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# 5 An introgression breakthrough left by an anthropogenic contact between two

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# 17 Running title

18 Introgression footprint of a sea squirt invasion

# 19 Abstract

20 Human-driven translocations of species have diverse evolutionary consequences such as 21 promoting hybridization between previously geographically isolated taxa. This is well-22 illustrated by the solitary tunicate, Ciona robusta, native to the North East Pacific and 23 introduced in the North East Atlantic. It is now co-occurring with its congener C. intestinalis in 24 the English Channel, and C. roulei in the Mediterranean Sea. Despite their long allopatric 25 divergence, first and second generation crosses showed a high hybridization success between 26 the introduced and native taxa in the laboratory. However, previous genetic studies failed to 27 provide evidence of recent hybridization between C. robusta and C. intestinalis in the wild. 28 Using SNPs obtained from ddRAD-sequencing of 397 individuals from 26 populations, we 29 further explored the genome-wide population structure of the native *Ciona* taxa. We first 30 confirmed results documented in previous studies, notably i) a chaotic genetic structure at 31 regional scale, and ii) a high genetic similarity between C. roulei and C. intestinalis, which is 32 calling for further taxonomic investigation. More importantly, and unexpectedly, we also 33 observed a genomic hotspot of long introgressed C. robusta tracts into C. intestinalis genomes 34 at several locations of their contact zone. Both the genomic architecture of introgression, 35 restricted to a 1.5 Mb region of chromosome 5, and its absence in allopatric populations suggest introgression is recent and occurred after the introduction of the non-indigenous 36 species. Overall, our study shows that anthropogenic hybridization can be effective in 37 38 promoting introgression breakthroughs between species at a late stage of the speciation 39 continuum.

40 Keywords: Biological introductions, non-indigenous species, anthropogenic hybridization,
41 introgression hotspots, population genomics, tunicates

# 42 Introduction

43 Anthropogenic hybridizations can arise from human-mediated translocations of 44 species outside their natural distribution range, which promote secondary contact between 45 previously geographically isolated taxa (McFarlane & Pemberton, 2019). Such circumstances 46 enable the initial phase of the hybridization to be studied in a natural context (Grabenstein & 47 Taylor, 2018, Hufbauer et al., 2012, Faust, Halvorsen, Andersen, Knutsen, & André, 2018; 48 Popovic, Matias, Bierne, & Riginos, 2020). Anthropogenic hybridizations thus provide unique 49 opportunities to examine gene flow between species experiencing incomplete reproductive 50 isolation, even at a late stage of the speciation process (Viard, Riginos, & Bierne, 2020).

51 Species introductions are common and occur at increasing rates in the marine 52 realm (Seebens et al., 2017). Ports and marinas, one component of the increasing marine 53 urbanization, are one point-of-entry of many non-native species (Firth et al., 2016), where 54 they can co-occur with native congeners (e.g., Bouchemousse, Lévêque, Dubois, & Viard, 55 2016b). Consequently, these habitats are prone to facilitating hybridization between 56 introduced and native species. They provide a suitable system to examine secondary gene 57 flow in case of anthropogenic hybridization. This is illustrated by a recent study from Simon et al. (2020), which documented the presence of a singular lineage, named "dock mussels", 58 59 originating from a recent admixture between Mytilus edulis, native to the North Atlantic, and 60 Mytilus galloprovincialis, native to the Mediterranean Sea. These admixed populations are 61 restricted to port habitats in European waters.

The secondary contact between the solitary tunicates *Ciona robusta* and *Ciona intestinalis* in the English Channel is another case study, but with very different outcomes. *Ciona robusta* (formerly known as *C. intestinalis* type A; Gissi et al., 2017), native to Asia, was

65 introduced in the early 2000s to the English Channel (Bouchemousse, Bishop, & Viard, 2016a), 66 the native range of *C. intestinalis* (formerly known as *C. intestinalis* type B; Gissi et al., 2017). 67 The two species are found in syntopy (Nydam & Harrison, 2010, Bouchemousse et al., 2016b), 68 display similar life-cycles (Bouchemousse, Lévêque, & Viard, 2017), and can be easily crossed 69 in the laboratory (Bouchemousse et al., 2016b; Malfant, Coudret, Le Merdy, & Viard, 2017) 70 despite their high molecular divergence (12% of net synonymous divergence, Roux, 71 Tsagkogeorga, Bierne, & Galtier, 2013, Roux et al., 2016). Successful hybridization nonetheless 72 occurs in one direction only, with C. intestinalis as the maternal lineage (Bouchemousse et al., 73 2016b; Malfant, Darras, & Viard, 2018). Demographic inferences based on few individuals but 74 high number of markers derived from 852 coding sequences (total length of 270kb) suggested 75 the presence of several introgression hotspots between the two species (Roux et al., 2013). 76 However, by using 100 ancestry-informative SNPs, this introgression was later shown to be 77 the outcome of past introgression, far preceding the contemporary secondary contact 78 nowadays observed in the English Channel (Bouchemousse, Liautard-Haag, Bierne, & Viard, 79 2016c). In Europe, where both species occur in sympatry, Bouchemousse et al. (2016c) have 80 found limited evidence for hybridization (i.e., one F1 hybrid out of 449 individuals), and no 81 sign of contemporary introgression (i.e., no F2s or backcrosses). Thus, despite a high 82 hybridization potential, efficient reproductive barriers seem to prevent hybridization in the 83 wild between the native and non-native species. Although these results are based on low 84 genomic coverage, they suggest that introgression between C. intestinalis and C. robusta is far 85 less common than in *Mytilus* species. Indeed, admixture was effectively detected in dock 86 mussels using similar genomic coverage (Simon et al., 2020). Nevertheless, high genomic 87 coverage can reveal subtler introgression patterns as exemplified in model systems in speciation (sticklebacks: Ravinet et al., 2018; rock periwinkle: Stankowski et al., 2020;
drosophila: Turissini & Matute, 2017), as well as in native-invasive systems (cotton bollworm:
Valencia-Montoya et al., 2020; honey bee: Calfee, Agra, Palacio, Ramírez, & Coop, 2020).

91 In this study, we further explored the genome-wide population structure of the 92 native tunicate C. intestinalis in the North Atlantic using a large number of SNPs provided by 93 a ddRAD-sequencing approach. Our study expands upon the work conducted by Hudson et al. 94 (2020), which described multiple glacial lineages of C. instestinalis within Europe. Here, we 95 aim to evaluate the consequences of anthropogenic hybridization with its congener C. robusta 96 that has been introduced in the range of one C. intestinalis glacial lineage, in the English 97 Channel. As a control, and for the sake of comparison, we also examined one population of 98 the native species Ciona roulei from the Mediterranean Sea. The species status of C. roulei has 99 been repeatedly questioned (Lambert, Lafargue, & Lambert, 1990; Nydam & Harrison, 2010; 100 Malfant et al., 2018), and it might better be described as an isolated population of C. 101 intestinalis. Interestingly, C. roulei can be found in sympatry with C. robusta, also introduced 102 in the Mediterranean Sea. Based on genome-wide SNPs, we 1. recover the population 103 structure described from previous studies for C. intestinalis both at fine and large geographical 104 scales 2. provide genome-wide support for a revision of the taxonomic status of *C. roulei*, and 105 3. provide the first evidence in favor of recent introgression events from *C. robusta* towards 106 C. intestinalis in their contact zone, but not in allopatric populations. However, introgression 107 is restricted to a 1.5 Mb region of chromosome 5. Overall, our study shows that anthropogenic 108 hybridization can be effective in promoting gene flow even between species at a late stage of 109 speciation, but in this case introgression can be restricted to localized breakthroughs in the 110 receiving genome.

111

#### 112 Materials and methods

113 Sample collection

114 We studied 397 individuals of *Ciona* spp., previously sampled across the North 115 Atlantic. The sampling locations are shown in Figures 1B (fine-scale) and 2A (large-scale) with 116 details provided in Table S1 in the Supporting Information file. Most individuals (N=346) were C. intestinalis sampled from 22 locations in 2012 by Bouchemousse et al. (2016a), except for 117 118 one site (Jer) that was sampled in 2014 by Hudson, Viard, Roby, & Rius (2016). This sampling 119 includes two locations (REK, Iceland, and NAH, US) where C. intestinalis is most likely 120 introduced although its status remains debated (i.e., cryptogenic; See Appendix 1 in 121 Bouchemousse et al., 2016a). The sampling scheme aims at covering the known geographic 122 range of this species, with a focus on the English Channel where the species coexists with its 123 introduced congener C. robusta. In addition, 19 specimens of C. roulei, native to the 124 Mediterranean Sea, were included, along with 32 individuals from the introduced species C. 125 robusta, of which 16 were sampled from the Mediterranean Sea (in sympatry with C. roulei) 126 and 16 from the English Channel (in sympatry with *C. intestinalis*).

127 DNA extraction and library preparation

For each individual, DNA was extracted using Nucleospin<sup>®</sup> 96 Tissue Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (Macherey-Nagel, Germany). Individual double-digest RADseq libraries were constructed according to a protocol slightly modified from Brelsford, Dufresnes, & Perrin (2016). A detailed step-by-step protocol is available at dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.bv4tn8wn. Briefly, DNA was digested with PstI and MseI after fluorometric quantification of DNA concentration with PicoGreen (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

134 CA, USA) and normalization of the extracts. Each individual was labelled with a unique 135 barcode-index combination, with an inline barcode (incorporated in the Pstl adaptor) and an 136 Illumina Truseq index (incorporated during the PCR carried out on the ligation products). Size 137 selection was carried out with 1.5% agarose cassettes in a pippin prep (Sage Science) to select 138 fragments between 280 and 600 base pairs. A total of three pooled libraries were sequenced, 139 each containing 184 individuals, with replicates (two individuals per library and two across the 140 three libraries). Each library was sequenced in two lanes of an Illumina HiSeq 2500 v4 high 141 throughput flow cell generating 125 base single-end reads at Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, 142 Germany).

# 143 Bioinformatics pipeline

144 The reads were demultiplexed based on their individual index-barcode with the 145 processRADtags programme of Stacks v2 (Rochette, Rivera- Colón, & Catchen, 2019). Reads 146 with ambiguous barcodes or low sequencing quality were removed. Overall, an average of 147 1.7M good quality reads per sample was kept for the downstream analyses. The reads were 148 trimmed to 80 base pairs, and mapped on the C. robusta genome (KH79 version, Dehal et al., 149 2002, NCBI assembly GCF 000224145.1) using the default parameters implemented in BWA 150 software (Li & Durbin, 2009). Note that this genome is improperly referenced under the name 151 C. intestinalis in several databases because of a recent taxonomic revision (Gissi et al., 2017, 152 and references herein). Between 60 and 67% of the reads were mapped for C. roulei and C. 153 intestinalis individuals, and between 83 and 87% of the reads for C. robusta individuals. The 154 aligned RAD data were then processed using the reference mapping pipeline in Stacks v2 set 155 with default parameters (Rochette et al., 2019). Only the SNPs sequenced for at least 80% of 156 the individuals within a location, present in all the populations and with a maximum

157 heterozygosity of 80% were called using the *population* function. Additional filtering steps 158 were performed using vcftools (Danecek et al., 2011) in order to remove SNPs with a minor allele count of two or showing significant deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (P-159 160 value threshold of 0.05) in more than 60% of the population, with the function 161 filter hwe by pop.pl implemented in dDocent pipeline (Puritz, Hollenbeck, & Gold, 2014). We 162 additionally removed all polymorphisms private to C. robusta populations, as such polymorphisms are neither informative to describe C. intestinalis population structure nor to 163 164 evaluate the extent of introgression across species (which results in shared polymorphisms). 165 At the end of the filtration process, the dataset included 397 individuals (see Table S1 across 166 sampled locations) genotyped at 51,141 SNPs (17,280 with a Minor Allele Frequency (MAF) 167 above 5%) derived from 5,599 RAD-locus with an average depth across all samples of 59 reads 168 per locus, which was then exported into variant call format (VCF). The VCF was then 169 statistically phased using Beagle v5.2 (Browning & Browning, 2007) in order to extract 170 haplotypes and conduct phylogenetic analyses as explained below.

#### 171 *Population structure analyses*

172 Fine-scale population structure (dataset 1): Because of our interest in identifying 173 introgression in the contact zone, 280 individuals of C. intestinalis from 18 sampling sites (70% 174 of the data) were obtained from the English Channel, Iroise Sea and the Bay of Biscay. We first 175 explored the fine-scale population structure of these populations (dataset 1; Table S1; Figure 176 1B). The dataset 1 was further filtered to keep SNPs with a MAF above 5%, and additionally 177 thinned by keeping one random SNP over bin of 1kb to take into account physical linkage, 178 using vcftools (Danecek et al., 2011). In total, 13,603 linked SNPs and 3,510 unlinked SNPs 179 were used to study the fine-scale population structure. For the unlinked SNPs, we used the

180 function find.clusters in adegenet (Jombart, Devillard, & Balloux, 2010) to find the best 181 number of clusters (lower BIC value) describing the population structure on the 50 first 182 principal components of a PCA (Figure S1). These clusters were then used as discriminant 183 factors to compute a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) with two 184 discriminant functions. We then used the snmf function of the R package LEA (Frichot & 185 François, 2015), using the number of cluster inferred from the find.clusters function in 186 adegenet to examine the admixture proportions within each location. We estimated pairwise 187  $F_{ST}$  values with 95% confidence interval among sampling sites by bootstrapping (10,000 188 replications) using the R package StAMPP (Pembleton, Cogan, & Froster, 2013) and 189 significance was tested after accounting for multiple testing with Bonferroni correction. The 190 linked SNPs were used to compute another DAPC using the group inferred by the function 191 find.clusters on the unlinked SNPs, extract the eigenvalue of each individual SNP, and evaluate 192 the genomic distribution of the markers responsible for the population structure.

193 Large-scale population structure (dataset 2): For the large-scale population structure 194 analyses, and to achieve a more balanced sampling structure, we kept only one sampling 195 location per genetic cluster inferred with the fine-scale analyses (see above). In total, 129 196 individuals from nine sampling sites for C. intestinalis, 32 individuals from two sampling sites 197 for C. robusta and 19 individuals from one sampling site for C. roulei were included (dataset 2; 198 Table S1; Figure 2A). This second dataset was filtered to keep SNPs with a MAF above 5%, and 199 further filtered for physical linkage (one random SNP per kb). Overall, 17,138 linked and 3,828 200 unlinked SNPs were used depending on the analysis. Using the unlinked SNPs, we conducted 201 a PCA analysis from the R package adegenet (Jombart & Ahmed, 2011) and admixture analyses 202 (detailed on Figure S2) from the R package LEA (Frichot & François, 2015). We computed the

203 pairwise F<sub>ST</sub> value with 95% confidence interval from bootstrapping (10,000 replications) using 204 the R package StAMPP (Pembleton et al., 2013), and significance was tested after accounting 205 for multiple testing using Bonferroni correction. A second PCA analysis was performed on the 206 linked SNPs and the eigenvalue of each SNPs were extracted and plotted against their physical 207 position on the reference genome in order to characterize the genomic distribution of the 208 markers responsible for the population structure. Finally, we used the statistically phased VCF 209 file to create a pseudo sequence of all SNPs, and transformed it into a fasta file containing two 210 haplotypes per individual using a custom R script available in the Zenodo archive (see the Data 211 Accessibility section). From this fasta file, we computed the pairwise genetic distance between 212 each haplotype, and represented a neighbor joining tree based on the GTR substitution model 213 using the R package phangorn (Schliep, 2011).

214 Investigating introgression between Ciona intestinalis and C. robusta (dataset 3): To assess 215 the variability of introgression along the genome, we first used the R package LEA using k=2 216 to compute the individual ancestry of C. robusta and C. intestinalis individuals, over the whole 217 genome, and for each chromosome independently. Pairwise F<sub>ST</sub> values between the two 218 sampling locations (pooled) of *C. robusta* and each other locations (*C. intestinalis*) were then 219 computed for each SNP following the method of Weir and Cockerham (1986) using vcftools 220 (Danecek et al., 2011). For each chromosome, we calculated the maximum  $F_{ST}$  value taken 221 over a sliding window of 100kb, which was then smoothed with the R package ggplot2 222 (Wickham, 2011). Additionally, we created an ancestry informative set of SNPs by extracting 223 the markers differentially fixed (i.e., F<sub>ST</sub> value of one) between C. robusta and the Gul 224 population (6,849 SNPs in total). The later population comes from a region and an

environment (deep natural habitat) where *C. robusta* have never been reported, thus, is the
least likely population to have recently hybridized with *C. robusta*.

To detect potential introgression tracts of C. robusta within the genome of C. 227 228 intestinalis, we extracted the F<sub>ST</sub> value of the 6,849 ancestry informative SNPs calculated 229 between C. robusta and each 22 C. intestinalis populations (Rek excluded due to low sampling 230 size). We then used the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) developed by Hofer, Foll & Excoffier 231 (2012) to infer the position of genomic islands. Briefly, the HMM characterizes and sorts 232 genomic regions according to their level of differentiation, and is generally used to detect 233 island of divergence (e.g. Soria-Carrasco et al., 2014, Shi et al., 2021). Here, the HMM was 234 applied to detect regions of introgression by contrasting regions with high-background 235 differentiation (with an F<sub>ST</sub> value of one) from regions with intermediate differentiation (with 236  $F_{ST}$  normally distributed around the 15% lower quantile) and low differentiation (with  $F_{ST}$ 237 normally distributed around the 5% lower quantile). The HMM was run using a modify version 238 of the R script by Marques et al. (2016). To avoid any biases by comparing introgressed 239 population from non-introgressed populations, the quantiles were extracted from the 240 distribution of all F<sub>ST</sub> values calculated for the 22 pairwise comparisons. Regions of low 241 differentiation covering more than 4 consecutive SNPs, and regions of intermediate 242 differentiation covering more than 10 consecutive SNPs in a given pair of C. robusta and C. 243 intestinalis were considered as candidate for introgression. Finally, the genotypes of all the 244 individuals at each diagnostic SNP was visualized using a modified version of mk.image of the 245 R package introgress (Gompert & Buerkle, 2010) developed by Simon et al. (2021). This 246 analysis was performed independently along each chromosome.

# 248 Results

#### 249 Fine-scale population structure of Ciona intestinalis in France and UK

250 Four genetic clusters, which explained 25% of the variance in the DAPC, were 251 identified in the English Channel, Iroise Sea and Bay of Biscay (Figure 1A). The genetic 252 clustering of the sampling sites was consistent with their geographical proximity, except for 253 three of them grouping with geographically distant ones (Figure 1B): 1) the individuals from 254 Jer (Jersey), geographically close to the northern Brittany populations (deep pink cluster) but 255 clustered with eastern UK sites (blue cluster), 2) the individuals from Rch (La Rochelle) and Bri 256 (Brighton), which belong to the northern Brittany cluster, despite being geographically closer 257 to Western France (yellow cluster) and eastern UK (blue cluster), respectively. This mosaic 258 structure was also supported by the LEA analysis (Figure 1E), notably for Bri and Jer. However, 259 Rch showed evidence of admixture between nearby locations (Qui and Lor in Western 260 Brittany) and distant ones (Per and Blo in Northern Brittany). Additionally, the two 261 westernmost English populations (Ply and Brx) were genetically differentiated from all the 262 other sampling sites (green cluster in Figure 1B, admixture analysis, Figure 1E).

The SNPs contributing to the population structure observed along the first axis were distributed genome-wide (Figure 1C). Conversely, the SNPs structuring the second axis (and thus differentiating the westernmost English populations) were over-represented at the start of two chromosomes (5 and 8, Figure 1D). Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values were overall low (0.001<  $F_{ST} < 0.028$ ) but significant across most sites (Table S2), except among four sites of northern and western Brittany (AbW, MBI, Cam, and Lor), and among four sites of the eastern UK (Sth, Sho, Gpt and Poo). The highest values of  $F_{ST}$  (0.028) were found among the most distant sites following the coastline, i.e. Rch versus several sampling sites in the UK (Ply, Sho, Poo).



272 Figure 1: Fine-scale structure analysis of the 18 populations of *C. intestinalis* sampled in Bay of Biscay, 273 Iroise Sea and English Channel. Further details about the sampling sites and the code names are 274 provided in Table S1. Figure 1A shows the clustering of 280 individuals genotyped at 3,510 unlinked 275 SNPs with a DAPC set for K=4 clusters identified by the find.clusters function in adegenet (Jombart et 276 al. 2010), each cluster is pictured by a different color. The same color scheme is used in the other plots. 277 Figure 1B shows the proportion of individuals per sampling site assigned to each cluster with the DAPC. 278 Figure 1C and 1D display the contribution (eigenvalue) of the 13,603 linked-SNP to the first and second 279 axes of the DAPC, respectively; chromosome 5, which is carrying an introgression hotspot, is 280 highlighted in orange; the dashed red lines show the 95% quantiles above which are located the top 281 5% eigenvalues. Figure 1E shows the outcome of an admixture analysis made with the 3,510 unlinked 282 SNPs using the *snmf* function of the LEA package for K=4 clusters; the ancestry proportion to each 283 cluster is indicated for each individual, which are sorted according to their locations.

284

### 285 Large-scale population structure across the Northern Atlantic:

286 The non-indigenous individuals of *C. robusta* are highly divergent from the 287 individuals of the two species native to European waters, C. intestinalis and C. roulei, as 288 illustrated on the first axis of the PCA, which explained 51.80% of the inertia (Figure 2B). 289 Populations with less genetic divergence are then distinguished in the following axes: the 290 northern European samples of C. intestinalis (Gru, Gul and Tro, in blue) are distinguished from 291 the other locations, and from *C. roulei*, by the second axis (2.56%, figure 2B). The following 292 axes (3 to 8) distinguished individuals sampled from different locations but with much smaller 293 and decreasing inertia, from 1.65% to 0.52% (Figure 2C-E). C. roulei was distinct from C. 294 intestinalis only along the axis 5 (1.29%, Figure 2D). The two sampling sites Rek and Nah, in 295 which C. intestinalis has an undetermined status (putatively introduced), were very similar to 296 populations from the English Channel and Bay of Biscay, being distinguished on axes six and 297 eight (Figure 2D,E).

298 The SNPs contributing to the major divergence between *C. robusta* and the two 299 native species C. intestinalis and C. roulei were distributed genome-wide (i.e., Figure S3). 300 However, at the start of chromosome 5, a reduction of the divergence between C. robusta 301 and *C. intestinalis* was observed, as shown by a slight decline of eigenvalues in the PC1. The 302 population structure depicted by the PCA was corroborated by the admixture analysis (Figure 303 2F, Figure S2) showing high support for all the clusters described from the axes one to six of 304 the PCA (Figure 2B-E). All the pairwise  $F_{ST}$  were significantly different from 0 expect for two 305 comparisons (between the two C. robusta sites, and between Rek and Sth, Table S3). The F<sub>ST</sub> 306 values ranged from 0.02 to 0.169 among C. intestinalis sampling sites, which is similar to the 307 range (from 0.069 to 0.166) observed between C. roulei and any of the C. intestinalis

308 populations. The two sites Nah and Rek showed the lowest  $F_{ST}$  values with the populations 309 from the English Channel (e.g.,  $F_{ST}$  Nah vs AbW = 0.033 and  $F_{ST}$  Rek vs Sth non-significant from 0), and were less differentiated than pairwise comparisons between northern and southern 310 311 North Atlantic sites. Very large values (i.e., 0.761 to 0.813) were observed between C. robusta 312 and C. intestinalis/C. roulei (Table S3). The deep divergence of C. robusta from the other 313 populations, and that each population clustered in separate groups, is also confirmed by the 314 phylogenetic tree (Figure 2G). C. roulei individuals formed a distinct group closely related to 315 C. intestinalis.



316

317 Figure 2: Large-scale population structure analysis of *Ciona intestinalis* (C. int.; native to Europe) 318 populations, C. roulei (C.rou.; native to Europe) and C. robusta (C. rob., introduced to Europe). The 319 locations examined are shown in Figure 2A. The location name, and further details, associated to each 320 code are provided in Table S1. The colour code used to picture each sampling location in A) is used in 321 the other plots. PCA plots, based on 180 individuals genotyped at 3,828 unlinked SNPs, are shown in 322 figures 2B to 2E, which are displaying 8 different axes (B: 1 vs. 2; C-E: 3 vs. 4, 5 vs. 6, 7 vs 8), associated 323 to 51.80, 2.56, 1.65, 1.45, 1.29, 0.75, 0.55 and 0.52% of the total inertia, respectively. Figure 2F displays 324 the outcome of the admixture analysis made with the same SNPs using the *snmf* function of the LEA 325 package for a k=8 clusters (detailed on cluster selection available in Figure S2); the ancestries of each 326 individual are sorted by species and, for C. intestinalis, by sampling locations (left part). A neighbor-327 joining tree of 360 phased haplotype built with the 17,138 linked SNPs is pictured in figure 2G.

## 328 Introgression between C. robusta and C. intestinalis

*Ciona robusta* and *C. intestinalis* had consistent high divergence across the genome (Figure S4), with ~39.64% of the SNPs, with a MAF above 5%, being diagnostic using Gul population as reference ( $F_{ST}$ =1). No sign of genome-wide admixture was detected between the two species (Figure 3A, top panel), but the *C. roulei* individuals appeared admixed with a *C. robusta* ancestry ranging from 1.96 to 8.77% (Figure 3A, top-panel).

334 The same results were obtained when each chromosome was analyzed 335 independently (Figure S5), with one noticeable exception found on chromosome 5. On this 336 chromosome, 82 C. intestinalis individuals showed a signal of admixture with C. robusta (up 337 to 8.62%). Chromosome 5 was also the only chromosome where regions of introgression with 338 a low differentiation between C. intestinalis and C. robusta at diagnostic SNPs were detected 339 by the HMM, all of which being located between 0.61 and 1.58 Mb (tracts sizes ranging from 340 64.83kb to 0.49Mb, Table S4). These regions were found in nine populations, and shared an 341 80kb fragment located from 0.81 to 0.88 Mb of chromosome 5. Large regions of intermediate 342 differentiation, with tracts sizes ranging from 40.04kb to 1.25Mb, were also found only on 343 chromosome 5, with 90% of them located around the region of low differentiation (from 0.40 344 to 2.22Mb). In this portion of chromosome 5, C. robusta ancestry among C. intestinalis 345 individuals reached up to 76.77% (Figure 3A - bottom panel).

The presence of admixed individuals were detected at sites located in the contact zone in the English Channel, Iroise Sea and Bay of Biscay (Figure 3B,C, Table S4). In agreement with the HMM analysis, chromosome-wide  $F_{ST}$  values calculated between those populations and *C. robusta* showed a striking decline in  $F_{ST}$  on chromosome 5 (Figure 4). The most extreme drop was localized around 0.87Mb, i.e. within the 80kb region of low differentiation shared

351 among the most introgressed populations. The largest decline in F<sub>ST</sub> was found in the south 352 western part of the English Channel, in the two populations assigned to the green cluster in 353 the fine-scale analyses (Brx and Ply, Figure 1). Here, F<sub>ST</sub> decreased below 0.5 (Figure 4 – bottom 354 panel), and 29 out of 32 individuals carried at least one C. robusta tract (Figure 3A-B-C). The 355 decline in F<sub>ST</sub> was not observed in every locations of the contact zone (Figure 4). For instance, 356 F<sub>ST</sub> values of one was found throughout the entire chromosome 5 in five out of six comparisons 357 involving sites from the pink cluster identified in the fine-scale analysis (Figure 1), except in 358 Rch (Figure 4 – top panel). In this latter population, a second  $F_{ST}$  decline was visible on the 359 same chromosome around 3.1 Mb, which is also a region of intermediate differentiation 360 identified by the HMM analysis (Table S4). The admixture signal, and the long tracts of C. 361 robusta ancestry were absent from all the sites outside the contact zone, or from other 362 chromosomes (Figure 3A-B, and Table S4), expect in C. roulei where few small tracts of 363 introgression (<77kb) were detected on chromosome 7 and 10.



364

365 Figure 3: Evidence for introgression along chromosome 5 from the introduced species C. robusta into 366 the native species C. intestinalis. Figure 3A shows the admixture plots computed for K=2 i) on 397 367 individuals genotyped at 17280 linked-SNPs from the overall dataset (top), and ii) on a subset of 354 368 SNPs located on chromosome 5, from 0.5 to 2.0 Mb (bottom). Figure 3B displays the introgress plot 369 showing the genotypes of the 397 individuals at 545 SNPs chosen to be diagnostic between C. robusta 370 and C. intestinalis along chromosome 5. Individuals (y-axis) are ordered from top to bottom per species 371 (C. robusta: C. rob., C. roulei: C. rou., C. intestinalis); C. intestinalis individuals are sorted by location. 372 Populations codes where introgression was detected by the HMM are colored in red. Dark blue boxes 373 indicate homozygote genotype on C. robusta alleles; yellow, homozygote genotype on C. intestinalis 374 alleles; pink, heterozygotes; and white boxes, missing values. Figure 3C shows the proportion of 375 individuals per site displaying a C. robusta tract (blue) in chromosome 5. Figure 3D and 3E display a 376 neighbor-joining trees build on 794 phased haplotypes showing the similarities between some C. 377 intestinalis haplotypes from admixed locations (red dots) and the haplotypes obtained for C. robusta 378 (dark blue dots on the right divergent branch), when using data for chromosome 5 (D) and a zoom 379 from 0.5 to 2.0 Mb of the same chromosome (E); such similarities are not observed for the haplotypes 380 obtained in locations from the contact zone with no introgression (yellow dots), or from other sites 381 located outside the contact zone and from C. roulei (colored according to the color code used in Figure 382 2).



#### 383

**Figure 4:** Pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values along chromosome 5 between *C. robusta* and populations of *C. intestinalis* sampled in the contact zone between the two species, in the English Channel, Iroise Sea and Bay of Biscay. Each graph corresponds to a comparison made with populations from each of the four genetic clusters identified in the fine-scale analysis (clusters are pictured with the same color code as in Figure 1). The population that belongs to each cluster is listed on the right. Each dot represents the  $F_{ST}$  value for the 1235 SNPs with a MAF of 5% on chromosome 5, and the dashed lines show the maximum  $F_{ST}$ value computed over bins of 100kb.

391

392 The neighbor-joining tree built with SNPs from chromosome 5 showed that some 393 phased haplotypes from admixed sites (red haplotypes in Figure 3D) were genetically closer 394 to *C. robusta* than the haplotypes from non-admixed sites (yellow haplotypes in Figure 3D). This pattern is exacerbated when zooming on the region spanning from 0.5 to 2.0 Mb (Figure 395 396 3E). Interestingly, 23 haplotypes (including 10 from 5 homozygous individuals) completely 397 overlapped with C. robusta haplotypes when focusing on the portion between 0.7 and 1.2 Mb 398 of chromosome 5 (Figure S6B). In this small region, 19 SNPs were species-diagnostic between 399 Gul and C. robusta, and three SNPs were polymorphic in both species (red arrows in Figure 400 S6A). Two of these three SNPs might reflect incomplete lineage sorting or parallel mutation. 401 One was indeed polymorphic in several C. robusta and one C. intestinalis individual from non-402 admixed sites (Nah), and the other one was polymorphic in C. robusta and in 10 C. intestinalis 403 sites, two of which are localized outside the contact zone. Conversely, the last of these three 404 SNPs (position 1020271), was polymorphic in *C. robusta* (MAF = 9%), with the minor allele only found in three phased haplotypes of the 23 C. intestinalis haplotypes identical to C. robusta 405 406 haplotypes. The three haplotypes carrying the *C. robusta* minor allele at this specific SNP were 407 all collected from the east of UK (one from Ply and two from Gpt). These three haplotypes, 408 different from other C. intestinalis haplotypes, all clustered with other C. robusta in the 409 phylogenetic tree (black arrow in Figure S6B). Thus, it seems that different C. robusta 410 haplotypes have introgressed admixed C. intestinalis populations. In addition, the 411 introgression tracts were variable in size (Figure 3B). This size variation is associated with twin 412 peaks of differentiation among differentially introgressed populations of C. intestinalis, as 413 illustrated by pairwise F<sub>ST</sub> values computed between Brx and MBI or AbW (Figure 5C, below the arrows), and also visible when comparing the sites of Ply and Brx (Figure 5A). 414





#### 422 Discussion

423 Using a genome-wide approach based on ddRAD-sequencing, we investigated the fine-scale and large-scale population structure of Ciona intestinalis in native (NE Atlantic) and 424 425 possibly introduced range (US and Iceland). Our results provide supports to previous studies 426 about the influence of human-mediated transports on population structure at both regional 427 and global scales. Comparisons with its congeners C. robusta and C. roulei offered new insights 428 about the past and recent history of these three species. Our study finally provided the first 429 evidence of contemporary introgression from C. robusta into C. intestinalis, in the introduction 430 range of the former. This introgression was not homogeneously distributed in the genome but 431 rather forms a breakthrough located in an introgression hotspot on chromosome 5.

432

#### 433 Chaotic genetic structure and cosmopolitanism: a footprint of human-mediated dispersal

434 The overall genetic structure of *C. intestinalis* was in line with the results from previous 435 studies (Bouchemousse et al., 2016a,c; Hudson et al., 2016; Johannesson et al., 2018; Hudson, 436 Johannesson, McQuaid, & Rius, 2020, Johannesson, Le Moan, Perini, & André, 2020). In 437 particular, we confirmed that the populations of *C. intestinalis* are highly differentiated over 438 large geographical scales, which is likely due to the presence of different glacial lineages in 439 Europe (Hudson et al., 2020). At smaller geographical scales, C. intestinalis is much less 440 genetically structured, and more importantly shows discrepancies between genetic clustering 441 and geographic distance, leading to a mosaic structure. Such a mosaic structure had been 442 previously reported in the study area, with microsatellite markers, and attributed to human-443 mediated connectivity among harbors (Hudson et al., 2016). Ciona intestinalis has indeed 444 limited natural dispersal capacity, being characterized by very short-lived larvae (<24 hours

under laboratory conditions). Similar mosaic structures have been documented in introduced
species inhabiting ports, and characterized by low natural dispersal ability, for example the
seaweed *Undaria pinnatifida* (Guzinski, Ballenghien, Daguin-Thiébaut, Lévêque, & Viard,
2018).

449 The individuals sampled from locations with unclear native vs. non-native status (in the North Western Atlantic and in Iceland) were genetically more similar to the populations 450 451 sampled in France and England (average  $F_{ST}$  of 0.032) than to other European populations ( $F_{ST}$ 452 up to 0.176). They were also more similar among one another than several comparisons within 453 Europe, suggesting that they derived recently from somewhere near the English Channel. A 454 similar situation has been described by Hudson et al. (2020) in a Canadian site located further 455 north than our study population (Nah). However, the Canadian individuals appeared admixed 456 between Swedish and English Channel lineages, while Nah here appeared as a mostly pure 457 cluster genetically close to the English Channel lineage. Population structure along the 458 western Atlantic Coast is common, even in invasive species such as the green crab (Pringle, 459 Blakeslee, Byers, & Roman, 2011; Jeffery, et al., 2017). The Canadian site is located in Nova 460 Scotia, a major suture zone for marine species living along the Western Atlantic coast, while 461 our sampling site is located further south where populations display usually less admixture 462 (Standley et al., 2018). The different admixture pattern observed here and in Hudson et al. 463 (2020) suggest population structure of *C. intestinalis* in North America that might reflect 464 multiple introduction events from the native range, which is often reported in marine 465 introduced species (Viard, David, & Darling, 2016). Additional sampling sites along the 466 Western Atlantic coast are needed to further explore the population structure of *C. intestinalis* 467 and reconstruct its introduction history. Our study concurs with previous results by

Bouchemousse et al. (2016a) and Hudson et al. (2020), and suggests that *C. intestinalis* can be described as a neo-cosmopolitan species according to the terminology by Darling & Carlton (2018), with a trans-Atlantic distribution due to human introductions, rather than to an eucosmopolitan species with relict populations that took advantage of new available habitats (ports and marinas).

473

#### 474 A continued and needed appraisal of species status within the *Ciona* genus

475 The many Ciona species belong to a complex genus, as shown by the recent 476 discovery of a new species in the Mediterranean Sea (i.e., Ciona intermedia, Mastrototaro et 477 al., 2020), and the recent in-depth taxonomic revision of the previously accepted C. intestinalis species. Morphological observations (Brunetti et al., 2015), molecular data (Nydam & 478 479 Harrison, 2010; Zhan, Macisaac, & Cristescu, 2010; Bouchemousse et al., 2016a,c) and 480 experimental crosses (Lambert et al., 1990; Malfant et al., 2017) show that two deeply 481 diverged lineages, named type A and type B, co-exist under the accepted name C. intestinalis. 482 This taxonomic revision restored a previously synonymized species, C. robusta. In line with 483 these previous data, we observed differentially fixed SNPs between C. robusta and C. 484 *intestinalis* across most of their genome (average  $F_{ST} > 0.780$  for all pairwise comparison). This 485 conclusion also holds for C. robusta and C. roulei. Our results show that the species status of C. roulei needs revision. We showed a weak genome-wide differentiation when comparing C. 486 487 *roulei* with *C. intestinalis* populations sampled in the English Channel ( $F_{ST}$  < 0.075). 488 Interestingly, the differentiation is even weaker than those observed between the southern 489 and northern European populations of *C. intestinalis* studied here ( $F_{ST}$  up to 0.169). Lambert 490 et al. (1990) and Malfant et al. (2018) performed experimental crosses showing that 'C.

*intestinalis* and *C. roulei* can be hybridized with no signs of outbreeding depression. In
addition, mitochondrial sequencing data shows that the two taxa display similar haplotypes
(Malfant et al., 2018). Our results agree with these previous studies suggesting that *C. roulei*is a divergent lineage of *C. intestinalis*, likely trapped in cold waters of the northern
Mediterranean Sea after post-glacial warming, like other cold-adapted marine species
(*Platichthys flesus*: Borsa, Blanquer, & Berrebi, 1997; *Sprattus sprattus*: Debes, Zachos, Hanel,
2008; *Sagitta setosa*: Peijnenburg, Fauvelot, Breeuwer, & Menken, 2006).

498

#### 499 Evidence for contemporary introgression of the native species by its introduced congener

500 Our analyses provided several novel results. We observed one peak of intra-specific 501 differentiation on chromosome 5 that corresponded to a decline of inter-specific 502 differentiation between sympatric populations of C. robusta and C. intestinalis. This decline 503 was only found in a subset of the populations located in the contact zone between the two 504 species, pointing toward introgression from C. robusta into C. intestinalis populations. 505 Introgression was confirmed by the presence of long C. robusta ancestry tracts in some C. 506 intestinalis individuals sampled across the English Channel and Iroise Sea, and in the Rch site 507 in the Bay of Biscay. These long introgression tracts were primarily found on chromosome 5 508 between positions 0.38 to 2.32 Mb (Table S4), which we refer as an introgression hotspot. 509 Other long tracts were found on chromosome 5 outside the main introgression hotspot in 510 three individuals from Rch and one from Cam. These other tracts close to the introgression 511 hotspot could be either due to independent introgression events or, more likely to tracts that 512 hitchhiked with the introgression at the hotspot. This introgression restricted to a single 513 hotspot explains why it was missed in previous studies using fewer ancestry-informative SNPs

514 (Bouchemousse et al., 2016b,c). Marker density is thus a key to obtain evidence for very 515 localized introgression (Ravinet et al., 2018, Turissini & Matute, 2017, Stankowski et al., 2020). 516 C. roulei did not show long tracts of C. robusta ancestry in chromosome 5, but showed 517 two small tracks (<78kb) on chromosome 7 and 10, and signs of admixture with C. robusta 518 were spread across all chromosomes. This admixture pattern and the absence of long 519 haplotypes from C. robusta into C. roulei suggests that introgression between C. roulei and C. 520 robusta is ancient. Previous studies examining gene flow between C. intestinalis and C. robusta 521 have interpreted the patterns of allele sharing as a consequence of historical rather than 522 recent introgression (Bouchemousse et al., 2016c). The C. roulei samples examined here could 523 thus be another example of historical introgression. Alternatively, such introgression could 524 involve another species closely related to C. robusta, which was present in the Mediterranean 525 Sea. Out of the 14 species currently accepted in the genus Ciona (Word Register of Marine 526 Species; http://marinespecies.org/), three other species not included in this study have been 527 reported in the Mediterranean Sea (C. intermedia, Ciona sp. C and Ciona sp. D). Based on 528 mitochondrial phylogeny, Ciona sp. C appears genetically close to C. robusta (Mastrototaro et 529 al., 2020). Thus, carrying out a genome-wide analysis on the Ciona taxa found in the 530 Mediterranean Sea is needed to confirm that the signs of admixture into C. roulei are truly 531 due to introgression with *C. robusta*.

532

#### 533 Spatial and temporal dynamics of the introgression tracts

534 The recent invasion of *C. robusta* into the English Channel (Nydam & Harrison, 535 2010), the absence of large introgression tracts outside of the contact zone including in pop-536 ulations outside European Seas (Rek and Nah), the large size of the introgression tracts (>0.5

537 Mb) and the genetic similarity between introgressed tracts in C. intestinalis and C. robusta 538 haplotypes (Figure 3), all point toward a recent introgression event (i.e., post-dating the introduction of *C. robusta* in Europe in the late 20<sup>th</sup> or early 21<sup>st</sup> centuries). Dating the age of an 539 540 introgression event is not easy when using reduced representation DNA sequencing, such as 541 ddRAD-sequencing. Shchur et al. (2020) provided a theoretical framework for interpreting the 542 timing of introgression, based on the distribution of genomic admixture tract lengths, and in-543 cluding positive selection effects. However, the underlying assumption of their method may 544 not hold in our case. For example, the level of genome-wide introgression should be suffi-545 ciently high to estimate the baseline neutral introgression rate, while in our case it is around 546 0.1% on average (Fraisse et al., unpublished results), with few tracts outside of the chromo-547 some 5 hotspot. In addition, these methods assume a single pulse of admixture has occurred 548 while multiple admixture events have likely happened in *C. intestinalis*, as discussed below.

549 The localized pattern of long (0.84-1.24 Mb, Table S4), and thus likely young, tracts 550 of introgression in a single region of chromosome 5, is difficult to explain without invoking 551 some sort of selection. Although a localized desert of genes associated with low 552 recombination rates can potentially produce this pattern, such regions usually exist at several 553 places of a genome. In addition, 21 genes are located in the 80kb tract shared by the most 554 introgressed populations, from 0.81 to 0.88 Mb of chromosome 5 (listed in Table S5), which 555 does not support the gene desert hypothesis. Moreover, the high variation of *C. robusta* tracts 556 length in C. intestinalis suggests recombination is operating efficiently on the introgression 557 hotspot. In addition, the introgression is not fixed in any of the study populations. Simple positive selection (adaptive introgression sensu stricto) also seems unlikely to explain 558

559 synchronous incomplete sweeps at many distant locations belonging to different genetic 560 clusters. Alternative selective scenarios therefore need to invoke other kind of selection such 561 as balancing selection, frequency dependence or heterosis. For instance, as the two species 562 studied here are highly divergent (12%, which translates into roughly 2,000 non-synonymous 563 substitutions per Mb), the introgressed tracts may carry many mutations affecting fitness. 564 Theory predicts an intrinsic benefit of heterozygosity and a cost of admixture (Schneemann, 565 De Sanctis, Roze, Bierne, & Welch, 2020). Introgressed tracts might provide a fitness 566 advantage when heterozygous at the start of the introgression, through heterosis effect, but 567 a fitness reduction when frequent and homozygote in a C. intestinalis background. 568 Furthermore, the heterosis effect could vanish when long tracts are broken down by 569 recombination (Harris & Nielsen, 2016). Thus, the dynamic of the introgression might change 570 over time, with some haplotypes being first positively selected, and then counter selected as 571 soon as recombination breaks the introgressed haplotypes into smaller pieces (Leitwein, 572 Duranton, Rougemont, Gagnaire, & Bernatchez, 2020). Examining changes in introgression 573 frequencies and distribution over time is now required to investigate if selection is truly acting and continues to drive introgressed tracts to high frequency. In addition, genome sequencing 574 575 will better delineate the heart of the introgression hotspot and identify candidate genes on the basis of their function. 576

577 The length of introgression tracts can be informative about where the contact 578 happened, as it is inversely correlated to the distance from where the introgression first 579 occurred (Leitwein, Duranton, Rougemont, Gagnaire, & Bernatchez et al., 2020). This effect 580 was documented between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean lineages of European sea bass, 581 *Dicentrarchus labrax,* where the size of the Atlantic introgression tracts into the

582 Mediterranean population is proportionally reduced with the distance from the contact zone 583 between the two lineages, at the Almeria-Oran front (Duranton, Bonhomme, & Gagnaire, 584 2019). Building on these observations, the length of C. robusta haplotypes in the genome of 585 C. intestinalis individuals was generally larger in western UK (1.24 Mb in Brx, Table S4) than in 586 other populations (e.g., ~0.5 Mb in Gpt/Sth/MBI), suggesting that the introgression occurred 587 there first. Interestingly, introgression was not found restricted to a particular area and shows 588 a chaotic spatial structure similar to what was observed in Hudson et al. (2016), and genome 589 wide in our study. Intra-specific gene flow promoted by human-mediated transport, as 590 previously suggested (Hudson et al., 2016), could explain the chaotic dispersal of introgression 591 tracts. In this context, introgression tracts could be a relevant tool to identify recent human-592 mediated migration routes (Gagnaire et al., 2015). For instance, while the population Jer 593 seems genetically related to distant populations located in central-eastern UK at the genome-594 wide level (Figure 2B), this population shares a lack of introgression tracts with StM (Figure 595 3C), a population in close vicinity, and strongly connected through leisure boating.

596 Another non mutually exclusive hypothesis might explain both the mosaic structure of introgression and the variable size of introgression tracts: independent introgression events 597 598 occurring several times in different populations. For instance, the honey bee (Apis mellifera 599 scutellata) shows repeated introgressions from the African lineage into the European lineage 600 at one genomic location of chromosome 1 in two hybrid zones that are localized more than 601 5,000 kilometers apart (Calfee et al., 2020). Repeated adaptive introgression has also been 602 documented at a gene involved in insecticide resistance in the mosquito Anopheles spp. (Weill 603 et al., 2000; Norris et al., 2015) and in cotton bollworm *Helicoverpa* spp. (Valencia-Montoya 604 et al., 2020). Although Ciona species are much more divergent than any of the examples

605 presented above, the contact zones between C. intestinalis and C. robusta are not restricted 606 to a few locations, as they co-occurred in syntopy in several isolated harbors along coastlines 607 of Great-Britain and France, which increases the possibility of introgression. We showed that 608 one SNP distinguished two haplotypes of C. robusta found within C. intestinalis individuals, 609 suggesting that introgression from C. robusta into C. intestinalis could have happened at least 610 twice. This SNP was only carried by long introgressed tracts, and could be a footprint of more 611 recent introgression contributing to the twin peaks of differentiation observed in the 612 surrounding of the main introgression hotspot between populations that carry introgression 613 tracts of variable size (Figure 5).

The possibility of repeated introgression events does not rule out the hypothesis of intra-specific diffusion of the introgression facilitated by human activities. Both mechanisms might have jointly contributed to the current distribution of the introgression tracts. Overall, our study shows that anthropogenic hybridization can be effective in promoting gene flow between species even at late stage of speciation, contributing to the population structure described among contemporary populations. Future work should focus on complete genome sequencing, and temporal sampling of introgressed populations.

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#### 630 Data Accessibility

Trimmed fastq files are available under the NCBI bioproject "PRJNA759193". The filtered vcf
files used for the fine-scale, large-scale, and introgression analyses, respectively, as well as the
R scripts for population genetics and HMM analyses, and the custom scripts for phylogenetic
analyses are available as zenodo archives (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.5346932).

## 635 Authors' contributions

F.V. and N.B. designed the research. F.V. obtained the funding grants. C.D. and C.R. performed
the lab-work. C.R. performed the raw-data filtration. A.LM. performed the bio-informatics
analyses with advices from N.B. and C.F.. A.LM., N.B., C.F., and F.V. interpreted the data. A.LM.
and F.V. wrote the first-draft of the paper, with substantial inputs from N.B. and C.F.. All
authors revised and edited the final manuscript.

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