Title:

Medaka population genome structure and demographic history unveiled via

Genotyping-by-Sequencing

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Abstract

Medaka is a model organism in medicine, genetics and developmental biology research and in

population genetics studies, and lab stocks composed of more than 100 local wild populations

are available for such research.   Thus, medaka represents a potentially excellent bioresource

for screening disease-risk- and adaptation-related genes by a genome-wide association study

(GWAS).   Although a genetic population structure should be known beforehand with

practicing a genome-wide association study (GWAS), a comprehensive study on the

genome-wide diversity of wild medaka populations has not been performed.   Here, we

performed Genotyping-by-Sequencing (GBS) for 81 and 12 medakas captured from a

bioresource and the wild, respectively.   Based on the GBS data, we evaluated the genetic

population structure and estimated the demographic parameters using an approximate

Bayesian computation (ABC) framework.   The autosomal data confirmed high

differentiation among local populations and supported our previously proposed hypothesis on

medaka dispersal that was based on mitochondrial genome (mtDNA) data.   A new finding

was that a local group thought to be a hybrid between the northern and the southern Japanese

groups was actually a sister group of the northern Japanese group.   This paper presents the

first population-genomic study of medakas and provides information indispensable for a

GWAS of this fish.

Key words: local population, freshwater fish, demography, RAD-seq, bioresource

Introduction

A genome-wide association study (GWAS) is a powerful method of detecting causal genes for various phenotypic traits (Welter et al. 2013). However, molecular engineering performed to reveal the functional differences in the genetic variation observed in GWASs represents a technical and ethical bottleneck for humans. Instead of humans, inbred/outbred animals and plants derived from wild sources have often been used as model populations for GWASs (Mackay et al. 2012; Kirby et al. 2010; Gonzales & Palmer 2014; Parker et al. 2016). Wild strains should provide more persuasive data for detecting natural traces related to adaptation than inbred/outbred strains maintained in research institutes because wild populations may represent potentially effective resources for identifying genes on which natural selection has acted within the ecological environment. Current molecular biological techniques can be applied to wild species of model organisms, and they can reveal the function of candidate genes detected by a GWAS. Nevertheless, a GWAS using such wild strains has been not conducted, and the only results have been obtained for limited species, such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Consortium et al. 2016). In general, usable and accessible bioresources for a species, which harbors within-species genetic diversity (in particular, genome population structure), are difficult to maintain.

Medaka (*Oryzias latipes*) is a small fresh-water fish native to East Asia, and it is a rare vertebrate model with the potential for use as a model organism for a GWAS using wild strains. Medaka wild strains have been maintained in universities and research institutes as a bioresource (hereafter, wild lab stocks) that consist of more than 100 local-wild populations showing various phenotypic traits (Watanabe-Asaka et al. 2014; Igarashi et al. 2017) and enormous genetic diversity. Medakas can be bred at a lower cost and mature in shorter timeframes (approximately 2 months) than mice. Our ultimate goal in exploiting medaka characteristics is to establish an experimental system for testing the functional differences

between the alleles detected using a GWAS (Oota & Mitani 2010).   Once genetic

polymorphisms related to phenotypic traits in medaka are detected, *in vivo* experiments, such

as genome editing experiments (Ansai & Kinoshita 2014), must be conducted to understand

the variant function; however, such experiments are ethically unacceptable in humans.

Revealing the functional difference between the alleles in wild populations allows us to infer

the role of genetic polymorphisms in human homologous genes.   If the phenotypic traits are

significantly associated with adaptations to the medaka population's local environment, we

may be able to speculate about each allele's role in polymorphic sites in the context of human

adaptation because medakas are vertebrates that are genetically closer to humans than fruit

flies and Arabidopsis.

However, few genome-wide studies have been conducted on the medaka population

structure.   Most previous studies on medaka populations have been conducted using

mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA).   Medaka is divided into four mitochondrial groups: the

northern Japanese (N.JPN), southern Japanese (S.JPN), eastern Korean (E.KOR) and western

Korean/Chinese (W.KOR) groups (Sakaizumi et al. 1980; 1983; Sakaizumi 1986; Katsumura

et al. 2009).   An ambiguous group occurs in the geographic boundary region known as

Tajima-Tango (see also fig. 1) between N.JPN and S.JPN and is thought to be a hybridization

of the two groups, as defined by the mtDNA data (Matsuda et al. 1997).   N.JPN and S.JPN

are composed of 3 and 11 subgroups, respectively (Takehana et al. 2003).   Each subgroup is

composed of local populations, and between-population genetic diversities are greater than

within-population genetic diversities, indicating high genetic differentiation between local

populations (Katsumura et al. 2009).   Although the origin of S.JPN with the largest habitat

has been suggested as the northern part of Kyushu Island, we have proposed the "Out of

Northern Kyushu" hypothesis instead (Katsumura et al. 2012).   However, mtDNA is

insufficient to describe the population structure and history because it is a single locus.

Although genetic diversity based on autosomes should be indispensable to the medaka GWAS,

it remains extremely limited.

The lack of autosomal information increases the difficulty of recognizing the cryptic

population structure (i.e., the population structure inferred from the geographical distribution

is not necessarily consistent with the genetic information) because the possibility of a false

positive/negative caused by unintended sampling bias is increased (Brachi et al. 2011).   In

this study, we comprehensively performed a population genetic analysis based on autosomal

single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) using maintained wild lab stocks that include 81

local populations.   We sampled one individual from each population to estimate the

population structure and history.   Additionally, we captured 12 wild individuals from the

northern part of Kyushu Island, where the medakas currently distributed throughout

Pacific-side Japan originated (Katsumura et al. 2012), to estimate the time of medaka

dispersal Out of Northern Kyushu.   To obtain SNP data, we conducted

Genotyping-by-Sequencing (GBS) (Elshire et al. 2011; Narum et al. 2013) using a

high-throughput sequencer.   This method, which allows us to cost-effectively gain more than

tens of thousands of SNPs (Andrews et al. 2016), results in an accurate enhancement of the

population genetic estimations because the variance in the demographic parameter estimates

are decreased when we used many SNPs on the genome.   Eventually, we obtained more than

ten thousand SNPs from eighty-one wild lab stocks and twelve wild-captured medakas.

Here, we re-evaluate medaka genetic diversity and population structures based on these SNPs

and reconstruct the population history by assessing three demographic events.   These data

allow us to conduct the appropriate sampling needed to conduct a successful GWAS and

provide a basis for discussing the role of phenotype-associated alleles in the context of

adaptation.

Materials and Methods

Samples

We sampled 81 male medakas from 81 wild lab stocks (14 from N.JPN, 56 from S.JPN, and 5

from Tajima-Tango in the geographic boundary region between N.JPN and S.JPN, 3 from

E.KOR, and 3 from W.KOR) at the University of Tokyo in 2014. The lab stocks originated

from geographically distinct populations in East Asia and have been maintained since

1985 (Shima et al. 1985) as closed colonies in the Graduate School of Frontier Sciences, the

University of Tokyo, Kashiwa City (fig. 1 and supplementary fig. 1). These lab stocks

maintained the genetic diversity originating from their habitat (Katsumura et al. 2014) and

show less diversity within populations than between populations (Katsumura et al. 2009).

Because of these characteristics, we considered that one individual sampled from the lab stock

would be adequate to represent its originating population. In addition, we used two

wild-captured medaka populations from the Saga Prefecture in the northern part of Kyushu,

Japan. One population is the Ogi (SO) population from Southern Saga, and the other

population is the Umeshiro (US) population from Northern Saga, both of which were

captured in September 2010 (see Katsumura *et al*. 2012). Six of 48 medakas from each

wild-captured population were selected randomly and analyzed via GBS.

DNA extractions and Genotyping-by-Sequencing

One-third of the medaka body was dissolved in a 600 µl lysis buffer containing 1.24% SDS,

0.124 M EDTA and 0.062 mg/ml proteinase K (final concentrations). The total genomic

DNA was extracted and purified using phenol-chloroform and isopropanol precipitation.

After 70% EtOH washing, an isolated DNA pellet was resuspended in a 100 µl TE buffer and

then treated with RNase A (final conc. 1 mg/ml) for 1 hour at room temperature; then, the

DNA was purified again using phenol-chloroform and isopropanol precipitation again. For

ninety-three samples, the GBS process was outsourced to Macrogen Japan in Kyoto.   The

procedures for constructing libraries and performing Illumina HiSeq 2000 single-end

sequencing were the same as those described by Poland *et al.* (Poland et al. 2012) except for

the use of the restriction enzyme ApeKI instead of EcoRI–MspI.   The sequence lengths were

51 bp and included each individual in-line barcode (4–9 bp) for the individual sample.   The

data have been submitted to the DDBJ Seaquence Read Archive (DRA) database under

project accession ID: DRA006353.

Quality filtering and SNP extraction

Our single-end reads were filtered using *FASTQ Quality Filter* in *FASTX-Toolkit version*

0.0.13 (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx-toolkit) using the following options:

-Q 33 -v -z -q 30 -p 90.   The draft genome of the medaka sequenced by the PacBio

sequencer (Medaka-Hd-rR-pacbio_version2.0.fasta; unpublished data from

http://utgenome.org/medaka_v2/#!Assembly.md) was used to align the reads using

BWA backtrack 0.7.12-r1039 (H Li & Durbin 2009) using the "-n 0.06" option.   After the

mapping process, the multi-mapped reads were removed using *Samtools v1.2* (H Li et al.

2009) and the "-Sq 20" option.   Following this pipeline, sequencing of the ApeKI-digested

GBS libraries generated an average of 3.06 million reads per individual before any quality

filtering.   The read numbers ranged from 1.89 to 4.10 million reads per individual.   After

quality filtering, 2.76 million (90.2%) sequences per individual on average were retained and

0.30 million (9.8%) sequences were eliminated.   The retained sequences presented a mean

quality score of 38.7 and a GC content of 47.8%.   An average of 1.84 million of the retained

sequences (66.7%) aligned to the medaka autosomal genome, and 0.92 million sequences

(33.3%) were not aligned and discarded because they mapped to non-autosomal

(mitochondrial genome and unanchored contigs) and multiple loci.

164   The *Stacks* pipeline (version 1.35) and the Stacks workflow

165 (https://github.com/enormandeau/stacks_workflow) were used to generate SNPs and

166 sequences for each individual separately (Catchen et al. 2011; Catchen, Hohenlohe, et al.

167 2013). The selected *Stacks* parameters were as follows: minimum stack depth (-m), 3; and

168 number of mismatches when building the catalog (-n), 1. In the 'rx' step of *Stacks*, we used

169 the bounded SNP model set to 0.1, the ε upper bound set to 0.1 and the log likelihood set to

170 10. Following this pipeline, five datasets were constructed using the *population* program in

171 *Stacks*.

172   The first is the "PopStat" dataset, which was generated using the "-p 5 -r 0.66"

173 options and geographical grouping (N.JPN, Tajima-Tango, S.JPN, E.KOR, W.KOR; see also

174 fig. 1) to calculate the population genetic statistics (table 1) using the loci shared across all

175 groups and sequenced in one or more populations in each group.

176   The second is the "Global" dataset, which was generated using the "-p 58 -r 1.00"

177 option and without the geographical grouping to examine a phylogenetic relationship between

178 the geographic populations and population structure within the species.

179   The third and the fourth are the "HZ-1" and "HZ-2" datasets, respectively, including

180 the 15 boundary populations (N.JPN: Kaga, Maiduru, Miyadu, Obama, and Sabae;

181 Tajima-Tango: Amino, Hamasaka, Kinosaki, Kumihama, and Toyooka; and Honshu: Ayabe,

182 Iwami, Kasumi, Matsue, and Tottori) with or without the Kyushu populations (Kyushu: Fukue,

183 Hiwaki, Izumi, Kadusa, and Kikai). These datasets were generated using the "-p 3 -r 0.70"

184 (without Kyushu) or "-p 4 -r 0.70" (with Kyushu) options, respectively, to assess the genetic

185 population structure and the history of the boundary population for the Tajima-Tango group.

186   The fifth is the "Local" dataset, including two Kyushu deme samples: one is

187 Umeshiro (US), which has been sampled in the northern part of the Saga prefecture, and

188 another is Ogi (SO), which has been sampled in the southern part of the Saga prefecture.

These samples were used to estimate the time of Honshu's population divergence from

Kyushu to infer the timing of the "Out of Northern Kyushu" event (Katsumura et al. 2009).

Note that we define the term "deme samples" and "non-deme samples" as "samples

from the local-wild population" and "samples from the wild lab stocks", respectively (see

details in Katsumura *et al*. 2009).

Against those datasets (except "PopStat" and "HZ-1"), the SNPs with strong linkage

disequilibrium were randomly removed, one from each pair of SNPs with $r^2 > 0.2$, using

Plink1.9 (Chang et al. 2015) and the "--indep-pairwise 12.5 5 0.2 --autosome-num 24" option.

These values were set based on a medaka population genomics study (Spivakov et al. 2014).

Finally, "Global", "HZ-2" and "Local" datasets contained 8,361 SNPs out of 13,177 SNPs,

1,014 SNPs out of 2,661 SNPs and 698 SNPs out of 2,246 SNPs, respectively.

Genetic clustering analysis

To obtain a genetic overview of the relationship of medaka geographic populations, we

performed a principal component analysis (PCA) of the "Global" dataset as implemented in

the *SNPRelate* program (Zheng et al. 2012) in R version 3.2.2.   Additionally, to examine the

genetic relationship among medakas in the Japanese archipelago, we used the subdataset

without the E/W.KOR and Chinese populations, which included 7,126 SNPs.   We also

performed a model-based genetic clustering analysis using *ADMIXTURE v1.23* (Alexander et

al. 2009) to estimate the proportions of ancestral medaka populations.   We ran 50 replicates

with random seeds for the number of clusters (K) from 1 to 9 and calculated the mean of the

lowest fivefold cross-validation errors for each K (Jeong et al. 2016).   K = 4, 5, and 6 show

the first-, second- and third-lowest fivefold cross-validation errors, respectively

(supplementary fig. 2).   The results of the genetic clustering analyses were visualized by a

ggplot2 package in R (Wickham 2011).

Reconstructing the phylogenetic tree using the maximum likelihood method

We chose an individual as representative of a population and generated the individual

sequences using the *population* program with the "-p 58 -r 1.00 --phylip_all" option in the

Stacks pipeline.   The dataset included 4,638 partitions and 217,986 bp nucleotide sequences

to compensate for the loci that could not be sequenced by invariable sites across all samples

and "N" at the variable site.   The dataset including 4,638 partitions and 217,986 bp

nucleotide sequences was analyzed via the *IQ-TREE* program (Nguyen et al. 2014) to

reconstruct a maximum likelihood tree with model selection for each partition (Chernomor et

al. 2016) and 1,000 SH-aLRT/ultrafast-bootstrappings (Guindon et al. 2010; Minh et al. 2013).

Then, we used the *FigTree* program (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/) to visualize the

phylogenetic tree.

Inference of demographic parameters of the populations in and around Tajima-Tango

and the time of Out of Northern Kyushu based on the ABC framework

Using the HZ-2 dataset, including 15 boundary and 5 Kyushu populations, the population

history, including the possibility that the Tajima-Tango group occurred by the admixture of

N.JPN and S.JPN, was inferred from 1,014 SNPs using *DIYABC ver2.1.0* (Cornuet, Pudlo,

Veyssier, Dehne-Garcia, Gautier, Leblois, Marin & Estoup 2014b).   We tested four

evolutionary scenarios in which N.JPN and S.JPN diverged from an ancestral population at

time t3 (fig. 5a): (I) Tajima-Tango originated in N.JPN: Honshu and Kyushu diverged at time

t2 and then Tajima-Tango diverged from N.JPN at time t1 (Takehana et al. 2016); (II)

Admixture of N.JPN and Honshu: Honshu and Kyushu diverged at time t2 and then

Tajima-Tango occurred at time t1 by an admixture with rate r between N.JPN and Honshu

(Sakaizumi 1984); (III) N.JPN originated in Tajima-Tango: Honshu and Kyushu diverged at

time t2 and then N.JPN diverged from Tajima-Tango at time t1; and (IV) Honshu diverged

from Kyushu and then Tajima-Tango occurred by an admixture with Honshu of rate r.   For

simplicity, all populations are assumed to have constant effective sizes in each lineage (i.e., no

bottleneck and expansion).   The same prior parameters were defined for four scenarios based

on previous studies, and the prior distribution of each parameter is presented in table 2.   In

addition, we set the conditional constraint as follows: $t3 > t2$, $t3 > t1$ and $t2 \geq t1$ (see also fig.

5a).   In total, four million simulations were run, which provided approximately one million

simulations for each scenario.

247   The summary statistics for all SNP loci included the proportion of loci with null

gene diversity, mean gene diversity across polymorphic loci, proportion of loci with null Nei's

distance between the two samples, variance across loci of non-null Nei's distances between

two samples, proportion of loci with null admixture estimates, mean across loci of non-null

admixture estimates, variance across loci of non-null admixture estimates and mean across all

locus admixture estimates.   The 1% simulated datasets closest to the observed dataset were

used to estimate the posterior parameter distributions through a weighted local linear

regression procedure (Beaumont et al. 2002).   Scenarios were compared by estimating their

posterior probabilities using the direct estimation and logistic regression methods (Cornuet,

Pudlo, Veyssier, Dehne-Garcia, Gautier, Leblois, Marin & Estoup 2014a).   We also

estimated the time for Out of Northern Kyushu using the Local dataset that included 698

SNPs from *DIYABC*.   We inferred the following time-based simple evolutionary scenario:

N.Saga diverged from S.Saga at time t because this divergence event was consistent with the

Out of Northern Kyushu event (Katsumura et al. 2012).   In this case, all populations are

assumed to have unchangeable effective sizes in each lineage.

262   The prior distribution of each parameter is presented in table 2, and the 1%

simulated datasets closest to the observed dataset were used to estimate the posterior

parameter distributions.　We evaluated the accuracy of the demographic parameter

estimation by calculating accuracy indicators (*Bias and mean square error* option) in *DIYABC*

and accepted the parameters that were non-scaled and scaled by the mean effective population

size for the HZ-2 and Local datasets, respectively.　Using the infinite-sites model in the

Wright-Fisher populations of a constant size, a rough value of N_e was estimated using the

relationship $\pi = 4N_e\mu$ (Tajima 1983), where π is genome-wide nucleotide diversity and μ is

the mutation rate per site per generation (Osada 2015).　We calculated N_e using the above

formula with the following values: $\mu = 10^{-9}$/site/generation; generation = 1 year, which

resulted in a mean effective population size from all presented demes in northern Kyushu of

1,275,000.

Reconstruction of the phylogenetic tree for the partial mitochondrial DNA sequence

To examine the mitochondrial introgression in the tested samples, we generated and analyzed

the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) partial sequences from the GBS-read data.　We mapped

the reads to the complete mtDNA sequence of "Clade C" (Matsuda et al. 1997; Takehana et al.

2003), which diverged from S.JPN and N.JPN, to eliminate the mapping bias that occurs

when genetically distant sequences are used as a reference.　The genomic DNA of "Clade C"

was extracted in Katsumura *et al*. 2009.　The complete mtDNA sequence was determined as

follows.　Using PCR, five DNA fragments of mitochondrial DNA were amplified: fragment

1—4,556 bp; fragment 2—4,527 bp; fragment 3-1—4,589 bp; fragment 3-2—4,504 bp; and

fragment 4—4,546 bp (supplementary fig. 3).　Supplementary table 1 describes the primers,

which were designed based on the inbred strain Hd-rR complete mtDNA sequence (accession

number: AP008938).　Approximately 20 ng of the genomic DNA was used as a template for

the PCR assay in a 50 μl solution containing dNTP at 0.2 mM, 0.2 μM of each of primer, 0.75

U of EX Taq polymerase HS (TaKaRa Shuzo Co.), and the reaction buffer attached to the

polymerase.   The reactions were conducted in a TaKaRa PCR Thermal Cycler Dice (TaKaRa

Shuzo Co.) using the following protocol: an initial denaturing step at 95°C for 2 min, 40

cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 60°C for 30 sec, extension at 72°C for

300 sec, and a final extension step at 72°C for 5 min.   The PCR products were diluted 20

fold and used as templates in the sequencing reaction (following the commercial protocol)

with thirty-three primers (supplementary table 1, supplementary fig. 3) and then analyzed in

an ABI 3500xL Genetic Analyzer (Life Technologies).   The complete mtDNA sequence of

"Clade C" was reconstructed using *SeqMan Pro 10.1.2.20* (DNASTAR) and deposited into

the international DNA database DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank (accession number: LC335803).

The "Clade C" complete mtDNA sequence was used to align the reads using *BWA*

backtrack 0.7.12-r1039 (H Li & Durbin 2009) using the "-n 5" option.   After the mapping

process, to remove the multi-mapped reads, we used *Samtools v1.2* (H Li et al. 2009) using

the "-Sq 20" option.   Then, we used *Stacks* with the "-m 3" option for minimum stack depth

(Catchen et al. 2011; Catchen, Hohenlohe, et al. 2013) and then obtained the 322 bp

nucleotide sequences.   The loci where the sequence was missing were filled with "N".   In

addition, the nucleotide position showing the multi-allelic state was replaced by "N".

Phylogenetic trees were constructed using the neighbor-joining (NJ) method (Saitou & Nei

1987) with the program MEGA5 (Tamura et al. 2011).   The evolutionary distances were

calculated using the Jukes-Cantor method (Jukes & Cantor 1969).   The analysis also

involved 13 nucleotide sequences from the DNA database (See supplementary fig. 4).   All

ambiguous positions were removed for each sequence pair.   The reliability of the tree was

evaluated using 1000 bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein 1985).

Results

Autosomal genetic diversity of five major groups of *Oryzias latipes*

To assess the genetic diversity based on autosomal SNPs within five geographical groups (fig.

1)—the northern Japanese (N.JPN), Tajima-Tango, southern Japanese (S.JPN), eastern

Korean (E.KOR) and western Korean/Chinese (W.KOR) groups—their population genetic

summary statistics were calculated using the "PopStat" dataset that included the alignment

regions across all groups and contained approximately 45 kb sequences and 2,453 SNPs

(table 1).   All groups showed major allele frequencies and heterozygosities similar to the

geographic populations of wild-captured stickleback (Catchen, Bassham, et al. 2013),

indicating that the individuals in each group were genetically divergent from each other.

W.KOR showed the highest nucleotide diversity (0.0053 +/- 0.0003) in East Asia, and S.JPN

showed the highest nucleotide diversity (0.0036 +/- 0.0001) in the Japanese archipelago (table

1).

Genetic relationship based on autosomal SNPs indicating medaka dispersal history

To clarify the genetic relationship of medaka populations, we performed a PCA using the

"Global" dataset (fig. 2).   First, we investigated whether the genetic relationship based on the

mitochondrial genome was reflected using 8,361 SNPs on 24 autosomes.   The PCA showed

that the five groups were divided into two clusters, N.JPN/Tajima-Tango and S.JPN and

others from E/W.KOR, which is similar to the grouping based on the mtDNA analysis

(Takehana et al. 2003; Katsumura et al. 2009) (fig. 2a, supplementary fig. 5).   E/W.KOR

individuals were plotted dispersedly compared with other clusters, and Yongcheon (E.KOR)

was close to N.JPN/Tajima-Tango.

Although Tajima-Tango was considered a hybridization group between N.JPN and

S.JPN (Sakaizumi 1984), all individuals from Tajima-Tango were plotted with those from

N.JPN as a cluster.   Second, for a fine-scale mapping of Japanese medaka populations,

E/W.KOR individuals were removed from the analysis (fig. 2b).   Based on 7,126 SNPs, the

PCA showed that Tajima-Tango overlapped with N.JPN again, whereas the Kyushu

populations in S.JPN were dispersed along the PC2 axis (supplementary fig. 6).   These

analyses indicated that E.KOR and W.KOR were genetically distant from each other, and

Tajima-Tango was not considerably differentiated from N.JPN compared with S.JPN, which

was differentiated within the group.

To examine the phylogenetic relationship and the genomic ancestry–sharing among 83

populations, we constructed a maximum likelihood tree based on 4,638 short fragment

sequences (comparative nucleotide sequence length: 217,986 bp) using *IQ-TREE* and

performed a genetic clustering analysis using *ADMIXTURE*.   The maximum likelihood tree

showed relatively high bootstrap values on each branch and almost the same topology as

previous trees based on mtDNA (Takehana et al. 2003; Katsumura et al. 2009) except for

Yongcheon (fig. 3 and supplementary fig. 7).   Medakas from the Korean Peninsula were

genetically close to each other in both groups, whereas those from Shanghai, which have been

classified into W.KOR based on mtDNA studies, diverged from the other individuals from

W.KOR.

The medakas in the Japanese archipelago were divided into two major clusters.   One

was the N.JPN/Tajima-Tango, and the other was S.JPN.   The N.JPN/Tajima-Tango cluster

was further divided into two submajor clusters: N.JPN and Tajima-Tango.   To compare the

genetic diversity among the mitochondrial groups, we calculated a mean pairwise branch

length within the geographic groups.   N.JPN showed the lowest values (N.JPN: 0.0020,

Tajima-Tango: 0.0025, S.JPN: 0.0348, E.KOR: 0.0210, and W.KOR: 0.0120), indicating that

each local-wild population in the N.JPN was genetically homogeneous.   S.JPN was also

further divided into two submajor clusters: Kyushu-only and Kyushu & others, which

included 14 Kyushu populations represented by an open and a closed red circle, respectively

(fig. 3).

While the Kyushu-only cluster diverged into the northern and the southern Kyushu,

the Kyushu & others cluster diverged to the Pacific side of eastern and the northern Honshu

(main-island Japan).   The populations derived from northern Kyushu were positioned on the

most internal branches in both clusters, suggesting that northern Kyushu was the most likely

dispersal center for the Pacific-side medaka.   This result strongly supports the "Out of

Northern Kyushu" hypothesis proposed based on nucleotide sequences of the mtD-loop

(Katsumura et al. 2012).   In the northeastern Honshu cluster, the branch lengths were short

(mean pairwise branch length = 0.0032) and the bootstrap values were low, suggesting that

medakas were dispersed rapidly and were not yet highly differentiated in autosomes.   With

this dataset, we characterized the S.JPN ancestry in the context of East Asian genetic diversity

by performing an *ADMIXTURE* analysis, which is a model-based unsupervised genetic

clustering method.   With the optimal number of ancestral components (K = 4), S.JPN

medakas were assigned to two distinct ancestries (supplementary fig. 2 and fig. 3).   In

suboptimal runs with more ancestral components (K = 5, 6), only S.JPN was assigned to the

other ancestral components found in the northern Kyushu populations.   This analysis showed

that genetic diversities in S.JPN originated from the northern Kyushu populations.   Thus, the

phylogenetic analyses based on genome-wide SNP data strongly supported that S.JPN spread

from northern Kyushu to Honshu.

Boundary population genomes similar to that of the northern Japanese group

To examine allele-sharing between boundary populations and surrounding populations using

the "HZ-1" dataset (see Materials & Methods), we classified the fixed alleles between the

groups into three states: shared by N.JPN and Tajima-Tango, shared by S.JPN and

Tajima-Tango, and shared by N.JPN and S.JPN. Then, we summarized each state's total

numbers as shown in table in fig. 4.   We found 1,380 out of 4,661 SNPs that were common

alleles between two of the three groups (fig. 4).   Regarding those alleles, the majority were

the common alleles between Tajima-Tango and N.JPN at 81.4%, which was a much higher

frequency than that between Tajima-Tango and S.JPN (11.2%).   The remainder were the

common alleles between N.JPN and S.JPN (7.5%), i.e., specific alleles in Tajima-Tango.

The proportions are nearly consistent with the previous study based on 96 genomic regions (4

loci for each chromosome) (Takehana et al. 2016).   Although the regions with neighboring

common alleles between Tajima-Tango and S.JPN were observed for certain chromosomes,

alleles on the Tajima-Tango genome were mostly shared with N.JPN, indicating that

Tajima-Tango is a subgroup of N.JPN with a short divergence time.

To investigate the mitochondria introgression in boundary populations, we

reconstructed the phylogenetic tree based on partial mtDNA sequences generated by mapping

short reads from the GBS of the complete mitochondrial genome (supplementary fig. 4).

The mtDNA sequences from Toyooka and Kinosaki in Tajima-Tango were clustered and

closely related to those from Kaga, which was a root population in N.JPN.   Considering that

Tajima-Tango is a subgroup of N.JPN inferred from the tree based on autosomal sequences,

these phylogenetic positions on the mtDNA tree would have reflected an evolutionary history

in which N.JPN diverged from the Tajima-Tango group.   We confirmed that Amino,

Kumihama and Hamasaka in Tajima-Tango had the mitochondrial genomes of

phylogenetically distant populations classified into S.JPN (supplementary fig. 4).

Additionally, the mitochondrial genome of Ayabe in S.JPN was classified into N.JPN but

diverged from Tajima-Tango.   These results suggest that mitochondrial genome

introgressions occurred reciprocally, meaning that they occurred not only from S.JPN to

Tajima-Tango but also from N.JPN to S.JPN.

Inferring medaka demographic parameters

To infer the demographic parameters, effective population size (N_e), time (T), and proportion

of the admix (r), we analyzed the "HZ-2" dataset based on the coalescent theory using an

Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) framework.   We performed the model selection

to identify the best explanation scenario for the observed data from the four scenarios (fig.

5a).

$DIYABC$ has two different approaches (directional and logistic) for model selection.

Based on each criterion, scenario III (Honshu diverged from Kyushu and then N.JPN diverged

from the Tajima-Tango group without admixture with Honshu) and scenario IV (Honshu

diverged from Kyushu and then Tajima-Tango occurred by an admixture with Honshu at r

rate) were supported by the directional (posterior probability: 0.4720, 95% CI: 0.0344–

0.9096) and logistic (posterior probability: 0.4477, 95% CI: 0.4313–0.4641) approaches,

respectively (supplementary fig. 8).   Unfortunately, our data could not distinguish one of

these two scenarios (see the Discussion section).

The posterior parameter estimates of scenarios III and IV are shown in table 2 and

figs. 5c and 5d, which were not scaled because various measures of accuracy (RRMISE,

RMeanAD, and RRMSE in the $DIYABC$ output) indicated that non-scaled parameters fit the

observed data better than scaled parameters   Additionally, although we inferred the time to

the most common ancestor at three divergence events (fig. 5), these times might be

overestimated because the dataset for this estimation consisted of non-deme samples, i.e.,

polymorphisms within populations were underestimated and the random-mating assumption

could not be satisfied.   Therefore, we estimated the timing of the Out of Northern Kyushu

event using the "Local" dataset composed of the two deme samples (S.Saga and N.Saga),

which were split at first on the S.JPN lineage (fig. 3).   Based on a simple hypothesis,

constant population size and no migration, we gained the estimated time (510,000 years ago,

95% CI: 337,875–679,575) for the ancestral divergence of the two deme samples (table 2 and

fig. 5e), which was calculated from a scaled parameter by the mean effective population size

because various accuracy measures indicated that scaled parameters fit the observed data

better than non-scaled parameters.   Thus, our population genetic estimate using ABC

suggests that medakas diverged and dispersed throughout Pacific-side Japan at approximately

510 kyr ago.

Discussion

Genetic diversity and structure based on genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphisms

The previous study showed that N.JPN and S.JPN could be divided into three and twelve

subgroups, respectively, according to the mitochondrial DNA analysis (Takehana et al. 2003).

In this study, based on autosomal SNPs, the genetic clustering analysis showed that "K = 4"

was the most supportive because it presented the lowest fivefold cross-validation error,

suggesting that N.JPN and S.JPN were divided into three ancestral clusters.   When the K

values increased, only S.JPN divided into more subgroups, which suggests that the S.JPN

group was composed of more divergent groups than the other groups.   S.JPN can be divided

into finer subgroups based on the mitochondrial genome, which is likely because the effective

population size of mtDNA is one quarter that of a nuclear gene.   Although this result does

not indicate that the autosomal genome has been less differentiated, it does suggest that the

autosomal genome in each population shares a common ancestor.

456   The medaka mtDNA tree shows that the intermingled branch pattern is not

associated with geographic distance.   This pattern is similar to that based on allozyme data

shown in Sakaizumi *et al.* (1986), which has been interpreted as artificial migrations

accompanied by recent human activities (Takehana et al. 2003).   If the branching pattern was

formed by human activities, various ancestral components should appear independent of

geographic relatedness in the result of the *ADMIXTURE* analysis based on autosomal SNPs.

However, no signal of recent migration was found in the *ADMIXTURE* result.   Rather, the

autosomal SNP data support another hypothetical scenario in which the mtDNA tree topology

reflected ancestral polymorphisms only and their local fixation was caused by a small

effective population size (Katsumura et al. 2009; 2012). This finding indicates that the wild

lab stocks still maintain their migration memory on their genomes.

Among four major mitochondrial groups, W.KOR showed the highest nucleotide

diversity and E.KOR showed the second highest (table 1).   The former group included the

Chinese medaka in Shanghai, which could elevate the value, while the latter group did not

include any geographically distant populations.   The clustering analysis showed that

Shanghai from W.KOR and Yongcheon from E.KOR had the ancestry component from N.JPN,

which suggests two possibilities: one is that the N.JPN ancestor derives from the E/W.KOR

ancestor, and the other is that contamination occurred through the maintained wild lab stocks.

To investigate these possibilities and the origin of *O. latipes*, a population-based genome wide

analysis must be conducted to increase the population numbers in E/W.KOR and include the

sister species *O. curvinotus* and *O. luzonensis*.

Reconstruction of the medaka population history in the Japanese archipelago

Our genome-wide analysis shows that medakas in N.JPN and S.JPN are deeply divergent and

dispersed over the Japanese archipelago from different locations at different times.   In

particular, the history of N.JPN after divergence from S.JPN cannot be consistent with

previous inferences from the allozyme, mtDNA and limited autosomal SNPs analyses, which

have suggested Tajima-Tango originated in and diverged from N.JPN.   Our data and

previous studies show that (i) the nucleotide diversity in Tajima-Tango is higher than that in

N.JPN (table 1), (ii) S.JPN is genetically more closely related to Tajima-Tango than to N.JPN

based on the allele-sharing rates (fig. 4), and (iii) the Tajima-Tango branch is the root in the

N.JPN/Tajima-Tango clade of the phylogenetic tree based on partial mtDNA sequences (fig.

S4) and the whole mitochondrial genome (Hirayama et al. 2010).   These data suggest that

Tajima-Tango forms an outgroup to all present-day N.JPN and it spread along the

Sea-of-Japan side.   Furthermore, the ABC framework's estimation supports our scenario,

although the analysis does not statistically distinguish between the two scenarios (admixture

or divergent).   Even if the admixture occurred, the inferred ratio of the admixture is too low

(fig. 5d).

In this study, we support the hypothetical scenario "Out of northern Kyushu model,"

which was first reported by Katsumura et al. (2012), and discover the dispersal route of

N.JPN/Tajima-Tango.   The genetic clustering analyses and phylogenetic tree based on the

GBS data elucidate medaka history better than previous mitochondrial DNA analyses.   In

particular, the *ADMIXTURE* analysis shows that the two ancestry components (yellow and

blue in fig. 3) were observed in northern Kyushu, suggesting that S.JPN dispersed in three

different directions after dispersing Out of Northern Kyushu.   Furthermore, the different

branching patterns of autosomal and mtDNA trees suggest that the mtDNA introgression

occurred not only from S.JPN to Tajima-Tango but also from N.JPN to S.JPN.   The

Tajima-Tango region is surrounded by mountains (supplementary fig. 1); however, it contains

the lowest watershed (sea level 95.45 m) in the Japanese archipelago.   The medaka has

possibly moved in both directions across the watershed. From the above, the most plausible

scenario is as follows (fig. 6).   S.JPN and Tajima-Tango diverged first and independently

reached their current habitats in the Japanese archipelago.   After S.JPN dispersed from

northern Kyushu approximately 510 kyr ago, N.JPN diverged from Tajima-Tango. Then, their

descendant populations spread rapidly to the northern Honshu on the Sea-of-Japan side.

Meanwhile, S.JPN may have dispersed in three different directions and then spread rapidly

northeastward from the western part of Fossa Magna.   In the process of dispersing across the

main island of Japan, certain S.JPN populations infiltrated the Tajima-Tango region from the

west and the south, and the resulting mtDNA introgression occurred independently.

Population structure and history information for the medaka GWAS

The population structure inferred from autosomes helps us select the optimal sampling

strategy for performing a GWAS.   The proportion of false positives and false negatives in

the GWAS increases when the population structure overlaps with the phenotypic pattern

(Brachi et al. 2011).   To avoid this result, the population structure and history of organisms

used for a GWAS should be examined based on many genomic regions with recombination.

Although our medaka SNP data are few compared with the amount of available human SNP

data, these data provide a baseline genetic diversity estimate for the detection of fine-scale

population structures and reconstruction of the population history compared with the

mitochondrial genome.   With regard to the GWAS with the medaka population (medaka

GWAS), this study can be useful for identifying a relationship between the phenotypic pattern

and population structure and planning a sampling strategy to avoid false positives/negatives.

The explanatory rate for observed SNP traits is low in many cases in the human GWAS,

whereas with model organisms, particularly plants, GWAS results have often explained a

much greater proportion of the phenotypic variation (Yan Li et al. 2010).   Therefore, the

assumption holds true for such organisms that common genetic variation explains common

phenotypic variation.   Therefore, many adaptive traits and related genes should be identified

via the medaka GWAS while considering the population structure.   In addition, cutting-edge

techniques for genome editing, such as CRISPR/cas9 (Kirchmaier et al. 2015), and resource

management systems, such as NBRP medaka (URL: https://shigen.nig.ac.jp/medaka/) have

been established.   Whole genome analyses of inbred lines and some wild-captured medakas

have already been performed.   If autosomal information can be accumulated for wild lab

stocks, medakas may become the only model animal used for the systematic performance of

GWASs, which is similar to the scenario of Arabidopsis for plant GWASs.   Thus, medakas

have the potential for use as a highly sensitive tool for unraveling the molecular mechanism

of phenotypic variations and the adaptive significance of genetic polymorphisms in a

population, providing a useful key for understanding the evolution of phenotypic

diversification in vertebrates.

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Table 1 Summary genetic statistics for five populations using "PopStat" dataset. These statistics include the mean number of individuals genotyped at each locus (*1), the number of variable sites in five populations (Variants), the number of polymorphic sites in each population (Polymorphic) and the number of variable sites unique to each population (Private). The number in parenthesis is Standard Error.

Group	Number of Individual[*1]	Total length of GBS loci (bp)	Variant	Polymorphic	Private	Major Allele Frequency	Observed Heterozygosity	Nucleotide Diversity
NJPN	11.5 (+/-0.03)	45968	2453	256	136	0.983 (+/-0.0014)	0.023 (+/-0.0022)	0.0014 (+/-0.0001)
Tajima -Tango	4.4 (+/-0.01)	44011	2453	199	71	0.980 (+/-0.0016)	0.024 (+/-0.0022)	0.0017 (+/-0.0001)
SJPN	41.6 (+/-0.08)	45968	2453	1448	1231	0.958 (+/-0.0017)	0.029 (+/-0.0016)	0.0036 (+/-0.0001)
WKOR	2.4 (+/-0.01)	44990	2453	467	342	0.940 (+/-0.0027)	0.054 (+/-0.0032)	0.0053 (+/-0.0003)
EKOR	2.4 (+/-0.01)	44011	2453	346	203	0.953 (+/-0.0025)	0.041 (+/-0.0030)	0.0042 (+/-0.0002)

Table 2 Demographic parameters estimated by DIYABC under three scenarios. Performance of each estimation was evaluated by RRMISE (the square Root of the Relative Mean Integrated Square Error), RMeanAD (the Relative Mean Absolute Deviation) and RRMSE (the square Root of teh Relative Mean Square Error), which are output from DIYABC option "Compute bias and mean square error." The numbers with or without parentheses in the culunms "Performances for estimating posterior distributions of parameters" are those of the statistics computed from the prior or posterior distribution of parameters, respectively.

Scenario	Parameters	Prior distribution					Posterior parameter estimates			Performances for estimating posterior distributions of parameters		
		Type	min.	max.	mean	S.D.	Mean	95% credible interval		RRMISE	RMeanAD	RRMSE
II	$N_{\text{N.JPN}}$	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	450,000	500,000	825,000	492,000	1,240,000	0.415 (-0.586)	0.302 (-0.485)	0.302 (-0.288)
	$N_{\text{Tajima-Tango}}$	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	600,000	500,000	613,000	369,000	901,000	0.35 (-0.808)	0.256 (-0.61)	0.251 (-0.358)
	N_{Kyushu}	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	1,225,000	500,000	1,210,000	711,000	1,830,000	0.364 (-0.524)	0.264 (-0.396)	0.267 (-0.282)
	N_{honshu}	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	1,050,000	500,000	1,490,000	974,000	2,020,000	0.291 (-0.442)	0.219 (-0.368)	0.213 (-0.289)
	N_{Ancestor}	Uniform	10,000	30,000,000	-	-	432,000	59,700	922,000	5.899 (-133.368)	1.846 (-59.034)	5.119 (-115.475)
	$T_{\text{N.JPN–Hybrid}}$	Uniform	10	4,000,000	-	-	566,000	311,000	908,000	0.409 (-2.417)	0.300 (-1.725)	0.266 (-1.589)
	$T_{\text{kyushu–Honshu}}$	Uniform	10	4,000,000	-	-	1,050,000	442,000	2,290,000	0.575 (-2.398)	0.374 (-1.875)	0.284 (-2.114)
	$T_{\text{N.JPN–S.JPN}}$	Normal	1,000,000	30,000,000	4,000,000	5,000,000	4,560,000	2,820,000	6,810,000	0.329 (-1.079)	0.245 (-0.776)	0.229 (-0.743)
III	$N_{\text{N.JPN}}$	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	450,000	500,000	812,000	390,000	1,330,000	0.447 (-0.635)	0.332 (-0.506)	0.303 (-0.326)
	$N_{\text{Tajima-Tango}}$	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	600,000	500,000	480,000	266,000	739,000	0.375 (-1.208)	0.284 (-0.88)	0.261 (-0.736)
	N_{Kyushu}	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	1,225,000	500,000	1,290,000	758,000	1,910,000	0.356 (-0.483)	0.265 (-0.373)	0.265 (-0.252)
	N_{honshu}	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	1,050,000	500,000	1,450,000	913,000	2,020,000	0.316 (-0.446)	0.235 (-0.369)	0.235 (-0.279)
	N_{Ancestor}	Uniform	10,000	30,000,000	-	-	390,000	57,200	849,000	6.947 (-131.19)	2.285 (-62.259)	5.997 (-113.55)
	T_{ADMIX}	Uniform	10	4,000,000	-	-	512,000	242,000	842,000	0.397 (-4.374)	0.308 (-2.163)	0.249 (-3.309)
	$T_{\text{kyushu–Honshu}}$	Uniform	10	4,000,000	-	-	1,100,000	446,000	2,420,000	0.576 (-2.256)	0.381 (-1.76)	0.296 (-1.98)
	$T_{\text{N.JPN–S.JPN}}$	Normal	1,000,000	30,000,000	4,000,000	5,000,000	5,160,000	3,080,000	7,780,000	0.345 (-0.916)	0.262 (-0.65)	0.239 (-0.588)
	r	Uniform	0.001	0.999	-	-	0.944	0.897	0.987	0.027 (-0.559)	0.02 (-0.472)	0.014 (-0.469)
Out of NK	$N_{\text{S.Saga}}$	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	1,300,000	500,000	1,326,000	960,075	1,670,250	0.178 (-0.31)	0.138 (-0.241)	0.120 (-0.095)
	$N_{\text{N.Saga}}$	Normal	10,000	3,000,000	1,250,000	500,000	1,224,000	892,500	1,593,750	0.181 (-0.322)	0.142 (-0.251)	0.119 (-0.096)
	$T_{\text{S.Saga–N.Saga}}$	Uniform	1,000	4,000,000	-	-	510,000	337,875	679,575	0.224 (-5.918)	0.175 (-4.488)	0.143 (-4.429)

Figure legends

FIG. 1: Map of original locations of the wild lab stocks and wild-captured medakas.   In

the upper central map, the enlarged red frame shows the boundary region between S.JPN and

N.JPN.   Each color represents the geographical groups shown in the left upper inset box.

The numbers on the map are consistent with the population IDs with the names on the right

bottom inset box.

FIG. 2: Results of the principle component analysis (PCA) using SNPs in East Asia (a)

and the Japanese archipelago (b).   Each plot shows PC1 versus PC2.   The population

names of each point are described in fig. S6.

FIG. 3: Phylogenetic tree using the maximum likelihood method and an ancestry

barplot with an ADMIXTURE analysis.   Red closed and open circles represent the

northern and southern Kyushu populations, respectively.   "Taj-Tan" in the tree is the

abbreviation for Tajima-Tango.

FIG. 4: Shared allele distribution among boundary populations.   The gray rectangle

represents the total length of each medaka chromosome.   The table in the figure shows the

number of alleles shared between the groups seen on each chromosome.   Mark represents

the state whose group shares that allele.   *1 and *2 are the total number from chromosomes

1 to 12 and from chromosomes 13 to 24, respectively.

FIG. 5: Scenarios for the estimation of demographic parameters.   Possible scenarios for

the population history of the Tajima-Tango group (a), and the "Out of northern Kyushu (NK)"

event (b) are shown.   The TMRCAs estimated using ABC are in scenario3 (c), scenario4 (d)

and Out of NK (e).

FIG. 6: Map representing the ancestry proportions from the ADMIXTURE analysis at

K = 6.   Solid and dashed lines represent the spreading patterns of S.JPN and N.JPN inferred

by GBS data, respectively.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

	Mark	Chr1	Chr2	Chr3	Chr4	Chr5	Chr6	Chr7	Chr8	Chr9	Chr10	Chr11	Chr12	Total*1
NJPN–Tajima-Tango	■	62	11	52	54	70	53	65	32	75	48	44	61	627
SJPN–Tajima-Tango	●	7	1	6	7	6	6	8	5	1	8	7	4	66
Tajima-Tango only	▲	6	1	3	6	8	3	7	5	8	7	2	4	60

	Mark	Chr13	Chr14	Chr15	Chr16	Chr17	Chr18	Chr19	Chr20	Chr21	Chr22	Chr23	Chr24	Total*2
NJPN–Tajima-Tango	■	39	47	60	50	51	28	21	44	42	52	26	36	496
SJPN–Tajima-Tango	●	10	9	6	9	13	3	5	5	9	8	5	6	88
Tajima-Tango only	▲	1	3	6	4	5	2	3	3	7	7	1	1	43

Figure 5

Figure 6