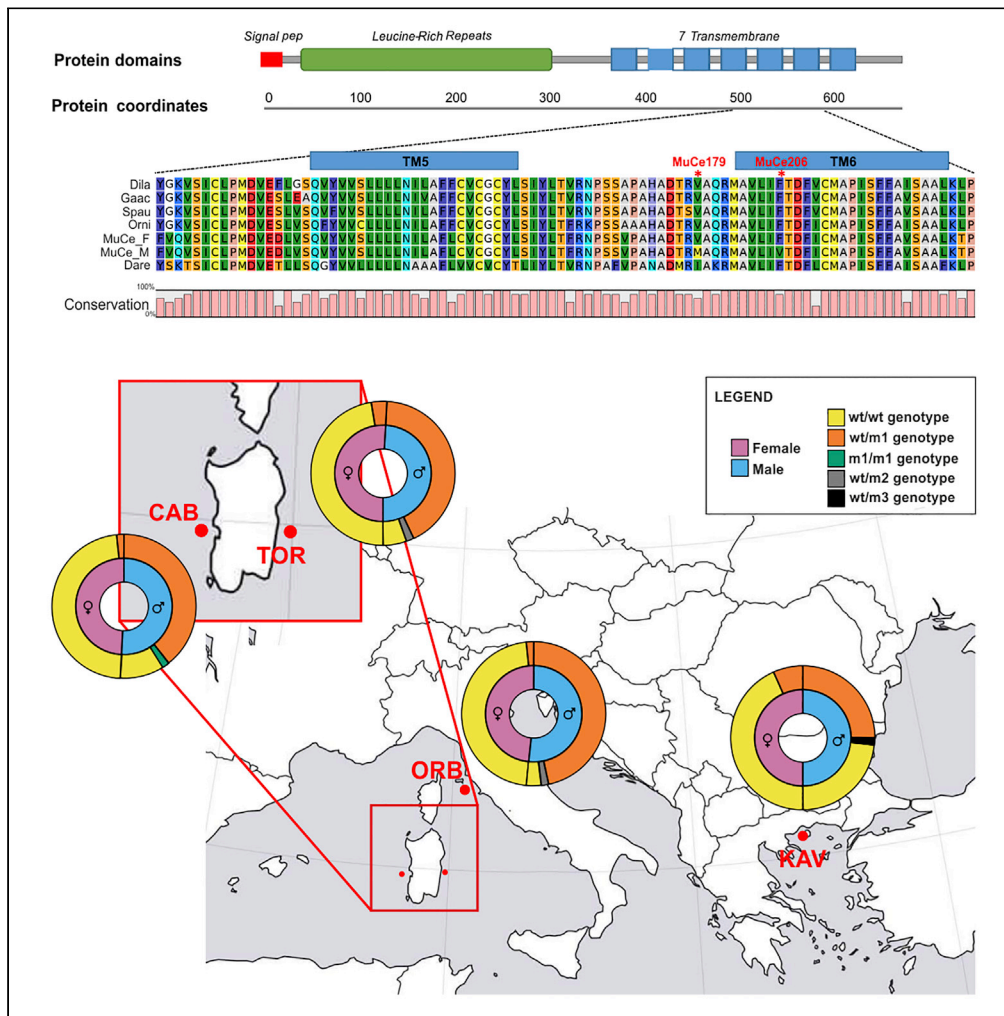


Article

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Serena Ferrareso,
Luca Bargelloni,
Massimiliano
Babbucci, ...,
Argyrios
Sapounidis,
Donatella
Crosetti, Tomaso
Patarnello

luca.bargelloni@unipd.it

HIGHLIGHTS

Three SNPs with sex-specific allele frequencies found in the grey mullet *fshr* gene

Two missense variants at the *fshr* locus are significantly associated with male sex

fshr male genotypes show divergent distribution across geographical populations

Incomplete penetrance of *fshr* variants suggests that additional factors exist

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Article

fshr: a fish sex-determining locus shows variable incomplete penetrance across flathead grey mullet populations

Serena Ferrareso,^{1,5} Luca Bargelloni,^{1,5,6,*} Massimiliano Babbucci,¹ Rita Cannas,² Maria Cristina Follesa,² Laura Carugati,² Riccardo Melis,² Angelo Cau,² Manos Koutrakis,³ Argyrios Sapounidis,³ Donatella Crosetti,⁴ and Tomaso Patarnello¹

SUMMARY

Whole-genome sequencing data were produced from a single flathead grey mullet female and assembled into a draft genome sequence, whereas publicly available sequence data were used to obtain a male draft sequence. Two pools, each consisting of 60 unrelated individuals, respectively, of male and female fish were analyzed using Pool-Sequencing. Mapping and analysis of Pool-Seq data against the draft genome(s) revealed >30 loci potentially associated with sex, the most promising locus of which, encoding the follicle-stimulating hormone receptor (*fshr*) and harboring two missense variants, was genotyped on 245 fish from four Mediterranean populations. Genotype data showed that *fshr* represents a previously unknown sex-determining locus, although the incomplete association pattern between *fshr* genotype and sex-phenotype, the variability of such pattern across different populations, and the presence of other candidate loci reveal that a greater complexity underlies sex determination in the flathead grey mullet.

INTRODUCTION

Fish roe is a highly sought seafood consisting of raw or dried female gonads. The flathead grey mullet (*Mugil cephalus*, Linnaeus, 1758; Mugilidae) salted and dried roe is a highly priced food delicacy, traditionally produced in many regions of the world. In some Mediterranean areas (e.g., Tyrrhenian [west] coast of Italy, Northern and Western Greece), it represents an important value product for the local economy as it is sold at “extravagantly high price” (Crosetti 2016): top-quality mullet egg roes, “bottarga,” from Orbetello or Cabras lagoons in Italy are sold at 280€/kg retail price. The Greek roe from Messolongi lagoon complex, “Avgotaraxo Messolongiou,” is a protected designation of origin product (Koutrakis, 2016). In the Mediterranean region, mullet roe is obtained from the gonads of at least 4- to 5-year-old females, which are normally captured at coastal lagoon fish barriers during their spawning migration back to sea in late summer/early autumn. A renewed interest for grey mullets is coming out among fish farmers, aiming at developing grey mullet-intensive rearing for egg roe production, as already performed in Taiwan (Crosetti, 2016).

A quick non-lethal method for early sorting of males and females, even before sexual maturation, would be greatly desirable to culture monosex female stocks for their egg roe. Such a method would require reliable sex-associated genetic markers, which is not always possible in fish. In teleosts, sex determination mechanisms seem to be extremely diverse, ranging from the presence of evident heterochromatic sex chromosomes to simultaneous hermaphroditism. When genetic sex determination (GSD) is observed, the underlying mechanisms might be diverse even between closely related species or within the same species, and environmental factors (environmental sex determination [ESD]) could affect sex determination (Heule et al., 2014; Geffroy and Douhard, 2019; Geffroy and Wedekind, 2020). The flathead grey mullet is gonochoristic with genetic determination of sex (McDonough et al., 2005). However, several cytogenetic studies showed that there is no evidence for heterochromatic sex chromosomes in all the different tested populations (e.g., Rossi et al., 1996; Gornung et al., 2001), although a major sex-linked locus was shown to segregate in a single family (Dor et al., 2016), therefore sex-associated genetic markers could be identified in this species.

¹Department of Comparative Biomedicine and Food Science, University of Padova, Legnaro, Padua 35020, Italy

²Department of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Cagliari, Cagliari 09124, Italy

³Fisheries Research Institute, Hellenic Agricultural Organisation, Nea Peramos Kavalas 640 07, Greece

⁴Department BIO-AMC, Institute for Environmental Protection and Research (ISPRA), Rome 00144, Italy

⁵These authors contributed equally

⁶Lead Contact

*Correspondence: luca.bargelloni@unipd.it

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Figure 1. Sampling sites
(ORB: Orbetello Lagoon, CAB: Cabras Lagoon, TOR: Tortoli Lagoon, KAV: Kavala).

The identification of sex-determining genomic regions has been recently boosted by the advent of next-generation sequencing technologies, which provide several options toward this goal (Palmer et al., 2019). Genome-wide association mapping is one of such options. Unrelated individuals of both sexes are analyzed using either a large set of genetic markers or whole-genome sequencing.

In the present study, a cost-effective genome-wide sequencing approach for association mapping, Pool Sequencing (Pool-Seq), (Schlötterer et al., 2014) was implemented with the goal of finding sex-associated genetic markers, which were then validated on four wild populations.

RESULTS

Mugil cephalus genome draft

Whole-genome sequencing yielded 394.4 million reads corresponding to 119 Gb and an estimated coverage higher than 110 \times . The assembly consisted of 175,167 scaffolds, with an average length of 3,750 nt (nucleotides) and N50 equal to 11,134 nt. The quality of the genome assessed with BUSCO using Actinopterygii dataset (4,584 well-conserved genes) showed 81.4% BUSCO completeness. The assembly of a male genome using publicly available data had a lower coverage (50 \times), was more fragmented (234,577 scaffolds, with an average length of 2,580 nt and N50 equal to 4,584 nt), and had lower completeness estimated with BUSCO (71.9%). Therefore, the female draft genome was used for most analyses.

Sequencing sex-specific pools

A pool of 60 females and another pool of 60 males were analyzed. Each pool included 30 individuals for each of the two distinct Sardinian populations (CAB and TOR, Figure 1).

Three replicates for each pool were prepared and sequenced independently to minimize technical variation. A total of 185 million reads were obtained for the female pool and 181.5 for the male one, which correspond to an estimated 63 \times and 62 \times coverage, respectively, which fulfills the suggested sequencing depth for Pool-Seq analysis (Schlötterer et al., 2014). A dedicated bioinformatics pipeline, Popoolation2 (Kofler et al., 2011), yielded 613,379 SNPs that showed significantly different allele frequencies between the male and the female pools with nominal p value ≤ 0.05 . After false discovery rate correction, significantly divergent SNPs were 181, located on 135 contigs. To further refine the analysis, we looked for loci showing a single (fixed) allele in one sex and two alleles at frequency ranging between 0.4 and 0.6 in the other sex, which is the expected allele frequency pattern for sex-specific variants.

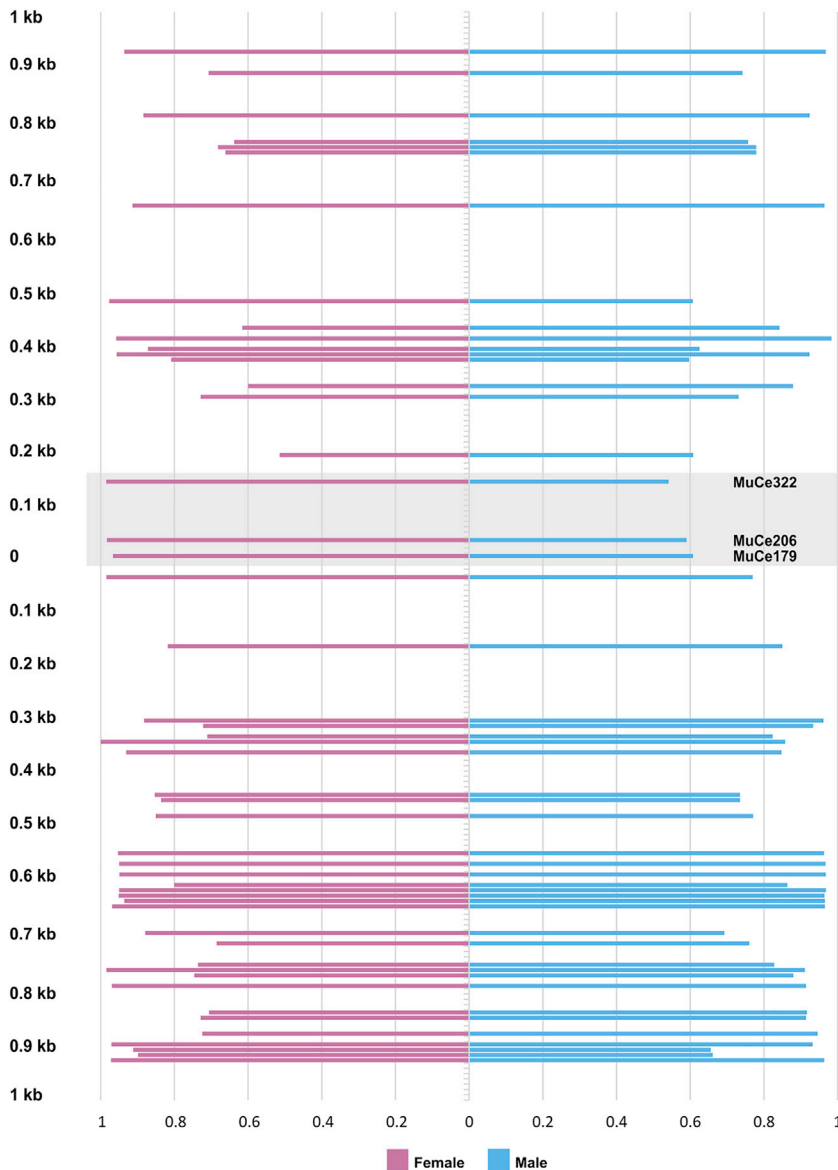


Figure 2. Female- and male-specific allele frequencies at variable nucleotide positions surrounding the three significant variants

The grey square indicates the three variants associated with sex. Distance from MuCe179 variant is shown in y axis; x axis reports variants' allele frequency. On the X-axis, observed frequency of the major allele is shown for each SNP. On the Y-axis, the relative distance in kilobases (kb), respectively upstream and downstream of SNP MuCe179.

This analysis led to the identification of 114 genomic regions harboring SNPs with significant allele frequency association with either sex (62 with one allele fixed or nearly fixed for the female pool and 52 SNPs for the male pool). Of these SNPs, 49 showed significant ($1e-10$) match with the Nile tilapia genome and 32 were located within an annotated protein/coding gene.

Among candidate sex-determining variants, three SNPs at position 179 (MuCe179), 206 (MuCe206), and 322 (MuCe322) of the assembled contig_111122 were found (see [Data S1](#)). The first two variants were always found in *cis* based on single sequence read analysis, defining a single allele; they had approximately 0.5 frequency in males but were almost absent in females ($m1$ allele frequency = 0.02). They are the only three SNPs with sex-specific allele frequencies in the candidate genomic region, as all other neighboring SNPs did not show such evidence ([Figure 2](#)).

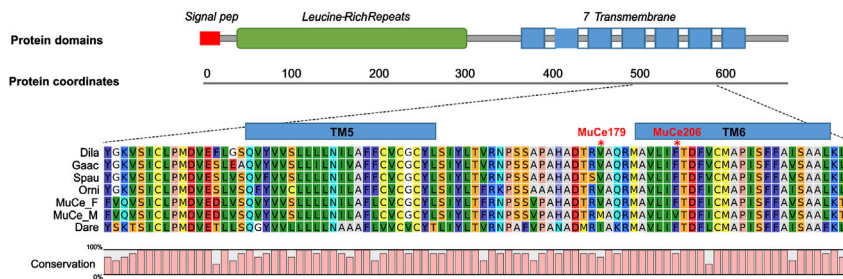


Figure 3. Position of the two non-synonymous variants on the *fshr* sequence and multiple fish species sequence alignment

(Dila: *Dicentrarchus labrax*, Gaac: *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, Spau: *Sparus aurata*, Orni: *Oreochromis niloticus*, MuCe_F: *Mugil cephalus* wt allele, MuCe_M: m1 allele, Dare: *Danio rerio*). Nucleotide sequence of the *fshr* contig and exact positions of MuCe179, MuCe206 and MuCe322 variants are reported in [Data S1](#).

Comparative genomic analysis against the Nile tilapia genome (*Oreochromis niloticus*_UMD_NMBU) showed that the three variants are located on the putative exon 14 of the *fshr* gene (Figure 3). The presence of a conserved gene (*fbx011*) upstream of *fshr* in both Nile tilapia and *M. cephalus* suggests that the identified *fshr* gene in the flathead grey mullet is the ortholog of Nile tilapia *fshr*. Extensive similarity searches against the two assembled genomes did not find any evidence for a duplicated *fshr* copy. Although the female and male *M. cephalus* genomes presented here are not complete, the probability of missing a potential second *fshr* copy is less than 0.05, based on the completeness BUSCO scores. Furthermore, the identified *fshr* gene was included in the sex-linked region reported by [Dor et al. \(2016\)](#). Mutations MuCe179 and MuCe206 correspond to positions on tilapia LG8:g.10686582 G > A (ENSONIP00000043437:p.Val557Met) and LG8:g.10686555T > G (ENSONIP00000043437:p.Phe566Val), and both represent missense variants. Mutation MuCe322 is a synonymous variant. Protein structural mapping revealed that both missense SNPs are located in the *fshr* transmembrane region, MuCe206 in the transmembrane helix 6 (TM6) and MuCe179 in the intracellular loop between TM5 and TM6 (Figure 3), a highly conserved region of great functional relevance ([Ulloa-Aguirre et al., 2018](#)).

The effect of MuCe179 and MuCe206 mutations on *fshr* function was predicted using the Ensembl variant effect predictor VEP ([McLaren et al., 2016](#)), which reported both variants to be functionally deleterious with SIFT code 0.03 and 0, respectively.

fshr is known to have a key role in folliculogenesis in fish and mammal female gonads ([Li and Cheng, 2018](#)). Although *fshr* was never reported before as a sex-determining locus, all the above-mentioned evidence suggested that it might be one of the genes involved in GSD in flathead grey mullet.

Validation of *fshr* variants in four flathead grey mullet populations

To validate Pool-Seq results, a region of 308 nt encompassing MuCe179, MuCe206, and MuCe322 variants was sequenced in 245 individuals collected from the wild at four different sites (Figure 1) representing the Western Mediterranean (Cabras Lagoon), the Tyrrhenian (Tortoli and Orbetello Lagoons), and the North Aegean Sea (Kavala). Individuals included in TOR and CAB populations were used both for Pool-Seq analysis and validation. Results of individual genotyping are summarized in [Table 1](#).

The most frequent *fshr* allele, which also showed conserved amino acid residues compared with other fish species at positions MuCe179 and MuCe206 (Figure 3), was considered wild-type (wt), m1 was the name attributed to the allele harboring all three variants (MuCe179, MuCe206, MuCe322), m2 to a second mutant allele only containing the two missense mutations, m3 to a third one with the missense mutation MuCe179 alone, and m4 the allele with the synonymous mutation MuCe322 alone.

Overall, individual *fshr* genotype data confirmed that alleles m1 and m2 are significantly associated with the male sex (Fisher exact test $p < 0.00001$). However, the association was not complete, as sex phenotype and *fshr* genotype did not match the expected pattern in 3%-13% of females, depending on the population. Individuals with mismatched sex-phenotype/genotype cannot be explained as the consequence of erroneous sex identification, as all sampled individuals were sexed during the reproductive season, when

	Males						Females				
	wt/wt	wt/m1 ^a	m1/m1	wt/m2 ^b	wt/m3 ^c	wt/m4 ^d	wt/wt	wt/m1	wt/m2	wt/m3	wt/m4
ORB	6% (2/31)	91% (28/31)		3% (1/31)			93% (28/30)	3.5% (1/30)			3.5% (1/30)
TOR	11% (3/28)	86% (24/28)		3% (1/28)			84.5% (27/32)	6% (2/32)			9.5% (3/32)
CAB	18% (6/33)	73% (24/33)	3% (1/33)			6% (2/33)	97% (29/30)	3% (1/30)			
KAV	45% (14/31)	48% (15/31)			3.5% (1/31)	3.5% (1/31)	84% (26/31)	13% (4/31)			3% (1/31)

Table 1. Genotype distribution in males and females of the four wild populations

For a detailed description of individual sampling site, sex, phenotyping method, and genotype see [Table S1](#).

^aallele m1: MuCe179, MuCe206, MuCe322

^bm2: MuCe179, MuCe206

^cm3: MuCe179

^dm4: MuCe322.

sex, especially for males, is macroscopically evident (an example of the highly different gonad morphology is shown in [Figure 4](#)); in case of dubious sex, gonad histological examination was carried out (see [Figure S1](#)). Finally, the presence of a *fshr* m1/m1 male represents genetic evidence that wt/m1 females do exist. The observed frequency of m1 homozygotes also conforms with the one expected from the observed frequency of wt/m1 females and wt/m1 males and Mendelian proportions in F1 homozygotes. The highest expected frequency for m1/m1 is 0.02 [highest wt/m1 males frequency (0.93) × highest wt/m1 female frequency (0.095) × 0.25], which is comparable with present observations (0.03).

The difference between populations in the frequency of wt/m1 females was not significant ($p > 0.5$). Wild-type homozygous (wt/wt) males were present at variable frequencies in the four populations (6%–45%). Differences across populations were highly significant (chi-square test $p < 0.01$), with the lowest frequency (6%) in ORB and the highest in KAV (45%). Analysis of the observed “recombinant” genotypes, which either contain at least one missense mutation (m2, m3) or the synonymous variant (m4) alone, suggests that MuCe322 might not be relevant for sex determination as it has a significant bias toward females (Fisher exact test $p < 0.05$) compared with non-synonymous variants.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, conclusive evidence that two missense single-nucleotide variants at the *fshr* locus are significantly associated with male sex was provided. The observed pattern of wt/m1 and wt/m2 heterozygous males suggests an “XX-XY” GSD type. In other fish species, the sex-determining gene is represented by a duplicated copy (e.g., *amhy* in the Patagonian pejerrey, [Hattori et al., 2012](#); *dmrt1b* in medaka, [Matsuda et al., 2002](#)), which has evolved sex-specific sequence variants, whereas the “original” copy (*amh*, *dmrt1b*) conserved its ancestral function. There was no evidence for two copies of the *fshr* locus in the flathead grey mullet. How variant alleles of the single copy *fshr* might act as a switch toward male differentiation still remains to be clarified. In several fish species *fshr* is reported to be expressed in the ovary theca and granulosa cells, and the testis Leydig and Sertoli cells ([Li and Cheng, 2018](#)). Deleterious mutations at the *fshr* locus in mice and humans cause severe female infertility and milder effects on males. Likewise, in zebrafish females *fshr* knockout (KO) induces female sterility with impaired folliculogenesis in the ovary, whereas *fshr* KO males only show delayed puberty; sex reversal (female to male) might occur in part of putative *fshr* KO females ([Chu et al., 2015](#)). A similar outcome was observed in *fshr* KO in medaka (*Oryzias latipes*), where *fshr* KO females have small ovaries and are infertile, whereas males have normal testes and are fertile ([Murozumi et al., 2014](#)). As in zebrafish, masculinization (sex reversal) of genetic (XX) female medakas was observed in 10% of KO fish. The major *fshr* variant in the flathead grey mullet might act as negative dominant, causing the loss of function of the wild-type copy and inducing male development as in zebrafish and medaka *fshr* KO. Negative dominant *fshr* mutations were also reported in humans ([Zariñán et al., 2010](#)). The alternative explanation of wt/m1 *fshr* showing haploinsufficiency is unlikely as heterozygous wt/KO *fshr* medaka females are fertile ([Murozumi et al., 2014](#)). The observed incomplete penetrance of the mutations observed in the flathead grey mullet (3%–10% of wt/m1 females) agrees with the evidence found for dominant negative *fshr* mutations in humans, where the mutant form expression level correlated with the wild-type functional suppression level

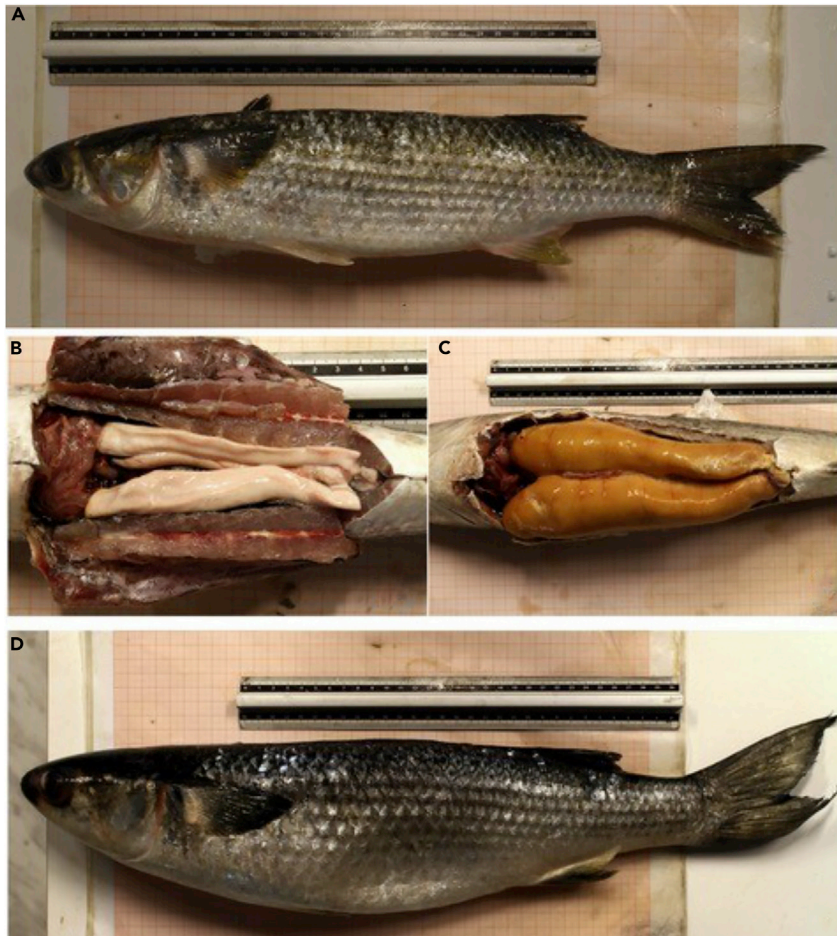


Figure 4. Macroscopic gonad morphology of male and female *M. cephalus* individuals
(A–D) Male individual (A), macroscopic appearance of male (B) and female (C) gonads, and female individual (D).

(Zariñán et al., 2010). Variation in the m1/m2 allele expression across females could be responsible for the incomplete penetrance. This remains a working hypothesis that awaits functional evidence, for instance, overexpressing a transgenic m1/m2 allele copy in a wt/wt background. Unfortunately, this experimental approach is currently impossible in a non-model species as the flathead grey mullet, although zebrafish or medaka might be used as proxy.

A third hypothesis is that the observed variants at the *fshr* locus act indirectly on sex determination, by increasing the sensitivity of the sex-determining signaling pathway to environmental factors, for instance, to water temperature. Sex-associated genetic variants that are variably influenced by temperature have been already reported in the Nile tilapia (Wessels et al., 2014) and zebrafish (Ribas et al., 2017).

Irrespective of the functional mechanisms that underlie genotype-phenotype interaction in wt/m1 (wt/m2) individuals, it appears that *fshr* is a new entry in the ever-growing list of loci putatively involved in GSD in teleost fish. However, this is not the most interesting point conveyed by the present study. The classic paradigm of a single master gene involved in GSD is becoming increasingly challenged both theoretically and on the basis of experimental evidence. This is particularly true in teleost fish, which harbor an overwhelming diversity of sex-determining mechanisms. A new paradigm was proposed where sex determination in fish does not rely on a single genetic cascade, but the process is regulated along a continuum of environmental and genetic factors (Heule et al., 2014). Furthermore, the traditional genetic architecture with a single sex-determining locus might not be the only model for GSD. As predicted by Moore and Roberts (2013), polygenic genetic sex determination (PSD) was proposed for an increasing number of

fish species, in parallel with the wider application of genome-wide association mapping (e.g., [Wilson et al., 2014](#); [Li et al., 2020](#); [Junker et al., 2020](#)). Even more intriguingly, in the European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), a species where both ESD and GSD are present, several loci with minor effects were recently reported to contribute to sex determination (i.e., PSD), but in different geographic populations these loci are partially different ([Faggion et al., 2019](#)). Such evidence provides strong support to the hypothesis of population-specific evolution of PSD systems in relation to different environments. In this perspective, flathead grey mullet might represent an excellent model, as it has a global distribution in tropical, subtropical, and temperate seas worldwide, with several evolutionary lineages and eventual cryptic species ([Durand and Borsa 2015](#)) and likely a large number of distinct populations within these lineages. For instance, *M. cephalus* shows at least three genetic clusters in the Atlantic-Mediterranean-Black Sea area, and an even finer population structure might be present ([Durand et al., 2013](#)). In particular, populations in the North Aegean and Black seas were clearly distinct from those collected in the Western Mediterranean. In light of such evidence, the divergent distribution of *fshr* genotypes in males between KAV (North Aegean) and TOR-CAB-ORB (Western Mediterranean) appears quite suggestive. It is possible that in the KAV population *fshr* role is less relevant and other genetic loci, possibly linked to local conditions, substantially contribute to sex determination. Additionally, as already mentioned, environmental factors such as temperature might interplay with genetic variation, at the *fshr* locus and possibly at other loci. The broad distribution of the flathead grey mullet in marine habitats characterized by large differences in environmental factors (e.g., temperature, salinity) might provide a unique opportunity to explore the interaction between PSD and ESD. The incomplete penetrance of the *fshr* variants also suggests that additional genetic factors might exist. This is confirmed by the evidence of over 100 putative sex-associated SNPs reported here, more than 30 located on protein-coding genes. Preliminary sequence analysis on additional candidate loci confirmed that for two variants at the nuclear receptor NR2F5 almost all females were homozygous, whereas half of the males were heterozygous, indicating a partial sex association (see [Transparent Methods](#)). Extensive validation of all putative sex-associated variants would, however, require a higher-quality genome sequence.

In conclusion, the original goal of identifying a simple genetic test to sex fish to culture monosex grey mullet stocks and egg roe has only been partially achieved as the sex determination system appears more complex than the one with a single master gene with complete association with sex. Nevertheless, the high-frequency association of m1 and m2 alleles with male sex in Sardinian population might allow to develop population-specific genetic tools suitable for early sex sorting in grey mullets. In addition, the presence of *fshr* wt/wt males might enable to obtain predominantly female F1 by crossing them with wt/wt females, as the two genotypes could be analyzed without sacrificing the broodstock. More generally, its distribution and population structure, the presence of a major sex-determining locus (*fshr*) already identified and showing population-specific variation, and the existence of other candidate sex-associated variants make the flathead grey mullet an ideal playground for evolutionary biologists to study the variable complex architecture of sex determination in teleost fish.

Limitations of the study

The study provides genetic evidence that *fshr* variants are significantly associated with male sex development, but how one single copy of the variant *fshr* alleles might act as a switch toward male differentiation still remains to be clarified by means of controlled functional experiments. Variation at the *fshr* locus was assessed across several populations, although additional samples representing other geographic populations (e.g., Atlantic and Black Sea ones) would provide a broader view of such variation. Evidence for additional sex-associated loci should be further characterized.

Resource availability

Lead contact

Information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Luca Bargelloni (luca.bargelloni@unipd.it).

Material availability

This study did not generate unique reagents. Primers for PCR amplification of the *fshr* fragment are available upon request to the Lead Contact. Primer sequences are reported in the [Transparent Methods](#) section. Biological materials will be available, although for several samples the amount is limited.

Data and code availability

The Bioproject accession number for the sequence data reported in this paper is SRA:PRJNA657721, Bio-Sample SAMN15835396 to SAMN15835401. The sequence of the *fshr* contig is included in the [Data S1](#).

METHODS

All methods can be found in the accompanying [Transparent Methods supplemental file](#).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2020.101886>.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.C., A.C., M.C.F., R.M., and L.C. collected and analyzed CAB and TOR samples. M.K. and A.S. collected and analyzed KAV samples. D.C. collected and analyzed ORB samples. S.F. performed all genomic and genetic experiments. M.B. and S.F. carried out all bioinformatics analyses. L.B., T.P., and A.C. designed the experiments. S.F. and L.B. drafted the paper. D.C., M.K., T.P., and R.C. commented and edited the manuscript. All authors revised and approved the paper.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Supplemental Information

***fshr*: a fish sex-determining locus**

shows variable incomplete penetrance

across flathead grey mullet populations

Serena Ferraresso, Luca Bargelloni, Massimiliano Babbucci, Rita Cannas, Maria Cristina Follesa, Laura Carugati, Riccardo Melis, Angelo Cau, Manos Koutrakis, Argyrios Sapounidis, Donatella Crosetti, and Tomaso Patarnello

Transparent methods

Ethical statement

Mugil cephalus samples were received from commercial catches in the Mediterranean sea. No fish were handled while alive for the purpose of this project. All fish were dead when they were selected for the study. Thus, the research did not involve animal experimentation or harm, and required no ethical permits.

Samples origin, sex phenotyping, and DNA extraction

Adult *M. cephalus* female and male individuals employed in this study belonged to four different Mediterranean origins: Cabras (**CAB**) in West Sardinia, Tortoli (**TOR**) in East Sardinia, Orbetello Lagoon (**ORB**) in Tuscany and Bay of Kavala (**KAV**) in East Macedonia (Figure 1).

The sex was recorded by visual inspection of the gonads or by light microscope when macroscopic observation was ambiguous. As mentioned before, sexually mature individuals were opportunistically sampled at processing plants, where fish roe is collected. Mature individuals were first assessed by compressing the body to observe whether the animal emitted sperm. Secondly, all animals were dissected and mature gonads were isolated. In mature individuals recognition of males (emitting sperm and showing characteristic gonad morphology) and females (non emitting sperm and with clearly identifiable gonads) is never ambiguous (see Figure 4). This method for sex phenotyping was used for almost all samples (Table S1). Only for three putative males with ambiguous identification (non emitting sperm, not fully differentiated gonads), it was necessary to using standard histology to confirm putative sex. An example of the microscope picture of male gonads is shown in Figure S1.

The reliable identification of phenotypic sex was possible for a total of 330 individuals; 109 CAB (57 males and 52 females), 92 TOR (32 males and 60 females), 67 ORB (34 males and 33 females) and 62 KAV (31 males and 31 females).

Fin clips were employed for DNA extraction using Invisorb® DNA Tissue HTS 96 Kit (Invisorb, Germany) following the manufacturer's instructions. DNA concentration was determined using a Qubit fluorimeter with a dsDNA BR Assay (Invitrogen, USA) and DNA quality was assessed by loading a 100ng sample onto a 1 % agarose gel electrophoresis.

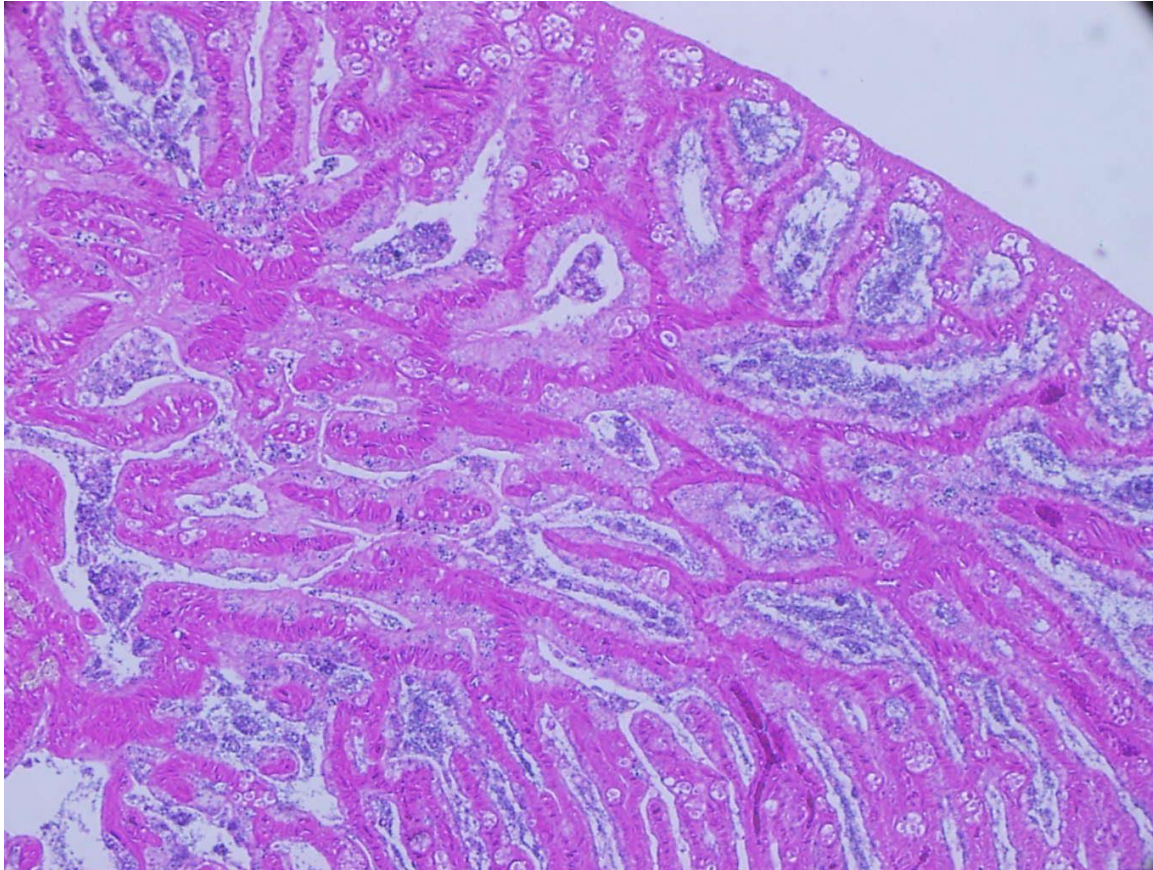


Figure S1. Microscope picture of male gonads. Related to Figure 4. Hematoxylin-eosin preparation of male gonad.

Sequencing and assembly of *M. cephalus* draft genome

In order to construct a draft assembly of *M. cephalus* genome, the DNA of a single TOR female was used for whole-genome sequencing. A total of three the standard protocol of the TruSeq DNA sample preparation kit (Illumina, CA, USA) and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq4000 instrument following a 150 paired-end (PE) strategy. The total amount of reads obtained after sequencing was 709 millions corresponding to an estimated coverage of around 120X.

Quality of Illumina raw reads was analyzed with the FastQC program (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>). Subsequently, low-quality regions and adapters were trimmed using Trimmomatic 0.361. Global assembly of the Illumina reads was accomplished with the software CLC Genomics Workbench v10 (<https://www.qiagenbioinformatics.com/>) using a minimum contig size of 500 bp and default settings for the other parameters. Quantitative assessment of the genome assembly was assessed with BUSCO v.3 software (Simão et al., 2015). The Actinopterygii dataset, containing 4,584 well-conserved genes, was employed to investigate the completeness of the assembly.

PoolSeq

For both sexes, 60 DNA samples (belonging to 30 TOR and 30 CAB individuals) were equimolarly pooled for sequencing. To minimize the contribution of pipetting errors and PCR biases, three independent technical replicates of pooling and library construction were carried out for both sex. A total of six genomic libraries were thus constructed and sequenced as described above. Details on obtained reads before and after quality trimming are reported on Table S2. The total amount of reads obtained after sequencing were 185 and 181.5 millions corresponding to an estimated coverage of 63X and 62X for female (MuCe_F) and male (MuCe_M) pool, respectively. Raw Illumina reads were deposited in the SRA repository under the accession numbers PRJNA657721 and BioSample SAMN15835396 to SAMN15835401.

Pool-Seq mapping and variant calling

PoolSeq sequence data were trimmed to remove adaptors and low quality regions by means of Trimmomatic 0.36.1. Filtered sequences were then mapped to the reference *M. cephalus* genome with the software CLC Genomics Workbench v10 by setting the following parameters: match score=1, mismatch cost=2, insertion cost=3, deletion cost=3, length fraction=0.8, similarity fraction=0.8. PICARD tools v2.6 were then employed for alignment sorting and duplicate removing, and the resultant bam files were further filtered to remove sequences with mapping quality lower than 20 and unpaired reads by means of SAMTOOLS 1.9

PoPoolation2 v1.201 (Kofler et al., 2011) was then employed for SNP calling, FST calculation and Fisher's exact test to assess SNP differentiation between MuCe_M and MuCe_F pools. Regions surrounding indels (--indel-window 5) were excluded from the analysis and only SNPs with min coverage above 20X (max coverage 200X) were retained.

Identification of sex-patterned SNPs

Results obtained from Popoolation2 were further analyzed in order to identify sex-patterned SNPs, sites that are fixed or nearly fixed in the homogametic sex and in a frequency between 0.4 and 0.6 in the heterogametic sex. To reach such a goal, the Sex_SNP_finder_now.pl script developed by Gammerdinger et al (2016, <https://github.com/Gammerdinger/sex-SNP-finder>) was employed by setting --fixed_threshold=0.95, --minimum_polymorphic_freq=0.4, --maximum_polymorphic_freq=0.6 and --read_depth=30.

Sequence similarity analysis to detect duplicated *fshr* copies

Extensive sequence similarity analysis were carried out against the two flathead grey mullet genome assemblies to identify putative duplicated *fshr* copies. TblastN using as query the Nile tilapia protein

fshr sequence as well as *M.cephalus fshr* were run against both genome assemblies. The nucleotide sequence of *M. cephalus fshr* was also used as a query with BlastN.

Sanger sequencing of *fshr*

A primer pair spanning a region of 286 nt that encompasses MuCe179, MuCe266 and MuCe322 variants on contig_111122 was designed using Primer3 software (Primer Forward: TGCTCCTCCTCAACATCCTG; Primer Reverse: AAGAAGGCGTACAGGAAGGG). Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) was then performed on DNAs extracted from ORB, TOR, CAB and KAV populations. For each population, 30 to 33 individuals for both sexes were investigated.

Cycling conditions were: initial incubation at 95° C for 2 min followed by 37 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 60°C for 30 s and 72°C for 1 min. A final extension step at 72°C for 5 min was added at the end of the last cycle. PCR products were purified with ExoSAP-IT™ (Thermofisher, USA) followed by Sanger sequencing. All obtained sequences were analysed with Chromas Lite 2.0 software.

Statistical analysis

Fisher Exact tests and chi-square tests were performed using an online calculator (<https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/>).

Sanger sequencing of nuclear receptor nr2f5 gene

PCR amplification of a 290 nt fragment of the nuclear receptor nr2f5 gene was carried out for 15 individual female fish and 25 males to assess the presence of a single nucleotide variant. The observed genotype was as follows: 14 females were homozygous for the wt allele, 1 was wt/m; 10 males were heterozygous (wt/m), 15 homozygous (wt/wt).

Supplemental references

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Supplemental Data S1. Nucleotide sequence of contig_111122. Related to Figure 3. MuCe179 (red), MuCe206 (green) and MuCe322 (yellow) variants are highlighted in male nucleotide sequence.

>MuCe204_contig_111122_FEMALE

GTTTCGTGCAGGTGAGCATCTGCTTGCCCATGGATGTGGAGGATCTGGTGTCCCAGGTCTA
 TGTAGTGTCCCTGCTCCTCCTCAACATCCTGGCCTTCCTCTGTGTGTGCGGCTGCTACCT
 CAGCATCTACCTGACCTTCCGCAATCCCTCTTCGGTGCCGGCCACGCCGACACGCGC**GT**
 GGCTCAACGCATGGCCGTCTCATCT**TT**CACCGACTTCATCTGCATGGCCCCGATCTCCTT
 CTTCGCCGTCTCGCCCGCGCTCAAGACCCCCCTCATCACCGTCTCGGAATCTAAGGTCCT
 CCTGGTCCTGTCTACCCCAT**CA**ACTCGTGCGCCAACCCCTTCCTGTACGCCCTCTTCAC
 CCGCACCTTCCGGCGGGACTTCTTTTTCTGGCGGCTCGCTTCGGCCTGTTTAAGACTCG
 GGCGCAGATTTACCGGACAGAGACCTCTTCTGTGTCAGCAGCCAGCATGGACCTCTTCGAG
 GAGCAGCCGCGTGACAATGTACTCTTTGGCCAACACCTTGAGCCTGGACGCGTGCGTAGA
 CTCCCAGTCGTCCAAGTCATGGTAGACCAA

>MuCe204_contig_111122_MALE

GTTTCGTGCAGGTGAGCATCTGCTTGCCCATGGATGTGGAGGATCTGGTGTCCCAGGTCTA
 TGTAGTGTCCCTGCTCCTCCTCAACATCCTGGCCTTCCTCTGTGTGTGCGGCTGCTACCT
 CAGCATCTACCTGACCTTCCGCAATCCCTCTTCGGTGCCGGCCACGCCGACACGCGC**AT**
 GGCTCAACGCATGGCCGTCTCATC**GT**CACCGACTTCATCTGCATGGCCCCGATCTCCTT
 CTTCGCCGTCTCGCCCGCGCTCAAGACCCCCCTCATCACCGTCTCGGAATCTAAGGTCCT
 CCTGGTCCTGTCTACCCCAT**T**AACTCGTGCGCCAACCCCTTCCTGTACGCCCTCTTCAC
 CCGCACCTTCCGGCGGGACTTCTTTTTCTGGCGGCTCGCTTCGGCCTGTTTAAGACTCG
 GGCGCAGATTTACCGGACAGAGACCTCTTCTGTGTCAGCAGCCAGCATGGACCTCTTCGAG
 GAGCAGCCGCGTGACAATGTACTCTTTGGCCAACACCTTGAGCCTGGACGCGTGCGTAGA
 CTCCCAGTCGTCCAAGTCATGGTAGACCAA

Protein Alignment

		10	20	30	40	50	60
Female		FVQVSICLPMDVEDLVSQYVVSLLLLLNILAFLCVCGCYLSIYLTFRNPSSVPAHADTR V					
Male		FVQVSICLPMDVEDLVSQYVVSLLLLLNILAFLCVCGCYLSIYLTFRNPSSVPAHADTR M					

		70	80	90	100	110	120
Female		AQRMAVLI F TDFICMAPISFFAVSAALKTPLITVSESKVLLVLFYPINSCANPFLYAFFT					
Male		AQRMAVLI V TDFICMAPISFFAVSAALKTPLITVSESKVLLVLFYPINSCANPFLYAFFT					

		130	140	150	160	170	180
Female		RTFRRDFFFLAARFGLFKTRAQIYRTETSSCQQPAWTSSRSSRVMTMYSLANTLSLDACVD					
Male		RTFRRDFFFLAARFGLFKTRAQIYRTETSSCQQPAWTSSRSSRVMTMYSLANTLSLDACVD					

MuCe179
 MuCe206
 MuCe322