 [70], as a test for

detecting hybridization. The f_3 statistic is a tool to test whether a population is admixed between

two source populations or to measure shared genetic drift between two test populations compared

to an outgroup population. If the f_3 statistic is negative, this suggests that admixture has likely

occurred. For this analysis, all populations which belonged to the northern mitochondrial lineage

were combined into one population and all the populations which belonged to the southern

mitochondrial lineage were combined into the second population. These two lineages were tested

against Roanoke Island, NC and Gloucester Point, VA.

Genomic Signatures of Selection

To detect regions of the genome under putative selection between the two lineages, we used XP-

CLR [99] which uses the AFS to calculate local deviations between populations. We used a sliding

window and step size of 10 kb with the `maxSNPs` flag set to 200. The genomic regions in the top

10% of the XP-CLR values were considered to represent selective sweeps and were associated

with overlapping genes using Bedtools v.2.29.0 [142]. We used InterProScan (version 5.25-64) to

associate gene ontology categories with the *M. gardeni* gene models. We conducted a Monte Carlo

analysis to identify overrepresented gene ontology terms as was conducted in Babonis et al. 2018

[111].

To further characterize genomic patterns of regions under selection, we generated sliding window

scans for F_{ST}, D_{XY}, nucleotide diversity (π), and Tajima's *D* values, with the hybrid Roanoke

Island, NC population removed. The Lineage-Specific Filtered dataset was used to generate the

F_{ST} values. We used `realSFS F`$_{ST}$` index` in ANGSD to compute per-site F_{ST} indexes and

`realSFS F`$_{ST}$` stats2` to perform a sliding window analysis with the window and step size set

to 5 kb to ensure nonoverlapping windows. The All-Sites Filtered dataset was used to generate

nucleotide diversity, Tajima's *D,* and D_{XY} values. For nucleotide diversity and Tajima's *D*

calculations, we used `realSFS saf2theta` in ANGSD to generate folded SFS's and then

calculated these values along a sliding window (window size 5 kb, step size 5 kb) with

`thetaStat do_stat`. For D_{XY} calculations, we used the CalcDxy.R code by Joshua Penalba

in ngsTools [129] and then averaged the resulting values over the same 5 kb windows as the F_{ST}

and nucleotide calculations. By combining several tests and summary statistics, we can make

inferences about evolutionary forces acting on regions of interest with greater certainty.

Abbreviations:

SNP – Single Nucleotide Polymorphism

SV – Structural Variant

MDS – Multidimensional Scaling

PSMC – Pairwise Sequentially Markovian Coalescent

AIC – Akaike's Information Criterion

GO – Gene Ontology

COI – Mitochondrial Cytochrome C Oxidase subunit I

LD – Linkage Disequilibrium

CNV – Copy Number Variation

Declarations: *Acknowledgements.* We would like to thank Dr. Ann Tarrant, Roland Hagan,

Robert Aguilar, Dr. Deborah Steinberg, Tor Mowatt-Larssen, Eli at Outer Banks Kayaking

Adventures, Ken Song, Carol Smith, Dr. Joshua Osterberg, Dr. Jacob Warner, Dr. Daniel Sasson,

Dr. Marc Frischer, Dr. Adam Greer, Kyle Aaron, Dr. Holly Sweat, and Dr. Yuriy Bobkov for

help collecting *Mnemiopsis* samples along the US Atlantic coast. We also thank Dr. Dan

Schrider and Austin Daigle at UNC Chapel Hill for help analyzing and interpreting demographic

modeling results. We would like to acknowledge the ICBR for their excellent sequencing and

service (RRID:SCR_019152). We would like to thank Dr. James Thomas at the NIH Intramural

Sequencing Center (NISC) for his help with the PacBio sequencing. We would also like to thank

Dr. Gustav Paulay and Dr. Claudia Mills for their help navigating the complex taxonomy of

Mnemiopsis. Finally, we want to thank Dr. Mark Ravinet for his help brainstorming ideas

pertaining to the hybridization of these two species. *Consent for Publication.* The authors have

all been consulted on draft and final versions of the manuscript and have consented to

publication. *Funding.* This work was supported in part with a Postdoctoral Research Fellowship

in Biology (PRFB) from the National Science Foundation (award number: 2109712) to R.N.K,

an Allen Distinguished Investigator Award from the Paul G. Allen Frontiers Group of the Paul

G. Allen Family Foundation to J.F.R. This research was also supported in part by the Intramural

Research Program of the National Human Genome Research Institute, National Institutes of

Health (ZIA HG000140 to A.D.B). ***Data Availability.*** The datasets supporting the conclusions of

this article are available at the NCBI under BioProject accession number PRJEB87530. The

genome assemblies for each *Mnemiopsis* species are also available under the above BioProject

accession codes. All scripts are publicly available at

https://github.com/remiketchum/Mnemiopsis_2026. ***Authors' Contributions.*** Conceptualization:

R.N.K and J.F.R. Investigation (fieldwork): R.N.K, W.B.L, E.G.S, J.F.R. Investigation

(analysis): R.N.K, E.G.S, J.F.R, L.M.T, N.E.P. Resources: J.F.R, A.D.B, A.M.R. All authors

read and approved the final manuscript. ***Competing Interests.*** Authors declare no competing

interests. ***Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate.*** Not applicable.

Legends for Additional Files:

Additional File 1: Tables 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12 and Figures 1-6.

Table S1 – Collection information for all samples collected along the US Atlantic coast including date of collection, number of samples collected, coordinates, and collection method.

Table S2 – Comparison of genome assembly benchmarks between the two published *Mnemiopsis leidyi* genomes and the two new genome assemblies.

Table S4 – F_{ST} values across all populations of *Mnemiopsis* collected based on the LD-Filtered SNP dataset.

Table S5 – f_3 results where each row represents a scenario where the FLP and MAW populations are the source for admixture and the third population is the target of hybridization. A f_3 statistic, the standard error (SE) and a Z-score value calculated with jackknife is provided for each scenario.

Table S7 – Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of genes in the top 1% regions of copy number variation outliers reveals enrichment in molecular functions (MF), cellular components (CC), and biological processes (BP).

Table S8 – Putative G protein-coupled receptors in the top 1% of copy number variation outliers.

Table S10 – Putative G-coupled protein receptors in the top 10% of XP-CLR outliers with corresponding *M. gardeni* gene ID.

Table S11 – Channels and receptors in the top 10% of XP-CLR outliers with corresponding *M. gardeni* gene ID.

Table S12 – Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of genes in the top 10% of XP-CLR outlier regions reveals enrichment in molecular functions, cellular components, and biological processes.

Figure S1 – Admixture plots for the 118 *Mnemiopsis* samples collected for K = 5 to K = 7 where each bar represents a single individual, and the colors represent each of the K components.

Figure S2 – Boxplots summarizing the best AIC scores for each model for all bootstrapped replicates for each of 102 demographic models tested. The inset plot shows the boxplot for the median AIC for the top ten best-fitting models in the set.

Figure S3 – Plots showing the goodness-of-fit of the best fitting model (sc3ielsm1). The top two panels show the observed AFS (top left) and the modeled AFS (top right). The

lower two plots show model errors plotted as residuals between the best-fit model and the data (bottom left) and the frequency histogram of residuals (bottom right).

Figure S4 – The best-fit demographic model (sc3ielsm1) inferred using *Moments* for the demographic history between *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni*. This best-fit model includes three epochs in each species with symmetric migration in the first and asymmetric migration in the last.

Figure S5 – PCA plot based on copy number variation among samples. Copy number estimates were generated as denoised copy number ratios in GATK. Individuals are colored by their sampling location.

Figure S6 – The top V_{ST} outlier gene occurs in an *M. gardeni*-specific duplicated region. This dot plot shows BLAST hits (e-value < 1e-10; length >= 500bp) between corresponding regions in the *M. leidyi* and *M. gardeni* assemblies. The V_{ST} outlier gene (jg9426 – Mgar.v1.001:9329910-9331046) occurs as part of a larger duplicated region in *M. gardeni*. In *M. leidyi*, this region is single-copy. Arrows highlight the location of the *M. gardeni* duplicated genes.

Additional File 2: Table S3

Table S3 – Assembled gene/protein models that were annotated using three protein databases: UniProt Knowledgebase Swiss-Prot protein models v2021-03, RefSeq invertebrate protein models, and the *M. leidyi* protein models.

Additional File 3: Table S6
Table S6 – The top 1% of fixation index values (V_{ST}) for the copy number variation analyses with their associated annotations taken from Additional File 2: Table S3.

Additional File 4: Table S9
Table S9 – The top 10% of XP-CLR values calculated between the two lineages using a sliding window approach, a step-size of 10 Kb and the `maxSNPs flag` set to 200. We have appended their associated annotations from Additional File 2: Table S3.

References

1. Matute DR, Cooper BS. Comparative studies on speciation: 30 years since Coyne and Orr. Evol Int J Rrganic Evol. 2021;75:764–78. https://doi.org/10.1111/evo.14181.

2. Mayr E. Animal species and evolution. Harvard University Press; 1963.

3. Coyne JA, Orr HA. Speciation: a catalogue and critique of species concepts. Philos Biol Anthol. 2004;:272–92.

4. Frayer ME, Robles NV, Rodríguez-Barrera MJ, Coughlan JM, Schumer M. The molecular evolutionary basis of species formation revisited. Trends Genet. 2025;41:1068–95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tig.2025.07.003.

5. Bolnick DI, Fitzpatrick BM. Sympatric speciation: models and empirical evidence. Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst. 2007;38:459–87.

6. Paudel Y, Madsen O, Megens H-J, Frantz LAF, Bosse M, Crooijmans RPMA, et al. Copy number variation in the speciation of pigs: a possible prominent role for olfactory receptors. BMC Genomics. 2015;16:330. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-015-1449-9.

7. Anderson SA, Weir JT. The role of divergent ecological adaptation during allopatric speciation in vertebrates. Science. 2022;378:1214–8.

8. De Jode A, Le Moan A, Johannesson K, Faria R, Stankowski S, Westram AM, et al. Ten years of demographic modelling of divergence and speciation in the sea. Evol Appl. 2023;16:542–59.

9. Palumbi SR. Genetic divergence, reproductive isolation, and marine speciation. Annu Rev Ecol Syst. 1994;:547–72.

10. Pogson GH. Studying the genetic basis of speciation in high gene flow marine invertebrates. Current Zoology. 2016;62:643–53.

11. Filatov DA. How does speciation in marine plankton work? Trends Microbiol. 2023;31:989–91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2023.07.005.

12. Ravinet M, Faria R, Butlin RK, Galindo J, Bierne N, Rafajlović M, et al. Interpreting the genomic landscape of speciation: a road map for finding barriers to gene flow. Journal of Evolutionary Biology. 2017;30:1450–77.

13. Poikela N, Laetsch DR, Kankare M, Hoikkala A, Lohse K. Experimental introgression in Drosophila: asymmetric postzygotic isolation associated with chromosomal inversions and an incompatibility locus on the X chromosome. Mol Ecol. 2023;32:854–66.

14. Dettman JR, Anderson JB, Kohn LM. Divergent adaptation promotes reproductive isolation among experimental populations of the filamentous fungus Neurospora. BMC Evol Biol. 2008;8:35. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-8-35.

15. Dobzhansky T. Genetics and the origin of species. Columbia university press; 1982.

16. Foote AD. Sympatric speciation in the genomic era. Trends Ecol Evol. 2018;33:85–95.

17. White NJ, Snook RR, Eyres I. The Past and Future of Experimental Speciation. Trends Ecol
Evol. 2020;35:10–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2019.08.009.

18. Feder JL, Gejji R, Yeaman S, Nosil P. Establishment of new mutations under divergence and
genome hitchhiking. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 2012;367:461–74.
https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2011.0256.

19. Gavrilets S. Fitness landscapes and the origin of species. Princeton university press; 2004.

20. Michel AP, Sim S, Powell TH, Taylor MS, Nosil P, Feder JL. Widespread genomic
divergence during sympatric speciation. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2010;107:9724–9.

21. Weissensteiner MH, Bunikis I, Catalán A, Francoijs K-J, Knief U, Heim W, et al. Discovery
and population genomics of structural variation in a songbird genus. Nat Commun.
2020;11:3403.

22. Davey JW, Chouteau M, Barker SL, Maroja L, Baxter SW, Simpson F, et al. Major
improvements to the Heliconius melpomene genome assembly used to confirm 10 chromosome
fusion events in 6 million years of butterfly evolution. G3 Genes Genomes Genet. 2016;6:695–
708.

23. Giménez MD, Förster DW, Jones EP, Jóhannesdóttir F, Gabriel SI, Panithanarak T, et al. A
half-century of studies on a chromosomal hybrid zone of the house mouse. J Hered.
2017;108:25–35.

24. Dierckxsens N, Li T, Vermeesch JR, Xie Z. A benchmark of structural variation detection by
long reads through a realistic simulated model. Genome Biol. 2021;22:1–16.

25. Zhang L, Reifová R, Halenková Z, Gompert Z. How important are structural variants for
speciation? Genes. 2021;12:1084.

26. Ferree PM, Barbash DA. Species-specific heterochromatin prevents mitotic chromosome
segregation to cause hybrid lethality in Drosophila. PLoS Biol. 2009;7:e1000234.

27. Ayala D, Guerrero RF, Kirkpatrick M. Reproductive isolation and local adaptation quantified
for a chromosome inversion in a malaria mosquito. Evolution. 2013;67:946–58.

28. Hager ER, Harringmeyer OS, Wooldridge TB, Theingi S, Gable JT, McFadden S, et al. A
chromosomal inversion contributes to divergence in multiple traits between deer mouse
ecotypes. Science. 2022;377:399–405.

29. Zuellig MP, Sweigart AL. Gene duplicates cause hybrid lethality between sympatric species
of Mimulus. PLoS Genet. 2018;14:e1007130.

30. Ho SS, Urban AE, Mills RE. Structural variation in the sequencing era. Nat Rev Genet.
2020;21:171–89.

31. Choo LQ, Spagliardi G, Malinsky M, Choquet M, Goetze E, Hoarau G, et al. Genome-wide
phylogeography reveals cryptic speciation in the circumglobal planktonic calcifier Limacina
bulimoides. Mol Ecol. 2023;32:3200–19.

32. Breusing C, Johnson SB, Tunnicliffe V, Clague DA, Vrijenhoek RC, Beinart RA. Allopatric
and Sympatric Drivers of Speciation in Alviniconcha Hydrothermal Vent Snails. Mol Biol Evol.
2020;37:3469–84. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msaa177.

33. Schluter D, Howard DJ, Berlocher SH. Endless forms: species and speciation. Oxford Univ.
Press,; 1998.

34. Jaspers C, Costello JH, Colin SP. Carbon content of Mnemiopsis leidyi eggs and specific egg
production rates in northern Europe. J Plankton Res. 2015;37:11–5.

35. Shiganova T. Changes in appendicularian Oikopleura dioica abundance caused by invasion
of alien ctenophores in the Black Sea. J Mar Biol Assoc U K. 2005;85:477–94.

36. Ward RD, Woodwark M, Skibinski DOF. A comparison of genetic diversity levels in marine,
freshwater, and anadromous fishes. J Fish Biol. 1994;44:213–32.

37. Ketchum RN, Smith EG, DeBiasse MB, Vaughan GO, McParland D, Leach WB, et al.
Population genomic analyses of the sea urchin Echinometra sp. EZ across an extreme
environmental gradient. Genome Biol Evol. 2020;12:1819–29.

38. Knutsen H, Jorde PE, André C, Stenseth NC. Fine-scaled geographical population structuring
in a highly mobile marine species: the Atlantic cod. Mol Ecol. 2003;12:385–94.

39. Yan R-J, Schnabel KE, Rowden AA, Guo X-Z, Gardner JP. Population structure and genetic
connectivity of squat lobsters (Munida Leach, 1820) associated with vulnerable marine
ecosystems in the southwest Pacific Ocean. Front Mar Sci. 2020;6:791.

40. Kyle CJ, Boulding EG. Comparative population genetic structure of marine gastropods
(Littorina spp.) with and without pelagic larval dispersal. Mar Biol. 2000;137:835–45.

41. Mianzan HW, Martos P, Costello JH, Guerrero RA. Avoidance of hydrodynamically mixed
environments by Mnemiopsis leidyi (Ctenophora: Lobata) in open-sea populations from
Patagonia, Argentina. Jellyfish Blooms New Probl Solut. 2010;:113–24.

42. Harbison GR, Volovik SP. THE CTENOPHORE, MNEMIOPSIS LEIDYI, IN THE BLACK
SEA: A HOLOPLANKTONIC ORGANISM TRANSPORTED. In: Nonindigenous Estuarine &
Marine Organisms (NEMO): Proceedings of the Conference and Workshop, Seattle,
Washington, April 1993. US Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric
Administration; 1994. p. 25.

43. Mianzan HW, Martos P, Costello JH, Guerrero RA. Avoidance of hydrodynamically mixed
environments by Mnemiopsis leidyi (Ctenophora: Lobata) in open-sea populations from
Patagonia, Argentina. Jellyfish Blooms New Probl Solut. 2010;:113–24.

44. Lowe S, Browne M, Boudjelas S, De Poorter M. 100 of the world's worst invasive alien
species: a selection from the global invasive species database. Invasive Species Specialist Group
Auckland; 2000.

45. Doyle L. Mnemiopsis leidyi. Introd Mar INVASIVE SPECIES. 1984;52.

46. Shiganova TA. Adaptive strategies of Mnemiopsis leidyi A. Agassiz 1865 in different
environments of the Eurasian seas. Mar Pollut Bull. 2020;161:111737.

47. Jaspers C, Møller LF, Kiørboe T. Reproduction rates under variable food conditions and
starvation in Mnemiopsis leidyi: significance for the invasion success of a ctenophore. J Plankton
Res. 2015;37:1011–8.

48. Edgar A, Mitchell DG, Martindale MQ. Whole-body regeneration in the lobate ctenophore
Mnemiopsis leidyi. Genes. 2021;12:867.

49. Sasson DA, Ryan JF. The sex lives of ctenophores: the influence of light, body size, and self-
fertilization on the reproductive output of the sea walnut, Mnemiopsis leidyi. PeerJ.
2016;4:e1846.

50. Sasson DA, Jacquez AA, Ryan JF. The ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi regulates egg
production via conspecific communication. BMC Ecol. 2018;18:1–10.

51. Prentis PJ, Wilson JR, Dormontt EE, Richardson DM, Lowe AJ. Adaptive evolution in
invasive species. Trends Plant Sci. 2008;13:288–94.

52. Lee CE. Evolutionary genetics of invasive species. Trends Ecol Evol. 2002;17:386–91.

53. Child CM. The gradient in susceptibility to cyanides in the meridional conducting path of the
ctenophore Mnemiopsis. Am J Physiol-Leg Content. 1917;43:87–112.

54. Ryan JF, Pang K, Schnitzler CE, Nguyen A-D, Moreland RT, Simmons DK, et al. The
genome of the ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi and its implications for cell type evolution.
Science. 2013;342:1242592.

55. Moreland RT, Nguyen A-D, Ryan JF, Schnitzler CE, Koch BJ, Siewert K, et al. A
customized Web portal for the genome of the ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi. BMC Genomics.
2014;15:1–13.

56. Moreland RT, Nguyen A-D, Ryan JF, Baxevanis AD. The Mnemiopsis Genome Project
Portal: integrating new gene expression resources and improving data visualization. Database.
2020;2020:baaa029.

57. Moreland RT, Zhang S, Barreira SN, Ryan JF, Baxevanis AD. An AI-generated proteome-
scale dataset of predicted protein structures for the ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi. Proteomics.
2024;:2300397.

58. Jaspers C, Ehrlich M, Pujolar JM, Künzel S, Bayer T, Limborg MT, et al. Invasion genomics
uncover contrasting scenarios of genetic diversity in a widespread marine invader. Proc Natl
Acad Sci. 2021;118:e2116211118.

59. Bayha KM, Chang MH, Mariani CL, Richardson JL, Edwards DL, DeBoer TS, et al.
Worldwide phylogeography of the invasive ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi (Ctenophora) based
on nuclear and mitochondrial DNA data. Biol Invasions. 2015;17:827–50.

60. Verwimp C, Vansteenbrugge L, Derycke S, Kerkhove T, Muylle H, Honnay O, et al.
Population genomic structure of the gelatinous zooplankton species Mnemiopsis leidyi in its
nonindigenous range in the North Sea. Ecol Evol. 2020;10:11–25.

61. Reusch TB, Bolte S, Sparwel M, Moss AG, Javidpour J. Microsatellites reveal origin and
genetic diversity of Eurasian invasions by one of the world's most notorious marine invader,
Mnemiopsis leidyi (Ctenophora). Mol Ecol. 2010;19:2690–9.

62. Pujolar JM, Breitburg D, Lee J, Decker MB, Jaspers C. Hybridization and adaptive
introgression in a marine invasive species in native habitats. Iscience. 2023;26.

63. Ahyong S, Boyko CB, Bernot J, Brandão SN, Daly M, De Grave S, et al. World Register of
Marine Species (WoRMS). 2024.

64. Seravin LN. The systematic revision of the genus Mnemiopsis (Ctenophora, Lobata). Zool Ž.
1994;73:9–18.

65. Manni M, Berkeley MR, Seppey M, Zdobnov EM. BUSCO: assessing genomic data quality
and beyond. Curr Protoc. 2021;1:e323.

66. Koutsouveli V, Torres-Oliva M, Bayer T, Fuß J, Grossschmidt N, Marulanda-Gomez AM, et
al. The Chromosome-level Genome of the Ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi A. Agassiz, 1865
Reveals a Unique Immune Gene Repertoire. Genome Biology and Evolution. 2025;17.

67. Pett W, Ryan JF, Pang K, Mullikin JC, Martindale MQ, Baxevanis AD, et al. Extreme
mitochondrial evolution in the ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi: Insight from mtDNA and the
nuclear genome. Mitochondrial DNA. 2011;22:130–42.
https://doi.org/10.3109/19401736.2011.624611.

68. Toews DP, Brelsford A. The biogeography of mitochondrial and nuclear discordance in
animals. Mol Ecol. 2012;21:3907–30.

69. Skotte L, Korneliussen TS, Albrechtsen A. Estimating individual admixture proportions from
next generation sequencing data. Genetics. 2013;195:693–702.

70. Patterson N, Moorjani P, Luo Y, Mallick S, Rohland N, Zhan Y, et al. Ancient Admixture in
Human History. Genetics. 2012;192:1065–93.

71. Atağ G, Waldman S, Carmi S, Somel M. An explanation for the sister repulsion phenomenon
in Patterson's f-statistics. Genetics. 2024;228:iyae144.

72. Martin SH, Dasmahapatra KK, Nadeau NJ, Salazar C, Walters JR, Simpson F, et al.
Genome-wide evidence for speciation with gene flow in Heliconius butterflies. Genome Res.
2013;23:1817–28.

73. Li M-R, Wang H-Y, Ding N, Lu T, Huang Y-C, Xiao H-X, et al. Rapid Divergence Followed
by Adaptation to Contrasting Ecological Niches of Two Closely Related Columbine Species
Aquilegia japonica and A. oxysepala. Genome Biology and Evolution. 2019;11:919–30.

74. Liu X, Fu Y-X. Stairway Plot 2: demographic history inference with folded SNP frequency
spectra. Genome Biol. 2020;21:280.

75. Kleiven H (Kikki) F, Kissel C, Laj C, Ninnemann US, Richter TO, Cortijo E. Reduced North
Atlantic deep water coeval with the glacial Lake Agassiz freshwater outburst. science.
2008;319:60–4.

76. Teller JT, Leverington DW, Mann JD. Freshwater outbursts to the oceans from glacial Lake
Agassiz and their role in climate change during the last deglaciation. Quat Sci Rev.
2002;21:879–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-3791(01)00145-7.

77. Martínez-García L, Ferrari G, Oosting T, Ballantyne R, Van der Jagt I, Ystgaard I, et al.
Historical demographic processes dominate genetic variation in ancient Atlantic cod
mitogenomes. Front Ecol Evol. 2021;9:671281.

78. Atmore LM, Martínez-García L, Makowiecki D, André C, Lõugas L, Barrett JH, et al.
Population dynamics of Baltic herring since the Viking Age revealed by ancient DNA and
genomics. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2022;119:e2208703119.

79. Li H, Durbin R. Inference of human population history from individual whole-genome
sequences. Nature. 2011;475:493–6.

80. Liu X, Fu Y-X. Exploring population size changes using SNP frequency spectra. Nat Genet.
2015;47:555–9.

81. Jouganous J, Long W, Ragsdale AP, Gravel S. Inferring the Joint Demographic History of
Multiple Populations: Beyond the Diffusion Approximation. Genetics. 2017;206:1549–67.

82. Prada C, Hellberg ME. Speciation-by-depth on coral reefs: Sympatric divergence with gene
flow or cryptic transient isolation? Journal of Evolutionary Biology. 2021;34:128–37.

83. Putnam NH, Srivastava M, Hellsten U, Dirks B, Chapman J, Salamov A, et al. Sea anemone
genome reveals ancestral eumetazoan gene repertoire and genomic organization. science.
2007;317:86–94.

84. Putnam NH, Butts T, Ferrier DE, Furlong RF, Hellsten U, Kawashima T, et al. The
amphioxus genome and the evolution of the chordate karyotype. Nature. 2008;453:1064–71.

85. Simakov O, Marletaz F, Cho S-J, Edsinger-Gonzales E, Havlak P, Hellsten U, et al. Insights
into bilaterian evolution from three spiralian genomes. Nature. 2013;493:526–31.

86. Schultz DT, Haddock SH, Bredeson JV, Green RE, Simakov O, Rokhsar DS. Ancient gene
linkages support ctenophores as sister to other animals. Nature. 2023;618:110–7.

87. Lewin TD, Liao IJ-Y, Luo Y-J. Annelid comparative genomics and the evolution of massive
lineage-specific genome rearrangement in bilaterians. Mol Biol Evol. 2024;41:msae172.

88. Johnson SB, Winnikoff JR, Schultz DT, Christianson LM, Patry WL, Mills CE, et al.
Speciation of pelagic zooplankton: Invisible boundaries can drive isolation of oceanic
ctenophores. Front Genet. 2022;13:970314.

89. Mérot C, Oomen RA, Tigano A, Wellenreuther M. A roadmap for understanding the
evolutionary significance of structural genomic variation. Trends Ecol Evol. 2020;35:561–72.

90. O'Neill MJ, O'Neill RJ. Sex chromosome repeats tip the balance towards speciation. Mol
Ecol. 2018;27:3783–98.

91. Hull RM, Cruz C, Jack CV, Houseley J. Environmental change drives accelerated adaptation
through stimulated copy number variation. PLoS Biol. 2017;15:e2001333.

92. Ashburner M, Ball CA, Blake JA, Botstein D, Butler H, Cherry JM, et al. Gene ontology:
tool for the unification of biology. Nat Genet. 2000;25:25–9.

93. Babonis LS, Martindale MQ, Ryan JF. Do novel genes drive morphological novelty? An
investigation of the nematosomes in the sea anemone Nematostella vectensis. BMC Evol Biol.
2016;16:114. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12862-016-0683-3.

94. Schluter D. Evidence for ecological speciation and its alternative. Science. 2009;323:737–41.

95. Carruthers M, Carleton KL, Linderoth T, Bridle J, Hudson AG, Malinsky M, et al. Rapid
Divergence of Visual Systems and Signaling Traits to Contrasting Light Regimes During Early
Speciation of African Crater Lake Cichlid Fish. Mol Biol Evol. 2025;42:msaf204.

96. Klein J, Ono H, Klein D, O'hUigin C. The accordion model of MHC evolution. In: Progress
in Immunology Vol. VIII. Springer; 1993. p. 137–43.

97. Secomandi S, Gallo GR, Rossi R, Rodríguez Fernandes C, Jarvis ED, Bonisoli-Alquati A, et
al. Pangenome graphs and their applications in biodiversity genomics. Nat Genet. 2025;57:13–
26. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-024-02029-6.

98. Sirén J, Monlong J, Chang X, Novak AM, Eizenga JM, Markello C, et al. Pangenomics
enables genotyping of known structural variants in 5202 diverse genomes. Science.
2021;374:abg8871.

99. Chen H, Patterson N, Reich D. Population differentiation as a test for selective sweeps.
Genome Res. 2010;20:393–402.

100. Torres C-R, Hart GW. Topography and polypeptide distribution of terminal N-
acetylglucosamine residues on the surfaces of intact lymphocytes. Evidence for O-linked
GlcNAc. J Biol Chem. 1984;259:3308–17.

101. Guo B, Liang Q, Li L, Hu Z, Wu F, Zhang P, et al. O-GlcNAc-modification of SNAP-29
regulates autophagosome maturation. Nat Cell Biol. 2014;16:1215–26.
https://doi.org/10.1038/ncb3066.

102. Mizushima N. Sugar modification inhibits autophagosome–lysosome fusion. Nat Cell Biol.
2014;16:1132–3. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncb3078.

103. Morinaga G, Balcazar D, Badolo A, Iyaloo D, Tantely L, Mouillaud T, et al. From macro to
micro: De novo genomes of Aedes mosquitoes enable comparative genomics among close and
distant relatives. bioRxiv. 2025;:2025.01. 13.632753.

104. MacGuigan DJ, Krabbenhoft TJ, Harrington RC, Wainwright DK, Backenstose NJC, Near
TJ. Lacustrine speciation associated with chromosomal inversion in a lineage of riverine fishes.
Evolution. 2023;77:1505–21.

105. Wu N, Evans E, van Schooten B, Meléndez-Rosa J, Ortiz Y, Planas Soto-Navarro SM, et al.
Widespread Gene Expression Divergence in Butterfly Sensory Tissues Plays a Fundamental
Role During Reproductive Isolation and Speciation. Molecular Biology and Evolution. 2022;39.

106. Yoshida K, Rödelsperger C, Röseler W, Riebesell M, Sun S, Kikuchi T, et al. Chromosome
fusions repatterned recombination rate and facilitated reproductive isolation during Pristionchus
nematode speciation. Nat Ecol Evol. 2023;7:424–39.

107. Ehrlich M. Invasion Genomics: population structure and diversity patterns in the invasive
ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi based on whole-genome re-sequencing. Christian-Albrechts-
Universität Kiel; 2017.

108. Cheng H, Concepcion GT, Feng X, Zhang H, Li H. Haplotype-resolved de novo assembly
using phased assembly graphs with hifiasm. Nat Methods. 2021;18:170–5.

109. Roach MJ, Schmidt SA, Borneman AR. Purge Haplotigs: allelic contig reassignment for
third-gen diploid genome assemblies. BMC Bioinformatics. 2018;19:1–10.

110. Flynn JM, Hubley R, Goubert C, Rosen J, Clark AG, Feschotte C, et al. RepeatModeler2 for
automated genomic discovery of transposable element families. Proc Natl Acad Sci.
2020;117:9451–7.

111. Babonis LS, DeBiasse MB, Francis WR, Christianson LM, Moss AG, Haddock SH, et al.
Integrating embryonic development and evolutionary history to characterize tentacle-specific cell
types in a ctenophore. Mol Biol Evol. 2018;35:2940–56.

112. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods.
2012;9:357–9.

113. Brůna T, Hoff KJ, Lomsadze A, Stanke M, Borodovsky M. BRAKER2: automatic
eukaryotic genome annotation with GeneMark-EP+ and AUGUSTUS supported by a protein
database. NAR Genomics Bioinforma. 2021;3:lqaa108.

114. Buchfink B, Reuter K, Drost H-G. Sensitive protein alignments at tree-of-life scale using
DIAMOND. Nat Methods. 2021;18:366–8.

115. El Hilali S, Copley RR. macrosyntR: Drawing automatically ordered Oxford Grids from
standard genomic files in R. bioRxiv. 2023;:2023.01. 26.525673.

116. Babadi M, Fu JM, Lee SK, Smirnov AN, Gauthier LD, Walker M, et al. GATK-gCNV
enables the discovery of rare copy number variants from exome sequencing data. Nat Genet.
2023;55:1589–97.

117. Marçais G, Delcher AL, Phillippy AM, Coston R, Salzberg SL, Zimin A. MUMmer4: A
fast and versatile genome alignment system. PLoS Comput Biol. 2018;14:e1005944.

118. Goel M, Sun H, Jiao W-B, Schneeberger K. SyRI: finding genomic rearrangements and
local sequence differences from whole-genome assemblies. Genome Biol. 2019;20:1–13.

119. Goel M, Schneeberger K. Plotsr: visualizing structural similarities and rearrangements
between multiple genomes. Bioinformatics. 2022;38:2922–6.

120. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, et al. The sequence
alignment/map format and SAMtools. bioinformatics. 2009;25:2078–9.

121. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence
data. Bioinformatics. 2014;30:2114–20.

122. Tarasov A, Vilella AJ, Cuppen E, Nijman IJ, Prins P. Sambamba: fast processing of NGS
alignment formats. Bioinformatics. 2015;31:2032–4.

123. Jun G, Wing MK, Abecasis GR, Kang HM. An efficient and scalable analysis framework
for variant extraction and refinement from population-scale DNA sequence data. Genome Res.
2015;25:918–25.

124. Korneliussen TS, Albrechtsen A, Nielsen R. ANGSD: analysis of next generation
sequencing data. BMC Bioinformatics. 2014;15:1–13.

125. Fox EA, Wright AE, Fumagalli M, Vieira FG. ngsLD: evaluating linkage disequilibrium
using genotype likelihoods. Bioinformatics. 2019;35:3855–6.

126. Lou RN, Jacobs A, Wilder AP, Therkildsen NO. A beginner's guide to low-coverage whole
genome sequencing for population genomics. Mol Ecol. 2021;30:5966–93.

127. Nei M, Li W-H. Mathematical model for studying genetic variation in terms of restriction
endonucleases. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 1979;76:5269–73.

128. Tajima F. Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA
polymorphism. Genetics. 1989;123:585–95.

129. Fumagalli M, Vieira FG, Linderoth T, Nielsen R. ngsTools: methods for population
genetics analyses from next-generation sequencing data. Bioinformatics. 2014;30:1486–7.

130. Lefort V, Desper R, Gascuel O. FastME 2.0: a comprehensive, accurate, and fast distance-
based phylogeny inference program. Mol Biol Evol. 2015;32:2798–800.

131. Kozlov AM, Darriba D, Flouri T, Morel B, Stamatakis A. RAxML-NG: a fast, scalable and
user-friendly tool for maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference. Bioinformatics.
2019;35:4453–5.

132. Letunic I, Bork P. Interactive Tree of Life (iTOL) v6: recent updates to the phylogenetic
tree display and annotation tool. Nucleic Acids Res. 2024;:gkae268.

133. Dierckxsens N, Mardulyn P, Smits G. NOVOPlasty: de novo assembly of organelle
genomes from whole genome data. Nucleic Acids Res. 2017;45:e18–e18.

134. Ghabooli S, Shiganova TA, Briski E, Piraino S, Fuentes V, Thibault-Botha D, et al.
Invasion pathway of the ctenophore Mnemiopsis leidyi in the Mediterranean Sea. PloS One.
2013;8:e81067.

135. Christianson LM, Johnson SB, Schultz DT, Haddock SH. Hidden diversity of Ctenophora
revealed by new mitochondrial COI primers and sequences. Mol Ecol Resour. 2022;22:283–94.

136. Ayad LA, Pissis SP. MARS: improving multiple circular sequence alignment using refined
sequences. BMC Genomics. 2017;18:1–10.

137. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7:
improvements in performance and usability. Mol Biol Evol. 2013;30:772–80.

138. Minh BQ, Schmidt HA, Chernomor O, Schrempf D, Woodhams MD, Von Haeseler A, et
al. IQ-TREE 2: new models and efficient methods for phylogenetic inference in the genomic era.
Mol Biol Evol. 2020;37:1530–4.

139. Presnell JS, Bubel M, Knowles T, Patry W, Browne WE. Multigenerational laboratory
culture of pelagic ctenophores and CRISPR–Cas9 genome editing in the lobate Mnemiopsis
leidyi. Nat Protoc. 2022;17:1868–900. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-022-00702-w.

140. Edgar A, Ponciano JM, Martindale MQ. Ctenophores are direct developers that reproduce
continuously beginning very early after hatching. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2022;119:e2122052119.

141. Rippe JP, Dixon G, Fuller ZL, Liao Y, Matz M. Environmental specialization and cryptic
genetic divergence in two massive coral species from the Florida Keys Reef Tract. Mol Ecol.
2021;30:3468–84.

142. Quinlan AR, Hall IM. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic
features. Bioinformatics. 2010;26:841–2.

1205