

1 **Deep-sea fish reveal alternative pathway for vertebrate visual development**

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22 23 **Abstract**

24 Vertebrate vision is accomplished by two phenotypically distinct types of photoreceptors in
25 the retina: the saturation-resistant cones for the detection of bright light and the highly
26 sensitive rods for dim light conditions [1]. The current dogma is that, during development, all
27 vertebrates initially feature a cone-dominated retina, and rods are added later [2, 3]. By
28 studying the ontogeny of vision in three species of deep-sea fishes, we show that their larvae
29 express cone-specific genes in photoreceptors with rod-like morphologies. Through
30 development, these fishes either retain this rod-like cone retina (*Maurolicus mucronatus*) or
31 switch to a retina with true rod photoreceptors with expression of rod-specific genes and
32 transcription factors (*Vinciguerria mabahiss* and *Benthoosema pterotum*). In contrast to the
33 larvae of most marine fishes, which inhabit the bright upper layer of the open ocean, the
34 larvae of deep-sea fishes occur deeper, exposing them to a dimmer light environment [4-7].

35 Spectral maxima predictions from molecular dynamics simulations and environmental light
36 estimations suggest that using transmuted photoreceptors that combine the characteristics of
37 both cones and rods maximises visual performance in these dimmer light conditions. Our
38 findings provide molecular, morphological, and functional evidence for the evolution of an
39 alternative developmental pathway for vertebrate vision.

40 **Main Text**

41 **Introduction**

42 Vertebrate vision has evolved to function in diverse photic environments, from bright and
43 colourful ecosystems, such as coral reefs and rainforests, to the near darkness found in caves
44 and the deep sea. In the vast majority of vertebrates, vision is accomplished by the interplay
45 of two types of retinal photoreceptors: rods and cones [8]. Rods are characterized by a
46 specialized morphology tailored towards photon capture with densely packed visual pigments
47 (opsins) and a highly sensitive phototransduction pathway, and function in dim-light
48 (scotopic) conditions (Table 1). In contrast, cones are morphologically and molecularly
49 primed for bright-light (photopic) conditions [1]. In intermediate (mesopic) light conditions,
50 rods and cones usually work together [9]. In a few species, however, transmuted (“hybrid”)
51 photoreceptors have been documented, which combine features of both cell types. These taxa
52 typically inhabit mesopic light environments (*e.g.*, pearlside fishes [10], lampreys [10], and
53 skates [11]) or have experienced a switch in diel activity period (*e.g.*, snakes and geckos
54 [11]).

55 The balance between rods and cones in the retina is finely tuned to ecological
56 demands [12-15]. For example, the spectral sensitivity of each photoreceptor type is typically
57 tuned to the wavelength of the prevailing light via their opsin pigments. The rod opsin (RH1)
58 is sensitive to a narrow range of blue-green light and multiple cone opsins (SWS1, SWS2,
59 RH2 and LWS) cover a broad sensitivity range from ultraviolet to red [16]. Furthermore,
60 while diurnal vertebrates typically have higher cone densities, their nocturnal counterparts
61 tend to have rod-dominated retinas [17-19]. This is pushed to the extreme in species with
62 pure rod retinas, such as some nocturnal reptiles [20] and many deep-sea fishes [21].
63 Nevertheless, the developmental trajectories that give rise to this retinal diversity are
64 remarkably conserved: vertebrates start their lives with cone-dominated retinas, with rods
65 emerging later in ontogeny [2, 3]. This “cones first – rods later” pathway of retinal
66 development suits the ecology of terrestrial vertebrates and most marine fishes, which
67 initially inhabit the bright upper pelagic ocean. However, it is seemingly mismatched with the
68 lifestyle of deep-sea fishes that spend their entire lives in deeper and dimmer waters [4-7],
69 and are characterized by morphologically rod-dominated retinas from early developmental
70 stages onwards [2, 22-24].

71 Like many other facets of their biology, our understanding of the development of the
72 visual system of deep-sea fishes is limited and, in part, contradictory. We thus set out to

73 examine in detail the retinal development of three deep-sea fish species: the lightfish
74 *Vinciguerria mabahiss* (Stomiiformes: Phosichthyidae), the hatchetfish *Maurolicus*
75 *mucronatus* (Stomiiformes: Sternoptychidae), and the lanternfish *Benthoosema pterotum*
76 (Myctophiformes: Myctophidae). These three species reside in different photic niches,
77 offering a unique opportunity to study photoreceptor development. Between larval and adult
78 stages, *V. mabahiss* switches from mesopic to scotopic conditions, *B. pterotum* switches from
79 photopic-mesopic to scotopic conditions, and *M. mucronatus* remains in mesopic conditions
80 throughout life [4, 6, 25-29]. Using light and electron microscopy, bulk retinal transcriptome
81 sequencing, amino acid sequence analysis, and spectral sensitivity predictions, we bridge the
82 gap between gene expression and morphology in deep-sea fishes to reveal how vision
83 develops in one of the dimmest and largest habitats on Earth.

84 **Results and Discussion**

85 *Visual gene expression*

86 The analysis of bulk retinal transcriptomes revealed that early larval stages of all three
87 species expressed exclusively or predominantly the green-sensitive cone opsin, *rh2*, and the
88 cone-specific phototransduction genes, *gnat2*, *arr3a* and *arr3b* (Fig. 1; Table S2). This is
89 congruent with findings in other deep-sea fish larvae [30]. Conversely, no expression of the
90 rod opsin (*rh1*) or rod-specific phototransduction genes (*gnat1*, *saga* and *sagb*) was observed
91 in the early stages of *V. mabahiss*. Low levels of *rh1* but no other rod-related
92 phototransduction genes were detected in larval *B. pterotum* (0.2% of total opsin expression
93 at pre-flexion, 3% at post-flexion), and low expression levels of all rod-specific genes were
94 found in larvae of *M. mucronatus* [*rh1* (0.2%), *gnat1* (0.1%), *saga* and *sagb* (0.3%) at post-
95 flexion]. Like in other deep-sea fishes [30], an ontogenetic switch from predominantly cone-
96 specific to rod-specific visual gene expression was observed in *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum*
97 (Fig. 1; Fig. S1-4; Table S2). For the species sampled at higher temporal density during
98 development (*V. mabahiss*), we could narrow down the timing of this switch to
99 metamorphosis (*i.e.*, between mid and late post-flexion), coinciding with the onset of this
100 species' migration to deeper and dimmer waters [4]. In contrast, *M. mucronatus* continued to
101 predominantly express cone opsin genes into adulthood [*rh2* (99.6%), cone arrestins (98.2%),
102 and cone transducins (99.7%)], similar to previous findings for *M. muelleri* [10]. Hence,
103 molecularly, the vertebrate cone-to-rod pathway is conserved in *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum*,
104 but not in *M. mucronatus*.

105 Detailed transcriptome mining and phylogenetic reconstructions (Fig. S1-2) revealed
106 that two *rh2* paralogs were expressed in *M. mucronatus* throughout life. In contrast, a single
107 *rh2* was expressed in larval *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum* (Table S2). The inverse was true of
108 *rh1*, with two and three different paralogs expressed in adult *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum*,
109 respectively, but only one in *M. mucronatus* throughout life. Several *rh2* paralogs are
110 common in many teleost species, especially in deep-sea fishes [31]. In contrast, most
111 vertebrates have only one *rh1* [32], and only a handful of teleosts (mainly deep-sea species)
112 have been shown to express multiple paralogs, including another species in the genus
113 *Benthoosema* [33]. The expression of several opsin genes suggests the presence of
114 photoreceptors with distinct spectral sensitivities in all species.

115

116 *Spectral sensitivities*

117 Using spectral maxima predictions based on an experimentally validated molecular dynamics
118 simulations-based approach [33, 34], we found that all three species examined had at least
119 two spectrally distinct visual opsins over ontogeny (Fig. 1B). Specifically, *V. mabahiss* and
120 *B. pterotum* each had one RH2 (sensitive to 474 nm and 470 nm, respectively) as larvae, but
121 switched to two RH1 pigments (sensitive to wavelengths between 496-499 nm in *V. mabahiss*
122 and 498-504 nm in *B. pterotum*) as adults. Conversely, *M. mucronatus* had the same
123 dominant visual opsins throughout life (two RH2s covering a 474-481 nm range). These
124 spectral sensitivities correlate with the light environment in which the different
125 developmental stages occur [6, 10, 25, 28]. We thus demonstrate that, just like in shallow-
126 water fishes [13, 16, 35], spectral tuning during ontogeny matches the prevailing light
127 environment in deep-sea fish species. The expression of multiple visual opsin genes with
128 distinct spectral sensitivities in all three species under investigation further suggests the
129 presence of several morphologically distinct photoreceptor types in their retinas.

130

131 *Photoreceptor Morphology*

132 Most vertebrates have a duplex retina containing both rods and cones, while many deep-sea
133 fishes feature pure rod retinas, at least as adults [21]. Based on light and electron microscopy,
134 we found a dominance of morphologically rod-like photoreceptors in the early developmental
135 stages of all three study species (Fig. 2; Fig. S5). All photoreceptors examined in the larvae
136 of *V. mabahiss* and *M. mucronatus* had long and cylindrical outer segments (OS), closed OS
137 disc membranes, and lacked a paraboloid or oil droplet, all of which are anatomical features
138 typical of rods. Similarly, most photoreceptors in larval *B. pterotum* were rod-like (Fig. S5);
139 however, a few cone-shaped cells with short, tapered OS and open, continuous OS disc
140 membranes were also observed (<10% of photoreceptors examined) (Fig. S6). This is in line
141 with previous work documenting morphologically rod-like cells in the larvae of other deep-
142 sea fishes, including lanternfishes [23, 26], a Macrouridae species [2], *Evermannella sp.*,
143 *Paraliparis sp.* and *Idiacanthus fasciola* [22]. However, the incidence of exclusively (in *V.*
144 *mabahiss* and *M. mucronatus*) or predominantly (in *B. pterotum*) morphologically rod-like
145 photoreceptors coincided with predominantly cone-specific retinal gene expression patterns
146 ($\geq 97\%$). This indicates that the retina is dominated by transmuted photoreceptors and
147 strongly suggests that the three deep-sea fish species studied here diverge from the conserved
148 cone-to-rod pathway of other vertebrates.

149 The adults of all three species had purely morphologically rod-like photoreceptors,
150 which coincided with rod-specific gene expression in *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum* and cone-
151 specific gene expression in *M. mucronatus* (Fig. 1-2; Fig. S5). This indicates an adult retina
152 composed purely of true rods in *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum*, similar to many other deep-sea
153 fishes [21]. However, as shown before [10], *Maurolicus* spp. have adult retinas dominated by
154 rod-like cones (99-99.6%), with a small population of true rods (0.4-1%) (Fig. S5). While the
155 morphology of larval and adult photoreceptors was quite similar, the photoreceptors of adults
156 of all species had substantially longer OS as well as incisures (Fig. S7). Furthermore, larvae
157 of all species had two morphologically distinct types of photoreceptor nuclei, while the adults
158 of *V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum* had only one type. In larvae, lighter-staining nuclei
159 dominated, congruent with the cone expression data, while the inverse was true of adults in
160 which rod gene expression dominated.

161

162 *Developmental transcription factor expression*

163 Previous work has shown that transcription factors (TFs), such as OTX5 (known as CRX in
164 mammals), ROR β , NR2e3, NRL, and THR β play a coordinated role in directing retinal
165 progenitor cells towards either a true cone or true rod cell fate. However, the regulation of
166 transmuted photoreceptor development is unknown [36]. We thus examined TF expression in
167 the three deep-sea species to understand the regulatory factors governing the development of
168 transmuted photoreceptors. We uncovered that *otx5* and *ror β* were consistently expressed in
169 all species at stages with rod-like cones, including earlier stages of *V. mabahiss* and *B.*
170 *pterotum* and all stages of *M. mucronatus* (Fig. 1; Table S3). Notably, these TFs continued to
171 be expressed in adults with only true rods (*V. mabahiss* and *B. pterotum*). This suggests that
172 OTX5, a TF associated with both rod and cone development in zebrafish [37, 38], and ROR β ,
173 a rod-associated TF in mice [39], may direct rod-like cone development in larvae and true-
174 rod development later in ontogeny.

175 In mammals, the synergistic action of OTX5 and ROR β activates the expression of
176 short-wavelength opsin genes [40]. Interestingly, mammals recruit rods from a short-
177 wavelength-sensitive cone lineage during ontogeny, a likely remnant of the selective
178 pressures experienced when switching to nocturnality during the Mesozoic [41, 42]. Deep-sea
179 fishes may experience comparable selective pressures due to migration from bright shallow
180 waters to the extremely dim deep sea. Thus, they may have convergently evolved or retained
181 an ancestral pathway that redirects a cone fate to rod-like cones in larvae before producing

182 true rods in adults. Finally, since the use of rod-like cones may facilitate the transition to a
183 pure rod retina both ontogenetically and evolutionarily, this adaptation may even have been
184 important during the colonisation of the deep sea.

185 We also found that the expression of *nr2e3*, a rod-specific TF in vertebrates [43-45],
186 correlates with the presence of true rods in deep-sea fishes. Furthermore, *B. pterotum* did not
187 express *nr2e3* at earlier stages when its true rods were not likely to be functional yet (*i.e.*, rod
188 opsin and rod-like morphology were present, but rod phototransduction gene expression was
189 absent; Fig. 1). Hence, we propose a temporal association between *nr2e3* expression and the
190 functional maturation of true rods in these species.

191 *Nrl* and *thrβ* were associated with a dominance of true rods in adults of *B. pterotum*
192 and *V. mabahiss*. Co-expression of these TFs can produce rods in mice [46]. Notably, *nrl* was
193 absent in late post-flexion *V. mabahiss*, which likely has an immature true rod retina (Fig. 1).
194 Therefore, NRL may be restricted to rod specification or maintenance in adult deep-sea fishes
195 and dispensable earlier in ontogeny, similar to adult mammals [47]. This further supports that
196 deep-sea fishes utilise an alternative, NRL-independent pathway to specify rod fate earlier in
197 ontogeny, similar to Atlantic cod [48].

198

199 *Photoreceptor transmutation in larval deep-sea fishes*

200 To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to report the discovery of larval retinas
201 dominated by rod-like cones in vertebrates. The only other vertebrate known to have
202 transmuted photoreceptors as larvae is the tiger salamander (*Ambystoma tigrinum*), in which
203 rod-like cones represent $\leq 1\%$ of photoreceptors [49, 50]. In contrast, rod-like cones were
204 already dominant in the youngest specimens in our study, which were sampled shortly after
205 hatching as pre-flexion larvae (Fig. 1-2). Possessing rod-like cones as larvae may make the
206 transition to the pure rod retina of adults more rapid and metabolically efficient. Furthermore,
207 since vision is primarily used after hatching, it is very likely that rod-like cones are the first
208 functionally relevant photoreceptors in these fishes. This is well aligned with ecology of these
209 species, as combining photoreceptor characteristics into a single rod-like cone is likely the
210 most efficient way to optimise vision in the mesopic conditions which these fish experience
211 (Fig. 3) [10]. Notably, transmuted photoreceptors were originally proposed to be an
212 evolutionary intermediate between the two canonical photoreceptor types, rods and cones,
213 that arose after an ecological shift [51]. However, since transmuted photoreceptors are well-
214 suited to the ecology of larval deep-sea fishes, it is more likely in this case that they represent

215 a newly evolved photoreceptor type adapted for a mesopic photic environment. Further work
216 is required to determine whether transmuted photoreceptors should be re-classified as a novel
217 photoreceptor type, rather than a “hybrid” intermediate between rods and cones.

218 Our data also suggest that photoreceptor transmutation in vertebrates may be more
219 widespread than previously thought. The fact that the species in this study fall into two
220 phylogenetically distant clades [Stomiati (*V. mabahiss* and *M. mucronatus*) and Neoteleostei
221 (*B. pterotum*)] that diverged nearly 200 Mya [52] combined with the shared mesopic
222 conditions of many deep-sea larvae, suggests that transmutation could be much more
223 common across the deep-sea teleost phylogeny. This is further supported by at least another
224 seven deep-sea species that are known to possess morphologically rod-like photoreceptors as
225 larvae [2, 22, 23, 26], and at least eleven other species predominantly expressing cone opsin
226 genes early in development [30]. Moreover, although the current study is the first to examine
227 morphology and gene expression together, two other studies independently showed rod-like
228 photoreceptors [22] and cone opsin gene expression [30] in larval stages of another deep-sea
229 fish: *Idiacanthus fasciola*.

230 Finally, photoreceptor transmutation has also been reported in taxa beyond the ray-
231 finned fishes, including reptiles (geckos [53-56] and snakes [57]), amphibians (salamanders
232 [49, 50]), cartilaginous fish (skate [58-60]), and jawless fish (lampreys [61, 62]). The
233 distribution of these photoreceptors across most vertebrate classes, as well as their presence
234 in an early diverging lineage (Agnatha), suggests that they could have evolved early on
235 during the diversification of vertebrates. Further work on species which experience mesopic
236 conditions, such as crepuscular species, will be required to determine the prevalence of
237 transmuted photoreceptors across the vertebrate phylogeny and to explore the evolutionary
238 history of this potentially novel photoreceptor type.

239 240 *Conclusion*

241 Using light and electron microscopy, bulk transcriptome sequencing, amino acid sequence
242 analysis, and spectral sensitivity predictions, we reveal a novel pathway for vertebrate visual
243 development in deep-sea fishes. We found that several phylogenetically distant deep-sea
244 fishes have retinas dominated by transmuted photoreceptors at early life stages, combining
245 the molecular machinery of cones with the morphology of rods to generate rod-like cones.
246 These transmuted photoreceptors are retained through to adulthood in *M. mucronatus*, while
247 *B. pterotum* and *V. mabahiss* later adopted retinas dominated by true rods. These

248 photoreceptor types are well suited to the photic conditions at each life stage. Furthermore,
249 we identified candidate TFs involved in the development of transmuted and true
250 photoreceptors in deep-sea fishes. Our findings advance our understanding of the
251 evolutionary dynamics of vision in unconventional and extreme environments and challenge
252 the existing paradigms for the classification of photoreceptors and the development of vision
253 in vertebrates.

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275

276 **Data Availability**

277 Newly identified sequences and sequenced transcriptomes will be available through GenBank
278 and the SRA archive upon publication. All other data will be available via Dryad (DOI) upon
279 publication or are provided in the main manuscript or Supplemental Information.

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444

445 **Methods**

446 *Animal collection and tissue preservation*

447 Three species of deep-sea fishes were collected for this study: *V. mabahiss*, *B. pterotum* and
448 *M. mucronatus* (Table S1). All specimens were collected from the Saudi Arabian Red Sea.
449 Larvae were collected aboard the research vessel R/V Al Azizi in March 2018. Larvae were
450 sampled at 0-200 metres depth during the day and night using oblique bongo net tows. Adults
451 were collected aboard the research vessel Thuwal in July 2014 using a Tucker trawl.

452 Following collection, fishes were sorted and identified on board to the lowest
453 taxonomic level possible. For each species, individuals were pooled by size and/or
454 developmental stage and fixed whole in either 4% paraformaldehyde [PFA; 4% (w/v) PFA in
455 0.01M phosphate-buffered saline] or RNAlater. Following fixation, fish were imaged
456 alongside a scale reference under a dissection microscope and eyes were enucleated for
457 processing. The standard length was subsequently measured from images using Fiji v1.53c
458 [63]. All procedures were approved by the University of Queensland Animal Ethics
459 Committee (ANRFA/014/18). The animal collection was in accordance with the regulations
460 of the King Abdullah University of Science and Technology, Saudi Arabia.

461

462 *Transcriptome sequencing, quality control and de novo assembly*

463 Retinal transcriptomes were sequenced for a total of 21 individuals: *V. mabahiss* [pre-flexion
464 larvae ($n=3$), early-mid post-flexion larvae ($n=4$), late post-flexion larvae ($n=1$), adults
465 ($n=5$)], *B. pterotum* [pre-flexion larvae ($n=1$), post-flexion larvae ($n=1$), adults ($n=4$)] and *M.*
466 *mucronatus* [flexion larvae ($n=1$), post-flexion larvae ($n=1$)]. The adult dataset was
467 completed with previously published transcriptomes [*B. pterotum* ($n=1$), *M. mucronatus*
468 ($n=5$)] [10, 33], resulting in a total dataset of 27 retinal transcriptomes spanning several life
469 stages in each of the species.

470 For all samples, retinal tissue was digested with Proteinase K (New England Biolabs)
471 for 15-30 min at 55°C. Total RNA was extracted and isolated using the Arcturus PicoPure
472 RNA Isolation Kit (Applied Biosystems) and the Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit for
473 larvae and adults, respectively. Genomic DNA was removed from all samples with RNase-
474 free DNase, and the quality and yield of isolated RNA were assessed using Eukaryotic Total
475 RNA 6000 kits (Pico kit for larvae and Nano kit for adults; Agilent Technologies) on the
476 Queensland Brain Institute's Bioanalyser 2100.

477 RNA extractions were shipped on dry ice and whole-retina transcriptome libraries
478 were prepared from total RNA at Novogene's sequencing facilities in Hong Kong and
479 Singapore. The Clontech SMART-Seq v4 Ultra Low Input RNA Kit and the NEBNext Ultra
480 RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina were used for larval samples. The NEBNext Ultra RNA
481 library preparation kit for Illumina was used for adult samples. The concentration of each
482 library was checked using a Qubit dsDNA BR Assay kit prior to barcoding and pooling at
483 equimolar ratios. Libraries were sequenced as 150 bp paired-end reads on an Illumina
484 NovaSeq 6000 S4 flow cell. Libraries were trimmed and *de novo* assembled as per the
485 methods described in de Busserolles et al., 2017 [10]. Briefly, read quality was assessed using
486 FastQC (v0.72), raw reads were trimmed and filtered using Trimmomatic (v0.36.6) and
487 transcriptomes were *de novo* assembled with Trinity (v2.8.4) using the genomics virtual
488 laboratory on the Galaxy platform at usegalaxy.org [64].

489

490 *Visual gene mining and differential expression analyses*

491 Published cytochrome C oxidase subunit I (*COI*), opsin, transducin and arrestin gene
492 sequences for *M. mucronatus* were obtained from GenBank. The remaining *COI*, opsin,
493 transducin, arrestin and transcription factor (TF) genes were mined from the transcriptome in
494 Geneious Prime v2021.1.1 (Biomatters Ltd, version 2019.0.4). All expression analyses were
495 also conducted in Geneious Prime. Initially, *COI* genes were extracted from *de novo*
496 assembled transcriptomes for species identification by mapping to species-specific references
497 from Genbank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>) with medium sensitivity settings.
498 Opsin, transducin, arrestin and TF gene extractions were performed by mapping assembled
499 transcriptomes to published coding sequences (CDS) for the most phylogenetically similar
500 species available on Genbank using customised sensitivity settings (fine-tuning, none;
501 maximum gap per read, 15%; word length, 14; maximum mismatches per read, 40%;
502 maximum gap size, 50 bp; index word length, 12; paired reads must both map). Contigs
503 mapped to references were scored for similarity against publicly available sequences using
504 BLASTn (NCBI, Bethesda, MD, <https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). One of the
505 limitations of *de novo* assembly of highly similar genes (such as opsin gene paralogs) using
506 short-read transcripts is that it can produce erroneous (chimeric) sequences or fail to
507 reconstruct lowly expressed transcripts. Thus, for the opsin genes, a second approach was
508 also employed using a manual extraction method from back-mapped reads to verify the
509 initially extracted opsin genes, as per de Busserolles et al., 2017 [10].

510 During manual gene extraction, filtered paired reads were mapped against the closest
511 reference CDS (with previously stated customised sensitivity settings). Matching reads were
512 connected by following single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across genes with continual
513 visual inspection for ambiguity and were extracted as paired mates to mitigate sequence gaps.
514 The consensus of an assembly of these extracted reads was used as the reference for low
515 sensitivity (high accuracy, 100% identity threshold) mapping. Partial CDS extractions were
516 cyclically mapped using the low-sensitivity approach to prolong and subsequently remap
517 reads until a complete CDS was obtained.

518 To confirm the identity of all genes mined from the transcriptome, full coding
519 sequences were checked on BLASTn. Subsequently, opsin, transducin and arrestin genes
520 were further characterised using gene phylogenies. Briefly, the extracted CDS were used in
521 conjunction with reference datasets obtained from Genbank
522 (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/) and Ensembl (www.ensembl.org/) to phylogenetically
523 reconstruct separate gene phylogenies [10]. All gene sequences were aligned using the
524 MUSCLE plugin v3.8.425 [65] in Geneious Prime. MrBayes v3.2.6 [66] on CIPRES [67]
525 was used to reconstruct phylogenetic trees from the aligned sequences using the following
526 parameters for each reconstruction: GTR+I+G model, two independent MCMC searches with
527 four chains each, 10 million generations per run, 1000 generations sample frequency, and
528 25% burn-in. The generated trees were manually edited in Figtree v1.4.4 [68].

529 For differential expression analyses, gene paralogs were first scored on similarity
530 using pairwise/multiple alignments. The similarity score minus one was used as the gene-
531 specific maximum % mismatch threshold for mapping (paired) transcripts back onto
532 complete extracted opsin CDS to ensure that reads did not map to multiple paralogs. Absolute
533 gene expression in \log_{10} TPM (Transcripts Per Kilobase Million) was then calculated as
534 follows, where T_{gene} represents the number of transcripts mapped to each gene and
535 $T_{transcriptome}$ is the number of transcripts per transcriptome:

$$536 \frac{T_{gene} \div gene\ length}{\sum(T_{transcriptome} \div gene\ length)} \times 10^6$$

537 Finally, proportional gene expression was also determined for the opsin, transducin
538 and arrestin genes. Proportional expression was calculated as the number of reads mapped to
539 a particular gene (*e.g.*, *rhl*) divided by the number of reads mapped to all genes in that family
540 (*e.g.*, all opsins), adjusted to account for differing gene lengths. Further proportional

541 comparisons were made within subfamilies using the same method, for example, to find the
542 proportional expression of a particular paralog (*e.g.*, *rh1-1*) within a subfamily (*e.g.*, *rh1*).

543

544 *Spectral maxima predictions based on atomistic molecular dynamics simulations*

545 Opsin gene sequences mined from the transcriptomes were translated and used to determine
546 the peak spectral sensitivities (λ_{\max}) of each of the 10 deep-sea visual photopigments using
547 experimentally validated statistical models based on dynamical features derived from the
548 molecular dynamics simulations [33, 34, 69]. The statistical model used for RH1 opsins was:

$$549 \quad \lambda_{\max} = 831.762 + 5.851 \times \text{Angle } 3 - 2.997 \times \text{Torsion } 15 + 45.585 \times \text{DisulfideBridge}$$

550 While for RH2 opsins the model was:

$$551 \quad \lambda_{\max} = 475.628 - 8.72 \times \text{Torsion } 15 + 34.925 \times \text{AUC_RMSF}$$

552 Here, Angle 3 (C3–C7–C8) and Torsion 15 (C7–C6–C5–C18) are the median values obtained
553 from the molecular dynamics simulations, AUC_RMSF is the area under the curve (AUC) of
554 the root mean square fluctuations (RMSF) of the chromophore 11-*cis* retinal bound to known
555 lysine residue, and DisulfideBridge indicates the presence or absence of a cystein-cystein
556 bridge between aligned positions 111 and 188 in the opsin protein.

557 The opsin amino acid sequences from 10 deep-sea visual photopigments were used as
558 input to calculate the parameters needed for these statistical models. Structures were prepared
559 for all opsin sequences using AlphaFold v2.3.1 [70] with GPU relaxation. The top minimized
560 3-dimensional structure (measured by the predicted local distance difference test - pLDDT)
561 for each deep-sea fish visual photopigment was then used to carry out molecular dynamics
562 simulations and analysis, as previously described [33, 34, 69]. Briefly, the software package
563 GROMACS 2022.5 [71] was used for all 100 ns molecular dynamics simulations with the
564 Charmm36m forcefield [72] in presence of an explicit bilayer consisting of 1-stearoyl-2-
565 docosahexaenoylphosphatidylcholine (SDPC) lipids. Median values for Angle 3, Torsion 15,
566 AUC of RMSF, and presence/absence of the DisulfideBridge were used as inputs for
567 calculating λ_{\max} using the statistical models described above.

568

569 *Retinal histology*

570 Retinal morphology was assessed in a total of 20 individuals. For each, one eye was
571 processed for histological analyses: *V. mabahiss* [pre-flexion larvae ($n=2$), flexion larvae
572 ($n=1$), early-mid post-flexion larvae ($n=6$), late post-flexion larvae ($n=2$), adults ($n=2$)], *B.*
573 *pterotum* [pre-flexion larvae ($n=1$), post-flexion larvae ($n=2$), adult ($n=1$)] and *M.*

574 *mucronatus* [flexion larvae ($n=1$), post-flexion larvae ($n=1$), adult ($n=1$)]. Whole, enucleated
575 eyes were post-fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% osmium tetroxide, progressively
576 dehydrated in increasing concentrations of ethanol, infiltrated with EPON resin and
577 polymerized at 60°C for 48 h. For light micrographs, 1 μm -thick radial sections were cut on a
578 Leica ultramicrotome (Ultracut UC6) and stained with 0.5% toluidine blue. For transmission
579 electron micrographs, radial 90 nm-thick sections were air-dried onto copper mesh grids,
580 stained with lead citrate and uranyl acetate and imaged using a Hitachi HT 7700 transmission
581 electron microscope. Differentiation between rod- and cone-like morphology was based on
582 ultrastructural features (Table 1). Specifically, rod-like cells were characterised by long,
583 cylindrical OS, closed OS disc membranes, and the absence of a paraboloid or oil droplet.
584 Conversely, photoreceptors were classified as cone-like if they had short, tapered OS and
585 open, continuous OS disc membranes. The quality of the samples did not permit clear
586 morphological observations of the synaptic terminals, so these were not considered.

587 **Tables and Figures**

588 **Table 1. Summary of the characteristics of rod-like cones of different species compared**

589 **to true rods and true cones.** Adapted from de Busserolles et al., 2017 [10]. *, this study.

590 Salamander is the tiger salamander, *Ambystoma tigrinum*. Pearlside is *Maurollicus muelleri*

591 (adults) or *M. mucronatus* (larvae). Snake data are for the nocturnal genus *Hypsiglena*. The

592 gecko is the nocturnal Tokay gecko, *Gekko gekko*. Lightfish is *Vinciguerria mabahiss*.

593 Lanternfish is the Skinnycheek lanternfish, *Benthoosema pterotum*. R, rod-like; C, cone-like;

594 n.a., not available; poly, polysynaptic.

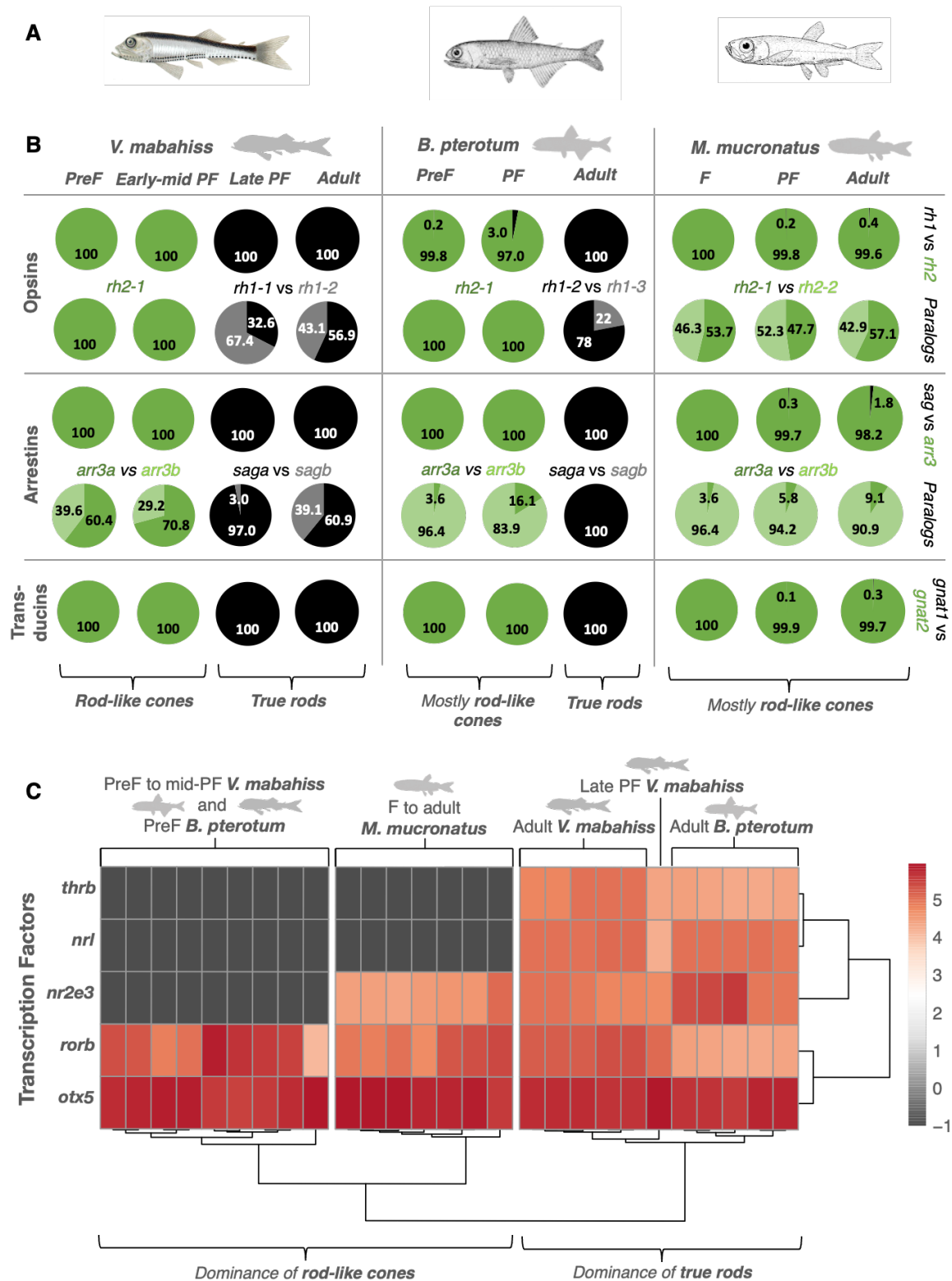
595

Photoreceptor Characteristics	True rod [1, 73]	True cone [1, 73]	Rod-like cone						
			Gecko [53, 54, 56]	Snake [51, 74]	Salamander [49, 50]	Pearlside [10]	Pearlside larvae (*)	Lightfish larvae (*)	Lanternfish larvae (*)
Outer segment shape	Long, rod-shaped (cylindrical)	Short, cone-shaped (distally tapering)	R	R	R	R	R	R	R
Outer segment discs	Individual sealed disc, separated from plasma membrane	Discs continuous with plasma membrane (open)	R C	n.a.	n.a.	R	R	R	R
Incisure	Present	Absent	R	n.a.	R	R	C	C	C
Paraboloid	Absent	Present	C	R	R	R	R	R	R
Oil droplet	Absent	Sometimes	R	R	R	R	R	R	R
Synaptic ending	Small, spherical, oligosynaptic	Large, conical, flat-end base, polysynaptic	C	n.a.	R C Small poly	R C Small poly	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Opsin	<i>rh1</i>	<i>sws1</i> , <i>sws2</i> , <i>lws</i> , <i>rh2</i>	C <i>rh2</i>	C <i>sws1</i> <i>lws</i>	C <i>sws2</i>	C <i>rh2-1</i> <i>rh2-2</i>	C <i>rh2-1</i> <i>rh2-2</i>	C <i>rh2</i>	C <i>rh2</i>
Spectral sensitivity (nm)	480-510 nm	<i>rh2</i> , 450–530 <i>sws1</i> , 360–440 <i>sws2</i> , 400–450 <i>m/lws</i> , 510–560	C 521	C 358, 536	C 432	C 441 (both; [10]); 474, 480 (*)	C 474, 480	C 474	C 470

Phototransduction cascade	Rod-like (<i>e.g., gnat1, saga, sagb</i>)	Cone-like (<i>e.g., gnat2, arr3a, arr3b</i>)	C(R)	n.a.	R	C	C	C	C
Cell physiology	Rod properties (high sensitivity)	Cone properties (fast, never saturate)	R	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

596

597

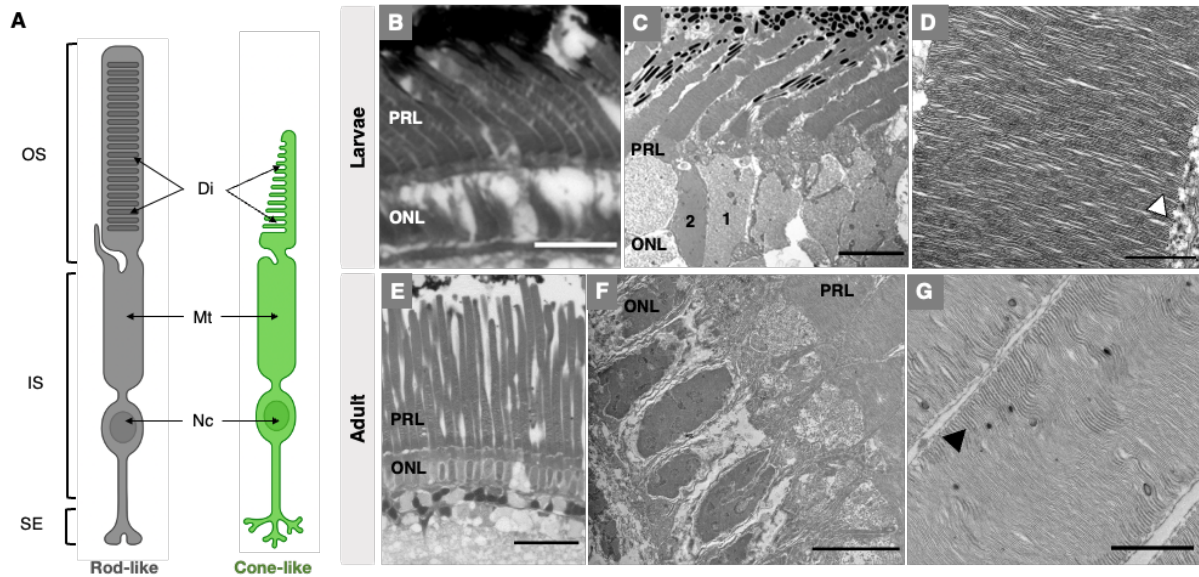


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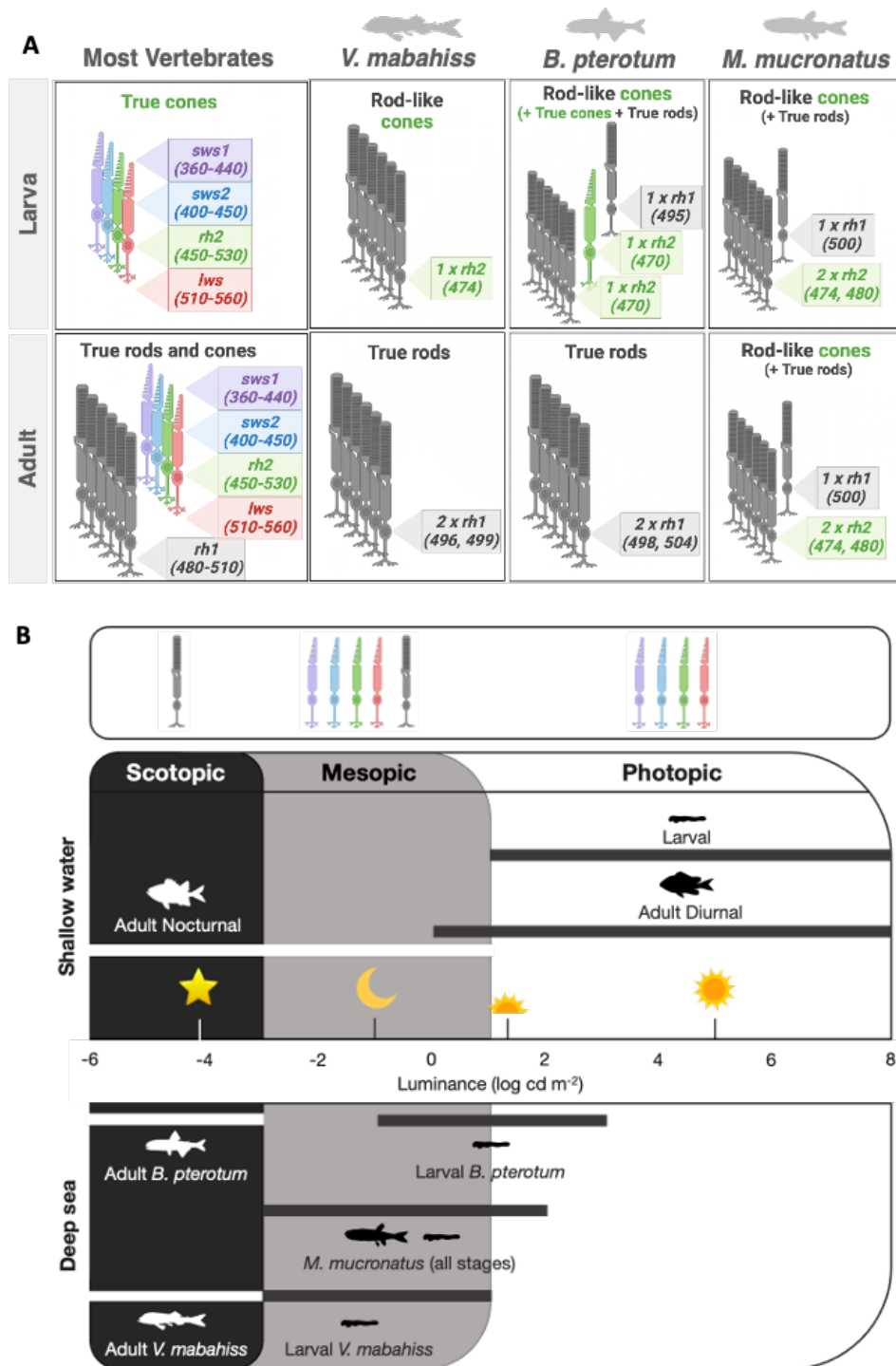
600 **Fig. 1. Molecular basis for visual development in deep-sea fishes.** A. Illustrations of the
 601 species used in this study (left to right): *Vinciguerria mabahiss* [75], *Benthosema pterotum*
 602 [76] and *Maurolicus mucronatus* [77]. B. Mean proportional expression of opsin, arrestin and
 603 transducin genes in the retina over ontogeny (given as a % of total gene family expression for
 604 subclasses or as a % of total gene subclass expression for paralogs). Cone-specific genes are

605 coloured green while rod-specific genes are coloured grey/black. **C.** Heatmap showing per-
606 specimen retinal expression (in \log_{10} TPM) of transcription factors involved in photoreceptor
607 development. PreF, pre-flexion; F, flexion; PF, post-flexion. *arr3*, arrestin 3; *sag*, S-antigen
608 arrestin; *rh1*, rhodopsin 1 (rod opsin); *rh2*, rhodopsin 2; *otx5*, orthodenticle homolog 5; *rorb*,
609 RAR related orphan receptor B; *nr2e3*, nuclear receptor subfamily 2 group E member 3; *thrb*,
610 thyroid hormone receptor β ; *nrl*, neural retina leucine zipper.
611



612

613 **Fig. 2. Morphological basis for visual development in deep-sea fishes.** A. Schematic of
614 photoreceptors with rod-like or cone-like morphology. B-G. Representative light (B, E) and
615 transmission electron (C-D, F-G) micrographs of the photoreceptor layers in early larval and
616 adult *V. mabahiss*. In both larvae and adults, the retina was dominated by morphologically
617 rod-like photoreceptors, with long, cylindrical outer segments (B-C, E-F) and closed outer
618 segment discs (D, G; arrowhead). Notably, larvae had two morphological types of nuclei in
619 the outer nuclear layer (ONL) characterised by lighter (type 1) or darker (type 2) chromatin
620 staining (C), while adults had only one type with darker chromatin staining (F). OS, outer
621 segment; IS, inner segment; SE, synaptic ending; Di, discs; Mt, mitochondria; Nc, nucleus;
622 PRL, photoreceptor layer; ONL, outer nuclear layer. Scale bars: B, 10 μm ; C, F, 5 μm ; D,
623 500 nm; E, 25 μm ; G, 1 μm .



624

625

626 **Fig. 3. Functional relevance of novel developmental pathway in deep-sea fishes.**

627 **A.** Schematic of photoreceptor development showing the conserved cone-to-rod pathway of

628 most vertebrates and the developmental models for the deep-sea fish species from this study.

629 Photoreceptor cartoon denotes morphology (rods coloured grey, cones coloured green), while

630 opsin gene expression (subclass, copy number and predicted spectral maxima) is detailed in

631 inset boxes. Note that larval deep-sea fish possess mostly rod-like cones, while most

632 vertebrates have true cones as larvae. **B.** Schematic of photic environments of shallow-water

633 and deep-sea fishes over ontogeny (coloured boxes), showing the functional ranges of

634 different photoreceptor types (arrows) and light environments experienced by different
635 species and life stages (inset bars) [6, 10, 25, 28]. In shallow-water fish, the larvae inhabit
636 photopic conditions and the retina has only true cones. Conversely, adults inhabit dimmer
637 conditions, and the retina has both true rods and true cones. In deep-sea species, larvae
638 inhabit predominantly mesopic conditions and have mostly rod-like cones. In adults, *M.*
639 *mucronatus* remains in mesopic conditions and retains rod-like cones, while the other two
640 species migrate to scotopic conditions and adopt pure rod retinas. Environmental light
641 sources (from left to right) are as follows: starlight, full moon, civil twilight, sunset/sunrise,
642 and sunlight [78]. Figure partially redrawn from de Busserolles et al., 2017 [10].