

1 **Habitat correlates of cave-dwelling: A radiation-scale analysis of skin traits**  
2 **and comparative transcriptomics of the *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish**

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## 14 ABSTRACT

15 With 78 species, *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish constitute the largest cavefish radiation in the world. They  
16 exhibit remarkable morphological diversity across three habitat types: surface (Surface morphs,  
17 Normal-eyed, variably colored), exclusively-cave-dwelling (Stygobitic morphs, Eyeless,  
18 depigmented), and intermediate between cave and surface (Stygophilic morphs, Micro-eyed, partially  
19 depigmented). Distinctive traits of *Sinocyclocheilus* include variations in eye and skin conditions  
20 associated with their habitat, despite the role of the skin in sensing environmental changes, its habitat  
21 correlates are less understood, compared to the well-studied eye conditions. Here, we analyzed the  
22 correlation between *Sinocyclocheilus* skin morphology and its habitat, utilizing morphological and  
23 transcriptomics-based methods. We generated RNA-sequencing data for nine species and integrated  
24 those with existing data from five additional species. These 14 species represent the primary clades  
25 and major habitats of these cavefish. Data on skin color and scale morphology were generated and  
26 7374 orthologous genes were identified. Using a comparative transcriptomics approach, we identified  
27 1,348 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the three morphotypes. GO and KEGG enrichment  
28 analyses suggest that these species have evolved different strategies for energy metabolism, immunity,  
29 and oxidative stress in different habitats. We also found 329 positive selection genes (PSGs) in the skin  
30 of these species that are mainly involved in immunity, apoptosis, and necrosis, indicating potential  
31 adaptations to their habitats. The maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree, based on 1369 single-copy  
32 orthologous genes of the species, was largely concordant with the currently established RAD-seq and  
33 mt-DNA based phylogenies, but with a few exceptions. Species with higher cave dependence present  
34 lighter coloration, fewer dark blotches, and diminished scale morphology and coverage. PCA and  
35 cluster analysis suggested that cave-dwelling species, characterized by the absence of black blotches,  
36 have similar expression patterns, indicating convergence in cave adaptation. Variations in tyrosine  
37 metabolism may explain pigmentation differences among species in diverse habitats. Our study  
38 highlights the significance of habitat in shaping skin metabolism, pigmentation variation, and  
39 morphology while offering insights into the molecular mechanisms driving these habitat-specific  
40 adaptations in *Sinocyclocheilus*. These findings underscore the transcriptional variation in adapting to  
41 diverse environments and contribute to future studies on the evolution and ecology of cavefish.

42 **Keywords:** *Sinocyclocheilus*, radiation, skin adaptations, morphological diversity, habitat,  
43 comparative transcriptomics, pigmentation, phylogeny

44

## 45 INTRODUCTION

46 Cave-adapted organisms, particularly cavefish, make up a significant portion of vertebrates inhabiting  
47 caves. They present unique opportunities for evolutionary biologists to study the patterns of adaptation  
48 to new environments (Jeffery, 2001). Over 300 cavefish species have been discovered worldwide,  
49 evolving rapidly from their surface-dwelling ancestors, making them ideal for comparative analysis of  
50 adaptive processes (Borowsky, 2018, Policarpo et al., 2021, Fortune et al., 2020). The best known  
51 among these is the well-studied *Astyanax mexicanus* cavefish system, a single species that includes  
52 surface and cave-adapted populations representing two distinct morpho-habitat types (Gross, 2012,  
53 Loomis et al., 2019, Krishnan et al., 2020). Interestingly, phylogenetically distant groups display  
54 convergent stygomorphic traits, providing opportunities for cave-adaptation related comparative  
55 studies (Romero and Paulson, 2001, Protas and Jeffery, 2012, Stahl and Gross, 2017).

56 China's *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish, with 78 species, constitute the largest cavefish radiation in the world  
57 (Wen et al., 2022, Mao et al., 2022b, Luo et al., 2023, Xu et al., 2023). Phylogenetic analyses based on  
58 mitochondrial and nuclear DNA have consistently resolved *Sinocyclocheilus* as a monophyletic genus,  
59 comprising of 4-6 main clades, that share a common normal-eyed surface dwelling ancestor (Zhao and  
60 Zhang, 2009, Jiang et al., 2019, Mao et al., 2021). *Sinocyclocheilus* genus can be grouped into three  
61 categories based on habitat occupation: Surface (living outside caves, SU), Stygophilic (cave-  
62 associated habit, SP), and Stygobitic (exclusively cave-dwelling habit, SB) species (Yang et al., 2016,  
63 Zhao et al., 2021, Zhou et al., 2022b). The eye morphology and skin coloration of these fish strongly  
64 correlate with their habitats and hence, eye-condition can be used as a proxy to identify their habitat  
65 associations (Jiang et al., 2019, Zhao et al., 2021, Mao et al., 2021). SUs have normal eyes and yellow  
66 or charcoal gray coloration, while SBs lack eyes and have white-pink, translucent skin (Li et al., 2020,  
67 Mao et al., 2021). SPs usually have micro-eyes and variable coloration, although there are exceptions  
68 (Mao et al., 2021, Chen et al., 2022). There are several instances of independent evolution of SUs (in  
69 two clades) and SBs (Three Clades) within the diversification (Wen et al., 2022, Mao et al., 2022b).  
70 So far, *Sinocyclocheilus* research has predominantly focused on eye regression, leaving the skin  
71 relatively understudied (Meng et al., 2013, Huang et al., 2019, Zhao et al., 2021).

72 Epidermal adaptations are essential for organisms conquering new environments (Jablonski and  
73 Chaplin, 2010, Ángeles Esteban, 2012). *Sinocyclocheilus* have repeatedly evolved both regressive and  
74 constructive skin traits as adaptation to cave environments. Regressive traits include: reduced  
75 pigmentation, reduction in scales and constructive features include increased fat accumulation and  
76 enhanced non-visual sensory abilities such as well-developed lateral lines and neuromast systems  
77 (Yang et al., 2016, Yoshizawa et al., 2014, Chen et al. 2022). Hence, the independent evolution of the  
78 morphotypes of *Sinocyclocheilus* provide an attractive system to investigate the genetic basis of  
79 convergent adaptations of their skin at the molecular level.

80 Transcriptomics based tools provide an unprecedented opportunity to understand the gene expression  
81 profiles and patterns of genetic variation behind the independent evolution of these diverse cavefish  
82 morphotypes. At the broader scale, studies on *Astyanax mexicanus* cavefish and *Sinocyclocheilus*  
83 cavefish have shown how protein sequence alterations (transcriptome) play a role in eye morphology  
84 and color degeneration in cavefish (Hinaux et al., 2013, McGaugh et al., 2014, Torres-Paz et al., 2018,  
85 Huang et al., 2019, Zhao et al., 2020, Li et al., 2020). However, little is known about the mechanisms  
86 of scale degradation (Simon et al., 2017, Yang et al., 2016). The convergent evolution of skin coloration  
87 is largely driven by the similar sensory adaptations to similar light environments that evolved  
88 independently in each species (Moran et al., 2023). However, the relationship between scales and cave

89 habitat is unclear (Zhao and Zhang, 2009). Therefore, it is also necessary to explore the morphological  
90 traits of the skin in an evolutionary comparative framework.

91 It is known that the habitat influences skin immunity, microbial composition, and host skin sensitivity  
92 (Scharsack et al., 2007, Zhou et al., 2022b, Peuß et al., 2020). The maintenance of the health of an  
93 organism is a result of a dynamic interplay between the microbiota, host skin cells, and immune system,  
94 which work synergistically in a mutually beneficial manner (Belkaid and Hand, 2014, Austin, 2006,  
95 Ellison et al., 2021). In a study involving the three representative morpho-species, it has been shown  
96 that *S. rhinoceros* (SP) displayed the strongest innate immunity, which suggests this as a possible  
97 adaptation for greater habitat heterogeneity (Yang et al., 2016).

98 Caves present a challenging environment characterized by limited food resources and low diversity  
99 (Gibert and Deharveng, 2002, Lafferty and K., 2012). Under such conditions, skin functions may be  
100 significantly impacted, with effects observed in mucus composition and immune response. As a result,  
101 there may be an increased risk of harmful microbial infections and associated health-related issues  
102 (McCormick and Larson, 2008).

103 Multispecies transcriptomics offer new insights into the origins of adaptive phenotypes in cavefish  
104 (Stahl and Gross, 2017, Meng et al., 2018, Qi et al., 2018). It can also reveal plasticity or adaptive  
105 changes in habitats of related genes that may mediate energy metabolism (Riddle et al., 2018, Lam et  
106 al., 2022), immune regulation (Peuß et al., 2020, Huang et al., 2016), and oxidative stress (Krishnan et  
107 al., 2020). However, the broader extent of such responses in *Sinocyclocheilus* skin remains  
108 underexplored, especially regarding the diverse morphological variations and intriguing immune  
109 mechanisms observed in SPs.

110 To better understand the habitat correlations, morphotypes, and genetic basis of *Sinocyclocheilus*  
111 cavefish skin related adaptation, we conducted a comprehensive radiation-scale analysis. These  
112 incorporated representatives from the major clades and the three main habitat types. We envision that  
113 this approach will allow us to uncover subtle patterns pertaining to the complex interplay among gene  
114 regulation, physiological adaptations, and the unique constraints imposed by different habitats on the  
115 skin of these cavefish. Specifically, we focus on the following objectives: (1) investigating the shared  
116 and derived adaptive mechanisms of the skin of cavefish to diverse habitats; (2) examining the  
117 phylogenetic relationships among species based on transcriptomic analysis of their skin-related genes;  
118 and (3) elucidating the associations between variations in skin color, scale morphology, and their  
119 respective habitats, by integrating molecular mechanisms with observations of morphological traits of  
120 the skin.

## 121 MATERIALS & METHODS

### 122 Sample collection

123 Animal care and experimental protocols were approved for this study by the Guangxi University  
124 Ethical Committee under the approval document (GXU-2021-126). To investigate the adaptive  
125 mechanism for cave-dwelling in the *Sinocyclocheilus* radiation, 9 species were collected from caves in  
126 Yunnan, Guizhou and Guangxi of China during 2019 – 2021 as a part of an ongoing phylogenomic  
127 study. Cavefish were transported alive to the laboratory in oxygenated plastic bags in a cooler box to  
128 both keep the temperatures low (18 – 20°C) and to provide darkness. Following morphological  
129 observations (mentioned below), they were anesthetized using 30 mg/L MS-222 (ethyl 3-  
130 aminobenzoate methanesulfonate; Sigma-Aldrich). The skin tissue was taken from the right side near  
131 the back of each individual in approximately 0.8 × 1.0 cm under sterile conditions. Three biological

132 repeats were taken for each species. The tissue extraction was done in a DNA/RNA-free clean room.  
133 Biopsied tissues were placed in RNAlater and stored in an ultra-low temperature freezer at -83°C prior  
134 to further analysis.

135 Given their rarity, sampling difficulty, and the need for a representation of the diversification, we  
136 enhanced taxon sampling by adding data for five additional *Sinocyclocheilus* species from previous  
137 studies (details provided below). Overall, the dataset included species representing the four main clades  
138 in the context of Mao et al. (Mao et al., 2021), as well as the three main eye-types / habitats (Normal-  
139 eyed SU, Normal-eyed SP, Micro-eyed SP, and Eyeless SB), representative of the *Sinocyclocheilus*  
140 radiation (Figure 1, Supplementary Table S1). The eye-type in this study serves as a practical, easily  
141 observable feature that corresponds with the habitat occupation of these species.

## 142 RNA extraction and transcriptome sequencing

143 In order to generate transcription data for *Sinocyclocheilus* skin from the morphotypes, the total RNA  
144 was extracted from the 27 skin samples (9 species that we sampled) using Trizol methods; mRNA was  
145 captured from total RNA through Oligo (dT). To synthesize cDNA, fragmented mRNA was utilized  
146 as a template in the M-MuLV reverse transcriptase system. Random oligonucleotides acted as primers  
147 to initiate the synthesis of the first cDNA strand. RNaseH was then used to degrade the RNA strand,  
148 and dNTPs were added under the DNA polymerase I system to synthesize the second cDNA strand.  
149 The library was constructed using the NEBNext® Ultra™ RNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina, USA). The  
150 RNA quality and concentration were measured using an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent  
151 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and Qubit® RNA Assay Kit in Qubit® 2.0 Fluorometer (Life  
152 Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The effective concentration of the library was again accurately  
153 quantified by qPCR to ensure the quality of the library. An Illumina NovaSeq 6000 was used to  
154 sequence the library, producing paired-end reads of 150 bp each. The library construction and  
155 sequencing were conducted at Beijing Novogene Bioinformatics Technology Co., Ltd.

## 156 Data preprocessing

157 In addition to our data, RNA-seq data for 5 species were obtained from two public databases. We  
158 downloaded transcriptome datasets for 3 species from the public DRYAD database: *S. oxycephalus*, *S.*  
159 *tianlinensis*, and *S. qiubeiensis* (<https://datadryad.org/stash/share/t5cZIXoVUgyhpzEP6z-GN6xjc5EU3TvpPEwbdlo7sil>), and transcriptome datasets for 2 species: *S. grahami* (NCBI:  
160 SRR2960332) and *S. anshuiensis* (NCBI: SRR2960751) from the NCBI database. The skin  
161 transcriptomes from the 9 species from our study and the 5 additional species were evaluated with  
162 FastQC v0.11.9 (Andrews, 2010). To ensure the accuracy and reliability of our data, we implemented  
163 a rigorous filtering process. This involved removing reads containing adapters, poly-N sequences, and  
164 those with low-quality scores. The resulting high-quality, clean reads formed the basis for all  
165 downstream analyses.

## 167 Transcriptome assembly, annotation and selection of orthogroups

168 We used Trinity v2.8.6 (Grabherr et al., 2011) to assemble clean reads for each species and extracted  
169 the longest transcripts (unigenes), to obtain single gene sequences. Subsequently, the CD-HIT v4.6.8  
170 (Fu et al., 2012) was used with a 95% threshold to cluster sequences and eliminate redundancy in the  
171 final assembly. To predict the full open reading frames (ORFs) for each gene, we used TransDecoder  
172 (<http://transdecoder.github.io/>) default parameters. We then annotated the resulting protein sequences  
173 using BLASTP (Blast+ v2.6.0) using the UniProt database (v2022\_05) (Mahram and Herbordt, 2015).  
174 We retained only UniProt germplasm from the top 10 hits for each species and selected the final

175 UniProt ID based on the number of species that used it as the best match. Using OrthoFinder v1.1.2.  
176 (Emms and Kelly, 2015), we performed gene clustering while retaining only those containing at least  
177 one transcript per species. These filtering steps resulted in 30,923 annotated orthologous groups for  
178 downstream analysis of expression differences.

## 179 **Construction of phylogenetic trees and screening of positive selection gene (PSG)**

180 For phylogenetic inference, we utilized single-copy gene families obtained from OrthoFinder, as  
181 previously described. We discarded gene families comprising sequences shorter than 200 amino acids.  
182 The retained amino acid sequence families were aligned with Muscle 5 (Edgar, 2022), with default  
183 parameters. To excise ambiguously aligned regions, we used Gblock v0.91b (Castresana, 2000). We  
184 then conducted a maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic analysis on the refined set of 1,369 single-  
185 copy orthogroups using IQ-TREE 2 to construct an unrooted phylogeny; a bootstrap analysis was  
186 performed to determine node support (Minh et al., 2020). The resulting ML phylogenetic tree was  
187 visualized using Figtree (Rambaut, 2009).

188 To understand the functional genes that may facilitate the adaptation of *Sinocyclocheilus* to its  
189 environment, orthologous of the skin of 14 species were tested for signals of positive selection. The  
190 dN, dS, and dN/dS values of the orthologous were calculated using the CodeML program of the PAML  
191 package (Yang, 2007). The CodeML parameter was set to “Runmode = 0, Model = 0”. Then,  $\omega > 1$  can  
192 be judged to have experienced positive selection pressure effects in this gene, and a total of 329 genes  
193 were screened. KEGG enrichment of PSGs was performed using KOBAS v2.0.12, and the PSGs in  
194 significantly enriched pathways were annotated based on the Evolutionary Genealogy of Genes:  
195 Nonsupervised Orthologous Groups (eggNog) database (Xie et al., 2011, Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016).

## 196 **Differentially expressed gene (DEG) analysis of orthogroups**

197 To study how orthologous genes are expressed in three different habitats - SB, SP, and SU - we  
198 conducted a mapping analysis of high-quality reads of each species against its corresponding  
199 representative orthogroups obtained earlier; for this, we used Bowtie 2 v2.2.9 for direct homology  
200 filtering (default settings) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012), and for gene expression levels analysis  
201 we used RSEM v1.2.26 (default setting) (Li and Dewey, 2011). To analyze the gene expression  
202 profiles of each species, we utilized the ggbiplot package to conduct a principal component analysis  
203 (PCA) following the method outlined by Yeung and Ruzzo (2001). The ggplot2 package was used to  
204 statistically generate stacked bar graphs with clustered trees reflecting the similarity between species  
205 and habitat groups, as well as information on the expression profiles of the orthologous genes for  
206 each species (Thiergart et al., 2020). We then identified differential expression in the orthogroups  
207 between species using edgeR and adjusted the resulting P-values through the application of the  
208 Benjamini and Hochberg method, which effectively estimates the false discovery rate (FDR). We  
209 considered differentially expressed genes to be those with absolute log2 fold change ( $|\log_2 \text{FC}|$ )  
210 greater than 1 and FDR less than 0.05. These thresholds were chosen to determine statistical  
211 significance. Finally, GOseq and KOBAS v2.0.12 were used to perform GO enrichment analysis and  
212 KEGG enrichment analysis of differentially expressed orthogroups (Kanehisa et al., 2008, Young et  
213 al., 2010). P-values were obtained using a hypergeometric test and the significance term with an  
214 adjusted P-value threshold of 0.05. Using these methods, we identified significantly enriched  
215 biological pathways, including important biochemical metabolic and signal transduction pathways  
216 across the orthogroups.

## 217 **Skin photography**

218 Using a digital camera (Canon EOS 6D Mark II AF-A) set at a fixed distance of 0.3m from the tank  
219 and LUX = 45 for ambient light, we captured images with the following settings: Shutter speed: 1/250s;  
220 F/20; ISO 200. Next, the fish were returned to their aquarium system (pH: 7.0-8.0; temperature: 19 ±  
221 1°C; dissolved oxygen: 8.5 mg/L) devoid of light to maintain their natural skin characteristics.  
222 Subsequently, we examined the pigmentation and scales in samples preserved in 70% ethanol using a  
223 Leica M165FC stereomicroscope.

## 224 **Calculation of mean color, dark clustering and measurements of scales**

225 To compare the body color differences of the *Sinocyclocheilus* genus, we used the Color Summarizer  
226 v0.8 (<http://mkweb.bcgsc.ca/colorsummarizer/analyze>) to digitize the average color values of the skin.  
227 In order to ascertain the average red-green-blue (RGB) color component of the image, we employed a  
228 systematic approach. Firstly, a set of reference colors that had the least deviation from the image colors  
229 were identified, which allowed to discern variation in color with greater precision. Specifically, 5  
230 reference colors denoted by "k" were selected. Subsequently, 5 representative color ratios from each  
231 sample taken. Finally, the average RGB color values were calculated from these ratios to obtain an  
232 overall RGB color component of the image. This procedure provided an accurate and reliable  
233 estimation of the RGB color values. This process was repeated three times separately for the three  
234 samples collected to obtain a representative color for each *Sinocyclocheilus* species. Our analysis  
235 focused on the 5 most representative color ratios in order to calculate the proportion of darker blotches.  
236 For instance, in a particular species, mean color values of RGB (250, 250, 250) were observed in the  
237 white areas while the darker black areas had color values closer to RGB (0, 0, 0). We postulated that a  
238 higher concentration of melanin deposition is associated with a decrease in RGB values towards RGB  
239 (0, 0, 0). The area and number of lateral line scales were counted for each sample using ImageJ  
240 (Abràmoff et al., 2004). The scale sizes were classified into three categories: no-scales, small-scales,  
241 and large-scales, and the degree of scale cover was classified as full-cover, no-cover, and partial-cover.

## 242 **RESULTS**

### 243 **Transcriptome sequencing data and identification of orthologous**

244 To understand the molecular mechanisms underlying skin coloration in *Sinocyclocheilus* species, we  
245 generated high-quality transcriptome sequencing data from skin tissue samples of 9 distinct  
246 *Sinocyclocheilus* species (Supplementary Table S2). Following this, a *de novo* assembly was  
247 performed for sequences from the 14 species. Among them, *S. oxycephalus* (205,993) has the highest  
248 number of transcriptomes and *S. grahami* (80,118) has the lowest. The average transcript length post-  
249 assembly varied between 856 and 1,158 bps, while the N50 length ranged from 1,621 to 2,414 bps.  
250 Upon removal of redundancy, a total of 384,146 genes were identified within orthogroups. Overall,  
251 orthogroups accounted for 94.3% of the genes. To facilitate comparative analysis among the various  
252 species, we focused on the 7,374 orthologous genes present in all examined species. These orthologous  
253 gene families were clustered, and 1369 single-copy orthologues genes were obtained after multiple  
254 sequence alignment and low quality pairwise pruning. These orthologous genes were subjected to  
255 quantitative comparative analysis.

### 256 **Distinct habitats influence gene expression variation**

257 A total of 1,348 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified on the skins of  
258 *Sinocyclocheilus* species by conducting a pairwise comparison across the three habitats (Figure 2,  
259 Supplementary Table S3). When compared to SUs, SPs exhibited 200 up-regulated and 467 down-  
260 regulated genes; SBs displayed 292 up-regulated and 394 down-regulated genes. The majority of

261 DEGs were up-regulated in SUs and the highest number of down-regulated DEGs was observed in  
262 SPs (Figure 2A). We also found more unique gene up-regulation in SP vs. SB, and that more of their  
263 shared genes were consistently down-regulated compared to SUs (SU vs. SP and SU vs. SB, Figure  
264 2B). This suggested a significant impact of cave habitats on gene expression patterns.

265 GO enrichment analysis of 1,348 DEGs in different eye-types/ habitats identified 630, 565 and 799  
266 significantly enriched GO terms in SU vs. SP, SP vs. SB and SU vs. SB, respectively ( $P_{adj} < 0.05$ )  
267 (Supplementary Table S4). These DEGs were involved in functional responses mainly related to  
268 stimulus responses, catalytic activity, multi-organism process, and immune system process (Figure  
269 3A). We found that the co-enriched terms in these three groups were energy metabolism related  
270 (Supplementary Table S5). We also found two major categories of GO terms have been enriched in  
271 SU vs. cave dwellers (SP and SB). Stimulus response-related terms such as external biotic stimulus,  
272 bacterial, fungal, and viral reactions, and numerous immune-related terms. SU vs. SP was mainly  
273 related to cellular immunity, such as leukocyte mediated immunity (GO:0002444), regulation of  
274 macrophage derived foam cell differentiation (GO:0010743); while SU vs. SB increased the  
275 regulation of apoptosis, such as: positive regulation of MAPK cascade (GO:0043410), regulation of  
276 neuron apoptotic process (GO:0043523), regulation of epithelial cell apoptotic process  
277 (GO:1904035). Anyhow, this suggested that these observations may be due to the differences in the  
278 exogenous biological stimulation of surface water environment. Cave species seemed to have  
279 different immune strategies to these external stimuli.

280 Genes associated with changes in oxygen levels showed differences in expression across different  
281 habitats, for example, response to hypoxia (BP), response to decreased oxygen levels (GO:0036293),  
282 cellular response to hypoxia (GO:0071456), etc. Interestingly, only in SPs and SBs can respiratory  
283 electron transport chain (GO:0022904), mitochondrial respirasome (GO:0005746), respiratory  
284 electron transport chain (GO:0022904), and mitochondrial respirasome (GO:0005746) be identified.  
285 respiratory chain complex (GO:0098803) and response to pH (GO:0009268) (Supplementary Figure  
286 S1A, supplementary Table S5). This may reflect the different cellular and mitochondrial respiration  
287 efficiency of cave dwellers.

288 The number of significantly enriched pathways in three groups was 30, 38, and 22, respectively, and  
289 the same pathways were mainly related to metabolisms, such as Pentose phosphate pathway  
290 (ko00030), Biosynthesis of amino acids (ko01130), Carbon metabolism (ko01200), PPAR signaling  
291 pathway (ko03320) and Microbial metabolism in diverse environments (ko01120), etc. Secondly,  
292 immune response-related pathways were Phagosome (ko04145) ( $P_{adj} < 0.05$ ) (Figure 3B,  
293 Supplementary Table S6). This suggested that the strong influence of the habitat environment leads  
294 to differences in skin metabolism and skin microbial metabolism among different habitat  
295 populations. Compared to SPs, all DEGs (28) enriched in the PPAR signaling pathway and Carbon  
296 metabolism pathway were up-regulated in SUs, followed by 16 DGEs in SBs. However, all DEGs (9)  
297 enriched Oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS, ko00190) pathway and 5 DEGs enriched Fatty acid  
298 degradation pathway (ko00071) were upregulated in SPs. This may indicate differences in the  
299 regulation of energy and mitochondrial metabolism between species in different habitats  
300 (Supplementary Table S7). These pathways in different eye-types/habitats showed that there were  
301 common molecular mechanisms to understand their habitual differences and evidence of genetic  
302 variation and transcriptional plasticity or adaptation in response to environmental change.

303 In particular, microbial immune-related pathways such as Complement and coagulation cascades  
304 (ko04610), Intestinal immune network for IgA production (ko04672), and Viral protein interaction  
305 with cytokine and cytokine receptors (ko04061) found in SU vs. cave dwellers (SP and SB)

306 (Supplementary Table S6). This may indicate differences in immune responses to microorganisms  
307 between SUs and cave dwellers. Moreover, Hematopoietic cell lineage (ko04640) and ECM-receptor  
308 interaction (ko04512), and pathways associated with oxidative stress (OXPHOS, Glutathione  
309 metabolism, Cysteine, and methionine metabolism, Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450,  
310 Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450) exist only in SP vs. SB. This may indicate a widespread  
311 oxidative stress response of cave dwellers to stimuli of the cave environments.

312 We also found that Phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis pathway (ko00400), and  
313 especially the Tyrosine metabolism pathway (ko00350) may be influenced by their habitats, and  
314 affected melanin differences (Supplementary Table S6).

### 315 Positive Selection Genes in the skin of 14 species

316 After analyzing the KEGG pathways of these 329 positive selection genes (PSGs), we found that genes  
317 under positive selection were most significantly enriched in six metabolic pathways (Table 1). They  
318 were associated with viral infection, signaling, and cell necrosis and apoptosis. A total of 18 PSGs  
319 were identified in these enriched pathways, among which *the tumor protein p63 regulatory 1*  
320 (OG0018161) was under the strongest selection pressure (Supplementary Table S8). These genes may  
321 be involved in the adaptation process of *Sinocyclocheilus* to cave dwelling. We also found that  
322 *Reticulocalbin 3, EF-hand calcium binding domain* (OG0016528), *S100 calcium binding protein U*  
323 (OG0016522), and *positive regulation of vitamin D* (OG0016683) have all been implicated in calcium  
324 regulation.

### 325 Phylogeny based on orthologous genes

326 We filtered the clusters that comprised a single sequence from each of the 14 transcriptomes and  
327 retrieved 1,369 putative single-copy orthologous genes. We concatenated and aligned these genes into  
328 a supermatrix with 1,471,983 informative sites for the 14 taxa. The maximum likelihood tree inferred  
329 for each orthologous gene revealed that they formed five well-supported clades based on bootstrap  
330 support values (Figure 4). Three notable discrepancies with previous phylogenies were the positions  
331 of early diverging *Sinocyclocheilus* lineages: *S. xunlensis*, *S. oxycephalus*, and *S. furcodorsalis*. Our  
332 phylogenetic tree unambiguously showed that *S. oxycephalus* was a separate lineage, while *S. xunlensis*  
333 was recovered as the sister group of *S. guilinensis*; four species including *S. furcodorsalis* constituted  
334 a separate lineage.

### 335 The skin color

336 The analysis of color variation in the 14 *Sinocyclocheilus* species highlighted a rich diversity in body  
337 coloration and patterns, with each species exhibiting unique colors, mainly in a combination of pinkish-  
338 white, gray, and yellow (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S2).

339 For every species, color attributes were assessed based on average skin color value and the proportion  
340 of dark blotches and distinct spots on the skin. *Sinocyclocheilus tianlinensis* had the highest skin RGB  
341 value (195, 181, 177), followed by *S. anshuiensis* (191, 179, 177) and *S. furcodorsalis* (188, 163, 155);  
342 *S. grahami* (138, 123, 111), *S. oxycephalus* (142, 116, 90), and *S. qiubeiensis* (142, 127, 104) displayed  
343 the lowest RGB values (Supplementary Table S9). The RGB values for black blotches in these species  
344 were under (120, 108, 114) with lower values signifying darker colors, such as dark blotches and spots  
345 (Figure 5, Supplementary Table S9).

346 Skin colors were associated with eye-types and habitats. Normal-eyed SUs had yellow or gray skin,  
347 while most SPs exhibited gray or pale gray tones. Unique spots were also indicative of eye-type and  
348 habitat groups; Normal-eyed *S. grahami* (SU) had the highest proportion of black spots, succeeded by  
349 Normal-eyed *S. oxycephalus* (SU) and Normal-eyed *S. qiubeiensis* (SU). Eyeless SBs and Micro-eyed  
350 *S. xunlensis* (SP), which displayed depigmented pink-white skin, had the lowest percentage of dark  
351 blotches (Figure 5, Supplementary Table S9). However, microscopic observations showed that SBs  
352 and *S. xunlensis* (SP) still had numerous tiny black blotches dispersed across their skin (Supplementary  
353 Figure S2); comparatively, Eyeless SBs were pink with fewer pronounced dark blotches and distinct  
354 spots.

355 When examining color in the context of phylogeny, Clades I-V displayed various combinations of skin  
356 color and pigmentation relative to eye-types and habitats (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S2).  
357 Notably, in Clade III and Clade IV, which contain the largest proportion of exclusive cave dwellers,  
358 SBs were pink with fewer dark blotches. Hence, the *Sinocyclocheilus* genus adapted to cave  
359 environments and evolved with convergent skin coloration in different evolutionary clades.

### 360 Scale characteristics

361 Microscopic examination of scale characteristics showed a marked reduction in scale size and coverage  
362 in 11 *Sinocyclocheilus* species except for two species (*S. mashanensis*: mean  $\pm$  SD:  $3.74 \pm 1.36$ , *S.*  
363 *zhenfengensis*: mean  $\pm$  SD:  $2.93 \pm 0.95$ ), which exhibited complete coverage by large scales, and the  
364 mean number of their lateral line scales are respectively  $49 \pm 3$  and  $43 \pm 4$ . *S. oxycephalus* (mean  $\pm$   
365 SD:  $0.17 \pm 0.11$ ), *S. qiubeiensis* (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $0.61 \pm 0.28$ ), and *S. grahami* (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $0.72 \pm 0.40$ )  
366 had smaller scales, also with more lateral line scales (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $70 \pm 3$ ,  $78 \pm 3$  and  $72 \pm 2$ ), but most  
367 of the body scales were buried in the skin and disappeared (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S2). We  
368 found that larger scales and fewer lateral line scales were mainly present in Clade III, IV while smaller  
369 scales and more lateral line scales species were mainly found in Clade V. The reduction of scale  
370 coverage can be found in all clades (I-V). This may indicate convergent evolution of scale reduction  
371 in *Sinocyclocheilus*.

372 Generally, SBs exhibited smaller and fewer scales than SPs. The scales of *S. tianlinensis* (SB) were  
373 absent altogether, and *S. anshuiensis* (SB) had only rare scales. These species in Clade III, Clade IV  
374 revealed a pattern of scales, characterized by a gradual reduction in scale size, decreased coverage and  
375 the number of lateral line scales, and eventual disappearance, which may be related to cave adaptation.  
376 Clade V species displayed variability in scale morphology and coverage, suggesting a chaotic pattern  
377 of scale evolution in Clade V unrelated to habitat. Here, the small scales were widely spaced (Figure  
378 5).

### 379 Gene expression patterns and skin morphology

380 The PCA analysis and cluster analysis of the 14 *Sinocyclocheilus* species using expression data from  
381 7,374 orthologous genes revealed that 13 species clustered together, separate from *S. angustiporus*  
382 (Figure 6A, Supplementary Table S10). In addition, Micro-eyed SPs and Eyeless SBs showed  
383 differences in gene expression compared with Normal-eyed SUs (Figure 6B, Supplementary Table  
384 S10). This suggested that patterns of gene expression were similar between these species, but the  
385 effects of habitats can still be seen.

386 Interestingly, the second principal component (variance explained 16.55%) differentiated species with  
387 and without black blotches (Figure 6A). Moreover, *S. tianneensis*, *S. cyphotergous* and *S. xunlensis* with  
388 little black blotches were clustered in one branch, but expression patterns vary among species with

389 full-cover large scales (Figure 6B). This suggested that changes in gene expression patterns may affect  
390 pigmentation similarly but not scales.

## 391 **DISCUSSION**

392 Broadly, we investigated the skin-related morphology (color and scale characteristics), gene expression  
393 patterns, and functional enrichment of DEGs and PSGs among various morphotypes of  
394 *Sinocyclocheilus* species, representative of the phylogeny, living in three habitat types (SU, SP, and  
395 SB). Our results suggested that habitats may influence changes in color and scale characteristics, gene  
396 expression and their function, and hence a driver of skin evolution. Here we discuss our findings and  
397 their implications for understanding the broad scale patterns of adaptation of *Sinocyclocheilus* skin for  
398 cave-dwelling.

### 399 **Possible adaptive mechanisms to different habitats**

400 In our analysis of DEGs, we identified distinct patterns pertaining to metabolism, oxidative stress,  
401 and immune responses in various *Sinocyclocheilus* species. These patterns appear to be correlated  
402 with their specific habitats. Such results substantiate the presence of cave-environmental gradients  
403 within natural ecosystems. In line with our findings, several studies have pointed toward  
404 physiological and metabolic distinctions between surface dwelling and cave dwelling species  
405 (Krishnan et al., 2020, Stahl and Gross, 2017, Boggs and Gross, 2021, Medley et al., 2022, Yang et  
406 al., 2016).

407 These variances could be due to differences in habitat characteristics like light exposure, ambient  
408 oxygen levels, and nutrient resource availability (Garcia-Reyero et al., 2012, Passow et al., 2017,  
409 Riddle et al., 2018). However, it is important to note that environmental influences on gene  
410 expression are multifaceted and do not merely accumulate in a linear fashion. The interaction among  
411 these factors further amplifies the complexity of environmental gradients, making prediction of gene  
412 expression responses more challenging (Garcia-Reyero et al., 2012, Passow et al., 2017, Riddle et al.,  
413 2018).

414 While the analysis of coloration and large-scale gene expression patterns may provide some insights,  
415 they fall short of identifying the specific environmental factors driving convergent evolution in these  
416 habitats. Instead, a more promising approach might involve pinpointing and investigating DEGs,  
417 paired with functional annotations informed by a priori hypotheses. This strategy could offer deeper  
418 insights into the range of environmental stressors within a habitat, and how they might shape the  
419 evolution of different phenotypes.

### 420 **Metabolic differences among species across habitats**

421 A large number of GO terms related to energy metabolism (e.g., lipid metabolism, fatty acid  
422 metabolism, carbohydrate metabolism, mitochondrial respiration, etc.) were enriched in the  
423 comparison of species from different habitats, which were further supported by common KEGG  
424 enrichment pathways, such as energy-related Carbon metabolism, Pentose phosphate pathway, PPAR  
425 signaling pathway, Fatty acid metabolism, Fatty acid degradation, and OXPHOS.

426 Most of these DEGs in energy metabolism-related pathways were up-regulated in SUs. This may  
427 indicate that SUs, that live in resource rich environments compared to cave dwellers, have a higher  
428 energy metabolic rates. In fact, the lowering of metabolism is a well-known feature of organisms  
429 living in resource poor cave-environments (Soares and Niemiller, 2020). For instance, *Astyanax*

430 cave-morphs have a lower oxygen consumption and metabolic rate compared to their surface morphs  
431 (Boggs and Gross, 2021, Moran et al., 2014). Many of these genes were associated with glycolysis  
432 such as fructose-1, 6-diphosphatase (OG0001025), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase  
433 (OG0001738), 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase (OG0011314) and glucose-6-phosphate 1-  
434 dehydrogenase (OG0011750) (Okar and Lange, 1999, Randhawa et al., 2014). One of the reasons for  
435 this may be due to an abundance of UV light in surface habitats stimulating the skins of SUs leading  
436 to enhanced glycolysis (Randhawa et al., 2014).

437 The differences between cave dwellers (SP and SB) were mainly due to OXPHOS and fatty acid  
438 degradation related genes, where they were upregulated in SPs. In addition, under the condition of  
439 using fat as an energy source, the expression of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex-related genes  
440 (OG0011863) was upregulated; this is known to contribute to the dynamic balance of glycolysis and  
441 tricarboxylic acid cycles (Gray et al., 2014, Pham et al., 2022). The enhanced mitochondrial activity in  
442 the skin of cave fish may reflect an increased allocation to detect the environment using non-visual  
443 sensory organs, such as lateral line organs, neuromasts and other detectors in the skin, which are  
444 enhanced in some cavefish, including in *Sinocyclocheilus* (Yoshizawa et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2022).

445 In contrast, SBs mainly have enhanced glycolytic processes, as well as enhanced expression of  
446 enzymes and proteins related to lipid synthesis and transport, such as *fatty acid synthase* (OG0001380),  
447 *very long chain fatty acid elongation protein 6* (OG0010037), *fatty acid-binding protein* (OG0003744).  
448 We also found that troglomorphic traits, such as changes in lipid and energy metabolism, appeared to  
449 be linked to increased carbohydrate and fat synthesis processes in SPs and SBs, which promotes fat  
450 storage (Lam et al., 2022, Xiong, 2021). Overall, the reduced metabolism of nutrients and  
451 mitochondrial respiration in SBs may help *Sinocyclocheilus* lower their energy consumption, and  
452 increase energy storage, facilitating adaptation to a resource-depleted cave environment (Riddle et al.,  
453 2018).

#### 454 Immune responses in species from different habitats

455 Fish skin is acutely sensitive to alterations in the aquatic environment, and it is noteworthy that  
456 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) identified within the skin are also responsive to environmental  
457 stimuli. Results of the enrichment analysis showed a wide variation in immune mechanisms but with  
458 general enrichment in biological processes pertinent to stimulus response, leukocyte proliferation,  
459 and apoptosis. Our results also agree that fish skin has an immune function and highlight the critical  
460 role of macrophages during infection (Bangert et al., 2011). In addition to the significant co-  
461 enrichment of phagocytosis and inflammatory regulation pathways, we also found that species in  
462 different habitats had different immune responses, which may be related to the greater contribution of  
463 microbial stimulation and oxygen concentration. Enhanced cave microbial diversity and stimulation  
464 in surface water environments may have shaped stronger adaptive immunity in SUs (Rook et al.,  
465 2003). In contrast, nutrient limitation and reduced dissolved oxygen in cave water environments may  
466 contribute to increased susceptibility to pathogens and risk of inflammation to cave dwellers (SP and  
467 SB) (McCormick and Larson, 2008, Taylor and Colgan, 2017).

468 Compared with cave dwellers (SP, SB), more pro-inflammatory factors such as tumor necrosis factor,  
469 C-X-C chemokine, and complement factor related genes were up-regulated in SUs in immune-related  
470 pathways. Moreover, genes that were significantly upregulated in microbial immune-related pathways  
471 included: *ATPase genes* (*V-type proton ATPase 116 kDa subunit a*: OG0001307; *V-type proton*  
472 *ATPase subunit B*: OG0009257), which were involved in lysosomal function and autophagy flux. The  
473 expression of the vesicle-trafficking protein *SEC22b-B* (OG0002841) was also upregulated. These

474 results may indicate an enhanced ability of macrophages to deliver in the skins of SUs, and, along with  
475 T cells, support the function of adaptive immunity. In addition, the vesicles were subsequently  
476 internalized by macrophages, playing a key role in inflammation resolution. Generally, the  
477 macrophages and adaptive immunity in the skins of SUs contributed to microbial resistance (Mohanty  
478 and Sahoo, 2010, Lü et al., 2012). The reason for this difference was that there were significant  
479 differences in microbial metabolism between different habitats in *Sinocyclocheilus*. we observed  
480 upregulation of *inositol-3-phosphate synthase 1-A-like isoenzyme X2* (OG0003974) and *UDP-N-*  
481 *acetylglucosamine pyrophosphorylase (UAP1*, OG0008682), indicating increased eukaryotic growth  
482 and reproductive activity in skin microorganisms (Reynolds, 2009, Behr, 2011). The dynamics and  
483 intensity of viral replication may tend to weaken due to the lowering of temperature within the cave  
484 environment (Demory et al., 2017). In fact, it is generally known that caves are a biodiversity-depleted  
485 environment, including that of pathogens (Peuß et al., 2020). Thus, investment strategies for microbial  
486 immunity in cave-dwelling species may be lower compared to those of SUs.

487 There is a disparity between cave-dwelling species (SP, SB) with respect to the expression levels of  
488 genes involved in hypoxia (ECM-receptor interaction pathway and hematopoietic cell lines pathway)  
489 and inflammatory (complement and coagulation cascades pathway ) related responses and pathways  
490 (Chen et al., 2021, Morikawa and Takubo, 2016). Inflammation plays an important role in the immune  
491 response, serving as a critical pathophysiological reaction of the organism to pathogenic invasion,  
492 tissue damage, and other stimuli. Hypoxia also emerges as a significant modulator of both  
493 inflammatory and immune responses (Zhao et al., 2016, Bhatti et al., 2017, Duan et al., 2022). In  
494 contrast to SPs, a large number of proinflammatory factors (such as complement factors, coagulation  
495 factors, and integrin) were up-regulated in SBs. This suggested that SBs had a stronger innate immune  
496 response to microbes. Interestingly, we found the least immune-associated GO between SBs and SPs,  
497 especially T-cellular immune-related. Thus, cavefish may reduce investment in immune cells, but  
498 enhance the sensitivity of the innate immune system as suggested by some previous studies as well  
499 (Mayer et al., 2016, Peuß et al., 2020). Hence, our findings suggest that SBs may employ adaptive  
500 strategies in cave environments that involve a reduction in T-cell mediated immune responses, but an  
501 enhancement in the regulation of innate immune defenses. Moreover, efficient resolution of  
502 inflammation and infection in the dermal tissues of SBs necessitates spontaneous apoptosis, induced  
503 by microenvironmental factors, to facilitate the clearance of abundant neutrophils at the site of infection.

#### 504 **Oxidative stress in species from different habitats**

505 Though both inflammatory signaling and the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) contribute  
506 to the generation of cellular reactive oxygen species (ROS), the mitochondria principally serve as the  
507 primary site of cellular ROS production. Additionally, they are the primary targets of a multitude of  
508 exogenous toxic effects stemming from environmental chemical agents and ROS themselves (Li et  
509 al., 2017). In our study, cave dwellers (SP, SB) were significantly enriched for most of the diverse  
510 antioxidant stress-related pathways. The lower dissolved oxygen concentrations and nutrients in the  
511 cave water environment, as demonstrated in previous studies, constitute a significant limiting factor  
512 (Boggs and Gross, 2021, Riddle et al., 2018). This could contribute to the oxidative stress observed  
513 in cave-dwelling species (SP, SB). Examination of genes in the anti-oxidative stress-related pathways  
514 of SUs and SBs revealed slight differences in expressions between them. Some of the minor  
515 differences were that SUs mainly upregulated genes in the Peroxisome pathway, while SBs mainly  
516 enhanced genes in the P450 and Glutathione metabolism pathway to enhance cellular antioxidant  
517 action and integrated detoxification. The increased activity of catalase in SUs contributes to  
518 mitochondrial respiration and enhances fatty acid oxidation and utilization (Yu et al., 2003). And  
519 cytochrome P450 may target SBs in their sensitivity to exogenous chemicals (including pesticides) in

520 the cave environment, as well as the need for thermoregulation (Guengerich et al., 2016). In a  
521 previous study, cavefish showed increased levels of stress compared to surface fish, and the  
522 expression of genes involved in glutathione metabolism was also increased to prevent oxidative  
523 stress under prolonged fasting (Krishnan et al., 2020, Medley et al., 2022).

524 Interestingly, almost all oxidative stress-related genes in the Peroxisome pathway and P450 pathway  
525 were down-regulated in SP skins, suggesting that they may have a stronger environmental oxidative  
526 stress resistance. It has been shown that the down-regulation of stress-related genes in response to abiotic  
527 or biological changes in the environment is an indicator of stress-resistant populations and species  
528 (Bailey et al., 2017). Previous studies had shown the heterogeneity of SP environments may enhance  
529 their immune capacity (Yang et al., 2016). The extent to which environmental stressors influence  
530 appears to be lesser and is contingent upon the physiological strategies adopted by the species;  
531 furthermore, microevolutionary processes contribute to the augmentation of resistance of an organism  
532 (Sun et al., 2015).

533 SPs reduced tissue hypoxia by enhancing oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), thereby enhancing  
534 mitochondrial respiration and ATP synthesis, thereby enhancing adaptation to hypoxia. Cytochrome c  
535 oxidase (COX) was a key enzyme in establishing a more efficient mitochondrial respiratory chain  
536 (MRC) to improve oxygen utilization under hypoxic conditions. This may help SPs maintain  
537 homeostasis of mitochondrial regulation of energy production, reactive oxygen species homeostasis,  
538 and cell death in the hypoxic microenvironment caused by skin immunization (Garvin et al., 2015,  
539 Heather et al., 2012). Our study demonstrated different hypoxic adaptation strategies in cave dwellers,  
540 implicating that alterations in mitochondrial respiration rate and enzymatic activity might play pivotal  
541 roles in the regulation and maintenance of redox homeostasis.

## 542 **Transcriptional Plasticity and Convergent Evolution**

543 Our ML tree, based on 1,369 unique single-copy orthologous genes, showed some discordance when  
544 compared to recent mitochondrial gene (mt-DNA) and RAD-seq based studies (Zhao and Zhang, 2009,  
545 Wen et al., 2022, Xu et al., 2023, Mao et al., 2021, Mao et al., 2022b). The robust node support in our  
546 phylogeny might be attributed to the abundance of genes under selection derived from transcriptome  
547 sequencing. However, this precision may have a downside: the unique genes associated with the  
548 transcriptome we used could potentially not be under neutral evolution, thereby causing the phylogeny  
549 of expressed genes important for the functions of the skin. Most notably, Clade I of our study contains  
550 species from three clades that employed mt-DNA/RAD-seq data. This was possibly due to shared skin  
551 traits. In addition, *S. oxycephalus* formed a distinct divergent lineage (II). The skin of these species had  
552 a distinctive gray color. And previous studies have shown that its skin is charcoal gray skin unlike  
553 other types (Li et al., 2020). Furthermore, we identified *S. furcodorsalis*, which was from clade B of  
554 previous studies placed in our Clade V, which contained predominantly species from clade D (which  
555 are mostly SUs) (Mao et al., 2021). This suggested that *S. furcodorsalis* may have a skin transcription  
556 profile similar to that of SUs. In fact, this species, despite being a cave-dweller, enigmatically had some  
557 of the most prominent scales. However, our phylogeny lacked high taxon sampling, which prevented  
558 us from making deeper inferences on transcriptional plasticity. However, this study highlights the  
559 significance and precision of transcriptomic data in understanding the evolutionary relationships  
560 among *Sinocyclocheilus* species.

561 It is known that the phenotypic adaptations of cave-dwelling in *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish involve  
562 changes in eye types and color and pigmentation patterns (Li et al., 2020, Meng et al., 2013); our results  
563 from the context of skin morphology and gene expression confirm this. We found that Eyeless SBs and

564 some Micro-eyed SPs without obvious black blotches showing similar expression patterns, even  
565 though they were in different clades (Figure 5). Existing literature has established that changes in skin  
566 color, driven primarily by adaptation to diverse habitats, serve as a major contributing factor to  
567 differential gene expression patterns (Li et al., 2020, Hinaux et al., 2013, Stahl and Gross, 2015, Gross  
568 et al., 2016). Skin color adaptations in fish are known to occur rapidly when they are introduced to  
569 novel environments (Leclercq et al., 2010, Nilsson Sköld et al., 2013).

570 The relationship between fish skin color and melanin content was examined, focusing on key genes  
571 involved in phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis pathway, and especially the tyrosine  
572 metabolism (Figure 7). We found that the tyrosine metabolic pathway, influenced by habitat, played a  
573 role in determining melanosis in the skin of *Sinocyclocheilus*. Previous research has demonstrated that  
574 decreased *phenylalanine-4-hydroxylase* (*PAH*, OG: 0000390) activity can affect *Try* activity (Leandro  
575 et al., 2017), and inhibition of phenylalanine conversion to tyrosine will lead to reduced melanin  
576 production (Staudigl et al., 2011, Zhou et al., 2021). However, we found low expression of the gene  
577 encoding *PAH* in these species. This may be due to the lack of phenylalanine and protein catabolic  
578 inputs in the diet of cavefish (Borowsky, 2018). However, L-phenylalanine (L-Phe) is also an essential  
579 protein-producing amino acid, and it is important to avoid it being completely catabolic (Xiao et al.,  
580 2020). Therefore, in order to achieve the dual role of effective preservation and removal of excess L-  
581 Phe, this regulatory mechanism may be more favorable to the adaptation of their environment.

582 Our analysis revealed that SBs had the fewest black blotches and the lowest expression of tyrosine  
583 metabolism-related enzymes: *aspartate aminotransferase* (*AST*, OG0001823), *fumarylacetoacetate*  
584 (*FAH*, OG0006238; Figure 5, 7). This indicated that phenylalanine and tyrosine metabolism was  
585 inhibited, and the final melanin synthesis was affected. Consistent with previous research, melanin  
586 synthesis is triggered by sunlight, which can offer benefits such as camouflage, protection from  
587 ultraviolet radiation, and a role in social signaling (D'Mello et al., 2016, Rzepka et al., 2016). Thus,  
588 whereas melanin synthesis is inhibited in SBs that inhabit lightless environments.

589 SPs such as *S. guanyangensis* and *S. cyphotergous* had elevated *AST* activity. The way these species  
590 produce melanin may be related to the accumulation of homogentisic acid (HGA). HGA oxidation  
591 leads to melanin-like pigmentation (Giustarini et al., 2012). Interestingly, cultivation of these species  
592 in our laboratory revealed that SPs seemed to exhibit an enhanced ability to adapt rapidly to fluctuating  
593 light conditions. This may enable them to adapt to the changing light environment between cave and  
594 semi-enclosed cave environments. Therefore, *AST* may have an important role in fish skin  
595 differentiation and variation through the melanogenesis pathway. The observed pigmentation  
596 differences among *Sinocyclocheilus* species may represent adaptations to their specific environments.  
597 Reduced pigmentation could be advantageous in the dark cave environment, while increased  
598 pigmentation may be more beneficial for survival in semi-enclosed and surface environments (Romero  
599 and Green, 2005, Soares and Niemiller, 2020).

600 Degeneration of scales was found in all clades in our study (Figure 4). It is not unexpected to find skin  
601 scale degradation prevalent in *Sinocyclocheilus*, as it is a trait seen in some other Carpiformes,  
602 unrelated to cave environments (Zhao and Zhang, 2009, Zhu et al., 2019, Harris et al., 2008). The  
603 scales of *Sinocyclocheilus* are known to be bony scales, and the posterior part of their scales consists  
604 of bone (Zhao and Zhang, 2009). We found that *Reticulocalbin 3, EF-hand calcium binding domain*  
605 (OG0016528), *S100 calcium binding protein U* (OG0016522), and *Positive regulation of vitamin D*  
606 *receptor signaling pathway* (OG0016683) were under positive selection, which may contribute to the  
607 calcium-bone homeostasis of fish skin (Schäfer and Heizmann, 1996, Girard et al., 2015, Bouillon and  
608 Suda, 2014). And PSGs are enriched in the MAPK signaling pathway, which is known to be associated

609 with scale development, so the role of such genes involved in scale evolution is strong (Zhou et al.,  
610 2022a); there is also a strong association between scale regression and cave-dwelling. However, a  
611 deeper analysis is warranted to explore the connection between cave environments and scale features  
612 perse, i.e. a comparison between scaleless *Sinocyclocheilus* and scaleless other Carpiformes. Our  
613 research showcases the remarkable adaptability of cave-dwelling species to dynamic environments,  
614 offering insights into fish adaptation processes in response to anthropogenic alterations, such as habitat  
615 degradation and climate change. *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish share few positive selections among their  
616 skin orthologous genes, and genes associated with the limited skin phenotype are more difficult to  
617 detect. The most likely plausible reason for this evolutionary phenomenon is the low rate of evolution  
618 of the cavefish genome and genome-wide relaxation of selection (Policarpo et al., 2020, Torres-Paz et  
619 al., 2018, Zhao et al., 2022). Our study demonstrates the remarkable adaptability of cave-dwelling  
620 species to dynamic environments and provides insights into the process of fish adaptation to  
621 anthropogenic changes such as habitat degradation and climate change.

622 PSGs in *Sinocyclocheilus* were enriched in herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1) infection, cytokine-  
623 cytokine receptor interactions, p53 signaling pathway, necrosis, and apoptosis related pathways. The  
624 current study has found that under prolonged environmental stress (e.g. hypoxia, prolonged  
625 hypothermia, starvation, etc.), facilitation and evolution of pathways such as p53 signaling pathway,  
626 MAPK signaling pathway, cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction, and apoptosis related pathways are  
627 prone to occur and echoes our study (Voskarides et al., 2022, Mao et al., 2022a, Tong et al., 2021, Li  
628 et al., 2023). Our study highlighted that an important aspect of skin evolution is resistance to viral  
629 infection. These pathways promote coordination between cells and contribute to the clearance of  
630 pathogenic infections. Previous studies have shown that p53 plays a dual role in the replication of HSV-  
631 1 at different stages of infection (Voskarides et al., 2022, Sato and Tsurumi, 2013). Our study found  
632 that one of the p53 homologs: the *Tumor protein p63 regulated 1* (OG0018161) was subject to the  
633 strongest positive selection (Aloni-Grinstein et al., 2018). Interestingly, it has been shown that HSV-1  
634 manages to counteract this negative effect of p53 through the viral protein ICP22, which is able to bind  
635 p53 directly and eliminate its function (Sato and Tsurumi, 2013). Like many other viruses,  
636 herpesviruses their hosts co-evolved (Chawla et al., 2022). Fish skin is the first line of defense against  
637 viral and pathogenic microbial infections in the aquatic environment, and the adaptive evolution of  
638 immune and apoptosis-related genes may have facilitated the development of immune function in the  
639 skin of *Sinocyclocheilus*, enabling their ability to rapidly adapt to new environments and to rapidly  
640 occupy vacant ecological niches.

## 641 CONCLUSIONS

642 In conclusion, our study focused on investigating the genetic basis of environmental adaptation in  
643 *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish, specifically exploring the influence of gene regulation on skin-related traits.  
644 Through a radiation-scale analysis involving representatives from major clades and different habitat  
645 types, we uncovered important findings regarding the adaptive mechanisms of these cave-dwelling  
646 fish.

647 We observed that different habitats exerted significant influences on color and scale characteristics,  
648 gene expression patterns, and functional enrichment of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and  
649 positively selected genes (PSGs) in *Sinocyclocheilus* species. The functional enrichment analysis  
650 revealed distinct patterns in signaling mechanisms, oxidative stress, energy metabolism, and immune  
651 responses associated with different habitats.

652 Regarding metabolic differences among species across habitats, we found that species from surface  
653 habitats (SUs) exhibited higher energy metabolic rates, reflected in enriched energy metabolism  
654 pathways such as carbohydrate metabolism, amino acid metabolism and energy meta signaling  
655 mechanisms.

656 Conversely, SPs enhanced fat decomposition and mitochondrial respiration, while SBs showed  
657 enhanced glycolysis processes, lipid synthesis, and transport pathways, possibly as an adaptation to  
658 energy-poor cave environments.

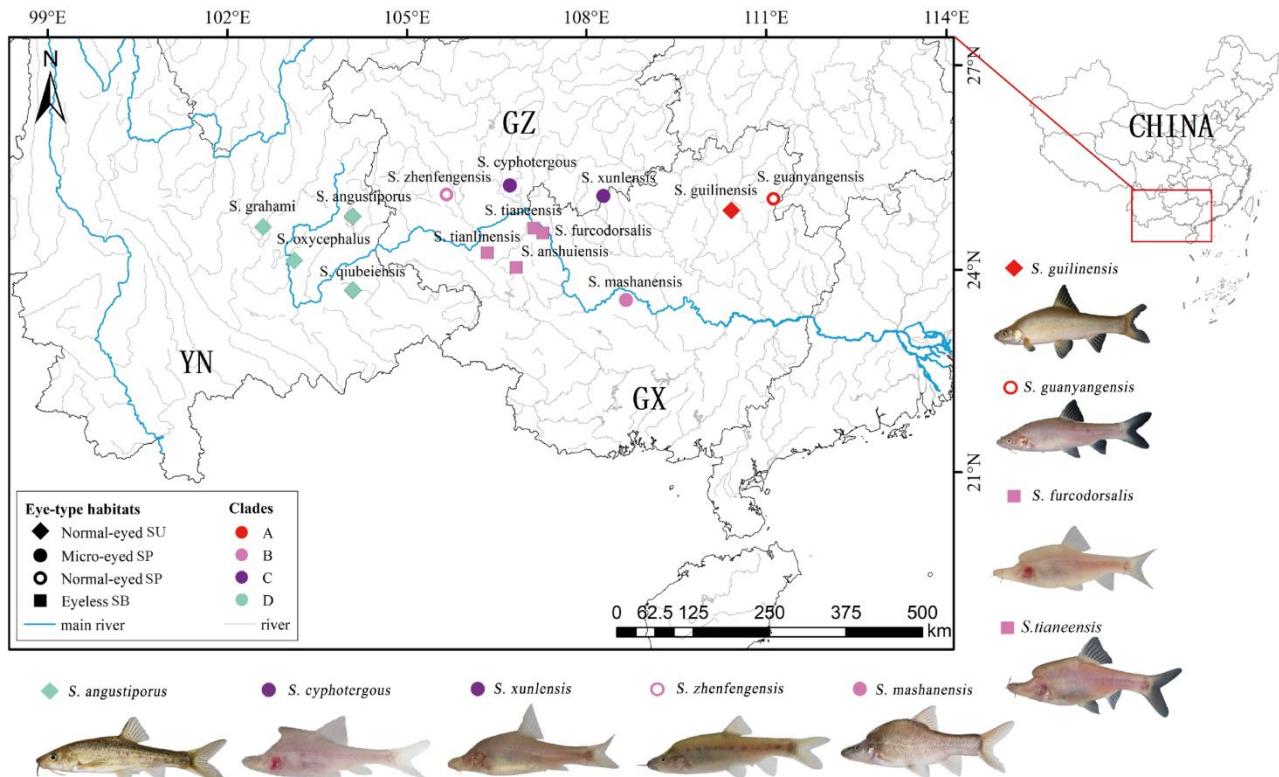
659 The immune responses of species from different habitats also exhibited variations. SUs displayed the  
660 mechanism by which macrophages combine to adapt immune resistance to microbial infection,  
661 indicating a stronger response to microbial challenges. In contrast, cave dwellers showed differences  
662 in immune response patterns, with SBs exhibiting stronger innate immune responses to microbes.  
663 Additionally, oxidative stress-related pathways were enriched in cave dwellers, potentially as a  
664 response to the unique challenges of their low-oxygen cave environments.

665 The analysis of transcriptional plasticity and convergent evolution in *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefish  
666 revealed interesting findings. Skin color adaptations were associated with differential gene expression  
667 patterns, particularly in the tyrosine metabolism pathway, which influences melanin production. The  
668 presence or absence of scales in different species was also observed, with scale regression prevalent in  
669 cave-dwelling species. These observations highlight the significance of skin morphology and gene  
670 expression in understanding the evolutionary relationships among *Sinocyclocheilus* species.

671 This research demonstrates the adaptability of cave-dwelling species to dynamic environments. The  
672 knowledge generated maybe useful also in predicting the processes of fish adaptation in response to  
673 habitat degradation and climate change. The genetic mechanisms underlying environmental  
674 adaptations, such as metabolic adjustments, immune responses, oxidative stress regulation, and  
675 phenotypic traits, contribute to our understanding of the broad-scale patterns of adaptation in  
676 *Sinocyclocheilus* skin for cave-dwelling. Further investigations are warranted to deepen our knowledge  
677 of skin evolution and its adaptive significance in this unique group of cavefish.

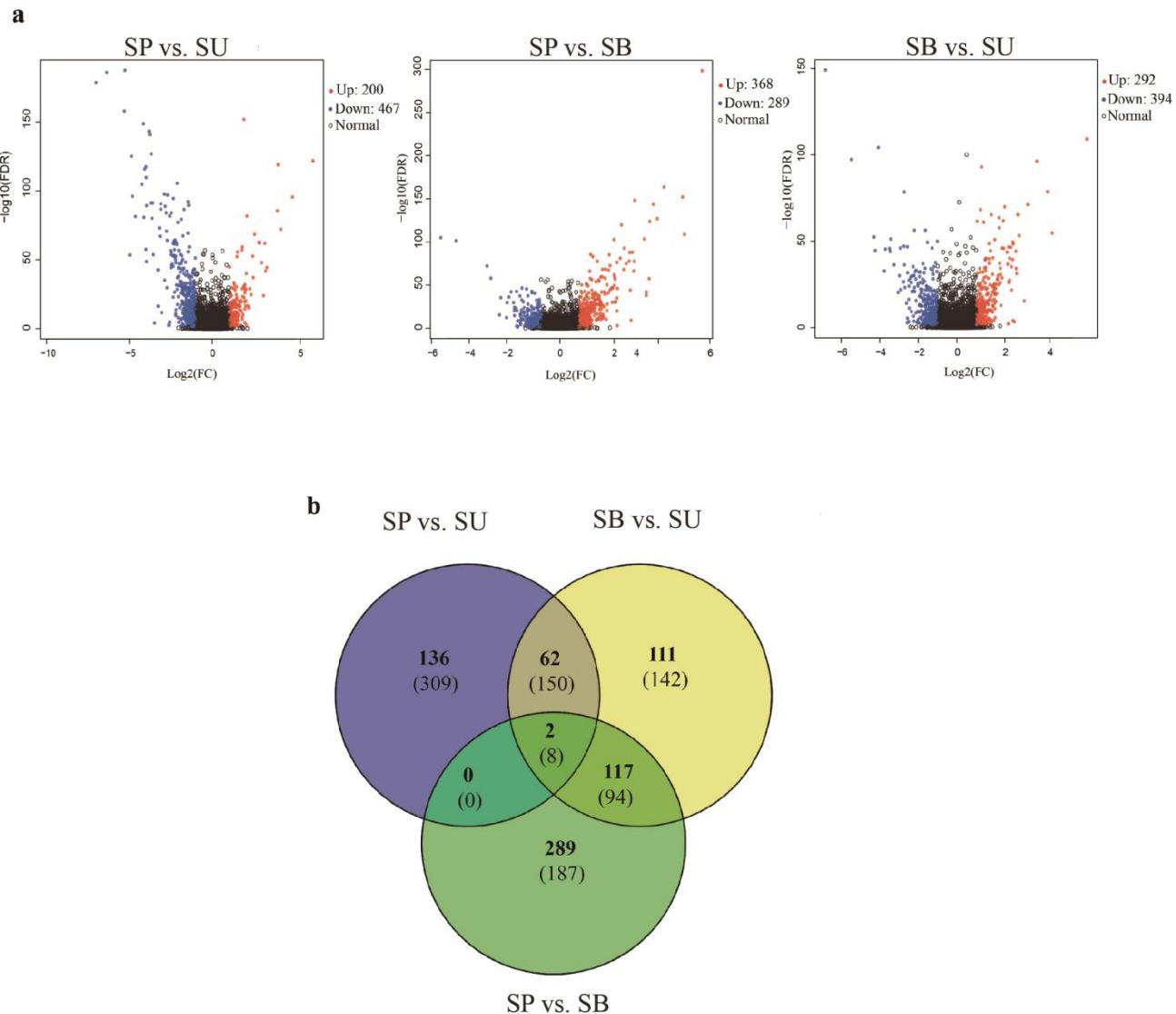
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679 **FIGURES**



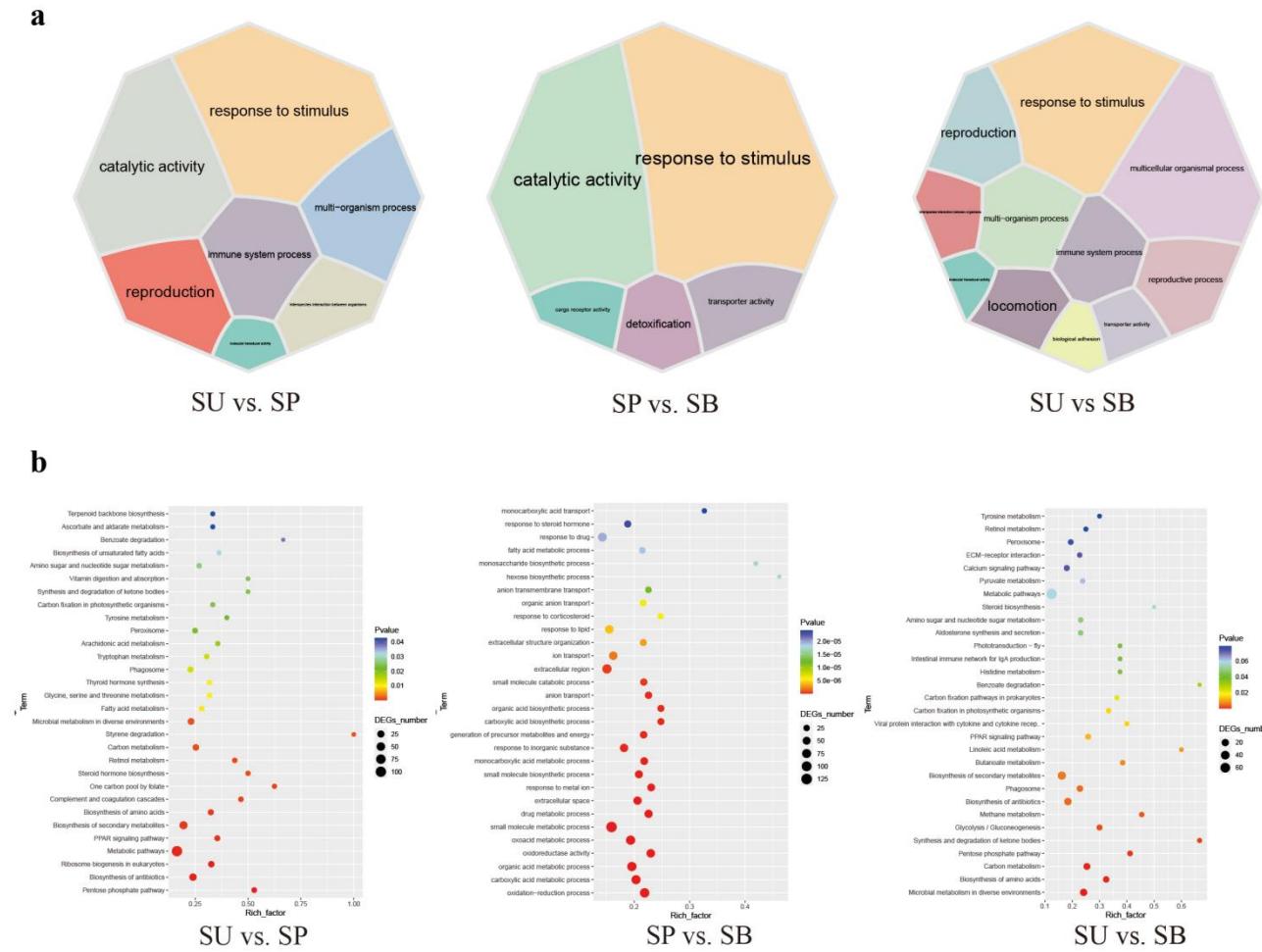
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Figure 1. Geographic distribution of sampling sites, morphotypes and clade affiliations for the 14 species representative of the 4 major clades of the *Sinocyclocheilus* radiation. Symbols represent eye-types and habitats; color represents their clades.



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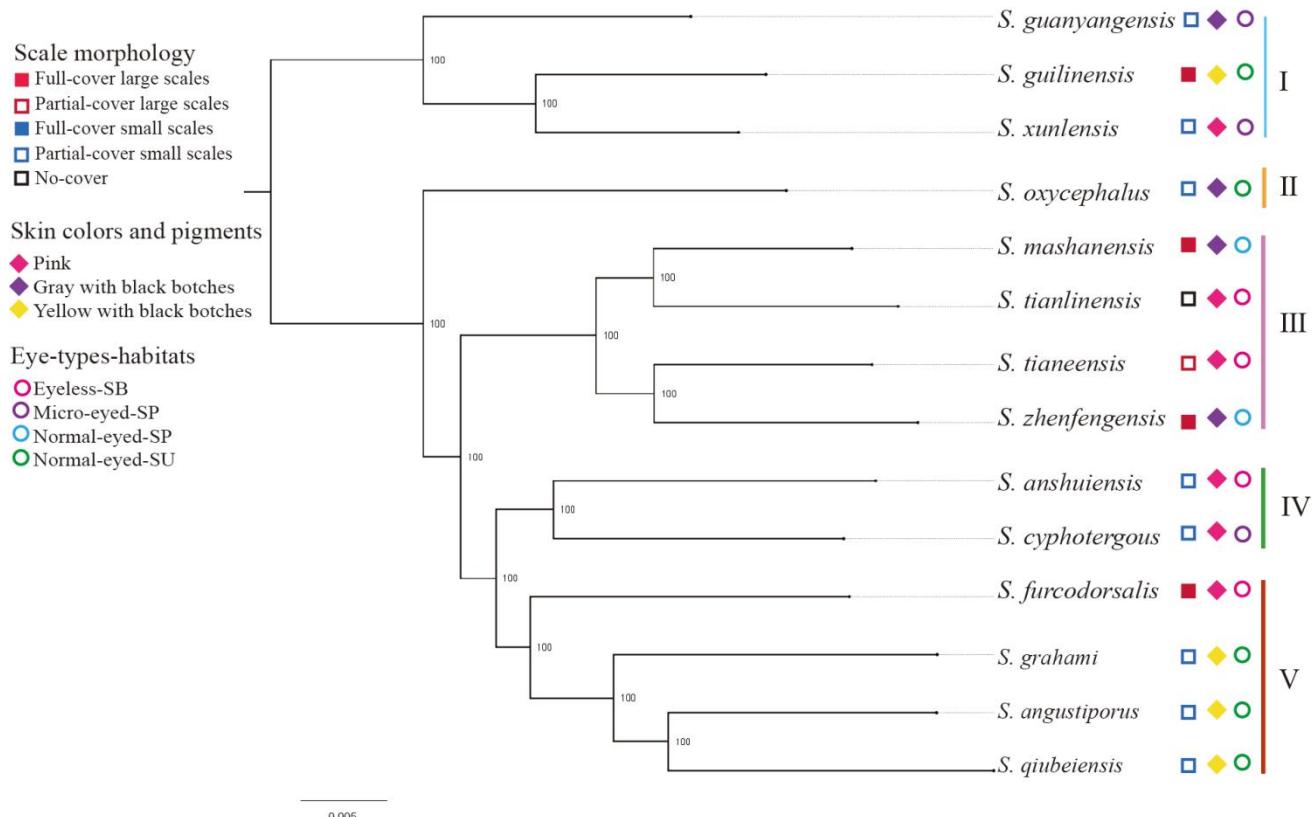
686 Figure 2. (A) Volcano plots of the distribution of DEGs between SU vs. SP, SP vs. SB and SU vs. SB.  
687 The x-axis shows log 2-fold change in gene expression. The y-axis shows -log 10 (p-value). The further  
688 away from 0 on the x-axis, the greater the change in expression, and the higher the y-axis, the greater  
689 the significance. Blue dots indicate up-regulation, red dots indicate down-regulation and black dots  
690 indicate no change in expression in the DEG. (B) Venn diagrams depict shared and unique variations  
691 in gene expression among the three main habitats (SU, SP and SB). The numbers in each section  
692 correspond to the number of DEGs from gene expression estimates. The number of up-regulated DEGs  
693 is listed at the top (in bold) and the number of down-regulated DEGs is listed at the bottom.



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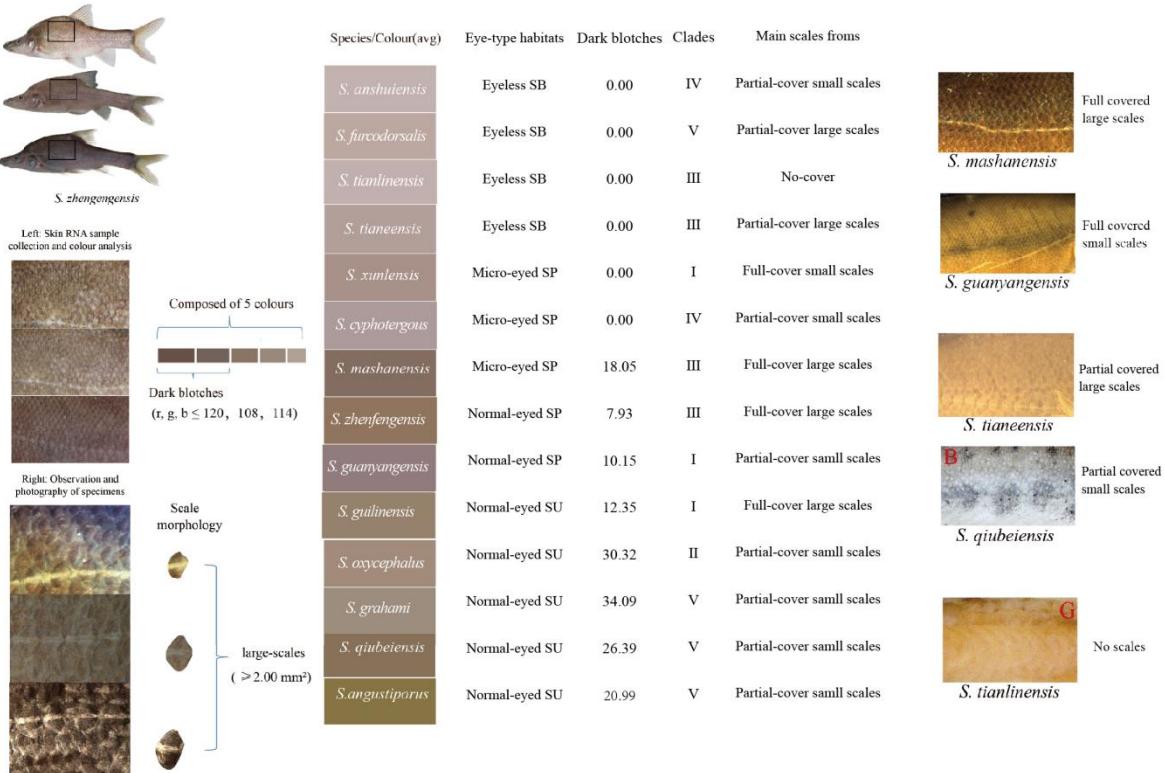
695 Figure 3. Enrichment maps for DEG among the three main habitats (SU, SP and SB). (A) Classification  
696 of GO terms significantly enriched in differentially expressed genes (DEGs). 7 GO categories in SU  
697 vs. SP; 5 GO categories in SP vs. SB, and 11 GO categories in SU vs. SB. Different GO categories are  
698 displayed in different colors, and the size of the module represents the number of DEGs associated  
699 with the corresponding functional item. (B) The top 30 KEGG pathways that are enriched in  
700 differentially expressed genes (DEGs), including SU vs. SP, SP vs. SB and SU vs. SB.

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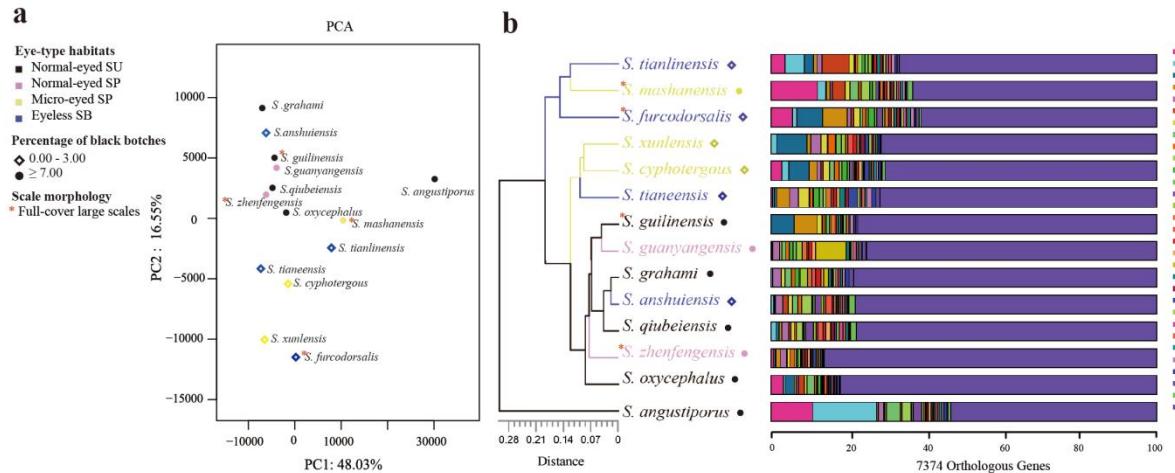
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Figure 4. Phylogeny of 14 *Sinocyclocheilus* species with the main clades and Lineages designated by I-V. The maximum likelihood tree was derived from the series data of 1,369 single-copy orthologous genes; bootstrap support is displayed at nodes.



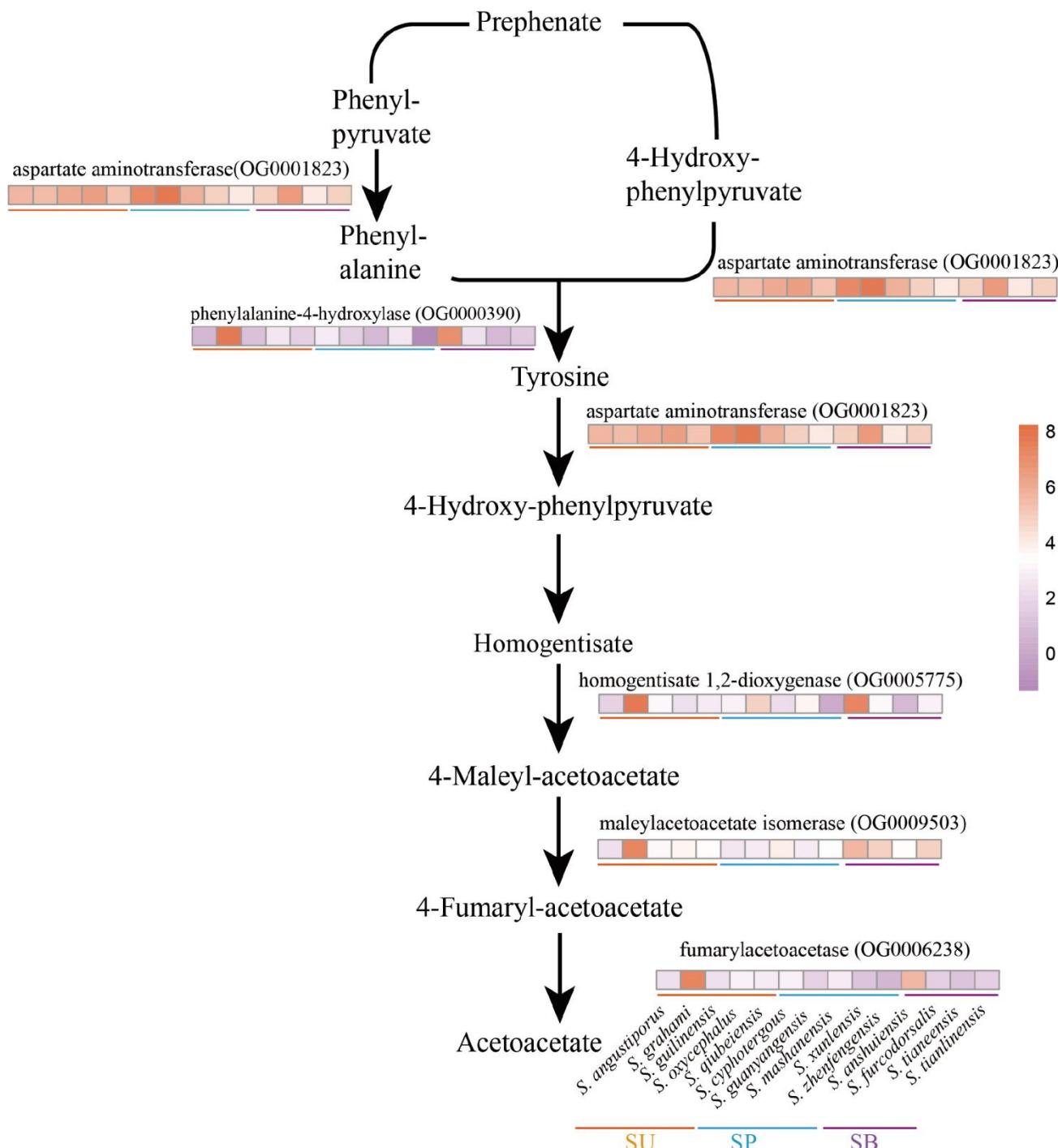
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Figure 5. Color and scales characteristics of the 14 *Sinocyclocheilus* species.



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Figure 6. Gene expression clustering of the 14 *Sinocyclocheilus* species based on 7374 orthologous genes. (A) PCA plot showing the relationship between gene expression patterns and habitats/skin morphologies. Together, PC1 and PC2 explain 64.58% of the variability. (B) The stacked bar diagram of cluster tree showing the expression differences of the top 30 orthologous genes with expression changes in different species, and the relationship between these orthologous gene expression changes and habitats/skin morphology.



716

717 Figure 7. Flow of phenylalanine metabolism and tyrosinase metabolism and heat map of related  
718 enzyme gene expression in 14 *Sinocyclocheilus* species. The darker the orange, higher the expression;  
719 the darker the purple, lower the expression.

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725 **TABLES**

726 Table 1. List of positive selection KEGG pathways including their terms, IDs and p-values.

Term	ID	P-Value
p53 signaling pathway	dre04115	0.00174693107042
Apoptosis	dre0421	0.00204127662297
Necroptosis	dre04217	0.00204127662297
Herpes simplex virus 1 infection	dre05168	0.00204127662297
Cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction	dre04060	0.00204127662297
MAPK signaling pathway	dre04010	0.00599480745402

727

728 **Conflict of Interest**

729 *The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial*  
730 *relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.*

731 **Author Contributions**

732 XL and MM: Conceptualization. XL, TM, YL: Data curation. XL, BC, TM, YL and MM:  
733 Methodology. XL: Software, formal analysis, data curation, visualization. XL, BC and MM: Writing  
734 the original draft. MM: Project administration and supervision. JY and MM: Resources. XL, MM, CB,  
735 TM, JY and YL: writing—review and editing. All authors contributed to the article and approved the  
736 submitted version.

737 **Ethics statement**

738 The animal study was reviewed and approved by Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of  
739 Guangxi University (GXU), Nanning-China (#GXU2021-126).

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